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DJOUMESSI TEMFACK Fernand

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Examination committee:

Pr. Dr. BODET, Guillaume	University of Lyon I (France)	President
Pr. Dr. CHANAVAT, Nicolas	University of Rouen (France)	Reporter
Pr. Dr. HOVEMANN Gregor	University of Leipzig (Germany)	Reporter
Pr. Dr. KÖPPEN Bernhard	University of Koblenz (Germany)	Examiner
Dr. LEBRUN, Anne-Marie	University of Burgundy (France)	Supervisor
Pr. Dr. SCHANTZ, Otto J	University of Koblenz (Germany)	Co-supervisor

Acknowledgments

To Gepson my sister and best friend

Thalas!

Abstract

Disability is a commonly encountered and apparently self-evident concept which we encounter on a daily basis in our societies and the media. Yet, this concept is actually contentious and does not readily lend itself to a consensus understanding, as several models have been used to explain disability. It is common sense that the concept of impairment is as old as *Homo sapiens*. The concept of disability—as a response to impairment—might also be as old as *Homo sapiens*, and has often been used by scientists to assess the solidarity level of prehistoric human groups or societies. Unlike the concept of disability, that of high-performance disability sport (hereafter often referred to as Paralympic sport) is recent in the millennia-long history of sporting and physical practices (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a, b). This recent phenomenon struggles—along with its practitioners—to meet the same level of acceptance and "naturalisation" as its Olympic counterpart (Silva and Howe, 2018). This work is an inquiry into our current society's response to impairment in a sporting context, aiming to analyse it from a mixed social psychology and marketing standpoint—that is, researching variables that can help us to describe, explain, understand and model people's Paralympic sport consumption behaviour(s) from an inter-national perspective. Compared to its Olympic counterpart, Paralympic sport has received very little attention from social scientists. Among the few existing works of social science on Paralympic sport, the overwhelming majority has been conducted using a qualitative methodological approach. Very few studies have investigated people's Paralympic sport consumption behaviour(s) from a quantitative perspective. While these quantitative efforts have been exclusively based on a single theoretical approach for explaining Paralympic sport consumption behaviour, and geographically carried out in a single city, this work offers to analyse and deepen from a syncretic and quantitative perspective the understanding of people's consumption behaviour towards Paralympic sport during the Tokyo (2021) Paralympics. It is theoretically grounded in the revised theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), the theory of social representations (Moscovici, 1961), the North American motives and constraints (Kim and Trail, 2010, 2011) and points of attachment (Trail, Robinson, Dick and Gillentine, 2003) theories of sport consumption behaviour, and the theories of media influence on groups' perceptions (McCombs and Shaw, 1972; Gerbner 1967), and it was geographically carried out in three countries: Cameroon, France and Germany. Due to the conjectural Covid-19 situation that compelled the International Paralympic Committee to

stage the Tokyo (2021) Paralympics without (onsite) spectators, and the fact that media has already been well established as the main channel through which people experience Paralympic sport (Schantz and Gilbert, 2012a, b, Brittain, 2016), we operationalised Paralympic sport consumption behaviour into Paralympic sport media consumption behaviour and word-of-mouth. However, we gave priority to Paralympic sport media consumption in the interpretation of the results. The results suggest that at an international level, the affective attitude is the only direct predictor of Paralympic sport media consumption. Besides this cross-country predicate, while knowledge, past behaviours, and media publicity are direct predictors of Paralympic sport media consumption in Cameroon, social norms and national identity are direct predictors of Paralympic sport media consumption in France, and media publicity, national identity and past behaviours are direct predictors of Paralympic sport media consumption in Germany. On the basis of these results, we have made several recommendations to national and international Paralympic sport governing bodies and media for increasing the Paralympic sport audience.

Résumé

La notion de handicap semble triviale parce que nous la rencontrons chaque jour dans nos sociétés ou nos médias. Toutefois, ce concept ne fait pas l'unanimité, puisque plusieurs modèles ont été convoqués pour décrire et expliquer ce que c'est que le handicap. Il va de soi que le concept de déficience serait aussi vieux que l'homo sapiens. Le concept de handicap – entendu comme réponse élaborée face à une déficience – serait tout aussi vieux que celui de déficience, et a souvent été utilisé par la communauté scientifique pour mesurer le degré de solidarité des groupes ou sociétés préhistoriques. Contrairement au concept de handicap, celui de sport de haut niveau pour personnes en situation de handicap est récent dans l'histoire millénaire des pratiques sportives et / ou corporelles (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a, b). Tout comme les personnes qui le pratiquent, ce phénomène peine à rencontrer le même assentiment que son homologue olympique (Silva and Howe, 2018). Ce travail questionne et analyse avec un regard mixte combinant la psychologie sociale et le marketing la façon dont les sociétés contemporaines répondent à la notion de déficience dans un contexte sportif. Pour ce faire, il identifie et examine les variables à même de décrire, expliquer, et permettre de comprendre et de modéliser d'un point de vue inter-national les comportements de consommation à l'égard du sport paralympique lors des jeux paralympiques de Tokyo (2021). Comparativement à son homologue olympique, le sport paralympique a peu bénéficié de l'attention de la communauté scientifique. Parmi le peu de recherches qui se sont intéressées au sport paralympique, une écrasante majorité a été conduite de façon qualitative. Très peu d'études sur le sport paralympique ont investigué de façon quantitative les comportements de consommation à l'égard du sport paralympique. Alors que ces dernières ont été basées sur une approche théorique unique et menées dans une seule ville, la présente s'est proposée d'analyser et d'approfondir d'un point de vue syncrétique et quantitatif la compréhension des comportements de consommation à l'égard du sport paralympique. Elle est théoriquement basée sur la théorie (révisée) du comportement planifié (Ajzen, 1991), la théorie des représentations sociales (Moscovici, 1961), la tradition nord-américaine de prédiction des comportements de consommation en contexte sportif à base des motivations et des contraintes (Kim et Trail, 2010, 2011) et des points d'attachement (Trail, Robinson, Dick et Gillentine, 2003), et les théories d'influence des médias sur les perceptions et les représentations (McCombs et Shaw,

1972; Gerbner 1967), et géographiquement menée dans trois pays, notamment le Cameroun, la France et l'Allemagne. En raison des contraintes conjoncturelles liées à la Covid 19 qui a contraint le Comité International Paralympique à organiser les jeux paralympiques de Tokyo (2021) sans spectateur (sur les sites), et du fait qu'il a été démontré que les médias constituent le principal canal à travers lequel les personnes ont accès aux spectacles de sport paralympique (Schantz et Gilbert, 2012a, b; Brittain, 2016), nous avons opérationnalisé le comportement de consommation du sport paralympique en consommation médiatique du sport paralympique et bouche à oreille, en donnant toutefois la priorité à la consommation médiatique. Les résultats suggèrent à un niveau transnational que la dimension affective de l'attitude est le seul prédicteur direct de la consommation médiatique du sport paralympique. Au-delà de ce prédicat, la dimension cognitive de l'attitude, les comportements antérieurs et la publicité médiatique sont les prédicteurs directs de la consommation médiatique du sport paralympique au Cameroun, tandis que les normes sociales et l'identité nationale sont les prédicteurs directs de la consommation médiatique du sport paralympique en France et la publicité médiatique, l'identité nationale et les comportements antérieurs les prédicteurs directs de la consommation médiatique du sport paralympique en Allemagne. A la base de ces résultats, nous proposons plusieurs recommandations aux instances nationales et internationales chargées du sport paralympique et aux médias afin d'améliorer l'attractivité du sport paralympique.

Zusammenfassung

Behinderung ist ein gängiger und scheinbar selbstverständlicher Begriff, da er uns täglich in unserer Gesellschaft und/oder in den Medien begegnet. Dennoch ist dieser Begriff umstritten und lässt nur wenig Raum für Einstimmigkeit, da verschiedene Modelle zur Erklärung von Behinderung herangezogen wurden. Es ist allgemein bekannt, dass das Konzept der Beeinträchtigung so alt ist wie der Homo Sapiens. Das Konzept der Behinderung - als Reaktion auf eine Beeinträchtigung - könnte ebenfalls so alt sein wie der Homo sapiens und wurde von Wissenschaftlern häufig verwendet, um den Grad der Solidarität prähistorischer menschlicher Gruppen oder Gesellschaften zu bewerten. Im Gegensatz zum Konzept der Behinderung ist das Konzept des Hochleistungssports für Behinderte (im Folgenden oft als paralympischer Sport bezeichnet) in der jahrtausendealten Geschichte des Sports und der körperlichen Praktiken neu (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a, b). Dieses neue Phänomen kämpft mit seinen Praktikern um die gleiche Akzeptanz und "Einbürgerung" wie sein olympisches Pendant zu gewinnen (Silva and Howe, 2018). Diese Arbeit stellt Fragen und zielt darauf ab, aus einem gemischten sozialpsychologischen und marketingbezogenen Blickwinkel zu analysieren, wie die Gesellschaft heutzutage auf Beeinträchtigungen im sportlichen Kontext reagiert, d. h. Variablen zu erforschen, die dazu beitragen, das Konsumverhalten von Menschen im paralympischen Sport aus einer inter-nationalen Perspektive zu beschreiben, zu erklären, zu verstehen und zu modellieren. Im Vergleich zu seinem olympischen Gegenstück hat der paralympische Sport nur sehr wenig Aufmerksamkeit von sozialwissenschaftlichen Wissenschaftlern erhalten. Von den wenigen vorhandenen sozialwissenschaftlichen Arbeiten zum paralympischen Sport wurde eine überwältigende Anzahl mit einem qualitativen methodischen Ansatz durchgeführt. Nur eine sehr begrenzte Anzahl von Studien hat das Konsumverhalten der Menschen in Bezug auf paralympische Sportarten aus einer quantitativen Perspektive untersucht. Während diese quantitativen Bemühungen ausschließlich auf einem einzigen theoretischen Ansatz zur Erklärung des Konsumverhaltens bei paralympischen Sportarten basieren und geografisch in einer einzigen Stadt durchgeführt wurden, bietet diese Arbeit die Möglichkeit, das Verständnis des Konsumverhaltens der Menschen in Bezug auf paralympische Sportarten während der Paralympics in Tokio (2021) aus einer synkretistischen und quantitativen Perspektive zu analysieren und zu vertiefen. Die theoretische Grundlage bilden die

überarbeitete Theorie des geplanten Verhaltens (Ajzen, 1991), die Theorie der sozialen Repräsentationen (Moscovici, 1961), die nordamerikanischen Theorien der Motive und Zwänge (Kim und Trail, 2010, 2011) und der Bindungspunkte (Trail, Robinson, Dick und Gillentine, 2003) des Sportkonsumverhaltens sowie die Theorien des Medieneinflusses auf die Wahrnehmung von Gruppen (McCombs und Shaw, 1972; Gerbner 1967), und die geografische Durchführung erfolgte in drei Ländern, nämlich Kamerun, Frankreich und Deutschland. Aufgrund der mutmaßlichen Covid 19-Situation, die das Internationale Paralympische Komitee gezwungen hat, die Paralympics in Tokio (2021) ohne Zuschauer (vor Ort) zu veranstalten, und der Tatsache, dass die Medien als Hauptkanal, über den die Menschen den paralympischen Sport erleben, gut etabliert sind (Schantz und Gilbert, 2012a, b, Brittain, 2016), haben wir das Konsumverhalten im paralympischen Sport in das Medienkonsumverhalten im paralympischen Sport und die Mundpropaganda operationalisiert. Bei der Interpretation der Ergebnisse haben wir jedoch dem Medienkonsum im paralympischen Sport den Vorrang gegeben. Die Ergebnisse legen nahe, dass auf länderübergreifender Ebene die affektive Dimension der Attitüde der einzige direkte Prädiktor für den Medienkonsum im paralympischen Sport ist. Über dieses länderübergreifende Prädikat hinaus sind Wissen (kognitive Dimension der Attitüde), frühere Verhaltensweisen und Medienwerbung direkte Prädiktoren für den paralympischen Sportmedienkonsum in Kamerun, soziale Normen und nationale Identität sind direkte Prädiktoren für den paralympischen Sportmedienkonsum in Frankreich, und Medienwerbung, nationale Identität und frühere Verhaltensweisen sind direkte Prädiktoren für den paralympischen Sportmedienkonsum in Deutschland. Aus diesen Ergebnissen werden mehrere Empfehlungen für nationale und internationale paralympische Sportverbände und Medien abgeleitet, um die Zuschauerzahlen im paralympischen Sport zu erhöhen.

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

This work offers to analyse and deepen from a syncretic and quantitative perspective the understanding of people's consumption behaviour towards Paralympic sport. It is theoretically grounded in the revised theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), the theory of social representations (Moscovici, 1961), the North American motives and constraints (Kim and Trail, 2010, 2011) and points of attachment (Trail, Robinson, Dick and Gillentine, 2003) theories of sport consumption behaviour, and the theories of media influence on groups' perceptions (McCombs and Shaw, 1972; Gerbner 1967), and was geographically carried out in three countries, namely Cameroon, France and Germany.

➤ Preliminary semantic distinction

Even though the one often stands for or is used in place of the other without harming the purpose of our work, we however make a semantic distinction between the terms "Paralympic sport" and "Paralympic sports". While the latter refers to the different sports staged during the Paralympic games, the former appears to us as a "umbrella concept" (literally translated from the French "*concept valise*"). As a matter of fact, from the IPC's standpoint the concept of Paralympic sport does not refer to any specific sport, but rather to the twenty-two summer sports, and six winter sports, that are staged under its steering and according to its guidelines (IPC, 2018); that is, to the twenty-eight sports labelled under the Paralympic brand. This concept is also often misused by people, groups, and media, which attribute to it meanings different from that originally intended (Shantz and Gilbert, 2001, 2012a, b; Gilbert and Schantz, 2008; Brittain, 2016).

➤ The aim of our research

Disability is a common and apparently self-evident concept because we encounter it on a daily basis in our societies and media. Yet, this concept is contentious and leaves very little room for unanimity. As a matter of fact, several models have been used to explain disability. Among these are: individualistic models, which assimilate disability to

an insufficiency of one's bodily or mental endowment, interpretivist models, which locate disability within the beholder's eyes, and interactionist models, which reconcile the former two categories of model and envision disability as a conjunction of one's uncommon bodily endowment with society's ableism and desire for normalcy.

It is common sense that the concept of impairment is as old as *Homo sapiens*. The concept of disability – as a response to impairment – might also be as old as Homo sapiens. However, disability models have often been used by scientists to assess the solidarity level of prehistoric human groups or societies. As a matter of fact, several anthropologists join Margaret Mead (1901-1978) in considering a 15,000-year-old healed femur to be one of the oldest sign of civilisation, as the very fact that this bone was fractured and healed demonstrates that the injured person received some assistance from other members of her community; that is, that the community developed an advanced response to the impairment of one of its members.

Unlike the concept of disability, the one of disability high performance disability sport (here after often referred to as Paralympic sport) is a recent phenomenon in the millennial history of sporting and physical practices (Howe, 2009; Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a, b). This work questions and aims at analysing from a mixed social psychology and marketing viewpoint, nowadays society's response to impairment in a sporting context, with the crossed case studies of Cameroon, France and Germany, that is, universal (in all the three countries) and country-related attitudes and behaviours towards disability sport in these countries.

Since the inception of institutionalised disability sport in the 50s, a growing body of literature has been developing to address and study contemporary groups' responses to impairment in the sporting realm, that is, groups' attitudes and behaviours towards disability sport. This literature seems to suggest that contemporary societies' responses to impairment in the sporting realm still fall short of the human capacity for integration: social power struggles like sexism, racism, and ableism are reproduced in sport and even more emphasised in disability sport (Atuona, 2012; Schantz and Gilbert, 2012a, b). This is probably the reason why disability sport has remained a niche sport (Wilson, 2015). This literature also points out that unlike its Olympic counterpart, Paralympic sport suffers from a high level of indifference from the public at large, as well as from traditional

and new media (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012 a, b; Brittain, 2016; 2017, Rees et al., 2017; Brooke, 2018; Flindall, 2020, Cheong et al., 2020).

It has long been demonstrated that the media were the main channel through which people had access to Paralympic sport, as Paralympic sport venues were frequently deserted (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001, 2012c; Brittain, 2016). This state of affairs was however emphasised during the last edition of Paralympic games (Tokyo 2021), as the Covid-19 context demanded the prohibition of direct spectatorship. Therefore, the only way the Paralympic sport staged at Tokyo 2021 could be experienced was through viewership or listenership, that is, TV or other media. As a consequence, it was only possible to analyse people's media Paralympic sport consumption behaviour.

Our doctoral work precisely aims at analysis, that is, researching variables that help to describe, explain, understand, and model people's Paralympic sport media consumption behaviour(s) from an inter-national perspective.

➢ Our theoretical foundations

Comparatively to its Olympic counterpart, Paralympic sport has enjoyed very little attention from social science scientists. Within the few existing social science works on Paralympic sport ,An overwhelming have been led with a qualitative methodological design (cf. Schantz et Gilbert, 2001, 2008, 2012a, b, c; Thomas & Smith, 2003; Ik Young and Crossman, 2009; Buysse, Borcherdung, 2010; De Leseleuc, Pappous, Marcellini , 2010; Packer et al., 2015; Maika & Danylchuk, 2016 ; Brittain, 2016, 2017; Geok, Khoo, Razman, 2016; Geok Cheong et al., 2020; Flindall, 2020; Cheong et al., 2020, etc.)

Only a very limited amount of studies have investigated people's Paralympic sport consumption behaviour towards Paralympic sports from a quantitative perspective (Cottingham et al., 2014). Apart from Cottingham et al. (2012 a); Cottingham et al. (2014); Byon et al. (2010); Byon et al. (2011), Wilson (2015) and Yamashita & Muneda (2019), who studied motives for disability sport consumption, and Cottingham et al. (2012b b), who analysed the influence of points of attachment on a disability sport event re-patronage, we found no quantitative effort to explain and model disability sport consumption.

While the quantitative efforts presented above were based exclusively on a single theoretical approach for explaining sport consumption behaviour, especially the motives model (Trail et James, 2001) for Cottingham et al. (2012 a), Cottingham et al. (2014), Byon et al. (2010), Byon et al. (2011), and Wilson (2015), and the points of attachment model (Robinson and Trail, 2002) for Cottingham et al. (2012 b), we offer to analyse Paralympic sport consumption using a syncretised quantitative approach combining several theoretical grounds that have proven themselves relevant in the study of sport consumption behaviour, so as to create a model for predicting Paralympic sport consumption behaviour with a higher predictive power.

Apart from our effort to account for a larger number of predictors of people's Paralympic sport consumption behaviour than previous studies, our work also stands out by the type of population investigated. As a matter of fact, in previous qualitative studies on Paralympic sport consumption behaviour (c.f. Byron et al., 2010; Byron et al., 2011; Cottingham et al., 2012 a; Cottingham et al., 2012 b; Cottingham et al., 2014; Wilson, 2015), the population investigated was essentially composed of local Paralympic sport spectators. We offer to investigate three populations from three culturally different countries. Furthermore, within each of these populations, relationships to disability, to sport, and to disability sport differ.

There are many models for analysing and understanding behaviour, some of which were proven relevant for studying sport consumption behaviour and/or niche sport consumption and/or disability sport consumption and which are therefore worthy of further testing to understand if and how (according to which modulations) they apply to a disability sport context. Among these are:

(1) The adjusted planned behaviour model (Ajzen , 1991) (hereafter referred to as TPB).

The TPB, which explains behaviour through the psychosocial constructs of attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and previous behaviours, has been singularly relevant for predicting sport TV viewing intentions (Chen & Lin, 2009), sport events attendance intentions (Cunningham and Know, 2003; Eddosary, 2015), female sport live spectating and TV viewing intentions (Muncu, Lough and Barnes, 2016), and spectating behaviour (Lu, Lin and Cheng, 2011). The fact that female and disability sports

are both marginalised sports (Atuona, 2012) and niche sports (Wilson, 2015), and that the TPB has been successfully used in sport media consumption contexts as well as female sport contexts, even further legitimates the use of the TPB model for analysing Paralympic sport.

(2) The motives and constraints model (Kim and Trail, 2010, 2011).

The motives and constraints model, which explains behaviour through reasons for and barriers to action, was successfully used for predicting sport events radio listening and TV viewing behaviour (Monfarde, Tojari and Nikbakhsh, 2014), sport media consumption (Kim & Trail, 2011, Larking et al., 2015), sport attendance (Kim et al,2010, Mayer & Hungenberg, 2020), attendance intention (Jones et al., 2017), but also partially (only motives) and successfully used for analysing sport event past attendance (Mohanet et al., 2002; Ridinger & Funk, 2006; Neale & Funk, 2006; Funk et al., 2009), sport media consumption (Kim et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2009), disability sport media consumption (Andrew et al., 2009, Byon et al., 2009, Byon et al, 2010), disability sport re-patronage intentions (Byon et al., 2009; Byon et al., 2011), and partially (as constraints) for analysing sport events attendance (Trail et al., 2008).

(3) The points of attachment model (Robinson and trail, 2002);

The points of attachment model explains behaviour through an identity link attaching the consumer to one or another aspect of the team or the athlete. This model, initially conceptualised by Robinson and Train (2002), has been used to predict sport re-patronage intention (Woo et al., 2009) and disability sport media (online) consumption intentions (Cottingham, 2012b).

Apart from the three theoretical pillars developed above and whose inclusion in our work becomes self-evident considering the way and magnitude with which they were used by sport and/or nice sports and/or disability sport scholars before us, other theoretical grounds seemed necessary to us for a deep scrutiny into and understanding of people's behaviour towards Paralympic sports. Among these are the social representation theory and the media influences theories.

Regarding the social representation theory, it responds to the necessity to take into account the cultural dimension distinguishing countries from one another in our analyses

of Paralympic sport media consumption behaviour, as the three countries have been demonstrated to be culturally different from one another (Schwartz, 2008), and as we showed earlier how different the definitions and relationships were to sport and disability sport between Cameroon, France and Germany. Indeed, as a new phenomenon in the millennia-long history of sporting and bodily practices, Paralympic sport is still in search of its identity (Howe, 2009; Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a,b,c). This quest for its own identity is probably a consequence of the long-standing oxymoronic association between the concepts of "sport" and "disability", and of the multiplicity of models that have been developed to explain disability and which also apply to disability sport. Seeking Paralympic sport's identity (what it is) is however a many-layered quest. As Djoumessi (2019) puts it, *"The identity of Paralympic sport is a co-production between the International Paralympic Committee (IPC) and a worldwide audience to whom it tries to sell Paralympic sport commercially as well as symbolically and ideologically"* (p.116). We can therefore distinguish on the one hand, an ontological or noumenal identity of Paralympic sport—that is, the definition of Paralympic sport as thought, wished, edicted and enforced by its umbrella organisation the International Paralympic Committee (hereafter the IPC)—and on the other hand several ontical or phenomenal identities—that is, people or groups', or media perception, representation or experience of Paralympic sport. These ontical identities are found within the social representation of Paralympic sport in the given groups, and, according to Moscovici (1961), Jodelet (1989) and Jahoda (2012), bespeak the cultural specificity of the given groups. Therefore, including the country's social representations of Paralympic sport in Cameroon, France and Germany within our analysis model helps us to take into account the cultural features of these countries in our analysis.

The above-mentioned inclusion of each country's social representations into our analysis model—which already included psychosocial constructs from the TPB, the motives and constraints, and the points of attachment models—is supported by the theoretical developments linking social representation to media (Wagner et al., 2002), identities (Moliner, 1993; Abric, 1994a; Moliner & Deschamps, 2012), and practices (past) (Tafani & Souchet, 2002, 2004; Sénémeaud, Girandola, Georget & Salès-Wuillemin, 2013; Salès-Wuillemin, Gosling & Girandola, 2014) on the one hand, and to attitudes (Rouquette, 1996; Moliner & Tafani 1997; Rateau, 2000; Tafani,

2001), behaviours, and practices (present and future) (Abric, 1994a,b; Flament, 1994; Valsiner; 2003a,b) on the other hand.

As for media influences theories, given that Paralympic sport's representation, images and associations have been mostly treated in the literature in terms of media representation (Schantz and Gilbert, 2001, 2008, 2012a,b; Marcelleni 2010, Brittain, 2016), and that media have been shown to be the main interface through which people access Paralympic sport spectacles (Schantz, 2012b, Brittain, 2017), it appears useful to us to account for variables that modulate media's influence on people's perceptions and behaviour. These variables are mainly theorised in the framework of the theories of agenda setting (McCombs and Shaw, 1972; McCombs, 2005; McCombs, Shaw and Weaver, 2014) and cultivation (Gerbner, 1967) into external (to media) variables like media exposure, trust and attention, and internal (to media) factors like media topic related-content, that is, media publicity.

The syncretisation of the theoretical grounds presented above will enable us to pinpoint the predictors of Paralympic sport media consumption according to the country, but also the predictors of sport media consumption which do not apply to the disability sport context. The consideration of the international context will allow us to distinguish universal predictors from country-related predictors of Paralympic sport media consumption.

➢ Our geographical choices

Beyond the facts that Cameroon, France and Germany are the three countries we have better mastery of from linguistic and cultural viewpoints, our choice of these three countries was guided by their comparability and the various perspectives they offer to the very definition of and relationship to sport.

Regarding their comparability, when applying the concept of cultural distance (Schwartz, 2014) to Cameroon, France and Germany, these countries reveal themselves to be culturally consubstantial yet different: consubstantial because the same cultural "*dimensions*" (Hofstede, 1980) or "*orientations*" (Schwartz, 1994, 2006 b), or even "*values*" (1992, 2006 a) are present in each of the countries, and different because the leading

cultural "*dimensions*" (Hofstede, 1980) or "*orientations*" (Schwartz, 1994, 2006 b) or even "*values*" change from one country to another.

Regarding the definition of and relationship to sport, France is well known for its pioneering role in the modern Olympic revival, especially through the *Baron* De Coubertin, and stands as an Olympic pillar, while Germany, host to the umbrella organisation for disability sport, stands as a Paralympic pillar. As for Cameroon, it was first a German colony (1884-1916) before becoming a French colony at the dusk of World War I. This colonial link to France and Germany is to some extent still perceivable today in the current Cameroonian sport system (Mballa, 2021). On the other hand, sport has mainly been defined in the French scientific tradition in terms of modern values—that is, effort, competition, training, performance and rivalry (Parlebas, 1981, 1999, 2005)— whereas in Germany, sport is rather envisioned as a complex phenomenon that could take one or many of several different facades, which, above the modern values alluded to above, can include post-modern values, that is, leisure, fun, socialisation, health maintenance, and cooperation (the German code of sport). As for the Cameroonian definition, it considers sport from a post-colonial perspective, that is, an imported phenomenon bequeathed by colonisers (Mballa, 2021). This post-colonial perspective is even noticeable in the Cameroonian code of sport, which distinguishes traditional games and practices, that is, local physical practices that predate the colonisation, from sport practices, the latter having been inherited from the colonisers.

Despite the cultural comparability of Cameroon, France, and Germany from Schwartz (1994, 2008) and Hofstede's (1980, 2001) perspectives, our doctoral work is however not intended to be an intercultural one. We rather position it as an international work. This refusal to carry out an intercultural work stems from Livian's (2001, 2011) perspective, according to which countries' borders are rarely cultural boundaries, and countries are not always culturally homogenous and might include several cultural regions. Livian's (2001, 2011) predicates are even more relevant in the instance of Cameroon, whose borders were shaped by colonisers at the Berlin 1984 conference, without accounting for any willingness of the cultural entities living in this territory to cohabit. They are also relevant for France and Germany as several territories like the Alsace and the Lorraine shifted forth and back several times between France and

Germany during the first and second world wars, just as did the territory of Rhineland a few centuries before.

> ➢ Research architecture

Our doctoral work is composed of eight chapters structured into three parts. The first addresses the conceptual framework of our research along with its theoretical anchor(s) and its context. This part is composed of four chapters:

In chapter 1, we firstly take a dip into the experience of disability from a third person perspective. This dip brings us to explore the main types of models that have been used in the literature to define, present, and explain disability, namely the individualistic, the interpretivist, and the interactionist models. We thentrace back the inception and history of institutionalised disability sport, before carrying out a deep reflection on the nature of Paralympic sport. From this reflection, it emerges that there are ontological and ontical realties of Paralympic sport. While we leave the exploration of Paralympic sport's ontical identities to a further chapter, we extensively scrutinise Paralympic sport's ontological identity.

`Chapter 2 introduces the theoretical model of planned behaviour, which is at the core of our theoretical foundation, by exploring pathways from attitudes to behaviours and the theoretical links between the concepts of behaviour, attitudes, social norms and perceived behavioural control, after defining and classifying them. It then extends the TPB model with the social representation, after defining and presenting the different schools of understanding of the concept of social representation.

Chapter 3 explores media influence on the public's representations, attitudes, and behaviour in its first section by presenting the theory of cultivation (Mc Combs and Shaw ,1972) and the theory of cultivation (Gerbner, 1967). It then focuses on sport consumption behaviour by tracing back how it has been treated in the literature, and showing how sport-related attitudes and behaviour can theoretically be changed through the social representation.

Chapter 4 takes a dip into the characteristics and features of the countries within which our work unfolds. It presents the cultures, the sport systems, the Olympic and

Paralympic movements, the cultural features according to several cultural measurement tools, and some key features of the three countries (Cameroon, France and Germany) in which our qualitative and quantitative studies are carried out and demonstrates how these countries are comparable.

Part II is composed of exploratory studies and consists of two chapters, namely chapters 4 and 5. Chapter 5 presents our first exploratory study. This interview-based exploratory study gives us a first glimpse into Paralympic sport's associations and images and demonstrates that Paralympic sport can be considered an object of social representation according to Moscovici's (1961) perspective.

Chapter 6 scrutinises the ontical representations of Paralympic sport in Cameroon, France, and Germany, as these were left aside in an early chapter, to be specifically addressed in this chapter. After presenting the methodological choices and contextual settings, this chapter identifies the content and the hypothetical structure of the social representation of Paralympic sport in each country, and operationalises these social representations into a variable that will be used in our analysis model.

Part III is the confirmatory part of our research and is composed of chapters 7 and 8. Chapter 7 synthesises intakes from theoretical developments and empirical studies along with research questions and establishes a conceptual model and hypotheses.

Chapter 8 attempts to confirm or disconfirm the hypotheses formed in chapter 7.

A discussion and conclusive statements follow chapter 8. As for the discussion, after offering a synoptic and graphical view of all the validated relationships between different variables, along with the unvalidated ones, this part builds a sense-making and phenomenon-explaining bridge between the results we obtained and those obtained by other authors in earlier works on the one hand, and countries' characteristics on the other hand. It also suggests from a practical and pragmatic marketing perspective measures that could be implemented by Paralympic governing bodies and/or Paralympic games organising committees, or even media reporters, to improve Paralympic sport's appeal for audiences. With regard to the conclusive statements which follow our discussion, after drawing together the theoretical and methodological contributions of our work, and

outlining its managerial contributions, they offer some openings for future research before presenting the limitations of our work.

PART I: CONTEXT, CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK, AND THEORETICAL ANCHORS

CHAPTER I: FROM DISABILITY TO PARALYMPIC SPORT

CHAPTER II: ATTITUDES, BEHAVIOURS, AND SOCIAL REPRESENTATIONS

CHAPTER III: MEDIA INFLUENCE AND SPORT CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOUR(S) AND CHANGE

CHAPTER IV: CULTURE AND CULTURAL CONTEXT(S)

PART II: EXPLORATORY APPROACHES OF SOCIAL REPRESENTATIONS, ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR TOWARDS PARALYMPIC SPORT

CHAPTER V: QUALITATIVE EXPLORATORY STUDY

CHAPTER VI: SOCIAL REPRESENTATIONS OF PARALYMPIC SPORT IN CAMEROON, FRANCE, AND GERMANY

PART III: QUANTITATIVE SURVEY(S)

CHAPTER VII: INTAKES FROM THE THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENTS AND EMPIRICAL STUDIES FOR A CONCEPTUAL MODEL

CHAPTER VIII: CONFIRMATORY STUDY

Figure 1 Research architecture

PART I: CONTEXT, CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK, AND THEORETICAL ANCHORS

The aims of this section are to: (1) present the contextual framework in which the object of our research will be analysed; (2) define and provide an overview of key concepts associated to our research; (3) outline the theoretical anchors on which our research will be based.

It is composed of four chapter, namely:

Chapter I: From Disability to Paralympic Sport

Chapter II: Attitudes, Behaviours, and Social Representations

chapter III: Media Influence and Sport Consumption Behaviour(s) and Change

Chapter IV: Culture and Cultural Context(s)

CHAPTER I: FROM DISABILITY TO PARALYMPIC SPORT

This chapter aims at: (1) defining and presenting our object, Paralympic sport, along with key concepts associated to it and (2) outlining the framework in which our object and related issues are evoked in our doctoral research.

It is structured according to the table of contents below:

1. Theoretical and Critical Overview of The Experience of Disability

The concept of disability is frequently mentioned. Yet, it easily leads to countless reflections, critiques and afterthoughts concerning both its substance and the vocabulary to be applied (for example, *disability*, *dis-ability* or *dis ability*). In this study, we focus primarily on its substance.

Disability is "*complex, dynamic, and multidimensional*", as well as "*contested*" (World Health Organisation [hereafter WHO], 2011, p.3). It is also *variable, contingent*, and *situated* (Shakespeare & Watson, 2001, p.19). Defining and understanding disability is more complicated than it might at first seem.

We may come across the idea of "disability" frequently in our daily lives, encountering people deemed or labelled "with disabilities" in various circumstances. As a matter of fact, there are countries where 1 out of every 4 residents is officially "disabled", for example, in the United States of America, where in the 2014 census 27.2% of residents were deemed "disabled", of whom 60% were considered "severely disabled" (US Census Bureau, 2018, p.2). According to the 2011 joint World Bank and World Health Organisation *World Report on Disability*, about 15% of the world's population (approximately one billion people), live with some form of disability, of whom slightly more than 2% (around 190 million people) of the estimated world population experience significant functional difficulties.

The idea of assigning "disabled" or "non-disabled" status to people is very tricky and raises many questions: who decides the "disabled" or "non-disabled" status of people?, How is this decision made and what is the basis for it? What is the standard of reference of ableness, and what makes that standard a standard? what are the implications of being assigned one or the other status?

In various attempts to respond to these questions, several reflections have been carried out which have led to numerous models of disability. Models are small-scale theories that help understanding and/or generating hypotheses about phenomena (Gabel et al.2004). With specific regard to disability, models have been designed to provide definitions of disability (Smart, 2004; Smart et al., 2006), organise a set of practices and

tools for testing, constructing or deconstructing theories (Gabel et al., 2004), "*shape the self-identity and the daily lives of people with disabilities*" – hereafter PWDs – (Smart et al., 2006 p:36), explain disability from its genesis to its implications (Gabel et al., 2004; Smart et al., 2006), illustrate paradigms related to disability (Gabel et al., 2004), and understand the implications of what it means to be disabled.

There is clearly a multiplicity of disability models (Bickenbach et al. 1999; Smart, 2000b,2009a; Babotte et al., 2001; Mbelé,2008; Peers,2012a, b; Shanimon et al. 2014; Beaudry, 2016; Retief et al. 2018). As we are interested in high performance sport for PWDs worldwide audience, our classification of the numerous disability models will be based on subject's (knower's) experience. That is, we will discuss disability from a third person perspective (a person that does not have any disability, but does observe the phenomenon). In this way, disability models can be organised into 3 groups: the individualistic models (Bickenbach, 1999; Beaudry, 2016), the interpretivist models (Peters, 2000; Bryman, 2001; Gabel et al., 2004; McGill-Franzen et al., 2010), and what we could name interactionist models (Howard, 2003; Miyazaki, 2015; Scruton et al., 2015; Nathan et al., 2018).

1.1. The Individualistic Models

The individualistic models are those that consider disability as a problem which is located within the individual's body or mind (Shanimon, 2014; Beaudry, 2016). They strongly associate disability with "*personal tragedy*" (Oliver, 1986 ; Barnes, 1990 ; Colin Barnes and Mike Oliver,1993; Thomas et al., 2003:15; Carlson, 2010, p.5;), an inability to fulfil a "normal" social role (Wood and Badley, 1978; Wood, 1981), an individual's deviance from "*normality*" (Oliver,1990; Barton, 1993; Silvers,1996; Depauw,1997; DePauw and Gavron 2005; Thomas, 2007; Creamer, 2009,p .24;), and from society's ideals, preferences, and requirements (Colin Barnes and Mike Oliver,1993). These models bear in themselves the seeds of their contradiction, as they dualistically refer to normality and abnormality without clearly defining what the standard of human normalness is (Tremain, 2005; Campbell 2009; Shildrick 2009; Goggin et al., 2017). Such models present a diacritical understanding of impairment. That is to say, they consider impairment as a diacritic or a glyph that profoundly changes or touches the "value" or the "ability" of the person subject to it. According to these models, the impairment is considered as leading

almost automatically to the disability, or at least to a decrease in the intrinsic value of the impaired. These models are objectivistic, and root themselves in modernistic paradigms such as materialism, objectivism, structuralism, and to some extent functionalism (Gabel et al., 2004), ableism/ disablism (Beaudry, 2016), and dualism (Vehmas et al., 2013, 2014).

The individualistic models present disability as an objective experience (Lipson,1987) of a deterministic object (Noel, 1905). By "objective experience", Lipson means an experience that is not in any way distorted by the knower's mind or perception, and which is therefore totally independent of his will, his belief system, and his values. Harari (2015) uses radioactivity as an example of an objective phenomenon: it existed long before being discovered (since it killed Marie Curie, who did not perceive the objective danger it presented); this danger   really did exist, although it was unperceived and independent of Curie's values, will or belief system.

So, the core idea of individualistic models is to present disability as something that can continue to exist unperceived in the sense of Stroud (1968, our understanding) and Strawson (1959, our understanding) and has what Kant (1781) and many other philosophers would call a "value in itself". The deterministic object mentioned above is the impairment. In other words, according to this model, impairment is the ontological predecessor (De Vos, 2015; Hirose, 2015, p: 31; Borgmann, 2012) of disability; that is, impairment and disability share the same fundamental essence and are bound by a deterministic/reductionist relationship. This also equates to saying that disability is an "ontical deposit" (Marion, 2005) of impairment. The most prominent types of individualistic models are the following: the medical model, the moral/religious model and the functional model.

1.1.1. The Medical Model: Disability as an Ailment

The medical model (Silvers, 1996; Gabel et al., 2004; Terzi, 2004; Cole, 2007; Retief, 2018;), also referred to as the biomedical model (Shogan, 1998; Bickenbach, 1999; Davis, 2002; Brittain, 2004; Smart, 2005a, 2006a, 2009a; Smart et al., 2006; Tremain, 2006; Howe, 2008; Peers, 2012a, b; Retief, 2018;), is a functionalist, micro-objective and pragmatic understanding of disability (Gabel et al., 2004). The medical model is a sort of medical reductionism with regard to disability (Danemark, 2002, Danemark et al., 2004;

Beaudry, 2016; Smart, 2018), as it reduces disability to a medical problem (Olkin, 1999; p 455), a sickness or disease that the subject needs to be cured of (Retief, 2018;), a physical or mental anomaly (Silvers 2003), an abnormality (Silvers 1996), stemming from an impairment (Llewellyn, Agu and Mercer , 2008) , and nothing else (Olkin, 1999). According to this model, disability is caused by impairment, and any impairment is considered an ailment (Boorse, 1975, 1977). As this model strongly associates disability with impairment on the one hand, and impairment with sickness on the other, it encourages and even requires the "disabled" to play the "*sick role*" (Bickenbach et al., 1999; Llewellyn, Agu & Mercer, 2008, p.256,). For a disabled person, this sick role involves giving up on many of their social, economic, and professional responsibilities (Amundsen,1992), which means accepting a disability-creating and -perpetuating type of power relations in society (Davis, 2002; Thomas & Corker, 2002; Tremain, 2002; 2005; 2006; Campbell, 2005; Snyder & Mitchell, 2006; Peers, 2012a; Peers 2012 b). In that regard, Silvers (1996, p.5) says: "*the standard medical model incorrectly conceptualizes disabled persons as biologically inferior, and thus confines them to the role of recipients of benevolence or care*".

The medical model of disability serves as the basis for the charity sub-model which depicts disability as victimhood (Retief, 2018) and therefore disabled people as victims of their impairment, who should be pitied (Duyan 2007) because of their "*terrible fate*" that makes them dependent on able-bodied people's philanthropy (Shanimon et al., 2014, p. 4). The charity sub model contributes to depriving PWDs of all their social power, as it strongly associates disability with a wide semantic field of vulnerability and dependence (Seale 2006).

Among the medical models of disability, next to the medical model stands the moral/religious model, which we will develop in the next section.

1.1.2. The Moral/Religious Model: Disability as Fated

Pardeck & Murphy (2012) consider the moral/religious model to be the oldest-known disability model . This model is less encountered nowadays than it was in premodern times but is still very prevalent in some societies (Dunn, 2015), especially those whose culture is anchored in religions and/or superstitions (Karna 1999; Mbede, 2008,). The moral/religious model supports the idea of the medical model (according to

which disability is a medical problem), but goes further in explaining the causes or the "raison d'être" of this medical problem (Smart, 2009, a, b). The moral/religious model of disability provides many explanations for the cause and / or the "raison d'être" of the disability. According to this model, disability can be a punishment resulting from a sin or a transgression of prevailing social or religious edicts by an individual or their ancestors (Henderson and Bryan 2011). It can also be a test of faith through which God offers to some selected individuals or families the opportunity to redeem themselves (Niemann, 2005; Retief et al. 2018), in which case failing to heal would mean the individual or family has failed the test and healing would equate to passing the test (Black,1996). Another "raison d'être" of disability which is often advanced by the moral/religious modelists is that disability is a blessing, and can be so in many ways. It can be a God-given opportunity for the disabled's character development (Black,1996); a salvific situation, sparing the disabled from a danger they would have faced were it not for their condition (Retief et al. 2018); or the manifestation of outstanding God-given healing powers (Ondongo ,1985; Mbede, 2008).

1.1.3. The Functional Model: A Specific Impairment Leads to a Specific Disability

The functional model (Imrie 1997, Bickenback, 1999; Smart 2004, 2009a; Smart et al., 2006), also referred to as the functional approach (Rioux, 1997) is a sort of sequel of the medical model. It considers disability to be an individual fate, which is the deterministic consequence of impairment, but not any impairment. The functional model links any specific disability to a specific impairment, taking into account the activity and the social role of the impaired. For example, lower limbs impairment would be very disabling for someone hoping to challenge the 100m world record, but not for someone studying black holes as Stephen Hawking did. This is why Hawking himself confessed in several press interviews that his ailing physical condition was not a hindrance to his scientific activities.

While locating disability within the individual, the functional model aims at empowering and re-inserting people with disabilities into the wealth-production chain (Smart, 2009a). According to this model, no one is fully disabled and there are always areas in which a disabled person would not be disabled; instead of wallowing over the

disability as recommended by the medical model, the functional model encourages PWDs to work at discovering what they are able to do.

A parallel can easily be made between the functional model of disability and the popular quote that "Everybody is a genius, but if we judge a fish by its ability to climb a tree, it will live its whole life believing that it is stupid". Instead of focusing on the individual's limitations, the functional model of disability uses a positive reinforcement approach that, without denying the disability, narrows it in scope and urges PWDs to explore the area which is within their ability, to discover and realize their potential.

The functional model is a pragmatic and post-objectivist understanding of disability which, while still presenting disability as a "personal tragedy", puts this "tragedy" into the context of the activity endeavoured by the bearer of the impairment.

The functional model of disability is the one adopted by the umbrella organisation of disability sport (the International Paralympic Committee – hereafter IPC –), as this organisation promotes classification, sorting athletes with disabilities into classes bespeaking the same level of limitation and, consequently, the same level of possibility.

1.1.4. The Limitations of The Individualistic Models of Disability

As mentioned above, the individualist models of disability present the latter as an objective experience, and it is in fact *because* this experience is objective that it considers disability to be an individual fate – individual as it is not created nor distorted by the knower or the perceiver's mind – . Yet understanding disability as a "freewill-free" object, totally independent of the beholder's eyes, mind and will, presents ample limitations.

The limitations of the individualistic models dwell in the fact that they are reductionistic (Dannemark et al., 2004; Beaudry, 2016;), norm-based (Smart, 2009a, 2009b; Creamer, 2009; Shanimon et al.,2014; Owens, J. 2015; Beaudry, 2016;), and value-laden (Shakespeare & Watson, 1997; Swain, 2000; Smart, 2009a,b) , in so far as they reduce disability to an individual estrangement from the norm, without questioning the norm itself nor the "normer". This raises the old philosophical question of the possibility of a fully-objective experience (Berkeley, 1710; Kant, 1781; Strawson 1959, Stroud, 1968) on the one hand, and that of free will (Berkeley,1710; Kant, 1781; Noel, 1905) on the other, though both are related.

Can an experience be entirely objective? Can our perception of objects be totally stripped of our past and present states, our memories, and the rule-governed connectedness of our perceptions? Does disability belong to the sphere of knowledge or to the one of morality? Is disability a noumenon or a phenomenon?

Non-individualistic models of disability that we refer to in our study as interpretivist models and interactionist models arise from the questions raised above, and from the philosophical currents that are against the possibility of a 100% objective experience and consequently against the possibility of freewill-free experience.

As a matter of fact, there are valuable arguments which hold that, as the subject (the perceiver) is the one experiencing ("the knower of") objects, he can only grasp what Kant (1787) would call a phenomenal understanding of them. According to Berkeley (1710), this phenomenal understanding is a complex of subject-dependent perceptions of objects; therefore, the argument goes, objects exist only when perceived.

In our classification of disability models, next to the individualistic models of disability stand the interpretivist models, which we are to develop next.

1.2. The Interpretivist Models of Disability

The interpretivist models are those that consider disability to be an exclusively subject-dependent construction of the mind based on a distorted perception and interpretation of a non-deterministic object, which is impairment or difference. By mind, we mean an individual's mind or a "collective" one (Fusaroli et al., 2013; Midgley, 2006) also referred to as "social" mind (Zerubavel, 1997; Valsiner et al., 2000) or "shared mind" (Zlatevet al., 2008) . This is to say that, according to interpretivist models, disability is subjective in the sense of Kant (1781), or inter-subjective in the sense of Husserl (1999), and Trevarthen et al., (2001, 2003).

A subjective experience is an individual's value- or belief-laden construction of an object (that which exists depending on the belief system and values of a single individual (Kant, 1781). It disappears if the individual changes their belief system, their values or dies.

With regard to the inter-subjective, as Trevarthen (1979, 1998), and Trevarthen et al., (2003,) in their theory of inter-subjectivity have shown, human minds are receptive to others' subjective minds, and there is a communication network linking individuals' subjective minds. The inter-subjective, also referred to as "social imagination" (Scheff et al., 2006), or "common sense" (Richard, 1961), is what exists within the communication network linking many individual's subjective experiences (Harari, 2015). An inter-subjective experience remains intact if a single individual in the network changes their belief system, or even dies. For an inter-subjective experience to change, most of the individuals in the inter-subjective network need to change their beliefs system or values, or die (Harari, 2015).

Perfect examples of subjective phenomena are "imaginary friends" that kids often create: they believe in their existence, though those "imaginary friends" are invisible and inaudible to the rest of the world, and disappear when the kids grow up and stop believing in them (Harari , 2015); other examples of subjective experience are guardian angels and soul mates. With regard to the inter-subjective, almost all the world's most sought-after or debated things like borders, ownership, laws and nations are inter-subjective, as they would immediately stop existing if people stopped believing in them (Harari, 2015).

The main interpretivist models are the social oppression model and the environmental model.

1.2.1 The Social Oppression Model

Just as beauty lies in the beholder, the social oppression model of disability stipulates that disability lies in the society, and not in one individual as advocated by the individualistic models. According to the social oppression model – also often known as the minority model (Retief, 2018), or minority group model (Creamer, 2009), disability is a social construction, as it emerges from society's attitude towards impaired people (Schipper, 2006; O'Connell, Finnerty & Egan, 2008; Wolbring, 2008a ; D'Alessio, 2011; Purtell, 2013).

This model, deeply rooted in the paradigm of idealism, social-constructivism, interpretivism, subjectivism, and inter-subjectivism (Gabel et al., 2004) stipulates that disability is a social and societal reaction to impairment (Wolbring, 2005a, Barnes, Mercer

& Shakespeare 2010; Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation – hereafter UPIAS, 1976). In other words, rather than being caused by any bodily impairment , disability is caused by the society's ableism (Creamer, 2009). "Ableism" here means the belief that disability makes its bearer different and of less worth than "normal people" (Pelka,1997, Campbell, 2001; Cherney, 2001; Overboe, 2007; Wolbring, 2008a;), a sort of social Darwinism praising an apology of the ablest.

The social oppression model was strongly advocated by the UPIAS (1976 p: 3-4), whose central argument was the following:

"In *our view, it is society which disables physically impaired people. Disability is something imposed on top of our impairments by the way we are unnecessarily isolated and excluded from full participation in society. Disabled people are therefore an oppressed group in society. To understand this, it is necessary to grasp the distinction between the physical impairment and the social situation, called "disability", of people with such impairment. Thus we define impairment as lacking all or part of a limb, or having a defective limb, organism or mechanism of the body and disability as the disadvantage or restriction of activity caused by a contemporary social organisation which takes little or no account of people who have physical impairments and thus excludes them from participation in the mainstream of social activities. Physical disability is therefore a particular form of social oppression".*

The arguments advanced by the UPIAS against physical disability to present disability as a collective experience of oppression (Baglieri , 2012), a social exclusion (Thomas, 1997, p: 623) were further adopted by disability rights advocates and some scholars, and generalized to be applied to all disabilities (Anastasiou & Kauffman, 2013, 2011).

Many scholars and disability rights defenders have upheld the social oppression model and highlighted the necessity to make a sharp distinction between disability and impairment. For Barnes (1991), Oliver (1996a, 1992), Hughes and Paterson (1997), Schipper (2006), Anastasiou and Kauffman (2011, 2013), disability refers to social or cultural organisation while impairment refers to physical or bodily dysfunction. Oliver (1992) and Thomas (1997) consider disability not as being the product of bodily ailment or deficiency but rather as the product of specific social and economic structures that

exclude impaired people from main social activities, thereby disabling them *(Oliver, 1990, 1993, 1996).* This state of things makes of people with disabilities an oppressed group (Oliver, 1986; Abberley, 1987; 1993, 1996), an oppressed minority (Retief, 2018).

Several scholars have looked at the issue of the social oppression model of disability through the lens of "normalcy", which Adorno (1974, p.36) considers to be precisely the "*sickness of time*" and which Davis (1995) considers as the defining term in social organisation, which has been and is being enforced. With regard to the time, Davis (2013) believes that we are shifting from the time of Davis (1995) and Adorno (1974), when normalcy was the defining term of social organisation, to a new "era" bringing a paradigm shift from the traditional ableist and eugenic notion of normalcy to a neo- liberalist market-driven concept of diversity .

Silvers (1996, 2000) presents disability as the result of a clumsy apology for normalcy that led to the oppression of a "deviant" minority by a "normal" Majority, the deviance here being an unusual or uncommon biological / bodily endowment. This apology for normalcy praises the species-typical functioning of "normal" fellows and sanctions the anomalous functioning of "disabled" people (Wendell 1996). Applying Hume's Law (1757) to the field of disability, Silvers (2000, 2005) warns against the danger of confusing what is (the typical or most commonly observed functioning of human body) with what ought to be (the "normal"). Freud (1989) and Lasser & Corley (2008), show how normalcy is socially constructed by an abnormal social environment. Ickstadt (2000) presents normality as deceptive and repressive. Silvers (1996, 2016) and Amundson (2000) argue that normalcy is a biological "determinist" tool to oppress impaired people.

A very interesting and insightful understanding of the social oppression model and socially constructed disability was developed by Creamer (2009). Through the concepts of "limited-ness" and "state of embodiedness", she creates her "limit model". In Creamer's view, limits are an important and "normal" part of being human. Her view is that all humans experience limits, which they try to challenge in the course of their life journeys. There is therefore nothing more normal for humans than experiencing limits. After illustrating how numerous the different states of embodiedness are in human life, she writes: "*key to the limits model is the recognition that 'disability' is actually more normal*

than any other state of embodiedness" (p.32). In Creamer's sense, any categorisation based on ableness is incomplete as all humans are able only within certain limits. In other words, the term disability should be either relevant to no single human, as we all experience limits, or relevant to all humans, as the experience of limits is a normal part of humanness.

There is an "ultra" version of the social oppression model of disability, which presents the impairment that is supposed to be the ontological predecessor of disability as being itself socially constructed. Tremain (2005), applying the feminist critique of Butler (1990), highlights the fact that diagnosis is variable across space and time and concludes that impairment itself is socially constructed from diagnosis. His thesis is upheld and nuanced by Shakespeare (2013), who emphasizes the distinction between diagnosis and impairment, but insists on the fact that this distinction should not lead to a denial of an ontological essence of impairment located at the biological level which causes a "decrement in species-typical functioning".

Some scholars and disability rights defenders have put an emphasis on the duality and the dialectic of oppression/resistance (Gabel, 1997, 2005; Barton, 2001; Donoghue, 2003). In this vein, Gabel & Peters (2004), applying resistance theory and Foucault's work on the circulation of power through social relations to the field of disability studies, have predicted a paradigm shift from "oppression" to "resistance", as they found the social oppression model of disability to be a call towards disabled fellows and various other stakeholders to take actions to co-resist the oppression of disabled people.

From a logico-semantic standpoint, the concept of disability itself is identity-marking and community-building, as it distinguishes one category of human from another. In that vein, Reaume (2014, p.1) states: "*the term "disabled people" emphasizes that disability is an essential of self-identity*". Brewer et al. (2012, p.5) consider this identity to be a "*positive*" one. Just as the paradigm of resistance has arisen from the one of oppression, the notion of affirmation is strongly linked to the notions of resistance and identity with regard to the disabled community. Swain and French (2000 p; 557 - 558) advocate an "*affirmative model of disability"* — which is a sort of extension of the social oppression model – through which those on the "bad" side of the "disability divide" may build and affirm a positive identity to resist the "negative identity" that those on the "good" side of the disability divide try to coerce them to accept.

Among the interpretivist models, next to the social oppression model, stands the environmental model, which will be developed in the next section.

1.2.2 The Environmental Model

Too often associated with and merged into the social oppression model, the environmental model – also referred to as the environmental approach (Rioux, 1997) – was identified as a way of understanding disability by (Rioux, 1997) and Smart (2009a, 2009b) . Just like the social oppression model, the environmental model of disability externalizes the cause of disability from the individual to the environment. The environmental model of disability mainly addresses physical and sensory disabilities and overlooks mental ones. Its presents disability as a hostility in the physical environment towards impaired people (Rioux, 1997; Smart et al., 2006; Smart, 2009a, 2009b;)

According to this model, a person in a wheelchair only becomes disabled when there is no wheelchair access where they wants to go. In the same vein, a blind person only becomes disabled when the road signs do not include them, and therefore do not allow them to move safely. Similar illustrations showing how the hostility of the physical environment actually creates the disability can be found for every physical and sensory disability.

The core idea of this model is that disability originates in the fact that facilities are designed only for non-impaired people. It then goes further, recommending the adaptation of the physical environment to the needs of all humans through universal accessibility (Darcy, 1998; Schmetzke, 2002, Francioni & Smith, 2002; Loiacono et al., 2005; Seale, 2006; ; Kelly, Sloan, Seale & Petrie, 2007; Yuan et al., 2011; Darcy et al., 2017; Buhalis et al., 2012; Hill, 2013).

An interesting sequel of social oppression and environment models is the human rights model (Misener et al., 2014; Degener, 2014, 2016, 2017; Jackson, 2018). The Human rights model acknowledges the social oppression model and environmental model, and goes further by suggesting solutions and pathways for solving the "disability problem". Some scholars like Degener (2014, 2016, 2017), Quinn et al. (2002), Berghs et al. (2016) see the responses or the remedies to disability in a human rights-based approach.

Building on the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities – here after UNCRPD – Degener (2014, 2016, 2017) addresses the question of "inaccessibility that creates disability" as a human rights problem, and as such she facilitates a paradigm shift in disability studies from the so-called social models to the human rights model.

As the human rights model considers disability to be exclusively or mostly created or constructed by society and the physical environment surrounding the subject of disability (just like the social oppression model it builds on), it accordingly suggests a legal framework promoting inclusivity, inclusiveness and equity to solve the disability problem.

1.2.3 The Limitations of Interpretivist Models

The limitations of the interpretivist models of disability stem from the fact that, just like individualistic models, they are also reductionistic (Dannemark et al., 2004; Beaudry, 2016) and value-laden (Shakespeare & Watson, 1997; Swain et al., 2000; Smart, 2009a, 2009b). They deliberately ignore, or are seemingly blind to, the painful realities of impairment, or at least of diagnosis (Degener 2017:47; Retief, 2018). If it has been shown that society and the environment play a substantial part in the co-construction of disability, the interpretivist models totally exonerate the individual from the disability construction process, and make it a 100% subjective or inter-subjective experience. Yet, disability is not like a child's imaginary friend, created "ex-nihilo" without any ontological essence. As matter of fact, disability has been related to a diagnosis in all the models we have presented so far. Denying the role – or at very least the influence – of diagnosis in the construction of disability is very likely to be disingenuous or idealistic.

Oliver (2013), o ne the most fervent defenders of the interpretivist models of disability, recognizes in an article that these models need to be either replaced or re-invigorated as they no longer suit the economic situation. Hughes, Goodley, and Davis (2012) reproach the immutability of the interpretivist models of disability, as they have remained unchanged since their introduction in the early 1980s. Levitt (2017) highlights the fact that interpretivist models of disability seem to imply that disability cannot be due to anything other than society's attitudes or environmental barriers, which is strongly inaccurate. Corker, Mairian, and Tom Shakespeare (2002) show how each of the

individualistic and interpretivist models exclude a very important dimension of the experience of disability, and conclude that the experience of disabled people is too complex to be apprehended within one unitary model.

As the individualistic and interpretivist models do not offer a reliable framework for analysing the experience of disability, interactionist models have been developed to provide better explanations.

1.3. The Interactionist Models

Both individualist and interpretivist models are reductionist and exclusive on the one hand exclusively reducing disability to the objective, automatic consequence of a deterministic impairment, and on the other exclusively reducing disability to the subjective or inter- subjective construction of the knower of a non- deterministic diagnosis. Individualistic models totally "objectivize" disability as an object having a sense in itself, and which therefore can continue to exist unperceived, while interpretationist models entirely "subjectivise" disability as the construction of the perceiver's mind, existing nowhere apart from in his mind.

If there are valuable arguments for the objective existence of disability, there are also solid arguments accounting for the subjective nature of disability. It therefore probably makes sense to analyse the interactions between the objective and subjective aspects of disability, in order to seek an intersection that could reconcile the objective understanding of disability with the subjective one in a paradigmatic polyphasia, enabling a more complete grasp of disability.

The interactionist models reconcile the insights of individualistic and interpretivist approaches to disability while avoiding their weaknesses (Nathan et al., 2018). In terms of experience, they find a common ground to the objective and subjective/intersubjective experiences of disability, in the sense of Miney's (2014) "subjective of objective". Just as Miney (2014) defines the subjective of objective as a subjective construction based on an "objective object", interactionist models present the experience of disability as a subjective/inter subjective construction based on an objective phenomenon or object, the objective object here being impairment, or diagnosis for the most sceptical. In a social context, interactionist models ecumenically recognize that disability is caused by the

synergy of biomedical (bodily endowment), social and environmental factors (Nathan, 2018).

There are two main interactionist models of disability: the transactional model and the systems model.

1.3.1 The Transactional Model

Under its real name – the integrative cognitive-behavioural transactional model (Kerns et al., 1994) – the transactional model (Llewellyn, 1999; Llewellyn et al., 2000; Sameroff et al., 2003a; Bricout et al., 2004) is based on the understanding of the environment as an interactive structure of which individuals are "active synthesizers" of meanings (Llewellyn et al., 2000). This model focuses on the iterative loop of mutual behavioural-, emotional- and belief-related influences between an individual and their micro-environment (the person with disability and their family), the meso-environment (institutions), transpersonal factors and organisational dynamics with which they interact (Bricourt et al., 2004). In other words, the transactional model is centred on the mutual, reciprocal and perpetual influences between an individual's or micro-environment's attitudes, beliefs and behaviour s and the meso-environment in which they evolve. It is a sort of bio-social model of disability, in the sense of Schantz & Gilbert (2001, 2008, 2012 a, b).

With specific regard to disability, the transactional model of disability teaches us that the experience of disability is co-constructed by the emotional, attitudinal, and behavioural transactions between the bearer of impairment (and their close relatives) and the environment in which they evolve . It considers micro-to-macro (person-to-context) and macro-to-micro (context-to-person) processes underlying capacity development (King et al., 2017), and, consequently, disability. In the literature, this model has mostly been used in the cases of children with disabilities, to offer a context-based and therapy -facilitating framework for practitioners (Llewellyn, 1999; Sameroff et al., 2003a; Sameroff, 2009a; King et al., 2017). However, it can also be applied to adults.

To illustrate the transactional model, King et al. (2017) present the case of a young person called Ashley, whose behaviour and experience are best understood in relation to her as a "person-in-context". Ashley's behaviour and experiences are not fixed; they

evolve according to ever-changing transactional processes over her life course. This dynamism of Ashley's behaviour and experience opens up transactional opportunities and experiences, as every change in Ashley's behaviour or experience develops capacities for future life, and actively changes her world.

As King et al. (2017, p.7) put it,*" The outcomes of these transactional processes relate to her functioning-in-context, community participation, and selection of new opportunities and life niches. As she makes transitions to new contexts and experiences, such as university, she will engage in acculturation processes, as every new context has different sociocultural expectations and demands".*

1.3.2 The Systems Model

The systems model stems from the same interactionist idea as the transactional model. It is also a sort of bio-social model (Schantz and Gilbert, 2012a), but at the widest possible scale.

It differs from the transaction model in that, while the transactional model focuses on behavioural, emotional and attitudinal interactions, both mutual and perpetual, between the micro- and the macro- environment, the systems model goes beyond behavioural, emotional and attitudinal factors and encompasses a wider range of variables that might determine the experience of disability.

Also called the ecological model in reference to Bronfenbrenner's (1992) process-person-context that attributes a person's features to the synergic influence of their individual traits and environmental variables throughout the course of their life (Llewellyn et al., 2000; Bricout et al., 2004), the systems model is based on the premise that cognitive structures and emotional and attitudinal factors are not sufficient to fully understand a behaviour or an experience. As Cartwright (1978), in Bricout et al. (2004, p.54) puts it, "*behaviour could not adequately be understood simply in terms of cognitive structures, wishes, and expectations, and some way would have to be found for dealing with the constraints, opportunities, resources, and pressures that originate in the social, political, and technological environment."*

Llewellyn & Hogan (2000) deplore the fact that many studies consider the individual and it's environment as fixed and constant entities without any temporal dynamic, and

recommend the systems model as a solution for a more holistic understanding of the experience of disability, through a sort of "processural approach". It might be that for a more comprehensive understanding, we should explore the possibility of a new paradigm shift toward a processual model of disability.

1.3.3 The Limitations of Interactionist Models

Despite the uncontested advantage they offer as a result of their paradigmatic polyphasia which enables us to see the disability "mountain" from many perspectives at a time, interactionist models leave some questions unanswered. The most prominent of those unanswered questions is that of the distincti on between the circumstances demonstrating disability, and those merely bespeaking a lack of talent (Nathan et al., 2018).

Considering the example of three people: the first is wheelchair-bound, and cannot access somewhere he is expected because it is located on the top floor of a building without wheelchair access; the second is in a poor shape and, as a result, physically unable to get to the top of a hill and enjoy the view; the third lacks the psychological and physical wherewithal to realize his fantasy of climbing a very high mountain without an additional air supply, (Nathan et al., 2018) pose the hard question: Which of the three people is limited by disability? All three are unable to reach the place they wish because of a conjunction of environmental and bodily factors. The interactionist models fail to respond to that question. Bickenbach (2009) thinks there is no direct response to that question and Nathan et al. (2018) recommend the answer to that question to be constructed on a "case by case" basis.

1.4. A Post-Humanist Perspective

At the end of this review on disability models, it seems important to us to draw some post-humanist perspectives for the future of disability. Until the current era, the main models of disability have been: the individualistic models that locate disability within the individual and assimilate it to their bodily/mental endowment; the interpretivist models that locate disability in the eye of the beholder and environmental hostility; and the interactionist models which reconcile the previous two. However, will all these models remain relevant in the future?

If we consider the post-human theory of Braidotti (2013) and its applications to the field of disability (Goodley et al., 2014), we need to think what would (or could) be the meaning(s) and the implication(s) of disability in a post-human context. Coutant (2012) in Schantz and Gilbert (2012b) predicts that the outstanding advances of science in the designing of prostheses and cell regeneration will be efficacious weapons to fight aging and disability. However, it seems relevant to us to mention that those weapons shall only be efficacious against disability as it is understood today. It is hard to predict what the meaning and determining factors of disability will be tomorrow. With the improvements in biotechnologies and prostheses design , human kind will overcome all bodily imperfection in the near future. Advances in other fields will also enable us to circumvent any environmental hostilities. Yet, the disappearance of bodily imperfections and of environmental challenges that are the primary causes of disability today will cast an oblivion spell on the notion of disability, as these very same technological improvements may create new divides in the humankind. These divides may override today's disability divide, shifting the causes of disability towards other aspects.

Harari (2015, 2016) has blown the whistle on a dawning artificial intelligence- and technology-ruled era. Observing the exponentially growth in technological advances of the recent decades, especially in the fields of biology and bioengineering, Harari (2015, 2016) thinks that medicine will soon shift from a preventive/curative paradigm to one of "enhancement", and that healthy and fit humans will resort to technology to upgrade themselves and enhance their physical and/or mental capabilities. Aesthetic surgeries are a forerunner of these kinds of developments today. In the same vein, Harari (2015, 2016,) believes that the outstanding advances in the fields of artificial intelligence, automation, and robotics will deprive a huge number of humans of their professional value, as technology will perform their professional role better than they did, without going on strike or asking for annual leave. He continues, thinking that such a situation would create a huge "useless class", composed of unemployable people unable to perform better than their algorithm-driven counterparts. Such a class of apparently "good-for-nothings" will be deprived of any social power and will have almost no symbolic capital, as their only social value would lie in their ability to reproduce and perpetuate the human species. It is logical to believe that the survival of this class could depend on the pity of the "useful" class.

Thus, we will have on the one hand a humankind divides   along the lines of bodily enhancement – the enhanced and the non-enhanced – and on the other hand a divide according to professional utility: the useful and the useless. With these two new upcoming classes of humans, it is interesting to wonder whether the current paradigms related to disability will remain relevant, and to question what would then be the significance of disability.

1.5. Synthesis

The Table 1 below presents the different model of disability along with their core ideas, benefits, and limits.

typology	Models	Core ideas	Benefits	Limits
Individualistic	Medical	Disability as a disease	Drives the medical research	Exclude the role society and physical environment roles creation process of disability.
	Religious	Disability as divine fate	Gives a better subjective life quality to people with disabilities	Exclude the role society and physical environment roles creation process of disability.
	Functional	Specific impairment causes specific disability	Helps reinserting people with disabilities in some social and professional roles	Exclude the role society and physical environment roles creation process of disability.
interpretivist	Social	Disability is created by society's attitudes towards impaired people	Allowed to draw positive discrimination policies for people with disabilities	Exclude the evidence of impairment from the creation process of disability
	Environmental	Disability is created by the hostility of the physical environment	Triggered improvement of accessibility for people with disabilities to all the	Exclude the evidence of impairment from the creation process of disability

			physical structures in several countries	
interact ionists	Transa ctional	Disability results from the transactions between an impaired person, the society and the physical environment	Takes a high number of factors in the definition and the understanding of disability	Still fails to present the difference between the notions of disability and limit.
	System s	Disability results from interaction between bodily endowments and the whole creation	Is the model that takes the highest number of factors into account in defining disability	Still fails to present the difference between the notions of disability and limit.

Table 1 Models of disability

2. From Disability Models to Paralympic Sport Models: Paralympic Sport Identities.

2.1. History of Paralympic Sport

Though a very recent phenomenon in the millennial tradition of sporting practices, paralympic sport has rapidly grown and spread throughout the world, to the extent that the Paralympic Games have now become the second largest multi-sport event at a global scale, just behind the Olympic Games (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a, b; Brittain, 2012a, b, 2016). It is thus very interesting to trace back how such a "new phenomenon" could have evolved and spread so quickly to all the corners of the globe.

Basically, sport for people with disabilities as a competitive practice has existed since the nineteenth century (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a), but some scholars suggest that these competitive practices were more of mere freakshows than serious competitive sport (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a). However, by the end of the nineteenth century, some people with sensorial (visual and aural) impairment pioneered, staged and starred in their own rather serious sporting activities, with some success (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a).

A milestone in the development of high-performance disability sport could be the participation in the 1904 Olympics of a single-legged man who performed outstandingly, winning 6 medals. Another milestone is certainly the dusk of World War I and the post-World War I era, when, in 1917, stoolball was used as a sporting game for British wounded servicemen and annual stoolball tournaments held until 1927 (Reismüller & Parry, 2017), wheelchair sports days organised in England from 1923 onwards (Mandeville Legacy, 2014, in Reismüller & Parry, 2017), soldiers with disabilities included in an imperial sports rally in 1923 (Reismüller & Parry, 2017), the international silent games held in Paris in 1924 (DePauw, Gavron & DePauw, 2005), single-armed golf clubs created in 1932 (Brittain, 2016), and motor clubs for drivers with disabilities established in 1922 (Brittain, 2016).

The dawn of the post-World War II era was definitely the most decisive milestone in the spread and development of disability sport. At that time, a clinician involved in the rehabilitation of ex-servicemen and -women played major roles in the development and the spread of disability sport as a "competitive entity": Ludwig Guttmann, an English –

formerly German – neurosurgeon. Guttmann established and staged a competition for people with disabilities in 1948. The popularity of this competition and its future editions increased to the extent that it grew to become a successful multi-event games for people with disabilities, known today as "Paralympic Games".

Prior further developing on Guttmann's pioneer role on the development of disability sport as "competitive entity", it is worthwhile to notice that another pioneer in developed disability sport before Guttmann, but rather as leisure activity grounded in post-modern values. As a matter of fact, in April 1948, Srdecny – a Czech physical educator – organised the first Kladruby games: a 10-day sporting event starring 82 competitors with four types of disabilities (Srdecny, 1948, 2001, in Reismüller & Parry, 2017). These first games were composed of 3 parts – sporting, cultural, and institutional contests – and encompassed 14 disciplines for male competitors and 7 disciplines for women (Reismüller & Parry, 2017). Despite some troubled times, the Kladruby games grew into a somewhat popular sporting event for people with disabilities, but remained patient-oriented and inclusive as they focused on the rehabilitative and social dimensions of sport (Kladruby). This patient-oriented and inclusion-centred early philosophy of the Kladruby games has expanded over time, to the extent that nowadays, in Kladruby games, patients with different abilities team up to compete together against other ability-mixed teams (Reismüller & Parry, 2017). This philosophy may explain why these games did not grow into a huge commercial mega-event.

As for Guttmann, he had the most determinant influence on disability sport's (as "competitive entity grounded in modern values") worldwide momentum. Three months after Srdecny organised the first Kladruby games, he organised a small‐scale archery competition in stoke Mandeville for sixteen (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a, b; Brittain 2016) World War II veterans with spinal cord injuries (14 male and 2 female), while the 19th Olympic Games were opening at the London Wembley stadium, just thirty-five miles away (Steadward & Peterson, 1997; Bailey 2008, Britain; 2012a, 2016) – we are not saying here that there was any sort of link between the two competitions, or between the two organisers –. He was very ingenious to lean his concept on the Olympics; he networked, made partnerships and lobbied to quickly internationalize the Stoke Mandeville Games with the participation of foreign wheel-chaired ex-servicemen, first unofficially in 1951 and then officially from 1952 when he created the International Stoke Mandeville Games

Federation (ISMGF) (Brittain, 2016), later to be known as the International Stoke Mandeville Wheelchair Sport Federation (ISMWSF) (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a) and currently the International Wheelchair and Amputee Sports Federation (IWAS). As from 1951, the symbolic connection of the International St oke Mandeville Games to the Olympics will be presented in articles written by paraplegic patients, journalists and physiotherapists, who will refer to the games as "paralympiad" (1951) "Paralympics" (1953) or "paraolympics" (1954), not in today's understanding of these words, by rather in a "paraplegic Olympics" context – that is, a sort of Olympic event that was started by a paraplegic (Brittain, 2016).

From 1948 on, the S toke Mandeville Games – later the I nternational S toke Mandeville Games, then the World Wheelchair Games from 1997, then the IWAS World Games from 2009 – have been held every year. Yet another milestone in the development of high-performance disability sport is 1960, when Guttman succeeded in organising the International Stoke Mandeville Games in Rome, only a week (Schantz et Gilbert, 2012a) to a few weeks (Brittain, 2016) after the Olympics. In the same period, the pertinence of organising international sport for other disability groups – other than paraplegics – will be understood, and some disability sport associations will emerge to address the issue of international sport for other disability groups (Brittain, 2016). This is how, in 1964, the International Sports Organisation for the Disabled (ISOD) was established, representing four disability groups: the blind, those with cerebral palsy, amputees and other disability groups (Scruton, 1998, in Brittain, 2016).

1976 is the penultimate milestone in the history of high‐performance disability sport. As a matter of fact, until then the International Stoke Mandeville Games were "*grand festivals of paraplegic sport*" (Brittain, 2012a p.8) reserved for people with spinal cord injuries, as they were organised by the ISMGF and exclusively open to paraplegics. But in 1976, the IMSGF and the ISOD partnered to co-stage a more inclusive games that Brittain (2016, p:13) refers to as a "combined International Stoke Mandeville Games Federation (ISMGF) and International Sports Organisation for the Disabled (ISOD) games". Beyond the paraplegic, these games will include amputees , the blind and people with visual impairments. These games will be referred to as the "*Olympics for the disabled*" (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a, b), "an Olympiad for the physically disabled" (Reismüller & Parry 2017), or "*Torontolympiad*" (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a, b). In the same year, the ISOD organised

its winter games in Ornkoldsvik with some success. From then on, the ISMGF would partner with the ISOD to co-organise – or at least try to – their summer games every Olympic year and make them more inclusive for other disability groups on the one hand, and the ISOD would progressively open its winter games to other disability group on the other (Brittain, 2016). This is how the summer and winter games progressively became co-organised by the mainstream international disability sport organisations of that time. Competitors with spinal cord injuries will be included in winter games from the Geilo 1980 games onwards; those with cerebral palsy from the Arnheim 1980 games for summer games and Innsbruck 1984 for winter games; "the others" – meaning athletes with physical disabilities other than those already accepted in the games – from the Stoke Mandeville 1984 summer games and Nagano 1998 winter games onwards; and intellectual disabilities from the Atlanta 1996 games – though this group was excluded from Paralympic winter and summer games in 2000, until London 2012 (Brittain, 2016). The last milestone in the history of Paralympic sport is in 1988, when several disability sport international organisations partnered to stage in Seoul what was the first disability sport mega-event to be officially named the Paralympic Games. A year later, on September 22th 1989, the global governing body of the henceforth Paralympic movement, the International Paralympic Committee (IPC) was founded. It has been staging the Paralympic Games since then (Schantz &Gilbert, 2012a, Brittain 2016). Upon its creation the IPC changed the original meaning of Paralympic (paraplegic Olympics), to adopt its current meaning (games parallel to the Olympics). It also retrospectively renamed and gave the status of Paralympic Games to all the winter and summer editions of games organised by the ISMGF, the ISOD, or both in an Olympic year since 1960 (Reismüller & Parry 2017).

Today, by "Paralympic sport", we understand any high-performance disability sport included in the Paralympic Games program. But defining Paralympic sport like that seemed too simplistic to us. That is why we decided to dedicate a section to understanding what Paralympic sport really is.

2.2. Paralympic Sport Identity(ies)

Having earlier defined the concept of disability and considered that of sport to be self-evident , it now seems timely to us to outline the contours of disability sport, assimilated in this work to Paralympic sport.

In our view, defining something means displaying its identity. That is: saying what it is and excluding what it is not. As a recent phenomenon in the history of sporting practices, high- performance sport for people with disabilities – hereafter Paralympic sport – is in search of an identity (Schantz et al 2001; Howe, 2009). This quest for identity partially stems from the fact that the notions of "high-performance sport" and "disability" have long entertained an oxymoronic relationship, which is somehow still perceptible today, due to the fact that Paralympic sport from its very genesis has often borrowed from the identity of Olympic sport.

The identity of Paralympic sport is co-produced by the International Paralympic Committee (IPC) and a worldwide audience to whom it tries to sell Paralympic sport commercially as well as symbolically and ideologically. There are many ways of justifying this assertion : we might acknowledge that Paralympic sport has its own ontological existence, but is also socially and ontically determined by what society thinks about it or decides it to be; we might also call again on Kant's (1781) distinction between an object as it is in itself (noumenon), and as it is experienced or appears to us through our senses (phenomenon).

Therefore , questioning the identity of Paralympic sport should be a twofold investigation that questions on the one hand the identity of Paralympic sport as envisioned and promoted by the IPC – a sort of endogenous identity – that Duveen (1993, 2001) calls a contractual identity, and on the other hand the identity of Paralympic sport as perceived or constructed by the worldwide audience – a sort of exogenous identity – that Duveen (1993, 2001) calls an imperative identity.

However, it is too simplistic to talk about the exogenous identity of Paralympic sport in a singular form, as every single group or society bestows an identity to Paralympic sport based on the way it intersubjectively experiences Paralympic sport in a direct way through observation and practice, and in an indirect way through communication and

representations. Therefore, we will rather address the question of Paralympic sport subjectively constructed perceptions and / or representations as "exogenous identities".

According to Schantz and Gilbert (2001, 2012a, b) and Brittain (2016, 2020), these exogenous identities feed themselves within the media representations/ depictions of Paralympic sport, as media constitute the bridges between Paralympic sport realities in the arenas and people's and/ or groups' experiences of it.

In this conceptual part, we will focus on (1) the endogenous identity of Paralympic sport; that is, how Paralympic sport is defined and promoted by its umbrella organisation, the International Paralympic Committee; and (2) the media representations/ depictions of Paralympic sport. As for Paralympic sport's exogenous identities – how it is experienced, perceived or represented by different groups – a huge, later part of this work, especially the chapter V and VI, will be dedicated to them.

2.2.1 Paralympic Sport's Endogenous Identity

On the IPC's official webpage (consulted on November 7th, 2019), a thumbnail is dedicated to sports – understood as Paralympic sports – confirming that Paralympic sports are those disability sports that belong to Paralympic Games program. It further explains that there are 28 Paralympic sports, of which 22 are summer and 6 winter sports.

An exploration of IPC's official publications, texts, and by-laws, (cf. IPC, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2019a, b) allowed us to determine that Paralympic sport is presented by its umbrella organisation in terms of sports, practitioners and values (see Figure 2). Having further consulted the IPC's website after the Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, we observe that some elements of the IPC's values, vison and moto have been changed. However, as our work aimed at addressing Paralympic sport identity before the Tokyo 2020 Paralympics, we decided to present in this manuscript, only the endogenous identity of Paralympic sport that immediately predated Tokyo 2020 Paralympics.

In this triad sports – Practitioners – context, that define this Paralympic sport endogenous identity, "sports" in this framework refers to practices that are part of the Paralympic program. "Practitioners" refers to the types of bodies that the Paralympic games are a stage for – that is, a set of disability categories that are allowed to participate

in the Paralympic Games. "Values" here refers to the desirable context in which practitioners are expected to contest in one or many of the different sports forming the Paralympic sport program. The triad, sports (practices), practitioners (bodies) and values (context) can be used as a framework to describe the endogenous identity of Paralympic sport. The Figure 2 below gives a synoptic view of this framework.
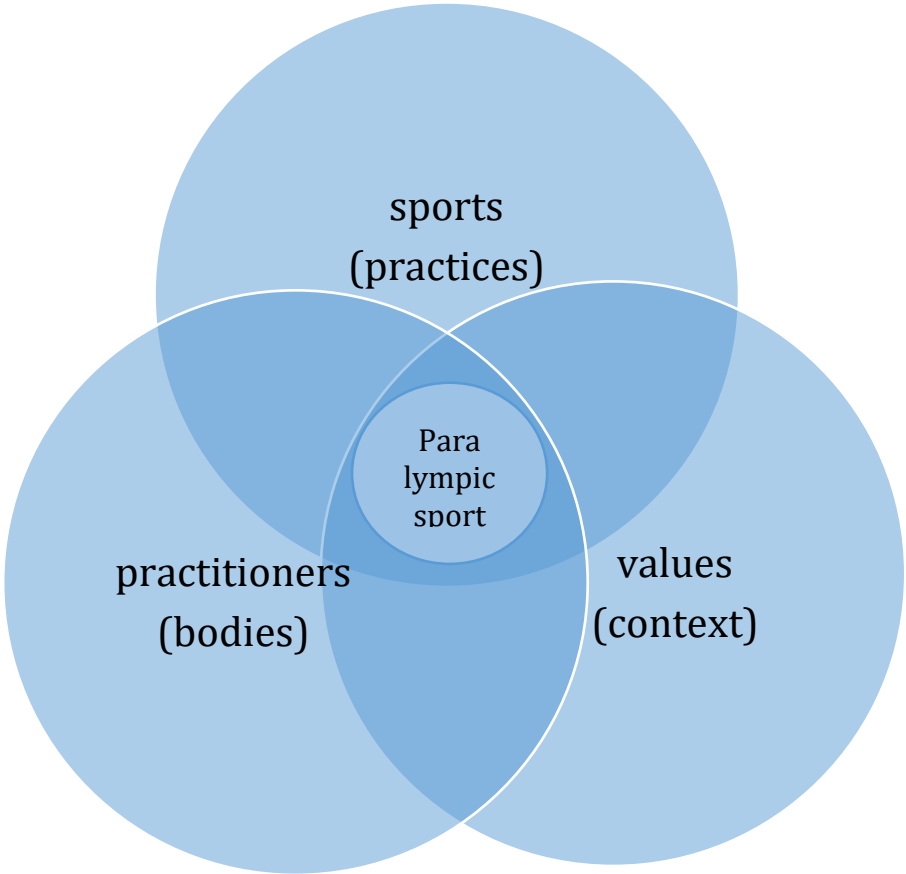
Figure 2 Framework for analysing the endogenous identity of Paralympic sport

2.2.1.1 Practitioners

It is worth noticing that not all people with impairments are eligible to participate in Paralympic sports. In fact, there are only 10 impairments whose bearers are eligible. Also, the impairment must be severe enough that it restraints its bearer's sporting performance (IPC, 2015)

The table below is provided by the IPC (2015, 2016) and itemises the 10 impairments whose bearers are eligible to participate.

Impairment	Explanation
Impaired muscle power	Reduced force generated by muscles or muscle groups; may occur in a single limb or the lower half of the body, as caused, for example, by spinal cord injuries, Spina Bifida or Poliomyelitis.
Impaired passive range of movement	Range of movement in one or more joints is reduced permanently. Joints that can move beyond the average range of motion, joint instability, and acute conditions, such as arthritis, are not considered eligible impairments.
Limb deficiency	Total or partial absence of bones or joints, either from birth or as a consequence of trauma (e.g., car accident or amputation) or illness (e.g., bone cancer).
Leg length difference	Bone shortening in one leg from birth or trauma.
Short stature	Reduced standing height due to the abnormal dimensions of bones of the upper and lower limbs or trunk, for example due to achondroplasia or growth hormone dysfunction.
Hypertonia	Abnormal increase in muscle tension and the reduced ability of a muscle to stretch, which can result from injury, illness or a health condition such as cerebral palsy.
Ataxia	Lack of co-ordination of muscle movements due to a neurological condition, such as cerebral palsy, brain injury or multiple sclerosis.
Athetosis	Generally characterized by unbalanced, uncontrolled movements and a difficulty in maintaining a symmetrical posture, due to cerebral palsy, brain injury, multiple sclerosis or other conditions.

Visual impairment	Vision is impacted by either an impairment of the eye structure, optical nerve/pathways or the part of the brain controlling vision (visual cortex).
Intellectual Impairment	A limitation in intellectual functioning and adaptive behaviour as expressed in conceptual, social and practical adaptive skills, which originates before the age of 18.

Table 2 Types of impairment

Presentation and explanation of the 10 impairments eligible whose bearer are eligible to Paralympic sport (IPC, 2015 p. 2-3; 2016 p.3).

2.2.1.2 Sport Classes as Bridges Between Practitioners and Practices.

In order to make sure para-athletes compete in a minimum of equitable conditions; they are classified into sport classes. The IPC (2016 p. 4) explanatory guide to Paralympic classification for winter sports defines a sport class as "*a category in which athletes are grouped depending on how much their impairment impacts performance* ...". Apart from the classification for visually-impaired athletes, which is transversal to all the winter and summer Paralympic sports, the classification for all the other athletes is sport-specific (IPC, 2015). Only para-athletes in the same sport class compete together – or against each other – in the sport which the class specifies, with the exception of team sports, in which each para-athlete's sport-specific limitation is quantified according to a point system; a maximum, cumulative number of such points is imposed as an upper threshold to each team (IPC, 2016)

The table 3 below itemises the Paralympic sports, along with the impairment whose bearers are eligible to participate in them, and the sport classes associated to them.

Paralympic sport	Impairments eligible	Sport classes
Alpine skiing	-Impaired muscle power -Impaired passive range of movement -Limb deficiency -Leg-length difference -Hypertonia -Ataxia -Athetosis Visual impairment	13 sport classes, of which: sport classes B1, B2 and B3, for skiers with vision impairment sport classes LW1, LW2, LW3, LW4, LW5/7, LW6/8, LW9 for standing skiers sport classes LW10, LW11 and LW12 for sit-skiers
Biathlon	-Impaired muscle power -Impaired passive range of movement -Limb deficiency -Leg length difference -Hypertonia -Ataxia -Athetosis -Visual impairment	15 sport classes, of which: sport classes B1, B2 and B3, for skiers with vision impairment sport classes LW2, LW3, LW4, LW5/7, LW6, LW8, LW9 for standing skiers sport classes LW10, LW10.5, LW 11, LW11.5 and LW12 for sit-skiers
Cross-country skiing	-Impaired muscle power -Impaired passive range of movement -Limb deficiency -Leg length difference -Hypertonia -Ataxia -Athetosis -Visual impairment	15 sport classes, of which: sport classes B1, B2 and B3, for skiers with vision impairment sport classes LW2, LW3, LW4, LW5/7, LW6, LW8, LW9 for standing skiers sport classes LW10, LW10.5, LW 11, LW11.5 and LW12 for sit-skiers
Para ice hockey (ice sledge hockey)	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Limb deficiency Leg length difference Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis	Only 1 sport class
Snowboard	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Limb deficiency Leg length difference Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis	3 sport classes, of which: SB-LL1 and SB-LL2 for lower-limbs impairments and SB-LL3 for upper-limbs impairments.
Wheelchair curling	Impaired muscle power	Only 1 sport class

	Impaired passive range of movement Leg length difference Limb deficiency Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis	
Archery	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Limb deficiency Leg length difference Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis	2 sport classes, of which: W1 for impairments entailing the loss of leg and trunk function(s) and "OPEN" for all the other impaired athletes eligible for the practice of archery.
Athletics	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Leg length difference Limb deficiency Short stature Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis Visual impairment Intellectual impairment	T standing for track and F standing for Field 31 Sport classes, of which: T/F11, T/F12, and T/F13 for athletes with visual impairments T20/F20 for athletes with intellectual impairments F31, T32/F32, T33/F33, T34/F34, T35/F35, T36/F36, T37/F37, and T38/F38 for athletes bearer of ataxia, athetosis and hypertonia T40/F40, and T14/F41 for athletes with short stature T42/F42, T43/F43, T44/F44, T45/F45, T46/F46 and T47 for athletes with limb(s) deficiencies T51, T52, T53, T54, F51, F52, F53, F54, F55, F56 and F57 for athletes with impaired muscle poser of range of movement.
Badminton	Impaired muscle power Athetosis Impaired passive range of movement Hypertonia Limb deficiency Ataxia Leg length difference Short stature	6 sport classes, of which: WH1 (Wheelchair/ severe impairment) WH2 (Wheelchair/minor impairment) SL3 (Standing/lower limb impairment/minor) SL4 (Standing/ lower limb impairment/severe) SU5 (Standing/upper limb impairment) SS6 (Standing/short stature)
Boccia	Impaired muscle power	4 sport classes, including:

	Impaired passive range of movement Limb deficiency Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis	BC1, BC2, BC3 for athletes with hypertonia, athetosis or ataxia And BC4 for impairments that have no cerebral origin.
Canoe	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Limb deficiency Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis	3 sport classes for Kayak and 3 classes for Va'a, including: KL1/VL1 for Athletes with very limited to no trunk and no leg function. KL2/VL2 for Athletes with partial trunk and leg function. and KL3/VL3 for Athletes with trunk and partial leg function.
Cycling	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Leg length difference Limb deficiency Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis Visual impairment	13 sport classes, of which H1, H2, H3, H4 and H5 for Handcycling T1 and T2 for tricycle C1, C2, C3, C4 and C5 for bicycle and TB for tandem (practiced by people with visual impairments)
Equestrian	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Leg length difference Limb deficiency Short stature Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis Visual impairment	Here sport classes are referred to as grades with respect to the severity of the impairment. Thus, there are 5 grades, of which: The grades Ia, Ib and II for physical impairments and the grades III and IV for physical or visuals impairments
Football 5-a-side	Visual impairment	Only 1 sport class, especially B1 (blind football players) otherwise other players should wear eyeshades.
Goalball	Visual impairment	All the 3 visual impairment sport classes merged into 1 otherwise; other players should wear eyeshades.
Judo	Visual impairment	All the eligible judokas compete together in one event, regardless of the severity of their impairment
Powerlifting	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Leg length difference Limb deficiency Short stature Hypertonia	Only 1 sport class, in which powerlifters compete in their weight categories.

	Ataxia Athetosis	
Rowing	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis Visual impairment	4 sport classes, namely AS sport class for athletes primarily using their arms and shoulder to power the boat. TA sport class for athletes that can use both arms and trunk LTA-PD for athletes that can use their arms, trunk and legs LTA-VI for athletes visually impaired
Shooting Para sport	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Limb deficiency Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis	3 sport classes, of which Sport class SH1 for the pistol and the rifle and sport classes SH1 for the Rifle
Sitting volleyball	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Leg length difference Limb deficiency Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis	2 sport classes, especially The MD for "minimally disabled" and the D for the "disabled" Only one "MD" is allow on the court, which means there should always be 5 "D" on the court.
Swimming	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Leg length difference Limb deficiency Short stature Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis Visual impairment Intellectual impairment	33 Sport classes starting with "S", "SB", or "SM" respectively indicating for freestyle, butterfly and Backstroke events, break stroke, and individual Medley, of which: Sport classes S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10, SB1, SB2, SB3, SB4, SB5, SB6, SB7, SB8, SB9, SM1, SM2, SM3, SM4, SM5, SM6, SM7, SMM8, SM9, and SM10 for swimmers with physical impairments Sport classes S/SB11, S/SB12, S/SB13 for athletes with visual impairments And S/SB 14 for athletes with intellectual impairments
Table tennis	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Leg length difference Limb deficiency Short stature Hypertonia Ataxia	11 sport classes, including: Sport classes 1 to 5 for sitting table tennis Sport classes 6 to 10 for standing table tennis Sport class 11 for table tennis standing players with intellectual impairment.

	Athetosis Intellectual impairment	
Taekwondo	Impaired muscle power Athetosis Hypertonia Limb deficiency Ataxia	2 sport classes, especially: K43 for athletes with bilateral amputation below the elbow, or equivalent loss of function in both upper limbs K44 for athletes with unilateral arm amputation (or equivalent loss of function), or loss of toes which impact the ability to lift the heel properly
Triathlon	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Limb deficiency Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis Visual impairment	9 sport classes, including: PTWC1 for athletes with impairments in upper (PTWC1), limbs PTWC2 for athlete limited in lower limbs. Both PTWC use handcycle for the cycling segment and a racing chair for the running segment. **PT 2, PT3, PT4, PT5,** for athletes with limitations in lower and/or upper limbs (the lower the number the more severe the disability) who compete in (regular) cycling and running, with some assistive devices as prostheses and/ or bike modifications. **PTVI 1, PTVI2, PTVI3** for visually impaired triathletes. classes **PTWC** and **PTVI** competing in combined events, intervals starts system depending on sport class.
Wheelchair basketball	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Leg length difference Limb deficiency Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis	8 sport classes, of which: Class1.0 for athletes with no trunk control Classes 2.0, 3.0 and 4.0 for basketballers with some trunk control Class 4.5 for basketballers with full trunk control Classes 1.5, 2.5, and 3.5 for basketballers fitting in between classes.
Wheelchair fencing	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Leg length difference Limb deficiency Hypertonia Ataxia	2 sport classes declined into categories, especially: Category A for fencers with good trunk control and category B for fencers with moderate trunk control

	Athetosis	
Wheelchair rugby	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Limb deficiency Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis	Seven sport classes, especially The classes 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0 and 3.5 depending on the activity limitation
Wheelchair tennis	Impaired muscle power Impaired passive range of movement Leg length difference Limb deficiency Short stature Hypertonia Ataxia Athetosis	2 sport classes, especially Open class for player with impairments that do not affect arm function and Quad class for players with impairments entailing arm function loss

Table 3 Types of Paralympic sports. from IPC (2019b), Tokyo 2020 (2019)

Each Paralympic sport encompasses a certain number of disciplines and/ or categories, which are specific to certain classes, and often to gender (male or female)

2.2.1.3 An Overview of Paralympic Practices

Paralympic sports are either adapted from able-bodied sports (like the cases of athletics, archery, snowboard, swimming …), or specially created for people with disabilities (like Goalball). The table 4 below summarizes the summer and winter Paralympic sports, and details the disciplines composing each one of them.

Paralympic sport	**Season**	**Disciplines and/ or categories scheduled for Tokyo 2020 or Beijing 2022**	
Alpine skiing	Winter	SPEED EVENTS - Downhill VI - Downhill Sitting - Downhill Standing - Super-G VI - Super-G Sitting - Super-G Standing - Super Combined VI - Super Combined Sitting - Super Combined Standing	Technical events - Giant Slalom VI - Giant Slalom Sitting - Giant Slalom Standing - Slalom VI - Slalom Sitting - Slalom Standing
Biathlon	Winter	- Sprint VI - Sprint Sitting - Sprint Standing	

		- Middle Distance VI - Middle Distance Sitting - Middle Distance Standing - Individual VI - Individual Sitting - Individual Standing	
Cross-country skiing	Winter	- Sprint Free VI - Sprint Sitting - Sprint Free Standing - Middle Distance Free VI - Middle Distance Sitting - Middle Distance Free Standing - Long Distance Classic VI - Long Distance Sitting - Long Distance Classic Standing	Mixed events - Open 4x2.5km Relay - Mixed 4x2.5km Relay
Para ice hockey	Winter	Team tournament for men, but each team should include 1 woman	
Snowboard	Winter	Banked Slalom SB-LL1* Banked Slalom SB-LL2* Banked Slalom SB-UL * Snowboard Cross SB-LL1* Snowboard Cross SB-LL2* Snowboard Cross SB-UL*	Banked Slalom SB-LL2** Snowboard Cross SB-LL2**
Wheelchair curling	Winter	Team tournament, each team should include at least one female.	
Archery	Summer	• Individual W1 • Individual Compound - Open • Individual Recurve - Open • Team W1 (Mixed) • Team Compound - Open (Mixed) • Team Recurve - Open (Mixed)	
Athletics	Summer	• 100m T11, T12, T13, T33*, T34, T35, T36, T37, T38, T47, T51*, T52, T53, T54, T63, T64 • 200m T11**, T12**, T35, T36**, T37, T47**, T51*, T61*, T64 • 400m T11, T12, T13, T20, T36*, T37, T38, T47, T52*, T53, T54, T62* • 800m T34, T53, T54	

		- 1500m T11, T13, T20, T38*, T46*, T52*, T54
		- 5000m T11*, T13*, T54
		- 4x100m Medley (Mixed)
		- Long Jump T11, T12, T13*, T20, T36*, T37, T38, T47, T63, T64,
		- High Jump T47*, T63*, T64*
		- Club Throw F32, F51
		- Discus Throw F11, F37*, F38**, F41**, F52*, F53**, F55**, F56 *, F57**, F64
		- Javelin Throw F13, F34, F38*, F41*, F46, F54, F56, F57 *, F64 *
		- Shot Put F11*, F12, F20, F32, F33, F34, F35, F36, F37, F40, F41, F46*, F53*, F54**, F55*, F57, F63**
		- Marathon T12, T46*, T54
Badminton	Summer	- Singles WH1
		- Singles WH2
		- Singles SL3*
		- Singles SL4
		- Singles SU5
		- Singles SS6*
		- Doubles WH
		- Doubles SL/SU** (Mixed)
Boccia	Summer	- Individual BC1, BC2, BC3, BC4 (Mixed)
		- Team BC1/BC2 (Mixed)
		- Pairs BC3, BC4 (Mixed)
Canoe	Summer	- Kayak KL1, KL2, KL3
		- and va'a VL2, VL3*
Cycling	Summer	Track
		- Kilo C1*, C2*, C3*, C4*, C5*
		- 500m C1**, C2**, C3**, C4**, C5**
		- C1-5 Team Sprint (Mixed)
		- Pursuit C1, C2, C3, C4, C5
		- B Kilo
		- B Pursuit Road
		- Road Race H2, H3, H4, H5*, C1, C2, C3, C4, C5, T1, T2.
		- B Road Race
		- Time Trial H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, C1, C2, C3, C4, C5, T1, T2
		- B Time Trial (
		- H2-5 Team Relay (Mixed)
Equestrian	Summer	Championship Test
		- Individual
		- Team – Open (Mixed)
		- Freestyle Test
		- Individual
Football 5-a-side	Summer	Team tournament (men only)
Goalball	Summer	Team tournament (Men/Women)

Judo	Summer	Practiced according to weight categories, especially 66, 73, 81, 90, 100 and over 100 kg for men and 48, 52, 57, 63, 70, and over 70kg for women
Powerlifting	Summer	Practiced according to weight categories, especially 49, 54, 59, 65, 72, 80, 88, 97, 107 and over 107, for men and 41, 45, 50, 55, 61, 67, 73, 79, 86, and over 86 for women
Rowing	Summer	- PR1M1x * - PR1W1x** - PR2Mix2x (Mixed) - PR3Mix4+ (Mixed)
Shooting Para sport	Summer	Rifle 10m Air Rifle Standing SH1, SH2 50m Rifle 3 positions SH1 10m Air Rifle Prone (Mixed), SH1, SH2 - R6 - 50m Rifle Prone(Mixed) SH1, SH2 - Pistol - P 10m Air Pistol SH1 25m Pistol SH1 (Mixed) 50m Pistol SH1 (Mixed)
Sitting volleyball	Summer	Team tournament
Swimming	Summer	50m Freestyle S3*, S4, S5*, S6**, S7*, S8**, S9*, S10, S11, S12, S13. 100m Freestyle S3**, S4*, S5, S6*, S7**, S8*, S9**, S10, S11**, S12 200m Freestyle S2*, S3*, S4*, S5, S14 400m Freestyle S6, S7, S8 S9, S11, S13 50m Backstroke S1*, S2, S3, S4, S5 100m Backstroke S1*, S2, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10, S11, S12, S13, S14 50m Breaststroke SB2*, SB3 100m Breaststroke SB4, SB5, SB6, SB7, SB8, SB9, SB11, SB12, SB13, SB14 50m Butterfly S5, S6, S7 100m Butterfly S8, S9, S10, S11*, S12*, S13, S14 150m Individual Medley SM3*, SM4 200m Individual Medley SM5*, SM6, SM7, SM8, SM9, SM10, SM11, SM13, SM14 4x100m Freestyle Relay 34 Points 4x100m Medley Relay 34 Points - Mixed 4x50m Freestyle Relay 20 points - Mixed 4x100m Freestyle Relay S14 - Mixed 4x100m Freestyle Relay 49 points
Table tennis	Summer	- Singles - Classes 1*, 1-2**, 2*, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11. - Team Classes 1-2*, 1-3**, 3*, 4-5, 6-7*, Class 6-8**, 8*, 9-10.

Taekwondo	Summer	2 sport classes (K44 and K43) competing together in weight categories, especially • 61kg, 75, more than 75 for men • and 49, 58, and more than 58 for women
Triathlon	Summer	• PTWC • PTS2** • PTS4* • PTS5 • PTVI** • PTS4*including PTS2 & PTS3 • PTS5** including PTS3 & PTS4
Wheelchair basketball	Summer	Team tournament (Men/Women)
Wheelchair fencing	Summer	Épée : • Category A, Category B, Team Foil • Category A, Category B, Team Sabre • Category A, Category B
Wheelchair rugby	Summer	Team tournament (Mixed)
Wheelchair tennis	Summer	• Singles • Doubles • Singles – Quad (gender-mixed) • Doubles – Quad (Mixed)

Table 4 Summer and winter Paralympic sports (From IPC (2021a, b) qualification criteria for winter and summer games.)

Notes: * event reserved to male athletes, ** event reserved to female athletes, when not specified, event in which there are distinctly different male and female competitions.

2.2.1.4 Paralympic Values

Another component of the framework we created to analyse Paralympic sport's endogenous identity was values – the context in which practitioners should practice. While it has been somewhat easy to identify the bridges by which the first two components (practices and practitioners) are linked, and to show how they are intertwined with one another, such an exercise appears to be a bit more troublesome with regard to the third component of our framework. Indeed , the connection between Paralympic values and practices or practitioners is less straightforward to identify or showcase than the connection between practitioners and practices. This is probably due to an apparent inconsistency of values with the practices and practitioners.

In a thumbnail dedicated to Paralympic values the IPC (2014), the umbrella organisation of Paralympic sport, clearly and unequivocally states that the Paralympic

values are determination, equality, inspiration and courage. These values are to be added to those included in the IPC motto "*spirit in motion*"(introduced in Athens, 2004, to replace "*body, mind , spirit*" adopted in 1994), and those included in its vision "*To Enable Paralympic Athletes to Achieve Sporting Excellence and Inspire and Excite the World*", adopted by the IPC general assembly in 2003.

As we will develop in a further section (see chapter IV), values refer to what is important and preferable in terms of pursuits. Values for organisations are drivers of action , just like visions and mottos. Therefore, our perspective is that besides the Paralympic values as explicitly stated by the umbrella organisation, there are also some Paralympic values indirectly displayed through the IPC vision and motto.

From the IPC's vision statement, it is easy to infer that empowerment, excellence, inspiration and excitement are the values lurking behind this vision. However, unlike its vision, the IPC motto seems a bit more complicated to understand, especially with its highly poetic and hollow phrasing. Luckily, this motto was further developed and a clear explication of its "meaning in context" was provided in The Paralympian (no2, 2003 in Bailey, 2008). According to this source (p.149), the IPC motto, "spirit in motion" expresses "*the inspirational character of the Paralympic movement as well as the elite performance of Paralympic athletes*". That is, this motto refers to inspiration and excellence.

The triad of official values, vision and motto might constitute a framework for analysing the true values of Paralympic sport. This framework compiles the IPC's officially stated values with the values lurking in its motto and vision.

The figure 3 below presents a synoptic view of the framework formed by the IPC's official values, vision and motto, through which we can analyse the values of Paralympic sport.
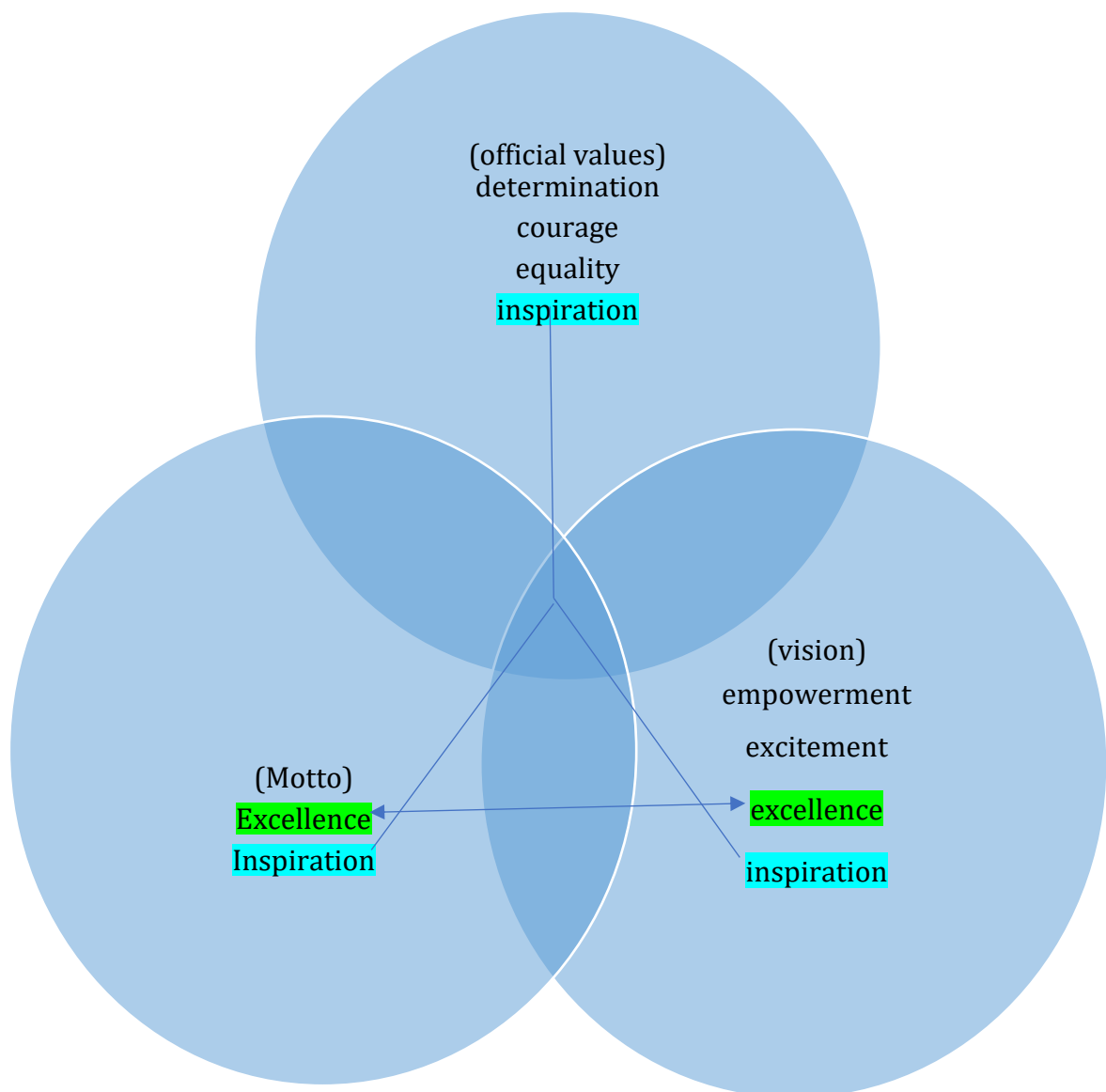
Figure 3 Framework for analysing Paralympic sport values

Internally, the three components of our Paralympic sport values framework are consistent with one another, as they overlap with one another. Externally (in relationship to other components of our Paralympic sport endogenous identity framework), they do not always overlap with practitioners and practices: there are some areas of overlap, but also several areas of inconsistency.

As for the areas of overlap, classification can be understood as a pursuit of equity, that is, an attempt to achieve equity among the practitioners in the same practices. Though equity is not part of the Paralympic sport values framework, it can be assimilated to some extent to equality. From this perspective, equality can be an area of overlap of the three components of our Paralympic sport identity framework.

Courage, determination, inspiration, excitement, empowerment, and excellence are also other Paralympic values that can be related to other components of Paralympic sport identity, especially practitioners and practices: practice requires courage and determination from practitioners; the practice of practitioners should *"inspire and excite the world"*; practice should empower the practitioners; and excellence should be the aim of practitioners in their practice(s).

With regard to areas of inconsistency, since only some people with disabilities are eligible for Paralympic sport, the Paralympic sport value of "equality" can be strongly debated. As matter of fact, a huge number of body types are still excluded from Paralympic practices. This is particularly concerning as in its explanation of its vision, the IPC (2014 p.1), referring to equality, states: *"Paralympic Sport acts as an agent for change to break down social barriers of discrimination for persons with an impairment".* So, from their own perspective, they do exclude and discriminate various groups with disabilities by not allowing them to become Paralympic practitioners.

Another area of inconsistency lies in the item "excellence" among the Paralympic values. In fact, how can the IPC require excellence from disabled bodied people in sporting practices? Is this not a very demanding request?

2.2.2. A Post-Human Perspective of Disability Sport

As we have seen in the description above, practitioners of Paralympic sport are defined in terms of sport class. At the dawn of the post- humanist era, this pillar of Paralympic sport is being questioned.

Eligibility and sport classes (classification) are all inherent to impairment. However, with the advances in bio engineering, medical sciences, and technology in general , disability as currently understood is bound to disappear (Harari, 2015), and (the post- humanist and transhumanism theories authors). Besides, artificial material like prostheses are likely to become more performant than the natural biological human material in the near future. Therefore, will we see a Paralympic paradigm shift, erasing the disability essence of Paralympic sport and replacing it with superability?

Another interesting post-humanistic perspective of Paralympic sport to be explored is that of motorisation and automatization. Indeed , it is increasingly common to come

across flocks of people getting around on overboards, segways, airwheels, and other motorized devices intended to replace walking. Pedestrians seem to hugely prefer using these new tools over walking. Motor engines are increasingly a part of our daily- and even hourly- motion, and motor-assisted movement is becoming as natural as natural movement. This could lead to the inclusion of motorized activities into the Paralympic Games. That is, a rupture with the exclusivity of man-powered motions and the inclusion of machine-powered sporting activities in the P aralympic program. The first Cyborg games held in Zürich in 2016 exemplified the idea above.

2.2.3 Paralympic Sport's Media Identity

In our effort to apprehend what Paralympic sport is or could be, we presented Paralympic sport as a multifaceted object. We then decided to analyse its several identities, as for example endogenous (see the section 2.2 of the chapter I), exogenous (see the chapter and VI), and media (see chapter III). We have analysed its endogenous and exogenous identities already. We now turn to the analysis of its media identity.

As it is very difficult and demanding to attend the Paralympic games (for a number of reasons), media constitute the bridge (perhaps the only one) between the arenas and most people. We assume that media influence on Paralympic sport individual and social representations could be more important in a disability sport context than in an able-bodied sport context. Indeed, as we will see later when developing media theories, media influence increases with a corresponding lack of direct experience of the concerned object or phenomenon (Zucker, 1978) (see Paragraph 1.1.1.1 from the chapter III). As people have more access to and are more likely to directly experience able-bodied sport than disability sport, media representations should be carefully studied when it comes to disability sports because they might account for a greater part of individuals' representations than in an able-bodied sport context.

Scholars have increasingly been investigating the media attention and depiction of disability sport. Thought to date there have not been many studies examining the media coverage of disability sport in Cameroon, there have been several studies addressing media coverage of disability sport in France (e.g. Lachal, 1990a, b; Schantz & Marty, 1995; Schantz & Gilbert , 2001; Reichhart & Myazhion, 2012; Marcellini, 2012), in Germany (e.g. Schimanski, 1994 ; Enting, 1997; Schantz & Gilbert , 2001; Bertling, 2012; Raab & Fanda,

2012) in the UK (e.g. Atuona, 2012; Brittain, 2012b), in Austria (e.g. Lebersorg & Dinold, 2012), in Singapore (e.g. Brooke, 2018), in the Czech republic (e.g. Tejkalová & Strielkowski, 2015), in Spain (e.g. Solves et al., 2018), in Malaysia (e.g. Geok , Khoo, Razman, 2016), in the USA (e.g. Shell & Duncan, 1999; Schimanski, 1994; Fong & Katz, 2012), in Canada (e.g. Maika, Danylchuk, 2016; Fong & Katz, 2012; Mason, 2013), in New Zealand (e.g. Bruce, 2014), in Switzerland (e.g. Bertschy & Reinhardt; 2012), in Australia (e.g. Goggin & Newel, 2005), and in the world in general (e.g. Léséduc, 2012).

These studies have mainly investigated disability sport coverage on television (e.g. Shell & Duncan, 1999; Atuona, 2012; Raab & Fanda, 2012) in newspapers and print media (e.g. Lachal, 1990a, 1990b; Schimanski, 1994; Schantz & Marty, 1995; Schantz & Marty, 1995; Schantz & Gilbert, 2001; Misiner, 2012; Reichhart & Myazhion, 2012; Tejkalová & Strielkowski 2015; Solves et al., 2018), and in new media (internet and social networks) (e.g. French & Chair, 2018) but have almost universally paid little to no attention to radio.

These studies investigated the media representation of Paralympic sport during the Seoul 1988 Paralympics (e.g. Stein, 1989), Barcelona 1992 (e.g. Tejkalová & Strielkowski, 2015), Atlanta 1996 (e.g. Schell & Duncan, 1996; Schantz & Gilbert, 2001; Reichhart & Myazhion, 2012; Tejkalová & Strielkowski, 2015), Sydney 2000 (e.g. Thomas & smith,2003; Pappous, 2008; De Leseleuc, Pappous, Marcellini, 2010; Tejkalová & Strielkowski, 2015), Athens 2004 (e.g. Quinn, 2007; Pappous, 2008; Ik Young, Crossman, 2009; Tejkalová & Strielkowski, 2015), Beijing 2008 (e.g. Borcherdung, 2010; Ik young, Crossman, Taylor et al., 2011; Tejkalová & Strielkowski, 2015; Solves et al., 2018, Buysse), Vancouver 2010 (e.g. Mason,2013), London 2012 (e.g. Geok Cheong, Khoo, Razman, 2016; Maika & Danylchuk, 2016; Solves et al., 2018) and Rio 2016 (e.g. McGillivray et al., 2019; Cheo et al., 2020).

2.2.3.1 The Media Coverage and representation of Paralympic Sport

Analysing the media coverage of Paralympic sport requires a multi-pronged approach, as we need to understand how media present Paralympic sport, that is: how Paralympic sport is reported; how frequently media include Paralympic sport in their agenda; and what are the inter -individual or -group variables accounting for the differences in the presentation or the visibility of Paralympic sport in media.

2.2.3.1.1 How Often it is Presented: The Frequency

Paralympic sport's entry into the media agenda at a global level started to be noticeable after the Seoul 1988 Paralympics (Findall, 2020), which happened to be the first games staged in the same venues as the Olympics after the Tokyo 1964 games (Brittain, 2016). Since then, it has then been generally increasingly present in media. The number of accredited media has increased from 1500 in Barcelona 1992 to 4957 in London 2012, having reached 5600 in Beijing 2008 (Brittain, 2017). However, apart from the period of the Paralympic games – that is, shortly before, during and shortly after the Paralympics – Paralympic sport is rarely present in the media (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001; Gilbert & Schantz, 2008). During the Paralympic games, Paralympic sport is more or less present in the media, at least as far as western countries like France (Lachal, 1990a, b; Schantz & Marty, 1995; Schantz & Gilbert , 2001; Reichhart & Myazhion, 2012; Marcellini, 2012), and Germany (Schimanski, 1994 ; Enting, 1997; Schantz & Gilbert , 2001; Bertling, 2012; Raab & Fanda, 2012) are concerned, and sometimes in Cameroon (depending on whether the country has sent a representative to the games or not).

Several scholars have qualitatively and quantitatively compared the media coverage of a Paralympic sport during the Paralympics with the corresponding Olympic sport during the Olympics in Atlanta (e.g. Schell & Duncan, 1999, Schantz & Gilbert, 2001), Sydney (e.g., Thomas & Smith, 2003; De Leseleuc, Pappous, Marcellini , 2010), Athens (e.g. Ik Young, Crossman, 2009), Beijing (Buysse, Borcherdung, 2010; e.g. Ik young, Crossman, Taylor et al., 2011), London (e.g. Geok, Khoo, Razman ,2016; Maika, Danylchuk, 2016) and Rio (e.g. Ress, Robinson, Shields, 2018). They have unanimously concluded for each of these editions that the media coverage of the Paralympic sport during the Paralympics was qualitatively and quantitatively lower than that of the Olympic sport during the Olympics. They also emphasized that the poor quality of media reportage of the Paralympic sport, and especially of the portrayal of para-athletes, feeds into "*existing notions that under-values their athleticism*" (Rees et al., 2018, P. 1). They equally found Paralympic sport media representation to not be free from the social struggles that shake our society (Atuona, 2012).

2.2.3.1.2 How it is Presented: The Contents

As we will develop in the section addressing media theories, events and practices are almost never depicted in media as they really are. Instead, they are presented in a "newsworthy" way that is expected to satisfy the "gatekeepers" (influential entities controlling media and therefore whose interests must be catered for by medias when reporting) on the one hand and to meet the expectations or at least the potential interest of a targeted audience on the other hand. In this process of constructing the media reality or identity of Paralympic sport, some elements from the original reality are censored, shielded, concealed, or distorted, while other purely fictional elements are added. The elements censored, shielded, concealed and/or distorted are those that are not deemed newsworthy. They are often substituted by fictional and "*hyperreal*" (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012b p.230) elements which, despite not belonging to the original reality of Paralympic sport, are judged to be in line with the demands of the "gatekeepers" and/or audience.

2.2.3.1.2.1. The Dominance of The Medical Model and Supercrip Narratives

Media have traditionally depicted or at least been inclined to present disability from an individual medical perspective, probably because that matches a long-standing and to some extent still-prevailing representation of disability as an individual fatality (Thomas & Smith , 2003; Hardin & Hardin, 2004; Smith & Thomas, 2005; 2009; Howe, 2008; Silva & Howe, 2012; Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a). Due to this representation, the notions of sports and disability have been perceived as oxymoronic (Marcellini, 2007; Djoumessi, 2019). This traditional oxymoronic relation perceived between disability and sport seems to have penetrated the media realm.

Several studies have found media to very often refer to the medical model of disability when presenting Paralympic athletes (e.g., Schantz & Gilbert, 2001; Thomas & Smith, 2003; Smith & Thomas, 2005; Paralympic, 2008; Tynedal, Ik Young, Buysse, Borcherdung, 2010; Crossman, Taylor et al., 2011; De Leseleuc, Pappous, Marcellini, 2010; Mason, 2013; Wolbring, 2013; Maika Danylchuk, 2016; Beacom, French, Kendall ,2016). That is, they present para-athletes as "*victims of misfortune, as different, as other*" (Schell & Duncan, 1999, p.27). This presentation of para-athletes under the lens of the medical model of disability has many consequences regarding the reportage of disability sport.

One of these consequences is that, when reporting disability sport, many journalists feel the need either to mention disability first (Beacom, French, Kendall ,2016), "*focus on the athlete's personal history*" (Bertling, 2012, p.62), or provide a "*medicalized description*" (Rees, Robinson, & Shields, 2017, p. 3). This emphasis on the disability and the athlete's personal history conflicts with the visibility of the athleticism in disability sport and often steals the spotlight from that athleticism (Rees and al., 2017) to the extent that some media have often reported the disability, but not the sport during the Paralympics (Newlands, 2012).

Another consequence inherent in the presentation of para- athletes under the medical model lens is the supercrip model (Schell & Duncan, 1999, Schantz et Gilbert, 2001, 2012; Silva & Howe, 2012; Brittain, 2016, 2017; Rees et al., 2017). The supercrip model is "*a stereotype narrative displaying the plot of someone who has to fight against his/her impairment in order to overcome it and achieve unlikely success*" (Silva & Howe, 2012, p.178). It is a stereotype according to which para-athletes' sporting achievements are considered "*superhuman*" (Haller, Dinca & Rioux, 2012, p. 51) feats. The supercrip model distorts Paralympic sport's aims for excellence by overvaluing performances on the one hand and   standardizing low expectations on the other (Silva & Howe, 2012).

2.2.3.1.2.2. Paralympic Sport Coverages and Social Issues

It has been shown that the media coverage of para-athletes is less important in quantity and quality than that of their able-bodied counterparts (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001; Golden, 2002, 2003; Brittain, 2009). However, even within the realm of disability sport, the media coverage seems to be uneven along several divides: gender (Schell & Duncan, 1999; Thomas & Smith, 2003), race(Atuona, 2012, Schantz & Gilbert, 2012b), and the disability severity (Lachal, 1990a, 1990b; Schimanski, 1994; Schantz & Marty, 1995; Schantz & Gilbert, 2001; Brittain, 2017). The issue of the media representation of Paralympic sport is connected to several social issues that divide our society. Among those are sexism, ableism, and racism (Atuona, 2012).

With regards to sexism, Schantz and Gilbert (2001), Thomas & Smith (2003), Ik Young and Crossman (2009), Buysse, Borcherdung (2010), Packer et al. (2015), Geok Cheong, Khoo, Razman (2016), and (Geok Cheong et al., 2020) have reported several qualitative and/or quantitative gender-related biases in the media reportage on women

para-athletes, respectively in the Paralympics of Atlanta, Sydney, Athens, Beijing, London and Rio. These biases mainly revolve around s exualisation, trivialisation and infantilisation (De Leseleuc, Pappous, Marcellini, 2010).

As for ableism, Schantz and Gilbert (2001), Thomas & smith (2003), Buysse, Borcherdung (2010) found that wheelchair athletes were the most represented in the media coverage of the Paralympic games in Atlanta, Sydney and Beijing. They were followed by amputees (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001; Buysse & Borcherdung, 2010). From a general perspective, there is discrimination in media coverage of disability sport , according to the athletes' rank in the "*hierarchy of normalcy*" (P 92) and the "*social acceptability of disability*" (P 27) (Flindall, 2020). Authors among which Lachal (1990a,b), Schimanski (1994), Schantz & Marty (1995), Schantz & Gilbert (2001), and Brittain (2016), have shown how media coverage of disability sport is predominantly oriented towards disciplines and para-athletes with physical or less-visible impairments, with a keen emphasis on wheel-chaired para- athletes. This dominant class of wheel-chaired para-athletes has been referred to as the "wheelchair fraternity" (Schantz & Marty, 1995). The absence of media coverage for athletes with cerebral palsy during Atlanta's Paralympics has also been noted by Schantz & Gilbert (2001).

With regards to racism, Atuona (2012) showed that there was an ethnic group-consciousness in the media coverage of disability sport, which was Eurocentric a nd revealed a pro-European bias in the reporting of disability sport.

On a more general note, Schantz and Gilbert (2012) and Atuona (2012) showed that all the well-documented social power struggles encountered in the society are emphasised in the media depictions of Paralympic sport.

2.2.3.1.2.3. Pictorial Representation of Paralympic Sport in Media

The literature has paid attention to the way Paralympic sport has been imaged (e.g., Schantz & Gilbert, 2001; Hardin & Hardin, 2004; Pappous, 2008; Gilbert & Schantz, 2012). The largest and most transcultural work that has been done in this field is probably that of Pappous (2008), who analysed the content and framing of photographs from the Sydney and Athens Paralympics displayed in two major newspapers from each of five European countries: France, Germany, Greece, Spain, and England. Brittain (2017 p. 247-

248) presented five of the main problems Pappous (2008) found in these photographs, namely: contents and framings hiding the disabled body; the use of passive poses; a focus on disability; the portraying emotion rather than motion; and the overrepresentation of wheelchair athletes.

As for the hiding of disabled bodies in photographs, Gilbert and Schantz (2012b) argue that media uphold the misconceptions regarding disability by displaying images they deem "*politically correct*" (p.233), which insinuates that showing images of disabled bodies would somehow offend readers and confirm the general sense of "*revulsion*" (Gilbert and Schantz, 2012, p.229) the media hold towards para-athletes. Due to this revulsion, photographs of disabled elite athletes are rarely found in the sport pages and are presented in a casual way that often does not allow readers to identify the team, nor the category nor even the discipline of the athlete photographed (Gilbert & Schantz, 2012b). Having studied the evolution of photographic coverage of the Paralympic games over three Olympiads (from Sydney to Beijing), Pappous, Marcellini and De Leseleuc (2011) blew the whistle on the hiding of disabled body, warning that there was a rise of pictures in which disability was not visible during the Paralympics. Frames seemed to be organised to conceal disability (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001, Thomas & Smith, 2003; Pappous, 2008). Concealing disability in the pictorial presentation of para-athletes bespeaks a sort of identity- denial mechanism, through which photographs deny para- athletes their identity as bearers of impairments (Thomas & Smith, 2003).

Regarding the use of passive poses, the same argument has been made by Schantz and Gilbert (2001), Thomas and Smith (2003) and Buysse, Borcherdung (2010). Indeed, photographs of para-athletes have been found to very often be taken when they are in a "*static position*" (Schantz et Gilbert, 2001 p. 82), which strengthens the constructed and broadly- spread traditional representations of disabled people as weak and passive (Brittain, 2017, p.247), and shields their athleticism.

As for the focus on the disability, though it may seem to contradict the previously developed point on "hiding the disability", it doesn't. Indeed, media seem to choose to present either photographs that conceal the disability (that is, to present a body without any apparent disability, a disability-free body) or to focus on the impairment without presenting the rest of the body.

Concerning the portrayal of emotion rather than motion, Schantz and Gilbert (2001) and Germain and Grall (2012) reached the same conclusion after respectively analysing photographs from the Atlanta and Beijing Paralympics.

As for the overrepresentation of wheelchair athletes, we prefer to develop it in the next section dedicated to the social issues impacting the media coverage of Paralympic sport, as the overrepresentation of wheelchair athlete is not found exclusively in photographs, but is relevant for all forms of media.

2.2.3.1.2.4. Lack of Specific Reporters for Disability Sport

There have been instances where neither the sport nor the disability were thoroughly reported, but instead the spotlight was on peripheral issues such as scandals (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001), Patriotism (Brooke, 2018), Nationalism (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001; Hardin & Hardin, 2008, Bruce, 2016; Geok, Khoo, Razman, 2016), or other ethno-centric considerations (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001; Bruce, 2016; IK Young & Crossman, 2009, 2016) This was probably due to the fact that many reporters in charge of reporting disability sport have not be educated to do so and do not really know how to go about it (Schantz & Gilbert, 200; Ik Young, Crossman, 2009; Bertling 2012;).

2.2.3.2 Comparative Approach.

Very few studies have undertaken a comparison of the media representation of Paralympic sport from an inter-country comparative perspective among the three countries concerned by our research. The only one we could find, and probably the only one existing to date is the study of Schantz and Gilbert (2001) who compared the French and German media coverage of the Atlanta Paralympics, and found that, in general, the German press had a better awareness and depiction of disability sport than their French counterpart, despite both sharing several biases in the reporting of Atlanta's Paralympics.

2.2.3.3 Validity of Literature on Media Coverage of Paralympic Sport Nowadays

Most of the literature we have used and / or quoted from to describe the media representation of Paralympic sport dates from 2012 or before. Though social representations generally change slowly in time, the literature we have used could be

questioned, as most of it dates from two to three Olympiads back. e We are also living in a very dynamic world, in which the representations seem to be increasingly dynamic as well; we should also take into account the fact that the IPC "took it upon itself to try either to change the way the media reports the games or to try and fill some gaps left by the coverage" (Brittain, 2017, p.252). Another reason why the literature we reviewed could be questioned is that, as it addresses the media status of Paralympic sport in several countries, its relevance to France, Germany and Cameroon could be put into doubt.

As matter of fact, although it has happened very rarely , there have been some contestations of criticisms made against the media coverage of Paralympic sport. For example, Pappous Marcellini, De Leseleuc (2011) and De Leseleuc, Pappous, Marcellini (2010) contradicted their unanimous colleagues and suggested that there was no significant gender-based bias in the media coverage of Paralympic sport when taking into consideration the participation rate of each gender. In the same way, McGillivray et al. (2019) suggested that the supercrip stereotype is not that bad, insofar as it can be leveraged to present athleticism and nationalism. Despite these scarce contestations of the mainstream findings which identified several biases in the media coverage of Paralympic sport, three major and recent studies confirm that these biases are real and still ongoing nowadays.

The first is that of Rees, Robinson and Shields (2017) who carried out a meta-analysis of all the "then existing" qualitative, quantitative and mixed studies addressing the media representation of disability sport. (Note that the studies reviewed in this meta-analysis addressed media coverage in Europe, Asia, America and Oceania). They found that elite para-athletes are underrepresented in media in comparison to their able-bodied counterparts, that female Paralympic sport coverage is by far lower than male, and that despite increasing efforts to present athleticism, it is associated with the medical model, and especially with the consequent supercrip stereotype. Without denying the general improvement in the narrative about para-athletes, they highlighted that para-athletes are still absent from the media and portrayed in biased ways.

The second is that of Flindall (2020) who studied how the media representations of para- athletes have evolved from the 1980s to 2020. He concluded that despite some undeniable efforts from various stakeholders to improve the status and the visibility of

Paralympic sport in media, para-athletes are still not offered "*representative or quality coverage*" (P.93) nowadays, as "many of the commonly- referenced portrayals of Paralympians throughout history are still present within Paralympic reporting today" (P. 75).

The third is that of Cheong et al. (2020) who analysed the newspaper coverage of the Rio Paralympics in eleven countries: nine countries from Asia, one from Africa and one from Europe. Despite congratulating improvements in several areas of the coverage, they found that the covering of the Rio Paralympics in these countries was still poorer in quality and quantity than that of the Olympics, and suffered male- and nation-centred biases.

2.2.3.4 Synthesis on Media Depiction of Paralympic Sport

Despite real and often serious improvement through time, the media representation of Paralympic sport today is still neither quantitatively nor qualitatively near to that of Olympic sport. The presentation of the athleticism in Paralympic sport is still challenged by peripheral issues such as scandals, nationalism or by the overfocus on disability. This is not necessarily to be blamed on journalists, because they often do what they think should be done in the best interests of disability sport and para-athletes. Unfortunately, they lack Paralympic sport-specific knowledge and the necessary presenting skills.

Paralympic sport still struggles to reach a "sporting status" in media. It is rarely presented as sport for people with disability. It is rather too often presented either in a way that banalises the sport, that is as a "freak show" (Schantz & Gilbert, 2008, Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a , Schantz et Gilbert 2012b , p.21; Beacom, French & Kendall, 2016) for "*suffering entities*" (Tynedal, Wolbring, 2013) whose achievements are feats and failures normal, or in a way that banalises the disability; that is, in a "*politically correct way*" (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012, p.233) through a "*hyperreality*" (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012b, p.230), concealing disability and its singular experience, and letting people think that all people with disabilities can do what para-athletes can.

There has been no study describing the media representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon. As for France and Germany, the existing research specifically addressing the disability sport media coverage in France or Germany confirmed the mainstream

scholars' tendency (e.g. Enting, 1997; Schimanski, 1994; Schantz & Marty, 1995; Reichhart, 2008; Reichhart & Myazhiom, 2012, Marcellini, 2007, 2012, for France; and Rother, Oelrichs & Geske ,2012; Bertling, 2012; Raab & Fanda, 2012).

CHAPTER II: ATTITUDES, BEHAVIOURS, AND SOCIAL REPRESENTATIONS

Several concepts have been summoned along with their theoretical developments(s) to describe, explain, or predict behaviour s. Among those are the ones of attitude and social representation. This chapter aims to (1) define and explain each of these key theoretical concepts; (2) present the theoretical relationships between these concepts; (3) suggest a theoretical model that accounts for all these concepts.

It is structured according to the table of contents below:

1. Pathways from Attitude to Behaviour

1.1. The Attitude

The notion of "attitude" has been a core concept of social psychology for more than a century. In the early nineteenth century, social psychology was often portrayed as the scientific study of attitudes (Noumbissie, 2010). However, despite its ubiquity in the social psychology literature, little consensus has ever been reached on the definition of the concept of attitude, especially regarding its content and the structure of this content.

We can trace the etymology of the word back to medieval times, when the late Latin word "*aptitudinem*" which would later evolve into "*attitudine*" in Italian and finally into "*attitude*" in French and English — was used in art to refer to one's bodily stance. The word kept this etymological trace when it was imported into social sciences, where it was used to refer to a "*posture of mind*" (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005, p.8). There are two accounts of who was the first scholar to use the word attitude in social sciences. One the one hand, some theorists, including Oskamp and Schultz, (2005), bestow the paternity of the concept of attitude in social sciences to Herbert Spencer, especially in his 1862 book "*the first principles*". Others give the honour to the evolutionist Charles Darwin, through his 1872 book "*expression of the emotions in man and animals*" (Fleming, 1967, in Fleck, 2015). Whichever account is correct, the fact is that the "*mentalistic concept*" (Bain, 1928, in Oskamp and Schultz, 2005, p.3) of attitude has ended up as a "*buzzword*" (Cox, 1983, in Oskamp and Schultz, 2005, p.3) in social sciences.

In social psychology, several definitions— or schools of definition — of attitude have emerged since it was imported into the field. Despite their differences, there is generally a consensus between the definitions around at least three points.

The first area of consensus is that an attitude involves an object and a person: it somehow bespeaks a person's relation to an object (Noumbissie, 2010). This relation is considered to be one of evaluation by the majority of attitude theorists, including DeFleur and Westie (1963); Bem (1970); Zanna and Rempel (1988), Eagly and Chaiken (1993); Fazio (1995, 2007); and Maio (2003). The former and the latter respectively define attitudes in terms of tendencies "*expressed by evaluating …*" (p.1) and "*tendencies to*

evaluate…" (p.299). There is a general consensus among scholars to describe attitudes in terms of object evaluation.

The second point of consensus is the idea of predisposition, tendency, or readiness. A huge majority of attitude theorists define attitudes either in terms of "*readiness for response*" (Allport, 1935, p.810), or in terms of "*predisposition to respond"* (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005, p.9; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p.6), or even as "*tendency*" (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993, p.1; Maio, 2003 p.299).

The third point of consensus stems from the second, although the consensus is much weaker here than in the first two. This third area of consensus comprises the notions of latency and inference. In fact, there has often been a lot of amalgam (even in some literatures) between the attitudes, the processes leading to them (cognitive and/or affective and /or conative, depending on the theoretical positioning(s)), and the responses they (attitudes) entail. Several scholars, including Allport (1935), Oskamp and Schultz (2005), Michelik (2011, 2013), DeFleur and Westie (1963), have dissolved this amalgam by stressing that the readiness, tendency, or predisposition in terms of which an attitude is framed is not directly observable, nor even directly perceptible: it is latent and inferred. It mediates the relationship between the processes creating the attitude and the responses entailed. Just like attitudes, the processes creating them are also latent. Only responses entailed by attitudes are observable. These responses are kinds of ontical deposits of attitudes. Since attitudes are unperceivable – Heidegger would say they are ontological, Kant would say they are noumena, and Satre would say they are of an essential nature – their nature and structure can only be inferred from the observables responses they generate (which Heidegger would call their ontical appearance, Kant would call the phenomena they generate, and Satre would call their existential nature). The figure 4 below summarily describes the latency of attitudes (based on Oskamp and Schultz, 2005, p.12)

| Attitude Object (Stimulus) observable | | Processes latent | | Attitude (Inferred) latent | | Responses observable & measurable- |
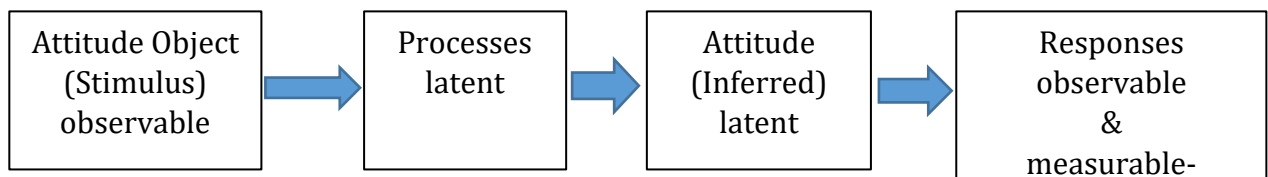
Figure 4 Inference of attitude and its latent processes (based on Oskamp and Schultz, 2005 and Lafrenaye, 1994)

Having presented the main points of consensus among definitions of attitudes in the literature, it is now appropriate to identify and discuss the different schools that, apart from the three points developed above, do not agree with one another on what an attitude is, nor on the processes leading to an attitude, nor even on the nature and structure of the responses they entail. Our exploration of the literature on attitudes allowed us to observe that the major dissensions around the different schools of attitudes mainly revolved about their "dimensionality" and their "durability".

1.1.1 About the Dimensionality of Attitudes

As noted above, attitudes are latent constructs and therefore not observable or measurable. There are generated by latent processes and entail responses. The debate about the dimensionality of attitudes concerns the number of "dimensions" in the structure of the latent processes which generate attitudes, as well as the number of dimensions in the responses entailed by attitudes. In other words, the debate is about the number of components in the processes from which attitudes arise, and the number of components in the observable, attitudinal responses. There are two major schools of attitude dimensionality: a unidimensional school and a multidimensional school.

1.1.1.1 The Unidimensional School

The unidimensional School argues that attitudes arise from only one type of process   and/or are only expressed in one type of response. This view is defended by Osgood, Succi and Tannenbaum (1957), Bem (1970), Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), Petty & Cacioppo (1981), Greenwald (1989), Breckler and Wiggins (1989), Eagly and Chaiken (1993), according to whom the attitudinal responses are exclusive affective, and the processes from which they arise are equally of an exclusively affective nature. This school assimilates attitude to an affect or emotion associated with the perception or mental/ sensory representation of an object. This model is somewhat reductionist, as it denies the long-debated freewill of homo sapiens and reduces the driver of his judgement to emotions. It is also to some extent contradictory, as it very often refers to cognitive and conative dimensions under other names (for example, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975)

substitute the cognitive and conative components of attitudinal responses with belief(s) and intentions(s) respectively).

Another contradiction of this model is that, while postulating that the processes and responses associated with attitudes are purely affective, it measures attitudes by physiological responses, verbal responses (implying cognition), behavioural responses, or scales implying cognition (e.g., scales of Osgood (1952, 1957)). The figure 5 below summarises the unidimensional model of attitude.
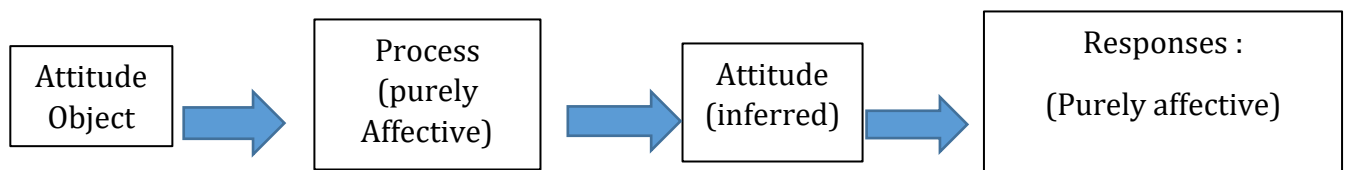
Figure 5 The unidimensional model of attitude.

1.1.1.2 The Multi-Dimensional School(s)

The multi-dimensional schools argue that attitudes can arise from more than one type of process, and can generate more than one type of response. This school is advocated by Howland and Rosenberg (1960), Krech, Crutchfield, and Ballachey (1962), Mc Guire (1969, 1985), Zimbardo, Ebbesen and Maslach (1977), Bagozzi, Tybout, Craig, and Sternthal (1979); Breckler (1984); Eiser (1986), Zanna and Rempel (1988), Zanna, Haddock and Esses (1990), Noumbissie (2010), Michelik (2011, 2013). According to this school, the processes from which attitudes arise and the responses they entail can be of two types: affective and cognitive (Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1979; Crano and Prislin, 2005); three types: affective, cognitive and conative (Howland & Rosenberg ,1960; Zimbardo, Ebbesen & Maslach , 1977; Eiser, 1986; Zanna & Rempel, 1988; Zanna, Haddock & Esses, 1990); or even more than three types: affective, cognitive, conative and other (Michelik, 2008, 2013). The figure 6 here below summarises the multi-dimensional models of attitude.

| Attitude Object | → | Processes :

Affective

Or/and

Cognitive

Or/and

Conative

Or/and

Other | → | Attitude

(Inferred) | → | Responses :

Affective

Or/and

Cognitive

Or/and

Conative

Or/and

Other |
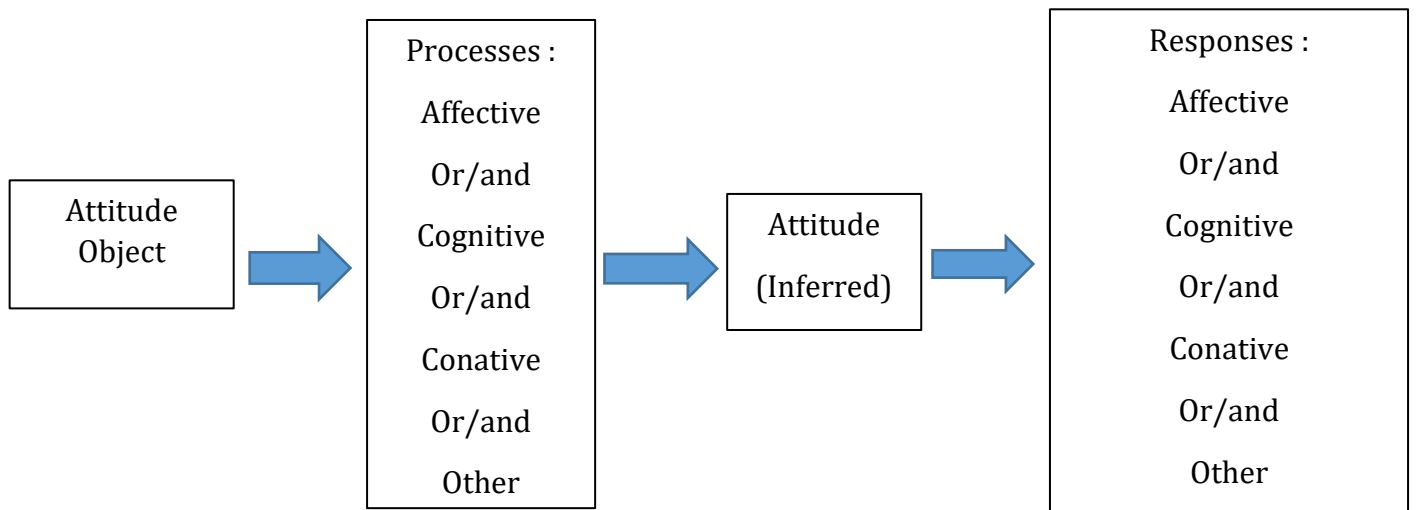
Figure 6 The multi-dimensional models of attitude

Despite their consensus on the fact that attitudinal processes and responses can comprise more than one dimension, there is a divide among scholars advocating the multi-dimensional model about whether this multi-dimensionality is a possibility or a necessity. This divide has split theorists of the multi-dimensional school into two groups. We can call the first group "integralist" and the second "progressivist".

1.1.1.2.1. The Integralist View of Attitude.

According to the integralist view, all the types of attitudinal processes and responses are necessarily present whenever an attitude is formed. In other words, in order for an attitude to exist, all the various types of attitudinal processes must be taking place, and any attitude necessarily entails all the various types of responses regardless of the particularities of the object, context and subject.

For example, in the instance of the tridimensional model (which is the most popular), attitudinal processes and responses mandatorily and always include affective, cognitive and conative/behavioural dimensions, whatever the attitude object, subject, and context. The figure 7 below presents the integralist view of attitudes
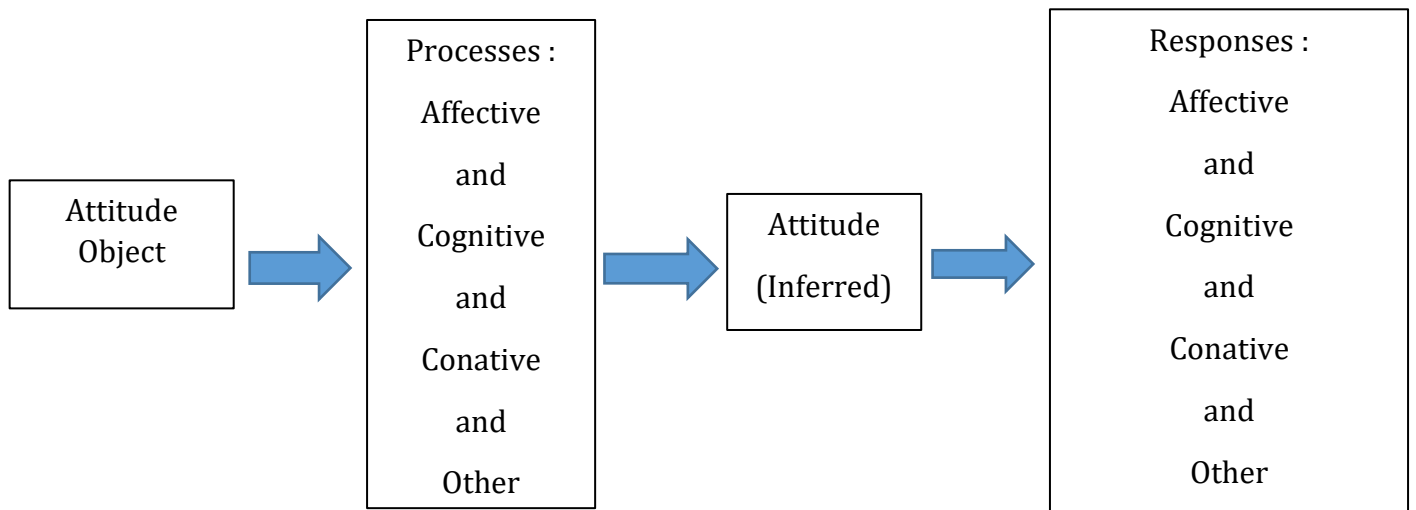
Figure 7 The integralist view of attitudes

This integralist view is supported by Howland and Rosenberg (1960), Krech, Crutchfield, and Ballachey (1962), Zimbardo, Ebbesen and Maslach (1977), Breckler (1984), Eiser & Eiser (1986).Though several theorists support this view with the argument that it helps to outline the common aspects of attitudes (Oskamp and Schultz, 2005), it can seem somewhat too rigid and globalising to fit for any given attitude, since it fails to take into account the particularities of the attitude object, and/or of the individual whose attitude it is. In order to bridge these failures, another strain of the multi-dimensional model(s) has emerged. This rather progressist view tries to take into account the specificities of the attitude object, as well as the subject and context.

1.1.1.2.2. The Progressist View of Attitudes

The progressist view of multi-dimensional models does not consider the multi-dimensionality of attitudinal responses and processes as a mandatory requirement, but rather as a possibility that might or might not occur, depending on the attributes of the attitude object, subject and context. This view is convincingly promoted by Zajonc (1980); Petty and Green (1989); Cacioppo, Crites, Fabrigar and Petty (1994); Olson and Maio (2003); and Huskinson, Haddock (2004), Oskamp and Schultz (2005),Baumeister and Finkel (2010).

Zajonc (1980) suggests that attitudes towards some objects might not have all the three bases advocated by Howland and Ajzen (1960); he uses the example of attitudes towards spiders, which probably do not ha ve any cognitive base. In the same vein,

Huskinson and Haddock (2004) argue that one must take into account individual differences regarding attitudinal bases (processes) and responses — that different people would prioritise different types of attitudinal bases and/or responses. The figure 8 below presents the progressist view of attitudes
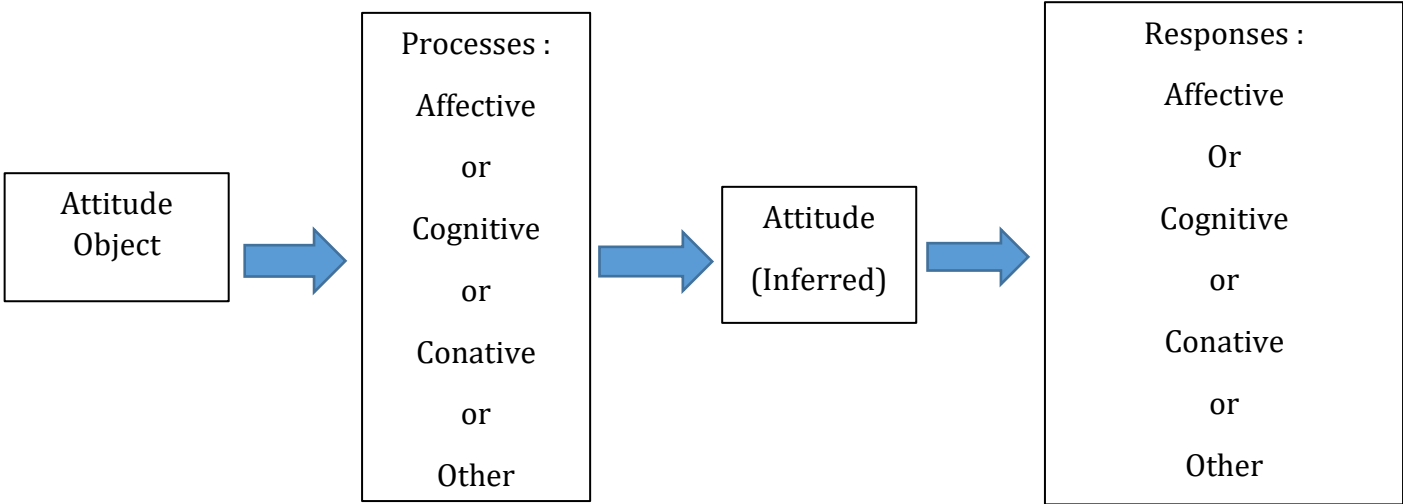
Figure 8 The progressist view of attitudes

So far we have explored the dimensionality of attitudes, which was one of the main areas of dissension among attitude theorists. Besides dimensionality, the other point of dissension was the durability of attitudes. It is to this point that we turn now.

1.1.2 About the Durability of Attitudes

Most theorists, including McGuire (1969); Petty and Cacioppo (1986); Petty and Green (1986); Zanna and Rempel (1988); Petty and Green (1989); Wilson and Hodges (1992); Olson and Zanna (1993); Cacioppo Tesser and Crites, Fabrigar and Petty (1994); Fazio (1995, 2007); Nayakanhuppam and Priester (2003); Oskamp and Schultz (2005), Baumeister and Finkel (2010), agree that attitudes are knowledge structures. The divide comes from questioning whether these knowledge structures are stored in the mind, or rather constructed on the spot when a subject encounters an attitude object. According to this divide, we can label some attitude theorists structuralist, others constructivist, and others still as structuralist-constructivist.

1.1.2.1 The Structuralist View(s) of Attitudes

The structuralist view of attitudes postulates that attitudes are stored in the memory as knowledge structures and are therefore durable. In other words, attitudes towards almost anything are pre-constructed, stored in the memory and expressed whenever the subject experiences the object. That is, a subject's attitude towards an object is determined prior to their encounter with that object, and only waits for that encounter to be expressed. This would also mean that attitudes are durable, insofar as every time a subject encounters a given attitude object, they would display the same attitudinal responses as the same attitude is stored in form of a knowledge structure in their memory. This structuralist view of attitudes is advocated by many scholars, including McGuire (1969); Petty and Cacioppo (1986); Petty and Green (1986); Zanna and Rempel (1988); Cacioppo, Petty and Green (1989); Olson and Zanna (1993); Crites, Fabrigar and Petty (1994); Fazio (1995, 2007); Petty and Krosnick (1995); Eagly and Chaiken (1998) and Fabrigar, McDonald and Wegener (2005). To support this structural thesis, Midden and Verplanken (1990) demonstrated the stability of Dutch attitudes about nuclear energy over a period of three years.

Another structuralist perspective of attitudes was provided by Eagly and Chaiken (1993), who postulated that attitudes were often predetermined by biological or genetic factors. Though it may seem somewhat fatalistic, this biological and genetic view of attitudes has often been proven. For example, high levels of testosterone in men are widely known to be associated with high sexual desire (implying a propension to certain types of attitudes towards sex), just as low levels of testosterone are known to be associated with low sexual desire (implying a propension to other types of attitudes towards sex).

The structural views can be criticised as they seem too deterministic and leave little room for the subject's freewill or even for attitudinal change. They can also be criticised for taking into account neither the context in which the attitude is expressed nor even the subject's mood at the time of the expression. In opposition to these structuralist views of attitudes are constructivist views.

1.1.2.2 The Constructivist View of Attitudes

Unlike the structuralist views of attitudes, which postulate that attitudes are durably stored in memory, constructivist views suggest that attitudes are knowledge structures that can be "*constructed on the spot*" (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005, p.13) and only last as long as the attitudinal judgement is needed. The most renowned advocates of this view are Bern, (1972), Tesser (1978), and Wilson & Hodges (1992), Nay Schwarz & Bohner (2001), Nayakanhuppam and Priester (2003). It is important here to distinguish the notion of attitude construction— that is, the process by which a subject "*comes to express one attitude*" (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005, P.191) — from that of attitude formation, which we will explore later.

This construction-on-the-spot would be formed on the one hand on the basis of an informational database stored in the subject's memory and encompassing their past experiences and their beliefs about the object, and on the other from situational information the subject receives at the time of construction, especially their mood in the moment and the context in which the attitude is required/ expressed (Hodges, 1992, in Oskamp & Schultz, 2005).

The constructivist view of attitude also faces some controversies; for example, Fazio and Olson (2003) highlighted how odd it is to think that likes and dislikes are constructed on the spot when experiencing a well-known, or familiar object. The failure of both constructivist and structuralist views of attitude to explain all the contours of attitude has led to the creation of a third view: the structuralist-constructivist view.

1.1.2.3 The structuralist- constructivist view of attitudes

Mainly referred to in the literature as the dual attitudes model (Michelik,2011, 2013; Wilson, Lindsey & Schooler, 2000), the structuralist-constructivist view of attitude is a sort of syncretisation of the structuralist and constructivist views, just like Bourdieu's structuralist constructivism (1987), which reconciles structuralism with constructivism. This model, pioneered by Wilson, Linsey and Schooler (2000), suggests that constructed attitudes can coexist with structured attitudes   and that when a subject faces a particular situation, they will express one or the other of these attitudes.

Several authors, including Baumeister, Wilson, Lindsey and Schooler (2000), Oskamp and Schultz (2005), Finkel (2010) and Michelik (2011, 2013), call constructed attitudes (constructed on the spot) "explicit" attitudes and refer to structured attitudes (stored in long-term memory) as "implicit" attitudes. According to Wilson et al. (2000), when an attitude changes the old attitude does not disappear as imagined by some attitude theorists, but rather lurks in the subject's memory. They explain that, depending on the subject's motivations, investment, and will to evaluate the attitude object, they will either spontaneously and automatically reinstate the old attitude (the implicit attitude) — in the case of not having the time, will or motivation to carry out a new in-context evaluation of the object — or construct on-the-spot a new attitude from an in-context contemporary evaluation of the attitude object (an explicit attitude) — in the event that they have the time, will and/or motivation to   perform a new evaluation of the attitude object, a process which requires huge cognitive activity.

This model corroborates the old Latin saying, "*Naturam expelles furca, tamen usque recurret*" as it implies that old attitudes (implicit attitudes) are more likely to be summoned in a spontaneous context in which the subject has little or no time to assess the situation, while new attitudes (explicit attitudes) would only guide subject's responses when the context is not spontaneous, and thus constitute "controlled responses" (Michelik, 2011, P. 24).

Other scholars, like Tesser (1978), Tourangeau et al. (2000), Petty and al. (2006) stretched the concept of attitude beyond this dualistic (implicit vs explicit) conception, postulated that subjects could hold more than two concurrent evaluations on an attitude object, that is, more than two attitudes. They however agreed like all their counterparts that only one attitude is expressed at the time. In this case, the attitude expressed is the one fitting – subjectively – to the context in the attitude is required/ expressed.

Having presented the different schools and views of attitudes, it is now appropriate to choose the one(s) that according to us could constitute a suitable approach for studying attitudes towards Paralympic sport.

1.1.3 Our Theoretical Choice(s) for Attitudes

For analysing people's attitudes towards Paralympic sport, we have opted to use the constructivist-progressist tri-dimensional model. That is, a theoretical orientation according to which (1) attitudes are constructed on the spot, (2) attitudinal processes and responses can be of three nature, especially affective, cognitive and conative and (3) attitudes are multidimensional but do not always necessarily involve all the possible types of processes (affective, cognitive, and conative), nor all the possible types of response (affective, cognitive, and cognitive).

(1) Our choice for constructivist views of attitude is justified by the fact that as Paralympic sport is a new practice in the history of human sporting practices, people who have never encountered it would need time to carry out their evaluation of this new phenomenon (Howe, 2008; Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a; Brittain, 2016). This conception of attitude towards Paralympic sport is coherent with the tool(s) we intent to use for measuring them. As a matter of fact, we intend to measure attitudes towards disability sport using Likert-type scales in a questionnaire, which according to Wilson et al. (2000) is more intended for explicit attitudes than implicit ones.

(2) As for our choice for the tri-dimensional view, it was grounded on the one hand on the necessity to operationalise attitude into theoretical coherent and measurable construct and on the other hand to capture as much dimensions as possible of this construct in other to account for as much influence of the variable attitude on our dependent variables as possible. Practically, this tri-dimensional view postulates that people's attitudinal processes and responses towards Paralympic sport can (but do not necessarily) comprise three components:

➢ A cognitive component: that is, ideas, knowledge and beliefs about disability sport. According to Noumbissie (2010), these can have the followings features:

● They can be true or false: the ideas and beliefs about Paralympic sport can be true or false .

● They can be simple or complex: people who are very well acquainted with sport and/or disability, and especially Paralympic sport, might have very complex ideas, knowledge and beliefs about Paralympic sport, unlike people with little to no acquaintance of disability, sport, disability sport, whose beliefs, ideas and knowledge would be rather simple.

➢ An affective component: that is, the attraction or revulsion Paralympic sport exerts on the subject. According to Noumbissie (2010), this attraction or revulsion can be favourable or unfavourable: that is, the subject can actually like or dislike, enjoy or feel bored by Paralympic sport.

➢ A conative dimension, which refers to the propensity for action towards Paralympic sport that the two previous cognitive and affective components entail. Fischbein and Ajzen (1975) assimilate this conative dimension with intent.

The literature on attitudes offers a wide range of tools for operationalising and measuring tri-dimensional explicit attitudes both internally and as part of an analysis model. For the internal measurement of attitudes, several scales have been developed to capture each dimension of attitudes. As for its operationalisation as part of a model, there are several models of consumption behaviour including attitude as dependent or independent variables to be compared with other variables in the frame of a regression or any other statistical analysis. Some of these models will be developed in the title 2.2 of the chapter III.

(3) Regarding our choice for the progressist view of attitudes, it was due to the specificity of our object which is relatively new and not yet broadly known (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001, Howe, 2008; Schantz & Gilbert, 2008, 2012a, b; Brittain, 2016), and therefore required caution in its exploration. It seemed to us prudent to accept the possibility that people's attitudes towards Paralympic sport might not necessarily be based on all three attitudinal processes, nor entail all three attitudinal responses.

1.1.4. Attitude Functions, Formation, and Construction

1.1.4.1 Attitude Functions

Attitudes are far from being psychologically casual and useless dramas. Rather, they are useful knowledge structures that help us prepare for actions or interactions (Gerard & Orive, 1987, Oskamp & Schultz, 2005). Kartz (1960) presented four ways in which attitudes can help us preparing for actions or interactions. These four ways, also called attitude functions, are the following:

> ➤ The ego-defensive function, through which the subject protects himself against whatever is likely to jeopardise their self-ego.

> ➤ The value-defensive function, through which the subject expresses the values that are important to them (see, chapter IVon values).

> ➤ The knowledge function, through which the subject better understands and makes themself understood by their environment.

> ➤ Finally, the utilitarian function, through which the subject adjusts himself to reach some given goals he is pursuing (e.g., avoiding a punishment or obtaining a reward).

Having presented the "why" of attitude genesis, it is now appropriate to present its "how". Describing the "how" of attitude genesis requires us to distinguish between three key notions which we introduced earlier in when addressing the durability of attitudes, namely: attitude formation, attitude change, and attitude construction.

1.1.4.2. Attitude Formation

Oskamp and Schultz (2005) define attitude formation as the *"initial change, from having no attitude towards a given object, to having some attitudes towards it"* (p.161). This "initial change" involves several sources, processes and factors.

1.1.4.2.1. Sources of Attitudes

Sources in our views refer to the real or virtual "places" from which the information used for attitude formation is extracted or gathered. The literature distinguishes three main sources of attitude formation: the environment, the media, and genetics/biology (see Oskamp & Schultz, 2005 and Baumeister & Finkel, 2010).

Environment here can be understood as all the people or groups the subject frequents (friends, family, models, school, peer groups, work etc.), or creates an ideal out of, or even simply interacts, observes or communicates with.

 Media concerns the reality depicted by TV, radio and internet to which the subject is exposed. Several theories have been developed to show the influence of media on various psychological constructs, including attitudes. Two of these theories which will be developed later in the chapter III are the agenda setting theory (McCombs & Shaws, 1972; McCombs, 2005; McCombs et al., 2014), and the cultivation theory (Gerbner, 1967, 1969a,

1969b,1973). With regard to genetics/biology, it refers to all the non-learned sources: that which comes from within us, either because inherited from parents or ingested through alimentation.

Generally, the sources of attitudes provide information for the processes leading to attitude formation. Therefore, in addition to our exploration of those sources above, we must also   present the processes through which the information gathered from these sources is proceeded into an attitudes.

1.1.4.2.2. The processes

Apart from those that are genetically determined, most attitudes are acquired — that is, learned –. Oskamp and Schultz (2005) identified five main learning processes through which information issued from attitude sources is processed into an attitude: classical conditioning, operant conditioning, modelling, information integration, and persuasion.

> ➢ **Classical conditioning**

Classical conditioning is a learning method studied by Pavlov (1927) consisting of the establishment of a stimulus-response association following the repeated exposure to a pair of stimuli. The principle of this method is to create a situation in which a neutral stimulus — the "conditional stimulus" in Pavlov's terminology — (cola, for example)   is followed a few seconds later by a common trigger — the "unconditional stimulus" in Pavlov's terminology— (sugar, for example) of a particular response _ the "unconditional response" in Pavlov's terminology — (the secretion of insulin, for example). Pavlov showed that repeated exposure to such situation led to the conditioning of the subject in such a way that, even without exposure to the unconditional stimulus (sugar), exposure to only the formerly neutral stimulus (cola) would trigger the same response as the unconditional stimulus did (the secretion of insulin).

Classical conditioning emphasises the role of previous experiences in future attitudes and behaviours. It also shows how habit-bound humans are, as it demonstrates that a component of our habit-patterns can be suppressed unnoticed without any change in our behaviour . According to the above, people's responses towards disability sport upon first encountering it may well be blind to some aspect(s) of disability sport: they would only acknowledge what they have already been repeatedly exposed to, that is,

those aspects of sport and / or disability with which they are familiar". According to their past experiences, people might be conditioned to oversee, omit or be blind to certain aspects of disability sport.

➢ Operant conditioning

Often referred to as instrumental conditioning, operant conditioning was investigated by Skinner (1938) and emphasises how reward-driven humans can be. This learning method suggests that when a given action is followed by a positive event (a reward), the likelihood of that action being repeated increases. Likewise, if an action is followed by a negative event (a punishment), the likelihood of repetition decreases. This method is commonly used throughout the world for educating children and even adults. Just like classical conditioning, this method emphasizes the role played by previous experiences on future attitudes and behaviours. According to operant conditioning, people that were punished in certain way(s) following their interest in disability sport (e.g., the spectacle was not enjoyable or their interest was shamed by their relatives etc.) are very likely to lose their interest for disability sport. On the other hand, people that were somehow rewarded regarding their interest in disability sport (e.g., they liked the spectacle or were congratulated by their relatives for attending etc.) are likely to remain interested in disability sport.

➢ Observational learning

Observational learning is also referred to as "*imitation", "modelling", "copying" "echoing*", or *parroting*" (Greer, Singer-Dudek & Gautreaux 2006, p: 2). It involves the subject literally copying what they observe others doing around them, without having been instructed to do so or with any intent of pursuing reward or avoiding punishment. Observational learning is commonly seen at home, where kids often literally copy what their elder relatives do. The pertinence of observational learning has been validated by several scholars, including Bandura (1977), Fish (2002) and Greer, Singer-Dudek and Gautreaux (2006). Regarding Paralympic sport, the above entails that for certain people (probably those whose identity is still being totally formed, or whose "the self" is not yet affirmed), their attitudes and behaviours towards Paralympic sport may well depend on or even be identical to those of the people they consider to be model or ideal in some way.

> **Information integration**

Information integration refers in a certain way to the internal consistency of the attitude that we alluded to in chapter II, though it puts the emphasis on the attitude being consistent with the subject's beliefs about the attitude object. According to Oskamp and Schultz (2005) our attitudes are according to new information (beliefs) we absorb and integrate regarding the attitude object.

> **Persuasion**

The etymology of the word *"persuasion"* can be traced back to the medieval Latin word *"persuadere"*, literally meaning "to bring over by talking". As it is used in contemporary   social psychology, the word "persuasion" has not departed from its medieval sense. Petty and Brinol (in Baumeister & Finkel, 2010, p: 217) defined persuasion as referring to *"any procedure with the potential to change someone's mind"*. The literature has positioned persuasion as one   casual way through which attitudes are formed, but as the most important path towards attitude change. This is why we will develop the notion of persuasion in the title 1.1.5 dedicated to attitude change.

1.1.4.2.3. Attitude Factors

In our view, factors refer to those features of the subject   according to which the subject's attitude towards a given attitude object can vary. The literature has identified three main attitude factors: genetic and physiological factors, quality of experience, and frequency of exposure to the attitude object.

> **Genetic and physiological factors.**

McGuire (1985) and Tesser (1993) recognised that genetic factors could often influence attitudes, or at least make the subject prone to certain attitudes. For example, recent advances in genetics have identified a serotonin transporter gene that, when defective, can render the bearer prone to depression and consequently to certain types of attitudes.

As for physiological factors, age and sex are well known across the world to be attitudinal dividers. In fact, elderly people have been shown globally to be more cognitively rigid than their younger fellows (Schultz & Searlemen, 2002), just as women are known to be generally more emotive than men. Without intending to fuel any

discriminations or   stereotypes, these attitudinal divides prompt us to acknowledge or at least hypothesise the pertinence of physiological factors in attitude formation.

> **The quality of experience**

As for the quality of experience, it has been shown that attitudes formed on the basis of information obtained from direct experience are stronger than those formed on the basis of information obtained from indirect experience (communication, for example) (Fazio, 1988). According to the above, attitudes formed through direct experience of Paralympic sport would be stronger than those formed through indirect experience of Paralympic sport, for example though communication or representation.

> **Exposure frequency**

Zajonc (2001) postulated that repeated mere exposure (without conditioning, nor the other learning processes described above) to an attitude object increases the affectivity towards this object. With respect to Paralympic sport, this might mean that, in the absence of the learning processes described above, simply repeated exposure to Paralympic sport in itself would be sufficient to positively influence a subject's attitude towards it.

Having developed the sources, processes, and factors related to attitude formation, it is obvious to observe that, apart from those related to genetics (about which the possibility of change is still debated by scholars), all the other sources, processes and factors are subject to change. This means attitudes themselves are subject to change, which is a good news for our work, as one of its aims is to suggests paths through which people's attitudes and behaviours towards Paralympic sport could be changed. Having developed how they are formed; it now seems appropriate to us to explore how they can change.

1.1.5 Attitude Change

As we have seen earlier, the sources, processes, and factors leading to attitude formation are dynamic. Thus, attitude formation is an iterative process, depending on changes occurring within its sources, processes, or factors. That is, attitudes can and often do change. Building on Oskamp and Schultz' (2005) definition of attitude formation, we can define attitude change as a process leading from having a certain attitude towards a given attitude object to having another attitude, different from the previous one, toward

the same attitude object. It is self-evident that any change in sources (for example, moving from one society to another, or being exposed to new media), processes (major change in conditioning situations, integration of new information, change in or of one's model for observational learning, or new persuasion processes) or even factors (e.g., ageing) can lead to changes in attitudes, at least in some instances. But on a general note, literature on attitude change, and especially on patterns of attitude change can be understood through a framework of the interactive triad of mutual influences between thoughts and beliefs (cognitions), attitudes, and behaviours. The figure 9 below synoptically presents this framework.
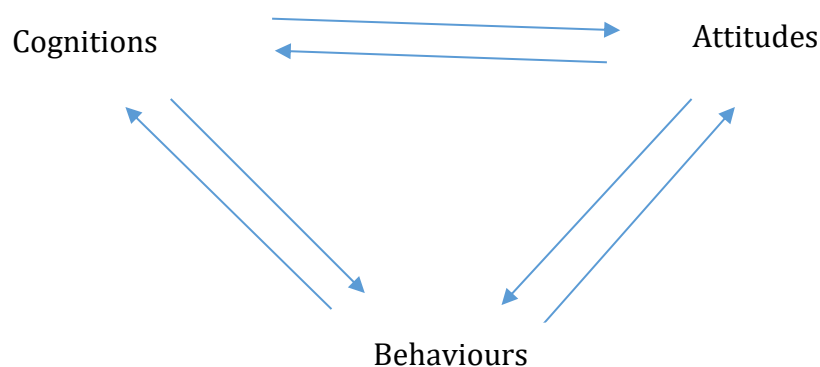
Figure 9 framework for investigating the patterns of attitude change

This framework presents how cognitions influence attitudes and behaviours, attitudes influence behaviours and cognitions, and behaviours influence cognitions and attitudes. That is, the components of the triad "cognitions — attitudes — behaviours " influence one another in an iterative manner.

In this regard, the literature has tended to examine attitude change from three angles in particular: (1) as the result of a change in cognitions, through persuasion, (2) as the result of a change of behaviours, through compliance without pressure, and / or engagement (3) and as the conjoint result of changes in behaviours and in cognitions, through engaging communication.

1.1.5.1 Attitude Change as Result of a Change in Cognitions: Persuasion

The most widespread way of thinking about attitude change is as the result of a change in cognitions, especially through persuasion (Michelik, 2011). The idea of persuasion is to use communication in a relatively constraint- or reward-free context to

change the subject's cognitions (knowledge, beliefs, opinions, and thoughts) about the attitude object, and consequently change their attitude about it. According to Michelik (2011), the notion of constraint- or reward-free is very important because if the communication involves the promise of reward or the threat of   punishment, we are not quite in the frame of persuasion anymore: the attitude change may be temporary and only last as long as the reward promised is effectively given. Likewise, she also suggested that if there is a constraint like a threat that generates fear, the changes in attitudes become debatable according to other variables which it is not necessary to elaborate here.

Persuasive communication involves four components: the content, the sources, the channel, and the context. The content refers to what is being said, and what arguments are being put forward in the communication. The source refers to the utterer, that is, the person presenting the content. The channel is the way in which the source is conveying the content of their persuasive message. Finally, the context is the picture of the moment when the persuasive communication occurs. Persuasion has often been amalgamated with social influence, which is also a source of attitude change (Petty and Brinol, 2015). As attitudes are more individual that social, we purposely chose to rather develop the concept of social influence in a further part dedicated to social representation, which we assume to be more related to social influence than attitudes are or could be.

There are four approaches for understanding persuasion: the learning theories, the cognitive responses theory, the Elaboration Likelihood theory, and the metacognitive theories. These approaches are in essence not opposed to one another, but rather complementary.

1.1.5.1.1. The Learning Theories

The learning theories are the oldest understanding of the patterns of attitude change offered by the known literature. They were upheld by Howland, Janis and Kelley (1953), Janis (1959), and McGuire (1969) and stipulated that once the content of the persuasive message is understood, accepted, and fixed in memory, its effect is reinforced, and attitudes shifts in the direction of the message. Phrased as such, they were too deterministic, failed to take into account the context of the persuasive communication, and gave very little account to the subject's cognitive responses to the persuasive

message. This is why a less deterministic theory, namely the theory of cognitive responses, was emitted.

1.1.5.1.2. The Cognitive Responses Theory

Several scholars, including Greenwald (1968), Brock (1976), Petty, Ostrom and Brock (1981), advocated the cognitive response theory, which, unlike the learning theories that gave some deterministic power to the persuasive message, shifted this power from the message to the subject's reaction to the message. That is, according to the cognitive responses theory, it is not the persuasive message in itself that brings about a change of attitude in the direction of the message, but rather it is the subject's evaluation of the persuasive message and the thought the persuasive message generates in the subject's mind that determine whether an attitude will change or not.

The cognitive responses theory identifies three types of possible responses (evaluations and thoughts) that can be generated by the persuasive message: favourable, unfavourable, or neutral. It further stipulates that favourable responses would entail a change of attitude in the direction advocated by the message, while unfavourable responses would entail the survival or even the strengthening of the original attitude.

Despite being somewhat more elaborated than its predecessor, the theory of cognitive responses contained a number of loopholes and flaws. For example, it gave no clear scenario for neutral responses. It also supposed that subjects would have a certain *de facto* will make the cognitive effort to evaluate and think about the persuasive message, and some universal capacity to understand the content of the persuasive message and reflect on it. To address these loopholes and flaws, the Elaboration Likelihood model was developed.

1.1.5.1.3. The Elaboration Likelihood Model

Developed by Petty and Cacioppo (1981, 1986) and Wegener (1999), this model suggests two pathways for processing any information received: a central pathway and a peripheral one. This model claims that the central pathway is used when the subject is motivated, interested, or invested and is able to carry out an evaluation of and think critically about the content of the persuasive message; indeed, the central pathway

consists of just this evaluation and critical thinking about the persuasive message. If the evaluative thoughts generated by the message are favourable, the attitude shifts in the direction of the message; if they are negative, the current attitude survives; if they are neutral, then the peripheral system is resorted to.

The Elaboration Likelihood Model further suggests that the peripheral pathway obey to the "*principle of least effort*" (Michelik, 2011, p.33), which is resorted to when either (1) after having used the central pathway, the evaluations and thoughts generated by the persuasive message were neutral, or (2) when the subject is not motivated, willing, capable, or simply sees no interest in carrying out a proper evaluation or thinking critically about the persuasive message. In such instances, the subject relies on peripheral components of the persuasive message, especially the source, the channel and the context. When the sources are reliable, and/or the channel appropriate, and/or the context suitable, then attitude change can occur.

According to Petty, Haugtvedt, and Smith (1995), attitude changes made through the central pathways are more stable over time than those made through the peripheral pathway. According to Michelik (2011), the former are also better predictors of behaviours than the latter.

Though better elaborated than its predecessors, the Elaboration Likelihood Model fails to acknowledge and take into account the importance the subject gives to its own thoughts, that is, at a meta level, what the subject thinks about its thoughts. To rectify this oversight, a fourth model which includes metacognitions was developed.

1.1.5.1.4. The Metacognitive Model

Advocated by several scholars, including Petty, Brinol and Tormala (2002), Brinol (2007), Petty and Brinol (2007), Brinol Petty and Barden (2007), Brinol and Petty (2009), this model recognises the stipulations of the Elaboration Likelihod Model but adds a further variable: the subject's evaluation of and confidence in their own thoughts about the persuasive message. According to Petty, Brinol and Tormala (2002), in addition to the fulfilment of the conditions required for attitude change as described by the Elaboration Likelihood Model, there must also a "self-validation" (p 739) prior to attitude change.

Brinol, Petty and Barden (2007), in Michelik (2001), distinguish between cognitive self-validation and affective self-validation. According to them, the former consists of a

subject's evaluation of its own thoughts about the persuasive message, while the latter refers to the subject's emotional state regarding their thoughts about the persuasive message. That is, Petty, Brinol and Tormala (2002) perspective of attitude change is that it only occurs if the subject has a positive evaluation of its thoughts about the persuasive message, confidence in them, and/or eventually positive emotions towards its thoughts about the persuasive message (Michelik, 2013).

Having presented how attitude change can be envisioned as the result of a change in cognitions, it now seems appropriate to develop how it can be envisioned as the result of a change in behaviour.

1.1.5.2 Attitude Change as the Result of a Change in Behaviour: the Engagement

As we said earlier, attitude change can also be the result of a change in behaviour. Theorists including (Cialdini, 1984; Joule, 1986; Joule and Beauvois, 1998, 2002; Girandola, 2003; Gueguen, 2004), have demonstrated that if we succeed in bringing a subject in a pressure-free context to engage in a counter-attitudinal behaviour, the attitude towards this counter-attitudinal behaviour might likely to be inflected in the sense of this behaviour. According to Michelik (2011), the notion of a pressure-free context is important: if the subject is pressured by anything (e.g., authority or fear) the expected changes in attitude   might not occur. It might seem oxymoronic to think of bringing someone to do something without actually constraining them, as the very fact of bringing someone to do something is quite often equivalent to constraining him. However, Gueguen (2002, 2021) has shown how it is possible to get a subject to freely engage in a counter-attitudinal behaviour, especially through what has come to be known in the literature as "compliance without pressure" (Cialdini, 1984; Joule, 1986; Joule and Beauvois, 1998, 2002; Girandola, 2003 ; Gueguen, 2004, Girandola and Joule, 2012).

"Compliance without pressure is referred to when a subject engages in a counter-attitudinal behaviour, thinking that they have freely and deliberately chosen this behaviour, whereas in fact their engagement in this behaviour is due to the influence of someone else (Michelik, 2011). The literature has mainly presented six techniques or processes through which we can make a subject to engage in counter-attitudinal actions, thinking they have freely decided them. The table 5 below presents some well-known "compliance without pressure" techniques.

Techniques and supporting scholars	Principles
Lowball: **Channouf (1991), Gueguen, Pascal and Dagot (2002)**	Make the subject commit to an action before telling them the costs and rewards of that action. It has been shown that, in most cases, subjects do not change their commitment even after the outcomes are subsequently explained to them.
Foot in the door: **Freedman and Fraser (1966), Gueguen, Jacob, and Legoherel (2002)**	Make the subject perform a low-cost action, and then subsequently request them to perform a more costly action that seems to be a logical continuation of the first. It has been shown that most subjects are likely to accept performing a more costly action when it is presented as the logical continuation of a less-costly action that was recently performed.
Foot in the mouth **Howard(1990)**	Being very polite with people increases the likelihood of them complying with our requests.
Foot in the face **Cialdini (1975)**	Requesting the subject to perform a very costly action (which the subject will definitely refuse to perform) increases the likelihood of them subsequently accepting to perform another action — which can still be costly, but less costly than the first.
Physical contact **Kleinke (1977)** **Gueguen (2008)**	Engaging in physical contact with the subject (for example, touching the forearm) while requesting something from them has been shown to increase the likelihood of them accepting the request.
But you are free to... **Guéguen and Pascual (2000),**	Telling people that they are free to engage in an action or not has been shown to increase the likelihood of them doing what they are told to.

Pascual et al. (2012)

Table 5 Compliance without pressure" techniques

Joule and Beauvais (1998) distinguish two types of actions: (1) problematic actions that are counter-attitudinal, and (2) non-problematic actions that are consistent with the attitude. They join Fraser (1966) in suggesting that in the instance of non-problematic actions (pro-attitudinal actions) the attitude underlying the behaviour is reinforced. They further postulate that in the instance of problematic actions (counter-attitudinal actions), there is a cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957), which according to the cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) creates a cognitive tension. Consistent with Festinger (1957) and Kiesler (1971), they suggest that this cognitive tension urges the subject either to rationalise their counter-attitudinal action — that is, change their attitude — or to change their action. However, if, as in a "compliance without pressure" context, the subject cannot change their action, they will rationalise that action, thus changing their attitude. Joule and Beauvais (1998) have shown that this change can be an enduring one.

Having described how attitude changes can be conceptualised either as a result of changes in cognitions or changes in behaviour, we can now present the third way in which they can be conceptualised: as the combined result of changes in cognitions and changes in behaviours.

1.1.5.3 Attitude Change as The Conjoint Result of Changes in Cognitions in Behaviours: the Engaging Communication.

As developed above, one the one hand persuasive communication focuses on triggering changes in cognitions, which may result in changes in attitudes. On the other hand, engagement aims at causing changes in behaviours, which may entail changes in attitudes. The "engaging communication" paradigm reconciles the former with the latter. It consists in preceding a persuasive communication with an engaging preparatory act (Michelik, 2011; Girandola and Joule, 2012). According to Joule, Girandola and Bernard (2007), Girandola and Michelik (2008), and Girandola and Joule (2012), the engaging

communication facilitates attitudinal and behavioural changes in the direction of the message of the persuasive communication.

1.2. From Attitude to Behaviour : the Theory of Planned Behaviour

Before developing the historical and theoretical perspectives of the attitude-behaviour relationship, it will be helpful to first clarify the difference between the notions of action and behaviour. Our perspective, inspired by Noumbissie (2010), is that an action is an observable, conscious and efficacious expression of a behaviour. Efficacious because it aims at achieving a goal, and conscious because it is an expression of the subject's will. Therefore, we do not consider reflexes or unconscious acts properly as actions. According to Noumbissie (2010), there are three prerequisites to action: (1) the awareness of an unease or a least satisfaction, (2) the awareness of the possibility of greater satisfaction, and (3) the awareness of the power to act, that is, a possible efficacy. Having defined action in relation to behaviour, it becomes important to provide a clear definition of what a behaviour is. In that regard, our perspective, inspired by Harabi (2018), is that the concept of behaviour is a latent concept: it is inferred from action, as it is considered the immediate ontological predecessor of action. That is, a behaviour is the deterministic disposition for an action: it is the immediate, direct, and causal predictor for action, with 100% predictive power. This is probably why behaviour has often been considered an observable notion and amalgamated with action, because there is no margin for error in predicting actions from behaviour .

In his definition and explanations of the concept of attitude, Allport (1935) was already insisting on the usefulness of attitude . Without a clear demonstration of the role of attitudes in predicting behaviour s on the one hand, and with attitudes not being the only determinants of behaviour s on the other, the relationship between attitudes and behaviour was conceptualized for a long time in vague terms of possibility, and several studies attempted to understand if, how and under which circumstances this possibility becomes a reality.

Michelik (2008, 2011, 2013) retraced the evolution of the theoretical conceptualisation of the attitude-behaviour relationship, and identified three generation of theorist whose works were determinant for this conceptualisation.

1.2.1 The First Generation: From Lapiere (1934) to Bickman (1972)

According to Michelik (2008), this generation of theorists aimed at finding out whether attitudes could effectively predict behaviours. In that regard, Lapiere (1934), having analysed the attitudes and behaviours of restaurant and hotel staff towards Chinese people in USA, found no relation between staff attitudes and behaviour. However, his results were treated with caution (as his study included several methodological biases) until they were confirmed by Deutscher (1966) and Wicker (1969), who found that attitudes accounted for only around 10% of behaviours. In the same vein, Bickman (1972) showed the gap between people's attitudes towards cleaning their studying environment, and their actual cleaning behaviour in that environment. Apart from these studies that minimized and often disproved attitude-behaviour consistency, there are others that tend to prove this consistency and even specify the conditions in which optimal consistency can be expected. These studies are mainly those of the second generation (in Michelik's (2008) classification).

1.2.2 The Second Generation: From Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) to Ajzen (1985)

The various studies from the first generation lacked some methodological rigor. For example, they failed to distinguish between general and specific attitudes. They also mistakenly tried to predict one behaviour from a single attitude. The work of the second generation of attitude research aimed at understanding in which circumstances attitudes could predict behaviour (Michelik, 2008), while avoiding the shortcoming of their predecessors. They also aimed to identify the variables moderating or mediating the attitude-behaviour relationship.

In this regard, Fischbein and Ajzen (1975) suggested that some attitudes and behaviour s (especially general ones) should be analysed not with simple-act criteria but rather with multiple act-criteria; that is, they wanted to broaden the scope of terms in which behaviour is measured. In the field of religion, they found general behaviour (an aggregation of behaviours) to have a greater consistency with general attitudes than specific behaviour. By the same token, Weigel and Newman (1976), in a study on general and specific attitudes towards the environment, found specific attitudes to be a better

predictor of specific behaviours. Beyond these conclusions on the necessary correspondence of the level of specificity of attitudes and behaviour for a greater attitude-behaviour consistency, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Ajzen (1988) posited a general principle of correspondence, also referred to as the principle of compatibility (Fishbein & Ajzen , 2005), according to which the more similarity there is between the markers of attitudes and those of behaviours (the time, the situation, the goal, the object/action, etc.), the greater the attitude-behaviour consistency.

Another principle ruling attitude-behaviour consistency is that of prototypical behaviour, which was investigated and proved by Lord, Lepper and Mackie (1984). According to them, some objects are seen as representative of a group, category or class of objects; as such, people's attitudes towards these prototypical objects (those that possess the imagined features of group representatives) are very consistent with their behaviours toward them. Conversely, people's attitudes towards non-prototypical objects (those whose characteristics mismatch the imagined features of group representatives) are inconsistent with their behaviours towards them. According to Noumbissie (2010), this principle of prototypical behaviour could explain why some research from the first generation, like that of Lapiere (1934), failed to prove the attitude-behaviour consistency, as they did not take into account the subject's prototypical representation of the group (e.g., the Chinese).

In addition to the aforementioned principles, two general personality traits were shown to moderate the attitude-behaviour relationship: self-consciousness, in its private and public dimensions (Fenigstein, Scheier, & Buss, 1975), and self-monitoring (Synder, 1974). The Self-consciousness was defined by Noumbissie (2010) as a "*dispositional characteristic to pay attention to the self in various situations*" (P. 59). Its private dimension concerns the extent to which a subject is centred on their own inner processes in their action decision-making, while its public dimension concerns the extent to which they are centred on social norms and conformity in their action decision-making (Tunnel, 1984). Therefore, the higher an individual's score of private self-consciousness regarding an action, the greater their attitude-behaviour consistency. Likewise, the higher a subject's public self-consciousness regarding an action, the weaker their attitude-behaviour consistency (Carver & Scheier, 1981). As for self-monitoring, it is the ability to observe and double-check our intended behaviour , according to the situation in which it is

intended (Snyder, 1974). It has been proven that the higher an individual's self-monitoring regarding an action, the worse their attitude-behaviour consistency for that action; likewise, the poorer an individual's self-monitoring regarding an action, the greater their attitude-behaviour consistency for that action (Synder & Swann, 1976, Synder & Kendziersli, 1982).

To syncretise these aforementioned advances in the understanding of circumstances and conditions conducive to attitude-behaviour consistency, the second-generation researchers suggested two broad behaviour -predicting models which include attitude alongside other constructs. These models are (1) the theory of reasoned action (Fisbein & Ajzen, 1975) (TRA), which was later developed into (2) the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1988) (TPB).

1.2.2.1. The Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975)

The theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) aims to explain behaviour through attitude and other psychosocial constructs. The central construct of this theory is the concept of "behavioural intention", which is a kind of intermediary between the latent constructs (attitudes and subjective norms) and the observable and measurable constructs (behaviours). Defined as such, intention therefore becomes the immediate latent construct predicting action (Fishbein, 1980), that is, the immediate determinant of behaviour.

The theory of reasoned action stipulates that this intention is determined by the attitude towards the behaviour, and by subjective norms. It further posits that attitudes stem from beliefs and available information about the attitude object, while subjective norms stem from normative beliefs, and the motivation to comply with them. The chart below offers a synoptical presentation of the TRA (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975)
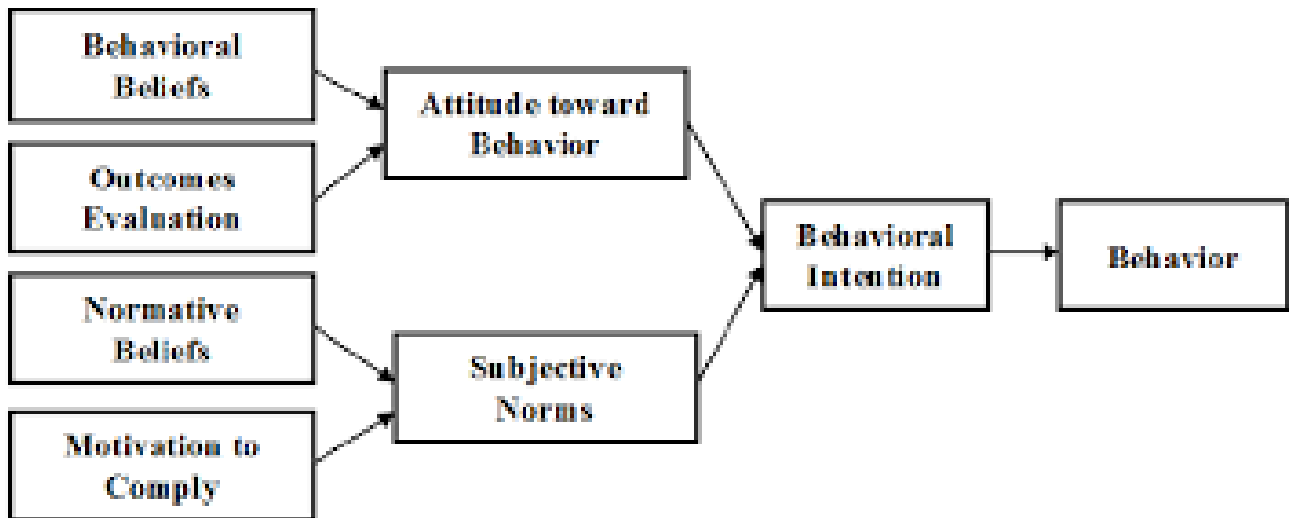
Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) suggested that the TRA was relevant for the behaviours pertaining to the realm of the volitional. This suggestion was upheld by Randal and Wolff (1994), and Sheppard et al. (1988). However, despite the moderate predictive power of the model of reasoned action which was supported in marketing research by Coleman et al. (2011), Bin (2013), Liu et al. (2017), and Monkge and Makgosa (2021) its scope was very narrow, as it failed to take into account behaviours pertaining to the realm of the involutional, especially instances in which the intended action is somehow challenging for the subject's, that is, when it depends on things over which the subject does not have total control and therefore requires them to double check their ability to implement it. To broaden the scope of the TAR, especially by including such challenging actions in the scope of possible actions predicted by the model, Ajzen (1985) offered the model of Planned behaviour.

1.2.2.2. The Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1985)

The theory of planned behaviour extends the theory of reasoned action by adding a supplementary construct: perceived behavioural control. The perceived behavioural control signifies how easily the subject perceives a given action could be performed. The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1985) upholds all the relations suggested by the Theory of Reasoned Action and posits that above all of these relations that the perceived behavioural control also influences the behavioural intention. A second version of the theory of planned behaviour, which suggests the direct influence of perceived behavioural

control on behaviour regardless of the mediation of the behavioural intention, was proposed by Ajzen and Madden (1986). The figure 11 below synoptically presents the theory of planned behaviour .
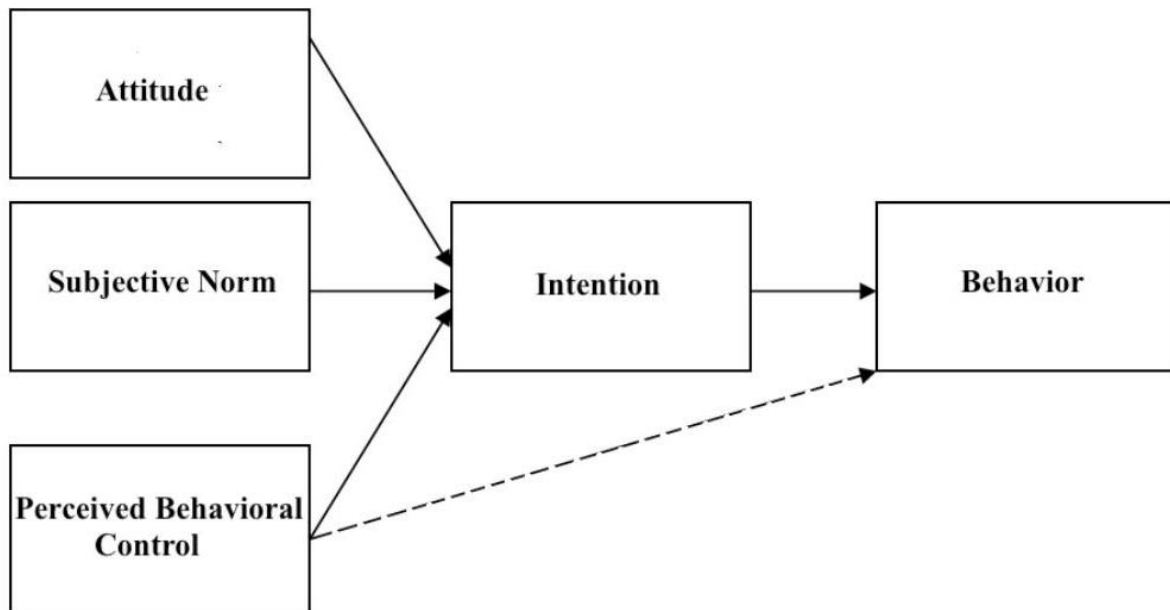
Figure 11 Model of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991)

According to the field in which the theory of planned behaviour is applied, it has been extended through the addition of several socio cognitive constructs. This is why it is important to study how it has been applied in the fields of Marketing, sport, physical activity, events, and media.

1.2.2.3. Ever-Broadening Extended Versions of the TPB

the original version developed by Ajzen (1985), several external variables (external to Ajzen's original model) have been tested and proven to increase the predictive power of the model. This initiative was prompted by Ajzen (1985) himself, who described the TPB as *"in principle open to the inclusion of additional predictors"* (p. 199). According to the field in which the TPB is applied, certain additional variables demonstrate more predictive validity than others. The literature has consensually called models of TPB to which external variables were added: "TPB extended". Since the extended models are particularised according to the field of study, the object of study and sometimes to several

other research features, there are an infinite number of extensions of the TPB. The general aim of science to continuously improve the predictive power of models such as the TPB has provided countless ever-broadening extended versions of the TPB.

As TPB extensions are infinite in number on the one hand and ever-broadening on the other hand, we will only analyse those version(s) of the TPB which have been applied in the field of sport, and especially in the fields of sport viewing, listening, or spectating behaviour .

1.2.3 The Third Generation : Predicting Behaviour from Attitude's Strength.

The third generation of works investigating the attitude-behaviour relationship has focused on conditions under which an attitude towards an object may influence behaviour regarding that object. Michelik (2011, 2013) showed that this latest generation of research suggests that the attitude strength is the predictor/moderator of the attitude-behaviour consistency, especially through the mediation of the intent. In other words, the likelihood for an attitude to be consistent with a future behaviour depends on how strong the attitude is. Other than their role as predictor in attitude-behaviour consistency, strong attitudes have three other features: there are especially resistant to change, stable in time and have an impact on cognitive processes (Petty & Krosnick, 1995).

Howe and Krosnick (2017) suggested eleven dimensions that define an attitude's strength, namely: the importance, the certainty, the ambivalence, the accessibility, the knowledge volume, the extremity, the affective–cognitive consistency, the intensity, the moral conviction, the elaboration, and the vested interest. They further define each of these dimensions and itemise their definitions in the table 6 below:

Feature	Definition
Importance	The degree to which an individual attaches significance to the attitude
Certainty	The individual's level of confidence that their evaluation of the attitude object is correct and is clear to them
Ambivalence	The degree to which a person holds positive and negative evaluations of the attitude object simultaneously
Accessibility	The likelihood that the attitude will come to mind automatically in relevant situations

Knowledge volume	The amount of information the person has about the attitude object
Extremity	The degree to which the person likes or dislikes the attitude object
Affective–cognitive consistency	The degree to which a person's feelings about the attitude object are evaluatively consistent with their thoughts about it
Intensity	The degree to which a person's evaluation of the attitude object activates powerful emotions
Moral conviction	The degree to which the attitude is a strong and absolute belief that something is right or wrong or moral or immoral, or that it reflects core moral values and convictions
Elaboration	The degree of thought one has given to the attitude object's merits and shortcomings
Vested interest	The degree to which the attitude object is perceived to be of personal consequence

Table 6 Attitude features related to strength, source Howe and Krosnick (2017, P. 330)

To the latter features defining attitude strength, could be added the direct experience, which bespeaks one's participation level to the behavioural activity regarding the attitude object (Michelik, 2008), and was proved to be positively associated with the pro-attitudinal behaviour (Regan and Fazio, 1977).

As Paralympic sport is not yet a rife phenomenon (Schantz and Gilbert, 2012a, b; Silva and Howe, 2018), we assume that the attitudinal object Paralympic sport and attitudes related to it may not be very salient in our responders' minds, that is, not quickly accessible. We also assume that people's attitudes towards Paralympic sport might demonstrate a low level of certainty and not be very important for people elaborating them, as they generally are not very well acquainted with this practice and do not see and/or place much stake in it (Schantz and Gilbert, 2012a, b).

For measuring factors and variables predicting/explaining behaviour (consumption) towards Paralympic sport, we will syncretise insights from works from the second and third generations of research on attitude-behaviour relationship, by using a planned-behaviour- based model, in which attitudes' extremity and intensity will be measured.

2. Pathways from Social Representations to Behaviours: Extending the TPB With Social Representation.

2.1. Social Representation

From a logico-semantic standpoint, the concept of representation refers to the process by which an object or phenomenon is represented and also the product obtained at the end of this process. In the field of psychology, this concept embodies "*the mental faculty of making present what is absent, close what is remote, substance what is instance and concrete what is abstract*" (Harabi, 2017, P.15 our translation). The concept of representation is drawn from the Kantian philosophical premise that we cannot ever understand or perceive the objects that compose our world as they really are because their real, noumenal (Kant, 1781), ontological (Heidegger, 1927), and essential (Satre, 1943) nature is beyond our perceptive capabilities. As the real nature of our world is beyond our perception, we can only catch in our experience phenomenal glimpses or ontical deposits of it. Our experience of these phenomenal glimpses depends on our personal subjectivity and is therefore value- and belief-laden (Kant, 1781). Depending on whether this experience is at an individual or social level, it is respectively said to be subjective (Kant, 1781) or inter-subjective (Husserl, 1999 ; Trevarthen and Aitken, 2001, 2003).

Building on Durkheim's (1898) work on collective representations, Moscovici (1961) developed the concept of social representations, which accounts for the social experience of a given object by a group, and theorisation of which provides tools to sound out the genesis, content, structure and drivers organising this social experience.

2.1.1 Definition and Statement

A representation bespeaks a phenomenological experience, that is, a set of transactions involving an experiencer or representer (the subject, but the phenomenological rather than grammatical one), an experienced or represented (the object), a process (the action of representing), and a product (the representation of the object). This tetrad (subject-object-process-product) is in our view a relevant framework for defining and analysing representations, be they individual, collective or social. Our perspective—that speaking about representation entails speaking of the tetrad subject-object-process-product—is syncretically supported by Moscovici, according to whom a representation is always someone's representation (subject) as well as something's representation (object) (1976), Jodelet (1993) according to whom *"there is no representation without object"* (in Harabi, 2017, p.15), and Abric (1994a), for whom representations include the process of representing and the product of this process.

During the evolution of the concept of social representation and its theorisation, several definitions have been given to it. Even its very genitor Moscovici (1961) has provided more than one definition of this concept. Defining the concept of social representations is not an easy task. According to Lahlou (1998), the difficulty in defining this concept is in part due to the fact that it applies to itself in a kind of self-reflexive way; that is, the definitions provided of this concept are actually themselves more like representations of social representation than ontological definitions of social representation.

Of the several definitions suggested by Moscovici (1961, 1969, 1976, …), we have singled out two that in our view provide potable accounts of the concept of social representation. Mocsovici (1969) defined a social representation as "a values system of notions and practices having a double aim: firstly, to establish an order that enables individuals to orient themselves in the material and social environment and to subdue it. Secondly, to ensure communication between the members of a community by offering a code for their exchanges and a code to name and univocally classify the parts of their world and their personal and collective history" (our translation). He would later rephrase his definition in terms of a "*values system of notions and practices related to objects, aspects or dimensions of social environment, which enables not only the establishment of a people or group's living framework, but also constitutes an instrument*

that helps to orient the perceptions of a situation and elaborate responses". (1976, p.42, our translation). He emphasised the fact that social representations are "aim*ed at interpreting and shaping the real*" (1976, p.8, our translation). If we were to analyse Moscovic's definitions of social representation according to our tetrad-like framework "subject-object-processes-product", we could say that in his view, the subject does not only refer to an individual subject (ego) (Moscovici, 1984), nor to a social subject (alter) (Moscovici, 1984), but rather to a sort of polycephalic subject, composed of many elementary subjects which can communicate with one another. These elementary subjects are organised in such a way that at any one time only one of them can endorse the role of ego (individual subject) while all the others play the role of alters (social subjects). The social representation is neither objective, nor subjective, but rather intersubjective in the sense of Husserl (1999) and Trevarthen et al. (2003): it is nested in the communication network linking different individuals' subjectivities (Jodelet, 1989). Its originator, Moscovici (1961) himself, recognised that the social representation is born within and from the communication network and processes related to its object at the same time that it guides these communication processes from which it emerges (1976).

Apart from Moscovici, several scholars have suggested definitions of the concept of social representation. Among those was Abric (1994b, b, 2003), who defined the social representation as an organised and structured set of object-related information, beliefs, opinions and attitudes that constitutes some particular socio-cognitive system. from Abric's perspective, a social representation is a sort of prism through which reality is experienced but it is not only the prism. His perspective of the social representation includes a process (the prism) and the product of this process (the picture seen through the prism) (1994a). This prism includes among other components, the subject's (experiencer) ideological features, especially individual attitudes and opinions, and collective values and norms (Abric, 1994a). Jodelet (1989) gave another interesting account of the concept of social representation. She defined it as "*a form of knowledge, socially constructed and shared, having a practical aim and partaking in the construction of a common reality shared by a social group (...)*" (p.36, our translation) . She assimilates the social representation to a *"common sense knowledge"*, a "*naive knowledge*" (p 36, our translation).

Without denying or undermining the understandings of the concept of social representation mentioned above, and in order to take into account the context and

society- related complexity of social interactions, Doise (1986) gave a complementary view of social representation in terms of "principles generating position-takings (in relation to objects) related to specific social insertions in a set of social relations" (p.9, our translation).

Having defined what social representations are or at least presented our representation of them, it seems important to us now to explain what the theory of social representations (SRT) (Moscovici, 1961) states. There are almost as many wordings and rephrasings of the SRT as there are scholars that have used it. Despite this multiplicity, the SRT wordings and rephrasings do not differ much from one another in terms of ontological substance. According to the SRT, individuals do not experience "objects of representations" at the sole basis of their individual perspective: they in fact take into account a collectively shared and socially constructed reality (the social representation), in the construction of their own reality (experience) of social objects. However, this rephrasing of Moscovici (1961) remains unclear as long as we have not explained what the term "object of representation" refers to.

2.1.2. The Notion of Object of Representation

According to Moscovici (1961), Moliner (1993), and Flament and Rouquette (2003), not all social objects are objects of representation. This view is sustained by Jodelet (1989), according to whom there can't be any representation without an object, but there can be objects without representations (social representation). There are three conditions according to Moscovici (1961) and Flament and Rouquette (2003), and five according to Moliner (1993), the fulfilment of which makes an object an object of representation.

2.1.2.1 Moscovici's (1961) Perspective

As mentioned above, Moscovici (1961) described three conditions that should concomitantly be met for a social representation of a given object to emerge, that is, for this object to emerge as an object of representation. These conditionalities are: (1)the dispersion of information about the object, (2) the focalisation, and (3) the pressure to inference. Regarding the dispersion of the information, when a particular interest or stake is bestowed on an object by a group, the information about this object is scattered and

divided. As matter of fact, individuals never have all the information about the object in its complexity. Rather, they do possess pieces and fragments of information (about the object) that they picked up when they communicated about it. These pieces and fragments of information are quite often distortions of the scientific truth about the object (Rouquette, 1999, 2009) as they were constructed on the basis of a non-scientific logic that Doise (1993) would label as "social logic". Guimelli (1999) would notice that this so-called   "social logic" is very influenced by the context in which the object is encountered.

Concerning the focalisation, since the information is scattered and divided, individuals will focus on certain specific aspects that they deem relevant or pertinent according to their interests, background, and the groups, subgroups or categories they belong to; thus, their position towards the object is defined. This position is subjective as it takes into account subject-related interests (Harabi, 2017). As for the pressure to inference, it refers to the fact that individuals comply with a kind of social pressure in the sense of Deutsch and Gerard (1955). To have a socially-correct discourse about the object, people need to fill in the gaps in their knowledge about the object. For that purpose, during communication and practices regarding the object individuals reinforce and complete their beliefs and knowledge about the object according to what they believe other people (the alter) think, believe, or know about the object (Roussiau et Bonardi, 2001).

2.1.2.2 Moliner's (1993) Perspective

In an article entitled "Five questions about social representations" (our translation), Moliner (1993) posits five conditions necessary for an object to become an object of representation (a social representation): (1) the specificity of the object, (2) the group's features, (3) the stakes, (4) the social dynamic, and (5) the lack of orthodoxy. With regard to the specificity of the object, Moliner (1993) explains that it is not so much about the object per se, but rather about its social status in a society or, culture at a given point in time that which Flament and Rouquette (2003) would call its "socio-cognitive salience". The object should have a certain value for the people belonging to the group being investigated: it should mean something to them. It should also be complex and polymorphic, that is, encompassing several aspects whose elusiveness is further increased by communication about it (Moliner, 1993).

As for the group's features, the very existence of a group presupposes the existence of members composing it and relationships between these members (individually) and the group. The nature of these relationships will influence the communication processes and the shaping of positions and opinions about the object. So, the communication about the object is essential to the existence of the representation (social representation). For example, it would probably be an impossible task to study the social representation of video games in a Hindu ashram full of dedicated and sincere monks who have renounced worldly affairs for several decades, as, in addition to the fact that video games would mean nothing to them, there would not be any communication about the object between them.

Concerning the stakes, for an object to appear important or to mean something for a group, some stakes—   that is, something to win or lose, an interest or a threat—, should be attached to it. This view is sustained by Moliner et al. (2002), according to whom the object of social representation is important for group's members, because it is the attached to some sort of a stake.

Regarding the social dynamic, Moliner (1993) posits that the interplay between individual and social (group) identities is an important variable explaining the representation. Therefore, the social dynamic (of the group) conditions the existence of a representation (social) in it.

As for the lack of orthodoxy, there should be no strict legal, normative, or consensual framework framing or limiting the proliferation of information (be it accurate or inaccurate) about the object., but rather the relative freedom for each individual or group to build its reality of the object.

2.1.2.3 Flament and Rouquette's (2003) Perspective

Flament and Rouquette (2003) posited that for an object to be an object of representation, it should have a "concept function"; that is, it should represent a broad class that encompasses a range of specific or particular objects, recurs in communication relationships and network (including media and interpersonal conversations), and is related to practices common to the group or the society being investigated. Having given our representation of social representations and outlined the conditions necessary for their construction, it now seems appropriate for us to present the different theoretical approaches through which social representations can be investigated.

2.1.3 Theoretical Orientations

They are several theoretical orientations of social representations theory (Moscovici, 1961), which are not always incompatible. According to the aspect of the representation under investigation, or the way the representation is defined, one or another theoretical orientation can be applied. When the investigation addresses the processes through which the representation is constructed, and their content (representation as a process and product), the theoretical approach is labelled "socio-genetic". When it focuses on the content and structure (representation as a product) of representation, the theoretical foundation is labelled "structural" or "Aix school". When it tackles the principles organising the position-takings (representation as principles generating sets of micro context-related products), the theoretical base is referred to as the "organising principal approach" or known as belonging to the "Geneva school". Finally, when the social representation is envisioned as "*a theory of social knowledge*" (Markova, 2007 p.288) and a theory that "*applies to the study of phenomena thematised in the public discourse*" (Markova, 2007, P. 289), it is recognised as a "dialogical" approach.

2.1.3.1 The Socio-Genetic Approach

The socio-genetic approach is the original one developed by the founder of the social representation theory (Moscovici, 1961) himself. This approach investigates the processes through which representations (social) are constructed and the product of these processes as content. As a matter of fact, the construction of as social representation obeys a twofold logic: a cognitive logic that Moscovici (1976, p.40) would describe in terms of "psychological texture", and a social logic (Doise, 1993). According to Harabi (2018), it calls upon "*cognitive mechanisms subjected to social regulations*" (p.19).

2.1.3.1.1 The Processes

Moscovici (1961) described two processes through which representations (social) are constructed: objectification and anchoring. However, before further elaborating these two processes which describe the "how" of social representation, it is important to address the "why" of social representation.

According to Moliner (2001a, b), the very genesis of social representation lies in uncertainty. Social representation is only a way (way in terms of "prism", "software" and

"product") of coping with a lack of knowledge about an object (Wagner et al., 1996; Wagner et al., 1999; Wagner, Kronberger, and Seifert, 2002; Wagner, Kronberger, and Seifert, 2002).

According to Wagner et al. (1996), Wagner et al. (1999), and Wagner, Kronberger, and Seifert (2002), the very genesis of social representations is ignorance. They suggest that whenever a new object that "is sufficiently relevant for the members of a community to initiate a conflicting discourse" (Wagner, 2011, p. 2) appears in a society and disturbs the symbolic reality to which the members of this community are accustomed or threatens the group's identity and norms, it demands to be "coped with materially as well as symbolically" (Wagner et al., 1999, p.97). The disruption or threat to the identity and/or norms is due to the fact that the members of the community are ignorant about the new object. Regarding these two ways of coping (the material and the symbolic), the majority of the group is only concerned with the latter, as the former is vested solely to experts about the new object such as scientists or engineers (Wagner et al., 1999).

To cope with the new object—this disturber of reality and threat to identities and norms— the members of the community will all together construct (on the basis of what they already know, think, suppose or believe, that is, on the basis of their previous, undisturbed reality) a social knowledge about the new object (Wagner et al., 1996; Wagner et al., 1999; Wagner, Kronberger & Seifert, 2002) that is aimed at "replacing ignorance and allowing people to become competent participants in the unfolding […](Wagner, 2011, p.2) debate about the object.

➢ *Objectification*

Earlier in this chapter we quoted Harabi's (2017) conceptualisation of representation, according to which representation typifies the mental ability to "*render present what is absent, concrete what is abstract, and substance what is instance*" (p. 15). Objectification is the process responsible for these latter transformations. When describing the process of objectification, Palmonari and Doise (1986) noted that it "*renders concrete what is abstract*" (p. 20). Following its logico-semantic meaning (action or process of objectifying, that is, making something an object), objectification is the process through which an elusive or complex concept or notion properly becomes a social object (Harabi, 2017), that is, the concept or notion is naturalised (Moscovici, 1976), and "matched with something" (Guimelli, 1994, p.13 in Harabi, p.20) to become a "*simple object*". Its function

is to dub "a sense into a figure" (Moscovici, 1974, p. 64). Objectivation itself is a threefold process encompassing (1) constructive selection, (2) structuring schematisation, and (3) naturalisation. Constructive selection is an operation through which scattered information about the object is sorted and de-contextualised according to cultural criteria, to the value system, the group(s)' internal requirements, and the reigning ideology, so that some of this information is deemphasised while some is emphasised (Moscovici, 1976). Sorted in that way, this information becomes the group (s)' property and ceases to belong to the field from which it originated (Pfeuti, 1996). In simple terms, constructive selection can be defined as an emphasis on an object's specific traits in a way that contrasts this object from other social objects (Sales-Wuillemin, 2007). Once sorted and de-contextualised as described, this information will be schematised (Moscovici, 1976), that is, arranged in a certain way. This schematisation (structuring schematisation) consists in the shaping of a "figurative nucleus" (Moscovici, 1961), that Abric (2003) refers to as the "central nucleus": the part of the sorted and de-contextualised information that is homogenous, kept by, and makes sense to the whole group. At the end of this process, the information is *"simple, concrete, imaged and coherent with the culture and the social norms[...]"* (Rouquette & Rateau , 1998, p.32). The figurative nucleus can be known as the "*common sense*" or "*naïve knowledge*" that Moscovici (1961) and Jodelet (1989, p. 36) respectively referred to when defining social representation, and is properly the prisms through and according to which new information will be interpreted (Abric, 1996). Among the different stages of the objectification process, following the structuring schematisation is the naturalisation. Naturalisation is the stage that bestows to the elements of the figurative nucleus the status of having "physical" and/or "perceivable" features (Moscovici, 1976; Roussiau & Bonardi, 2001).

Besides the process of objectification is the one of anchoring

➢ *Anchoring*

The very originator of the social representation theory, and specifically of its socio-genetic approach, Moscovici (1961), laconically referred to anchoring in terms of "social rooting", just like in maritime navigation. He would later (Moscovici 1976) share a few more words about this, to describe anchoring as a process through which the strange (object, or phenomenon) is made familiar; that is, "*a figure is dubbed into a sense*" (p. 64). Supporting him, Palmonari and Doise (1986) would define anchoring as "*putting a new*

object in a well-known framework, in order to be able to interpret it" (p.22, our translation). Jodelet (1989) concords: anchoring "serves the instrumentalization of knowledge, by bestowing on it a functional value for the interpretation and management of the environment" (p. 73, our translation). According to Doise (1992), studying the anchoring of representations (social) entails "*seeking a meaning for the particular combination of notions that form their content*" (p. 189). Doise (1992) also distinguished between three type of anchoring: (1) psychological anchoring in a society's general belief system(s) – which explains the link between the principles organising the inter-individual variations in position-takings, and the socially predominant values and belief systems – (2) psychosociological anchoring, which accounts for variations arising from inter-group relationships, and (3) sociological anchoring, which explains the social class-related variations in position-takings, using Bourdieu's (1977) concepts of capital, social class, hexis, and habitus. Doise (1986) identified three stages in the anchoring process:

- a stage bestowing meaning to the represented object: the new object is incorporated in the group's values and norms system in order to bestow it with a meaning that abides by the reigning values and norms. Practically, the objects are "tagged" and "labelled" with the existing tags and labels (Harabi, 2017).

- a stage of rooting the representation in the pre-existing thought systems: the object is cognitively integrated into a familial (common to the group) reference framework; in Palmonari and Doise's (1986) words, during this stage, the object (that is not yet familiar to the group) is integrated into "the network of categories that are specific to the group"   .

- a stage of instrumentalization, that bestows functional and practical qualities to the object.

Having presented the processes ruling the formation of a social representation according to the socio-genetic approach (social representation as process), it is now left for us to present the content (social representation as product) issuing from these processes.

2.1.3.1.2 The Content

In his ground-breaking original book about social representation, Moscovici (1961) identified three dimensions (components) involved in a social representation: the attitude, the information, and the field of representation.

➢ *The Attitude*

A whole section (see chapter II) has been dedicated to the attitude. Furthermore, a further title (see the Focus 2) will be dedicated to the analysis of the theoretical links between attitudes and social representation.

➢ *The Information*

To make an analogy with the three-dimensional model of attitudes, we could say that information is to social representation what the cognitive dimension is to the attitude. The information is the cognitive part of the representation: cognitive in terms of what the subject or group knows, thinks, or believes the features of the representation object to be, and eventually how the subject structures these features (the relationships the subject creates between their knowledge, thoughts and beliefs about the object) (Moscovici, 1961). We should distinguish here between the attitude and the information. While the attitude is judgemental and expressed in terms of wrongs and rights, likes and dislikes, the information is rather subjectively or intersubjectively objective; that is, it objectively expresses individuals' or groups' subjective or intersubjective thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs about the object —, in other words, subjective or intersubjective features of the representation object –. the information consists of the features of the representation object "as it is in the individual(s)' or group (s)' subjective or intersubjective experience".

➢ *The Field of Representation*

The field of representation refers to the set of images arising from the information (imaged and objectified contents constructed on the basis of the information), and through which individuals or groups experience (perceive) a clear aspect of the representation object (Harabi, 2017).

2.1.3.2 The Structural Approach

Initiated by Abric (1976), and further developed by several renowned scholars (Abric, 1987, 1993, 1994a,b,c, 1996, 2002 , 2003, 2009; Moliner, 1989, 1993, 1994, 2001;Abric & Verges, 1995, 1996; ; Flament & Moliner, 1989 ; Guimelli, 1993, 1998, Flament, 1994a,b; 2001a,b, 2002, 2003; Abric & Tafani, 1995, 2009; Moliner & Abric, 2015, etc.), the structural approach of social representation theory suggests that every social representation is structured according to a certain hierarchical pattern. It envisions social representations in terms of contents (products) organised according to a structure (Abric, 1994a).

Also referred to as the socio-cognitive approach (Garnier, 2015; Lo Monaco, Piermatteo, Rateau, Tavani, 2017), this approach identifies a set of contradictory and antagonistic features in social representations that it presents as simultaneously both stable and dynamic, rigid and flexible on the one hand, and as both dissensual and consensual on the other (Abric, 1993). According to how stable or flexible, or consensual or dissensual the elements forming the social representation are, (Abric,1976, 2003; Flament & Moliner, 1989;Flament, 1994a; Guimelli, 1993, 1998), classified them into two categories whose roles in the social representation are different but complementary (Valence & Roussiau, 2005, 2009; Tafani, 2009): the central nucleus and the peripheral system.

2.1.3.2.1 The Central Nucleus

Also often referred to in the literature as the central system, the central nucleus (Abric, 1987) is actually the above-mentioned concept of "figurative nucleus" (constructed through objectification), taken beyond the genetic framework and established as the essential part of the social representation (Abric, 1976; Rateau et Lo Monaco, 2013). It is composed of stable, homogeneous, and consensual elements of the social representation (Moliner, 1988; Flament, 1994a; Moliner et al., 2002), is (almost) context-free (Abric, 1994b, Flament, 1995), trans-situational (Lo Monaco, Lheureux & Halimi-Falkowicz 2008), and determines the meaning and coherence of the representation (Abric, 1993). Abric (1993) insists on how essential this abstract part (the central nucleus) of the social representation (Rateau & Lo Monaco, 2013) is. He is supported in this by Moliner (1989) and Flament(1994a), according to whom the social

representation would respectively disappear or be unrecognisable if elements from the central nucleus were to disappear or change. The elements composing the central nucleus are intertwined with the group's collective memory and history and are strongly embedded in the group's identity, norms, values, and belief system (Abric, 1994b). For that reason, the central nucleus can properly be considered as the prism through which the collective reality is experienced by the group. The central nucleus has two functions (Abric, 1994b ; Moliner et al., 2002 ; Dany & Apostolidis, 2007 ; Rateau & Lo Monaco, 2013): a sense-generating function and an organising function. In other words, it is through the central nucleus that elements composing the social representation take on their meaning(s) (sense-generating function) and relative importance (s) (organising function) (Abric, 1994b).

Although the conceptualisation of the central nucleus has been well established, it faces some criticisms. These criticisms revolve around some apparent contradictions observed in the methodological exploration of the central nucleus and in the definitions of its characteristics. To address these criticisms, alternative models have been suggested to replace the central nucleus model. Among those alternative models are the polysemic model (Bataille, 2002) and the matrix-like model (Moliner, 2007). The polysemic model suggests that the elements of the nucleus are consensual not because they express a common positioning, but rather because they are vague enough for any individual to bestow on them the sense he or she wants (Bataille 2002). According to this model, the nucleus is not sense-generating, but rather sense-receiving, as the elements from the nucleus are polysemic and only get a precise meaning through concrete and context-related elements from the peripheral system.

Besides the polysemic model (Bataille, 2002), and in order to reinstate the legitimacy of the structural model, Moliner (2007) suggested the matrix model, according to which the elements from the nucleus have three functions: they encompass different context-related experiences about the representation object (aggregation function), enable consensus (federative function) and enable the association of meanings with the object of representation (symbolic or embodiment function).

Complementary to the central nucleus (Abric, 1987) is the peripheral system.

2.1.3.2.2 The Peripheral System

The peripheral system is the set of those elements of the representation that are dynamic, unstable (Abric, 1994, b), and situation- related (Flament, 1995). It is the concrete part (Rateau & Lo Monaco, 2013) of the social representation through which "the representation can anchor itself in the reality of the moment" (Abric, 1994c, P. 79), as it is composed of sets of information, judgements, beliefs, stereotypes and selected information about the representation object, its environment, the context, and the situation; it can be considered as the "screen" between the central nucleus and the context or situation in which the representation is activated (Abric, 1997).

Throughout the literature, three main functions have been assigned to the peripheral system: a prescriptive function (Abric, 1994a, 1997, Rouquette & Rateau, 1998), a customisation or personalisation function (Abric, 1994a, 1997; Flament, 1994a, 1995; Rateau & Lo Monaco, 2013), and a shield-like protection function (Abric, 1987,Flament, 1994a, 1995).

- As for its prescriptive function, the peripheral system prescribes the "what to do " (behaviours) and the "what to say" (position-takings) according to the reigning context and the ongoing situation (Abric, 1994a). The peripheral system provides clues and codes to understanding, foreseeing and interpreting the different aspects of situations and communicating and acting accordingly (Rouquette & Rateau,1998).

- With regard to its customisation function, due to its flexibility, the peripheral system is responsible for the integration of each individual's own histories and experiences into the social representation (Flament1994a). As a consequence, a group's social representation of an object can afford different position-takings (inter-individual or inter-subgroup variations) within itself (Rateau & Lo Monaco,2013).

- Concerning its shield-like protection function, through its elements, which that adapt themselves to the context and even to the situation (Abric, 1997), the dynamic, unstable, and heterogeneous peripheral system allows the formation and the "survival" of individualised social representations around a stable, consensual, and homogeneous central nucleus (Abric, 1994b). The word survival is used here because it is the peripheral system's ability to integrate individual histories and experiences, accept contradictions, tolerate the group's heterogeneity (Abric, 1994b), and modify, adapt and adjust itself in response to the reigning contexts and situations (Flament, 1995) that spares the central nucleus itself from having to change in such contexts and situations (Flament, 1995).

Several further studies (Verges 1992, 1994, 1995; Abric, 2003; Chokier & Moliner, 2006) have scrutinised the structure of the peripheral system and found several subsystems encompassed within it. We will carry out a more in-depth development of these in the title 1 of the chapter VI, dedicated to the methodology of our second exploratory survey addressing the social representation(s) of Paralympic sport. The Figure 12 presents a general aspect of the social representation from a structural standpoint.

central core (consensus zone)

peripheral zone

outer zone
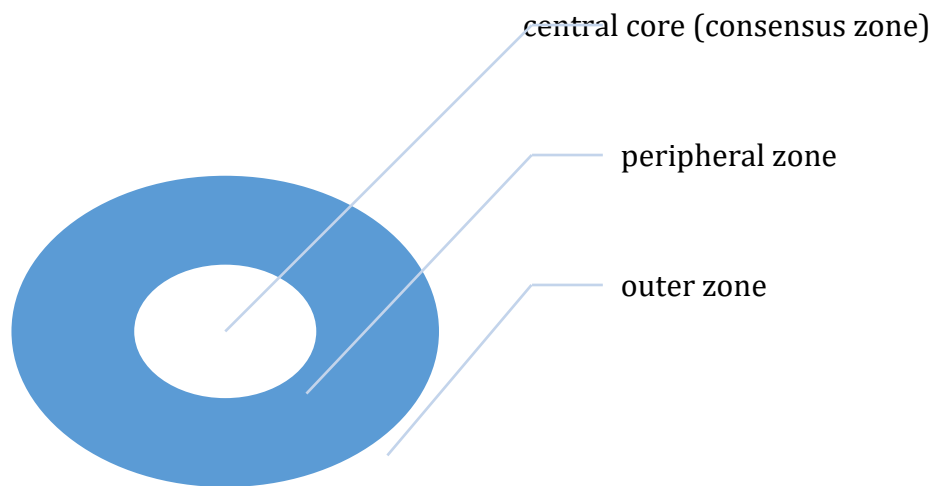
Figure 12 Rough structure of a social representation (Abric, 1994, a, b, c, 2003)

The table 7 below summarises and compare the main features of central and peripheral systems within a social representation.

Central nucleus	Peripheral zone
Related to a group's collective memory and history	Allows the integration of individual experiences and histories
Stable and coherent	Flexible and contradiction-friendly
Resisting to change	Change-friendly and evolutive
Context-independent	Very context-dependent
Sense-generating for the representation	Allows the representation in-context concrete adaptation
Determine the organisation of the social representation	Protects the central nucleus

Table 7 Main features of central and peripheral systems within a social representation

Despite these controversies (e.g. Bataille, 2002; Moliner, 2007), the structural approach has provided a solid theoretical framework for analysing social representations. Several well- ranked studies have been rooted in its framework (Goodwin, 2003; Lo Monaco et al., 2016). Other studies have combined it with one (Ballah, 2018), two (Tanoh, 2021) or three (Harabi, 2018) other social representation theoretical orientations to provide a robust framework. On a marketing perspective, the structural perspective of social representations (Abric, 1994a, b, c; Flament, 1994) has also been operationalised as a variable (usually independent and/or mediator) for predicting people behaviour or organisations' brand equity (e.g., Lebrun and Bouchet, 2010; Lebrun et al.,2010; Ballah, 2018; Tanoh, 2021; Corbel, 2021).

While the structural approach focuses its investigations more on the content produced through objectification, there is another approach which is more oriented towards investigating how this content is revamped in and according to the anchoring(s).

2.1.3.3 The Socio-Dynamic Approach

While adepts of the socio-genetic approach envisioned representation(s) in terms of processes and products, and those of the structural approach in terms of content and structure, those affiliated with the socio-dynamic approach – also referred to as approach of organising principles – envisions representations (social) in terms of principles organising positionings within the group according to the different anchorings. Also referred to as the socio-dynamic approach (Garnier, 2015; Lo Monaco, Piermatteo, Rateau, Tafani, 2017), this approach builds on Bourdieu's theorisation of social relationships through the concepts of capital, classes, habitus, hexis, social field (1977) and structural homology (1979) (Doise, 1986) to analyse representations (social) according to the specificity and dynamics of their anchorages (psychological, sociological and psychosociological, see tittle 2.1.3.1.1 of the current chapter).

Three main assumptions are at the basis of the emergence of the socio- dynamic approach of representations (social) (Doise et al., 1992 ; Doise, Clémence & Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1993 ; Doise, 1994 ; 2003; Doise, Spini & Clémence, 1999; Clémence, Doise & Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1994; Clémence, 2001,). Doise (1992, p.3) , Spini & Clémence (1999, p. 2) provided a clear account of these assumptions as follows:

- "[...] various members of the population under study share common views about a given social issue" as, according to Doise, Spini & Clémence (1999), representations (social) emerge from communication relationships partaking in the creation of "common frames of reference" (p. 2)

- "[...] differences in individual positioning are organised [...]".

- "[...] systematic variations are anchored in collective symbolic realities, in social psychological experiences shared to different extents by individuals and in their beliefs about social reality".

Presented with the above-mentioned characteristics, we could mistake ourselves into thinking that, the socio-dynamic approach denies the notion of consensus, which leads it   to be antinomic to the structural approach. Therefore, it seems important to us to further explain that, far from denying the existence of a certain level of consensus, [which Clémence (2001) rephrases in terms of a "(shared) common point of reference" or "shared knowledge" (p. 87)] in the representation, this approach, engineered by Doise et al. (1992), Doise, Clémence & Lorenzi-Cioldi (1993), Doise (1994), Clémence, Doise & Lorenzi-Cioldi (1994), Clémence (2001, 2003), Lorenzi-Cioldi & Clémence (2001, 2010), Spini (2002), etc., rather attempts to explain why individuals or sub-groups would adhere to this consensus to different degrees; the approach aims to do this by finding the principles that organise these different levels of adhesion according to the specificities and the dynamics of the anchorage(s). Indeed, Doise (1986) describes consensus as a "characteristic which is essential to the functioning of the product of social representations" (p.90, our translation).

Apart from the socio-genetic, socio-cognitive, and socio-dynamic approaches, social representations can also be envisioned according to a "dialogical epistemology" (Caillaud, 2016), as a "*theory of social knowledge*" (Markova, 2007, p. 228, our translation) that is relevant for "*the study of phenomena that are thematised in the public discourse*" (Markova, 2007, p.229, our translation).

2.1.3.4 The Dialogical Approach

Markova (2003) was the first to formally apply the dialogical epistemology to the concept of social representations and is still the most significant driving force and contributor to the dialogical approach of social representation (e.g.,. Markova, 2003, 2004,

2005, 2006, 2007, 2008). Markova (2005) defines the dialogicity as the ability (of the human mind) to "create, conceive, and communicate about social realities in terms of alterity" (p.3); that is, not only from its own perspective (ego), but also according to what it considers or expects (on the basis of its interactions with others) to be the others' (ego) perspective.

The dialogical epistemology from which emerges the dialogical approach of social representation (Markova, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008) is grounded in an interactional epistemology (Markova, 2016). Unlike non-interactional epistemologies, which consider the knower (subject) and known (objects) totally free and independent from one another (Markova, 2003), interactional epistemologies consider the former and the latter "interdependent in and through interaction" (Markova, 2016, p.91). The dialogical epistemology is grounded in considerations (axioms) about the interdependence between the self (ego) and the other(s) (alter), and its relationship with the object. Markova (2016) presents some of the most prominent of these axioms. These consider   :

- *"the Ego–Alter as an irreducible ethical and ontological unit"* (Markova, 2016, p.94).

- *"the Ego–Alter–Object as an irreducible ethical and epistemological unit"* (Markova, 2016, p. 94).

- *"the Ego–Alter and the Ego–Alter–Object as being interdependent in terms of dialogical thinking (imagination, multivoicedness or heteroglossia, intersubjectivity, the search for social recognition, trust and responsibility), dialogical communication and dialogical action"* (Markova, 2016, p.94).

Applied to the field of representations (social), the dialogical epistemology enables the exploration of the social representation of phenomena that are "thematised in the public discourse" (Markova, 2005, p. 289, our translation), insofar as, according to the above-mentioned dialogical axioms, people would take others' (alter) positions into account when imagining, communicating or acting with regard to such objects.

The dialogical approach of social representations clearly instates social representations within the Alter-Ego-Object triad that constitutes Moscovici's (1984) social or ternary look (Markova, 2007).

2.1.4 Functions of Social Representation

Several authors (e.g., Moscovici, 1976; Abric, 1994a, 2003, 2011; Moliner, 1993, 1995; Doise and Palmonari, 2002; Jovchelovitch, 2007; Moliner & Deschamps, 2012) investigated the functions of social representtions. From their investigations, five main functions of social represents have been identified. Abric (1994a) identified four functions of the social representation: a knowledge function, an identity function, an orientation function, and a justifying function. To these, Moliner (1995) added an evaluative function.

- Through the knowledge function, social representations establish a reference framework. This function was somehow implicitly alluded to by Moscovici (1998), who described social representations in terms of "theories of common knowledge, popular science". The school establishing social representations as theories of social knowledge (e.g., Markova, 2005, ...) is very supportive of this function.

- Through the identity function, social representation ensures the "identity stability" (Moliner, 1993) of the group, along with its definition and expression (Moliner & Deschamps, 2012).

- Through the orientation function, social representations guide our practices. This function is particularly supported by scholars who believe that practices are conative expressions of social representations (Jodelet, 1989), that is, that social representations are "prescriptive of behaviours and practices" (Moscovici, 1976. Abric, 1994a, p. 17), or that practices play some role in the sustainability (Flament, Abric, & Guimelli, 2006; Hidalgo, 2012) or the change (Flament, 1987, 1994b; Abric, 1994b; Guimelli, 1998) of social representations.

- The justifying function is the "downstream pole" of the orientation function. While the orientation function guides practices beforehand, that is, it is activated "upstream", before the action—, the justifying function is activated "downstream" after the action in order to justify it.

- The evaluative function bestows the social representation with, the ability to hold groups' judgements about social objects. In his description of the content of a social representation, Moscovici (1961) alluded among other components to the attitudes—that is, an evaluative dimension within the representation. Moliner's (1995) bidimensional model of social representation further recognised and the evaluative dimension of the social representation.

Focus 1 Social Representations and Identities

There are strong theoretical bonds linking the concept of social representation to that of identity. When presenting the functions of social representation, several authors (Jodelet, 1989; Abric, 1994, 2003,2011; Duveen, 1997, 2001; Moliner, 2001; Doise & Palmonari, 2002; Cohen-Scali & Moliner, 2008) have referred to an identity function, among others. We would like to reformulate that here as an identity-defining and affirming function. Moliner (1993) would go further by presenting the need to preserve a stable identity as the very reason for the existence of social representations. The relationships between the concepts of social representations and identities are "complex and numerous" (Cohen-Scali & Moliner, 2008, p.1, our translation). From a Kantian perspective, identities are always representations, insofar as they pertained to an ontical and phenomenal world, while the noumenal and ontological reality is out of our perceptual or representational reach. Identities are representations of a certain type (Tap, 1979; Chryssochoou, 2003, Deschamps & Moliner, 2008, 2012).

There is a certain consubstantiality between the concepts of identity and social representation. Identity can be defined as " a subjective and dynamic phenomenon resulting from a twofold observation of similarities and differences between the self, the other(s) and some groups" (Deschamps & Moliner, 2012, p.85, our translation); that is, identity is a "system of feeling and representations of the self", "[…] *a set of characteristics […] through which one can define, present, know, let themselves known, or through which others can define, situate or recognize him or her*" (Tap, 1979, p.8) (our translation). Deschamps and Moliner (2012, p.83-84) offer a framework of five types of representations (intra- and inter-individual) through which the concept of identity can be analysed. The five representations forming this analysis framework are the following:

- The representations of the self-elaborated by an individual about himself .
- The inter-group representations elaborated and shared by themselves or other groups.
- The collective representations elaborated and shared by a society about a general aspect of the world.
- The representations of the social, elaborated and shared by a group about social hierarchies.

- The social representations elaborated and shared by a group about a social object.

Duveen (1993, 2001, 2007, 2008) also envisions the concept of identity according to a framework formed by endogenous and exogenous representations: respectively, as "self-identification" (endogenous identity), which he refers to as a "contractual identity"— that is, one's representation of themselves — and as "being identified" (exogenous identification) which he refers to as an "imperative identity"—   that is, others' representations of someone.

Apart from the fact that identities are representations and elaborated (among others bases) on the basis of social representations, it is worth noting that representations are   (also) elaborated on the basis of and with the aim of protecting identity (Moliner, 1993, 2008). The famous quote from Min (1961), often attributed to Emmanuel Kant (1724 - 1804), that "*We don't see things as they are, we see them as we are*" (p. 124), gives a good account of the understanding of how representations are meant to protect identities. Identity can simply be understood as "what we are" (from an individual perspective) or who we are (from a collective perspective) from a phenomenal, ontical, and subjective perspective; that is, how we perceive or represent ourselves.

In Eastern, Vedantic, non-dualist phenomenology, the mind-structure in charge of perception and representation ("*Buddhi*", literally the intellect) is said to be enslaved to the mind structure(s) in charge of identity ("*Ahamkara*", literally identity) (Gupta, 2004). That is probably what is referred to in the Western literature, and at a social level as the "identity function" (Jodelet, 1989; Abric, 1994a, 2003,2011; Moliner, 2001; Doise & Palmonari, 2002; Cohen-Scali & Moliner, 2008), or identity-preserving function (Moliner, 1993,2008). Traditionally, the concept of identity (from its endogenous perspective) has been polarised between an individual pole "I" and a collective pole "we" to create a dichotomy between personal and social identities (Cohen-Scali & Moliner, 2008). Endogenous Identity is a feeling of "I am-ness" (Jakubczak, 2004, 2011; Wright, 2020), or more precisely, a representation of "I am-ness". This feeling can take several expressions: individual, collective, public, object-related, or other. When it takes an individual (respectively collective, social, public, etc.) expression, we referred to it as personal (respectively collective, social, public, etc.) identity. Within the "I-we" continuum, the concept of identity can also take an object-related expression. For example, when it is

related to sport (respectively to politics, religion, etc.) it is referred to as a" sporting identity" (respectively political, religious, etc., identity)

As social representation is "a way for a group to affirm its particularities and differences" (Deschamps & Moliner, 2008, p. 128), and preserve them (Moliner, 1993) — that is, to affirm and protect the group's identities or collective feeling of "we are-ness"— it becomes necessary to investigate groups' identities when searching for social representations of a given object, especially if one intends to investigate those representations with a socio-dynamics approach.

Focus 2: Social representations, attitudes, practices and behaviour

i.   Social Representations and Attitudes

The relation between social representations, attitudes, and eventually behaviour has been of interest to researchers seeking to understand the extent to which our attitudes and behaviours are socially determined.

Since the very origin of the social representation theory, its originator Moscovici (1961) defined attitude as a component of social representation (see tittle 2.1.3.1.2 of this chapter). Therefore, any social representation entails an attitude. Moscovici (1976) later postulated the reverse, as for any evaluation to be made about a social object, there needs to be a certain representation (be it minimal) about that object; thus, the concepts of representation and attitude(s) entail one another. Although social representations are intrinsically group-related while attitudes are rather individual, these two concepts entertain interesting relationships with one another. In this model of the architecture of the channels of expression of social thought, Rouquette (1996) situated the social representation upstream of attitudes to show how the former feed into the latter. The figure 13 below present Rouquette (1996)' architecture of social thought.

-	Ideology	+
Intra and inter-individual variations	Social representation(s)	Level of integration
	Attitude(s)	

+	Opinion(s)	
		-

Figure 13 Architecture of social thought (Rouquette, 1996)

This architecture was tested by Rateau (2000), Moliner and Tafani (1997, 2001). As a result of these tests, attitudes have been shown to depend on the central element of the social representation (Rateau, 2000). The reciprocal relation has also been disproven as peripheral elements ensured the stability of the central nucleus (Moliner and Tafani, 1997; Tafani, 2001).

Moliner (1994, 1995) suggested a two-dimensional model of the social representation, encompassing a structural dimension (nucleus vs periphery), and an evaluative dimension (neutral vs polarised). From this model, he generates four distinct fields bespeaking different logics encompassed in the social representation :

- The field of definitions, which gathers central elements that have a weak evaluative power. This field is determined by a logic of meaning, as it enables individuals to define the object of representation.

- The field of norms, which encompasses elements of the central nucleus that have a strong evaluative power. In addition to the logic of meaning, this field is also driven by a logic of judgement, as it enables the expression of norms about the object of representation: that is, what the represented object ought to be, and judgements about it.

- The field of descriptions, which is constituted by the peripheral elements with a weak evaluative power. The elements of this field bespeak characteristics frequently attributed to the object of representation. This field concretises the definition by exemplifying it with possible objects or categories of objects.

- The field of expectations, which encompasses elements of the periphery that have a strong evaluative power. This field enables the expression of personal attitudes and stakes about the object. This field is steered by a logic of individual judgement.

According to Doise (1989), attitudes find their sources within common knowledge elaborated and shared within the social environment, that is, social representations. Attitudes depend on social representations (Rateau, 2000). Attitudes are evaluations and representations are meanings (Rateau et Lo Monaco, 2016). People from the same social group, that is, those who share a social representation of a given social object, can and quite often do have different attitudes towards this object. Attitudes are individual, social representations are collective. When reporting the above to the object Paralympic sport,

and considering a multi-dimensional view of attitudes, we would be ready to postulate that social representation would influence the cognitive dimension(s) of attitude (knowledge and beliefs). However, we would not dare postulating that social representation predicts the affective dimension of attitude towards Paralympic games, because of the high inter-individual variability of affective responses – which we alluded to above –.

ii.   Social Representations, Attitudes, Practices, and Behaviours

We have all noticed that people from the same social group, that is, those who share a social representation about a given social object, can and quite often do display different behaviour and practices towards this object. According to Sammut (2015) the inter-individual variations in behaviour and practices about a social object within the same group are due to the fact that, despite the shared social representation of the social object within the group, members of the group have different attitudes, that is, different evaluations of this social object.

There is no deterministic relation between behaviours/practices and social representations (Sammut, 2016). However, there is what we can call a "potentializing" relation between the former and the latter. Potentializing insofar as, though the relationship has often been found to possess high deterministic power, there are other factors involved in the shaping of a behaviour or a social representation.

The relations between social representations, attitudes and behaviours can be analysed through the framework here below.

Social representations   →   Attitudes

Behaviours / practices
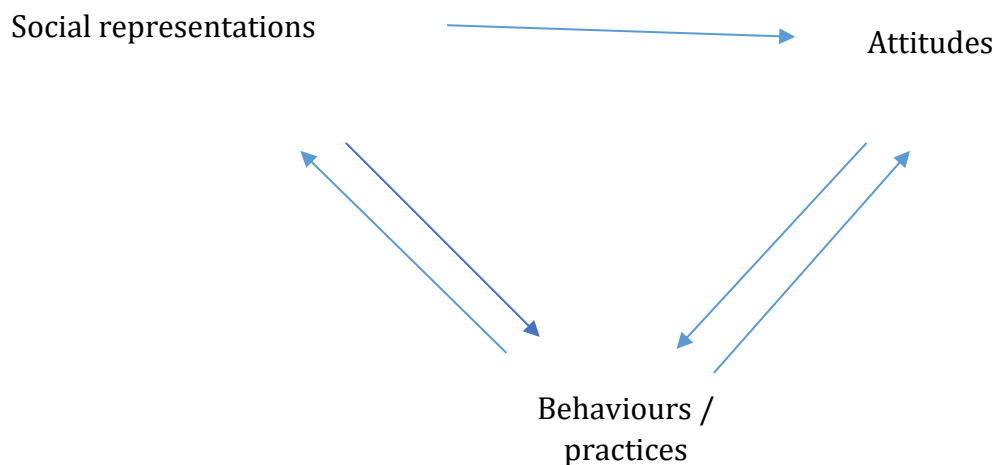
This framework presents a certain number of relations linking social representations, attitudes, and behaviours. It especially postulates: that (1) attitudes can depend on social representations (which we have theoretically demonstrated in the title i of this focus), (2) attitudes and behaviours/practices can depend on one another (which we have theoretically demonstrated in the title 1.1.5 of this chapter, (3) social representations do not depend on attitudes, as the former are protected by the peripheral elements (which we theoretically demonstrated in the title i of this focus), and (4) social representations and behaviours/practices can depend on one another (which we are yet to demonstrate).

From Social Representations to Practices/ Behaviours

Abric (1994a, b) envisions social representations and behaviours/practices as determining one another. To demonstrate this, he builds on several then-existing concepts and theories. Building on Beauvais and Joule's (1981) concept of rationalisation and on the cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957, 2000), Abric (1994a, b) postulates the need for a certain consistency (rationale) between behaviour/practices and representations.

Since their first developments, social representations were conceptualised by their originator Moscovici (1976) as guides for action. Abric (1987) carried out three empirical studies with an experimental design (the prisoner's game, or the prisoner's dilemma) aimed at assessing the predictive power of social representations on behaviours/practices. The findings from these studies suggested that representations did influence behaviours. Several years later, Guimelli, Piermattéo, Lo Monaco, and Abric (2012) carried out a similar investigation (with an almost-identical experimental design) and came to the same conclusion that social representations did have a determining power on behaviours/practices. Jodelet (1991) showed how the social representation of mental disease influenced the relationships the representers were prone to have with the mentally-diseased people. A year later, Dann (1992) explained how representations influenced teacher's conflict-management behaviours.

From Practices/ Behaviours to Social Representations

Building on Flament's (1989) findings on the transformations of social representations (according to which, when changes in the environment result in new behaviours/practices, these can change the social representation), Abric (1994) postulates that social representation somehow depends on practices. He further notices that this dependency is regulated by cultural factors, norms and values, among other factors. Earlier, Flament(1987) showed how practices that were inconsistent with the social representation, yet performed under environmental constraints, entailed a change of the social representation (a modification of the content of the central nucleus).

Flament(1994) and Abric (1994a, b) suggested there were three types of practice-related transformations for social representation: a progressive transformation, a resisting transformation, and a brutal transformation. Their classification was made according to how conflictual the new practices were with the initial social representations.

The brutal transformation happens when the new practices are totally antagonising the initial representation without activating its defence system (the peripheral elements). In such an instance, the initial representation is immediately "destroyed" through a rationalisation process; that is, its central nucleus is significantly altered to create a new representation (social) that takes over the former.

The resisting transformation unfolds when the practices conflict with the representation but also activate its defence system (the peripheral elements). In such an instance, the central nucleus is preserved. However, if the new practices last in time, the "newness" slowly moves from the peripheral zone to the central nucleus, and the representation is progressively altered.

The progressive transformation is witnessed in instances when the new practices are not totally antagonising the representation, especially its central elements. In such circumstances, the transformation of the representation is limited and often contained within its defence system (the peripheral zone). However, there are also instances in which a small number of elements can be progressively and through time added to the central nucleus, thus slightly altering the representation without thoroughly changing it.

Our above-mentioned perspective of "*perennialization*" joins (Valsiner's, 2003 a,b) view of relations linking social representations to behaviours/practices, insofar as we both envision social representations as non-deterministic "*pre-adaptional means [...] for*

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regulating human conduct" (Valsiner, 2003b, p.2). As it has been shown that (1) changes in attitude do not affect the central nucleus of the social representation, (2) changes in behaviours/ practices do affect the social representation, and (3) attitudes do often predict behaviour, we could theoretically assume that behaviours/practices could mediate the prediction of social representation from attitude. This assumption could be an interesting field for further research.

In this section, we demonstrated the relationships between social representation and attitudes on the one hand and social representation and behaviour s on the other. These relationships enable us to extend our planned behaviour model with the construct social representation.

The figure 14 below presents the architecture of this model of planned behaviour extended with the social representation.
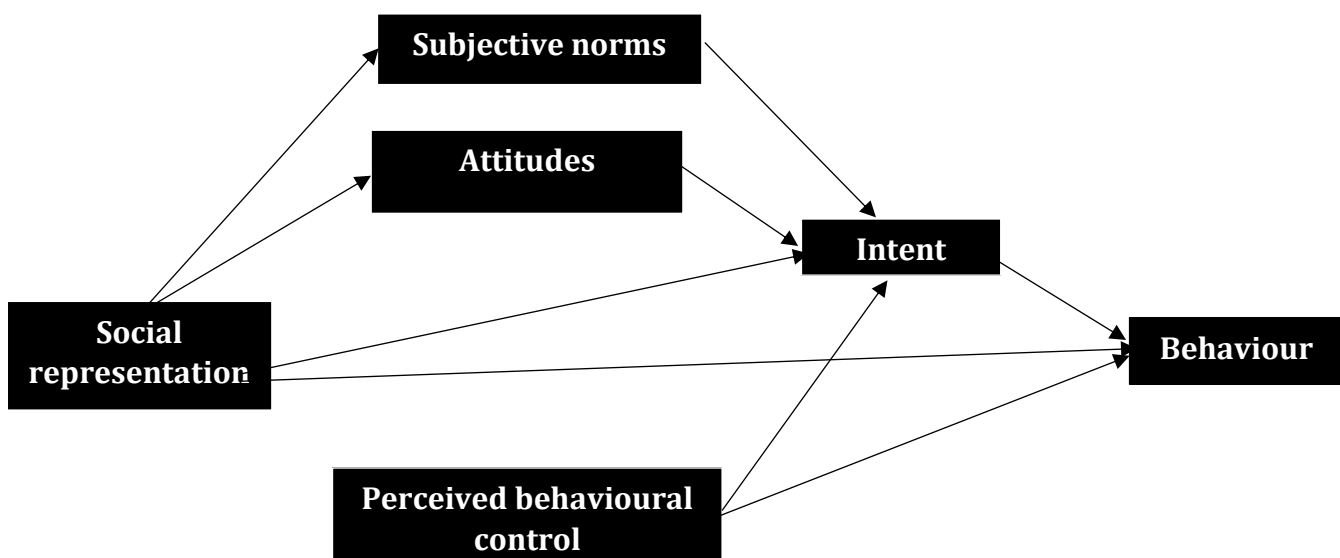
Figure 14 Architecture of planned behaviour extended with the social representation

Focus 3: Transformation of Social Representation.

A sequel of the structural approach to social representation is the question of the transformation (the change) of the representation. Several authors have addressed this question from a structural perspective (e.g., Guimelli, 1994; Roussiau & Soubiale, 1996; Tafani, 2001; Roussiau & Valence, 2005; Castro & Batel, 2008; Bert, 2016). This question is important to us because our aim is not only to describe how (in terms of content, processes, and organising principles) Paralympic sport is represented, but to pave a way

(be it only theoretical) for changing the manner in which (in terms of product) it is being represented in case it happens to be detrimental.

Throughout the history of social psychology, four main factors have been identified as potential causes for the transformation of social representations. These factors can be conative (Behavioural) or communicational.

The conative (behavioural) factors that can entail the transformation of a social representation are practices. Practices' influence on social representations can be treated from two perspectives: either the cognitive dissonance perspective (e.g., Flament, 1987, 1989, 1994a,b ; Abric 1994a, b; Valsiner, 2003 a,b), or the engagement (commitment) perspective)(e.g., Moliner, Joule & Flament, 1995; Moliner & Tafani, 1997; Tafani & Souchet, 2002, 2004; Renard, Bonardi, Roussiau & Girandola, 2007; Salès-Wuillemin, Girandola & Gosling, 2011; Sénémeaud, Girandola, Georget & Salès-Wuillemin, 2013; Salès-Wuillemin, Gosling & Girandola, 2014).

As for communicational factors, they encompass persuasion (Renard, 2005; Renard & Roussiau, 2007) and social influence (e.g., Pérez & Mugny, 1993; Tafani, Souchet, Codaccioni et Mugny, 2003; Mugny, Souche, Codaccioni & Quiamzade, 2008; Mugny, Souche & Quiamzade, 2009, etc.).

As some light has already been shed on the ways through which new practices could entail a transformation of social representations from a cognitive dissonance perspective, it is left for us to develop how persuasion, social influence, and practices (from the engagement theory's perspective) could do the same.

a. Persuasion and Social Influence

Persuasion and social influence have quite often been amalgamated. We have provided a sound definition of persuasion in the title 1.1.4.2.2 of this chapter. As a quick reminder, we would define persuasion as the use of communication in a relatively constraint- or reward-free context to change the subject's cognitions (knowledge, beliefs, opinions, and thoughts).

Social influence has been envisioned in the literature from two perspectives. The first and oldest one presented social influence as the power that a source might have and effectively wield or exert on a target (French & Raven, 1959), or as a dependency relationship, or a sort of pressure to compliance, expressed by a source, a leader, or a

majority on a target, followers, or a minority, respectively (Bert, 2016). This conception is the one that has led to an amalgam between persuasion and social influence.

The second and most recent conception of social influence envisioned it as the power that norms and collective beliefs have to influence any type of source (minority or majority) respectively leader or majority (Bert, 2016). Therefore, it recognises that any social agent or group (including minorities) can be a source of influence (Mugny & Pérez, 1991). This second perspective of social influence clearly distinguishes it from persuasion, as it presents social influence as bidirectional and reciprocal, unlike persuasion which is unidirectional (Maggi, 2000).

With regards to persuasion, Renart (2005), and Renard and Roussiau (2007) investigated its effect(s) on social representations from the Elaboration Likelihood epistemological perspective (Petty, Cacioppo, 1981). In a study of 150 psychology students, Renard and Roussiau (2007) found that persuasion (in the elaboration likelihood model) did effectively alter the social representation when the source was highly credible; this happened within and lasted for a short time frame. In further investigation, they showed that source(s)' credibility faded out with time (within a month) and that the changes within the representation would fade out accordingly if the source(s)'s credibility was not restored.

As for social influence, several investigations have been carried out to assess whether social influence can alter social representations. Tafani, Souchet, Codaccioni and Mugny (2003) compared the effect(s) of majority and minority influences on the social representation of drugs. Their results suggested that majority influences on the social representation were evident in the short-term, but not long-lasting, while minority influences had a latent but long-term effect on the central nucleus of the social representation. Mugny, Quiamzade, and Tafani (2001) investigated the effect(s) of social influence (in the conflict elaboration model) on the social representation of an ideal group and found that social influence (conflict elaboration model) from a highly credible source did entail changes in the structure of the social representation in the short term. However, they did not investigate the long-term durability of these effects. Several other studies (e.g., Mugny, Moliner, Flament, 1997; Mugny, Tafani, Bureta & Pigière, 1998, Mugny, Quiamzade, Pigière, Dragulescu & Buchs, 2002) also showed the effects of social influence (from various sources) on social representations.

b. Engagement

The influence of engagement on the dynamic of social representations has been investigated in several ways.

Regarding counter-attitudinal practices (Janis & King, 1954), Moliner, Joule and Flament(1995), Moliner and Tafani (1997), and Tafani and Souchet (2001) used counter-attitudinal essay writings (against enterprises, and against higher studies) in non-reversible contexts to investigate the influence of engagement on social representation and found no major change in the representation (social), but rather significant changes in attitudes.

Regarding counter-representational practices, Tafani and Souchet (2002, 2004) used counter-representational essay writing. In some cases, the essays tampered with central elements and in others with peripheral ones; the essays' revocability was also an experimental variable. As result of their investigations, they found that when the counter-representational essay was reversible, there was no change in the representation (social), while when the essay was irreversible, there were changes in the social representation. These changes affected the representation's central nucleus, and happened either when an element from the central nucleus was questioned in the essay (in which case, due to a rationalisation process (Beauvois & Joule, 1996)in its turn due to a process of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1954)— the questioned central element was expelled from the nucleus), or when an element from the peripheral system was reinforced (in which case, due to similar processes as described above, the reinforced element was included in the central nucleus).

Renard, Bonardi, Roussiau and Girandola (2007) investigated the influence of different types of compliance (without pressure, with pressure, double with pressure) on the social representation of studies. They found that compliance without pressure (to counter-representational written argumentation) did not produce any major modification in the social representation, as the central nucleus remained untouched and the peripheral elements only slightly moved. They also found that compliance with pressure (to a counter-representational oral argumentation) did not have any significant influence on the social representation, regardless of whether the condition within which the subject's compliance was obtained is engaging or not. Finally, in a third study, they found the double compliance with pressure in engaging conditions (a combination of an

oral compliance with pressure and a written compliance with pressure in a context where the subject is the only one answerable for his act) to have an influence on the social representation (central elements as well as peripheral ones).

CHAPTER III: MEDIA INFLUENCE AND SPORT CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOUR(S) AND CHANGE

This chapter aims at: (1) reviewing the literature on media influence on perceptions/representations, attitudes and behaviours; (2) tracing back how the concept of sport consumption behaviour has been treated in literature from its inception till today; and (3) presenting and justifying some choices/selection (of variables) that we make to analyse Paralympic sport consumption behaviour.

It is structured according to the table of contents below:

1. Media Influence

In this section, various uses of the word media will be in play. These uses seem often demarcated from one another as follows: (1) 'the media' for general, mainstream, (2) mass media for major tv and radio channels, major newspapers and (3) 'media' in general for all the various types of media, including modern types. Even though our view is that these three uses are consubstantial and bespeak the same mediatic phenomenon, that is, entities depicting, framing, and broadcasting realities of our world, we will give some account to the semantic differentiation that could be made between these different uses in this section/ chapter.

The Media have been well established as tools for shaping perceptions, representations, and opinions in several societies. There are ample examples demonstrating the recognition of media as "shapers" of opinions, representations, perceptions, and even likes and dislikes, wrongs and rights, morals and deviances in our societies. One example is the huge amount of money, human resources, and time that public and private firms invest to be present in the media through open or implicit advertisement, or other publicity-like content. Another example is the fact that some regimes wield a strong control on the media and often use them for propaganda. The first scholar to draw attention to the influence of the media on its audiences' reality was Lippmann (1922). Lippmann (1922), in his book entitled "*The Public Opinion*", and especially in its introductory chapter entitled "*The World Outside And The Pictures In Our Heads*", postulated that the world as it is— that is, the real world— is beyond our perception, that is, out of our reach, sight, and mind. Despite this elusive nature of the outer world, we need to catch some glimpse of it, that is, to have some pictures of it in our heads. Lippmann (1922) suggested that mass media are the bridges between the outer world and the pictures (depicting this outer world) in our heads. They are the ears and the eyes through which audiences see and hear the world. In other worlds, our representations of the outer world might in fact be more a reflection of media depiction (reporting) than of the reality of this outer world. Building upon Lippmann's perspective, many theories of the influence of media on audiences have been developed.

There are several theories addressing the role of media in shaping representations and perceptions. In our research we have chosen to only develop the two most prominent

of these theories as they seem to somehow syncretise all or at least most of the other existing media theories. These two theories are the theory of agenda setting (McCombs and Shaw, 1972) and the cultivation theory (Gerbner, 1980)

1.1 The Agenda Setting Theory (AST)

From a logico-semantic standpoint, agenda setting refers to the action of setting an agenda. This is indeed what the theory of agenda setting explains: how media set the public agenda. Though it has been revised several times, the original version of this theory was generated by McCombs and Shaw (1972), who, thirteen American elections ago, investigated which issues a group of dubious voters perceived as the highest priorities of the time, and compared those issues with those that the media through which these undecided voters followed the electoral campaign presented as being the most prominent. They then made the striking remark that there was somehow a transfer of importance bestowed to issues from the media to the public. In other words, the issues that were presented by the media as important also appeared to seem important for the public. They then concluded that media tell us what to think about. However, by then the scope and reach of the media influence on the public was not yet well delimited.

There is definitely a "*transfer of salience from the media agenda to the public agenda*". (McCombs, 2005, p.543). The idea of this transfer is supported by almost all the scholars addressing the issue of media influence, including ((Guo & McCombs, 2011; Vargo et al., 2012; Guo, Vu, McCombs, 2012, 2014; Guo, 2014; Guo & Vargo, 2015)). In order to better understand the conditions, reach and scope of this "*transfer of salience*", there have been several revisions of the theory of agenda setting, most of which were made by its genitors.

Describing what the theory has become most recently, McCombs, Shaw and Weaver (2014) explained that, as it nears its 50th anniversary, the agenda setting theory has ripened and grown into a broad theory encompassing seven core facades. These facades include several levels (a first, a second, and a third) of agenda setting, the psychological factors determining the agenda setting, the consequences of agenda setting, the origins of the media agenda and the agenda melding. In addition to these, it also seems important to us to analyse the guiding the agenda setting.

1.1.1 The Levels Of Agenda Setting.

There are three levels of agenda setting: a first level, referred to as *"basic agenda setting"* (McCombs & Shaw); a second level, referred to as *"attribute agenda setting"* (McCombs, 1994; 2005); and a third level known as *"network agenda setting"* (Guo & McCombs, 2011; Guo, Vu, McCombs, 2012; Guo, 2014; Vu, Guo & McCombs, 2014).

1.1.1.1 Basic Agenda Setting

Basic agenda setting refers to the original theory suggested by McCombs and Shaw (1972), conceptualised as the *"transfer of salience from the media agenda to the public agenda"*. (McCombs, 2005, p. 543). The core idea of basic agenda setting is that media do not tell us "what to think", but rather "what to think about" (McCombs and Shaw, 1972). This transfer of importance bestowed to issues from the media to the public also entails a second transfer of salience from the public to policies. Indeed, according to Protess et al. (1991), since it is just not possible for policy makers to address or focus on all the "real" issues of the time, they prefer to focus on a couple of issues; these are often the ones which are most covered by the media (and therefore appear to be the rifest). The figure 15 below illustrate the basic agenda setting.
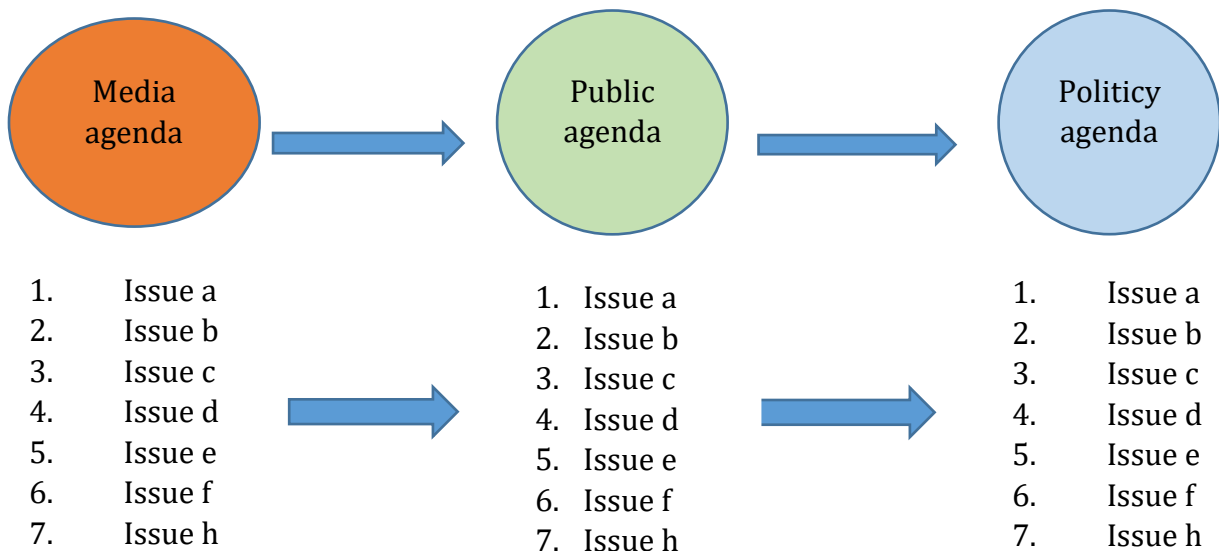
Figure 15 Basic agenda setting, inspired from Vargo and al.(2014) and Guo (2012)

With the recent development of new media, such as social media, blogs, channels, and other online news or entertainment content, this very basic conception of agenda setting has been severely threatened. As a matter of fact, there were a relatively limited

number of "agenda setters" (TV channels, and newspapers) in 1972, when the original theory was generated (McCombs, 2005) and these "agenda setters" presented a high level of homogeneity in their content (+.071) (McCombs & Shaw, 1972). Nowadays, the endless number of channels and the countless number of news and entertainment content offered by the Internet has prompted scholars to re-assess the validity of the basic agenda setting model described above; there is unlikely to be much homogeneity in such a high number of media, and the public's attention could theoretically be too dispersed for any one agenda to be set.

Contrary to prior expectations , the agenda setting effect appeared to be more exacerbated by new media (social media and online news and entertainment content) than by regular, traditional ones. Hamilton (2004) analysed the top five traditional American newspapers and compared their importance in the media landscape to that of the top five online newspapers. As surprising as it might seem, he found that the top five online newspapers attracted a higher focus of attention from online readers than the top five traditional newspapers did from their respective readers (41.4% vs 21.5% of circulation among the top 100). Furthermore, he found that there were three newspapers that belonged to the top five traditional newspapers and whose online version belonged to the top five online newspapers.

As for homogeneity, Yu (2005) investigated the homogeneity of contents among three types of online media (TV, newspapers and news services) and found a correlation of +0.82 for the top three issues reported by these media.

Concerning social media and blogs, without denying that some social media and blog content might come from groups interested in specific issues of which they are fans, advocates, or opponents (abortion or global warming, for example), Meraz et al. (2013), McCombs, Shaw and Weaver (2014) and Vargo et al. (2014) observed that most of the issues discussed on these platforms are usually those presented by traditional media as "*the news of the day*" (McCombs, Shaw and Weaver, 2014, p. 788). In other words, traditional media seem to set the agenda of social media. It also happens that the contents from social media (e.g., Olympics or Paralympic s) would be a mere simultaneous broadcast of what is being broadcast on regular traditional media (McCombs, Shaw and Weaver,2014).

In summary, we can confidently postulate that the emergence of new media has not jeopardised the relevance of the basic agenda setting model. It also seems important to

notice that the scope of agenda setting theory has extended beyond the that of traditional news media to embrace new media and social media, just as its applicability has transcended the realm of public issues and nowadays encompasses a variety of other contents, including entertainment, cultural topics, and much more (Kliger-Vilenchick, 2011; Bantimaroudis, Zyglidopoulos & Symeou, 2010; McCombs, Shaw and Weaver,2014).

The effectiveness of the basic agenda being set depends on the nature of the issue on the agenda. Zucker (1978) distinguishes between two types of issues—obtrusive and unobtrusive—according to whether or not the audience experience the issue in their daily life. Obtrusive issues are those which have been directly experienced, while unobtrusive ones are those which have only or mainly been experienced through media reporting.

As has been demonstrated by Schantz and Gilbert (2001, 2012X) and Brittain (2016), media constitute the main bridge between Paralympic sport arenas and the public in most countries, as Paralympic sport venues are generally frequented by a relatively small number of spectators. In other words, Paralympic sport is an unobtrusive issue. As a consequence, the basic agenda setting model is likely to be effective regarding Paralympic sport.

A perfect illustration of basic agenda setting was the war in Vietnam, which according to Hallin (1984, 1989) simply did not exist in the USA's media reality—that is, was not referred to as a major issue of that moment—and consequently did not exist in American society as a social issue.

1.1.1.2 Attribute Agenda Setting

Since its original version, which stipulated that "*media influence not how we think, but what we think about*" (McCombs and Shaw, 1972), the agenda setting theory went through several revisions. According to Takeshita (1997), the first milestone of this long and still-ongoing revision process was in 1981, when Weaver, Graber, McCombs and Eyal analysed issues, images and interest in a presidential election within the framework of agenda-setting. They found out that the candidates' images were assemblages of perceived or emphasised attributes, with different levels of prominence. Most importantly, they found that the levels of prominence of a candidate's different attributes were closely related to their salience in media reporting. As a matter of fact, since an

overwhelming majority of voters did not have any direct relation or contact with the candidates, they drew their representations and perceptions of candidates from the media depiction of them. They thereby demonstrated the existence of a second level of agenda setting that McCombs (1994) refers to as the "second dimension": the attribute agenda setting.

Beyond telling people what to think about—that is providing an agenda of issues— media seem to also have the potential to tell people how to think about these issues, and even *what* to think about them. Attribute setting is closely connect with the journalistic concept of framing. In a media context, a frame (the noun) can be defined as a prominent attribute in a piece of content. McCombs (2005) would say it is a "*dominant attribute in a message*" (P.546), that is, an attribute "*defining a central theme*" (p. 547). From a logico-semantic standpoint, to frame (the verb) would be the action of making frames, that is, giving more prominence to certain attributes when describing or presenting an object or situation. Entman (1993) defined framing as *"to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation and/ treatment recommendation for the item described"* (p. 52).

Media do not only influence the public agenda, they also influence public perceptions and representations of the issues on this agenda. according to Shaw (1979), as we enter more deeply into the technological era, mass media are overtaking peers' influence in defining reality and are becoming "*opinion leaders*" (p.101). In the instance of Paralympic sport, the above means that media might not only bring awareness to Paralympic sport (e.g., to the Paralympics) as a major issue of the moment, but might also shape audiences' perceptions and representations of Paralympic sport's attributes and features. The figure 16 below synoptically illustrates attribute agenda setting and its predecessor, basic agenda setting.
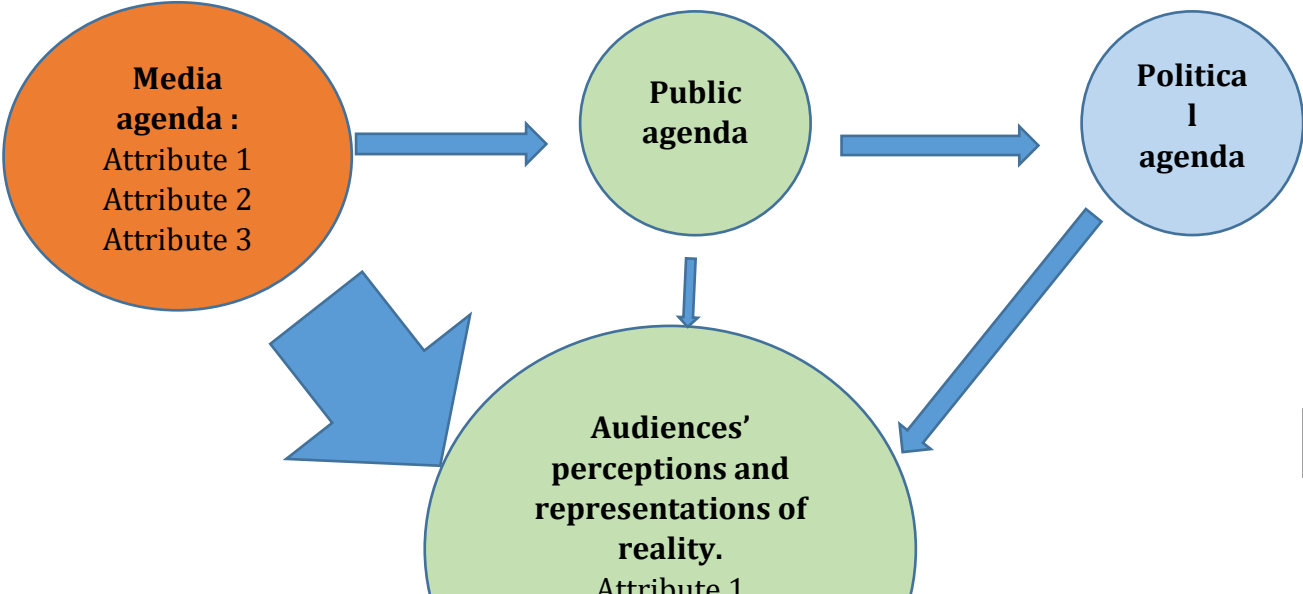
1.1.1.3 The Network Agenda Setting

The first level of agenda setting highlighted the transfer of issues' salience from media to the public. The second level showed how, for these issues, there was a transfer of attributes' prominence from media to public. The third level of agenda setting postulates that there is also a transfer from the media to the public of how these issues connect to one another, and how the attributes connect to one another (Guo & McCombs, 2011; Guo, Vu, McCombs, 2012; Guo, 2014; Vu, Guo & McCombs, 2014; Guo & Vargo, 2015). In other words, according to the network agenda setting paradigm and its defenders, the pictures in our heads—absorbed from media—are not independent or isolated. They are rather interconnected with one another. Furthermore, the connections between them are formed in media long before they enter our heads.

Guo and McCombs (2011) were the first scholars to conceptualise network agenda setting. They re-analysed data collected by Kim and McCombs (2007) during the gubernatorial and senatorial electoral campaigns and made a pioneering move by introducing a social-network analysis within the frame of the agenda setting theory. Doing so, the found that the transfer of salience from media to public was also relevant for the relationships media established between issues and their attributes. From a more psycho-social perspective, Guo and McCombs (2011) observed that the first and second levels of agenda setting somehow supposed or implied that the transfer of pictures from media to our heads was linear on the one hand and discrete on the other, as if each picture from media led to a single representation in our head, and representations in our head were independent from one another just as the different pictures from media were supposed to be. Following on from that remark, Vu, Guo, and McCombs (2014) noticed that several scholars and studies have shown that humans' mental representations used in their construction of reality are not always linear, but rather quite often in a "network-like

structure" (Kaplan, 1973, in Vu, Guo, and McCombs,2014. 671); that is, a whole comprising several items interconnected and interacting with one another.

In the instance of Paralympic sport, this means media might not only draw audiences' awareness to Paralympic sport and influence their perceptions and representations of Paralympic sport's attributes and features, but they might also suggest on the one hand relationships between the issue of Paralympic sport (e.g., Paralympics) and its attributes, and on the other how these attributes connect with one another.

Taylor (1992) presented an account of how media from the allied coalition presented a fake depiction of the Gulf war from January to March 1991 in order to bring people's awareness to this war (1st level agenda setting), but suggested to them a distorted picture of the attributes (2nd level agenda setting), and an even more distorted picture of the relationships between these attributes between themselves on the one hand and with the war itself on the other (3rd level agenda setting).

The theory of AST can easily be connected and even assimilated with Neumann's (1973)   perspective of the concept of powerful mass media. The three functional features of media that determine their influence according to Neumann (1973)—ubiquity (which Shaw (1979) would refer to as "pervasiveness"), cumulation, and consonance—are relevant for the AST. As matter of fact, Golan (2006), Vliegenhart and Walgrave (2008), Meraz (2011) and Heim (2013), have supported Neumann's (1973) concept of media consonance by proving the existence of inter-media agenda setting. As for cumulation, Drew and Weaver (1990), Camaj and Weaver (2013) and Feezell (2018) have shown how frequency of exposure and media attention through cumulative effect influenced the AST. With regard to ubiquity, it connects with the concept of "accessibility", which according to Price and Tewksbyru (1997), Sungtae (2002), Sie-Hill Kim et al. (2002) , and McCombs (2005) influences agenda setting.

Presented as we have up to now, agenda setting seems to be too deterministic as it does not take into account individuals' or groups' specific patterns of perception or representation which might contribute in defining their subjective or intersubjective reality. However, it is obvious that there are some inter- individual and intergroup variations in the way media affect individuals' or groups' realities. This is why it seems important to us to present the factors and variables that could explain these variations in media-induced perceptions of reality, be it in terms of which issues are considered important, the attributes these issues are believed to have, or indeed the way that these

issues and attributes are related to one another. The figure 17 below presents the network agenda-setting patterns.
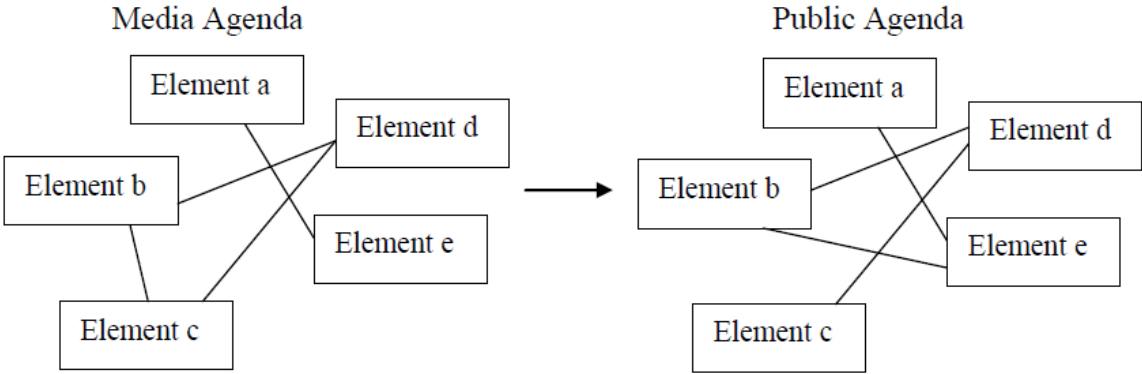
Figure 17 Network agenda setting, from Guo (2012)

1.1.2 The Need For Orientation (NFO): A Variable Moderating Media Influence

As we said previously, agenda setting does not apply equally to every individual or group. There are some psychological variables or socio- psychological dispositions according to which individuals or groups are more or less prone to the salience transfer of issues and their attributes salience media into their heads. Among these psychological or psychosocial variables, the most prominent and most investigated in the literature is the need for orientation (hereafter NFO).

The NFO was conceptualised by McCombs and Weaver in the 70s, though they only first publicly presented it in '73 (McCombs, Shaw, and Weaver, 2014). Building on Jones and Gerard's (1967) work on the motivation to seek information, McCombs and Weaver (1973) defined the NFO as a hierarchised combination of object (information) relevance and subject (listener, reader or viewer) uncertainty. It seemed very important to us to add the adjective 'hierarchised' to the definition because according to the genitors of the concept of NFO themselves, "*relevance must naturally precede uncertainty in time, since it is logically unsound to speak of a person being uncertain about a subject of which he has no knowledge or which is totally irrelevant to him*" *(p.4)*.

McCombs and Weaver (1973) drew a model according to which low relevance entails a low NFO, high relevance and low uncertainty entail a moderate NFO, and high

relevance and high uncertainty entail a high need for orientation. They synoptically summarised that model in the figure below:
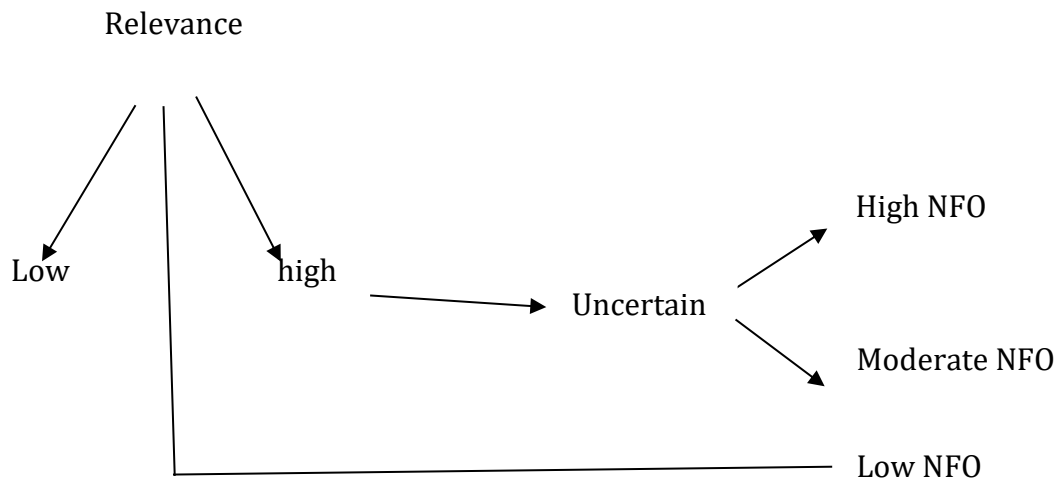
Figure 18 Antecedents of the NFO (McCombs & Weaver, 1973, p. 5)

Lee (2005) would later revise the definition of the NFO without bringing any major change to its substance. He would substitute involvement for relevance and knowledge for uncertainty, and reintroduce a third component, the availability of the information, which was already advocated by Jones and Gerard (1967) in their work; McCombs and Weaver generated their original concept of the NFO from that work of Jones and Gerard (1967), but left out this third element.

The concept of NFO connects with those of media uses and gratifications investigated by Bauer (1964), Shaw (1974 a, b), Katz, Blumer, and Gurevitch (1974), according to which people's uses of media are not "ex nihilo", but rather correspond to certain needs. These needs vary from one person to another and one group to another. These theorists postulated that media's influence on one's reality varies according to the uses one makes of that media and the gratification one expects from those uses. The connection between the concepts of NFO and media uses and gratifications is that from the perspective of the NFO, orientation is a certain type of gratification sought after by the way one uses media..

Several studies (Weaver; 1977; Weaver, 1980, Chenov & al., 2009; Weaver & al., 2010; Chenov, Valenzuela & McCombs, 2011; Camaj & Weaver, 2013; McCombs and al., 2014) have shown the moderating effect of NFO on the first level of agenda setting: the

higher the NFO, the better the first level of AST. However, beyond that, apart from Weaver's (1977) work (which faces some methodological contestation today), all the other studies have failed to prove the predictor role of the NFO on the other levels of agenda setting. Some studies have also shown the predictor role of NFO on subjects' media attention to specific news (e.g., Matthes, 2008; Camaj & Weawer, 2013) and media use (Matthes, 2008; Weaver & al., 2010; Camaj, 2014).

It has also been shown that media attention was a better predictor of second-level agenda setting than media exposure and NFO (e.g., Camaj & Weaver, 2013). Weaver (1980) revisited the NFO model by adding a second moderate NFO group: those with low relevance and high uncertainty. Building on Weaver's (1980) work, recent developments of the concept of NFO renamed the henceforth two moderate groups into "moderate-passive" and "moderate-active" (McCombs & Stroud, 2014; Camaj, 2014). According to these authors, the moderate-active group corresponds to people with high relevance and low uncertainty—respectively, high involvement and high knowledge, according to Lee's (2005) terminology— as they are more prone than other groups (high, low, and moderate–passive) to using partisan media—which McCombs et al. (2014) refer to as "*horizontal media*" (p. 786)—to comfort their tendency towards partisanship which is even foundational to the characteristics of the group they belong to (high involvement and high knowledge). As for the moderate-passive group, it comprises people with low relevance and high uncertainty (McCombs & Stroud, 2014; Camaj, 2014)— according to Lee's (2005) terminology, people with low involvement and low knowledge. McCombs & Stroud (2014), and Camaj (2014), found that the moderate-passive group tends to seldom use news media, just like the low NFO group; this seldom use of news media was given as an explanation for the modesty of the agenda setting effect for these groups (low and moderate-passive).

McCombs and al (2014) explained why the NFO has not been found to be a reliable linear predictor of second-level agenda setting. According to them, both moderate–active and high NFO groups are actively involved in a quest for relevant information. However, moderate-active NFO groups are more prone to pursuing partisan media, while the high NFO group is more turned toward using general media—which McCombs et al. (2014) refer to as "*vertical media*" (p. 786). This entails second-level agenda setting effects and relatively high first-level agenda setting effects for the moderate-active NFO group, while the high NFO group only experiences high issue agenda setting effects (first level) and just

modest to moderate attribute agenda settings effects (second level) because people with a high NFO are more inclined to pursue general mainstream and non- or less-partisan media.

Presented as we just have , the NFO seems to be a variable that in some circumstances deterministically triggers one or many levels of AST effects. To understand the NFO like that would be a blunder. This is why some scholars, like Price and Tewksbyru (1997), McCombs (2005), and Sie-Hill Kim et al. (2002), have emphasised the role of knowledge activation prior to any agenda setting effect. They split the concept of knowledge activation in the agenda setting frame into a combination of accessibility and applicability. According to them, accessibility refers to how prepared one is for a certain agenda; that is, how present an agenda (an issue, attribute, or network of issues and attributes) is already present in one's mind at the moment of the media exposure that leads to an agenda setting effect. In other words, accessibility refers to one's potential or level of readiness to accept a certain agenda, a certain depiction of reality. Sungtae Ha (2002) strongly associates and even identifies this accessibility with the frequency of exposure to a certain media agenda. As for applicability, McCombs (2005) defines it as the level of "*sophistication*" (p. 551) of the media agenda, that is, the media reality. We understand applicability as the level of consistency and coherence between a media agenda (reality as depicted by media) and a 'people agenda' (reality as directly experienced by people). As a matter of fact, there seems to be a vital need for a certain degree of coherence, consistency and compatibility between these two realities. This need for coherence could explain why revolutions have taken place in some countries despite media from these countries depicting them as heavens on earth.

1.1.3 Who Decides The Media Agenda?

So far, we have shown the various influences that media has on the public's representation of reality (in terms of the most pressing or major issues). It then becomes important to understand what the sources of media agendas are. Indeed, if the media somehow sets or influences the public agenda, investigating who is behind the media agenda will give us a glimpse of those invisible hands that are tampering with our representation of the world (for example, in determining what the most prominent issues are). It could also help us to understand who judges which facts are newsworthy, and upon what basis this judgement is made—that is, what the driving forces are which, at an

upstream level, define and organise the media content we are exposed to and thus shape our reality, our representation of the world. Finally, it would enable us to identify whose interests are defended or pursued in the media agenda.

This process—encompassing the discovery or creation of facts, the judgement of newsworthiness, and the writing, framing and reporting of stories—has been referred to as "gatekeeping" in the literature on journalism (e.g., Lewin's, 1947; Cuillier, 2010; Shoemaker & Vos, 2019; Vos, 2019 a, b, c). Nahon and Neumann (2008) carried out a meta-analysis of several hundred gatekeeping-related studies and synoptically presented the driving forces ruling gatekeeping, the processes through which inform ation is screened in the by gatekeepers, and the major types of gatekeepers. The table 8 below gives a view of the different forces they found to rule gatekeeping

Force type	Examples
Subjective factors	Editors' and reporters' personal subjective judgments about facts
	Editors' and reporters' experience, skills, and trustworthiness
Information characteristics	The nature of the information (i.e. visual, oral, written, etc.). Visual information is less subject to gatekeeping
	Size and amount (growing size and amount would increase gatekeeping)
	Clarity: unclear information would be more subjected to gatekeeping than clear information
External constraints	Cost: a costly process would increase the likelihood of gatekeeping
	Time constraints: tight deadlines would be prone to gatekeeping
	Mechanical and technological constraints of production
Institutional Environment	Opinion leaders
	Group consensus: seeking group consensus often generate gatekeeping
	Market pressure: the desire for profit tends to generate gatekeeping

Social environment	Information are judged newsworthy or not according to social norms, the cultural preferences and the collective values of the social group.
Organis ational characteristics and procedures	Organisational routines and habits
	Standards of the profession and the organisation
	The role of the reporter and the editor: due to their position in the organisation, an editor or a reporter who happens to be in a managerial position in the organisation would not often see his paper rejected.

Table 8 Different forces to rule gatekeeping from Nahon and Neumann (2008 p.6)

Regarding the processes through which information are screened by gatekeepers, Nahon and Neumann (2008) identified 13 ways in which information is screened by gate keepers: these ways include selection, addition, withholding, display, channelling, shaping, manipulation, repetition, timing, localiz ation, integration, disregard and deletion.

Finally, regarding the types of gatekeepers, the table below presents the main typology of gate keepers identified by Nahon and Neumann (2008).

Type of gatekeeper	Examples
At a governmental level	Regimes, governmental regulators of media
At an industrial level	Standards regulators, procedure and codex regulator
At a social and non-governmental level	Social networks, institutions, NGOs, communities, peers groups, lobbies.
At an individual level	Editors, news organisations managers, reporters, infrastructure provider managers, opinion leaders, etc.
At an infrastructural level	Service (internet, network, applications) providers
At a site property level	Search providers, online marketplace owners, content providers, virtual communities.

At an administrative level	Application and content administrators	moderators, network

Table 9 Typology of gate keepers from Nahon and Neumann (2008, p. 13)

In the current era of big data, it seems important to us to emphasise the role of electronic gatekeeping, that is, the use of software to exploit private or public data from online platforms and social media in order to manipulate masses of people for commercial or ideological purposes.

1.1.4 Agenda melding and Consequences of Agenda Setting

At the end of this literature review on agenda setting we are compelled to notice that it is deceptive to talk of "agenda setting" in a singular form, as there are various sources, processes and agendas upon which depends the transfer of salience from media to the public. This remark is somehow embarrassing because the word agenda (literally meaning "to-do list") itself is etymologically the plural form of the word 'agendum' (an item on a to-do list). It is probably this embarrassment that led some scholars to create the concept of 'agendamelding' (Weaver, 2013; McCombs et al., 2014; McCombs, 2014;) to refer to the complex, iterative, and inclusive processes through which a variety of agendas meld with one another to become an individual or group's agenda. The figure 19 below synoptically presents the agenda setting theory perspective on the contribution of media to one's construction of reality.
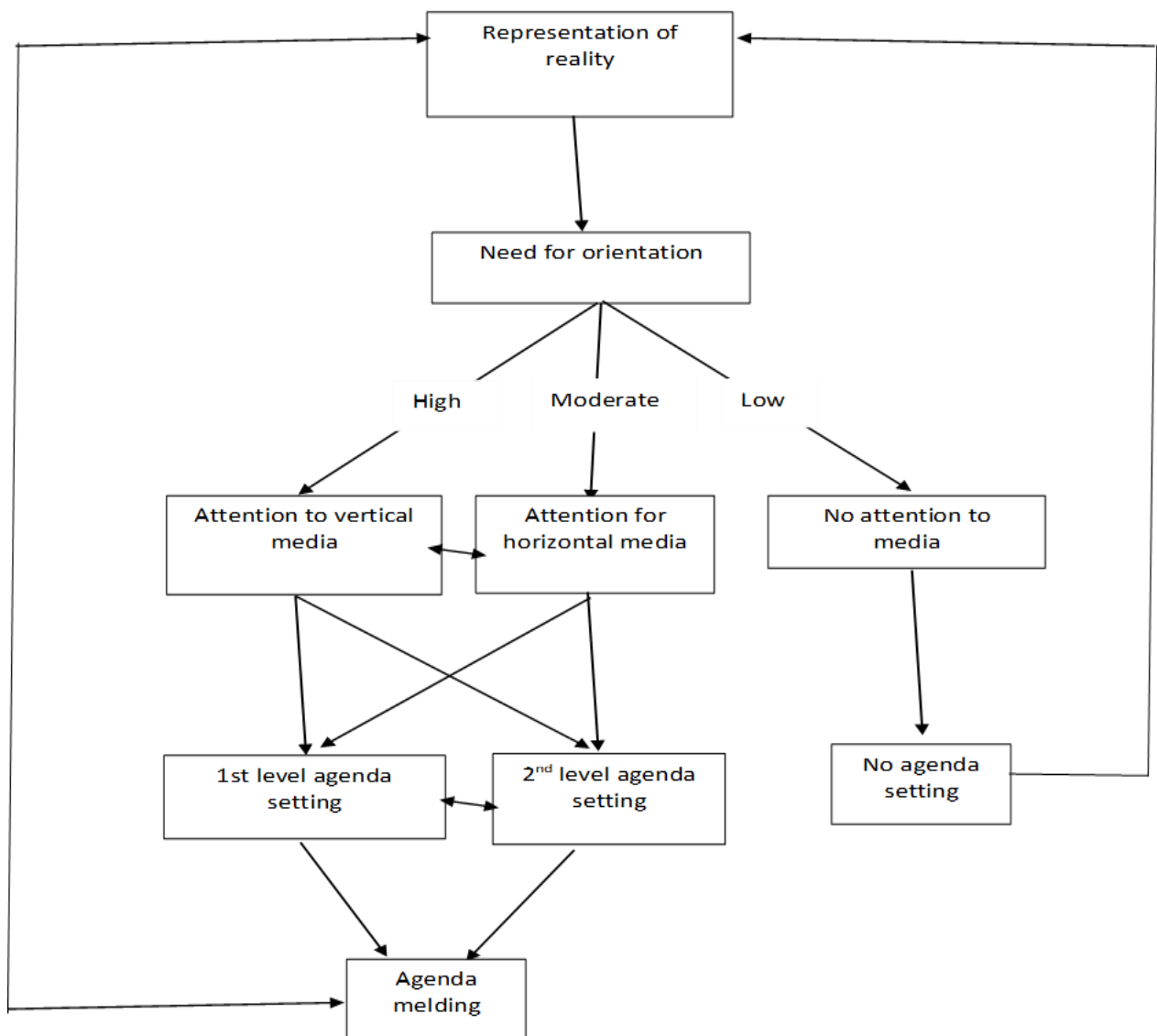
Figure 19 Based on Weaver's need for orientation model (March, 2013) in McCombs et al. (2014, p.787).

As we can see on this figure, media do partake in the shaping of our representation of the world, that is, reality. Agenda setting theory highlights the role of media in shaping our view(s) of the world, that is, reality, but only in terms of the major issues of the time, how they connect to one another, and their attributes.

Despite its utility, the scope of agenda setting theory is narrowed to only the dominant issues, their attributes, and how they connect to one another. Furthermore, although its founder recognised that it was relevant for other types of media and programs, including entertainment and cultural media (McCombs, 2014), agenda setting theory has remained too closely bound to news media and prominent issues.

Moreover, the scientific literature on agenda setting theory has quite often amalgamated correlations and causal relationships, as if the correlations between media and public agendas were proof of causation. Though the opposite has never been proven, this tends to weaken the use of agenda setting theory for rigorous studies. This is why we felt the need to combine agenda setting with another well-established media theory— cultivation theory— in order to broaden the scope of the media theory framework through which we will analyse Paralympic sport.

1.2 The Cultivation Theory

Unlike the agenda setting theory, which provides a cognitive account of media's effects on audiences and the scope of which was narrowed to the dominant issues of agendas (that is, a micro-level theory), the cultivation theory embraces a broader range of perceived reality (that is, a macro-level theory (Potter, 2014) to provide a cultural account of media influence on audiences.

Conceptualised and introduced by Gerbner (1967, 1969a, 1969b,1973), cultivation theory has gathered growing attention from researchers: Morgan and Shanahan's 2010 study found that 500 works on cultivation theory had been published, of which 125 were published between 2000 and 2010.

As sustained by Harari (2015), it is often thought that humans also reason in terms of myths and legends—that is, in terms of stories. Due to our symbolic capabilities, we do not only apprehend reality on the basis of our personal experiences, but also (and perhaps mainly) on the basis of the wide range of stories we are told which describe "*how things work*", "*how they are*" and "*what to do*" with them (Mosharafa, 2015, p.23), and which shape a culture (that is, a system of hierarchised values) (Shanahan & Morgan, 1999; Gerbner, 2002).

This connects with Moscovici's (1961) social representation theory, according to which human do not perceive reality on the sole basis of their thoughts, cognitions and individual perceptions (that is, their personal experience of the physical world), but also on the basis of social views and thoughts from different groups to which they belong (that is, a sort of collective experience of their symbolic world) (Moscovici, 1961). According to Gerbner (1969a, 19696b, 1970), Mosharafa (2015), Shanahan (2004), and Morgan (2002), a huge part of this collective experience of their symbolic world—that is, a part of their social representation of the world—is conveyed by television.

As a matter of fact, the ever-growing creation and broadcast of stories about the world or "elements of the culture" (Shanahan & Morgan (1999), Gerbner (2002)) by television creates an alternative, artificial, fictional reality—a symbolic environment— that offers people perspectives about just anything (especially those things that are not within their direct experience). This reality is alternative because it is staged in a symbolic world (which differs from our physical world) and artificial because it is virtual. It is also fictional because it is does not reflect the reality of the physical world but rather a distorted version of it that serves the purposes intended by the gatekeepers (Mosharafa, 2015). This reality constitutes a part of the lens though which we see the world and construct our subjective reality (Gerbner, 2002; Morgan, 2002; Mosharafa, 2015; Shrum, 2017).

Beyond its role as cultural "thermometer", in which it shows the mainstream cultural standards of groups, television also plays the role of cultural "compass", in which it drives and shows the direction of cultural changes in societies (Gerbner, 2002; Shanahan, 2004).

Cultivation theory can also be connected to social action theory, according to which individuals' relationships to objects— that is, their values, attitudes, beliefs, etc.— are always constructed within the boundaries offered by social action—that is, what other people do and the sense we make of their actions. In that regard, television appears to be a privileged way of getting appraised of what other people do and making sense of it (Meyer, 1989).

In its operationalisation, cultivation theory has been presented as the effect of exposure to television on viewers' representations of the world. It especially holds that there is a transfer of cultural values, attitudes and representations from television to viewers according to their exposure and whether or not they have had direct experience of the issues or objects of cultivation (Shrum, 2017). It could be asked: why, in this quest for understanding the patterns through which people construct   their reality, cultivation theory's sole media of interest is television?. Several researchers have addressed this question and ended up justifying this position. As a matter of fact, since the conceptualisation of cultivation theory, television has been the main story-telling medium (Nielsen, 2011, June 15). For a long time, video games, the Internet and social media were seen as having the potential to make television redundant (Mosharafa, 2015). However, the opposite was proven: social media appeared rather to boost television viewing (Patel,

Kunur, Slutsky, Irina, 2011; Nielsen, 2013). As for video games, their content has also been proven to show a high degree of consistency with television content (Defleur & Ball-Rokeach, in Mosharafa, 2015). I n other words, the influence of television on the construction of our subjective reality seems to some extent to encompass that of other visual media, especially the Internet, social networks and video games, in that they are somewhat related to television.

Potter (1988) has shown how, beyond the exposure time or frequency, the characteristics of the content, and how real the experience is, some socio-demographic variables such as age, sex, and socio-economic status could explain the variation in cultivation's effects.

Meyer (1989) has shown that both television news and entertainment content do in fact influence customer desires and expectations.

Despites its several biases, especially regarding the lack of scientific rigor that has often been observed in the measurement of television content (Potter & Chang, 1990; Bilandzic & Rossler, 2004; Potter, 2005; Dimitri, 2006), and possible statistical biases (Jan, 2003) cultivation theory remains an interesting tool to complement agenda setting theory in studying people's social representations, attitudes and behaviour towards Paralympic sport.

1.3 Media, Attitudes and Social Representations

Media have been referred to in the literature as being one of the sources of attitudes (see Oskamp & Schultz, 2005 and Baumeister & Finkel, 2010). They have also been referred to in the literature as one of the two major sources— the other being interpersonal communication—feeding social representation (Wagner, 2002, 2020). As Paralympic sport is an unobtrusive issue (that is, more experienced through media than directly), we can theoretically postulate that media would be an important source for the social representation of Paralympic sport.

It is therefore evident that studying media-related variables (e.g., exposure frequency, trust, content, attention, etc.) could help us to better understand the social representation of Paralympic sport.

We have identified a similar structure between Abric's (1994 b, c, 2003, a, b) structural view of social representations and Hallin (1986)'s ideological spheres of media.

Indeed, both structures describe a consensus zone and a controversial zone within the structure, and an external zone whose elements are external to the structure. The figures below illustrates the similarity between the structural view of social representation (Abric, 1994 b, c, 2003) and the ideological spheres of media (Hallin, 1986). This is not to say that both the content and structure of social representations – from the structural perspective – and ideological media sphere are exactly the same: it just shows how similar their patterns are, which means that the media content in itself is a structured representation of reality that is suggested to the audience.

central nucleus (consensus zone)

peripheral zone

outer zone
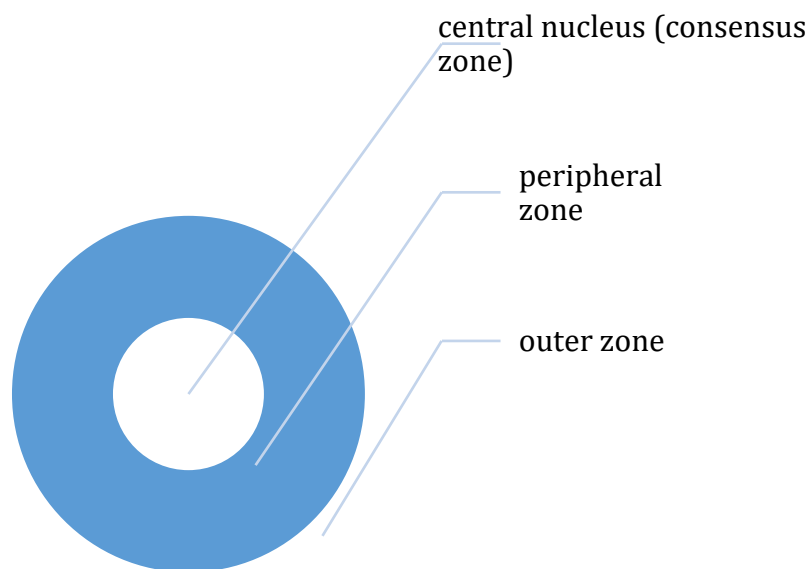
Figure 20 Structure of a social representation (Abric, 1994, a, b, c, 2003)
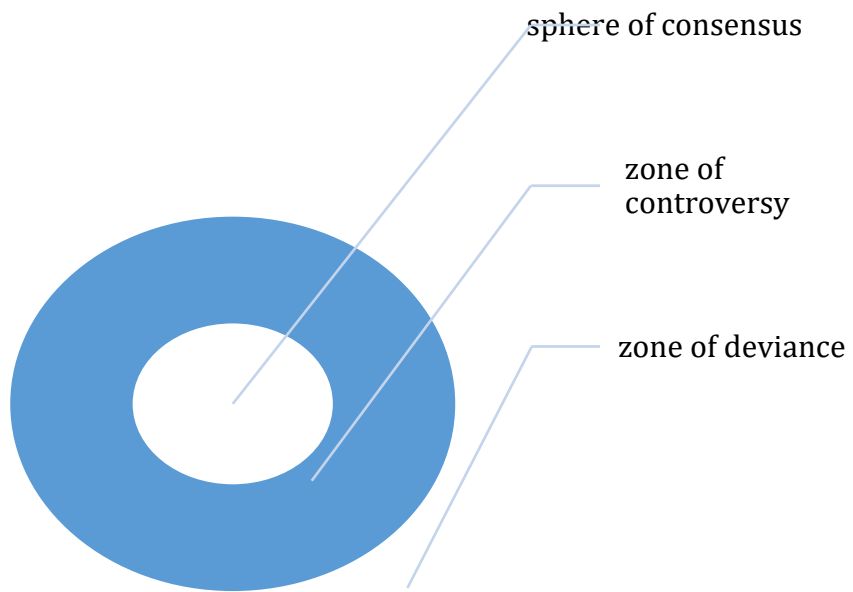
Figure 21 Ideological spheres of media (Hallin, 1986).

2. Sport Consumption Behaviour and Change

The market of leisure and entertainment is immensely broad. Therefore, there are many forms of leisure and entertainment that make (aware or unaware) concurrence to sport-related leisure and entertainment.

Sport, however, differs from other leisure and entertainment products. Trail (2019, p. 46) itemised ten characteristics that make sport a unique product:

1. Sport is simultaneously produced and consumed.

2. Sport is unpredictable and inconsistent.

3. Sport is experiential, subjective, intangible, and ephemeral.

4. Sport has a high degree of social facilitation.

5. Sport can elicit strong emotions and can be strongly personal.

6. The core product is beyond the marketer's control.

7. Sport organisations simultaneously must cooperate and compete.

8. Sport consumers think of themselves as experts in the field/industry.

9. The price of the product can be a small part of the total cost or experience.

10. Indirect revenues can be greater than direct revenues

Sport consumption behaviour has been analysed in the literature as a compound construct encompassing past attendance (Pease & Zhang, 2001; Mahoney et al.,2002 ; Ridinger and Funk, 2006; Neale and Funk, 2006; Hoye and Lillis, 2008; Funk et al., 2009); past, present and future (intentional) attendance (Kim & Trail, 2010, Mayer & Hungenberg, 2020); media viewing behaviour (Fink et al., 2002b) , media consumption (Kim et al, 2008; Kim et al., 2009; Andrew et al, 2009; Byon et al., 2009; Byon et al., 2010; Byon et al., 2011); word of mouth (Swanson et al, 2003; Asada and Ko, 2016, 2019; Chang, Hang, and Ko, 2017; Wakefield and Bennett, 2018, Sato and al., 2018), BIRGing (Trail & James, 2001; Trail, Fink, and Anderson, 2003, Trail et al., 2005; Trail et al., 2009); merchandise purchase (Trail & James, 2001; Trail, Fink & Anderson, 2003; Andrew et al., 2009); intended merchandise consumption (Fink, Trail, Anderson, 2002b, Trail, & Ko, 2011, Cottingham et al., 2014a, b); repatronage intention (Trail, Fink, and Anderson, 2003); sport spectator behaviour (Pease & Zhang, 2001; Funk et al, 2009; Byon et al., 2009, Byon et al., 2010, Byon et al., 2011); attendance intention (Zhang et al., 1997); online viewing intention (Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002b; Cottingham et al;, 2012); intended

future consumption (Byon et al., 2011); statistics tracking (Fink, Trail, Anderson, 2002b); and wearing of team's clothing (Fink, Trail, Anderson, 2002b).

Several theories and concept have been implemented to understand and explain general consumption behaviour (Zaichkowsky, 1991). Belz and Peattie (2012) retraced a brief history of the leading theories and paradigms of this subject. They noticed that at the beginning of research on consumption behaviour in the '40s, only economic theories were used to explain it: researchers assumed that consumption behaviour was rational and consistent with subjects' economical capabilities and calculations; that is, the consumer was modelled as an "economic-subject". From the '50s onwards, psychological theories were increasingly invoked to understand consumption behaviour, admitting it could also be irrational and compulsive. During the '60s and '70s, economic and psychological theories were blended to explain consumption behaviour: subjects were modelled as "cognitive people", actively inquiring into and investigating the products they desired. From the '80s, the "cognitive-people" model became unsustainable, as people had less and less time to choose between ever-increasing numbers of products; subjects then became more "market-responding" than cognitive. With the fall of the Berlin Wall at the dawn of the '90s, increasing globalisation, the emancipation of minorities, and the increasing acceptance of differences, more variables and distinct models of consumption behaviour entered the picture. F rom the 2010s on, eco-awareness would add supplementary variables and complexify consumption behaviour models. Thus concludes Belz and Peattie's (2012) history of the leading paradigms of consumption behaviour. Research on sport consumption behaviour has certainly been influenced by this evolution of the theorisation of consumption behaviour.

Alongside this evolution of theories and paradigms, several explicative and predictive models have been developed, taking these theories as their bases. Some of these models have been applied to the consumption behaviour of sport and disability sport, that is, spectating, viewing, or merchandise purchase.

In our work, we classify these models into in-line and complex models. Probably due to the specificity of sport leisure and entertainment products, some of these models seem more relevant to the realm of sport than others.

We define in-line models as those whose patterns are a line, that is, they only consider one variable (e.g., the variable "a" alone predicts sport consumption behaviour) or an "in-line" succession of variables (e.g., "a" predicts "b" and "b" predicts "c" and "c"

predicts consumption behaviour) as being predictive of consumption behaviour. As for complex models, they are those that "cross the line" and admit many different constructs as predictors of consumption behaviour.

2.1 In-line Models

As for the in-line models, Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) in Trail (2019) identified five distinct categories of models: market response, cognitive, affective, persuasive hierarchy, and low-involvement hierarchy (for a full description see Trial, 2019, p.59).

Trail (2019) further explained the core philosophies of each of these models. According to him, the market response model attempts to explain consumption behaviour on the basis of market-related variables such as advertising, promotions, and price. However, he highlights that this model works better for durable and/or new products, therefore excluding sporting competition from the terrain of this category of model.

As for the cognitive models, he explains that they envision sport consumption as an essentially rational behaviour, pertaining to the realm of free will (the operational effectiveness of which is subject to controversy); these models thus bring to mind those 1940's economic theories as described by Belz and Peattie (2012). As this conception denies the emotional and non-rational capabilities of humankind, as well as environmental variables such as peer influence, advertising, and marketing, we concur with Trail (2019) that they are unlikely to be applicable in a sport consumption context, let alone in an instance of competition attendance or viewing.

Regarding pure affect models, he finds (and we agree) that they are located at the antipode of the cognitive models yet replicate the shortcoming of those models by ignoring other variables that are also involved in the consumption decision- making process. Although sport viewing and attendance are obviously very connected to affect (Muncu, Lough, and Barnes, 2016), this model is not fit for the comprehensive analysis of sport consumption behaviour (at least by itself).

Concerning the persuasive hierarchy models, he presents them as being based on the assumption that there would be a precedence order between some attitudinal dimensions, and that these would determine behaviour: they postulate that cognitive dimensions precede affective dimensions which in turn precede behavioural ones, marketing – as action to market – , being a persuading variable that would moderate the prediction. When we conduct a simple theoretical analysis of these models, we find them

to be reductionist; they are actually just a version of the planned behaviour models but missing some key variables (such as intentions, subjective norms, and behavioural control). Such models can therefore not be used to explain or predict sport spectating, as we are sure that their predictive power is bound to be lower than that of other existing models (such as the planned behaviour or reasoned action models).

One well-known persuasive hierarchy model in the sport management realm is the Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) (Funk & James, 2001, 2006; Funk, 2008). It stipulates that there are four hierarchical stages organising the development of sport consumption behaviour: awareness, attraction, attachment, and allegiance. These stages correspond respectively to cognitive processes, affective processes, affective/ identity processes, and behavioural processes.
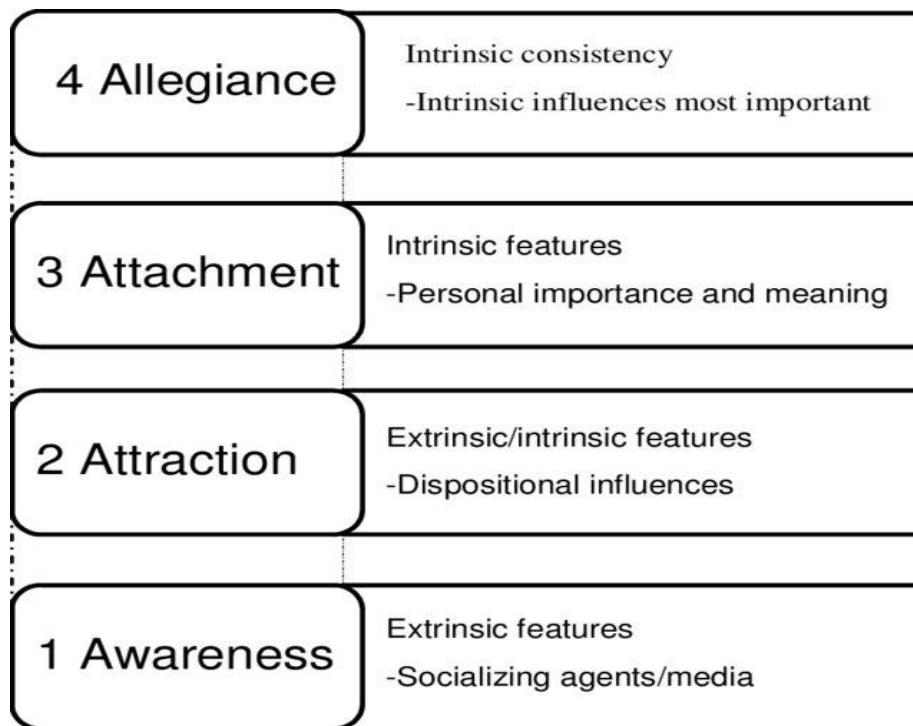
Figure 22 Psychological continuum model (Funk and James, 2001, p.122)

As for the low-involvement hierarchy models, Trail (2019) describes them as sets of permutations of in-line relationships between the components of the triad cognition, affect and conation (the three theoretical dimensions of attitudes towards the sporting-object according to Howland and Rosenberg, 1960). Just like the latter type of models, these models are reductionist as they exclude several well-known variables that could increase their predictive power.

Separately from the models explained above, there are two other models that have focused a lot of attention on the realm of sport marketing and predicting consumers'

intentions and behaviours. These models are the constraints models and the motives models. Since they were further compounded and syncretised into a complex model, we chose to develop them in a later section addressing complex models.

2.2 Complex Models

In the field of sport consumption behaviour, a wide range of complex models has been used to explain and predict consumption behaviour. These models have mostly been drawn from social and cognitive psychologies and have generally had better predictive power than their in-line counterparts. We identified four main types of complex models that have often been implemented to explain sport consumption behaviour.

2.2.1. The TRA & TPB Models

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) have been tested and used as anchorage   s in several applied research studies in the field of sport (Hagger et al., 2002). They have mostly been used to predict and explain exercise behaviour. In that line, Hagger et al. (2002) carried out a meta-analysis review to assess the predictive power of the TRA and the TPB in the field of intentions and behaviour towards sport and physical activity and to assess the usefulness of additional variables to these theories. Having gone through 72 studies, they concluded that both the TRA and the TPB demonstrated a "*good fit" (p. 3)* for the field (they respectively accounted for 37.27% and 44.50% of the total variance in sport practice-related intentions, and 26.04% and 27.4% of the total variance in sport practice-related behaviour). They also found the TPB to have a better predictive power for intentions and behaviours towards sport and physical activities than the TRA. Finally, they advocated the addition of "previous behaviours" as a variable to the TPB, as they found it to significantly improve the predictive power of the model.

Wang and Zhang (2015) tested the applicability of the TPB model to Chinese teenagers' physical activity-related intentions and behaviours. The found the model to significantly predict their intention to engage in moderate to vigorous physical activity, explaining up to 28.7% of the total variance in intentions. But just like Bozionelos & Bennett (1999), Lu, Lin and Cheng (2011), and Chuan, Yusof, Soon and Abdullah (2014), they did not find intentions to be predictive of behaviour ; according to Lu, Lin and Cheng

(2011), this intention-behaviour gap could be due to the methodological biases that arise when assessing intentions and behaviour s as a result of the time lapse between the two measures. They also supported Lu, Lin and Cheng (2011), Hagger and al. (2002); Norman, Clark and Walker (2005), and Bae, Won, Lee and Pack (2020) developed prior knowledge and participation in sport in recognizing the necessity and utility of adding supplementary variables to the TPB model to increase its predictive power. In that regard, they showed how adding the variable "past behaviour" significantly improved the model's predictive power.

Despite the fact that the vast majority of TPB sport- related research have been investigating if and how the TPB can predict and/ or explain practice intention or behaviour, few authors have tested the capacity of the TPB to predict and explain consumption intention or consumption behaviour of sporting practices or events.

Among these, Cunningham and Kwon (2003) have used an extended TPB to analyse people's intention to attend a hockey event in the USA. They found that the extended TPB (with the addition of the variable "previous behaviours") explained up to 67% of the variance in intention to attend a sporting event (in this instance, a hockey game).

Lu, Lin and Cheng (2011) have tested the TPB as a framework for analysing and explaining spectating behaviour. Having performed multiple regressions, they confirmed Cunningham and Kwon's (2003) findings, according to which attitudes, perceived behavioural control and subjective norms did predict behavioural intention. However, they found behavioural intention along all the other independent variables (attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) not to predict behaviour, though the overall model encompassing all the variables were significant. Even if we could question the length of the time (4 months) that separated the measurement of the independent variables (attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and behavioural intention) from the measurement of the dependent variable (behaviour), Lu, Lin and Cheng (2011) concluded the TPB unfit for analysing sport spectating behaviours. Since they found the TPB model fit for analysing and predicting behavioural intentions but not for predicting behaviours, they expressed the need to identify and test supplementary variables that might influence the relationship between sport spectating intentions and behaviours.

Norman, Clark and Walker (2005) tested the TPB model on male soccer fans and found it to be a strong and reliable predictor of intentions (R2s =. 80). T hey also

acknowledged the necessity and utility of expanding "*the normative component of the theory of planned behaviour (TPB)*" to increase the model's predictive power.

Chen and Lin (2009) found the TPB framework to have good explanatory/predictive power for Taiwanese adolescent TV viewing intentions for NY baseball games featuring the Taiwanese pitcher Chien-Ming Wang. Eddosary et al. (2015) used a version of the TPB (extended with the variables "game importance" and "commitment") to analyse consumers' intentions to attend soccer events, and found his extended model to be valid for such an analysis. Muncu, Lough and Barnes (2016) implemented some constructs of the TPB to analyse relationships between female sports fans' attitudes and consumption intentions (through live spectating or TV viewing). They found that both the affective and cognitive dimensions of attitude accounted for 22.7% of the variance in intention to consume.

As for the addition of supplementary variables, the most common variable used by researchers to extend the TPB framework is "previous behaviours". Its addition to the TPB model has been supported by Yordy and Lent (1993), Bozionelos & Bennett (1999) (Wang, 2001), Hagger et al. (2001), Bozionelos & Bennett, (2000) Norman, Conner, and Bell (2000), Cunningham and Know (2003), and was suitable in a sport exercise context as well as in a sport attendance intention or behaviour context. Bae, Won, Lee and Park (2020) have also advocated "prior knowledge" as a good extension to the model.

Other variables related to identity have also been recommended, especially the variable "addition of group identification" (Norman, Clark and Walker, 2005) in a sport fan attitudes and behaviour study context, and "self-identity" (Ries, Hein, Pihu, Armenta, 2012) in a sport exercise intention context.

2.2.2 The constraints and motives model

The constraints and motives model is a syncretisation of two models: the constraints model and the motives model.

2.2.2.1 The Constraints Model

The constraints model postulates that constraints are at the basis of what we do or don't do. In a sport consumption context, three types or dimensions of constraint have been identified, namely internal (stress, religion, reference group attitudes, past

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experiences, self-perception, subjective evaluations), interpersonal (relationships), and structural (weather, financial resources, games schedules) (Crawford and Godbey, 1987,). Trail, Robinson and Kim (2008) were the first to apply the constraints model to sport consumption behaviour when investigating gender differences and attendees vs non-attendees' difference in structural constraints. They identified seven structural constraints, namely leisure activities, other sport entertainment, financial cost, weather, lack of success, social commitments, and stadium location, which together predicted 63.35% of variance in past attendance (it is important to note here that past attendance was evaluated with a yes/no single item). Their results also suggested that there was no significant difference in the constraints between attendees and non-attendees. However, significant differences were discovered between males and females: while females were more conscious of constraints related to social commitments, weather, and professional or academic duties than their male counterparts, males were rather more aware of constraints related to other sport entertainment opportunities, televised games, and lack of team success than their female counterparts.

Two years later, having observed some overlapping between the three above-mentioned dimensions, Kim and T rail (2010) revised the model and suggested a bidimensional one. The two dimensions in their revised model were namely an internal or cognitive dimension— encompassing the subdimensions lack of knowledge, lack of success, lack of someone to attend with—and an external or social-environmental dimension encompassing the subdimensions parking, location, commitments, financial cost, leisure alternatives, participant sport alternatives, and sport entertainment alternatives. When syncretized with the motive submodel, this new constraint submodel (Kim and Trail, 2010) accounted for a moderate percentage of variance in consumption behaviour.

Constraints were traditionally and empirically theorized as factors deterring sport consumption (Trail et al. 2008). However, since Kim and Trail (2010)'s studies, a growing body of literature, including Trail and Kim (2011), Jones et al. (2017) and Mayer and Hungenberg (2020), has identified some elements formerly considered as constraints whose influence on sport consumption behaviour actually depends on the context (sport, environment, level, gender, etc.). That is, some variables that could deter consumption in one context could encourage it or be neutral in another context. Evidence supporting this thesis has been provided by Jones et al. (2017), who found weather (which is theoretically

a constraint) to positively influence consumption behaviour (attendance) in a collegiate football context; by Simmons et al. (2017) who showed how, within the same sport (American college football), constraints were significantly different according to the competition's level; by Havard and Dwyer (2012), who showed how constraints were different for distinct types of spectators; by Trail et al. (2008), who showed how constraints differed according to age and gender within the same sport; and by Perrault (2016), who showed how at the same level, constraints differed according to the sport (football vs basketball).

Building on the above , Mayer and Hungenberg (2020) shifted some elements formerly considered to be constraints into the new bidimensional construct they created and called "context", which we will develop later. This construct encompassed elements that might act as motivators in some instances and constraints or neutral elements in other instances, depending on the context.

2.2.2.2 The Motives Model

Within the realm of sport, there are many   offers. One can decide to watch men's sport, women's sport, or disability sport. In the face of this multiplicity of possibilities, sport spectating or viewing would be more of a choice than an accident. There are a certain number of motives behind this choice. Motives are reasons, that is, sets of attributes of an object that justify our choice to adopt a certain behaviour towards it (Mayer and Hungenberg, 2020). Generally, motives can be understood as sets of intrinsic and extrinsic forces inciting an individual to action (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004). In the instance of sport spectating or viewing, we understand motives to be sets of attributes related to a sport type or a specific sport that would justify one's behaviour toward this sport or sport type (spectating, viewing, or not spectating or viewing).

Several studies have investigated the drivers that motivate sport consumption. One of the first in this line of investigation was Sloan (1989), who suggested five theoretical axes that could explain investment in sport. These five axes were achievement, entertainment, catharsis and aggression, stimulation, and salubrious effects. Building on Sloan's (1989) work, many scholars, including Wann (1995), Trail, Anderson, and Fink (2000), Trail and James (2001), Fink, Trail and Anderson (2002b), Wann and Waddill (2003), Mehus (2005), Wann (2005), Won and Kitamura (2006), Funk, Filo, Beatom, and

Pritchard (2009), Kim and Trail (2010), Wang and Zhang (2011), Trail (2019), and Mayer and Hungenberg (2020), have further investigated the motives that can determine sport consumption.

Wann (1995) investigated the motivations for involvement in sport as a fan, and identified eight motives: eustress, self-esteem benefits, escape, entertainment, economic factors, aesthetics qualities, group affiliation and family needs. He further created the sport fan motivation scale (SFMS) encompassing these eight dimensions, which he validated with a sample of 272 fans and/or university students.

Noticing insufficiencies in the validity of the SFMS (Wann, 1995) , Milne and McDonald (1999) undertook an investigation that resulted in the identification of eleven motives steering sport consumption: risk, stress reduction, aggression, affiliation, social facilitation, self-esteem, competition, achievement, skill mastery, aesthetics and value development.

Having discovered several weaknesses in Wann's (1995) and Milne and McDonald's (1999) scales, Trail and James (2001) reinvestigated the motivations driving people to consume sport and identified nine motives, which they framed as dimensions in the motivation scale for sport consumption (MSCC) . These nine dimensions were: achievement, knowledge acquisition, aesthetics, drama, escape, family, physical attraction, physical skills, and social interaction. The MSSC (Trail and James, 2001) was validated on 203 baseball professional league season ticket holders.

Originally used by Trail and James (2001) to analyse sport media consumption, re-patronage intentions and sport merchandise purchase intentions, the MSSC (Trail and James, 2001) has been often reshaped and reworded according to the context, or just to improve its fitness. (e.g., Trail, 2010; Kim & Trail, 2010; Trail, 2012). Alongside its several revisions, the MSSC (Trail and James, 2001) has also been re-used for analysing sport media consumption (Kink & al., 2002; Kim & al., 2008, and Andrew, Oneal, Greenwall, & James, 2009) attendance or re-patronage intention (Dubihela, Dhuruo & Surujlal, 2009), and merchandise consumption (Trail, Fink & Anderson, 2003; Andrew & al., 2009).

Geographically speaking, the MSSC (Trail and James, 2001) has been mostly used in the USA as it originated from there. However, it has also been used in many different countries, including Japan (Nishio, 2013), Romania (Izzo et al., 2011), B rasil (Santos, 2019; Caseria, 2014; Silveria, 2015; Wachelke et al., 2008), Australia (Hoye & Lillis, 2008; Regn et al., 2012), Eastern Europe (Poland, Romania, Hungary and Moldovia) (Izzo, et al.,

2014), Hungary (Baba et al., 2019; Renata & Eva, 2019), Norway (Mehus, 2005), New Zealand (Prayang & Grivel, 2014), Korea (Kim et al., 2009; Hee, 2019, Lee et al., 2016), South Africa (Stander & Zyl, 2016; Steenkamp, 2014; Moyo et al., 2020), Turkey (Esen, 2019), China (Wang et al., 2011; Pu & Xiao, 2021), Canada (Yannopoulos, 2018), Indonesia (Pangaribuan et al., 2020), Thailand (Naglis & Inprom, 2020), Portugal (Almeida, 2018) and more. However, its use in Central Europe and French-speaking Africa—especially in France, Germany and Cameroon—has been almost non-existent.

The MSSC (Trail and James, 2001) has been used to analyse sport consumption in professional sport in the instances of baseball (Trail and James, 2001); hockey (Casper, Kanters & James, 2009), bass fishing (Bernthal et al., 2015), and football (Mahoney et al.,2002); in minor league sports in the instances of hockey (Mayer and Hungenberg, 2020; Andrew et al., 2009; Hong, 2009), baseball (Bernthal and Graham, 2003), and rugby (Hill and green , 2000); in college sport in the instances of football (Robinson & Trail, 2005; Woo, Trail, Know & Anderson, 2009), basketball (Ridinger and Funk, 2006, Trail & Kim, 2011), athletics (Trail, Robinson & Dick, 2003); and in women's sport in the instance of basketball (Kim & Trail, 2010; Trail & Kim, 2011; Ridinder & Funk, 2006, Trail, Anderson & Fink, 2005). It has also been used for emerging sports like e-sport (Pizzo et al., 2018; Shaw et al., 2019 in Rogers 2019; Hee, 2019; Macey et al., 2020; Pu & Xiao, 2021), fantasy sport (Karg, Adam & McDonald, 2011) and MMA (Mixed Martial Arts) (Kim et al., 2008, Kim et al., 2009), and for disability sport in the instances of wheelchair rugby (Byon, Cottingham & Carroll; 2010) and wheelchair basketball (Byon, Carroll, Cottingham, Grady and Allen, 2011). In these different sports, the MSSC (Trail & James, 2001) or one of its revised versions (Trail, 2010, 2012) has been used to predict one or many instances of consumption behaviour.

In the instance of past attendance, the MSSC (Trail & James, 2001) predicted 15% of attendance to Japanese soccer professional league games (Mohaney et al., 2002,), 18% of men's and 14% of women's attendance to USA college basketball games (Ridinger & Funk, 2006), 18.6% of attendance to Australian football games(Neale & Funk, 2006), 13% of attendance to away games in Australian football (Hoye & Lillis, 2008), and 30% of fans attendance to Australian football games (Funk et al., 2009).

In the instance of media consumption, the MSSC (Trail & James, 2001) (to which were added two dimensions: national pride and sport interest) predicted 53% of men's and 40.5% of women's media consumption of MMA (Kim et al., 2008), and from an

intercultural perspective, 56% of Korean's and 49% of American (USA)'s media consumption of MMA (when the dimension "adoration" was added to the previous ones) (Kim et al., 2009). In another study, it predicted 39% of men's and 41% of women's media consumption behaviour (Andrew et al., 2009). 2 subdimensions of the MSSC (Trail & James, 2001)—"vicarious achievement" and "knowledge"—predicted 46% of wheelchair basketball online media consumption (Byon et al., 2009), and 47% of wheelchair rugby online media consumption (Byon et al, 2010). From a comparative perspective these two subscales accounted for 54% of men's and 41% of women's future (intended) wheelchair basketball media consumption.

In the case of repatronage intentions, the MSSC (Trail & James, 2001) predicted 40% of wheelchair rugby repatronage intentions (Byon et al., 2010), 65% and 49% of male and female repatronage intentions in wheelchair basketball (Byon et al., 2011), and overall (male and female all together) 54% of wheelchair basketball repatronage intention (Byon et al., 2009).

In the instance of merchandise consumption, the MSSC model predicted 40% and 33% of male and female merchandise consumption intentions in wheelchair basketball and 29.7% and 33% of male and female merchandise consumption in mixed martial arts (MMA).

Motivations to consume sport are context-related (Allen, Drane and Byon, 2010, Kim & Trail, 2010; Trail & Kim, 2011; Mayer & Hungenberg, 2020); that is, motives to attend or watch sport depend on the setting(s) in which the motives are investigated, such as the type of population, type of sport, the sample's relationship(s) to the selected sport, etc.

With regard to the difference in motivations between sports, Wann, Grive and Zapalac (2008) investigated sport fans' motivational profiles in different sports. They found that motives varied according to three dichotomies: whether the sport is individual or collective, aggressive or non-aggressive, and stylistic or non-stylistic. Hur, Ko, Valacich (2007), Shaw, Rodgers, Rodgers, and Wiggings (2014) also showed that motivations for sport consumption differ according to the type of sport (regular sport, women's sport, disability sport, esport, etc.).

As for sport level, the difference in motives across different levels of the same sport has been shown in rugby (Hill & Green, 2000), baseball (Bernthal & Graham, 2003) and football (Robinson et al., 2005).

In the case of gender, the literature has not been unanimous on whether there is a significant difference between males' and females' motivation to attend (or view) a sport competition. While some studies identified significant differences (e.g., Wann et al., 2003; Swanson, Gwinner, Larson, & Janda, 2003; End, Kretschmar &Dietz-Uhler, 2004; Kim, Greenwell, Andrew, Lee and Mahony, 2008; Yousaf, Bashir & Amin, 2015), others identified no significant difference (e.g., Armstrong, 2002; James & Ridinger, 2002; Robinson & trail, 2005, Allen, Drane & Byon, 2010). The influence of gender also extends to team genders. Ridinger and Funk (2006) found differences in motives for sport consumption between the fans of male and female basketball.

Yousaf, Bashir and Amin (2015), postulated that in addition to gender, national identification had an influence on the motivation for sport consumption. Armstrong (2002) postulated that age, gender, income, education, and ethnicity all had an influence on the motivation for sport consumption in a US collegiate baseball context. Mehus (2005) and Zang et al. (2001) recognized that motivations varied according to age and education.

With regard to culture and ethnicity, Kim et al. (2008) found differences between Korean and American MMA fans' motives, Know and Trail (2011) identified differences between American and foreign students in sport consumption. Armstrong and Paretto (2002) identified differences in African American and white American motives for attendance.

In d isability sport contexts, (Byon, Cottingham & Carroll; 2010; Byon, Carroll, Cottingham, Grady and Allen, 2011) found that the MSSC (Trail & James, 2001), just like all its predecessors measuring motives for sport consumption (Wann, 1995; Milne and McDonald's, 1999), lacked specific tools to assess some disability sport-specific motives.

Building on that, Cottingham (2012a) and Cottingham et al. (2014b) investigated motives for disability sport consumption: after a pilot study with 158 respondent and a proper study with 470 respondents, they identified nine motives that drove disability sport consumption behaviours (spectating, viewing, and merchandise purchase). These nine motives were: violence and aggression, knowledge acquisition, escape, social interaction, physical attractiveness, drama, inspiration, supercrip image, and physical skills/ aesthetics. These nine motives were combined into the motivation scale for disability sports consumption (MSDSC) (Cottingham, 2012a). This scale loadings and cronbach's alphas were proved satisfying by its originator.

Cottingham (2014b) further used the MSDSC (Cottingham, 2012a) to analyse consumption intention in a collegiate disability basketball context in the USA. Having surveyed 470 spectators of the collegiate wheelchair basketball championship, he found his model to explain 32.7% of the variance in intended merchandise consumption, 45.8% of the variance in intended media consumption, and 49.4% of the variance in re-patronage intentions (knowledge being the most significant predictor).

Since only a small to moderate amount of variance in attendance is explained by motives, and in order to increase the predictive power of a model which includes motives and aims at predicting attendance, Kim, Trail, and Magnusen (2013) showed that 'identification with the team' played a moderating role in the relationship between motives and attendance. Trail et al. (2003) investigated the relationship between motives and team identification and found motives to explain 72% of variance in team identification. For the same purpose of enhancing the model's predictive power, Kim and Trail (2010) advocated a new sport consumption behaviour model which syncretises insights from both motives and constraints models.

As the preceding illustrates, different sets of motivations identified in the literature (Wann, 1995; Trail & James, 2001; Tail, 2010, etc.) were traditionally and until recently theorized to have a positive influence on sport consumption behaviour. However, since Kim and Trail's (2010a) studies, a growing body of literature, including Trail and Kim (2011), Mayer (2015) and Mayer and Hungenberg (2020), has identified some elements formerly considered to be motivations but whose influence on sport consumption behaviour actually depends on the context (sport, environment, level, gender, etc.). That is, some variables that could encourage consumption in a given context could deter it or be neutral in another context. Evidence supporting this thesis is provided by Mayer (2015), who found the level of sport attachment (which has been theorised as a motivator) to negatively influence sport consumption behaviour (attendance) in a student football context.

Building on the above , Mayer and Hungenberg (2020) shifted some elements initially considered to be motivations into a new bidimensional subscale which aimed at including elements which, according to the context, might act as motivators, constraints, or neutral elements. We will further develop Mayer and Hungenberg (2020)'s model later.

2.2.2.3 The Constraints and Motives Model (per see)

In the case of women's basketball, Kim and Trail (2010) revisited and syncretised the constraints model with the motivators model, suggesting a constraints and motivators model to explain sport consumption behaviour. Their model comprised four dimensions: internal motivators, external motivators, internal constraints, and external constraints.

Internal motivators included ten dimensions, three of which come from the MSSC (Trail & James, 2001): escape, social, and achievement; six from the points of attachment index (PAI; Robinson & Trail, 2005): community, coach, level of sport, player, sport, and team; and one from the sport interest inventory (SII; Funk et al., 2003): "opportunity for women".

External motivators encompassed six dimensions, two of which came from the MSSC (Trail & James, 2001): aesthetics and Drama; one dimension related to role model, adapted from a modified version of the role model dimension of the Sport Interest Inventory (SII; Funk et al., 2003); one dimension related to media and publicity; another dimension addressing promotions; and a last dimension addressing player behaviour and customised by Kim and Trail (2010) for their study on women's basketball.

Internal constraint included four dimensions: the dimensions "lack of knowledge" and "lack of success", adapted from the MSSD (Trail et al., 2005), a dimension bespeaking the "lack of someone to attend with", and another bespeaking the "lack of interest" in the sport studied, both adapted from Craword et al. (1991) theorisation of interpersonal constraints.

External constraints encompassed seven dimensions, including two extracted from the Venue Service Experience Survey (VSES; Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2002): parking and location; and five others adapted from Trail et al. (2005): Commitments, Financial Cost, Leisure Alternatives, Participant Sport Alternatives, and Sport Entertainment alternatives

Kim and Trail (2010) tested their constraint and motives model on 115 professional women's basketball spectators and found it to explain a large amount (34%) of the variance in attendance (past, present and future). Of all the subdimensions, "attachment to the team" (a subdimension of the internal motivators construct) was the most powerful in predicting attendance, explaining up to 21% of the variance in attendance (past, present and future). This was followed in the ranking of best predictors by the internal constraint subdimension "lack of success", which predicted 10% of the variance in

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attendance, which in its turn was followed by the external constraint "leisure alternative", which predicted 3% of the variance in attendance. Interestingly, in this instance, no external motivator significantly predicted attendance (past, present, and future).

Monfarde, Tojari and Nikbakhsh (2014) re-applied the constraints and motivators model to analyse Iranian sport radio listening and TV viewing behaviour. H aving submitted 385 sport spectators to the constraint scale for sport consumption (CSSC) (Kim & Trail, 2010) and the motivation scale for sport consumption (MSSC) (Kim and Trail's version, 2010), they found the effects of motivators and constraints on sport consumption to be mediated by sport identification and sport attachment. They also found that internal motivators were more effective in predicting sport consumption than external motivators, and that demographic characteristics could not predict consumption behaviour.

As we said earlier, building on Jones et al. (2017) work that showed how some elements traditionally theorised as constraints could act as motivators in different contextual settings, Mayer's (2015) work that showed how some elements traditionally theorised as motives could act as constraints in different contextual settings, and Kim and Trail's (2010) work that showed how some elements traditionally theorized as constraints or as motivators could be neutral (that is, have no effect on sport consumption behaviour) in different settings, Mayer and Hungenberg (2020) revisited Kim and Trail's (2010) and Trail and Kim's (2011) model. Their premise was that, since generally only a marginal to moderate amount of variance in sport consumption behaviour can be explained by motives and/or constraints models, or a syncretisation of the two , the remaining amount of unexplained variance could be explained by the context. Therefore, they conceptualised a bidimensional construct of context, encompassing items from the model of Kim and Trail (2010) and Trail and Kim (2011), the role of which (as motive, constraint or neutral element) depends on the context. This bidimensional construct of context was part of Mayer and Hungenberg's (2020) sport attendance behaviour spectrum.

In this spectrum, five second- order constructs are implemented to predict attendance (past, present, and future). These second-order constructs are the following:

- Internal motives, comprising (reflexively) three first-order constructs: social, community attachment and escape.

- External motives, comprising (reflexively) five first-order constructs: drama (eliminated for poor performance), aesthetics, role model, media/publicity, and promotions (eliminated for poor performance).

- Internal contextual, comprising five first-order constructs: player attachment (eliminated for poor performance) , achievement, level of sport attachment, game knowledge, and interest of others.

- External contextual, comprising four first-order constructs: arena location, parking, cost/price, and player behaviour (eliminated for poor performance).

- and constraints, comprising six first-order constructs: commitments (eliminated for poor performance)., lack of success, sport alternative entertainment, leisure sport alternatives, leisure alternatives, and someone to attend with (eliminated for poor performance).

In an instance of minor league hockey, Mayer and Hungenberg's (2020) spectrum proved to be an acceptable fit. From top down, the most significant effects of second-order constructs on attendance (past, present and future) were those of internal contextual, constraints, and external contextual. While internal contextual constructs positively influence attendance, constraints and external contextual negatively impacted it. Meyer and Hungenberg's (2020) attendance behaviour spectrum explained 24% of the variance in attendance. However, i nternal and external motivators (n ewly theorized for their study) were not significant predictors of attendance, unlike in previous studies in which they were theorised to be significant predictors of consumption behaviour. According to Mayer and Hungenberg (2020), this exemplifies how contextual constructs (internal and external) account for the variability of attendance responses better than motives.

2.2.3 Models Including Identity.

These models are built on the premise that, just like social representation, the aim of which is to protect or affirm our identities, sport consumption behaviour would also have an identity component.

In studies addressing consumption behaviour using the motivation or constraint and motives models, identification with the team or point of attachments were often recognised as having mediating or moderating roles (see Trail, 2019). This probably occurred because there are ample identity drives that influence consumption behaviour. Identity has been referred to as one of the most powerful drives orienting sport

consumption behaviour. According to Holt (1995), consumption is "*a type of social action in which people use objects* [...]" (p. 194). Holt (1995) divided this social action of consumption into four types, according to its structure and intent. The table 10 below presents these types:

		Aim of action	
		Action for themselves	Instrumental Actions
Structure of action	Object Action	Consume as an EXPERIENCE	Consume as an INTEGRATION
	Interpersonal Actions	Consume as a GAME	Consume as a CLASSIFICATION

Table 10 Social action of consumption, from (Holt, 1995, p.3)

Commenting on Holt's (1995) table, Badaoui (2009) highlighted those actions performed "for themselves" bespeak personal identities , while instrumental actions bespeak social identities. Supporting and further developing Holt's (1995) perspective on the relationships between consumption and identity, Rieumier and Volle (2002) also highlighted three connections between consumption and identity: achievement, the quest for personalisation, and social links. While the latter is obviously connected to social identities, the former are connected to personal identities.

Put simply, the identity model of consumption postulates that consumption is not made ex-nihilo: it envisions consumers as a sense-seekers who, through consumption, seek to be recognized and to partake (at least symbolically) in a social life (Vezina, 1999; Cova and Remy, 2001). Badaoui (2009) has shown how personal and social identities influenced teenagers' clothing style and clothes consumption behaviour. As a result of his doctoral work comprising a series of investigations carried out on French teens, he suggested a model linking personal and social identities to clothing styles, clothing products and clothing brands. Applying the concept of identity to the theoretical realm of

sport consumption behaviour, Trail, Anderson, and Fink (2000) suggested a theoretical model for explaining sport spectating behaviour.
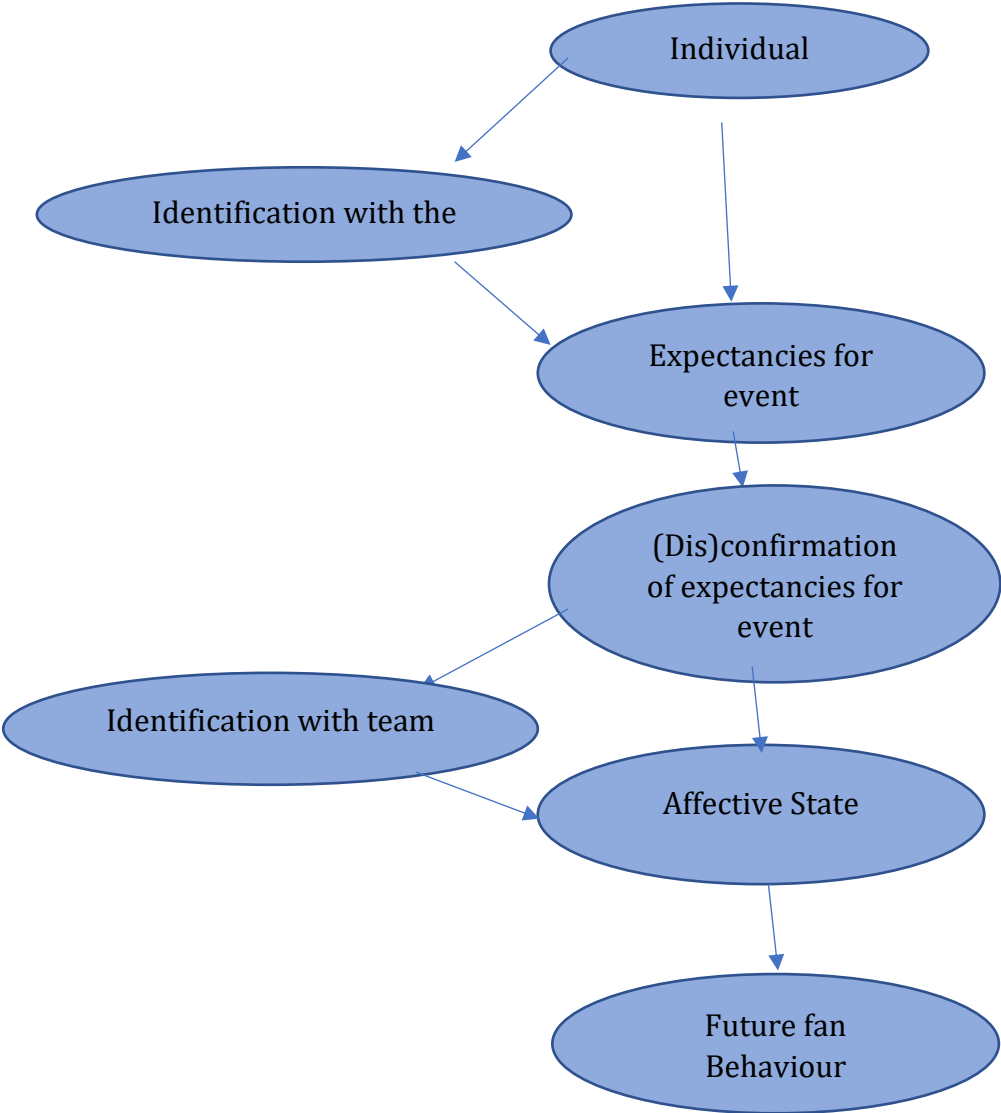
According to this model, individual motives do predict expectancies for event experience. This prediction is direct but also mediated by team identification. In their turn, expectancies for event experiences or outcomes predict confirmation or disconfirmation (of the latter expectancies), which in turn predict affective states directly

but also through the mediation of self-esteem responses. Finally, affective states predicts future fan behaviour.

Five years later, Trail, Anderson, and Fink (2005) suggested another model predicting the behavioural intention to re-patronage ("cognitive loyalty" according to the USA terminology used in the article) on the basis of team identification, mood (positive, negative, satisfaction), BIRGing and self-esteem, among other variables. This model explained 49% of the variance in cognitive loyalty.

The figure 24 presents a synoptic view of this model
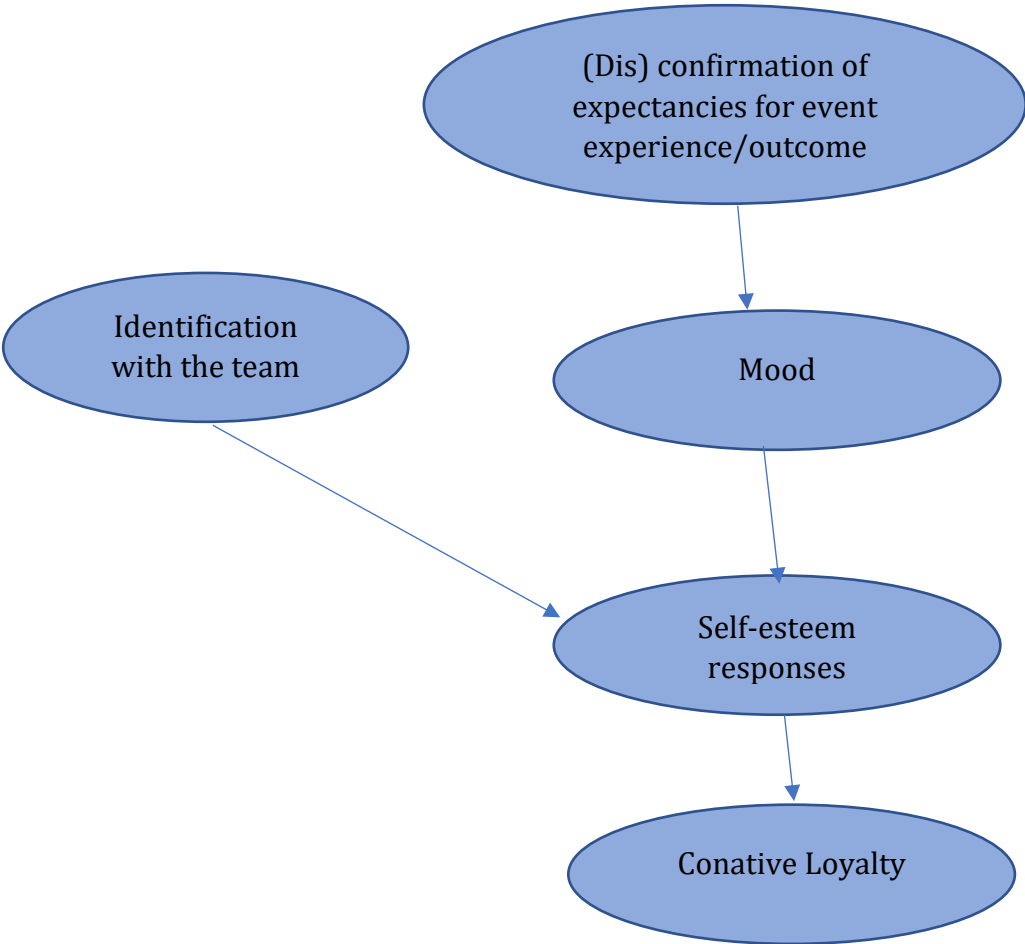
Figure 24 Synoptic view from Trail et al. (2005, p. 102)

According to this model, confirmation or disconfirmation does predict mood, which itself predicts self-esteem responses. However, self-esteem responses are also directly

predicted by identification with the team. Finally, self-esteem responses do predict conative loyalty—that is, behavioural intentions in the European jargon.

Team identification has also been established as a strong predictor of attendance and other consumption behaviours (Fink, Trail, Anderson, 2002b). It has been found to strongly correlate with Trail's (2001) "vicarious achievement" motive (Fink, Trail, Anderson, 2002b). In that regard, Trail et al. (2003) found motives to explain 72% of variance in team identification.

Another way through which identity has been used as a predictor of sport behaviour is through the notion of the "point of attachment". In fact, apart from the team, (Robinson & Tral, 2002; Trail et al., 2003) found six other aspects of sport with which one could identify. They referred to these in the literature as "points of attachment".

Conceptualised by Robinson and Trail (2002), and further analysed by Trail, Robinson, Dick and Gillentine (2003), and Robinson, Trail, Dick and Cillentine (2005), the notion of points of attachment bespeaks the anchorage of one's identification with a sporting event. Robinson and Trail (2002) identified seven points of attachment: the player(s), the team(s), the coach(es), the university, the community, the sport, and the level. They also showed that there were significant differences in points of attachments according to gender and sport type. Apart from the seven points of attachment mentioned above, Kim et al. (2008) and Yosaf et al. (2015) implicitly referred to national pride/identification as another point of attachment.

Woo, Trail, Kwon, and Anderson (2009) suggested models linking Trail and James' (2001) motives to points of attachment in a college football context. These models showed that most motives could be classified into fan motives (escape, achievement, and social) and spectator motives (escape, skills, aesthetics, drama, and knowledge) and that points of attachment could be classified into organisational identification (team, coach, university, and players) and sport identification (level and sport). The figure 4 below presents the most prominent of Woo, Trail, Kwon, and Anderson (2009)'s models.
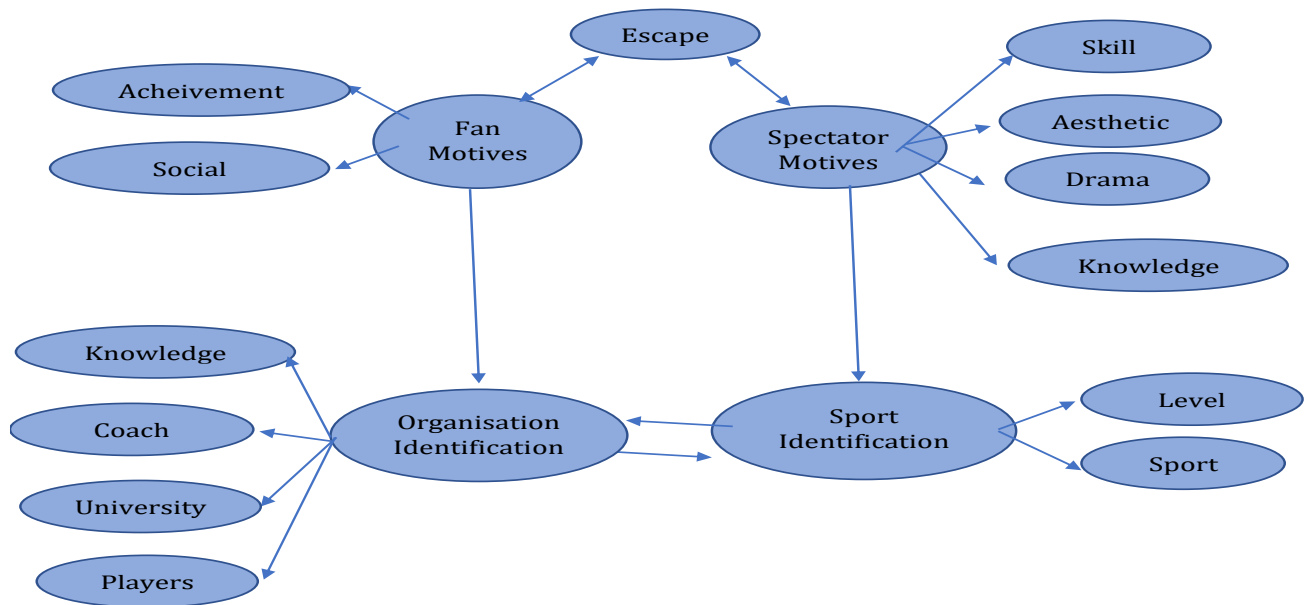
Figure 25 Woo's models from Woo et al. (2009, p. 44)

sport identification. Interestingly, Organisational Identification and Sport Identification predict one another.

A similar investigation was carried out in a professional basketball context by Grencer et al. (2011), who found that aesthetics and escape were the most prominent among motives, while sport type was the most prominent among of points of attachment. In a similar study in a football context and in a gender comparison, Grencer (2017) found social interaction to be the most prominent motive, while sport type was the most prominent point of attachment. He also found differences in motives and points of attachment between men and women.

Apart from being used to predict motives, points of attachment have also been used to predict sport consumption behaviour.

In the case of disability sport for example, and more specifically wheelchair rugby, Cottingham et al. (2012) showed how three points of attachment (attachment to the disability community, attachment to the sport and attachment to the players) predicted 54.4% of the variance in repatronage intentions among spectators, and 35.3% of future (intentional) online consumption.

2.2.4. Spectator-Team Relationship Quality

Another model through which sport consumption behaviour has been analysed is the spectator-team relationship quality model. In this regard, Kim, Trail, and Ko (2011) analysed the influence of the relationship quality (spectator-team) on sport consumption behaviour. Using the sport Consumer-Team Relationship Quality scale (Kim, Trail, Woo, & Zhang, 2011), [composed of trust (3 items), commitment (3 items), identification (3 items), intimacy (3 items) and reciprocity (3 items)] and the simultaneous equation model, they found that, for sport consumers, relationship quality with the team explained 56% of the variance in intention to attend games, 75% of the intention to consume sport media, and 66% of the intention to purchase licensed merchandise.

2.3. The Role of Sociodemographic Variables.

In sport management, understanding the socio-demographic variables according to which attendance or motivation to attend may vary is of crucial importance as this understanding can serve the segmentation process. The influence of some socio-demographic variables (gender, ethnicity, Household's income, family size, residence area, etc.) on attendance or motivation to attend or view sport has been studied in literature.

Lera-López and Rapún-Gárate (2007) analysed the socio-demographic determinants of consumer expenditures i n sport, and suggested that they were determined among other parameters by gender, education, income, and professional category.

As for gender, Fink, Trail and Anderson (2002) found differences in present and future behaviours as well as in attendance between male and female intercollegiate basketball fans. Concerning teams' genders, Fink, Trail and Anderson (2002a gender and team difference) found huge differences in present and future consumption behaviours and in attendance between the fans of male sport and those of female sport.

With regard to ethnicity, Harolle, Trail and Jameson (2009) compared factors influencing sport (professional baseball) attendance (family, children, friends, spouse, television advertisements, newspaper, radio, billboards, promotions, and an Hispanic Heritage promotion) and sport consumption behaviour (media consumption and past attendance) on Latino (127) and non-Latino (186) baseball fans in Florida. After two

separate multivariate analyses of variance, they identified no significant difference in consumption behaviour between Latinos and non-Latinos. However, t hey identified differences in factors influencing game attendance, especially in the opportunity to spend time with children and in the role of ongoing family and children's promotions in the attendance decision-making. Another important aspect was that ethnicity-specific events (like the Hispanic Heritage weekend) had a huge effect on Hispanic attendance. In terms of recommendations, they advised sport managers to increase spectator or viewer identification and BIRGing with their team by providing them with opportunities to connect to players (through autographs, for example). They also highlighted that, previous studies have shown the influence of family and children promotion no to be long-lasting.

Reanalysing the data from the study of Harrolle, Trail, and Jameson (2009), Harrolle, Trail, Rodriguez and Jordan (2010) analysed and compared the behavioural intentions (cognitive loyalty) and BIRGing of L atino and non- Latino baseball fans and found significant differences in these two concepts as used in the two groups.

After carrying out a metanalysis of 119 studies (involving a total of 172,142 participants) addressing factors affecting sporting event attendance, Kim, Magnusen, Kim, and Lee (2019) classified the factors affecting attendance to sporting events (mainly team sports) —that is, predictors of sport attendance— into three categories: fan-focused, relationship-focused and product-focused. They also identified four major moderators of sport attendance: sport level, culture, gender, and sample type.

Zhang et al. (2003) analysed the influence of socio-demographic variables (in this case, the variables investigated were gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, household size, household income, education, occupation, number of female children in the household, and number of male children in the household) on sport consumption behaviour in a women's professional basketball context and found that almost all these variables (with the exception of the number of female children in the household) were significantly associated with spectator participation.

2.4. Synthesis and Selection of Variables

From simple (in-line) to complex , several models have been implemented to describe, explain, and predict various aspects of the sport consumer's behaviour. Attendance, attendance intention, word-of-mouth, online media consumption, and online

media consumption intention could be predicted by points of attachment (Trail, Robinson, Dick and Gillentine, 2003; Cottingham et al., 2012), motives (Trail and James, 2001; Ridinger & Funk, 2006; Kim et al., 2008, 2009; Woo et al., 2009, Andrew et al., 2009; Cottingham, 2012a; Cottingham et al., 2014a,b), constraints (Trail et al., 2008), constraints and motives (Kim and Trail, 2010; Trail and Kim, 2011), team identification (Fink, Trail, Anderson, 2002b, Trail, Anderson and Fink, 2005), and motives, constraints, and context (Mayer & Hungenberg, 2020).

With regard to points of attachment, of the seven identified by Robinson and Trail (2002)—namely the player(s), the team(s), the coach(es), the university, the community, the sport, and the level, to which could be added national pride/identification (Kim et al., 2008; Yosaf et al., 2015), Cottingham et al. (2012) retained three points of attachment when analysing wheelchair rugby attendance: the attachments to the sport, the players, the disability community, which all together respectively explained 54.4% and 35.3% of variances in repatronage intentions and future online consumption . In our case, that is, Paralympic sport TV and online consumption, we decided to retain attachment to the disability community (Cottingham et al.,2012) and to replace attachment to the team (Cottingham et al.,2012) with national pride/identification (Kim et al., 2008), as Paralympic games involve a certain display of national identity (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001, 2012). We also decided to consider the attachment to the sport level, as Paralympic sport could be (and probably should be) considered high-performance disability sport (Schantz & Gilbert, 2012a,b).

With regard to constraints, out of the eleven dimensions investigated by Kim and Trail (2010), especially lack of knowledge, lack of success, lack of someone to attend with, lack of interest from others, parking, location, commitments, financial cost, leisure alternatives, sport entertainment alternatives, participant sport alternatives, and the several other venue-related constraints identified by Trail et al. (2008), we decided to retain for our model these constraints: lack of knowledge, lack of interest from others, sport entertainment alternatives and commitments.

We excluded all the venue-related constraints (parking, location, commitments, financial cost, and others from Trail et al., 2008) because, due to the Corona pandemic that broke out during our doctoral research, we were compelled to narrow the scope of our investigation to TV and online Paralympic sport consumption. As for other constraints that are not related to venues, we excluded the variables financial cost, lack of someone

to attend with, and participant sport alternatives because we thought these variables could be less impactful in the case of TV and online consumption.

As for the variable leisure alternatives, it could be relevant in our instance. However, we decided to exclude it because we are only interested in variables that might effectively foster or deter TV and online Paralympic sport consumption and which we could act upon in a marketing or sport management perspective. Since leisure alternatives are almost countless in today's world, we did not see what we could suggest from a marketing and sport management perspective to improve the position of Paralympic sport in its competition against leisure alternatives.

As for motives, from Trail and James (2001) to Mayer and Hungenberg (2020), a dozen dimensions have been postulated to account for motives for sport consumption. Cottingham (2012a) contextualized them in a disability sport attendance context into nine constructs : violence and aggression, knowledge acquisition, escape, social interaction, physical attractiveness, drama, inspiration, supercrip image, and physical skills/aesthetics.

Among these dimensions, some (e.g., violence and aggression) are very specific to the "wheelchair fraternity" (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001, 2012a,b), while others (e.g., physical attractiveness, inspiration, supercrip image, physical skills/aesthetics) are representations that are already captured and measured by our index of social representation. There are also dimensions (e.g., social interaction, knowledge acquisition) that refer to concepts reverse of which have already been chosen as constraints, and others (e.g., escape) that bespeak a specificity of Paralympic sport that should be captured by the affective dimension of attitude. Finally, the dimension "drama" seems too specific to those who have already had prior experience with Paralympic sport.

From the above, we decided to retain none of Cottingham's (2012a) dimensions for our analysis model.

However, the motive construct "media/publicity" that was used as a first-order construct pertaining to external motivators by Mayer and Hungenberg (2020) to predict minor league hockey attendance seemed to be completely relevant in our case (Paralympic sport media consumption). Although no significant relationship was proven, building on our theoretical developments on media influence (see the first section of the chapter 3) and on Trial's (2019) work on the influence of media and publicity, it seemed

useful for us to include this construct in our model, especially as we particularly address TV and online consumption behaviour.

Another construct that has been investigated as an external motivator by Mayer and Hungenberg (2020) is the first-order construct "promotions". However, this construct seem more pertinent for spectatorship (attendance) than for media consumption. On that basis, we chose not to retain this construct in our analysis model.

2.5. Changing Sport-Related Attitudes and Behaviour Through the Social Representation

Though there are not many, a few studies have studied the social representation of sport. Mrazek and Schäfer (1988) in were probably the first to question the social meaning of sport using a social representation-like approach. In research study they carried out in the USA and Germany (the Federal Republic of Germany at the time), they asked subjects to list the words that came to mind when thinking about sport. They analysed these word associations into six association-categories related to sport: training and effort, achievement and competition, game play and leisure, school, sports the subjects had in mind, and evaluations of the sports the subjects had in mind.

Apart from Mrazek and Schäfer's (1988) study, studies addressing the social representation of sport have traditionally been conducted by undertaking a comparative study of two groups. These groups have often differed by their nationality or their sporting status.

The first study of this type was that of Lacassagne, Bouchet, Weiss and Jebrane (2004), who carried out a comparative study of the social representation of sport in France and Morocco in a study with 212 students (120 from Morocco and 92 from France). Through repeated word associations (see the procedure in the article) and prototypical and similarity analyses based on the Kendal coefficient, they found that modern (competition, performance, training) and post-modern (leisure, wellbeing, pleasure, fun) values of sport were common to both groups, yet organised and structured differently. They found that in both countries the modern conception of sport was not given much value. In France, high performance was associated with doping rather than with effort. They also found that, while post-modern values were infiltrating competitive sport in France, modern values were infiltrating leisure sport in Morocco.

Two years later, Lacassagne, Pizzio and Jebrane (2006) investigated the social representations of sport of two groups of students, grouped according to whether they were sport practitioners or not (92 students from sport faculty and 152 business management students). Having harvested data through a repeated word association procedure (see the article), prototypical and similarity analyses (based on Kendal's coefficient) allowed the authors to show how sport was differently represented by sports faculty students and business management ones. Two clusters were found in the sport students' representation of sport: one associating leisure (our translation) with fun (our translation) and another comprising two blocks. One of these blocks associated training, competition and pleasure (our translation) and the other associated the elements performance (our translation), doping (our translation), football (our translation) and team (our translation).

Concerning the business management students, Lacassagne, Pizzio and Jebrane (2006) found that their social representation of sport contained two clusters: the first one comprised two blocks (or dimensions), one associating leisure with fun (our translation) and the other associating competition with training (our translation). The second cluster encompassed three hierarchical sub-clusters: a first associating the elements football and team (our translation), which was connected to a second cluster comprising the items health and collective, which was in turn connected to a third composed of the elements fatigue and effort (our translation).

From a comparative perspective, Lacassagne, Pizzio and Jebrane (2006) noted that competitive and leisure sports were common to both groups, and competition was central to both representations. They also found that, while for sport students competition was connected to both hedonism and doping (for high performance), for business management students it was more connected to effort and fatigue.

Another interesting study addressing the social representation of sport is that of Piermattéo, Dany and Lo Monaco (2014), who investigated through the theory of social representations the meaning of sport and performance for amateurs and professionals in a sample of 485 sport practitioners (421 amateurs and 65 professionals) through hierarchised word associations (3 words) (Abric, 2003). [The subjects were first requested to name three words, terms, or phrases that came to mind upon hearing the inductor word "sport". They were then requested to sort these three words according to how well they describe sport. The same procedure was done with the inductor word

"performance"]. Through p rototypical and factor analyses, the authors found that for amateurs the nucleus of the social representation of sport revolved around the associations pleasure/good time (our translation) and health/wellbeing (our translation), and the peripheral system was composed of the items self-enhancement (our translation), conviviality (our translation), and healthy body (our translation). Regarding professionals, they found that the core of the social representation was organised around the associations pleasure/good time (our translation) and the types of sport (football, swimming, tennis, etc.), and the peripheral system encompassed the items conviviality (our translation), competition (our translation) and values (our translation).

The same study was re-analysed by Piermatteo, Lo Monaco, Reymond, Eyraud and Dany (2018) with two slight differences: one regarding the population (counted as having 64 professionals rather than the previous 65), and the other regarding the data harvesting method (free rather than hierarchised association). Using prototypical and similarity analyse s, they found that hedonism and health were essential to the social representations of sport and performance for amateurs, while for professionals the social representations of sport and performance differed significantly from one another and from those of the non-practitioner group (health was not an important aspect of these representations), as sport was essentially represented by professionals in terms of hedonism and togetherness while performance was represented around the dyad effort/reward.

From this study, we understood that different groups may have totally different social representations of sport. This exemplifies the role of identity or identification in the shaping of social representations.

Most recently, Bert (2016) investigated the social representation of sport with a sample of 229 social science students (187 men and 42 women). Having harvested data through hierarchised evocations (5 words)(Abric, 2003), the subjects were first requested to list five words, terms, or phrases that came to their mind upon hearing the inductor word "sport". They were then requested to sort these five words according to how well they describe sport. A first prototypical analysis allowed them to hypothesize that the central nucleus of the social representation of sport might contain 3 elements ("health" (our translation), "well-being" (our translation), and "will" (our translation)), and that the peripheral system could be composed of 5 elements ("effort" (our translation), "muscle" (our translation), "fatigue" (our translation), "shape" (our

translation) and "unwind" (our translation)) (p.135). Hypothetically, t wo dimensions might be summoned by these students to represent sport. The first one, whose sense was central to the representation, envisioned sport as an object for "health" and "well-being", driven by "will". The second one, whose sense was peripheral to the representation, envisioned sport in terms of effort ("effort, "fatigue") involving the body ("muscle") that can help one to unwind ("unwind").

When dividing their sample into two groups according to the sporting status (practitioners vs non-practitioners), Bert (2016) found that for practitioners the central nucleus might contain less elements: the element "will" had left the central core to join the hypothetical peripheral system. The hypothetical peripheral system itself was reshaped and thickened, comprising a first periphery of "competition" (our translation), "effort" (our translation), and "training" (our translation), and a second periphery of "performance" (our translation), "will","shape" (our translation), "unwind" (our translation), and "pleasure" (our translation).

As for the group of non-practitioners, Bert (2016) found that the hypothetical central nucleus had thickened (relative to the social representation of sport of the whole sample) by the addition of a new element ("fatigue'), while the hypothetical peripheral system was totally reshaped and composed of "will", "muscle", "sweating", and "endurance" in the first periphery and "physical" alone in the second periphery.

After further categorical analyses (Verges, 1992, 1994) (with the help of 17 supplementary interviews) and implementing the attribute-challenge technique (Moliner, 1989, 2002), Bert (2016) identified a structure which was more accurate than the hypothetical one for each group (practitioners and non-practitioners).

Bert (2016) thus found the central nucleus of the social representation of sport by non-practitioners to be composed of three elements, especially "health" (our translation), "effort" (our translation), and "will" (our translation), and the peripheral zone to contain in its first periphery the elements "wellbeing" (our translation), " way out" (our translation), and "bodily beauty" (our translation), and in its second periphery the elements "leisure" (our translation), "sharing" (our translation) and "fun" (our translation).

As for the practitioners' group, Bert (2016) found the central nucleus of their social representation of sport to be composed of the following five elements: "effort" (our translation), "health" (our translation), "wellbeing" (our translation), "training" (our

translation), and "performance" (our translation), and the peripheral system to be composed in its first periphery of the elements "will" (our translation), "way out" (our translation) and leisure (our translation), and in its second periphery, "bodily beauty" (our translation), "sharing" (our translation), "fun" (our translation), and "flexibility" (our translation).

For the non-practitioners' group, Bert (2016) also studied different ways in which the transformation of the social representation was possible— in particular, by challenging an element of the central nucleus or reinforcing an element of the peripheral system.

As for the former, h e showed how pressure-free engagement with a double argument (first written, then spoken) conflicting the unconditionality of the peripheral element "will" (counter representational) in sport entailed a dissonance that led to the lasting transformation of their social representation of sport through the removal of the item "will" from the central nucleus, without however altering their attitudes, intentions, or behaviours. In this instance, the stability of attitudes, intentions and behaviours despite the transformation of the social representation is rather inconsistent with the works of Abric (1987, 1994a,b), Jodelet (1991), Dann (1992), and, Guimelli, Piermattéo, Lo Monaco, and Abric (2012), which demonstrated the dependence of behaviour on social representations. It is also inconsistent with the works of Moliner and Tafani (1997), Rateau (2000) and Tafani (2001), which demonstrated that attitudes depended on social representations.

With regard to the transformation of the social representation through the reinforcement of an element of the peripheral system, Bert (2016) showed in two studies how the reinforcement of the peripheral elements "performance" and "training" through pressure-free engagement with a double counter-representational argument bestowing a status of "unconditional element in sport" to the elements "performance" (in the first study) and "training" (in the second study) entailed the lasting migration of this element from the peripheral system to the central nucleus, hence transforming the social representation of sport of non-practitioners, which was consistent with the work of Renard and al. (2007). This transformation of the social representation entailed a change in attitude towards sport (attitudes were more positive). This finding is consistent with the works of Moliner and Tafani (1997), Rateau (2000), and Tafani (2001), which demonstrated that attitudes depended on social representations. However, it did not

entail any change in behaviour, which is inconsistent with the findings of Abric (1987, 1994 a,b), Jodelet (1991), Dann (1992), and Guimelli, Piermattéo, Lo Monaco, and Abric (2012), that demonstrated the dependence of behaviour on social representations.

In a further attempt to tamper with the social representation of sport of non-practitioners, Bret (2016) saw no change in attitudes, intentions, and behaviours through the reinforcement of the peripheral element "flexibility" (from the second periphery to the first periphery).

In a final attempt to investigate the effects on attitudes and behavioural intentions of the reinforcement of an element (the central element "effort") of the central nucleus in the representation (through a pressure-free double argument (written and spoken)), they found that it entailed a positive change in attitudes and behavioural intentions towards sport, as well as behaviours toward sport.

Some majors take away from Bert (2016) work were that (1) pressure-free double submission only entailed lasting changes within the representation when its central nucleus was altered, that is, a peripheral element reinforced to become a central one, or a central element reinforced to become even more central; (2) reinforcing a peripheral element though that pressure-free double submission, to the extent that it becomes a central elements entailed lasting pro-representational (new representation) attitudinal changes but not behavioural changes; and (3) reinforcing a central element through pressure-free double submission entailed pro-representational (new representation) changes in attitudes and behaviours.

CHAPTER IV: CULTURE AND CULTURAL CONTEXT(S)

This chapter aims at: (1) defining and presenting an overview on the concept of culture (2) presenting the cultural contexts of countries within which of inter-national work is carried out and (3) demonstrating the comparability of the three countries within which our work is carried out.

It is structured according to the table of contents below:

1. Cultures and Values

The concept of culture is currently used for various purposes in several fields of study. Yet, despite its wide use, this concept is quite complex and difficult to grasp as, on the one hand, according to the field in which it is used, it does not always carry the same meaning, and on the other, even within the same field, there is often little consensus about its content and structure.

In our case—that is, in the field of marketing drawn from social psychology—the notion of culture is regularly understood under the prisms of Hofstede (1980, 2001), Hofstede et al. (2021) and Schwartz (1992, 2006 a, 2008), (e.g., Nifadkar et Yi Ou , 2007; Livian, 2011; Tsui, Choi, Yoonjoung Heo and Law, 2015; Ballah, 2018).

Hofstede (1980, p.13), one of the most renowned scholars dedicating themselves to studying cultural differences, defines culture as the "*collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another*". Probably in order to be clearer and dissipate the ambiguity that this first definition could bring, he would later rephrase it and present culture as "*the collective programming of the mind that distinguished one group or category of people from another.*" (2001, p. 9).

Culture is very often contrasted with nature (Strathern, 1980; MacCormack & Strathern, 1980; Rosane, Arnold &Guha, 1999;). Unlike what is natural—related to one's nature—which one is born with, what is cultural—related to culture—is acquired in society(ies).

We can understand this contrast and Hofstede's definition of culture through an analogy: nature is like manufactured computers, all containing the same hardware but without any software installed, while cultures are sets of software to be installed on these computers according to buyer's requests. So, all the computers (people) contain the same hardware (nature), and a culture can be envisioned as a set of software specific to a buyer (a group), to the extent of differentiating this group from others.

Conceiving culture like that, it becomes self-evident that culture can influence perceptions, representations, attitudes, behaviours, tastes, and so on , and can be a relevant variable for explaining differences in perceptions between different groups or

individuals. Moscovici, the originator of the concept of social representations, recognized the importance of culture in shaping and structuring the social representation (Moscovici, 1976). So did Jodelet (1989) and several other social representations theorists (Van der Ver, 2000; Jodelet, 2002; Valsiner, 2003; Moscovici and Markova, 2006; Duveen; 2007; Jahoda, 1988, 2012; Moghaddam, 2012; Psaltis, 2012; Markova, 2012).

Hofstede (1980) postulated the dimensionality of culture that encompasses a certain number of cultural values— values here signifying *"broad tendencies to prefer certain states of affairs o ver others"* (Hofstede, 2001, p. 5)— and identified four dimensions: masculinity vs femininity, individual ism vs collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and power distance. These four dimensions were later complemented by short- vs long-term orientation (Hofstede, 1991) and indulgence vs restraint (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov 2010).

In our specific context (the study of perceptions, representations, attitudes and behaviors towards Paralympic sport), only the first three dimensions postulated by Hofstede (1980) were deemed pertinent for constituting an analysis framework. These dimensions are namely masculinity vs femininity, individualism vs collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance. To demonstrate the pertinence of these dimensions, a little overview of each of them is required.

➢   Masculinity vs femininity. Hofstede (1980, 2001, 2011) presents the dimension masculinity vs femininity as the extent to which group members generally prefer values that are traditionally bestowed on one or another gender. From this perspective, values like competitiveness, achievement, assertiveness are considered masculine, while cooperation, modesty and other social values are labelled feminine (Herbig & Dunphy, 1998, Balambo, 2013; Hernandez-Pozas (2019)). Hofstede (1980) has a dichotomous conception of masculinity and femininity. He presents these two cultural values as opposed and antinomic to each other. Thus, he suggests that the dimension "masculinity vs femininity " is a bipolar continuum opposing these two cultural values. As the notion of gender has increasingly become multi-faceted and complex, more elaborate models of masculinity and femininity have been developed. The most prominent of these new models are the Androgyny model—from the ancient Greek words "andro" (male) and "gyne" (female)—t   hat was developed by Hoffman (2011), and the Gender-identity

model developed by Spence (1985). Despite the general anachronism of Hofstede's (1980) understanding of masculinity and femininity, when describing masculinity, sexuality, and physicality as the three essential pillars of the framework through which marginality in sport could be analysed, Depauw et al (1993) and Depauw (1997) showed that the "old traditional" conception of masculinity and femininity is the most adapted for studying attitudes and behaviour related to disability sport. From this perspective, despite the fact that Hofstede's (1980, 2001) understanding of the cultural values masculinity and femininity and his dimensionalisation of these two constructs is falling into scientific oblivion, they however remain relevant for our study.

Hofstede (2011, P 12) compared some aspects feminine societies to masculine ones, and compiled the differences he found between the two types of societies into a table which we adapted into the table below:

Aspects of comparison	Feminine societies	Masculine societies
Social and emotional role	Poor gender-related differentiation	Strong gender-related differentiation
Values expected from men and women	Modesty, empathy and compassion expected from all, regardless of their gender.	Assertiveness, ambition expected from both genders, and much more from men.
Management of the work/family conflict	Rather balanced or inclined towards family	Inclined towards work
Ableism/disableism	Sympathy for the weak	Apology of the fittest
Fathers' and mothers' cognitive and affective orientations	Both fathers and mothers deal with facts and feelings	Fathers deal with facts, mothers with feelings
Attitudes and behaviours expected from girls and boys	Both boys and girls expected to be emotional and not reactional	Girls expected to be sentimental and emotive while boys should be reactional
Family size deciders	Mothers	Fathers
Women's leadership in politics	Common	Scarce

What religion focuses on	Self-centered religions	Divinity-centered religions
Attitudes and representations towards sexuality	Pragmatic attitudes towards sexuality: sex as a way of connecting.	Phantasmagorical attitudes about sexuality: Sex as a way of performing

Table 11 : Comparison between 2 types of societies (Hofstede, 2011)

From the table above, we can say that feminine societies are very inclusive, while masculine societies are more elitist and Darwinist. From this perspective, we can expect different views of disability, sport, and disability sport according to the feminine/masculine orientation of societies.

➢ Uncertainty avoidance: often wrongly amalgamated with risk avoidance, Hofstede's (1980, 2001, 2011) dimension of uncertainty avoidance bespeaks the ease with which fellows from a society generally cope with the unknown, the unforeseen or the unexpected. Building on this premise, societies are labelled with low or high uncertainty avoidance according to whether they cope with uncertainty with ease or difficulty respectively. Societies or groups with high uncertainty avoidance try to lessen the level of uncertainty (and therefore unforeseen situations) by establishing and enforcing strong laws and regulations (Hernandez-Pozas, 2019), while low uncertainty avoidance societies are less anxious about the unexpected and cope better with the daily unforeseen events.

Just as he did for the masculinity vs femininity dimension, Hofstede (2011) compared some aspects of weak uncertainty avoidance societies with strong uncertainty avoidance ones and compiled the differences he found between the two types of societies into a table which we adapted into the table below:

Aspect of comparison	Societies with weak uncertainly avoidance	Societies with strong uncertainly avoidance
Coping with uncertainty	Unforeseen situations are non-deterministic and not to be fought; rather, group members reactions towards unforeseen situations are to be mastered (self-control).	Unforeseen situations are understood as deterministic threats to be fought against.

Ease	Higher subjective life quality, lower level of stress and anxiety.	Poorer subjective life quality, higher levels of stress, anxiety and neuroticism.
Acceptance of deviance	Acceptance of deviance and curiosity towards difference.	Aversion for deviance, deviant people, phenomena or situations perceived as dangers.
Completeness	No need for completeness in laws, regulations and structure. Comfort with ambiguity.	Need for completeness and clarity in laws, regulations and structure. Aversion to ambiguity.
Education	Teachers are not expected to possess the ultimate truth about everything.	Teachers are expected to possess the ultimate truth about everything.
Relationship or rules	Aversion to rules.	Comfort with rules and regulations.
Change	Change is not a problem.	Change is disliked.
Religion and philosophy	Relativism, empiricism, atheism.	Theism, dogmatism.

Table 12 Differences between 2 types of societies (Hofstede, 2011)

The table above presents societies with weak uncertainty avoidance as welcoming to new phenomena, practices, and strangeness, and societies with strong uncertainty avoidance as very hermetic, avoiding new phenomena, practices, and strangeness. From that perspective, views about disability and disability sport may differ according to the uncertainty avoidance difference between societies.

➢ Individualism vs collectivism: Hofstede's (1980, 2001, 2011) dimension of individualism vs collectivism bespeaks the strength of ties between the members of a society. Hofstede (2011) compared some aspects of individualistic societies with those of collectivistic ones and compiled them into a table from which we adapted the one below:

Aspects of comparison	Individualistic societies	Collectivistic societies

The "I" vs the "We"	The "I" prevails over the "We".	The "We" prevails over the "I".
Individual vs group	Groups expect little to no loyalty from individuals.	Groups expect a lot of loyalty from their members.
Outspokenness	Being outspoken is welcomed and encouraged.	Saying what is socially and politically correct is welcomed.
Autonomy vs dependence	People are very autonomous.	People are very dependent on the group(s).
Answerability	People are answerable to themselves.	People are answerable to the group.
Scope of fates	One's fate is in one's own hands.	The group's fate is one's own fate.

Table 13 Comparison between individualistic and collectivistic societies (Hofstede, 2011)

We have seen in the chapter I that among other models of disability, there are individualistic models and collectivistic ones. In the same chapter we showed how these two different models of disability generated different perceptions, representations, and attitudes about disability sport. From table 13 above we can build the assumption that individualistic societies are very likely to illustrate individualistic models of disability, just as collectivistic societies are likely to illustrate collectivistic models of disability; we can reasonably postulate a difference of perceptions, representations and attitudes about disability sport according to the individualistic/ collectivistic difference between societies.

Another interesting framework for analysing perceptions, representations, attitudes and behaviours towards Paralympic sport is that of Schwartz (1994, 2006b, 2006c) . With his theory of cultural differences, Schwartz (1994, 2006b, 2006c) partitioned the cultural universe into seven cultural orientations: harmony, embeddedness, hierarchy, mastery, affective autonomy, intellectual autonomy and

egalitarism, which he gave a circular structure to and dimensionalised into three dimensions.

As for the nature of these cultural orientations, the table 14 below (adapted from Schwartz, 2014, p. 552) gives a synoptic view of the definition of each of the seven cultural orientations on the basis of Schwartz' (1994, 2006a) theory of cultural differences.

Cultural value orientations	Elaboration
Harmony	Bespeaks how much the culture or the society fosters unity and comfort with nature and acceptance of the world "as it is".
	With specific regard to disability sport, societies that are more oriented towards harmony might theoretically foster an understanding of disability as a fate that should be accepted. So, for these societies Paralympic sport could be seen as a refusal or denial of disability and could be treated accordingly. That is, there could be a difference of perception, representation, and attitudes towards Paralympic sport according to how "harmony-oriented" the society is.
Embeddedness	Bespeaks the extent to which a culture or society pursues, values and somehow enforces social order, obedience and respect of traditions.
	From this perspective, disability is very likely to be envisioned under the traditional medical model in societies with a high level of embeddedness, and Paralympic sport envisioned accordingly. The preceding illustrates a way in which representations and attitudes towards Paralympic sport in a given society could be related to how "embeddedness-oriented" this society is.
Hierarchy	Bespeaks the extent to which a society or culture is welcoming to authority and the unequal distribution of power.
	With respect to disability, in societies that are more oriented towards hierarchy, the oppression of people with disabilities could be socially legitimate, and this social legitimisation of the oppression of people

	with disability could entail a certain set of representations and attitudes towards disability sport. Thus, representations and attitudes towards disability sport in some given societies could also vary according to how hierarchy-oriented this society are.
Mastery	Bespeaks the extent to which the society or the culture encourages ambition, daring and assertiveness. Mastery-oriented societies could theoretically encourage people with disability to assert themselves, to dare and aspire to achieve big endeavours, (including high- performance sport. In other words, disability sport is theoretically likely to be very welcomed in mastery-oriented societies. Thus, representation and attitudes towards disability sport are also theoretically likely to vary according to how mastery-oriented the societies are.
Intellectual autonomy	Bespeaks the extent to which members of a society are free and independent to construct and express their personal ideas, opinions and thoughts. In intellectual autonomy–oriented society, norms and traditions are considered of little importance and little effect. Such societies allow a lot of space for strangeness, strange bodies, and strange practices. From this perspective, disability sport is likely to be very welcomed in such societies. So the extent to which a society is intellectual autonomy- oriented can influence how its members experience "strange" practices, such as disability sport.
Affective autonomy	Bespeaks the extent to which members of a society are free and independent in defining and expressing their likes and dislikes. As we illustrated how the orientation towards intellectual autonomy could influence how the members of a given society experience disability sport, the same goes for affective autonomy.
Egalitarism	Bespeaks the extent to which a society or group promotes social justice, equality between his members, and is refractory towards

unequal distributions of power. A society that promotes social justice is very likely to be inclusive towards people with disabilities. In such a society, sport is very likely to be a right for everyone, regardless of their ability or disability. From this perspective, the level of egalitarianism in a society could influence the way its members represent and react to Paralympic sport.

With regard to the structure of the cultural orientations, the figure 26 below presents the structure of cultural orientations according to (Schwartz, 2014, p 552)
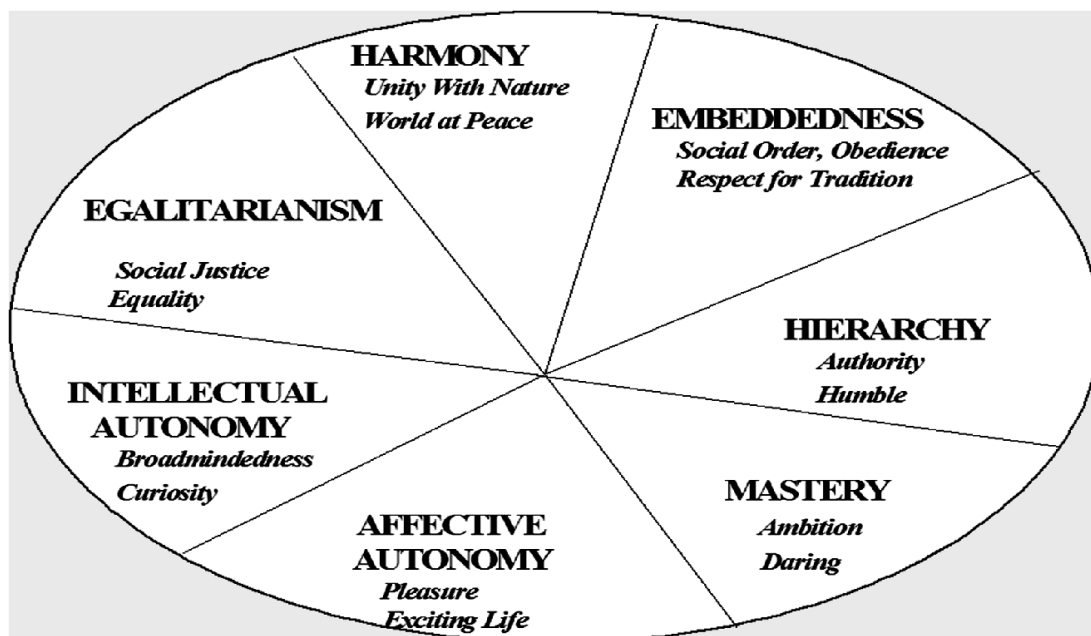
Figure 26 Cultural values orientation: theoretical structure (Schwartz, 2014, p. 552)

From the circular structure above, the dimensionalisation of cultural orientation is better understood. According to Schwartz' (1994, 2006b) circular structure, the closer that two cultural orientations are to one another in this structure, the more compatible they are; the further they are from one another, the more opposed they are. Following this logic, it becomes self-evident that cultural orientations which are diametrically opposed are contradictory and hence form a bipolar continuum. Following that logic, Schwartz (1994, 2006b) dimensionalised the cultural orientations into three bipolar dimensions: autonomy vs embeddedness, mastery vs harmony, and egalitarism vs hierarchy.

Schwartz (2006b) recognizes the result of interactions among values as predictors of attitudes and behaviours. As he himself puts it (p. 143), "The trade-off among relevant, competing values is what guides attitudes and behaviours".

As we did with Hofstede's cultural dimensions, it seemed important to us to demonstrate— or at the very least illustrate— in what way Schwartz' (1994, 2006b) cultural value orientations constitute a pertinent framework for analysing perceptions, representations, attitudes, and behaviour towards Paralympic sport.

Schwartz (2014) came up with a very interesting concept for cross-cultural studies: "cultural distance", which indicates how similar or different cultures are. He himself explains it as such: "The distance was the sum of the absolute differences between the pair of groups on each of the seven value orientations". For our study, understanding the cultural distances between the three countries concerned would help us to get an idea of the extent to which these countries are similar or dissimilar, and subsequently, how comparable they are from a cultural standpoint.

Though Hofstede (1980, 2001) and Schwartz' (1994, 2006b) cultural frameworks are pertinent for analysing perceptions, representations, attitudes, and behaviours towards Paralympic sport at a country level, they however fail to help us understand the inter-individual differences of perception, representation, attitudes, and behaviour.

Indeed Hofstede's (1980, 2001) definition of culture sport seems to us too deterministic to allow any room for personal subjectivity, as it refers to the notion of "collective programming". This definition tends to theoretically presume that all the members of a given society would experience some object in a certain manner, which is not the case. In contrast, our understanding, sustained by Livian (2011), is that instead of envisioning culture as collective programming, we could envision it as a "collective inclination"—that is, a collective proneness. Defining culture like that leaves room for other psychosocial constructs that affect perceptions, representations, attitudes, and behaviours, and makes it clear that all these constructs interact with one another and that it is ultimately the trade-off between them that really influences perceptions, representations, attitudes and behaviours.

Another striking limitation of Hofstede (1980, 2001) and Schwartz' (1994, 2006 b) idea(s) of culture is that they envisioned culture as a country-level concept. That is, they presented culture as if countries were culturally homogenous, and furthermore as if country borders were also cultural borders. To illustrate the preceding, Livian (2001)

reminds us that some countries like China and Brazil have been found to encompass up to four or five cultural regions.

The last shortcoming of the cultural frameworks we implemented to analyse Paralympic sport is they give no account of cosmopolitanism, migrations, and change, which are important phenomena since the three countries we are studying all contain a huge number of foreigners due either to their attractiveness or to migration crises.

Despite these shortcomings, Hofstede (1980) and Schwartz (1994) 's cultural frameworks have been used in marketing research (e.g., Steenkamp and Hofstede, 1999; Soares et al., 2007; Yaprak, 2008; Kirca and Hult, 2009; De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010, 2011; Soyez, 2012; Venaik and Brewer, 2013; Gao, 2017; Puska, 2020; Prince et al., 2020; Chowdhury et al., 2020), and provided in these instances valuable insights into the understanding of some culturally-influenced marketing phenomena. Therefore we intend no to oversee insights that the cultural aspects of French, German and Cameroonian societies could provide us with, in our attempt to describe, explain, and model attitudes and behaviours towards Paralympic sport consumption in these countries.

As our study could be said to mainly aim at understanding the individual differences in perception, attitudes, representations, and behaviour around Paralympic sport, it is also essential for us to adopt another framework through which we could analyse these phenomena. Schwartz' (1992, 2006a, 2012) theory of individual differences in universal human values seemed to us a relevant framework for analysing all the constructs we are studying around Paralympic sport, from the perspective of individual values.

1.1. Individual Values

The notion of value at an individual level has been studied by several scholars in the field of psychology. Among the most prominent scholars that have deepened the question of individual-level values are, chronologically, Spranger (1928), Kluckhohn (1951), Allport (1955), Morris (1956), Kluckhohn & Strodbeck (1961), Rokeach (1973) and Schwartz (1992, 2006 a); the latter is today's reference for individual-level values frameworks.

One's values simply refer to what one prefers (Morris 1956, p. 12), what is important in one's life (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987, 1990; Feather, 1990)—not in terms of objects, but rather in terms of pursuits, that is, what one believes is worth pursuing in one's life. That which is worth pursuing guides and determines the lifestyle of the pursuer

(Rokeach, 1973) and affects the decisions of individuals and even groups (Kluckhohn, 1951). One's pursuits the foundation of one's philosophy of life (Kluckhohn & Strodbeck, 1961). According to Schwartz (2012, overview, p 3), they are also used to "*characterize cultural groups, societies, and individuals, to trace change over time and explain the motivational bases of attitudes and behaviour*".

In a syncretisation of his predecessors (Spranger, 1928; Kluckhohn, 1951; Allport, 1955; Morris, 1956; Kluckhohn & S trodbeck, 1961; Rokeach, 1973), Schwartz (1992, 2006 a) distinguishes values from beliefs, goals, norms, and attitudes, despite some overlapping areas with each of these constructs. According to this distinction, values are beliefs, but not just any type of belief. They are specifically beliefs that are intertwined with affect and emotion (Schwartz 1992, 2012 overview, 2006 a). They refer to pursuits people struggle for— goals— and unlike attitudes and norms which are action- or situation-dependent, they are trans-situational and action-independent (Schwartz 1992, 2006 a, 2012). They also serve as references—more often unconsciously—according to which we decide what is doable or not, right or wrong, worthy or not (Schwartz 1992, 2006 a, 2012). From this latter perspective the bridge between values, perceptions and representations is quickly made. As we developed in the chapter II, perceptions and representations are coproductions between the experiencer and the object of experience. Values appear to be one of the prisms through which the experiencer experiences the objects of experience, that is, represents objects.

Values are ranked according to their importance in such a way that each person has their values profile, bespeaking the relative importance they give to each value (Schwartz 1992, 2006 a, 2012). This value profile, which Schwartz (2012 p. 4) calls a "trade-off among competing values", is what guides the person's attitudes and behaviours, more than each single value (Schwartz 1992, 2006 a, 2012).

1.2. From Individual Values to Basic Human Values Theory

Schwartz (1992, 2006a) postulated the universality of the nature and structure of human values. As for the nature, he identified ten universal values—universal because there are anchored in at least one of the "three universal requirements of human existence"*("These requirements are needs of individuals as biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction, and survival and welfare needs of groups")* (Schwartz, 2012, p. 4)—that he judged "*motivationally distinguishable*" (Fisher et al, 2010; p 138),

and within which the "*psychological universe of values could be partitioned*" (Fisher et al, 2010; p 138). He called these elementary values "basic human values" (Schwartz, 1992, p.12), and grossly defined them as "*trans-situational goals, varying in importance, which serve as guiding principles in the life of a person*" (Schwartz, 1994, p.21). As for the structure, he postulated a circular structure of basic human values, that is, a structure in which each human basic value is compatible to its "neighbouring" values, contradictory to values diametrically opposed to it, and unrelated to values that are neither neighbouring nor opposed to it. From this circular structure of basic human values was inferred their dimensionalisation into two bipolar dimensions. Values from the same pole can be pursued simultaneously without conflicting with one another, while values from opposed poles cannot be pursued simultaneously without conflicting with one another. According to the circular structure, the closer values are located to one another in the structure, the more compatible they are. Reversely, the further values are located from one another in the circle, the more they are antagonistic. Figure 27 and Table 15 and 16 present the nature and structure of Schwartz' (1992, 2006a) basic human values, along with their descriptions.

Dimensions	Poles	Description and relevance of the pole for disability sport
Openness to change **Vs** **Conservatism**	Openness to change	Encompassing three values (stimulation, self-direction, and some elements of hedonism), this pole fosters independence in thought, practices, actions, likes, and readiness for change. Openness to change is operationally a preference to experience what is out of the "traditional box", that is, deviant, new, or unknown phenomena—like Paralympic sport in our instance. It is theoretically a pro-Paralympic sport pole.
	Conservatism	Overarching three values, (security, tradition and conformity), this pole promotes the preservation of stability, the non-removability of traditional practices, and the repetition of existing pattern of thought. Conservation is, pragmatically among other preferences, a preference towards well- known situations and

		phenomena, that is, an aversion for novelties or recent phenomena—like Paralympic sport in our instance. It is theoretically a counter-Paralympic sport pole.
Self-transcendence Vs Self-enhancement	Self-transcendence	Composed of two values (universalism and benevolence), this pole spurs equality between humans and concern for other people's wellbeing. Self-transcendence is, practically among other preferences, a preference towards inclusivity and sympathy for the weak—people with disabilities in our instance. It is theoretically a pro-Paralympic sport pole.
	Self-enhancement	Encompassing three values (power, achievement, and some elements of hedonism), this pole fosters the prevalence of self over others, and the dominance and the control over the other. Self-enhancement is pragmatically a preference for self over others, hierarchical order in society, and assertiveness; that is, it is an apology for the fittest and leaves little room for helping the disadvantaged—people with disabilities in our instance . It is a counter-Paralympic sport pole.

Table 15 Description of Schwartz (1992, 2006a dimensions)

Poles	Basic human values	Description
Openness to change	Stimulation	Pursuit of excitement, change, novelty.
	Self-direction	Preference for autonomy and independence.
	Hedonism (some elements)	Pursuit of pleasure, synonymic to Dionysian and Bacchanal values.

Conservation	Security	Importance given to safety, social order and national security.
	Tradition	Preference for traditional patterns of thought and actions.
	Conformity	Pursuit of abidance by norms and standards, quest for normality.
Self-transcendence	Universalism	Pursuit of social justice, peace, harmony with creation. Very synonymic to spirituality.
	Benevolence	Pursuit of other others' wellbeing, honesty, loyalty and responsibility. Very synonymic to compassion.
Self-enhancement	Power	Preference for unequal distribution of power, resources, rights, and so on.
	Achievement	Pursuit of assertiveness, and success.
	Hedonism (some elements)	Pursuit of pleasure, synonymic to Dionysus and Bacchanal values.

Table 16 Nature and structure of basic human values (Schwartz, 2006)
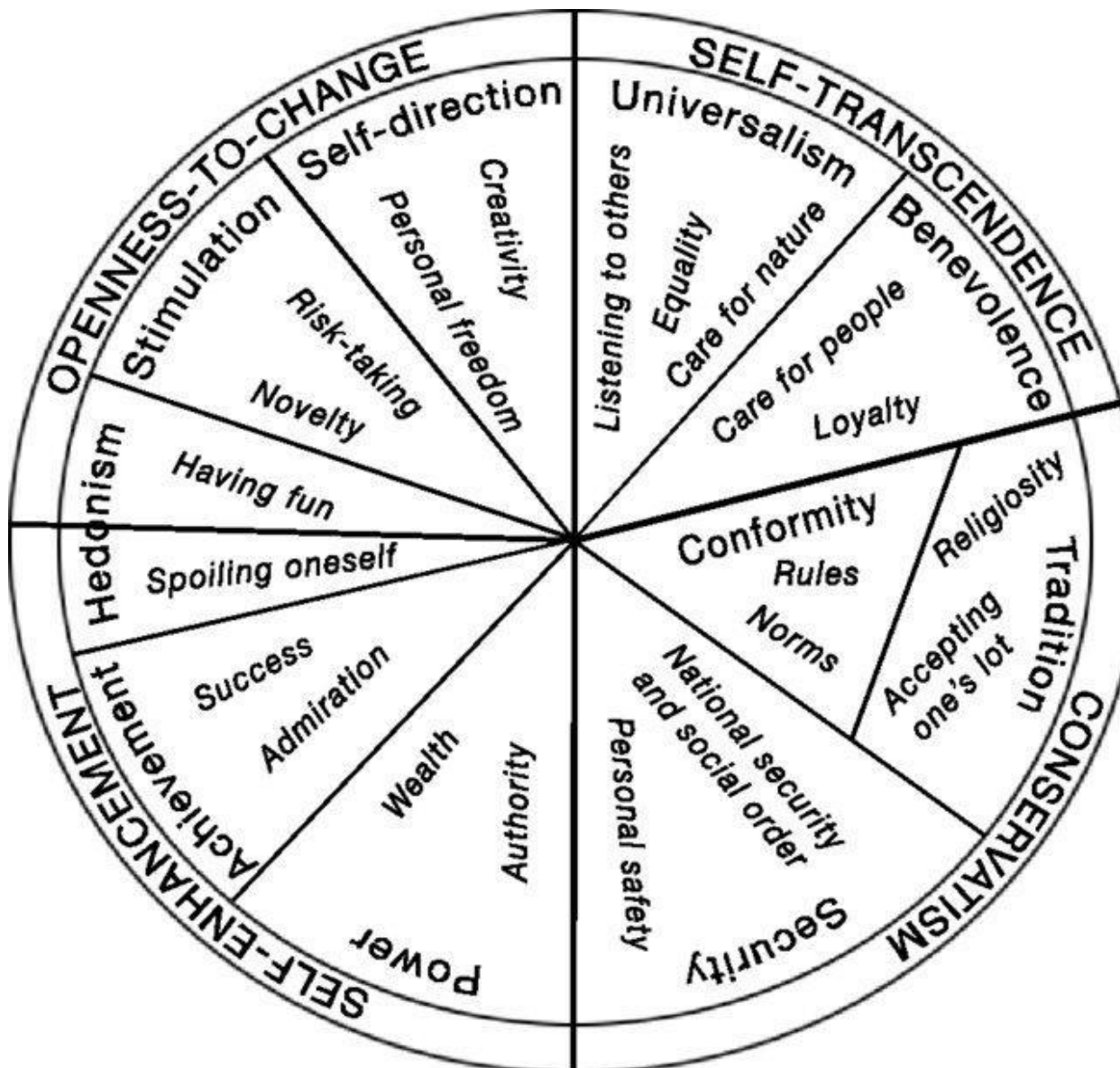
Figure 27 Nature and structure of basic human values (Chloe Lucas (2017, p. 8) based on Schwartz (2012, p. 12))

Schwartz' (1992, 2006 a) theory of basic human values has been used in the field of marketing for market segmentation. In that field, Choi et al. (2015) used Schwartz' (1992, 2006 a) basic human values to establish a typology of Chinese shopping tourists according to the values they pursue in their touristic activities. Hede et al. (2004) carried out a similar investigation for event attendants. Brunso et al. (2004) studied the relationship between basic human values and alimentary lifestyles, and concluded that basic human values can influence people's alimentary preferences. Chung and Heug (2007) showed how basic human values could, among other psychological constructs, influence consumers' tipping behaviour in the hospitality industry. Doran (2009) and Krystallis (2003) demonstrated that basic human values do influence purchasing decisions.

It seems theoretically valuable to us to adopt Schwartz' basic human values framework for analysing perceptions, representations, attitudes, and behaviours towards Paralympic sport. As Schwartz (2012 p. 4) himself warned that the "trade-off among competing values" is a better predictor of attitudes and behaviours than values taken individually or separately, we opt for assessing the two bipolar dimensions that bespeak the above-mentioned trade-off among values: openness to change vs conservation and self-transcendence vs self-enhancement.

1.3. Culture and Social Representations

Since the very origin of social representation theory, its originator Moscovici (1961) highlighted a certain consubstantiality—or at least relationship—between the notions of social representation and culture. This consubstantiality— or relationship— has been investigated by Jahoda (1988, 2012), Valsiner and Van der Ver (2000), Jodelet (2002), Valsiner (2003), Moscovici and Markova (2006), Duveen (2007), Moghaddam (2012), Psaltis (2012), Markova (2012) and several others.

According to Jodelet (2002), there are many reasons to articulate the study of social representations together with that of culture. Among those reasons, she refers to "the existence of a somewhat mutual originating relationship between the concepts of social (or collective) representation and culture" (our translation, P112) as the former was originally built upon and studied according to the latter.

Duveen (2007) and Jahoda (2012) describe the concepts of culture and social representation as "overlapping". Investigating the differences between these two concepts, Duveen (2007) posits that these concepts refer to "different levels of analysis" (P. 544), and that they only differ from one another in terms of "scale and scope" (p.544). Duveen's position on the question of the relationship between culture and social representation is that social representations (be they envisioned as processes or products) are elaborated with a cultural context; that is, a culture is somehow the cradle of social representations. In turn, this cradle itself is a representation of a type, a "broader network of representations held together as an organised whole by a community" (p. 545).

Given the close relationships (that Verges on overlapping) between the concepts of culture and social representation, we will take into account the cultural context in which

representations are shaped, as they could help us to understand the how and why of these representations.

2. General Presentations of Countries

2.1. Germany

Germany is the most populated country of the EU, with 83.2 million citizens ("*Statistisches Bundesamt*" German Office of Statistics, 2022). This country, stretching over 357,000 km^2, is also the strongest European economy and the fourth strongest in the world.

This country, with its Scandinavian influences (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001) is an interesting topic from a historical point of view for several reasons, including being the cradle of Protestantism in the 16th century, its numerous outstanding philosophers, and being directly involved in the two most devastating wars that mankind has known so far.

Unlike France, Germany had a very short (1884 – 1918) colonial history (as coloniser), as it was stripped away from its colonies – among which Cameroon – after losing the World War I.

German was the European country (assuming Russia is not one) that suffered the heaviest casualty and death toll during the World War II. We often assume that this high number of casualties included a high number of people impaired by the war and furnished at the dusk of the World war II a high potential for disability sport practice to Germany.

Germany has become host to the International Paralympic Committee (IPC), umbrella organisation of Paralympic sport in 1989.

2.1.1. German culture

For analysing the German culture, we used the same frameworks as we did when analysing French culture: the three dimensions of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) framework and the value priorities and trade-offs of Schwartz (1994, 2006 a).

2.1.1.1. Under Hofstede

The table 17 below presents the levels of individualism, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance in Germany.

Individualism	Masculinity	Uncertainty avoidance
67	66	65

Table 17 levels of individualism, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance in Germany (from Hofstede's cultural compass)

From the table above, we can see that Germany has a score of 67 on the individualism dimension. This hints that, just like France, Germany is a society in which the "I" prevails over the "we", the individual or family over the group. This lets us think that in Germany, people should be autonomous, as they can theoretically not rely too often on groups. This also bespeaks the idea that personal fates— like impairment or disability—are to be handled by the individual. On these premises, we can assert that this rather high level of individualism is theoretically detrimental for representations and attitudes towards disability sport.

As for the dimension of masculinity vs femininity , with a masculinity level of masculinity of 66 on Hofstede's scale (1980), Germany is rather a masculine society. This means that, in addition to the fact that Germany is an individualistic society, it is also an ableist society that makes an apology for the fittest and has no sympathy for the weak or vulnerable members (for example, people with disabilities), and allows gender-based differentiations in social and emotional roles. On the basis of the preceding , we can postulate that this more- than-average level of masculinity in German society is theoretically detrimental for representations and attitudes around Paralympic sport.

Regarding uncertainty avoidance, Germany's score of 65 on Hofstede's (1980) scale bespeaks German society's preference to avoid uncertainty. That is, it needs some completeness in its structures, regulations and practice. This means that German society is not welcoming to new or deviant practices like disability sport. From that angle, the more- than- average level of uncertainty avoidance is theoretically detrimental to representations and attitudes towards Paralympic sport.

To sum up, we can say that Germany is an individualistic and masculine society with an inclination for uncertainty avoidance. If we were to rank the importance of the cultural dimensions individualism, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance in German society, we would say that they are evenly important in German society, as they have almost the same scores on Hofstede's (1980, 2001) scale.

As we developed earlier, the German score in each of these three dimensions seemed detrimental to attitudes and representations towards disability sports. This means that from Hofstede's (1980, 2001, 2017) perspective, Germany is a disability sport disinclined society.

2.1.1.2. From Schwartz' (1994, 2006 a) perspectives

Just as we did with French society, we analysed the German society from Schwartz' (1994, 2006 a) perspective in terms of cultural priorities and the trade-offs of cultural orientations rather than the cultural orientations and values themselves.

The chart below indicates the trade-offs and cultural orientation priorities of German society from Schwartz' (1994, 2006 a) perspectives.
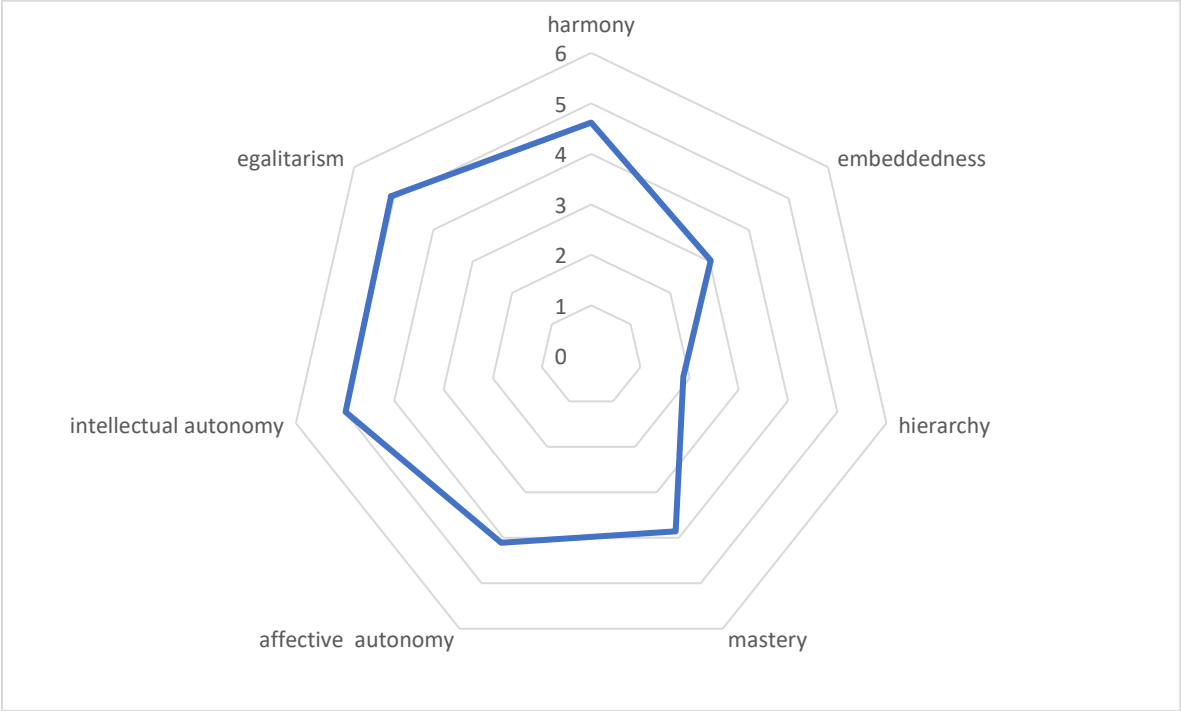
Figure 28 Trade-offs and cultural orientation priorities of German society, from Schwartz' (1994, 2006 a)

From the chart above, we can see that German society value priority is egalitarism, which is followed in the order of priorities by intellectual autonomy and harmony. The trade-off between the different cultural orientations is rather oriented toward egalitarism.

With high levels of egalitarism, intellectual autonomy and harmony, a very low level of hierarchy, and an average level of embeddedness, Germany as a society fits somewhat into what Schwartz (2006 a) himself describes as Western European culture.

Egalitarism and autonomy are disability sport prone cultural orientations, while hierarchy is disability sport disinclined. We can therefore assert that from Schwartz' (1994, 2006 a) cultural perspectives, the German cultural profile seemed quite prone for disability sport.

2.1.2. Disability Policies in Germany

It was outstandingly easy to find a detailed report on disability in Germany. According to the German Federal Office of Statistics "*Statistisches Bundesamt*" (2022), as of June 2020, 9.5% of the German population (around 7.9 million people) bore a heavy disability.

According to this same office, as of June 2020, 50.4% of people with (severe) disabilities in Germany were men and 49.6% were women. Of these 7.9 million people, 58% bore a physical or sensory impairment, 13% a mental impairment and 19% unspecified impairments.

We however did not question nor investigate the definition of the word "heavy" in the survey that yielded this result.

Disability rights are enshrined in the German constitution (Grundgesetz),, which prohibits any discrimination on the ground of disability. Germany ratified the UN convention on disability rights in 2008. Germany is also bound by EU laws, which include laws on disability rights since the EU ratified the UN convention on disability rights on January on March 30th, 2008.

2.1.3. The Sport System in Germany

Contrary to France where sport has traditionally been envisioned in terms of physicality and competition, that is, under its modern values; and Cameroon where sport refers to physical activities bequeathed by the colonisers, that is, under its post-colonial values, the German sport code (*Sportbericht der Bundesrepublik)* envisions sport as a complex phenomenon that could take one or many of its several facades, which can be summarised into modern and postmodern values.

Werkman (2017, 2021) distinguishes four main sectors according to which the German sport system can be analysed and understood. These sectors are namely "the public service of sport", "commercial sport", "organised sport", and "informal sport" (our translation from Werkmann, 2017, p. 71 and 2021, p. 7). As this title aims at showing how sport and Paralympic sport are institutionalised in Germany, we will only develop "the public service of sport" and "organised sport" in Germany.

2.1.3.1. The Public Service of Sport in Germany

By the phrase "*the public service of sport*", Werkmann (2017, 2021) refers to the involvement of public authorities in sports. The legal frame organising sport in Germany is very liberal. As matter of fact, there is no single sport-specific disposition or article in the German fundamental law (Grundgesetz), nor in the German federal law (Miege & Jappert, 2013). This legal vacuum stems from and/or is justified by the ruling non-interventionist policy of the federal government in sport-related issues. However, this federal and constitutional sport-specific legal loophole is filled by states' (Bundesländer) specific constitutions and laws which, apart from those of the state of Hamburg, all address the organisation of sport.

At a federal level – Country "*Bundes*" level–, the responsibility of controlling sport is vested to the ministry of interior, building and community (*Bundesministerium des Innern*). However, the involvement of the federal government in sport-related issues or sport organisation is very limited and scarce because in Germany the microcosm of sports "enjoys a huge organisational freedom free from government involvement" (the German's parliament's scientific office, 2019, p.4, our translation) unless the sporting movement or a sporting organisation presents a threat for individual or collective rights, or becomes unable to solve its own problems or fulfil its missions autonomously (P. 5).

Even in the rare instances when the involvement of German government in sport is enabled (due to the circumstances mentioned above), this involvement is quite decentralized according to the federal political system in place in Germany. As a matter of fact, in Germany, most of the legal, administrative, and financial sport-related public prerogatives are vested to states (*Länder* in German), which are highly autonomous regions (the German's parliament's scientific office, 2019). With the income from federal

resources, and taxes from gambling businesses, the states (L*änder*) allot around 700 million euros every year to support mass sports (Miege & Jappert, 2013).

These states are merely in charge of making sure the self-organised sporting movement abides by German by-laws in the fulfilment of its self-decided missions, and to help this sporting movement or the associations composing it when they happen not to be able to fulfil their missions. This help could be financial (directly through a money transfer, or indirectly through tax exoneration), infrastructural (through the construction or renovation of venues and arenas), or material (through help in the purchase of sporting material) (the German's parliament's scientific office, 2019).

However, it is worth mentioning that, despite the high autonomy of the German sporting movement, there are some aspects in which the federal government through the ministry of interior, building and community (*Bundesministerium des Innern*) partakes in the decision-making process and provides de facto partial or total funding. These aspects are, among others, high-performance sport and federal sport-related scientific research.

In the instance of high-performance sport, the federal government funds it and follows it very closely as it contributes to the international reputation of Germany and its international sovereignty among other nations (the German's parliament's scientific office, 2019). Around 180 million euros (0.07% of the federal budget) is allotted by the federal government (Bundesregierung) every year to support elite sport (Miege & Jappert, 2013).

As for sport-related federal scientific research, there are ample federal sport-related scientific research programs that aim at deepening the understanding of various aspects of sport performance in order to support the German high-performance sport sector (the German parliament's scientific office, 2019). The National Institute Of Sport Sciences (*Bundesinstitut für Sportwissenschaft*) in charge of the coordination of research works on different aspects of sport belongs to the ministry whose competencies include sport, that is, the ministry of interior, building and community (Bundesministerium des Innern).

Other major contributors that have not been much addressed in the literature are cities ("Stadt"). Through the maintenance of sporting venues and financial support to associations and athletes, they strongly support sport at all levels from the grassroots to the elite, at an estimated amount nearing three billion euros per year (Miege & Jappert, 2013).

Benevolent donators supporting sport are also higher in number in Germany than in the other countries. Through their donations made directly to federations; they contribute to strengthening the autonomy of the sporting movement.

In an attempt to summarise the public service of sport in Germany, Rentzsch (2018 in Werkmann, 2021) noted that the public service of sport in Germany is governed by two principles: the "Subsidiarität" and the "Selbst-Verwaltung" (p.8). While the latter bespeaks the fact that the sporting movement is self-organised, self-governed and decides its by-laws and fixes its problems itself, the former refers to the fact that only in case of the inability of the sporting movement (or sporting associations composing it) to fix its problems or to fulfil its missions, would the public service get involved in the concerned aspect of sport. The chart 5 below summarized the structure of the public service to sport in Germany. The figure 29 presents a synoptic view of the public service of sport in Germany

Country level	• Ministry of Interior (*Bundesministerium des Innern*)	Local entities
Regional level	• Ministries of regions (*Länderministerien*)	Regions (*Länder*)
Divisional and city levels	sport offices (*Sport Ämter*)	Divisions (*Bezirke,Kreis*) cities (*Städte*)
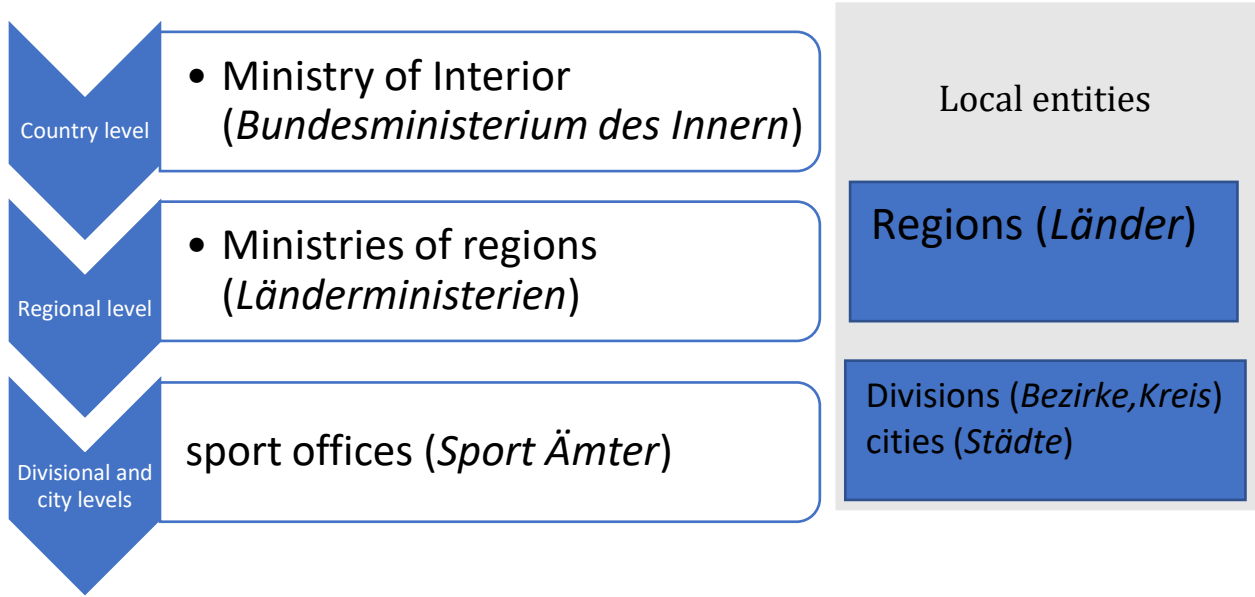
Figure 29 Synoptic view of the public service of sport in Germany

2.1.3.2. The (Self) Organised Sport in Germany

In Germany, (self) organised sport is a sort of giant pyramid, the base of which is composed of 27 million indirect members organised into 91,000 voluntary sports clubs sporting associations imbricated into metropolitan (or divisional), regional and finally national associations according to three paths, and capped by the German Olympic Sporting Confederation (our translation from "*Deutscher Olympischer Sportbund*").

Born in 2006 from the merger of the German Olympic Committee ("*Nationales Olympisches Komitee für Deutschland*") and the German Sport Union ("*Deutscher Sportbund*"), the German Olympic and Sporting Confederation is the most important of all the structures organising and operating sport in Germany (Miege & Jappert, 2013).

According to Heinemann (2007), beyond the regular roles vested to the national Olympic committee by the Olympic charter, the German Olympic and sporting committee assumes three other major functions.

One of these is the role of coordination, support (with wherewithal) and representation: the German Olympic and Sporting Confederation coordinates and supports the non-commercial sports (apart from informal sport) in Germany. It also represents German sport locally and internationally. This function has been referred to in the literature as (service function) "Dienstleistungsfunktion" (Heinemann, 2007, P.141).

The two other major roles include uniformly developing sport in Germany while abiding by the country's by-laws ("Ordnungsfunktion") (HeinemaNN, 2007, P.141), and counselling its member organisations in their decision-m aking and management processes (Programmfunktion") (Heinemann, 2007, P.141).

As we said earlier, all the 91,000 sporting associations forming the German sporting movement converge in the German Olympic and sporting movement according to three paths, namely the path of regional Olympic and sporting associations (structuring the self-organised sport at state levels), the path of national and regional sport-specific associations (structuring particular sports at country or state levels), and the path of national associations with specific missions.

Werkmann (2021) provided us with a further insight into each of these paths:

The path of national and regional sport-specific associations is composed of the 66 sport-specific national federations capped by the German Olympic and Sporting Confederation. Just as they are capped by the German national committee, these 66 federations trickle down to regional leagues or associations at state levels, and to cities and local leagues or associations at metropolitan and local levels.

The path of regional Olympic and sporting associations is composed of the 16 sub-structures that represent the German Olympic and Sport Confederation at regional levels (in the 16 "Länder").

The path of national association with specific missions is mainly composed of member associations of the German Olympic and Sporting Confederation whose main missions address sport-related education, research, health, etc.

In order to provide a synoptic picture of the sports system in Germany, Miege & Jappert (2013) depicted it as liberal and presented some key statistics (an average number of 297 Germans per club and 0.26 club per square meter across the German territory). The chart 6 below summarises the structure of the self-organised sport in Germany.
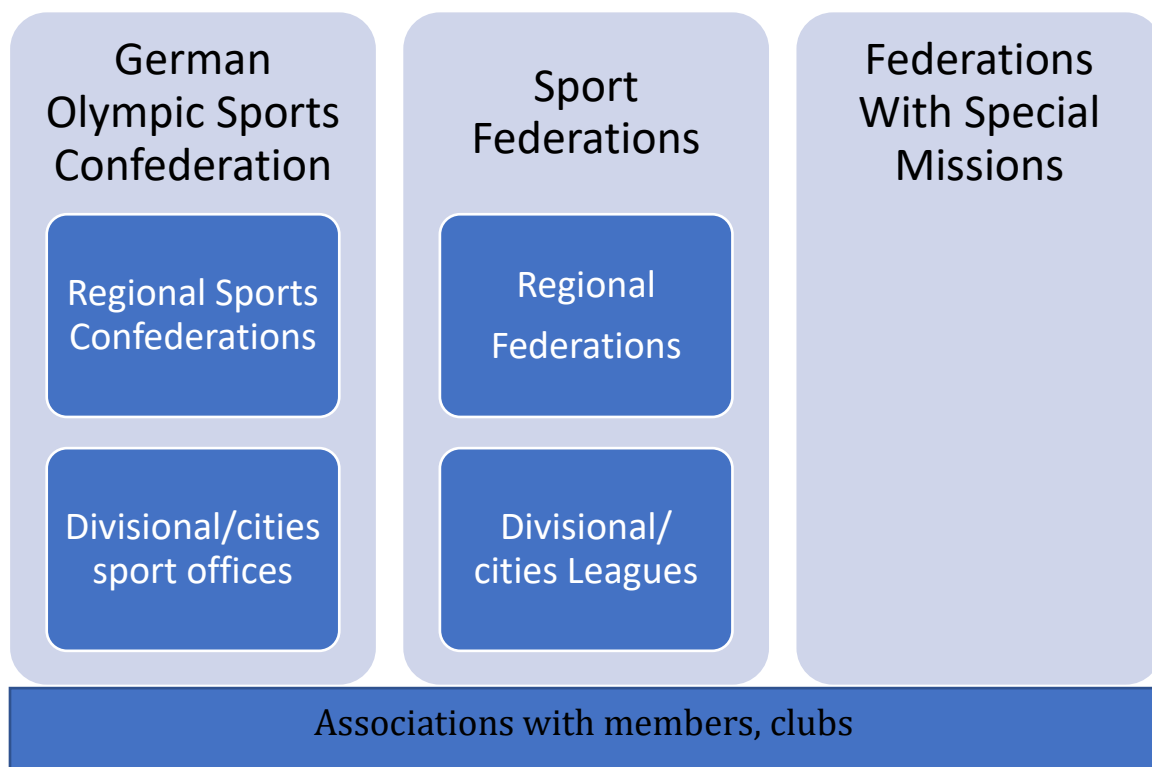
Figure 30 Structure of the self-organised sport in Germany, From Werkmann (2021, p.14)

2.1.3.3. The German Paralympic Committee.

The German Paralympic committee is embodied by the "*Deutscher Behindertensportverband*" , the German Federation for Disability Sport. The committee also happens to be a federation. It is one of the 66 German sport federations capped by the German National Olympic and Sporting Confederation. As all the other national federations, the German Paralympic committee's structure trickles down into 16 regional sub-structures (according to the 16 regions composing the federal republic of Germany).

Each of these state-level substructures encompasses metropolitan and city-level associations.

The German Paralympic committee encompasses 6500 para-sporting associations, gathering over 600,000 members (source, *Deutscher Behindertensportverband, 2022)*

The funding pattern of Paralympic sport is similar to that of "regular sport", with the exception of possible subventions from the International Paralympic Committee (IPC).

2.1.3.4. Germany in the Paralympic Games.

Germany has participated in all the winter and summer editions of the Paralympics Games since Rome 1960. Since the summer Paralympics of Barcelona in 1992 and the winter Paralympic of Tignes, Albertville in 1922, Germany has been participating in Paralympics Games under the country name "Germany". Prior to that, although Germany was divided into East and West Germany (from the end of World War II until November 11th 1989), West Germany— that is, the Federal Republic of Germany— consistently participated in Paralympic games summer and winter editions (from Rome 1960 until Seoul 1988 for summer Paralympics, and from Ornskoldsvik 1976 till Innsbruck 1988 for winter Paralympics). It is also worth mentioning the participation of East Germany—that is, the Democratic Republic of Germany— in the New York & Stoke Mandeville 1984 Paralympics.

When counting the medals of Germany (both East and West), Germany is fourth in the all-time summer Paralympics gold medal ranking (since Rome 1960) with 521 gold medals, and third in the all-time total medal ranking of summer Paralympics games, with 1550 medals. As for winter Paralympics, Germany is first in the all-time ranking of winter Paralympics gold medals with 141 gold medals, and first in the all-time total medals ranking of winter Paralympics with 384 medals.

2.1.3.5.   Media broadcasting of Paralympic games in Germany

According to the German website sportschau.de (consulted on January 4 th 2023), the German TV channels ARD and ZDF broadcast several hundred of live coverage of Olympic games during Tokyo Olympics. Above this TV coverage, the website estimates to 1500 hours, the volume of internet streaming live coverage of Tokyo (2021) Olympics on

the German online platforms ARD-Mediathek and HbbTV. This same website estimates to 60 hours the amount of liv coverage allotted to Paralympic games by these German media. We found no estimate for the German audience of Tokyo (2021) Olympics, nor did we find any for the Tokyo (2021) Paralympics.

2.2. France

Of the three countries, France is certainly the most difficult to present as it was until recently (less than 70 years ago) more of an empire than a country, or a sort of country-empire, or empire-country, from a historical, political and cultural point a view. Harari (2015, p.165) defines an empire as any political territory — whether emerging from military conquests or not— that encompasses a certain number of culturally different people and territories, and whose borders are flexible (with an "unlimited appetite").

From that perspective, France is thus a former country-empire, whose motherland is metropolitan France and the capital Paris, the oldest territory being metropolitan France, and the newest being the Indian Ocean "*Éparses*" Islands— 53.19 square kilometres— which were officially added to French "territories" in 2018 with the appointment of a French administrator by French authorities. Once stretching up to 12 million square kilometres (until the middle of the 20th century), the French empire-c ountry today encompasses only 675,000 square kilometres, and stretches over four continents: Europe (551,500 square kilometres), Africa, Asia and America.

According to the French National Institute of Statistics (INSEE, 2019), there are 67 million people living in France: 64.8 million in metropolitan France and 2.2 million living in other French territories (mainly Guadeloupe, Martinique, Reunion, and Mayotte). These numbers include foreigners legally residing in France but do not consider illegal and undeclared residents. The same source also indicates that 50% of the French population is less than 40 years old, which represents a huge potential for sport. Another interesting fact is that this population is rather evenly constituted of men and women. As for disability, the French National Institute of Statistics (INSEE, 2019) estimated the ratio of people with disability in the French population at one fifth. Although the ratio of young

French people with disabilities is still unclear, this ratio seems to bespeak a rather high potential for the practice of disability sport.

As for ethnicity/race, ethnical/racial statistics are prohibited in France. An ethnical survey of France's population was alluded to in 2007 but was declared unconstitutional by the French constitutional council. Since then, no other endeavour of this type has been recorded.

The French constitution states in its first article that France is an "indivisible, secular, democratic and social republic" and claims the "…equality of all citizens without any discrimination based on origin, race, or religion…". This probably explains why, even in the frame of a research study, questions about political belonging, religion, ethnicity or race are very sensitive and unwelcomed in France. Despite the sensitivity to questions of origin, race and religion in France, France was however often depicted by several scholars (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001, p. 86; Duhamel, 1989; Munch, 1993 1993, Chua, 2018,) as a Catholic, white-dominated and Latin-influenced country.

Chua (2018) provided ethnical, racial, religious, and political overviews of France, and the French population. She found the French population to be mostly composed of white Caucasians —in the U.S understanding of Caucasian –, but noticed that, besides this majority, France also harbours Arabic, Black, Berber and Asian minorities. As for religion, she presented Catholicism as the most widespread and accepted religion in France, and Islam and Judaism as religious minorities. As for political power, according to her it is retained by a dominant White Catholic majority. She also noticed several social oppressions in France, especially that of the White majority on minority groups (Black and Arabic), and that of the Catholic majority on religious minorities (Jewish, Muslim). She connects these oppressions to the fact that the French identity is defined by the dominant White Catholic group, which expects all of the minorities not to integrate, but instead to assimilate. Chua (2018) finds this concept of assimilation to be the embodiment of the oppression of the White Catholic dominant group on all the minorities. Apart from the oppression described by Chua (2018), the high frequency of strikes in France could also bespeak an oppression of French employers on the French working class, or simply the French people's sensivity to social issues.

As for the French economy, it is among the largest in Europe (third, just after Germany and the UK in 2019) (World Bank, 2019). In 2017, France had a human development index of 0,901, which ranks it 36th in the world and hints a good level of

knowledge and education, a decent level of life, good access to health, and a rather prolonged lifespan.

With regard to sport, the most popular sports in France are football (2 million affiliated practitioners), tennis (1.1 million affiliated practitioners), horse riding (705 thousand affiliated practitioners), judo, basketball, handball, rugby (at XV) and golf.

2.2.1. French Culture

In accordance with the theoretical and critical developments we made about culture (see the first section of this chapter), we will present French culture according to Hofstede (1980, 2001)—from whom we retained only three dimensions : individualism vs collectivism, masculinity vs femininity, and uncertainty avoidance—and Schwartz (1994, 2006 a)— in which we chose to analyse in terms of trade-offs   between all the dimensions, rather than analysing each dimension separately – .

2.2.1.1. According to Hofstede

The table 18 below presents the levels of individualism, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance in France

Individualism	Masculinity	Uncertainty avoidance
71	43	86

Table 18 levels of individualism, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance in France (from Hofstede cultural compass)

From the table above, we can see that France has a score of 71 on the individualism dimension. This hints that France is a society within which the "I" prevails over the "we"— the individual or family over the group. This lets us think that in France people should be autonomous, as they can theoretically not rely too often on groups. This also bespeaks the fact that personal fates— like impairment or disability— are to be handled by the individual. Based on the premises above, we can assert that this rather high level of individualism is theoretically detrimental for representations and attitudes towards disability sport.

As for the dimension of masculinity vs femininity , with a masculinity level of 43 on Hofstede's scale (1980), France is a rather feminine society. This means that, though France is an individualistic society, it has a huge sympathy for the weak or vulnerable

members—for the instance, people with disabilities—and does not allow gender-based differentiations in social and emotional roles. On the basis of the preceding, we can postulate that this average level of femininity is theoretically positive for representations and attitudes towards Paralympic sport.

Regarding uncertainly avoidance, France's score of 86 on Hofstede's (1980) scale suggests that French society very much prefers to avoid uncertainty. That is, it needs completeness in its structures, regulations and practices. This means that French society is very unwelcoming to new or deviant practices like disability sport. From that angle, this very high level of uncertainty avoidance is theoretically detrimental to representations and attitudes towards Paralympic sport.

To sum up, we can say that France is an individualistic and feminine society with a high inclination for uncertainty avoidance. If we were to rank these cultural dimensions in France, we would say that uncertainty avoidance is the dominant cultural dimension valued in France, followed by individualism and then by femininity . As the latter is disability sport prone, while the two formers are disability sport disinclined, we can conclude that seen through Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions prism, France as a society is rather disinclined to disability sport.

2.2.1.2. From Schwartz' (1994, 2006 a) Perspectives

As we developed earlier, we chose to analyse the cultural priorities and the trade-off of cultural orientations rather the orientations themselves. From this perspective, the chart below indicates the trade-offs and cultural orientation priorities of French society, from Schwartz' (1994, 2006 a) perspectives. The chart below presents the value priorities and trade-offs of Schwartz' (1994, 2006 a) value orientations.
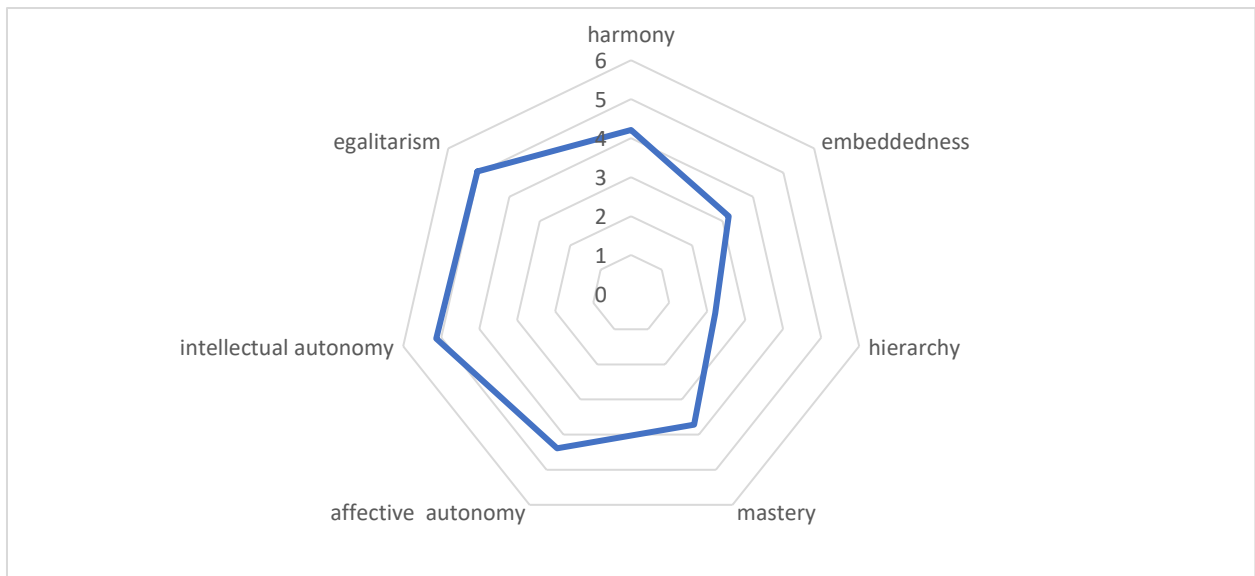
Figure 31 Value priorities and trade-offs of Schwartz' (1994, 2006 a) value orientations.

From the chart above, we can see that French society's value priorities are intellectual autonomy, followed by egalitarism, affective autonomy and harmony. The trade-offs   between the different cultural orientations is organised to show their global orientation toward egalitarism and autonomy. Such a cultural profile with high values of egalitarism and autonomy and low values of embeddedness and hierarchy corresponds somewhat to what Schwartz (2008) defines as typical Western European culture. Referring to the definitions and relevance of each of the cultural orientations that we provided in the first section of chapter IV, it is self-evident that egalitarism and autonomy are disability sport prone cultural orientations, while embeddedness and hierarchy are disability sport disinclined. Thus, we can assert that from Schwartz' (1994, 2006 a) cultural perspectives, the cultural profile of France is quite prone for disability sport.

2.2.2. Disability Policies in France

It was somewhat difficult to access recent statistics of disability in France. The most recent statistics we found dated from 2007. The French National Statistics Office (INSEE) carried out a census including disability in 2007. They found that 24% of the French active population (from 14 to 64 years old) —that is, 9.6 million people— are disabled or at least bearers of an impairment. Of these, 54% were women and 46% were men. Among these people of an active age with an impairment, 42% bore a single impairment, 20% bore two impairments, 17% bore three impairments and 20% bore more than 3 impairments.

On February 11th 2005 a law for the equality of rights, chances, participation and citizenship for people with disabilities' was legislated. Greco (2015) showed how this law triggered cultural and representational changes toward disability and people with disabilities in France.

France also ratified the UN convention on disability rights (adopted by the UN general assembly on December 13th, 2006) on March 20th 2010.

France is also bound by EU laws, which include laws on disability rights as the EU ratified the UN convention on disability rights on March 30th 2007.

2.2.3. The Sport System in France

In the French scientific tradition, the word sport seems to refer exclusively to physical, competitive activities (Parlebas, 1981, 1999, 2005), that is, grounded in modern values.

The framework (Werkmann, 2021) we used when analysing the sport system in Germany can be used to analyse the sport system in France. That is, the sport system in France can also be divided into "public service of sport", "commercial sport", and "organised sport" (known in France as "sporting movement", literally from "*movement sportif*").

Several laws (legislated by the French national assembly and senate) and governmental decisions frame the French sport system. Most of these laws are compiled in the French sport code. Some aspects of this sport code change rather frequently according to what wing (left, right or centre) wins the legislative or senatorial elections and the magnitude of this wing (moderate or extreme). Governmental decisions change even more frequently than the laws, according to the presidential election winner's political wing and choices.

Just as we did in the German instance, we will only develop two of these aspects: the public service of sport and the sporting movement.

2.2.3.1. The Public Service of Sport in France.

Building on the laws organising sport In France (*code du sport*) and on presidential and governmental decisions enforcing or completing these laws, Miege and Jappert (2013), Scelles (2017), Honta (2020), Attali and Bazoge (2021) and Kohe et al. (2021)

provided a synthetic account of the public service of sport in France, upon which (the account) this section is based. Several public stakeholders are involved in the shaping and the functioning of the sport system in France, including the Government, the regional councils, the divisional councils, and the city offices.

The mission of overseeing the organisation of sports in France is vested to the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, which fulfils this mission with the help of two strong tools, namely "accreditation" ("*agrément*" in French) and "delegation". While the former bespeaks the permission given by the government to a federation or sporting organisation encompassing other organisations, the role of which is to carry out activities related to a particular at a national level, the latter is an authorisation to act on behalf of the government in all the matters related to that sport by the respective federation or sporting organisation.

Only accredited federations are allowed to carry out activities related to the sport for which they were accredited on the national territory. Further, only federations which have been given delegation benefit from governmental support. This support takes various forms, including human resources (1600 sport specialists under the government payroll but working for the federations), financial support to the federations entrusted with the mission of public service through the "delegation" [987 million euros (salaries not included) and 1.024 billion euros (salaries included) in 2022], (CROS Nouvelle Acquitaine, 2021) infrastructures and elite sport training and development centres, sport development through the national sport development centre, medical and anti-doping follow-ups of elite athletes, overseeing the education of sport professionals, and creating patterns for sport-related diplomas to be consistent with and relevant for the labour market.

At a governmental level, the public service of sport trickles down from the sports ministry to clubs through regional (the regional direction of sports) and subdivisional (the subdivisional direction of sports) representatives of the sports ministry.

After the government come the regional councils, who are vested with the mission of building and maintaining sport facilities in high schools, giving subventions to clubs, associations and city offices. After the regional councils come the divisional councils, who are vested with the missions of funding clubs and sporting associations and building and maintaining sporting facilities in secondary schools. At the most local levels we find city councils, whose offices are in charge of building and maintaining sporting facilities for

nurseries and primary schools, funding clubs and sporting associations, and ensuring the safety of sporting venues. In some instances, cities create city offices for sport to carry out the aforementioned missions and support the general sporting development of the city. The chart 7 presents a synoptic view of the public service of sport in France

Country level	• Ministry of sports	Local entities
Regional level	• Regional Divisions of sports	Regional councils
Divisional and city levels	• Divisional divisions of sports	Regional councils , divisional councils, cities councils
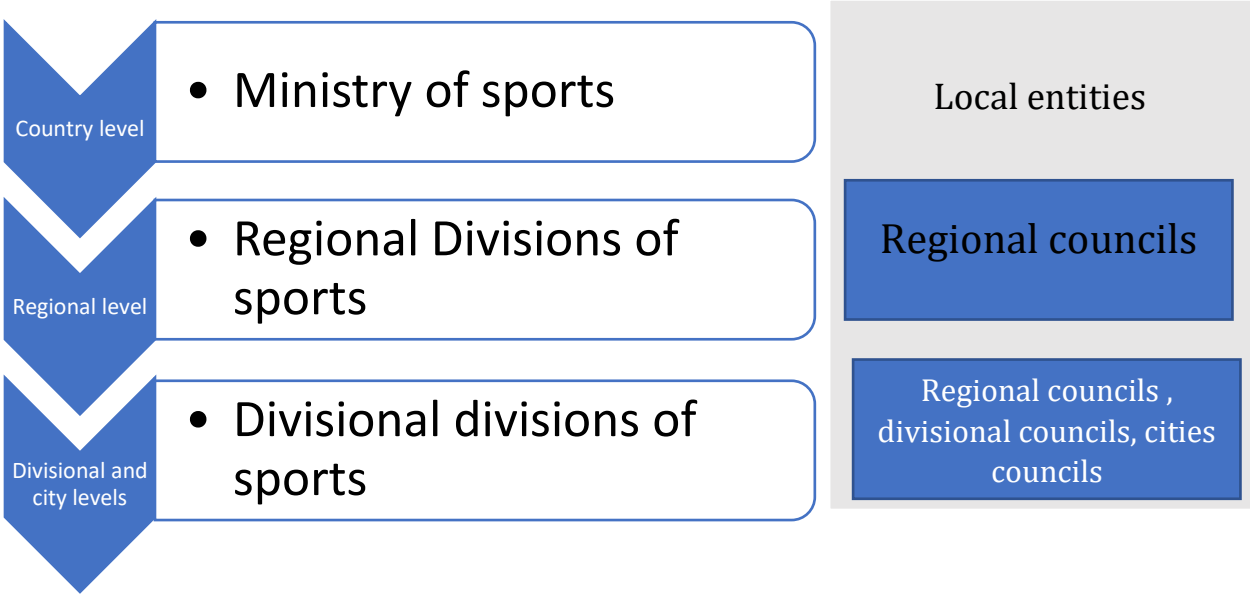
Figure 32 Synoptic view of the public service of sport in France

2.2.3.2. The Sporting Movement

In 2017, France counted around 307,500 sporting associations organised into 115 sporting federations and 23 national associations (France Olympique , CRDLA, 2022). Of these latter sporting federations and national associations, some are Olympic and /or Paralympic and pertain to the Olympic and/or the Paralympic movement.

2.2.3.2.1. The Olympic movement

In France, the Olympic movement includes the national Olympic and sporting committee and its representatives at the regional and subdivisional levels, and the federal system which includes the 36 Olympic federations and their representations and member associations at the regional, subdivisional and city levels. It also includes some non-Olympic but associated federations. In 2017 a total of 180,000 sporting associations were part of the French Olympic movement. The chart 8 presents a synoptic view of the Olympic movement in France

country level	
National Olympic and Sporting Committee	National Federations

regional level	
Regional Olympic and Sporting Committees	Regional Leagues

divisional and city levels	
Divisional Olympic and Sporting Committee	Divisional leagues, Associations, Clubs
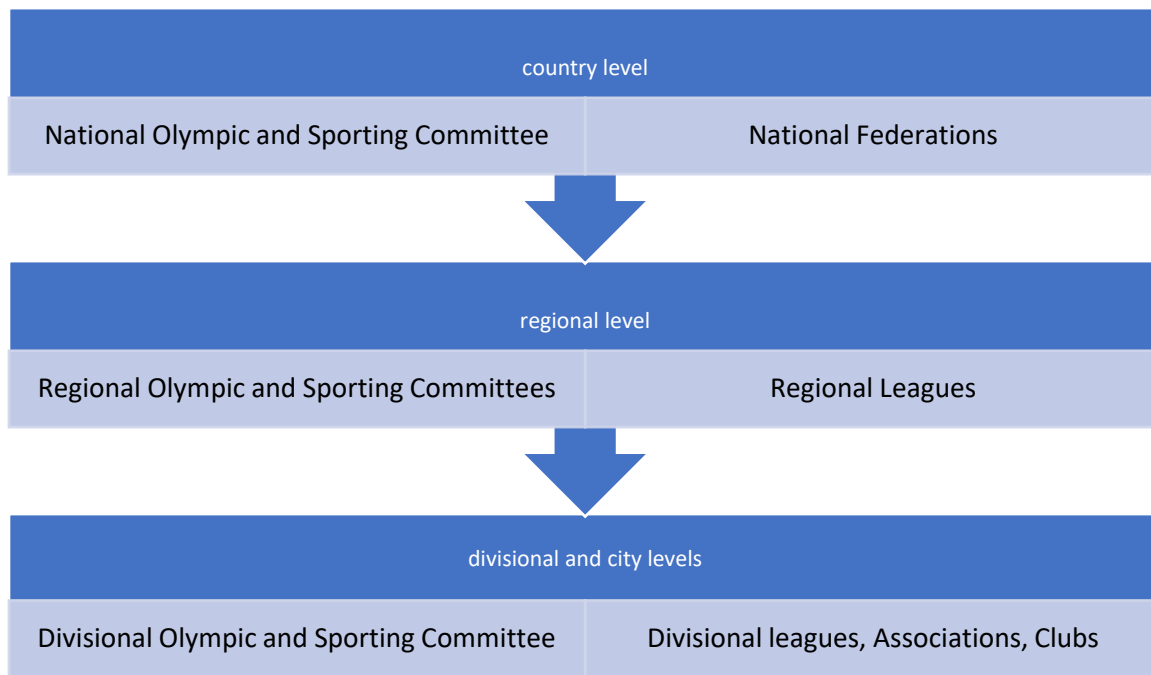
Figure 33 Synoptic view of the Olympic movement in France

Unlike in the German instance, affiliated (to the national Olympic and sporting committee) federations are answerable to two entities: at an administrative and legal level they are answerable to the sport ministry that gave them the accreditation and eventually the delegation. At an Olympic and sporting level, they are answerable to the national Olympic and sporting committee.

It is mandatory for all the sporting federations in France to be accredited by the Ministry in charge of sports. The accreditation is a sort of authorisation to operate and carry out activities (in strict accordance with the country's by-laws). After the accreditation, a sporting federation can also receive a delegation, that is, a public service mission, from the government (the sport ministry). Such a delegation entrusts the concerned federation with all the administrative and technical matters related to the sport of which it is a representative, at a national and international scale. It also enables federations to receive funding from the government for the organisation of the given sport.

2.2.3.2.2. The Para-Sporting Movement

Just as we defined the sporting movement, a para- sporting movement can be identified in France. This movement is composed of the National Paralympic Committee, its constitutive, affiliated or associated federations and associations, and their member

associations. The chart 9 below presents a synoptic view of the French Paralympic movement

country level	
National Paralympic Committee	Founding, Paralympic, and affiliated Federations

regional level	
Regional Paralympic Committees	Regional Leagues

divisional and city levels	
Still inexistent	Divisional leagues, Associations, Clubs
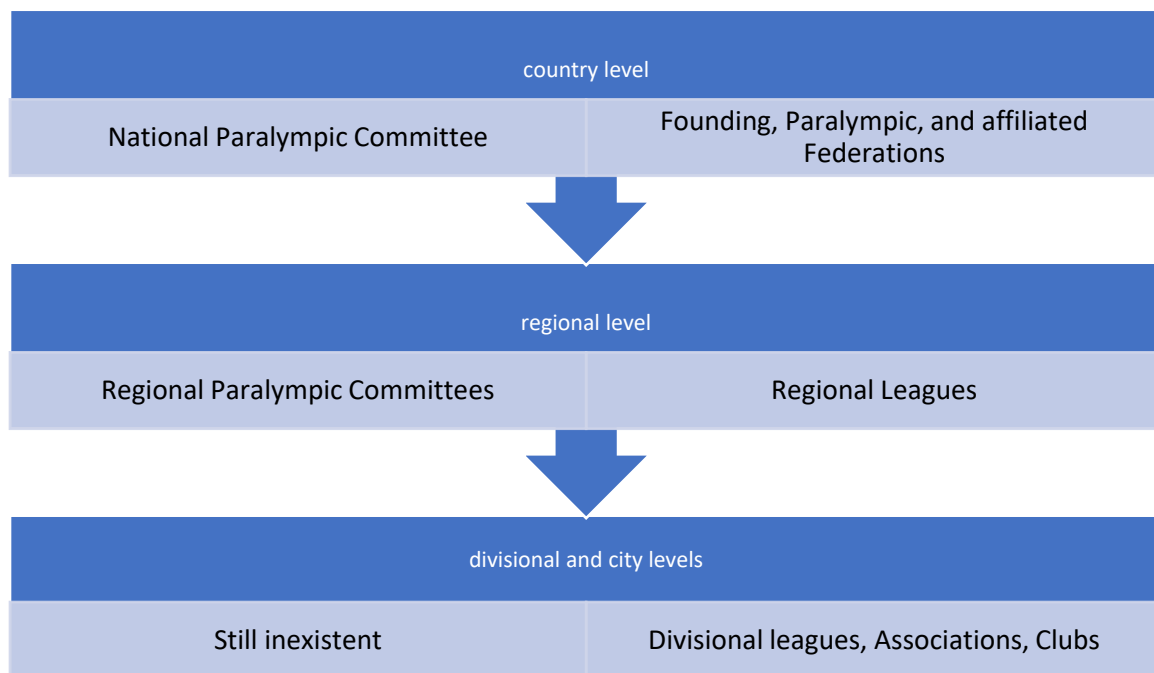
Figure 34 Synoptic view of the French Paralympic movement

The federations constituting the para- sporting movement are answerable at a Paralympic and sporting level to the National P aralympic Committee, and at an administrative (accreditation and delegation) level to the ministry of sports.

There is a sort of hierarchy between the member federations constituting the French Paralympic committee. One can easily distinguish between:

➢ The founding members, especially the sporting federation for people with motor or sensory impairments (the "Federation Française Handisport") and the sporting federation for people with intellectual impairments (the "*Federation Française de Sport Adapté")*. These founding members are the working hands of the national P aralympic committee.

➢ The Paralympic sporting federations, that is, those recognised by the National Paralympic Committee as such.

➢ The associated sporting federations and associations, that is, those that are not (yet) recognised by the National Paralympic Committee's Paralympic federations, but which nonetheless cooperate with the National Paralympic Committee (for the organisation of events, for example).

The French National Paralympic committee encompasses 2700 clubs and/or disability sporting associations (1400 for the "Federation Française Handisport" and 1300 for the "Federation Française de Sport Adapté".). T hese 2700 clubs and/or associations gather a total of 100,000 sporting licence holders and 210,000 disability sport practitioners.

In an attempt to provide a synoptic view of the sport structure in France, Miège and Jappert (2013) defined it as "interventionist".

2.2.3.3. France in the Paralympics

Since the very first "official" editions of the Summer Paralympics in Rome, 1960, and the Winter Paralympics in Ornskoldsvik, 1976, France has consistently participated in all the winter and summer editions of the Paralympics.

France is ranked 7th both in the all-time rankings of gold medals and total medals won during summer Paralympics. France is also ranked 7th in the all-time ranking of gold medals won during winter Paralympics, and 8th in the all-time total medal ranking of winter Paralympics.

2.2.3.4. Media Broadcasting of Paralympic Games in France

According to its own website (consulted on January 4th 2023), France Televisions (the French office for public TV) offered 100 hours of Tokyo (2021) Paralympics broadcasting, of which 8 hours of live. This broadcasting was watched at least one minute per day by 4.44 million French TV viewers, for a total French audience of 24 million (of which 4.4 million daily) TV viewers (with a viewing time threshold of one minute) at the end of the Paralympic games (mediatrie, 2021). Although this amount of Paralympic covering remains far from the 650 hours allotted to it Olympic counterpart by the same office, for a total audience of 50 million TV viewers (with a viewing time threshold of one minute).

2.3. Cameroon

Mballa (2021) provided us with a good account of a brief history and overview of Cameroon. Cameroon is an African country populated with 27 million people, among which 80% are French-speaking and 20% English-speaking. What is known today as Cameroon stems from several interactions with and colonisations by foreign powers.

In prelude to the 1884' Berlin conference on colonisation, Germany colonised "*Kamerun*" in early months of the year 1884. They laid the first pillars of (western) political, economic, cultural and sporting policies for the colony.

After the German's defeat in the World War I, the "Society of Nation" stripped Germany from all its colonies – including Kamerun –, and attributed Kamerun, which became Cameroon to France and UK. This is how France and the UK built on the pillars laid by Germany to further establish a political, economic, cultural and sporting system in the colony Cameroon. As most of the English-ruled part of Cameroon was later attached to the neighbouring country Nigeria, France later became the main colonial actor in establishing a western-ruled political, economic, cultural, and sporting system.

The above is to mean that Cameroon's culture, economic, political, and social organisation is the result of the encounters between the several colonisers and the pre-existing – before the colonisations – cultural, economic, political and social structures.

Cameroonian culture

For analysing the Cameroonian culture, we used the same frameworks as we did when analysing French culture: the three dimensions of Hofstede (1980, 2001) and the framework of value priorities and trade-offs of Schwartz (1994, 2006 a).

2.3.1. From Hofstede's Perspective

It was difficult to analyse Cameroon from Hofstede's perspective because the country was not included in Hofstede's original study. Different attempts (Ongodo, 2004; Global Economics Researchomatic, 2012; Djamen et al., 2020; Barczyk et al., 2021;) to carry out Hofstede's study in the Cameroonian context yielded different results. For that reason, we decided not to analyse Cameroon from Hofstede's perspective.

2.3.2. From Schwartz' (2008) Perspective
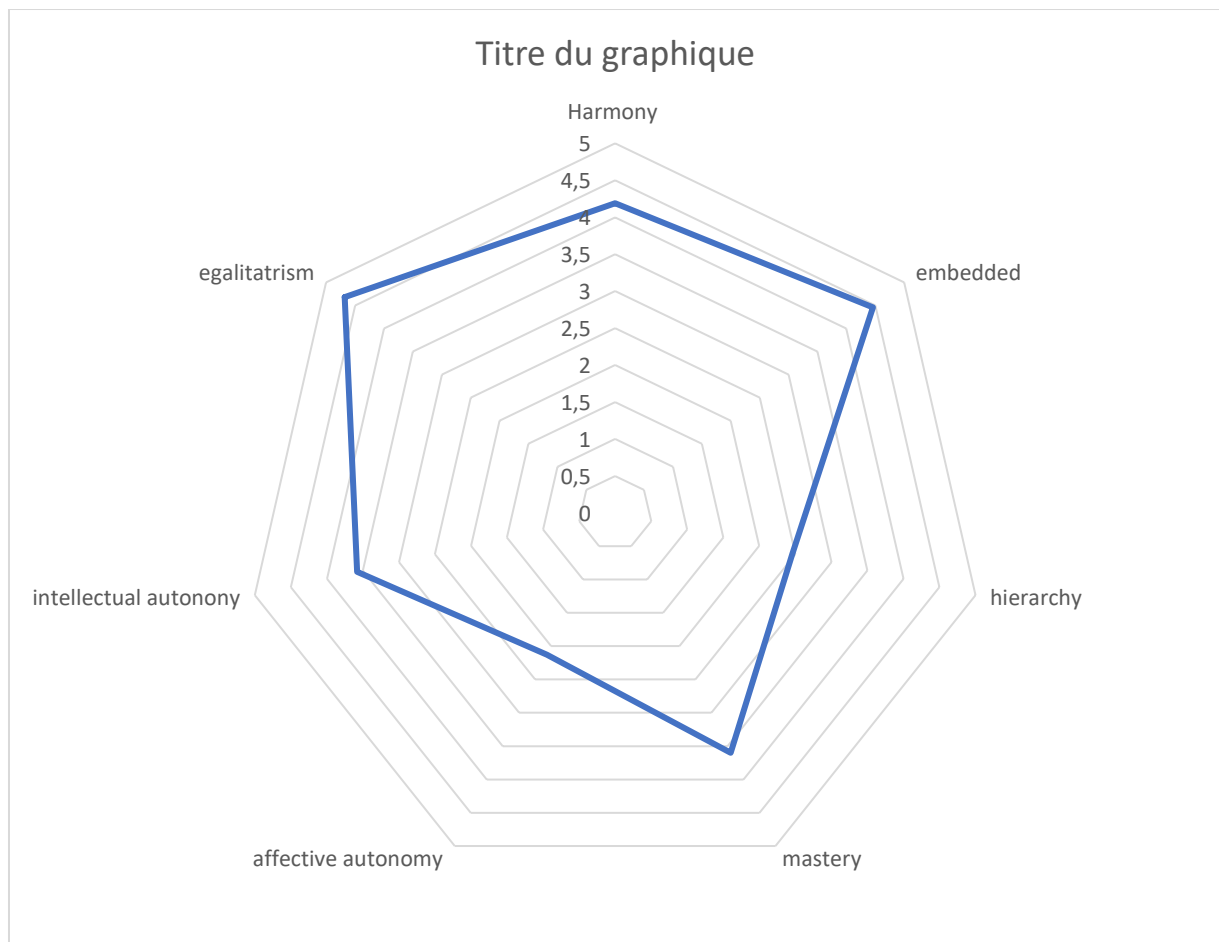
Figure 35 The 7 Schwartz cultural value orientation scores for Cameroon, France and Germany (Schwartz, 2006b)

The trade-off of cultural orientations from Schwartz' (1994, 2006 a) perspective is oriented toward egalitarianism, embeddedness, and harmony.

While egalitarianism and harmony are disability sport prone, embeddedness is disability sport disinclined. Based on the preceding, we can postulate that from Schwartz' (1994, 2006 a) perspective, Cameroonian society is somewhat disability sport prone.

2.3.3. Disability Policies in Cameroon

Up to the moment of writing these lines (March 2022), there was no credible national survey on disability in Cameroon. Some estimations however situate the proportion of people with disabilities in Cameroon at around 5 to 10% (Mactaggart, 2016).

The evolution of disability-related policies has been quite slow in Cameroon, as evidenced by the fact that this country only ratified the UN convention on disability rights

on December 28th, 2021 (that is, 15 years after the convention was adopted by the UN general assembly). Despite this rather slow evolution of the disability status, Cameroon however stands out in terms of disability policies when we compare it to the other countries of the African continent. For example, until February 2022, Cameroon was one of only two African countries that had ratified the African Disability Protocol adopted by the African Union general assembly in 2018.

2.3.4. The Structure of Sport in Cameroon

In Cameroon, the word sport refers to corporal practices that were imported during the colonisations, first by Germans, and later by French. This is epitomized by the recent sport code (2018) that clearly distinguishes before traditional corporal practices – that is, corporal practices that pre dated the colonisations –, and sport – envisioned as imported practices bequeathed by the colonisers –. Even the "creolised" (Sirot, 2014) versions of these imported sporting practices are not considered sports.

Werkmann's (2017, 2021) framework can be applied to the analysis of the structure of sport in Cameroon. In that regard, we can also distinguish between four sectors: the public service of sport, organised sport (conceptualised as the sporting movement), commercial sport and self-organised sport.

Just as we did in the instances of France and Germany, we will only analyse the public service of sports and the sporting (and para-sporting) movement in Cameroon.

2.3.4.1 The Public Service of Sports

The latest law organising sport in Cameroon was legislated by the Cameroonian national assembly in 2018 and promulgated in that same year. According to it, the creation and functioning of any sporting club or federation is subject to the accreditation of the sports ministry. This law confirms the very noticeable grip exerted by the sport ministry on the whole sporting movement in Cameroon.

The public service of sport in Cameroon is not only very "controlling", but also very centralised ((Mballa, 2021),), as local entities— like cities, regional and subdivisional councils —are not really involved in the operation of sports (Mballa, 2021), although they are also officially entrusted with the mission of funding and supporting sports at all levels by the 2018 law.

The sports ministry which is still till today almost the only public actor of sport trickles down into the regional directions of sports, which in turn trickle down at subdivisional and metropolitan levels into the subdivisional and metropolitan services of sports.

For the year 2022, a budget of 37.6 million euros was allotted to the Cameroonian ministry of sport and physical education. But this budget was exceptionally high because of the African Football Cup of Nations that was to be organized in Cameroon this year. The chart 11 below presents the structure of public service to sport in Cameroon
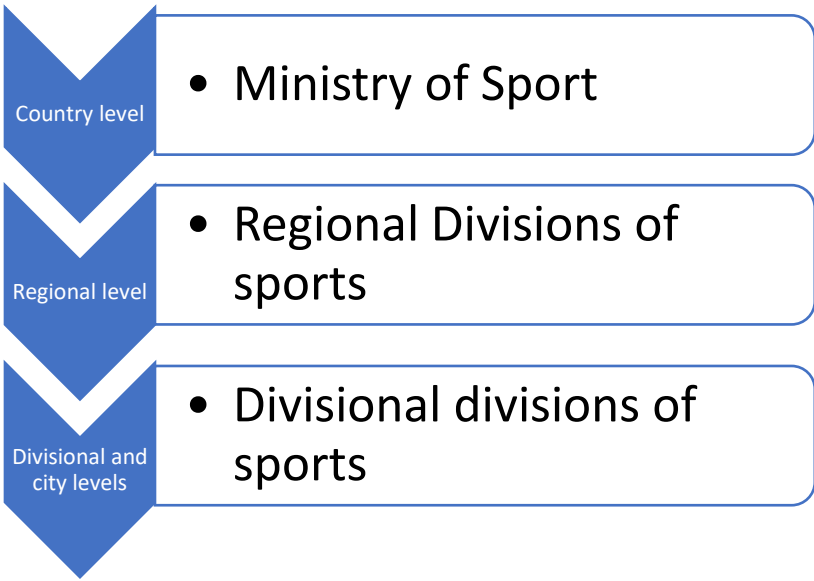
Figure 36 Structure of public service to sport in Cameroon

2.3.4.2 The Sporting Movement in Cameroon

We found no published statistics stating how many sporting associations there are in Cameroon. However, an inquiry into internal documents from the Cameroonian sports ministry allowed us to find out that there are 50 sporting federations in Cameroon. We could not find any figure of the number of national sporting associations sporting associations.

2.3.4.2.1 The Olympic Movement

Structurally, the sporting movement in Cameroon is organised just like in France. Which is per see nothing surprising, given the recent colonial link between the two countries. The Olympic movement in Cameroon included 22 Olympic federations along

with their regional and subdivisional leagues and representations. It also includes some non-Olympic federations and some national sporting associations along with their regional and subdivisional representatives.

2.3.4.2.2 The Paralympic Movement

Just as in France, the Paralympic movement in Cameroon is represented and capped by the National Paralympic committee. This committee is mainly composed of four executive branches that connect with associated sport federations.

This four branches are namely :

➢ The Cameroonian federation for sport for people with motor impairments "*Federation Camerounaise Des Sports Pour Deficients Physiques*".

➢ The Cameroonian federation for sport for people with intellectual impairments "*Federation Camerounaise Des Sports Pour Deficients Intellectuels*"

➢ The Cameroonian federation for sport for people with hearing impairments "*Federation Camerounaise Des Sports Pour Deficients Auditifs*"

➢ And Cameroonian federation for sport for people with visual impairments "*Federation Camerounaise Des Sports Pour Deficients Visuels*".

These four executives branches composing the Cameroonian national Paralympic committee work hand in hand with several associated sporting federations and associations to develop and promote high-performance sport for people with disabilities in Cameroon. These four executive arms of high-performance disability sport in Cameroon only administrate around a hundred of affiliated para athletes. This very low number of affiliated athletes might be due to the very low number of local disability sport competitions.

2.3.4.3 Cameroon in the Paralympics

Cameroon made its debut in the Paralympics in London 2012, presenting only one para-athlete. Since then, Cameroon has been consistently participating in summer Paralympics, but with a very limited number of para-athletes. Cameroon has also so far been absent from the winter Paralympics.

2.3.4.4. Media Broadcasting of Paralympic Sport in Cameroon

We found no statistics of Cameroonian media's coverage of Tokyo (2021) Paralympics, or did we find any statistics of the Cameroonian audience that followed that event. As it is common fact that Cameroonian tend to resort to French media to watch sporting events that are not broadcast by local channels, it was even more complicate for us to utter any estimate of the Cameroonian Paralympic audience.

3. Comparability of countries

As we said earlier in our general introduction, our perspective is that comparing things means presenting their consubstantiality on the one hand and showing what distinguishes them from one another on the other. So for the countries to be comparable, there needs to be a minimum of common references upon which we can express or measure what separates them from one another.

The three countries in which our work on social representations, attitudes and behaviours towards Paralympic sport is carried out have some historical links with one another. France and Germany are neighbouring countries, with intense cultural, commercial, scientific, and other exchanges. The very fact that this work is being co-supervised by French and German parties and is mainly funded by a German association epitomizes this. Germany was the first European country to formally colonise Cameroon, that is, the foundations of modern sport were laid in Cameroon by German colonizers (Mballa, 2021). After lo sing World War I, Germany was stripped of all its colonial possessions—including Cameroon—which were allotted to France and Great Brit ain. This is how France came to co-construct the modern Cameroonian sporting identity.

On a more Olympic or Paralympic note, France is acknowledged as the one of the cradles of modern olympism (JOL, 2021) while Germany, as host of the Paralympic sport umbrella organisation, which benefits from German federal funding, can be considered a central pillar of contemporary paralympism.

Another concept worth invoking to sustain the comparability of these three countries with one another is that of "cultural distance" (Schwartz, 2014) which indicates how similar or dissimilar cultures are in terms of cultural orientations (Schwartz, 1994, 2006b), and which was operationalised as "the sum of the absolute differences between the pairs of groups on each of the seven cultural orientations". The table 19 below presents the cultural distances between each pair of our three countries.

	Cameroon	Germany	France
Cameroon	0	6.49	5.83
Germany		0	1.5
France			0

Table 19 Cultural distances between each pair of our three countries.

The concept of cultural distance can also apply to Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions for comparing societies; since we could not find any reliable measures for Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions in Cameroon, we will only analyse the cultural distance (regarding cultural dimensions) between Germany and France. The figure 37 below presents a graphical view of the cultural distance between France and Germany.
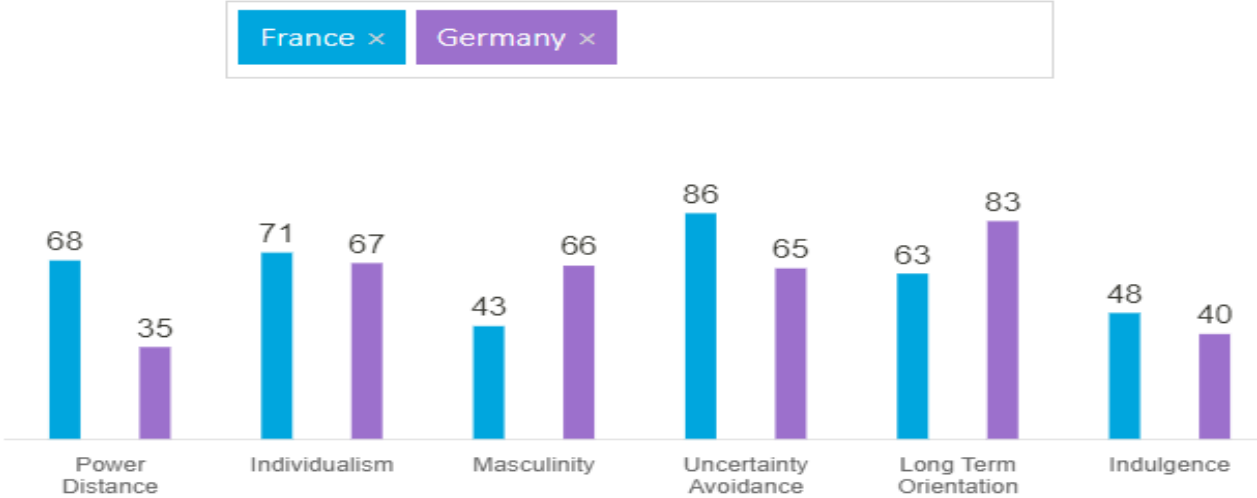
Figure 37 Graphical view of the cultural distance between France and Germany

From table 19 we can see that there is a somewhat huge cultural distance—from Schwartz' (2014) perspective—between Cameroonian and French societies on the one hand and between Cameroonian and German societies on the other. As for the French and German societies, their cultural distance from one another is moderate from Schwartz' (1994, 2006 b) perspective, and rather considerable from Hofstede's (1980) perspective.

Schantz et Gilbert (2001) in their pioneering work comparing the media representation of Paralympic sport of French and Germany postulated that the differences observed could be due to the French R oman and C atholic history that contrasts with the German Scandinavian and Protestant tradition.

Noutcha (2012) evoked the economic divide between a rich Europe and a relatively poor Africa as one of the determining factors explaining the modesty of Paralympic sport's development in Africa, especially as some Paralympic disciplines remain accessible only for a certain financial elite due the very expensive tools (prostheses, wheelchairs, tricycles, etc.) required for practice.

Considering all the above-mentioned cultural and economic distances between the Cameroonian, German and French societies, which endow these societies with different relationships to sport in general and Paralympic sport specifically, and since these societies—however different they might be from one another—do share some common history, it seems worthwhile comparing them on the topic of Paralympic sport.

PART II: EXPLORATORY APPROACHES OF SOCIAL REPRESENTATIONS, ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR TOWARDS PARALYMPIC SPORT

This part is composed of two exploratory studies, which constitute its two chapters. The first is an interview-based analysis of Paralympic sport associations and representations and the second is a free-association based investigation of Paralympic sport social representation.

CHAPTER V: QUALITATIVE EXPLORATORY STUDY

The present chapter is complementary to the theoretical considerations we developed in the first part of our research. Its aims are the following:

(1)   Prior to extending the planned behaviour model with the addition of the social representation, to verify whether Paralympic sport can be considered a subject of representation.

(2)   To help to identify factors useful for the operationalisation of the social representation of Paralympic sport as an extension to the planned behaviour model (for example, inductors for the social representation questionnaires).

(3)   To complete our theoretical developments of our object (Paralympic sport) with empirical evidence.

(4)   To determine new variables according to which the perception/representation of Paralympic sport could vary.

(5)   To get a general view of associations and representations build in the studied countries in regards to Paralympic sport.

(6)   To get an insight into how Paralympic sport is experienced by people from different countries and to catch first glimpses of the social representations of Paralympic sport in these countries.

For the above-mentioned purposes, we will adopt a two-fold qualitative approach. The first will determine whether in each of the countries studied there is a consensual appellation(s) that designate(s) high- performance disability sport. The second will identify the content(s) associated to Paralympic sport in each of at national levels (in each of the countries studied) and at an international level (in the three countries considered all together) along with the contextual variables affecting these associations, and compare them to one another. This latter content (associations) has been proven to influence consumers' reponses (Del Rio et al., 2001) consumption intention (Kunkel et al., 2017; Phong et al, 2020), guide consumer behaviour (Keller and Aaker, 1992; Keller, 1993), consumers' loyalty (Phong et al., 2020). In a sport specific context, these associations have

been proven to influence Team loyalty (Kunkel et al., 2016), Consumers' behavioural intentions.

The present chapter is structured according to the table of contents below :

1. Methodology

1.1. Data Collection

The data was gathered through semi-structured interviews. Interviews can be defined as situations of verbal interaction between two or more people in direct connection to a topic decided beforehand (Vilatte, 2007). They can also be understood as "*controlled conversations*", oriented towards the interest of the interviewer (Gray, 2009).

1.1.2. The use of Interviews and Content/ Lexical Analyses in social psychology and Marketing

The associations made by our respondents to the Paralympic sport in their guided discourse, are (social) representations (Reinert, 1983, 1991), but also Paralympic sport' associations (Low and Lamb, 2000; Del Rio et al., 2001; Saydan, 2013. Foroudi et al., 2018; Kim and Oh, 2020), especially in consideration that Paralympic games are the only visible appearance and expression of the Paralympic sport Schantz, 2001; Schantz and Gilbert, 2008, 2012; Brittain, 2016). As consequence of the above, although associations made by our respondents to Paralympic sport in their guided discourse qualify to be treated in the field of marketing as associations that partake in constructing the image, they also qualify to be treated as (social) representations in the psychosocial field. Therefore, it is useful to demonstrate the pertinence of interviews in these two above mentioned research field to investigate exploratorily (social) representations on the one field, and associations on the other.

From a psychosocial perspective, Interviews are commonly used in the study of (social) representation research (Blanchet, 1991 ; Abric, 2011, Ballah, 2018 p 151 ; Tanoh, 2020). They have become one of the main methods for studying (social) representations (Kalampalikis, 2003) and can serve several purposes depending on the aims of the research. They can help in identifying the indicators useful for designing a further survey (Singery, 1994 ; Moliner et al., 2002 ; Ballah, 2018, p 151 ;). They can also help in catching a first glimpse of the social representation under study in order to draw first hypotheses for later re-testing (Beaud et Pialoux, 1999 ; Moliner et al., 2002). Several authors have

argued for the pertinence of interview-based approaches for studying social representations. An interview involves at least two protagonists (an interviewer and an interviewee) who are communicating about an object. As described in title X of chap X, communication plays a major role in the genesis of (social) representations and is the main channel through which they are shared (Moscovici, 1961, our understanding). In that vein, Moscovici (1993, p167) states : "The social communications shape and transform the representations". Considering the preceding, and given that social representations provide a frame of shared knowledge which enables communications processes (Abric, 1994, our understanding), it can be asserted that communication and social representations entertain a relationship of "mutual determination" (Piermattéo & Guimelli, 2012). It is therefore interesting and even insightful to use interviews—communications between interviewer and interviewees—to access social representations. Another way of justifying the pertinence of our interview-based method is to employ the concept of "dialogicity" (Jovchelovitch, 2005 ; Marková, 2003, Marková & Orfali, 2005), which we explained earlier in the chapter V. As products of communications 222 between an interviewer and many interviewees one after another, the corpus generated from interviews is monological rather than dialogical, as it takes into account the subject (Paralympic sport), the ego(s), and the alter(s) at any moment of the interview. Such a corpus can be considered to be constructed through social interactions and to therefore bespeak specific social practices and relationships to the subject on the one hand and the content of some object-related "deposits" of relatively steady common sense(s) on the other hand (Harabi, 2018, our understanding)

From a marketing perspective, interviews are commonly used in exploratory marketing research (Gavart-Perret, 2018,), for studying for example brands' equity (Eagle, Kitchen, Rose and Moyle, 2003; Kuhn, Alpert and Pope, 2008; Bodet and Chanavat, 2010; Camargo and Justo, 2013. Foroudi et Gupta and Foroudi, 2018; Ballah, 2018; Filieri, Lin, D'Antone, Chatzopoulou, 2019; Brico Rita, 2020; Tanoh, 2021; Carvalho, Brandao, and Pinto, 2021; Diego, 2022), Consumers' or audience ' attitude (Plaza, 2019, 2020; Mathieu, 2021; Margom, 2022), consumers' behaviours (Harry and Daunt, 2012; Plaza, 2019, 2020; Mathieu, 2021) and brand association (Low and Lamb, 2000; Del Rio et al., 2001; Saydan, 2013. Foroudi et al., 2018; Kim and Oh, 2020).

In a research design, interview-based exploratory studies help to draw first hypotheses for later re-testing (Beaud et Pialoux, 1999; Moliner et al., 2002, Gavart-

Perret, 2018). In the scientific context, there are traditionally three forms of interviews: structured interviews, non-directive interviews, and semi-structured interviews (Moliner et al., 2002). The first are very formal, to the extent that they resemble questionnaires. They leave little to no room for respondents' free expression and do not allow them to give all their ideas or develop them fully. However, they have the advantage of providing data which is very easy to analyse as it is already structured according to the very structured interview guide. The second form of interviews (non-directive) are unstructured, allowing a high risk of "off-topics" or repetitions. Therefore, data harvested through non-directive interviews is very difficult to organise into themes, which compromises the standardisation and comparability of results. However, they offer the advantage of letting the interviewee express himself and develop any ideas that might come to their mind. Our preference for the third form (semi-structured interviews) is due to the fact that they combine the advantages of the first and second forms: they are easy to organise into themes (as they follow an interview guide), and they still leave enough room for respondents' free expression (by allowing them to share and develop most of their ideas). This is probably why semi-structured interviews are the most used in social sciences (Quivy & Campenhout, 1995) as well as in management (Gavard-Perret, 2018).

1.1.3. Interview Guide

Our interview guide (see appendix 1) covered a handful of themes, which can be itemised as follows:
1- Interest/consumption of the practice
2- Perception of the practice
3- Representation of practitioners' motivations for practice
4- Knowledge about the practice
5- Information channels and media
6- search for potential variable
7- Assessment of the variable "proximity to disability"
8- Assessment for the variable "religion"
9- Assessment for the variable "political belonging"
10- Assessment for the variable "sporting level and /or culture"
11- Opening
12- Comparison of Olympic sport vs Paralympic sport

13- Attractiveness criteria in sporting consumption

14- Relationship to disability

15- Socio-demographic characteristics

16- Miscellaneous

1.2. Data Analysis

Fallery & Rodhain (2007) identified four approaches for the analysis of textual data: the l exical approach, consisting of the description of what one is talking about; the linguistic approach, consisting of the presentation of the manner in which the topic is discussed; the cognitive map approach, which helps in understanding how the thoughts are structured in the text; and the approach by theme, which helps in interpreting the content of the text. To these approaches can be added the topical approach, which Rossignol & Sébillot (2005 p.1) define as the *"generation from a textual corpus of sets of keywords, that is, words whose occurrences in a text are strongly connected with the presence of a given topic"*.

Since we are interested in catching some first glimpses of Paralympic sport associations, – that is some general representations around Paralympic sport in the three countries studied –, and of people's attitudes and behaviour(s) towards Paralympic sport, we have chosen to perform lexical and topical analyses.

Lexical and topical analyses should theoretically provide us with a glimpse of what was said in the corpus one the one hand, but also with the context(s) in which it was said. —context here referring to the characteristics of the utterer, that is the "*who said that*"—. From our lexical and topical perspective it seemed insightful and advisable to choose Reinert's Descending Hierarchical Classification (DHC) (1983; 1991), also known as the Alceste method (Reinert, 1983, 1990) or Reinert's Method (Ratinaud, 2009; Ratinaud & Déjean, 2009), for analysing our corpora.

The DHC (Reinert, 1983,1991) Has been used in social psychology to identify (social) representations lurking within interview-based corpora (e.g., Ratinaud and Marchand, 2015; Souza et al., 2018; Bouchard and Kasparian, 2018; Tanoh, 2021, 2022 in press). It has also been used in marketing research to explore at the basis of interview-based corpora, brand equity (e.g., Camargo & Justo, 2013, Tanoh, 2018, Brico Rita, 2021, Diego, 2022), Consumers' or audience ' attitudes (e.g. Loupiac & Goudey, 2019; Da Silva et al., 2020;), and consumers' Behaviours (e.g.Serra and Alfinito, 2020)

1.2.1. Theoretical and Foundational Bases of Reinert's Classification.

Harabi (2018, p 177-185) has extensively and exhaustively detailed and explained the theoretical and conceptual frames underlying Reinert's Descending Hierarchical Classification (DHC) (1983; 1991), along with the logic and rationale behind it. He presents the Alceste Method (Reinert, 1983, 1990) as the syncretisation of two logics: Benzecri's Logic (in reference to Benzecri (1981), who was Reinert's Teacher), and Reinert's (1999) account of the utter er's subjectivity in discourse analysis. He also presented the "topical logic", which leads to the so-called "lexical world" (Reinert, 1993, p. 11), that is, the different classes of Reinert's Descending Hierarchical Classification (DHC) (1983; 1991) –.

Benzecri (1981) reconciled Harris's (1951) distributional theory—which presented a set of principles common to discourses— with Zipf's Law (1935)—which posits a relationship between the frequency of a word type and its rank in a text—to conceive of a logic according to which a corpus can be divided into random small elementary units (phrases) and schematized through a table linking the subjects (grammatical subjects, not necessarily the person speaking) in rows to the predicates in columns. In this table, the values 0 and 1 signify respectively the presence or absence of the subject-predicate link. From this table can be drawn several corpus analyses, the most well-known of which are the correspondence analysis and the Descending Hierarchical Classification (Reinert, 1983, 1991). However, Benzecri's (1981) random corpus segmentation ignores the utterer's subjectivity.

Reinert (1999) highlights the importance of taking into account the utterer's subjectivity when analysing the corpus. Therefore, instead of a subject (grammatical)- predicate - based analysis, he advocates a subject (utterer)-subject (grammatical)-predicate-based analysis. That is, the segmentation of the corpus into utterances which, unlike random phrases, take into account the context, thereby bespeaking the utterer's engagement, history, and personal background (Harabi, 2018). This shift from phrases to utterances implemented by Reinert (1999, our understanding) is intended to make sure each elementary unity of text will contain a point of view deposited within it. This is actually the case for utterances but was not the case for all the phrases.

The analysis through the Alceste method (Reinert, 1983, 1990) then scrutinizes the different locations of points of view (utterances) within the corpus , to identify areas

where they overlap. These overlapping areas of points of view, also called "classes" or "lexical worlds" (Rouré and Reinert, 1993 p. 573), are identified on the basis of co-occurrence— that is, whenever one point of view is present somewhere in a context (context here understood as the characteristics of utterers), all the other points of view belonging to the same overlapping area are also present in the same context—and co-absence—reversely, when a point of view is not present in a context, all the other points of view of the same overlapping areas are also absent in that context (Harabi, 2018, our understanding). To sum up, Reinert (1993, p=16) would define lexical worlds as the product of the "*utterances of a given corpus according to the statistical resemblance and dissemblance of the lexemes composing it*".

More explicitly, Reinert DHC (1983, 1991) identifies the different senses deposited in corpora, puts them into classes (lexical worlds), specifies the context (the characteristics of utterers) in which each sense is deposited, and shows the relationship between the classes (the architecture of the classification of the senses deposited). It is just as if we saw a group of people that are always together (co-occurrent) in the sense that when one of them is seen somewhere, all the others automatically happen to be at the same location at the same moment, – that is, reversely also co-absent – in in the sense that when a member of the group is absent somewhere, all the others member are also absent, we easily conclude that there is a common sense (for example family or friendship) linking these people (in our instance, the lexical logic would consist of identifying these people that are always together). The contexts in which this people appear together (for example parties, school, work, household, […]) can also be identified, and would illustrate the topical logic.

The above-mentioned "lexical worlds" therefore are indeed classes of associations in regard to the Paralympic sport while the contexts (Utterers' characteristics) embody the characteristics of groups authoring these classes of associations. These classes of associations that are host to a sense deposited within them by utterers, constitute representations, that Reinert (1993, p.12) would even refer to as "*social representations*".

The software we have chosen to apply Reinert HDC (Reinert, 1983, 1991) to our corpora is IRAMUTEQ. IRAMUTEQ is a lexico-topical analysis software developed by Ratinaud (2009), which can perform Reinert's (1983, 1991) DHC among other analyses. It has been used in several instances for discourse analysis (Marchand et Ratinaud 2012a; Ratinaud and Marchand, 2012b; Ratinaud and Marchand, 2015; Tanoh, 2021). Iramuteq

has increasingly been used in marketing for the qualitative exploration of associations , perceptions, representations, attitudes and / or behaviours (e.g. Camargo & Justo, 2013, Loupiac & Goudey, 2019; Da Silva et al., 2020; Serra and Alfinito, 2020; Tanoh, 2021; Diego, 2022).

1.2.2. Classes (of Associations) Rather Than Social Representations

Reinert (1993, P 12, our understanding and translation) himself highlighted the "overlapping" of the notions of "lexical worlds", that is, classes of associations and "social representation ". However, for three reasons, we preferred to refer to these "lexical worlds"— or at least to the senses deposited in these "lexical world"—as Paralympic Classes of associations rather than "social representations". The first is that we are not yet sure that Paralympic sport is an object of social representation in the concerned countries (Cameroon, Germany and France); one of the aims of this interview-based study is to verify that. The second is that, though we know for sure that the senses deposited in these "lexical worlds" bespeak the way Paralympic sport is experienced in different contexts (context here understood as utterers' characteristics) , not much literature has been published on the use of Reinert's (1993) approach for identifying groups' social representations of an object of representation; therefore, basing a whole study on Reinert's (1993) perspective on social representations could draw some controversies. The third is that the pattern in which the content of social representations is presented by Reinert's (1993) DHC of textual corpora generated from interviews complexifies (from our perspective as sport marketing researcher) the settings for further controversy-free analyses anchored in any of the mainstream theoretical approaches of social representations (the sociogenetic (Moscovici, 1961), the sociodynamic (Doise, Clémence & Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1992, 1993). The structural (Abric, 1994a, b, c, 2003).

1.2.3. Alceste Method Operationally with IRAMUTEQ

There are a couple of documents and / or scientific papers describing and explain the operational functioning of Iramuteq, (e.g., Marchand et Ratinaud 2012a; Ratinaud and Marchand, 2012b, 2015?2016; Tanoh, 2021). especially with regard to R einert's DHC (1983, 1991).

From these documents, which are quite consensual in the descriptions and explanations they provide,, it appears that to efficiently use IRAMUTEQ—and especially

Reinert's DHC (1983, 1991)—corpora should be coded (according to a set of variables we deem related to or able to explain the variation of ideas, attitudes and behaviours about the corpus object) and converted into "text files" (.txt) prior to their analysis.

In our case we hypothesised eleven variables that could explain the differences in associations (positioning, perceptions and behaviour) regarding Paralympic sport. These hypothetical variables were drawn from the literature, empirical observations, and our own critical thinking about people's relationship to high-performance disability sport. Our eleven hypothetical variables were: ethnicity, sex, religion, disability status, level of sporting practice, belief in the influence of political belonging in the perception or representation of high-performance disability sport, proximity to disability, education level, nationality, age, and interest in disability sport.

In order to be used for analyses with Iramuteq, these variables were converted into codes. The 11 variables were converted into codes according to the table 20 below:

Variables	Codes and values
Ethnicity	Race_1=BAME ;Race_2 =white
Sex	Sex_1=female ; Sex_2 = male
Religion	Rel_Rel1 = Catholic ; Rel_Rel2 = protestant ; Rel_Rel3 = muslin Rel_Rel4= none/ other
Disability status	Hand_Hand1= no ; Hand_Hand2= yes
Level of sporting practice	NP_Np1= do not practice ; Np_Np2= amateur NP_Np3= national ; NP_Np4=international
Belief in the influence of the political belonging	Iap_Iap1= yes ; Iap_Iap2= no ; Iap_Iap3= do not know/ not really / may be
Proximity to disability	Prox_Prox1= yes ; Prox_Prox2= no Prox_Prox3= do not know/ not really / may be
Level of education	Ne_Ne1= until high school Ne_Ne2= university level lower than master's degree Ne_Ne3= master's degree and above
Nationality	Nat_Nat1= French ; Nat_Nat2= Cameroonian ; Nat_Nat3= German
Age	Age_Age1=17 to 20 years old ; Age_Age2= 20 to 24 years old

	Age_Age3=26 to 30 years old ; Age_Age4= above 30 years old
Interest in high-performance disability sport	Inter_Inter1= yes ; Inter_Inter2= no ; Inter_Inter3 = do not know/ not really

Table 20 Codes for variables

1.2.3.1. Coding for Iramuteq

As explained by Ratinaud (2016), the first stage for coding a corpus for Iramuteq is to indicate the beginning of each text (in our case, a text would be the set of responses of a given respondent to our interview guide) either by introducing four stars (****) or four zeros (0000) to the margin in the line preceding the beginning of the corpus. In our case we chose to use stars as these are more easily distinguishable in the text than zeros.

The second stage consists of introducing the characteristics (obtained by converting the different attributes of variables characterizing utterers into codes) of each utterer in the same line as the four stars delimiting the beginning of their utterances, making sure there is a normal keyboard space followed by a star between the first variable and the four stars indicating the beginning of the text, and in the middle of each pair of variables. The order of variables is random at the beginning. However, once we have chosen an order for coding one text, the same order should be used for all the other texts of the corpus.

As an example, the coding in IRAMUTEQ for the text produced by a French able-bodied Catholic 19-year-old black female high school student that does no practice sport, believes in the influence of political belonging on perceptions of high-performance disability sport, whose relative is a bearer of a disability, and who is interested in disability sport, would be the following:

**** *rac_rac1 *sexe_sexe1 *rel_rel1 *hand_hand1 *np_np1 *iap_iap1 *prox_prox1 *ne_ne1 *nat_nat1 *age_age1 *inter_inter1

Once all the texts constituting a corpus is coded that way, Reinert's DHC can be performed with IRAMUTEQ. Furthermore, in addition to giving us the different classes (of associations) deposited within the corpus, IRAMUTEQ also provides us with the context (s) (utterer's characteristics) in which each class (of association) is deposited. For each element of a "lexical world" or "class" or "representation" it provides us with some

statistical details, including the percentage of utterances containing the element in the class, and a chi2 bespeaking the level of attachment of the element to its class.

1.2.4. Justification of The Variables We Chose for Our Corpora Analyses.

➢ Ethnicity, sex, and disability status: in chapter I we explained how social power struggles like sexism, racism, and ableism were reproduced in sport and even more emphasised in disability sport. These power struggles were especially emphasized in media depictions of para-athletes. Since both the influencer (of public opinion) and the indicator (of public opinion) roles of media have been almost consensually demonstrated by several authors (i.e. Lazarsfeld & Merton, 1948; Schonbach, 1992; Noelle- Neumann, 1994; Kellner, 1995; Schantz et Gilbert, 2001, 2012; Atuona, 2012), we assumed that these power struggles could to a certain extend distort people's depictions of para-athletes and therefore that there could be some race-, sex-, and ability-related biases in the associations made regarding Paralympic sport. In other words, we thought that the positionings and perceptions towards disability sport could change according to sex, ethnicity and ability, and classes (of associations) accordingly. so we hypothesised race, sex, and disability status as variables for our corpora analyses.

➢ Religion: we thought religion could explain the difference in positionings and perceptions towards Paralympic sport. Indeed, among the disability models we developed in chapter I was the religious model. Since some religions give certain types of meaning to disability, we thought that respondents' religious beliefs could influence their experience of disability and consequently their experience of high-performance disability sport. Our idea was supported by Schantz & Gilbert (2001, p.86), who hypothesised— without verifying—that the difference in media depiction of Paralympic sport between French and German newspapers could be due to the Catholic influence in France and the Protestant influence in Germany.

➢ Level of sporting practice: we assumed that the higher one's sporting level, the greater one's opportunities for encountering elite para-athlete s. Our assumption make sense since some elite competitions are actually mixed mega events, like the C ommonwealth G ames , or the Francophonie games, where elite athletes and para-athlete s compete together (in different disciplines, but for equivalent medals) on the same days. Considering that higher likelihood for athletes of higher levels to be in contact with disability sport, we thought that associations regarding Paralympic sport could vary

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according to the sporting level of the "experiencer". Another thing that supported us in our assumption is that, at an identity level, we assumed there could be a sort of "sporting solidarity" linking high-performance abled-bodied sportspeople to disabled ones. All of the preceding persuaded us to hypothesise the sporting level as a variable for our corpora analyses.

➢ Belief in the influence of political belonging in the perception or representation of Paralympic sport: our original idea was to hypothesise political belonging (on the right-left continuum) as a variable, as it has been shown that right-wingers promote Darwinist and individualistic societies which leave little room for addressing the challenges of vulnerable communities, while left-wingers promote more equitable societies and address the challenges of vulnerable communities In this way, we assumed that people's associations' regarding Paralympic sport could vary according to their political belonging. But due to the reluctance to answer that we observed in previous research in which we asked people's political belonging (especially in France), and due to the delicacy of political questions, instead of asking our respondents' political belonging we asked them whether they believed in the influence of one's political belonging on one's positionings and perceptions of Paralympic sport.

➢ Proximity to disability: basically, it seems obvious that people whose relative (eg. spouse, family member, friend, colleague, etc.) is a bearer of a disability would feel more concerned about disability. Reversely, it makes sense to assume that people who have no direct or indirect contact with disability would feel less concerned by disability or not at all concerned. Our thinking was sustained by several studies (Hunt & Hunt, 2000 ; McDougall et al., 2004; Kalyva & Agaliotis 2009; Seo & Chen, 2009 and Barr & Bracchitta, 2012 p.10) demonstrating the positive influence of one's amount of contact with people with disabilities on one's attitudes towards people with disabilities. Based on that premise, we thought that our respondents' proximity to disability could explain the variation in their positionings and perceptions of disability, and therefore hypothesized the proximity to disability as a variable for our corpora analysis.

➢ Education level: in his PhD research on representations of disability in Congo, Mbede (2008) found that the more educated people were, the better their representations and attitudes towards disability and their attitudes and behaviours towards people with disabilities became, and concluded that education level positively influenced representations and attitudes towards people with disability. In a sport

specific-perspective, Yousaf et al. (2015) showed that motivations for sport consumption varied according to several divides, of which the education level. Lopez and Garate (2009) demonstrated that education level influenced consumers' expenditure for sport. Following on that, we thought that the education level could also explain the difference in representations of high-performance   disability sport and hypothesized it as a variable for our corpora analyses.

➢ Nationality: as explained in the chapter IV, the three countries we studied were culturally very different. There are studies demonstrating the influence of culture on attitudes and behaviour towards people with disabilities (e.g., Smart & Smart, 1991; Ingstad & Whyte, 1995; Thomas & Thomas, 1999; and Riddell & Watson, 2014). In a sport-specific note, Kim et al. (2008) showed that National identity did influence people's motivation for sport consumption. Based upon the preceding , we thought that respondents' Associations regarding Paralympic sport could vary according to their cultural differences (at national levels), and hypothesized nationality as a variable for our corpora analyses.

➢ Age: as for age, as Zhang et al. (2003), Lopez and Garate (2009), Yousaf et al. (2015) , Trail (2019) showed haw age did influenced sport preference and consumption behaviour, it was important to us to see whether this predicate also applies to Paralympic sport.

➢ Interest in disability sport: from a very pragmatic perspective, we thought that analysing perceptions and positionings towards Paralympic sport according to people's interest in disability sport (or lack of it) could be very useful for understanding how one's disability status may influence his perceptions and positionings towards Paralympic sport. So we decided to analyse our corpora according to the utterers' interest level in disability sport, in addition to the variables listed above.

2. Results

2.1 An analysis of all the corpora taken together

2.1.1 Corpus Description

Taken together, our global corpus generated by the interviews with Cameroonian, French and German participants added up to 55 texts ("unities of context" in Alceste language) . These 55 texts consisted of 135,026 occurrences comprising 6000 forms, including 2682 hapax representing 1.99% of the occurrences and 44.70% of the forms. IRAMUTEQ divided these 135,026 occurrences into 3743 utterances. After being lemmatized, our corpus still consisted of 135,026 occurrences, but now 3949 forms, of which were 1557 hapax, representing 1.15% of the total occurrences and 39.43% of the forms.

As for the ratios, the Hapax Token Ration (HTR)—which is obtained by dividing the number of hapaxes by the number of tokens (lemmata)—is relatively high (39.43%). This bespeaks a relatively rich vocabulary on the one hand and an acceptable authorial differentiation on the other (Lardilleux & Lepage, 2007 p. 458; Hussein, 2014). Another ratio worthy of analysis is the Type Token ratio (TTR), that is the number of types (distinct forms) divided by the total number of occurrences in the corpus. The TTR of our corpus is 2.92% which bespeaks a high number of repetitions within the corpus and a poor "*informational temperature*" (Kalampalikis & Moscovici, 2005 p.15). This low TTR value is rather normal for long corpora like ours, since the longer the corpus is, the greater the likelihood for words to be repeated (Hardie & McEnery, 2006, p.139). In addition, according to Moscovici (1967) the repetition bespoken by our poor TTR is characteristic of spoken language, which makes sense as our corpus is a compilation of interviews. Finally, the high level of repetition and the poor informational temperature in our corpus are actually good for our study of classes (of associations) regarding Paralympic sport, as according to Harabi (2018, p.192), these are indicators of the ease with which the (elementary) associations (representations) deposited within the corpus can be transmitted and used.

2.1.2 Reinert's classification

Having set IRAMUTEQ to have 10 classes at the end of the first analysis and at least 100 utterances per class, 3685 of the 3743 utterances in our corpus were analysed, representing a rate of 98.45% that amply satisfied our minimal requirement of 90%. We obtained four classes (of associations). Appendix 2 presents the context and structure of these four classes. At first glance, this distribution is rather balanced with 3 classes (class 1: 29.6%; class 2:28%; and class 4: 28.8%) having almost the same size—which is larger than the average size of a class in this classification (25%)—and a small class (class 2: 13.7%) the size of which is almost half of the average class size in this classification (25%).

2.1.2.1 Class 1

The Sense(s) Deposited

A first look at the content of class 1 hints that it might be related to an affective-emotional dimension associated with high-performance disability sport. Appendix 3 itemises the most prominent elements constituting this class, along with their statistical details. A further analysis of each element of class 1 along with the concordancer associated with it allowed us to get a better idea of the sense deposited in this class. Although we could not clearly phrase this sense, we are sure that it puts sport (practice, performance, level, rule) for people with disability (sporting, effort, disability situation, cripple, function, constraint, motor, psychological) into relationship with accessibility (accessible, adapt, allow, access, solidarity) and normalcy (normal, difference, similarity, able-bodied).

The words "accessible", "adapt", "allow", "access", and "solidarity" confirm our suspicion of an emotional dimension, while the words "normal", "difference", "similarity", "able-bodied" bespeak a dimension related to normalcy. So the sense deposited in class 1 is about disability sport in relationship with an emotional dimension and normalcy.

Variables Contributing to the Context

The representation identified above is relevant for utterers whose characteristics are listed in appendix 4: The sense in class 1 is deposited by Catholic French participants aged between 21 and 25, who have a national sporting level and who are not close to

disability. The variables nationality, proximity to disability, level of practice, age and religion are those significantly characterizing utterers whose position(s) are deposited in class 1.

2.1.2.2 Class 2

The Sense(s) Deposited

A first look at the elements constituting class 2 (see appendix 5) reveals that it is related to an affective, motivational and inspirational dimension associated with something—probably our object, high-performance disability sport.

The analysis of the content of class 2 along with the concordancer associated with each element of this class enabled us to grasp the sense (s) deposited in this class, which can be phrased as follows: "desire" (passion, dream, pleasure, will, courage, encourage motivate, motivation, confidence, inspire) to achieve (surpass, reach, finish, live, life, succeed, above) physical ability (capable). The motivational and inspirational dimensions we hypothesised earlier are confirmed within the class.

Variables associated to the Context

Appendix 6 itemises the significant characteristics of utterers whose position(s) are deposited in class 2. The sense (s) deposited in class 2 significantly correspond to the position(s) of BAME Muslim or Protestant female utterers aged between 26 and 30 who are interested in disability sport, who do not practice sport, who are not really close to disability, and who do not believe in the influence of political belonging on the perception of disability sport.

The variables significantly characterizing the utterers whose position(s) are deposited in class 2 are "nationality", "ethnicity", "age", "interest in disability sport", "sex", "proximity to disability", "religion", "level of practice" and "belief in the influence of political belonging".

2.1.2.3 Class 3

Sense(s) Deposited

Class 3 of Reinert's DHC (1983, 1991, 1993) (see appendix 7) is *à priori* related to a cognitive dimension related to the influence of socio-cultural phenomena on something—probably our object. The appendix 7 lists the most prominent elements constituting this class, along with their statistical details.

A further analysis of the content of class 3 along with the concordancer associated with each of them allowed us to unveil the sense(s) deposited in this class. This sense(s) can be phrased as follows: "social" (public, relative) "questions" like "religion" (religious) and "political" (left, right) "belonging" "influence" (change, bring, pose) "visions" (think; perception, manner, representation) of our object—high-performance disability sport.

We were right to presume that the sense deposited in class 3 was relative to a cognitive dimension associating socio-cultural questions with our object.

Significant Variables of Context

Appendix 8 itemises the variables of context that significantly contributed to the context in which the sense deposited in class 3 of the global corpus is relevant. The variables having a significant effect on the context enabling the representation deposited in class 3 are religion, ethnicity, age, level of practice, and nationality. The representation contained in class3 is mostly relevant for non-religious—or believers of religions other than Catholicism, Protestantism, and Islamism— Cameroonians of a national or international level of sporting practice, aged between 21 and 25 years old.

2.1.2.4 Class 4

Sense(s) Deposited

The appendix 9 presents the lexical world composing the class 4, along with the chi2 and P associated to each element of this lexical world. C lass 4 bespeaks a conative dimension of Paralympic sports, as it mostly refers to events and event brands ("Games", "Olympic", "Paralympic"), and to practices ("football", "basketball", "athletics", "swimming", "tennis", …).

Significant Associated Variables of Context

Appendix 10 itemises the variables of context that significantly contributed to the context in which the sense deposited in class 4 of the global corpus is relevant, along with the chi2 and P associated to each of these variables. According, to this appendix, the variables "nationality", "sex", "religion", "age", and "interest in disability sport" significantly participated in shaping the context within which the sense deposited in class 4 was created.

2.1.2.5 Synthesis

Relationship Between the Classes

Appendix 2 presents the architecture of Reinert's DHC (1983, 1991) of the global corpus. This architecture bespeaks something common to classes 1 and 2 that does not appear in classes 3 and 4, and something common to classes 1, 2, and 3 that does not appear in class 4. Further scrutiny of Reinert's DHC (1983, 1991) of the global corpus unveils the sense common to classes 1 and 2 and the sense common to classes 1, 2 and 3. As a matter of fact, classes 1 (the emotional dimension of Paralympic sport) and two (the motivational and inspirational dimension) both refer to affective dimensions of Paralympic sport. That is what these classes have in common, which is not relevant for the other classes.

As for the sense common to classes 1, 2, and 3, and which is irrelevant for class 4, it is easily noticeable that classes 1, 2, and 3 all refer to or at least are associated with Paralympic values, while class 4 focuses on Paralympic sport practice and channels through which this practice can be accessed (media).

The pertinence of Context Variables in the Global Compound Corpus

The purpose of analysing all the corpora together as a global corpus was to reveal new variables that single or paired corpus analyses could not hint at.

The most prominent variables that shaped the contexts enabling different represe ntations are, from most- to least-prominent, "nationality", "age", and "level of sporting practice" (4 out of the 4 contexts), followed by "religion", "sex", "proximity to disability", and "interest in disability sport" (3 out of the 4 contexts). The least contributing variables in shaping the context in which the senses deposited were enabled

are "belief in the influence of political belonging" and "ethnicity" (2 out of the 4 contexts). The variables "disability status" and "level of education" did not significantly contribute to shaping any context in which the representation was enabled.

With regard to nationality, the Cameroonian nationality strongly contributed to shaping the context in which the representation related to the motivational and inspirational dimensions of Paralympic sport— representing 13.70% of the analysed utterances—was deposited ($p< 0.0001$). The French nationality contributed in shaping two contexts: the one in which the representation related to the emotional dimension associated with disability sport and normalcy—representing 29.60% of the utterances analysed—was deposited ($p =0.00093$), and the one in which the representation related to the cognitive dimension associating socio-cultural questions with disability sport— representing 28.00% of the utterances analysed —was deposited($p=0.00141$). The German nationality strongly contributed to shaping one context: the one in which the representation related to the conative and media dimensions of Paralympic sport—representing 28.80% of the utterances analysed—was deposited ($p< 0.0001$).

As for the level of sporting practice, utterers of a "national" sporting level contributed to shaping contexts in which two representations were deposited: the one related to the emotional dimension associated with Paralympic sport— representing 29.60% of the utterances analysed ($p=0.00388$)—and the one related to the conative and media dimensions— representing 28.80% of the utterances analysed ($p=0.02203$). Utterers that do not practice sport contributed to shaping the context in which was deposited the representation related to the motivational and inspirational dimensions of Paralympic sport— representing 13.70% of the utterances analysed (0.01783)—and utterers of an amateur sporting level contributed to shaping the contexts in which was deposited the representation related to the cognitive dimension associating socio-cultural questions with Paralympic sport—representing 28.00% of the utterances analysed ($p=0.00021$). It is also worth noting that utterers of an international sporting level did not significantly contribute to shaping any context in which a representation was enabled.

Concerning the age, the age group 12-20 contributed to the context in which the representation related to the cognitive dimension associating socio-cultural questions with Paralympic sport (28% of the utterances analysed) was deposited ($p< 0.0001$), while the age group 21-25 contributed to 2 contexts: the one in which the representation

related to the emotional dimension associated with Paralympic sport (29.60%) was deposited (p=0.01236), and the one in which the representation related to the conative and media dimensions of Paralympic sport (28.80% of the utterances analysed) was deposited (p=0.00385).

As for religion, Catholicism contributed in building the context in which the representation related to the emotional dimension of Paralympic sport (29.60% of the utterance analysed) is deposited (p=0.0329), while Islam and Protestantism respectively contribute to shaping the context in which the representation related to the motivational and inspirational dimensions of Paralympic sport (13.70% of the utterances analysed) is enabled (respectively p=0.00504, et p=0.03243);   non-believers or believers from other religions contributed to the context in which the representation related to the cognitive dimension associating socio- cultural questions to Paralympic sport (28.00% of the utterances analysed) was deposited (p=0.03216).

With respect to ethnicity, white people partake in building the context in which the representation related to the cognitive dimension associating socio-cultural questions to Paralympic sport is deposited, while BAME (for instance, black people) partake in shaping the one in which the representation related to motivational and inspirational dimensions of Paralympic sport is deposited.

Having seen evidences of nationality-related differences in representations (association regarding) Paralympic sport, it make sense to scrutinise country-specific corpora to see how the classes (of associations) are organized within each specific country.

2.2 Cameroonian Corpus

Twenty-four Cameroonians from various educational, religious and professional backgrounds were interviewed between Dec 22nd, 2018, and March 5th 2019 for a total interview duration of 21 hours 34 minutes 55 seconds. The interviews were all led and analysed in French . The saturation of interviews' content was observed after 18 interviews, but we decided to carry out 6 more interview to make sure this saturation was not sample-related. The appendix 11 presents the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents.

2.2.1 Corpus Description and first analyses

2.2.1.1 Corpus description

The corpus generated by the transcription of the interviews with the Cameroonian participants counted 55,761 occurrences, which were composed of 3765 forms (distinct words), including 1768 hapax (words occurring only once in the corpus). The hapax represented 46.96% of the forms and 3.17% of occurrences. IRAMUTEQ divided this corpus into 1539 segments of text for its analysis. After being Lemmatised (for the reasons explained above), the Cameroonian corpus still counted 55,761 occurrences, composed of 2526 forms (distinct words), including 1013 hapax. The hapax represented 40.10% of forms and 1.82% of occurrences. This corpus satisfies the length requirement for a proper analysis with IRAMUTEQ. Usually, the minimal length for proper analyses is around 10,000 words (around 50 segments of text of about 200 words each) (Ratinaud, 2015)

As for the ratios, the Hapax Token Ration (HTR)—which is obtained by dividing the number of hapaxes by the number of tokens (lemmata)—is relatively high (40.10%). This bespeaks a relatively rich vocabulary on the one hand and an acceptable authorial differentiation on the other (Lardilleux & Lepage, 2007 p.458; Hussein, 2014). Another ratio worthy of analysis is the Type Token ratio (TTR), that is the number of types (distinct forms) divided by the total number of occurrences in the corpus. The TTR of our corpus is 4.5% which bespeaks a high number of repetitions within the corpus and a poor "*informational temperature*" (Kalampalikis & Moscovici, 2005 p.15). This low TTR value

is rather normal for long corpora like ours, since the longer the corpus is, the greater the likelihood for words to be repeated (Hardie & McEnery, 2006 p 139). In addition, according to Moscovici (1967) the repetition bespoken by our poor TTR is characteristic of spoken language, which makes sense as our corpus is a compilation of interviews. Finally, the high level of repetition and the poor informational temperature in our corpus are actually good for our study of classes (of associations) regarding Paralympic sport, as according to Harabi (2018, p.192), these are indicators of the ease with which the (elementary) associations (representations) deposited within the corpus can be transmitted and used.

2.2.1.2 Denomination Study

The table 21 here below itemises the denominations given to our object (high-performance disability sport) by our Cameroonian respondents.

appellation	Frequency
handisport	5/24
do not know	3/24
sport for people with disabilities or sport for disabled	8/24
Paralympic sport or Paralympic games	4/24
physical exercises for peoples with disabilities	1/24
invalid sport	1/24
personal realisation for people with disabilities	1/24
sport for people with impairments	1/24
Total	24/24

Table 21 denominations given to our object

From the table here above, we can notice that though all (or most of) the appellations given to high-performance disability sport refer either to sport of people with disability, or to Paralympic sport, or even to "Handisport" —the French word for sport for people with physical disabilities—, no appellation is consensually suggested by our respondents for high-performance disability sport. Therefore, in this absence of consensus, it seems advisable to combine the three most shared appellations (sport for people with disabilities (8/24) — in French, "*sport pour personnes en situation de*

handicap"— , Disability sport – in French *"handisport"* – (5/24) and Paralympic sport (4/24) —in French, *"sport Paralympique"*—as inductors for our eventual future social representations questionnaire.

2.2.1.3 Interest in Disability Sport

Among the twenty-four Cameroonians we interviewed, fourteen were interested in disability sport. Among the various nonexclusive channels through which these fourteen people expressed their interest for, or experience Paralympic sport, TV was referred to twelve times and direct experience in the stadia nine times. Therefore, TV seemed to be the main channel through which those of our Cameroonian respondents who were interested in disability sport experience disability sport (11 out of 14,), followed by direct experience in stadia (9 out of 14). Appendix 12 compiles all the responses given by our respondents to the questions related to their interest in high-performance disability sport.

2.2.1.4 Access to Information About Disability Sport

Since we noted that almost all our Cameroonian respondents (23/24) had some information about high-performance disability sport, we asked our respondents how they accessed this information.. It appeared 14/24 reported having accessed this information via TV and 4/24 through media (without overlap between these two groups). 1/4 knew nothing at all about disability sport while the remaining 5/24 named one or more of the following as channels through which they accessed information about disability sport: personal experiences, discussions with friends, academic background, and profession. Of the 14/24 that cited TV as the channel through which they accessed information about disability sport, many also cited radio, and some cited Internet, personal experiences, and discussions with friends. However, it still seems reasonable to say that media (TV, radio and Internet) are the main ways through which information about disability sport is accessed, as 18/24 of our respondents referred to them as the main channel or one of the channels through which they accessed the information. It is also reasonable to assert that of all the media listed by our respondents as channels to access information about disability sport, TV was predominant as it was referred to by 14/24 of our respondents.

It is also striking to remark that only ¼ of our 24 respondents referr ed to the newspaper when listing the information channel(s) through which they accessed information about disability sport. This could mean either that newspaper coverage of disability sport is quasi-non existent in Cameroon or that the Cameroonian resident citizens we interviewed are not newspapers readers. Appendix 13 compiles the responses of all the respondents to the questions related to the information channels through which they accessed information about disability sport.

2.2.2 Reinert's Classification

Using the software IRAMUTEQ as described earlier, we chose to have 12 terminal classes at the end of the first analysis and at least 100 segments of text per class. Out of the 1539 segments in the corpus, 1460 (94.87%) were taken into account in the DHC of the Cameroonian corpus, which satisfied the threshold of 90% we retained earlier. We obtained six classes (of associations) .The appendix 14 presents the content of each class along with the structure of this DHC.

At first glance it is obvious to notice that the distribution of utterances – that is elementary associations – into classes (of associations) was very unbalanced within this corpus. On the one hand, we had a huge class of 32.30% (class 3) which is almost the double the average class size (16.66%), and on the other, 3 medium classes of 14.40%, 18% and 16.70% (classes 1, 2, and 6, respectively) which are very close to the average class size (16.66%) and 2 small classes of 8.40% and 10.20% (classes 4 and 5) that were far below the average size of a class (16.66%). Such a distribution tends to give rise to the hypothesis of a dominant class (of associations) regarding Paralympic sport.

2.2.2.1 Class 1

The Sense (s) Deposited

Class 1 seems to be the depository of a sense related to authorities (ministry and federation). Appendix 16 itemises the most prominent elements constituting this class, along with the value of chi2 which bespeaks their attachment to the class, the percentages of utterances containing the elements, and the value of P.

After analysing the graph of each word itemised above, and going through the concordancer (an IRAMUTEQ tool which shows all the segments (utterances) in which the

selected word appears), we can phrase the main sense associated to Paralympic sport in this class (of associations) as follows:

"Authorities" (ministry, federation, service) "are in charge" (handle) of "activities (discipline, preparation, and participation) for "athletes" with "impairment" (impaired, mental) of all "levels" (national, international, high, and scale).

However, we can clearly notice that there is a second sense, less present but still perceivable, in this class. This sense is difficult to grasp as it only has a few indicators; it could probably be phrased as follows: there is a "problem" of "communication" (media) with this "discipline"; or rather as follow: "media" "communication" about this "activity" could bring "enthusiasm".

Variables Contributing to the Context

As mentioned above, the Alceste Method (Reinert, 1993) also provides us with the context in which the sense(s) deposited in a class is relevant. What we refer to here as context is a set of the utterers' (those whose associations are classified within the same class) characteristics. As a matter of fact, the sense deposited in a class of associations is the wording of how the "utterer(s) in context" experiences the object. That is to say, it is the object association of the "utterer(s) in context". Appendix 17 itemises the variables that significantly contribute to the context in which the sense(s) deposited is relevant.

A close look at the variables of context associated with class 1 tells us that the sense deposited in the class 1 is relevant (bespeaks associations) for able-bodied utterers that are not close to disability, are interested in disability sport and that hold a master's degree or higher. The variables proximity to disability, disability status, education level, and interest in disability sport participated in the construction of the context within which the macro association embodied in the class (of associations) 1 was enabled/ produced. .

II.2.2.2 Class 2

The Sense(s) Deposited

The sense deposited in Class 2 is related to media. Appendix 18 itemises the most prominent items constituting this class, along with their statistical characteristics. It was very difficult to understand the full sense deposited within class 2 on the basis of the most prominent elements constituting it. However, we are absolutely sure that it is related to

media as most of the elements of the class belong to the lexical field of media (media, mediatisation, TV, television, channel, pass, speak) and to the object, high-performance disability sport (competition, event, that). Considering the preceding, we can phrase the sense deposited in class 2 as follows: "media" (TV, television, speak, pass, channel, mediatise, mediatisation) have a strong role to play (discover, exclude) in disability sport (that, competition, event).

Variables Contributing to the Context

The sense deposited in class 2 is associated with a context: the characteristics of utterer(s) taking position(s) described in class 2. Appendix 19 itemises the variables that significantly contribute to this context. The only variable that significantly contributes to (has an effect on) the context in which class 2 is relevant is the interest in disability sport. That is to say that class 2 is mostly relevant for utterers that are "not really" interested in disability sport, or do not know whether they are.

2.2.2.3 Class 3

Sense(s) Deposited

Class 3 is a priori related to an affective and motivational dimension of disability sport. Appendix 20 presents the most prominent elements of class 3 along with the associated chi2 and p values. When linking the most prominent elements bespeaking the content of class 3 in accordance with the concordancer, we can phrase the sense deposited within this class as: "relatives" (parents) "encourage" (motivate, motivation) people with "disability"(handicap, situation) to "practice"(strive, realize, surpass) "sport" because it "allows" them to "integrate" into the "society" of the "able-bodied"(normal).

Significant Variables of Context

The Appendix 21 itemises the variables that significantly contribute to the context in which the sense deposited in class 3 is relevant. The variables of context significantly intervening (having an effect) in the shaping of the context in which the sense(s) deposited in class 3 is relevant are the religion, the interest in disability sport, the proximity to a person with disability, the sex, and the belief in the influence of political

belonging. The associations of Paralympic sport contained in class of associations 3 is mostly relevant for male utterers that are non-religious or have a religion different from Catholicism, Protestantism, or Islam, that do not believe in the influence of political belonging on the associations (representations) to Paralympic sport, and that are not interested in disability sport.

2.2.2.4 Class 4

Sense(s) Deposited

At first glance, the lexical world constituting class 4 bespeaks an affective and emotional dimension associated with disability. Appendix 22 shows the main items composing class 4 along with their associated chi 2 and P values. The analysis of the elements composing this lexical world and the concordancer associated with each of them unveils the sense(s) deposited in this class, which can be phrased as follows: high-performance disability sport "helps" people with disability "psychologically" (regain, courage, inspire, self-confidence) and "physically" (limbs, run, mobility, regain).

Significant Variables of Context

Only three variables of context were significantly involved in the context in which the representation embodied within the class of associations 4 is relevant. Appendix 23 itemises these variables along with their statistical characteristics. The sense contained in class of associations 4 is mostly relevant for utterers that believe that one's political belonging has an influence on one's perception of disability sport, that are of a national sporting level, and that are interested in disability sport. The following variables have an effect on the context in which the representation contained in this class of associations is enabled: belief in influence of political belonging, sporting level and interest in disability.

2.2.2.5 Class 5

Sense(s) Deposited

A first glance at the elements constituting class 5 reveals that this class concerns a cognitive and socio-cultural dimension of disability sport. Appendix 24 lists the words constituting the lexical world of class 5. An analysis of the words composing this class,

along with the concordancers associated with them, reveals the sense(s) deposited therein. This sense(s) can be phrased as follows:

"Cultural" (culture, mentality, solidarity, generation), "political" (ideology, belonging) and "religious" belonging (religion, Muslim, church) "mandatorily" and "positively" (positive) "influence" (influence, change, advocate) the "perceptions" (thought, conception) of high-performance disability sport.

The Associated Variables

There are two variables shaping (having an effect on) the context that enabled the representation deposited in class of associations 5: the proximity to a person with a disability , and the level of practice. Appendix 25 itemises this . The representation contained in the class of associations 5 is mostly relevant for utterers that do "not really" have a person with disability among their relatives (or do not know if they do), and have an amateur level of practice.

2.2.2.6 Class 6

Sense(s) Deposited

At first glance, class 6 strikingly refers to a conative dimension indicating practices associated with high-performance disability sport. Appendix 26 lists the words composing the lexical world of class 6, along with their statistical details.

An analysis of the most prominent words in class 6 and the concordancers associated with them reveals the sense deposited in this class, which seems to describe the conative (sporting) dimension of high-performance disability sport. Through a list of sporting disciplines practiced in "Paralympic" "games" (basket, basketball, tennis, athletics, javelin, throw, championship, volleyball, volley, football, foot, hand, handball, jump, 100m, game, dance, play, race, and dance) put in relationship with some type of disability (arm, foot, crippled), some devices used by para-athletes (wheelchair, wheel, chair, tricycle), the viewers (fan, TV viewers), and the organisation (committee). A sort of confusion of parallels is also made in this class, as the word "Olympic" also appears in it.

Significant Variables of Context

The only variable of context that significantly shapes the context in which the conative dimension of Paralympic games expressed in class 6 is constructed is the disability status. In fact, this conative dimension expressed in class 6 seems to be mostly relevant for people with disability. Appendix 27details the statistical details associated with this variable, thereby bespeaking its role in the construction of the context.

2.2.2.7 Synthesis

Relationship between the classes and synthesis

As a principle underlying the very essence of Reinert DHC (1983, 1991), all the classes mutually exclusive (in terms of the sense deposited) . However, in terms of statistical distance – which according to the Alceste logic, is assumed to bespeak a semantical distance –, some classes are closer (in terms of sense deposited) to one another than others. From the architecture of the DHC displayed in appendix 14 other, it is noticeable that there is something distinguishing class 6 from all the other classes, just as there is also something distinguishing classes 1 and 2 from classes 3, and 4, and something distinguishing classes 3 and 4 from the class 5.

This is to say that classes 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 have something in common that class 6 does not have. In the same way, classes 1 and 2 have something in common that all the other classes do not. And so on for the other classes 3 , 4 and 5; and the classes 3 and 4 subgroups as mentioned above.

An attentive look at the content of each class allowed us to identify what distinguished certain groups of classes from others. Classes 1 and 2 commonly refer to external influencers having an effect on Paralympic sport's organisation or image, while classes 3 and 4 referred to affective dimensions associated with Paralympic sport. Classes 3, 4 and 5 referred to values (association with cognitive and affective dimensions).

The dominant representation of Paralympic Sport in the Cameroonian Corpus

From the DHC (see appendix 14), we can infer that Cameroonians most represented high-performance disability sport in terms of values. Values are in fact the common sense shared between classes 3 (32.5%), 4 (8.4%) and 5 (10.2%). When summing up the percentage of utterances affected to each class, we find that 50.9% of the utterances

analysed – almost the whole corpus– referred to values associated with Paralympic sport. More specifically, we would say that the affective dimension—the union of classes 3 (32.3%), and 4 (8.4%)— is the most dominant class (of association), that is, representation of Paralympic sport in the Cameroonian corpus, as 40.7% of the whole corpus referred to this dimension. Even more specifically, the affective and motivational dimensions associated with disability sport—the sense(s) deposited in class 3 (32.3%)— are the most dominant representation of high-performance disability sport present in the Cameroonian corpus.

Pertinence of Variables of Context in the Cameroonian Corpus

The most prominent variables that shaped the contexts enabling different representations in the Cameroonian corpus are "interest in disability sport" (3 out of 6 contexts), followed by "proximity to disability", "level of sporting practice", and "disability status" (2 out of 6 contexts), and "education level" (1 out of 6 contexts).

The variables "sex", "religion", and "age" did not contribute in shaping any context in which a representation was enabled. The variable "ethnicity" could not be assessed in Cameroon as our respondents were all black.

2.3 The French Corpus

Eighteen French people from different religious, educational, and professional backgrounds were interviewed from Dec 28th 2018 to March 17 2019, for a total duration of 13 hours, 21 minutes, and 34 seconds; the interviews were all led in French. From the 14th interview on, we could notice a saturation in content associated to Paralympic sport by our respondents. We however decided to carry out 4 further interviews, as to verify that the saturation observed was not sample-related. Appendix 28 itemises the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents.

2.3.1 Corpus Description and First Analyses

2.3.1.1 corpus description

The corpus generated by the transcription of the interviews with the French respondents added up to 53,431 occurrences. These occurrences comprised 3407 distinct forms (words), of which 1632 were hapax. The hapax represented 47.90% of the forms and 3.05% of the total corpus. IRAMUTEQ divided this corpus into 1482 segments of text. After the lemmatisation, our corpus still added up to 53,431, but counted less hapax (1012, representing 1.89% of occurrences and 42.50% of the forms). The corpus generated by the interviews with the French participants satisfied the length requirement for a proper analysis using Reinert's (1993) DHC (1983, 1991).

As for the ratios, the TTR and HTR are respectively 6.37 % and 47.9%, which are in the same range as those of the Cameroonian corpus we analysed earlier. The same conclusion we came to after analysing the ratios in the Cameroonian corpus are therefore applicable here. That is, the vocabulary is relatively rich, authorial differentiations are proven, there is a high number of repetitions (poor informational temperature) in this corpus (which is characteristic of spoken language), and the representations (senses deposited in this corpus) can be easily transmitted and used.

2.3.1.2 Denomination Study

The table 22 below lists all the appellations given by the French respondents in reference to high-performance disability sport.

Appellations	Effective
handisport	12/18
do not know	3/18
disability sport	1/18
adapted sport	1/18
Sport	1/18
total	18/18

Table 22 appellations given to high-performance disability sport by French respondents

As we can see, though a huge majority (12/18 of our French respondents deemed that the word "Handisport" best referred to high-performance disability sport, this majority could not be considered consensual. Since the other respondents (those who did not suggest "Handisport" as best referring to high-performance disability sport) either did not know any term that could illustrate high performance disability sport (they suggested nothing), or suggested terms putting sport into relation with disability, or suggested merely the word "sport", it seems appropriate to combine the word "Handisport" (12/18 with the term "sport for people with disabilities"—which in French gives us "*sport pour personnes en situation de handicap*"—as the inductor for our future social representation questionnaire for French respondents.

2.3.1.3 Interest in Disability Sport

Among the eighteen French respondents we interviewed, only 4/18 professed to be interested in disability sport, while 8/18 said they were not "really" interested and six 6/18 weren't interested at all. All four of the French respondents interested in disability sport referred to television as the main channel through which they experience and express their interest in disability sport. Appendix 12 compiles all the responses given by our respondents to the questions related to their interest in high-performance disability sport.

2.3.1.4 Access to Information About Disability Sport

As we noted that 100% of our French respondents knew some information about high-performance disability sport, we asked them how they accessed this information. It appeared that out of eighteen respondents, 12/18 reported having accessed this information via TV, and, without overlap, 4/18 through (alternative) media. The remaining two 2/18 named the Internet, personal experiences, or exchanges with friends as the channels through which they accessed information about disability sport. Of the 12/18 that cited TV as one of the channels through which they accessed information about disability sport, many also cited internet, personal experiences, and discussions with friends (Word-of mouth).

It is evident that media 16/18 and TV in particular 12/18, is the mainstream channel through which French resident citizens access information about disability sport. It is interesting to note that none of our respondents 0/18 specifically referred to radio, only 1/18 cited social networks, and only two 2/18 referred to newspaper. This could mean on the one hand that the social newspaper and radio coverage of disability sport in France is quasi-nonexistent or that French resident citizens are not newspaper readers, nor radio listeners and on the other that disability sport is not a rife phenomenon in social media reality in France. Appendix 13 compiles the responses of all the respondents to the questions related to the information channels through which they accessed information about disability sport.

2.3.2. Reinert's Classification

Using the software IRAMUTEQ as described earlier, we chose to have 12 terminal classes at the end of the first analysis and at least 100 segments of text per class. Out of the 1482 segments comprising the corpus, 1362 (91.90%) were taken into account in the DHC of the French corpus, which satisfied the threshold of 90% we retained earlier. We obtained four lexical words, that is, Classes (of associations). The appendix 29 shows DHC of the French corpus.

A first look at this distribution shows us that the utterances are almost equally distributed within the classes. Though class 3 (18.90%) is very remote from the average class size (25%), the 3 other classes (classes 1, 2 and 4) are very close to this average size

and to one another. Such a distribution does not support the hypothesis of a dominant class.

2.3.2.1 Class 1

The Sense(s) Deposited

Class 1 is strikingly related to a conative dimension of practices associated with Paralympic games, with a strong reference—probably misinformed—to Olympic Games. Appendix 30 itemises the most prominent elements constituting this class, along with the value of chi2 bespeaking their attachment to the class, the percentages of utterances containing the elements, and the value of P. After analysing the relations between the words itemised above with the help of the concordance associated with each of them, we can deduce the main sense deposited in this class as being mainly related to the practices that are part of the Paralympic games—and eventually of the Olympic games—, and phrase it as follows: the "practices" (competitions, championships, events) included in "Paralympic"— and incidentally "Olympic"— "games" are the games "wheelchair basketball" "foot (short form of football)" "match(noun)", "swimming", "athletics" "football", "triathlon" ,"tennis", "wheelchair handball".

Variables Contributing to the Context

Appendix 31 itemises the variables that significantly contribute to the context in which the sense(s) deposited is relevant. Class 1 from the French corpus mostly bespeaks the position of male non-practitioners of sport who do not believe that—or do not know whether— political belonging has an influence on the perception of high-performance disability sport. The variables "sex", "belief on the influence on political belonging", and "level of practice" have effects on the context in which the representation deposited in class 1 was shaped. It is also interesting to observe that the variable "sex" is highly "influential", as the probability of being mistaken is almost nil ($p < 0.0001$).

2.3.2.2 Class 2

The Sense(s) Deposited

A first glimpse at the lexical world contained in class 2 of the DHC of the French corpus reveals that this is related to an affective (motivational and emotional) dimension associated with high-performance disability sport. Appendix 32 itemises the most prominent items constituting this class, along with their statistical characteristics. An analysis of the most prominent words itemised above, and the concordancer associated with each of them reveals the sense deposited in class 2, which can be phrased as follows: "High-level" "athletes" with "disabilities" (situation) seek "recognition" and want (willingness) to "prove" (inspire) to the "society" that they are "capable" (capability, reach) despite "difficulties".

Variables Contributing to the Context

The sense deposited in class 2 of the DHC of the French corpus is associated with a context: the characteristics of the utterer(s) taking position(s) described in class 2. The appendix 33 itemises the variables that significantly contribute to this context, along with their statistical details.

The sense deposited in class 2 of the French corpus is mostly relevant for participants believing that political belonging has no effect on the perception of high-performance disability sport, and who have a university level of education below a master's degree. The belief in the influence of political belonging and the level of education are the only variables having a significant effect on the context enabling the representation deposited in class 2

2.3.2.3 Class 3

Sense(s) Deposited

Class 3 is *à priori* related to a comparison or customisation of something to the body. The appendix 34 itemises the most prominent items constituting class 3, along with their statistical characteristics. When linking the most prominent elements bespeaking the content of class 3 in accordance with the concordancer associated with each of those, we can phrase the sense deposited in class 3 as follows: "adapting" (try, similitude, basis,

succeed, according to, in comparison with) "activities" (effort, club) to "disabled" people (difficulty, pathologies, problem, physical mental, motor, arm).

Significant Variables of Context

Appendix 35 itemises the variables of context that significantly contribute to the context in which the sense deposited in class 3 is relevant. The variables of context significantly intervening in the shaping of the context enabling the representation deposited in class 3 of the French corpus are religion, level of practice, sex and interest in disability sport.

The representation deposited in this class is mostly relevant for participants believing in the influence of political belonging on the perception of high-performance disability sport, and of a university level below a master's degree.

2.3.2.4 Class 4

Sense(s) Deposited

A first look at class 4 (see appendix 36) of the DHC of the French corpus hints that this class is related to a cognitive dimension associated with high-performance disability sport The As we can see, though a huge majority (12/18 of our French respondents deemed that the word "Handisport" best referred to high-performance disability sport, this majority could not be considered consensual. Since the other respondents (those who did not suggest "Handisport" as best referring to high-performance disability sport) either did not know any term that could illustrate high performance disability sport (they suggested nothing), or suggested terms putting sport into relation with disability, or suggested merely the word "sport", it seems appropriate to combine the word "Handisport" (12/18 with the term "sport for people with disabilities"—which in French gives us "*sport pour personnes en situation de handicap*"—as the inductor for our future social representation questionnaire for French respondents.

lists the most prominent items constituting class 4, along with their statistical characteristics. Political (right, far, left, belonging, party, network) questions (topic, wonder, think), religion and media (speak, sensitize) somewhat influence social perceptions (vision, tendency, way) of high-performance disability sport.

Significant Variables of Context

The appendix 37 itemises the variables of context that significantly contribute to the context in which the sense deposited in class 4 of the DHC of the French corpus is relevant. The sense deposited in class 4 is mostly relevant for P rotestant amateur participants aged above 30 who are not interested in disability sport and who believe that political belonging influences the perception of high-performance disability sport. The variables having an effect on the context enabling the representation are "level of practice", "age", "interest in disability sport", "belief in the influence of political belonging", and "religion".

2.3.2.5 Synthesis

Relationship Between the Classes.

As mentioned previously, when studying the relationships between the different classes of Reinert's DHC (1983, 1991) of the Cameroonian corpus, all the classes are mutually exclusive in terms of the sense deposited. However, in terms of distance, some classes may be closer (in terms of sense deposited) to one another than others.

The architecture of Reinert's DHC (1983, 1991) (see appendix 29) of the French corpus shows the relationships between the different classes. There is something distinguishing the union of classes 2 and 3 from classes 1 and 4. There is also something common to classes 2, 3 and 4 that is not relevant for class 1.

After analysing the content of each class, it appears clearly that classes 2 and 3 both refer to disability in relation to sport; more specifically, class 2 refers to "the disabled going towards sport", and class 3 refers to "sport going towards the disabled". This double relationship between disability and sport does not appear in the other classes, and therefore distinguishes the union of classes 2 and 3 from the others. The same analysis of the content of each class shows that classes 2, 3 and 4 all refer to dimensions external to practice, while class 1 refers essentially to practice.

Dominant Representation of Paralympic Sport in the French Corpus

As said earlier, the distribution of classes composing Reinert's DHC of the French corpus is rather balanced. It is difficult to generate a strong hypothesis of the dominance of any one representation. Technically, we could say that the representation contained in

class 1 (the conative dimension) is dominant as it represents 29.3% of the total utterances analysed. However, such an assertion is debatable as classes 2 and 3 are very close to one another and commonly refer to disability in relation to sport. Thus, if we were to situate ourselves at a general level, it could also make sense to say that the union of classes 2 and 3 is the dominant representation. However, it seems more appropriate to situate ourselves at a very specific level, in which case the representation contained in class 1—the conative dimension of high-performance disability sport—is the dominant representation, though only slightly dominant as classes 4 (25.8%) and 3 (26%) are not very distant from class 1 (29.3%) in terms of percentages.

Pertinence of Variables of Context in the French Corpus

The most prominent variable that shaped the contexts that enabled different representations in the French corpus is belief in the influence of political belonging (3 out of 4 contexts), followed by level of practice and level of education (2 out of 4 contexts). The variables religion, age, and interest in disability sport poorly contributed to shaping contexts in which representations were enabled (only 1 out of 4 contexts). The variables ethnicity and proximity to disability did not contribute to any context in which a representation was enabled. The other variables (nationality, disability status) could not be assessed in France, as all our respondents were abled-bodied and French.

2.3 The German corpus

13 random (see details in appendix 38) German citizens were interviewed between April 25th and July 30th 2019 for a total interview duration of 13 hours 08 minutes 21 seconds. Four of these interviews were led in French (as the interviewees were fully proficient in French), whereas the other nine were led in English (as the interviewees were fully proficient in English). From the 10th interview on, we observed a saturation in the content our respondents associated to Paralympic sport. We however carried out 3 further interviews to make sure this saturation was not sample-related.

2.3.1 Corpus Description and First Analyses

2.3.1.1 Corpus Description

The corpus generated by the transcription of the 13 interviews above-mentioned counted 25,834 occurrences comprising 2230 distinct forms, of which 1091 were hapax. The hapax represented 48.92% of the forms and 4.22% of the total occurrences. The corpus was divided into 3743 utterances. After being lemmatized, the corpus still counted 25,834 occurrences, but now 1625 forms of which 708 were hapax (representing 2.74% of the total occurrences, and 43.57% of the forms). As for the ratios, the TTR and HTR are respectively 6.29 % and 43.57%, which are in the same range as those of the Cameroonian corpus we analysed earlier. The same conclusion we came to after analysing the ratios in the Cameroonian corpus are therefore applicable here. That is, the vocabulary is relatively rich, authorial differentiations are proven, there is a high number of repetitions (poor informational temperature) in this corpus (which is characteristic of spoken language), and the representations (the senses deposited in this corpus) can be easily transmitted and used.

2.3.1.2 Denomination Study

The table 23 below itemises the appellations given to high-performance disability sport by our German interviewees.

Appellations	Frequency
Paralympic sport/ games	6/13

(*paralympischer Sport/ paralympische Spiele*)

disability sport (*Behindertensport*)	2/13
professional sport	1/13
Inclusion	1/13
growth *(Wachstum)*	1/13
olympics	1/13
do not know	1/13
Total	13/13

Table 23 Appellations given to high-performance disability sport by German respondents

Considering the preceding , it seems advisable to use both high-performance disability sport (*Hochleistungsbehindertensport in German*) and Paralympic sport (*Paralympische sport in German*) as inductors for our future social representation questionnaire.

2.3.1.3 Interest in Disability Sport

Among the thirteen German respondents we interviewed, 5/13 reported to be interested in disability sport, while 4/13 reported to be not "really" interested and 4/13 not to be interested at all. Appendix 12 compiles all the responses given by our respondents to the questions related to their interest in high-performance disability sport, along with the way they expressed their interest in Paralympic sport.

2.3.1.4 Access to Information About Disability Sport

As we noted, 12 / 13 people we interviewed in Germany reported to be apprised of high-performance disability sport. Interestingly, unlike in the instances of Cameroon and France (where newspapers were not cited as a source of information about Paralympic sport), newspapers appeared to be a dominant source of information about Paralympic sport (referred to by 6/13 just behind TV (cited by 7/13). Some personal involvements (probably a result of the specificity of our sample) were also noted in the relationship to Paralympic sport, as our interviewees included some sport scientists.

Appendix 13 compiles the responses of all the respondents to the questions related to the information channels through which they accessed information about disability sport.

2.3.2 Reinert Classification

The software IRAMUTEQ was parametered to organise the German corpus into 7 classes at the end of the first analysis and to include at least 40 utterances in each final class. With this set up, we obtained 5 final classes. To produce these 5 classes, 677 out of our 722 utterances (93.77%) were analysed, thereby satisfying our minimal requirement of 90% of utterances.

The appendix 39 presents a DHC of the German corpus. The first striking observation is that this distribution is unbalanced. Three of the five lexical worlds generated by the German corpus are smaller in size than the average class size in this distribution (20%). The hypothesis of a dominant class is also strikingly encouraged by this distribution, as there is a class (class 4) the size of which is almost twice the average class size in this distribution (39.4%).

2.3.2.1 Class 1

The Sense(s) Deposited

A first look at the content of class 1 suggests that this class is related to an emotional dimension of disability in society. The Appendix 40 itemises the most prominent elements constituting this class, along with the value of chi2 bespeaking their attachment to the class, the percentages of utterances containing the elements, and the value of P. The analysis of the elements of class 1 along with the concordancer associated with each of them enables us to phrase the sense deposited in class 1 as follows: "society" should (important) "change" and "understand" that people with disabilities (cripple) are '"capable" of achieving (succeed, show) their "dreams", and "be" "ready" to "help" (support, need) them. Our suspicion that this class contains an emotional dimension of disability in society has been confirmed.

Variables Contributing to the Context

The sense above identified above was deposited in class 1 by a certain type of utterer. Appendix 41 itemises the variables that significantly contribute the context in which the sense(s) deposited is relevant. That is to say, it lists the characteristics of the utterers whose utterances significantly contributed to the sense deposited in class 1. An exploitation of the appendix 41 shows us that the sense deposited in class 1 was mostly deposited by protestant participants aged between 20 and 25, who are not really interested in high-performance disability sport. The variables "interest in disability", "religion" and "age" significantly contributed to the construction of the context enabling or producing the representation deposited in class 1.

2.3.2.2 Class 2

The Sense(s) Deposited

A first glimpse at class 2 seems to be related to a cognitive dimension of high-performance disability sport. Appendix 42 itemises the most prominent items constituting class 2, along with their statistical characteristics. The analysis of the elements of class 2 and the concordance associated with each of them confirms that the sense deposited in this class is related to a cognitive dimension associated with high-performance disability sport. This sense is not quite easy to phrase. However, it clearly a ppears to relate Paralympic sport (expressed by the words "h igh", "level", "performance", "disability", "situation", "sport", "compete", and "fan") to a cognitive dimension (expressed by the words "think", "influence", "inspire", "knowledge", and "reason"). Our initial idea that this class was related to a cognitive dimension associated with Paralympic sport—is rather reinforced.

Variables Contributing to the Context

The sense deposited in class 2 is associated with a context (the characteristics of the utterer(s) taking position(s) described in class 2). Appendix 43 itemises the variables that significantly contribute to this context. The sense in this class is mostly deposited by male participants that are not interested in disability sport, have an amateur level of practice, are non-believers or from religions other than Catholicism, Protestantism and Islam, and either believe in the influence of political belonging on the perception of disability sport,

or do not really. The variables characterizing the utterers whose representations are deposited in this class are "religion", "proximity to disability", "level of practice", "interest in disability sport", "sex", and "influence of political belonging".

2.3.2.3 Class 3

Sense(s) Deposited

Class 3, the elements of which are detailed in appendix 44 is *à priori* related to an affective and motivational dimension of disability sport When analysing the most prominent elements of this class, and the concordancer associated with each of them, we can phrase the sense deposited in it as follows: We should "give" "respect" (impressive, learn) to these athletes (basketball, swimming, rolling) who despite their "daily" "life" "bodily" "problems" (body, hand, foot, sensation, cruel) find the "motivation" and "reach" their "goals".

Unlike we thought before our analysis— that class 3 was related to an affective and motivational dimension of disability sport—our analysis has rather revealed that this class is related to an "inspirational" dimension of disability sport.

Significant Variables of Context

Appendix 45 itemises the variables of context that significantly contribute to the context in which the sense deposited in class 3 is relevant.

The representation(s) deposited in this class bespeak the position(s) of Protestant female utterers aged between 26 and 30 who believe in the influence of political belonging on the perception of disability sport, are interested in disability sport, have an amateur level of practice, have a university level below a master's, and are not really close to disability.

The variables forming a significant part of the characteristics of the utterers whose position (s) is deposited in this class are "sex", "age", "proximity to a person with disability", "level of education", "religion", "level of practice", "interest in disability sport", and "belief in the influence of political belonging".

2.3.2.4 Class 4

Sense(s) Deposited

At first glance, the sense deposited in class 4 is related to a conative dimension of Paralympic sport associated with a media dimension. Appendix 46 itemises the most prominent elements constituting class 4.

The analysis of each element along with the concordance associated with it and its relationship with the other elements of the class did not allow us to phrase the sense deposited in class 4. However, it did allow us to assert with certitude that this sense puts a conative dimension of Paralympic and Olympic sport in relationship with a media dimension. The words "Olympic", "Paralympic", "game", "play", "basketball", "championship", "rule", "event, and "football" indicated the conative dimension of Olympic and Paralympic sport, while the words "watch", "TV", "pass (be broadcasted)", "follow", and "Internet" indicated the media dimension associated with that conative dimension. We found no indicator to understand the judgment or the sense(s) that the utterers gave to these two dimensions.

Significant VariableS of Context

The appendix 47 itemises the characteristics of utterers whose positions were deposited in class 4. The representation deposited in class 4 bespeaks the position(s) of Protestant female utterers aged between 21 and 30 who are not really interested in disability sport, not close to disability, have an amateur level of practice, have a university level below master's, and believe in the influence of one's political belonging on one's perception of disability sport.

The variables contributing to the characteristics of utterers whose positions are deposited in class 4 are "belief in the influence of political belonging", "proximity to disability", "level of education", "religion", "level of practice", "age", "interest in disability sport", and "sex".

2.3.2.5 Class 5

Sense(s) Deposited

At the first look, class 5 seems the most heterogonous class, as it encompasses many elements that apparently have nothing common and are unrelated. Even the analysis of the concordancer associated with each word constituting this class does not really help to shed light on the sense deposited there.

However, when analysing concomitantly the lexical words in class five and the characteristics of the utterers whose positions are deposited in class 5, we strikingly observe that these characteristics correspond to only one of our German interviewees. This interviewee is a university professor of sport history and has led several research studies with the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the International Paralympic Committee (IPC). He is also member of several commissions within the IOC.

During the interview, this interviewee addressed three main topics:

➢ A situational analysis of Paralympic sport in the world and in Germany

➢ A comparative analysis of Olympic vs. Paralympic sport in Germany

➢ His view on the behind-the-scenes activities and decision-making processes in the IOC and the IPC

Appendix 48 itemises the most prominent elements of class 5.

The Associated Variables

As mentioned above, the variables characteristic to utterers whose position(s) were deposited in class 5 corresponded to the characteristics of the interviewee mentioned above. Appendix 49 lists these variables along with their statistical details.

2.3.2.6 Synthesis

Relationship Between the Classes and Synthesis

As mentioned earlier, all the classes are opposed to one another by the nature of Reinert's DHC (1983, 1991). However, some classes are closer to one another than others. The architecture of Reinert's DHC (1983, 1991) (appendix 39) for the German corpus shows us that classes 1 and 2 are closer to one another than to all the other classes. In addition, classes 1, 2, and 3 are closer to one another than to all the other classes. It is also

noticeable that classes 1, 2, 3 and 4 are closer to one another than to class 5. The preceding suggests that there is something—a sense—common to classes 1 and 2 that is not in the other classes, something common to classes 1, 2, and 3 that is not in the other classes, and something common to classes 1, 2, 3, and 4 that is not in class 5.

A further analysis of the structure of Reinert's DHC (1983, 1991) of the German corpus and the content of each class allowed us to find the common thread linking the classes. We did not succeed in identifying the common sense shared between classes 1 and 2. However, we could find that the common sense shared between classes 1, 2 and 3 is "values": classes 1, 2, and 3 respectively refer to cognitive, emotional and motivational dimensions associated with Paralympic sport. These 3 dimensions are all about "values" and do not appear in class 4, which refers to conative and media dimensions, nor in class 5, which addresses the 3 topics mentioned above (see previous page).

With regard to classes 1, 2, 3, and 4, the common-sense shared between them is Paralympic sport as a union of cognitive, emotional, motivational, conative and media dimensions . This sense is not clearly displayed in class 5.

The Dominant Representation of Paralympic Sport in the German Corpus

The structure and content of Reinert's DHC (a year) of the German corpus allows us to establish a ranking of the dimensions of Paralympic sport perceived by the German participants. In such a ranking, the conative and media dimensions would be the dominant representation of Paralympic sport in Germany with 39.4% of the utterances analysed, followed by the cognitive dimension with 23.5%.

Pertinence of Context Variables in the German Corpus

The most prominent variable that shaped the contexts enabling different representations in the German corpus is "religion" (5 out of 5 contexts), followed by "proximity to disability", "sex", "age", "level of practice", "interest in disability sport" (4 out of 5 contexts) and "belief in the influence of political belonging" and "level of education" (3 out of 5 contexts). There other variables (nationality, disability status, and ethnicity) which could not be assessed in Germany, as all our respondents were abled-bodied, white, and German.

2.4 **General** Synthesis of Interview-Based Exploratory Studies

The interview-based exploratory studies above have allowed us to identify the different exogenous identities bestowed on Paralympic sport by different groups at a meso-level. It also enabled us to identify the variables significantly contributing at macro- and mega-levels (country and multi-country levels) to shaping the contexts within which these exogenous identities were bestowed on Paralympic sport. Appendices 50 and 51 respectively summarise these outcomes.

2.4.1 Paralympic Sport as an Object of Social Representation

As we have seen in chapter II, according to Moscovici (1961), for a subject to be subject of social representation in a group, there needs to be (1) a dispersion of the information about it within the group, (2) a focalisation on some specific aspects (information) of the objects, and (3) a pressure to inference.

This first exploratory study has shown how fragmented knowledge was about Paralympic sport in all the societies we are studying, which satisfies Moscovici's (1961) first condition necessary for a subject to be a subject of social representation.

This first exploratory study also showed how, despite the fragmentation of the information, some aspects (information about) of Paralympic sport were given more importance than others according to the society studied; that is, some societies admitted dominant representations of Paralympic sport. Even in the absence of a major dominance (the case of France, for example), information was organised into lexical worlds bespeaking the focalisation of subgroups within the societies studied on some specific aspect of Paralympic sport. This satisfies the Moscovici's (1961) second condition for a subject to qualify as subject of social representation.

As for the third condition—that is, the pressure to inference (Moscovici, 1961)—which Moliner (1996) refer to as "a stake", we did not evaluate it in this study. However, considering that sport has been proven to be an object of social representation (Lacassagne et al., 2004; Lacassagne et al., 2006; Piermatteo et al., 2014, 2018; Bert, 2016), and that disability has also been proven to be object of social representation (Devenney, 2004), we could assume some pressure to inference regarding disability sport, which would then satisfy Moscovici's (1961) third condition.

The empirical satisfaction of the first and second conditions through our study, and the assumption of the satisfaction of the third condition (as sport and disability are both

objects of social representation), qualifies Paralympic sport to be an object of social representation.

Regarding the dispersion of the information, when a particular interest or stake is bestowed on an object by a group, the information about this object is scattered and divided. As a matter of fact, individuals do not have all the information about the object in its complexity. Rather, they possess pieces and fragments of information (about the object) that they picked when communicated to about it. These pieces and fragments of information are quite often distortions of the scientific truth about the object (Rouquette, 1999, 2009) as they were constructed on the basis of a non-scientific logic that Doise (1993) would label a "social logic". Guimelli (1999) would notice that this so-called "social logic" is very influenced by the context in which the object is encountered.

Concerning the focalisation, since the information is scattered and divided, individuals will focus on certain specific aspects that they deem relevant or pertinent according to their interests, their background, and their senses of belonging (which groups or subgroups or categories their belong to), thus defining their position towards the object. This position is subjective as it takes into account subject-related interests.

2.4.2 The comparability of country-specific representations

Our understanding of the concept of comparison is that comparing things equates to saying what they share in common and what separates them from one another, on the one hand presenting the consubstantiality they entertain with one another and on the other showing in what ways they are different from one another despite this consubstantiality.

As we have seen above, cognitive, affective, conative and media dimensions were common to the representation of Paralympic sport in each country. However, the magnitude with which each of these dimensions contributed to the landscape of Paralympic sport's representation varied from one country to another. On these grounds, we could postulate that Paralympic sport's representations in these countries are consubstantial yet different enough to be comparable.

2.4.3 Media Influence as Potential Variable for our Model

We have seen through this study that media (especially TV) were empirically the main source of information about Paralympic sport, and subsequently of Paralympic sport's representation. This hints the usefulness of taking into account media influence as a potential variable for explaining representations, attitudes and behaviours towards Paralympic sport as theoretically supported by cultivation theory (Gerbner, 1967) and agenda setting theory (McCombs & Shaw, 1972).

CHAPTER VI: SOCIAL REPRESENTATIONS OF PARALYMPIC SPORT IN CAMEROON, FRANCE, AND GERMANY

This Section aims at (1) identifying the content and the hypothetical structure of the social representation of Paralympic sport in each country, and (2) operationalising these social representations into a variable that will be used in our analysis model for extending the Planned behaviour Theory.

It is structured according to the table of contents below:

1. METHODOLOGY

For this study, we chose to employ the structural approach of social representations (Abric, 1994 a, b, c, 2003; Flament, 1994 a, b) that has been used by the few studies that addressed the social representation of sport (e.g., Lacassagne et al., 2004; Lacassagne et al., 2006; Bert, 2016).

Data collection was made using the free associations method (Abric, 2003), which consists in asking respondent to provide us with ten words that, according to them, best describe the "inductor" given to them. In our case , we chose inductors which best embodied or symbolised Paralympic sport in each country, as identified in the first exploratory study (see pages chapter V). This technique of free word association has been used for investigating brand knowledge (e.g., Elliott, 1994; Keller, 1993; Krishnan, 1996; Spear et al., 2006), and social representation-based brand image (e.g., Ferrand and Pages, 1996; Bodet et al., 2009; Bodet and Lacassagne, 2012; Lebrun et al., 2013).

To identify the content of the representation was made on the sole basis of the frequency of elements composing the representation. Theoretically, the threshold of 10% has been used by most of the studies that addressed the social representation of sport (e.g., Lacassagne et al., 2004; Lacassagne et al., 2006, Bert, 2016), but we did not exclude the possibility of lowering this threshold to 5% in the event that at a 10% threshold there would not be enough words to catch a proper glimpse of the of the content of the social representation. This possibility of lowering the threshold for elements which qualify as part of the representation's field is sustained by Doise and Palmonari (1986), according to whom, once a word has been referred to by at least two people, it can be considered part of the social representation's field.

The identification of the social representation's structures was done through Verges' (1992, 1994) prototypical analysis, which hypothesises the centrality of items (which part of the representation structure they belong to) according to the frequency and chronological order in which they were referred to. Verges' (1992, 1994) prototypical analysis hypothesises that these items belong to one of the four areas that structure the social representation: the central nucleus, the first periphery, the contrasted area, and the second periphery. The table 24 below presents Verges' (1992, 1994) structure of social representation according to items' frequency and ranking (Chronological order).

	Ranking higher (that is numerically lower) than the average ranking of elements composing the representation's field	Ranking lower (that is numerically higher) than the average ranking of elements composing the representation's field
Frequency above the average frequency of items composing the social representation's field	Central Nucleus Context-free, composed of frequent (above the average) and highest ranked elements (numerically below the average)	1st periphery frequent elements (frequency above the average), and low ranking (ranking numerically above the average)
Frequency below the average frequency of elements composing the social representation's field	Contrasted area Highly ranked elements, with low frequency (below the average)	2nd periphery Elements with low frequency (frequency below the average) and low ranking (ranking numerically above the average).

Table 24 Structure of social representation according to items'

Verges (1992,1994) classification was further completed by similarity analyses based on the graphs theory and provided by the software IRAMUTEQ. While the similarity analysis allowed us to reinforce or weaken hypotheses of centrality, and to decide to which part of the representation (first or second periphery) elements from the contrasted area were to be attached, the   Correspondence Analysis (CA) provided us with the social anchorages on which the representations were formed and shared.

Given that the empirical indicators (Carugati et al., 1994) of social representation were too diverse and heterogeneous, and considering the necessity of comparing them on the one hand and operationalising them for the upcoming confirmatory study on the other, we resorted to a categorical analysis (Verges, 1992, 1994), grouping the "*empirical indicators*" (Carugati et al., 1994, p.1) — the elementary items of social representations — into "*conceptions*" (Carugati et al., 1994, p.1) according to the principle of "*abduction*" (Lalhou, 1995, 2008), that is, by grouping the elementary items composing the social

representation into the smallest common paradigms (les "*plus petits communs paradigms*")(Lahlou, 1995, 2008). These "*conceptions*" (Carugati et al., 1994 p.1) could also be referred to as "*paradigms*" (Lahlou, 1995, 2008) or "*reference universes*" (Ghiglione *et al.*, 1998), or even "*semantic equivalents*" (Wolff and Viser, 2005 p.4).

This abduction (Lahlou, 1995, 2008) of elementary items into conceptions (Carugati et al., 1994), that is according to their semantic proximity, was supplemented by insights from similarity analyses based on Graphs Theory. This approach enabled us to study the social representation not only as a group of structured empirical elements but also as a gathering of reference universes, called upon at different magnitudes to represent Paralympic sport. This latter approach aimed at studying social representations of P aralympic sport in Cameroon, France, and Germany from a macro perspective; this would ease the comparisons and facilitate the operationalis ation of the social representation as a variable within the overall model that will be assessed in the upcoming confirmatory study.

The Social Representation of Paralympic Sport in Cameroon

From September 2020 to February 2021 a social representation questionnaire was administered to 396 Cameroonians with an average age of 26±6.9 years old, composed of 171 women and 225 men. 371 questionees were without disability and 25 were with a disability 182 were without any relative with a disability and 214 had at least one relative bearing an impairment; 248 defined themselves as sport practitioners and 148 defined themselves as non-practitioners. After activating responders' national identity, by positioning them as "Cameroonian", the questionnaire was composed of a task of free association (10 words) related to the inductors "*sport pour personnes en situation de handicap*", "*handisport*" and "*sport Paralympique*." To which were added some questions addressing respondents' socio-demographic features.

The corpus which emerged from our 396 Cameroonian respondents was composed of 3125 occurrences, encompassing 1088 forms. 708 of these 1088 forms were hapaxes (words occurring only once), representing 65% of the total forms employed by our respondents to describe Paralympic sport, and 21.2% of the total number of occurrences.

This high percentage of hapaxes bespoke either the richness of the Cameroonian vocabulary (Lardilleux & Lepage, 2007 p: 458) or how much fragmented is knowledge about Paralympic sport is in Cameroon, or even perhaps both.

2.1. Field of the Representation

In accordance with our methodology (see title 1 of this chapter), the access to the representation field was made on the sole basis of an item's frequency; that is, what percentage of respondents referred to the item to describe Paralympic sport in Cameroon. Due to the high variability of forms employed, and to the very wide lexical field naturally associated with Paralympic sport (see the finding of the first exploratory study where the terms "*handisport*", "*sport paralympique*", and "*sport de haut niveau pour personnes en situation de handicap*" bespoke the same practice in France), and to the very low levels of consensus (probably bespeaking the fact that Paralympic sport is not a "highly social" object in this country), we decided to lower the threshold of frequency for identifying the social representation's field (usually 10%, Lacassagne et al., 2004. Lacassagne et al., 2006) to 5%. Our decision was based upon Doise & Palmonari's (1986) finding, according to

which, once a term has been evoked by more than two people, it can already be considered part of the social representation.

According to the above-mentioned procedure, we identified a representation field composed of 21 items. These items are, by decreasing order of frequency, the following: "money" (*argent*), "basket", "courage", "football", "blind" (*aveugle*), "competition", "joy" (*joie*), "swimming" (*natation*), "athletics" (*athletisme*), "handball", "volleyball", "fame" (*celebrité*), "disabled" (*handicapé*), "blossoming" (*épanouissement*), "dumb", (*muet*), "tennis", "strength" (force), "determination", "prosthesis" (*prothèse*), "performance", "deaf and dumb" (*sourd muet*), "race" (*course*), "amputee" (*amputé*), and "wheelchair" (*fauteuil roulant*). The table 25 below presents the elements composing the field of Paralympic sport's social representation in Cameroon, along with the frequency and relative percentage of their evocations.

mod	freq	percent of total	row number	percent of rows
ARGENT	69	2.21	69	17.42
BASKET	56	1.79	56	14.14
COURAGE	51	1.63	50	12.63
FOOTBALL	44	1.41	44	11.11
AVEUGLE	43	1.38	43	10.86
COMPETITION	43	1.38	42	10.61
JOIE	38	1.22	38	9.6
NATATION	34	1.09	34	8.59
ATHLETISME	33	1.06	33	8.33
HANDBALL	30	0.96	30	7.58
Volleyball	27	0.86	27	6.82
CELEBRITE	27	0.86	27	6.82
HANDICAPE	27	0.86	26	6.57
EPANOUISSEMENT	26	0.83	26	6.57
MUET	25	0.8	25	6.31
TENNIS	24	0.77	22	5.56
FORCE	22	0.7	22	5.56
DETERMINATION	22	0.7	22	5.56
PROTHESE	22	0.7	22	5.56
PERFORMANCE	22	0.7	22	5.56
SOURD MUET	21	0.67	21	5.3
COURSE	21	0.67	21	5.3
AMPUTE	20	0.64	20	5.05
CHAISE ROULANTE	20	0.64	20	5.05
Bienvenue				

Table 25 Elements composing the field of Paralympic sport's social representation in Cameroon

2.2. Access to the Structure of Social Representation

According to our methodology (see pages title 1 of this chapter), the first step towards identifying the structure of the representation was to carry out a prototypical analysis (Verges, 1992, 1994).

Figure 38 below provides us with a prototypical analysis of the items composing the field of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon.

<= 4.21 Rangs > 4.21

Zone du noyau	Première périphérie
ARGENT-69-3.4 BASKET-56-4.2 FOOTBALL-44-3.2 AVEUGLE-43-3.4 COMPETITION-43-4.2 NATATION-34-4.1 ATHLETISME-33-3.6	COURAGE-51-4.3 JOIE-38-5
Elements contrastés	**Seconde périphérie**
Volleyball-27-3.9 HANDICAPE-27-3.4 MUET-25-4.2 PROTHESE-22-3.5 SOURD MUET-21-3.1 CHAISE ROULANTE-20-3.4	HANDBALL-30-5.3 CELEBRITE-27-5 EPANOUISSEMENT-26-5.2 TENNIS-24-4.7 FORCE-22-5.9 DETERMINATION-22-4.8 PERFORMANCE-22-5.2 COURSE-21-4.5 AMPUTE-20-6.2

Fréquences >= 31.96 / < 31.96

Figure 38 Items composing the field of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon.

According to this prototypical classification, this means that when representing Paralympic sport, Cameroonian would first refers to Paralympic sport, they would first refer to "money", "football", "blind", "competition", "swimming", and "athletics", which are central to the representation, then according to the context they refers to elements "basket", "courage", and "joy", from the first periphery, then "volleyball", "disabled", "dumb", "prosthesis", "deaf and dumb", and "wheelchair" from the contrasted area and

endly to the elements "handball", "fame", "blossoming" (*epanouissement*), "tennis", "strength", "determination", "performance", "race", and "amputee", from the second periphery. The figure 39 below presents the tentative structure of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon.

2ⁿᵈperiphery
"handball", "fame", "blossoming" "tennis", "strength", "determination", "performance", "race", and "amputee"

Constrated area
"volleyball", "disabled", "dumb", "prosthesis", "deaf and dumb", and "wheelchair"

1ˢᵗperiphery
"courage", and "joy",

central nucleus
money", basket, "football", "blind", "competition" , "swimming", and "athletics",
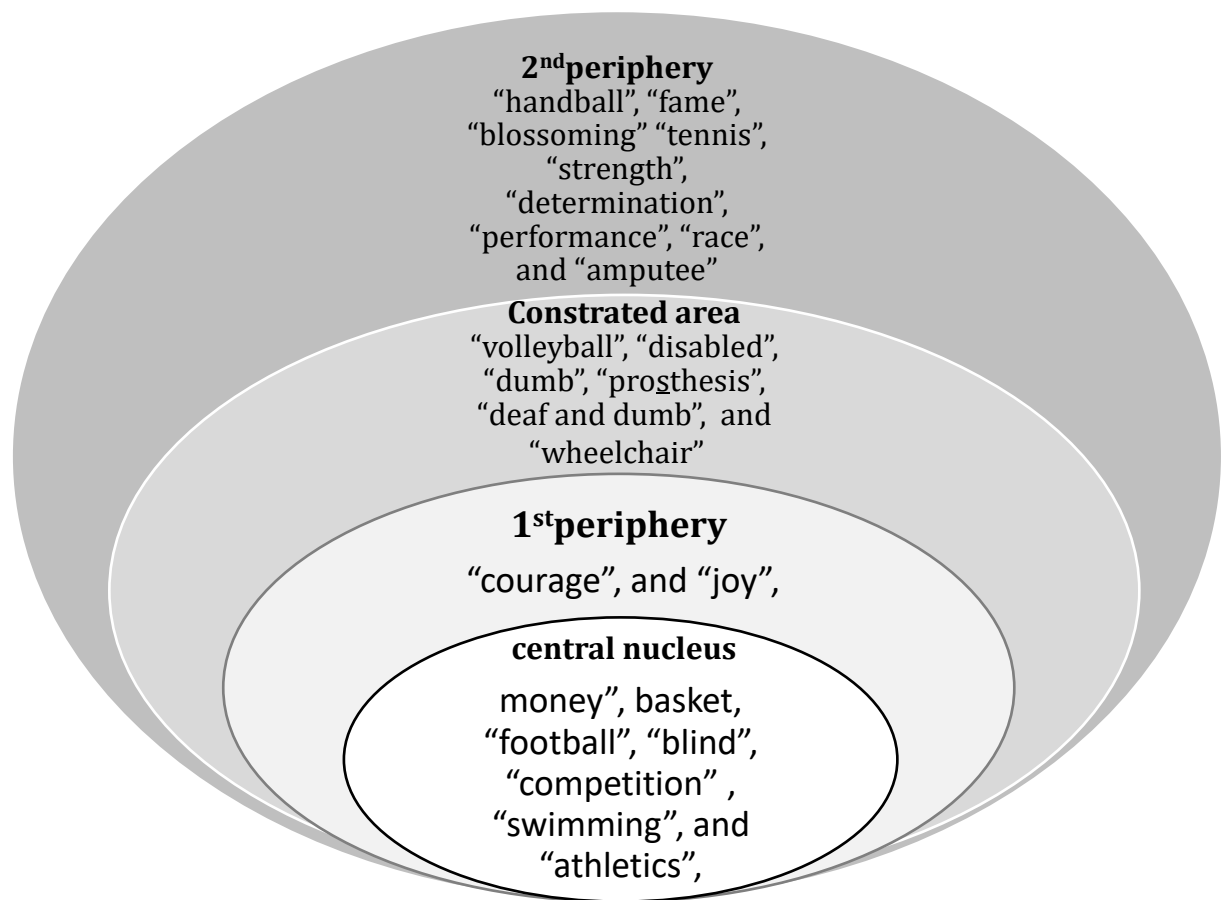
Figure 39 Structure of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon

Having noticed that two different terms ("*chaise roulante" and "fauteuil roulant")* were used for wheelchair, and considering the fact that these two terms are unlikely to have been evoked by the same respondent (since they mean the same thing), and given that their compound frequency (36) and average rank (3.40) are above the thresholds calculated and used by the software IRAMUTEQ to identify the potential central nucleus of our representation, we added the item "wheelchair" to the hypothetical central nucleus of the representation. This hypothetical nucleus then became composed of the items

"money" (*argent*), "football", "blind" (*aveugle*), "competition" (*competition*), "swimming" (*natation*), "athletics" (*athletisme*), and the first periphery of the elements " basket", "courage", "joy" (joie) and "wheelchair" (*chaise roulante and fauteuil roulant*).

Draw a new chart showcasing the new hypothetical structure here

2.3. Categorical Analysis

Due to the high variability of words used to describe Paralympic sport, and since we only analysed items evoked by at least 5% of our respondents, we decided to carry out a categorical analysis on all the associations that were made by at least 2% of our respondents, that is, words that occurred at least 8 times in our corpus. In doing so, we were able to include a larger number of evocations in our analysis. From the 85 words that were evoked by at least 2% of our respondents, we demarcated 12 categories as laid out in the table below.

Categories	Words	Frequency	Average rank
Societal values of sport	Insertion, social insertion, integration (intégration), peaceful life (vie paisible), freedom (liberté), equity (équité), egality (égalité), peace (paix), hope (espoir)	100	5.38
Prosperity-related values	Money (argent), fame (célébrité), pride (fierté),	109	4.15
Post-modern values of sport	Health(santé), happiness (bonheur), pleasure (plaisir), joy (joie), Love (amour), capability (capacité), (blossoming) épanouissement, passion	148	5.35
Types of impairement	Motor handicap (handicap moteur), hearing (auditif), autism (autisme), psychic (psychique), mental, visual (visuel), handicap	86	4.83
Types of Practitioners	Blind (Aveugle), disabled (handicapé), dumb (muet), deaf & dumb (sourd muet), maimed (estropié), amputee (amputé), physical (physique), infirm (infirme), deaf (sourd)	192	3.98
Tools for practitioners	Wheelchair (Chaise roulante, fauteuil roulant), Prosthesis (Prothèse), guide, crutch (bequille), equipment (equipement)	93	3.54
Practices and sporting disciplines	Basketball, football, swimming (natation), athletics (athlétisme), volleyball, race (course), handball, tennis, gymnastics (gymnastique), javelin (javelot), endurance, shot put (lancer de poids), sport, wheelchair basketball (basketball en fauteuil), discus (disque), disability sport (handisport)	393	4.40

Modern values of sport	Competition, performance, training (entrainement), (medal) médaille, effort, power (puissance)	108	4.89
Events and brands	Paralympics (Jeux paralympiques), Paralympic (paralympiques)	19	4.5
supercrip	Courage, strength (force), determination, will (volonté), respect, motivation, perseverance (persévérance), mental strength (force mentale)	151	5.48
Marginalisation & medical model of disability	Discrimination, mocking (moquerie), (fear) peur, pity (pitié), help (aide), encouragement , weak (faible), sick (malade),	102	4.65
Miscellaneous	interesting (intéressant),	11	2.5

Table 26 Categorical analysis

The semantic classification (according to how close they are in terms of meaning to one another) through abduction (Lahlou, 1995, 2008) of the 1512 items (representing 48.38% of our corpus) that were evoked by at least 2% of our sample— that is, 8 respondents—yielded 12 Categories employed by Cameroonian respondents to construct their representation of Paralympic sport. These Categories which could also be referred to as "*conceptions*" (Carugati et al., 1994 p.1), "*paradigms*" (Lahlou, 1995, 2008), "*reference universes*" (Ghiglione *et al.*, 1998), or "*semantic equivalents*" (Wolff and Viser, 2005 p.4), are the following:

➢ The category "societal values" bespoke P aralympic sport's capacity to enable the adaptation, inclusion, and acceptation of people with disability within a society. It unites all the empirical indicators (Carugati et al., 1994) of insertion, inclusion, and acceptation with which our respondents associated Paralympic sport.

➢ The category "post-modern values" bespoke the power of Paralympic sport to be a source of joy and leisure, and an aid in maintaining one's (the practitioners') health and well-being. This category encompasses all the elementary elements of the representation field relating to or illustrating Paralympic sport's potential to be a leisure activity and a source of joy, health, and well-being.

➢ The category "prosperity-related values" bespoke P aralympic sport's capacity to be a source of wealth, fame, and pride for its practitioners or stakeholders. This category encompasses all the empirical indicators (Carugati et al., 1994) of wealth, fame and pride with which our respondents associated Paralympic sport.

➢ The category "types of impairment" bespoke the different types of disabilities (e.g., motor, visual, auditive, etc.) that our respondents associated with Paralympic sport.

➢ The category "people with disability" referred to the types of people with disability (e.g., blind, deaf, amputee, etc.) that our respondents associated with Paralympic sport.

➢ The category "tools" referred to tools (e.g., prosthesis , wheelchair, crutches, etc.) that our respondents associated with Paralympic sport.

➢ The category "practices and sporting disciplines" brought together the sporting disciplines (e.g., basket, football, swimming, athletics, etc.) that our respondents associated with Paralympic sport.

➢ The category "modern values of sport" bespoke the competitive, Darwinistic and self-affirmative goals that our respondents associated with Paralympic sport.

➢ The category "events and brands" showcased the events and/or games (Paralympics, Paralympic) that were associated with Paralympic sport by our respondents.

➢ The category "supercrip" (Silva & Howe, 2012, 2018, Schantz & Gilbert, 2012b) referred to a stereotypical depiction of para-athletes in which all their performances are considered outstanding feats and they are considered heroes who challenge their daily disabilities to achieve things that no one expects from them (Silva & Howe, 2012, 2018, Schantz & Gilbert, 2012b).

➢ The category "marginalisation & medical model" brought together the empirical indicators (Carugati et al., 1994) of the medical model(s) of disability, and the discrimination and differences in treatment towards para-athletes that our respondents associated with Paralympic sport (e.g., discrimination, mocking, fear, pity, help).

➢ The category "miscellaneous" bespoke the single item "interesting", which was a part of our representation field that we were not able to integrate into any other category.

Given that one of the aims of our study was to carry out a comparative analysis of social representations between Cameroon, France, and Germany, and mindful of our intent to study how these representations are involved in or influence people's attitudes

and behaviours towards Paralympic sport, we decided to analyse these "*reference universes*" from which the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon is formed; we felt that such an analysis of these universes of reference would make them easier to work with for the purpose(s) of our study.

Despite the fact that in the instance of categories, the frequencies do not correspond to the number of utterers, for our analysis we considered the free associations from a dialogical perspective (Markova, 2005, 2007), and set the threshold of 2% (in relation to the total number of occurrences instead of the number of respondents) to establish the field of the universes of reference evoked in the representation(s). We then carried out another prototypical analysis on the subcategories whose frequency was above this threshold of 2%, to establish a sort of structure of universes of reference evoked in the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon. The table 27 below presents this prototypical analysis.

	Average rank: 4.62	
Average frequency 148.2	Practices and disciplines (393) (4.4) Types of Practitioners (192) (3.98)	Supercrip (151) (5.48)
	Prosperity-related values (109) (4.15) Tools for practitioners (93) (3.54)	Post-modern values of sport (148) (5.35) Modern values of sport (108) (4.89) Marginalisation and medical model (102) (4.93) Societal values (100) (5.38) Types of impairments (86) (4.83)

Table 27 Prototypical analysis.

From a reference universe perspective, the field of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon would be composed of the categories "practices and disciplines" (393) (4.4), "types of practitioners" (192) (3.98), "supercrip" (151) (5.48), "prosperity-related values" (109) (4.15), "tools for practitioners" (93) (3.54), "p ost-modern values of sport" (148) (5.35), "m odern values of sport" (108) (4.89),

"marginalisation and medical model" (102) (4.93), "societal values" (100) (5.38), "types of impairments" (86) (4.83).

From a structural perspective, the central nucleus of the reference universes evoked for the representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon would comprise the reference universes "practices and disciplines" and "types of practitioners", while the first periphery would encompass the reference universe "supercrip". The elements "prosperity-related values" and "tools for practitioners" would constitute the contrasted area, while the reference universes "post-modern values of sport", "modern values of sport", "marginalisation & medical model", "societal values of sport" and "types of impairments" would form the second periphery. That is, the reference universes "practices and disciplines" and "types of practitioners" would be consensual and context-free in the representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon, while the other reference universes would be increasingly context-dependent according to whether they respectively belong to the first periphery, the contrasted area or the second periphery. In other words, a Cameroonian would first think about "practices and sporting disciplines" (e.g., basket, football, swimming, athletics) and then about "type(s) of practitioners" (e.g., blind, deaf, dumb, amputee, maimed) when representing Paralympic sport. Then, according to specific contexts and situations in which they are representing Paralympic sport, they would think of other reference universes. The dependence on the context and situational features would be higher for reference universes of the second periphery ("post-modern values of sport", "modern values of sport", "marginalisation & medical model", "societal values of sport" and "types of impairments") than for those pertaining to the contrasted area ("prosperity-related values" and "tools for practitioners"), whose dependence on context and situational features would in turn be higher than that of reference universes from the first periphery ("supercrip"). The figure 40 shows the tentative structure of the social representation from a reference universe perspective.

2ⁿᵈperiphery

Post-modern values of
sport ; Modern values
of sport ;
marginalisation and
medical model;
Societal values; Types
of impairments

Constrated area
Prosperity-related
values

Tools for practitioners

1ˢᵗperiphery

Supercrip

central nucleus

Practices and disciplines

Types of Practitioners
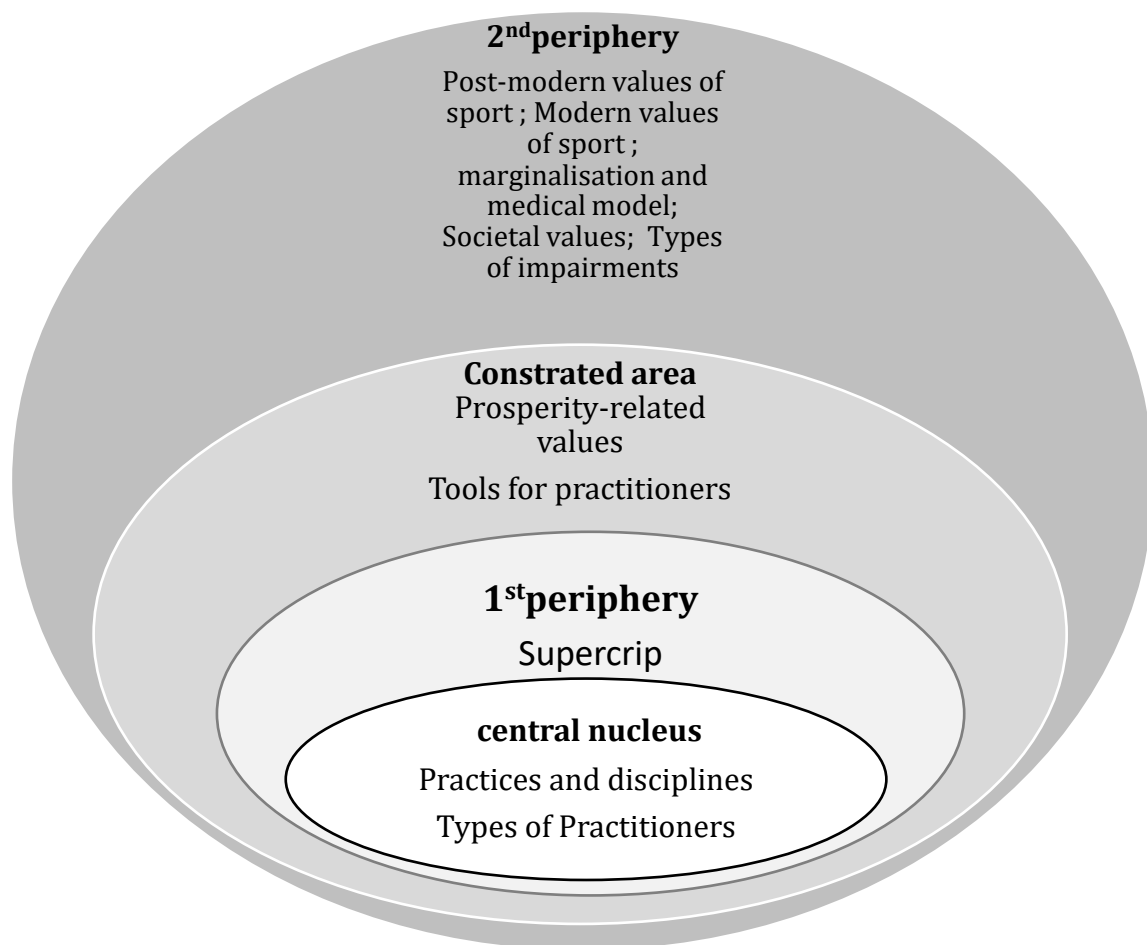
Figure 40 Structure of the social representation from a reference universe perspective

Having analysed our corpus according to the semantic proximity of the items composing it, it also appeared useful to us to conduct a similarity analysis of it according to the statistical proximity (co-occurrence) of the items.

2.4. Insights from the Similarity Analysis

Having so far only analysed associations that were made by at least 2% of our respondents, that is, 48.38 % of our corpus, we decided to carry out a similarity analysis on the whole corpus, in order to identify what groups of items are evoked together to represent Paralympic sport in Cameroon.

The similarity analysis, based on the Graphs' theory, let us assume that a statistical proximity between items would imply a semantic proximity between them. That is, the architecture of the similarity tree could be considered as a sort of sense-making pattern

showing in-context semantical closeness between the elements composing the social representation(s).

A similarity analysis of the whole corpus (threshold of links at 8) provided us with a glimpse of the closeness (statistical proximity) of the items composing our corpus to one another. This glimpse is presented by the figure below.
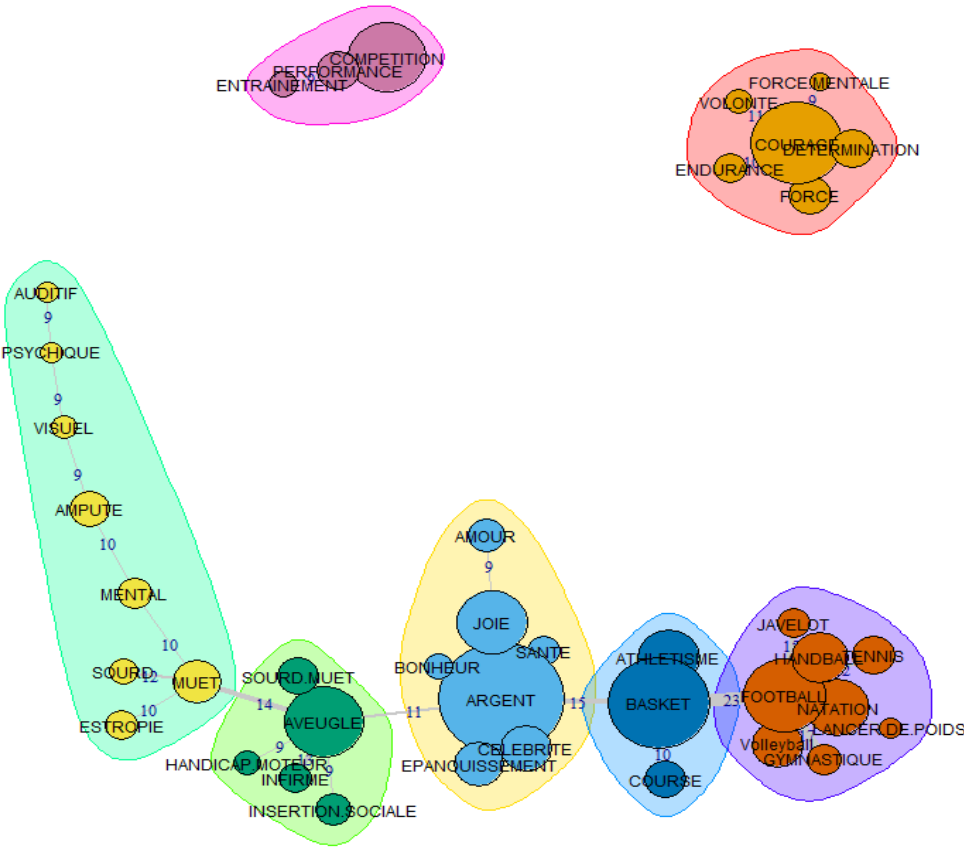
Figure 41 Glimpse of the statistical proximity of the items composing our corpus

The similarity tree supports the centrality of the elements "money", "basket", "football", "blind", "swimming", and "swimming". It also supports to some extent the centrality of the element "athletics". However, it questions the centrality of the element "competition". Since this element was verging on the rank threshold for pertaining to the hypothetical central nucleus (with a rank of 4.2 for a threshold of 4.21), we decided on the basis of the results of the similarity analysis to shift it from the central nucleus to the first periphery.

The central nucleus of our representation henceforth became composed of the items "money", "basket", "football", "blind", "swimming" and "athletics" , the first periphery of the items "courage", "competition", and "joy", the contrasted area of the elements "volleyball", "disabled", "dumb", "prosthesis ", "deaf & dumb", and "wheelchair", and the second periphery of the elements "handball", "fame", "blossoming", "tennis", "strength", "determination", "performance", "race" and "amputee". The figure 42 below presents the new hypothetical structure of the social representation
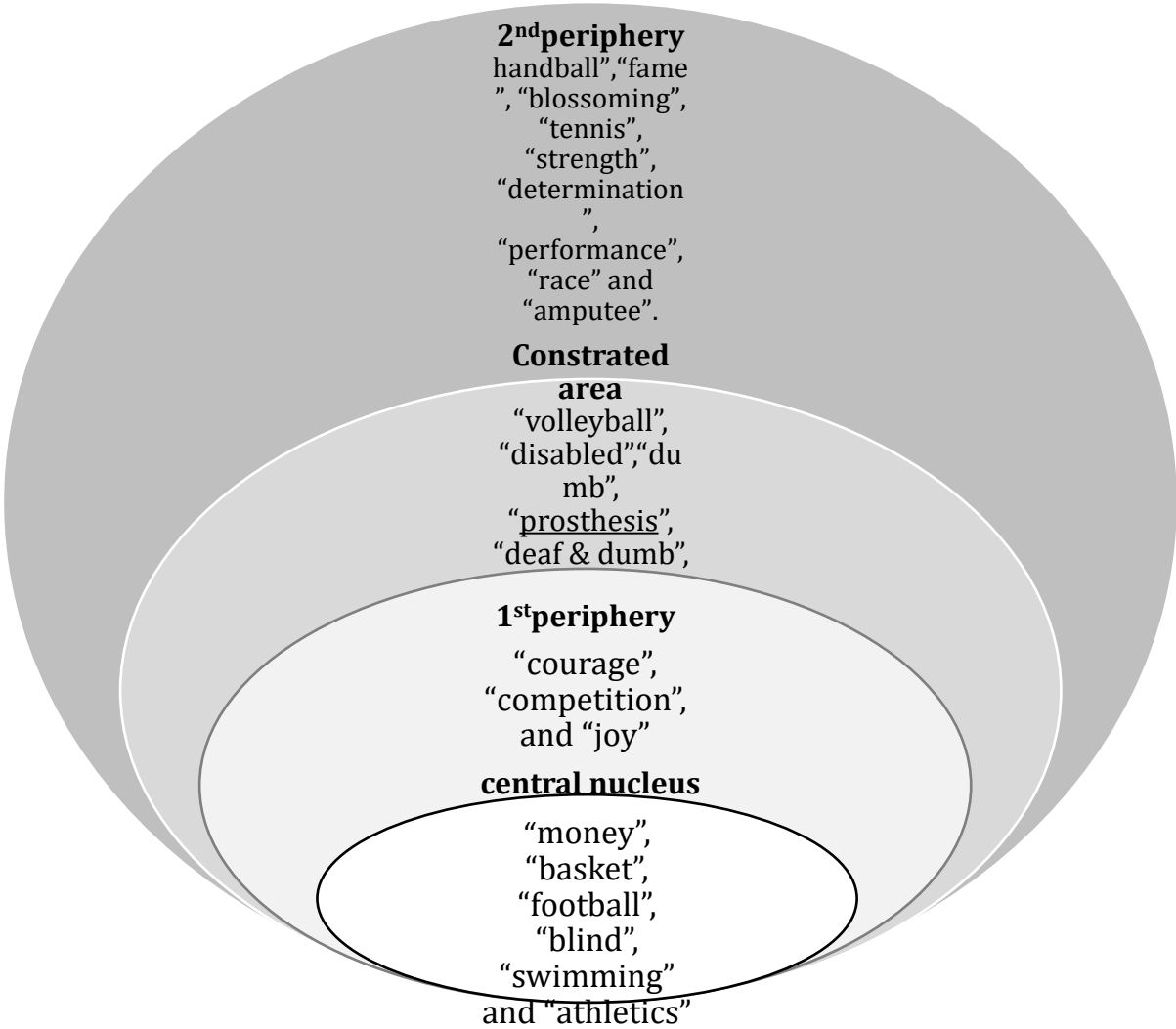
Figure 42 New hypothetical structure of the social representation

From a reference universe perspective, the similarity analysis confirmed 8 of the 12 categories identified earlier by our semantic classification.

From the similarity tree in the figure 41, we could identify 7 clusters. When numbered from top to bottom and left to right, these clusters are the following:

➢ Cluster 1 bespeaks the modern values of sport steered by the empirical indicators "training", "performance", and "competition". Its relative location in the similarity tree (isolated without connection to other clusters) reinforces the hypothesis of its belonging to the second periphery.

➢ Cluster 2 encompasses the reference universe "supercrip", illustrated by the elementary elements "courage", "endurance", "strength", "determination", […]. Its location within the similarity tree relative to the other clusters upholds the hypothesis of its belonging to periphery. From its location, we could even postulate its belonging to the periphery.

➢ Cluster 3 addresses two reference universes: a half of the reference universe "type of practitioners", consisting of the empirical indicators "amputee", "deaf", "dumb", […], and a minor portion of the reference universe "types of impairments", represented by the elements "auditive", "visual", "psychic", "mental", […]. This cluster's position in the similarity tree relative to the other clusters backs up the hypothesis that the reference universe "types of impairments" belongs to the second periphery.

➢ C luster 4 tackles the other half of the reference universe "types of practitioners", including the empirical indicators "blind", "deaf-dumb", "crippled" […] that were not included in cluster 3, with some traces of the reference universe "societal values" evoked by the element "social insertion" and "types of disability" and represented by the element "motor disability". Its location in the similarity tree to some extent upholds the hypothesis of the centrality of the reference universe "types of practitioners".

➢ Cluster 5 addresses two reference universes: the reference universe "post-modern values", represented by the empirical indicators "joy", "love", "health", "happiness" […], and the reference universe "prosperity-related values" evoked by the elements "money", "fame", […]. Had the two reference universes been compounded into one, the relative location of this cluster in the similarity tree would have made it a serious contender for centrality. However, in order to distinguish sport business values from sport post-modern ones, we chose to keep the content of the cluster 5 separate.

➢ Clusters 6 and 7 both bespeak the same reference universe "practices and sporting disciplines". The architecture of these clusters, and the fact that the reference universe "practices and sporting disciplines" stretches across them both, supports the hypothesis for the centrality of this reference universe that we have already mentioned.

The Social Representation of Paralympic Sport in Germany

From November 2020 to February 2021, a German version of the same questionnaire administered in Cameroon and described above was administered to 115 German citizens. Since it has been proven that a significant proportion of German citizens do not really identify themselves as such as a result of the two world wars and their various sequels (e.g., Bord, 2002; Liulevicius, 2000; Vermeiren, 2016), we insisted that our questionnaire be filled out only by German citizens identifying themselves as German and feeling themselves German.

These 115 Germans were of an average age of 32.82 years ±8.57 and comprised 40 men and 75 women; 110 respondents were without impairment and 5 with impairments; 71 respondents had no relative bearing a disability and 84 had at least one relative bearing an impairment; 77 were living in relative proximity to a sport venue and 85 were not.

The corpus harvested from our 115 German respondents counted 925 evocations, composed of 460 forms of which 330 were hapaxes. The hapaxes represented 71.74% of the forms and 35.68% of the total occurrences, bespeaking either the wealth of Germans' vocabulary (Lardilleux & Lepage, 2007) or how fragmented the knowledge about Paralympic sport in Germany is (Harabi, 2018), or even both.

3.1. Access to The Field of Representation.

In accordance with our methodology (see the title 1 of this chapter), entry to the field of the representation was made on the sole basis of the items' frequency. For the same reasons as in the instance of Cameroon—namely, the high variability of evocations associated with Paralympic sport— we chose to lower the frequency threshold for including an item in the field of representation to 5%, which in our instance meant that the item should have been associated with Paralympic sport by at least 6 respondents.

Another reason compelling us to adopt the same thresholds as in the instance of Cameroon was the comparative nature of our study, requiring the same standards to be set for each group on which we carried out our investigation.

This procedure allowed us to identify the 23 items pertaining to the representation's field, listed here by decreasing order of frequency: "prosthesis " (Prothese), "wheelchair" (Rollstuhl), "Paralympics", "inclusion" (Inklusion), "wheelchair basketball"

(Rollstuhlbasketball), "swimming" (Schwimmen), "equality of opportunity" (Gleichberechtigung), "athletics" (Leichtathletik), "Olympic" (Olympia), "courage" (Mut), "ambition" (Ehrgeiz), "disability" (Behinderung), "impressive" (beeindruckend), "respect" (Respekt), "performance" (Leistung), "competition" (Wettkampf), "race" (Laufen), "sport","sprint', "basketball", "long jump" (Weitsprung), "chance", "admiration" (Bewunderung). The figure 43 below present the elements composing the field of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany, along with their frequency and percentage of evokations.

mod	freq	percent of total	row number	percent of rows
PROTHESE	41	4.43	41	35.65
ROLLSTUHL	29	3.14	29	25.22
PARALYMPICS	22	2.38	22	19.13
INKLUSION	21	2.27	21	18.26
ROLLSTUHLBASKETBALL	15	1.62	15	13.04
SCHWIMMEN	14	1.51	14	12.17
GLEICHBERECHTIGUNG	13	1.41	13	11.3
LEICHTATHLETIK	12	1.3	12	10.43
OLYMPIA	12	1.3	12	10.43
MUT	11	1.19	11	9.57
EHRGEIZ	11	1.19	11	9.57
BEHINDERUNG	10	1.08	10	8.7
BEEINDRUCKEND	10	1.08	10	8.7
RESPEKT	9	0.97	9	7.83
LEISTUNG	9	0.97	9	7.83
WETTKAMPF	8	0.86	8	6.96
LAUFEN	8	0.86	8	6.96
SPORT	7	0.76	7	6.09
SPRINT	7	0.76	7	6.09
BASKETBALL	7	0.76	7	6.09
WEITSPRUNG	7	0.76	7	6.09
CHANCE	7	0.76	7	6.09
BEWUNDERUNG	6	0.65	6	5.22

Figure 43 Elements composing the field of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany

3.2. Access To The Structure Of The Representation

The access to the structure was permitted according to the same procedure as in the instance of Cameroon (see titles 1 and 2 of this chapter).

So the first step in finding the structure of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany was to carry out a prototypical analysis (Verges, 1992,1994), with the

same software as in the previous instance (IRAMUTEQ). The figure 44 below presents this categorical analysis.

<= 4.11 Rangs > 4.11

Zone du noyau

PROTHESE-41-3.9
ROLLSTUHL-29-2.7
PARALYMPICS-22-2.6
INKLUSION-21-3.4
ROLLSTUHLBASKETBALL-15-4.1
GLEICHBERECHTIGUNG-13-3.9

Première périphérie

SCHWIMMEN-14-4.3

Fréquences >= 12.32

Elements contrastés

BEHINDERUNG-10-3.8
LEISTUNG-9-2.9
SPRINT-7-4.1
WEITSPRUNG-7-3.9
BEWUNDERUNG-6-4

Seconde périphérie

LEICHTATHLETIK-12-4.3
OLYMPIA-12-4.7
MUT-11-5.1
EHRGEIZ-11-4.8
BEEINDRUCKEND-10-4.2
RESPEKT-9-6.2
WETTKAMPF-8-6.1
LAUFEN-8-5
SPORT-7-4.4
BASKETBALL-7-4.6
CHANCE-7-5.9
LEIDENSCHAFT-6-6.2
UNBEKANNT-6-6.2

< 12.32

Figure 44 Categorical analysis of the German corpus

The reading of this prototypical analysis with Verges' (1992, 1994) eyes enabled us to infer hypotheses about the structure of the social representation.

The central nucleus of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany would be composed of the items "prosthesis" (Protheses), "wheelchair" (rollstuhl), "Paralympics", "inclusion" (Inklusion), "wheelchair basketball" (Rollstuhl basketball), and "equality of opportunity (Gleichberechtigung), while the first periphery would comprise the single item "swimming" (Schwimmen). The contrasted elements would encompass the elements "disability" (Behinderung), "performance" (Leistung), "sprint", "long jump" (Weitsprung), and "admirable" (bewundernwert), and the second periphery the items

"athletics" (Leichtathletik), "Olympic" (Olympia), "courage" (Mut), "ambition" (Ehrgeiz), "impressive" (beeindruckend), "respect" (Respekt), "competition" (Wettkampf), "race" (Laufen), "sport", "basketball", "luck" (Chance), "passion" (Leidenschaft), and "unknown" (unbekannt).

From a sense-making perspective, when Germans represent Paralympic sport, they would first and consensually think of the items "prosthesis ", "wheelchair", "Paralympics", "inclusion", "wheelchair" and "equality of opportunity". Then according to specific contexts and situations in which they are representing Paralympic sport, they will think of other items..

The influence of the context on the representation— that is, on which non-consensual items would be evoked to represent Paralympic sport once the consensual ones have been evoked would be higher on the elements pertaining to the second periphery ("athletics", "Olympic", "courage", […]) than on those of the contrasted area ("disability", "performance", "sprint", […]), which in turn would be more influenced than elements pertaining to the first periphery ("swimming").

The figure 45 below presents the tentative hypothetical structure of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany.

2ⁿᵈperipher y "Athletics",
"Olympics",
"courage",
"ambition",
"ambition",
"impressive",
"competition"
[...]
Constrated area

"disability",
"performance",
"sprint ", "long
jump" [...]

1ˢᵗperipher y

central nucleus

"prosthesis
"wheelchair",
"Paralympics",
"inclusion", [...]
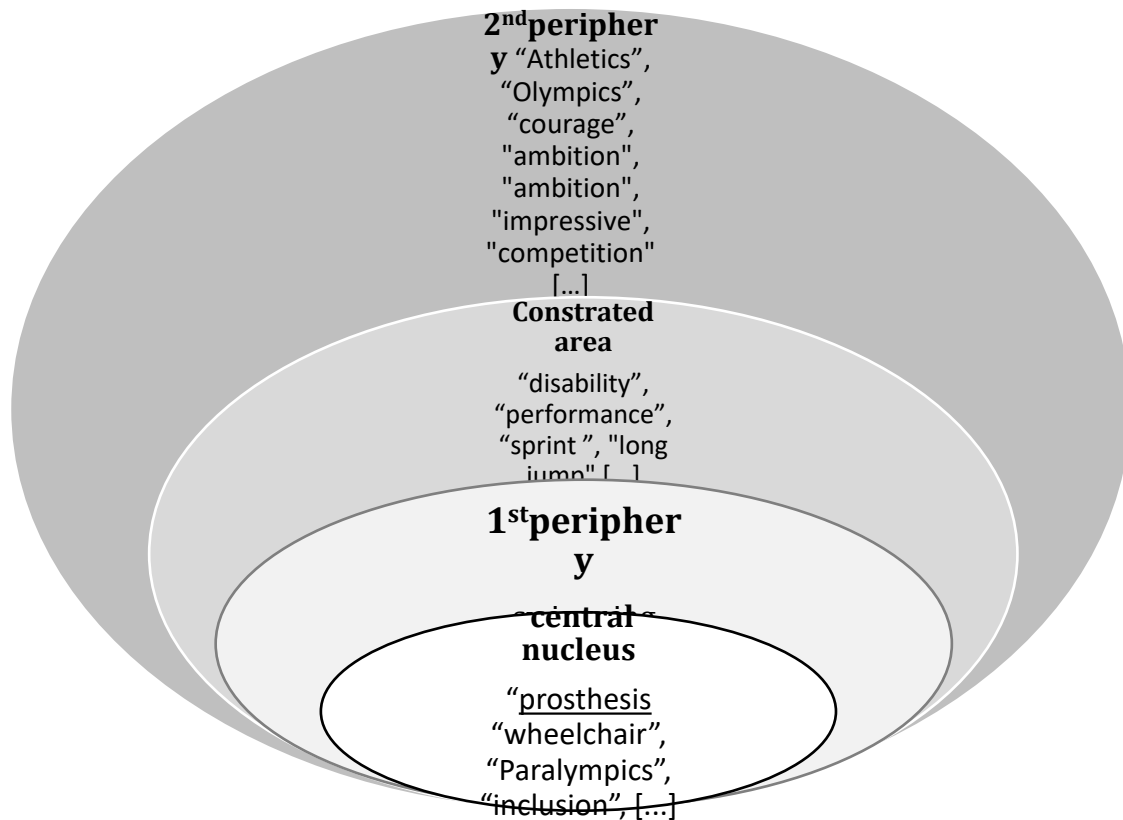
Figure 45 Tentative hypothetical structure of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany.

3.3. Categorical Analysis

Having so far analysed only items evoked by at least 5% of our respondents, we deemed useful to analyse a broader part of the corpus in the categorical analysis in order to account for a higher number of items evoked by our respondents to represent Paralympic sport. For convenience reasons and to meet the requirements of the comparative study, we chose the same threshold as in the instance of Cameroon.

So we decided to categorise all the items evoked by more than 2% of our respondents according to their semantic proximity (how close they relate to one another in terms of meaning). This semantic grouping was made according to same procedure as in the Cameroonian instance (see titles 1 and 2 of this chapter)

Following this procedure, the categorical analysis of the 457 terms (49.4% of the total associations) evoked by more than 2% of our respondents is presented in the table here below:

Sub categories	Words	Frequency	Average rank
Sport practices and disciplines	wheelchair basketball, (Rollstuhlbasketball) swimming (Schwimmen), athletics (Leichtathletik), Sport, Sprint, long jump (Weitsprung), race (Laufen), Basketball wrestling (Ringen), high performance sport (Leistungssport), wheelchair sport (Rollstuhlsport), horse riding (Reiten) wheelchair race (Rollstuhlrennen) biomechanics (Biomechanik) sittingvolleyball (Sitzvolleyball) blindfootball (Blindenfussball) Monoski	111	4.22
Events and brands	Paralympics Olympics (Olympia)	34	3.34
Modern values of sport	competition (Wettkampf), Training medal (Medaille), performance (Leistung)	27	5.44
Paralympic local heroes	Matthias Mester	4	5.48
Disability	disability (Behinderung), handicap, blind	18	4.05
Tools	prosthesis (Prothese), wheelchair (Rollstuhl), crutches (Krücken), leg prosthesis (Beinprothese), Carbon	79	3.50
Origin of disability	accident (Unfall)	5	6.62
Inspiration	exciting (spannend), respect (Respekt) impressive (Beeindrukend), admiration (Bewunderung), admirable, (Bewunderwert), success (Erfolg), progress (Fortschritt)	39	5.10
Supercrip	courage (Mut), ambition (Ehrgeiz) motivation, tenacity (Ausdauer) enthousiasm (Begeisterung); recognition (Anerkennung)	36	5.22
marginalisation	Other (anders),unknown (unbekannt) particular (besonders), under-represented (unterrepräsentiert), diverse (Vielfalt) disadvantage (benachteiligung), exclusion (Exklusion)	29	5.97
Post-modern values of sport	Joy (Freude), fun (Spass) Passion (Leidenschaft)	14	5.66
Societal values	Inclusive (Inklusive), inclusion (Inklusion), team sprit (Teamgeist), team, Support (Unterstützung),	61	4.48

	means for helping (hilfmittel), equality of opportunities (gleichberechtigung), Fairness

Table 28 Categorical analysis of terms

The classification of the 65 items evoked by at least 2% of our respondents—that is, 3 respondents—to describe Paralympic sport yielded 12 categories:

➢ The categories "sport and practices", "events and brands", 'modern values", "tools", "supercrip", "postmodern values", "marginalisation", and "societal values" that were presented earlier in the Cameroonian instance (see title 2 of this chapter).

➢ The category "local heroes" that referred to a German athlete that respondents associated with Paralympic sport.

➢ The category "disability", composed of the lexical field of disability that our respondents associated with Paralympic sport.

➢ The category "origin of disability", composed of the item "accident" and whose sense remained strange to us.

➢ A category "inspiration" that bespoke the power of Paralympic sport to inspire the world and encompassed inspirational elements that our respondents associated with Paralympic sports (e.g., exciting, respect, impressive, admiration, etc.).

Just as in the previous instance, we decided to investigate the reference universes from a structural perspective by setting a threshold of 2% (of the total associations); that is, we would retain only reference universes gathering at least 18.5 occurrences.

Following this procedure, we found the field of reference universes used for representing Paralympic sport to be composed of the reference universes "sport practices and disciplines" (111), "tools" (79), "societal values" (61), "inspiration" (39), "supercrip" (36), "events" (34), "marginalisation" (29), "modern values of sport (27)".

With regard to the structure of the reference universes summoned for representing Paralympic sport in German, we carried out a prototypical analysis (Verges, 1992, 1994), which yielded the structure below:

Average frequency : 52	Sport Practices and disciplines (111) (4.22) Tools (79) (3.50)	Societal values of sport (61) (4.48)
	Events (34) (3.34)	Inspiration (39) (5.10) supercrip (36) (5.22) marginalisation (29) (5.97) modern values of sport (27) (5.44)

Average rank: 4.41

Table 29 Prototypical analysis of terms

From a reference universe perspective, the central nucleus of reference universes evoked for representing Paralympic sport in Germany would be composed of the reference universes or categories "sport and practices", and "tools". The first periphery would be formed of the single reference universe "societal values of sport". The contrasted area would include the single reference universe "events", while the second periphery would be composed of the reference universes "inspiration", "supercrip", "marginalisation" and "modern values of sport".

From a sense-making perspective, the structure presented above hints that when representing Paralympic sport, Germans would first and consensually think of sport "practices and disciplines" (e.g., wheelchair basketball, swimming, athletics, [...]), and "tools" (e.g., prosthesis , wheelchair, crutches [...]). Then, according to the specificity of the context in which they are representing Paralympic sport, they would think of elements pertaining to the other reference universes. The reference universe "societal values of sport" (e.g., inclusion, support, equity [...]) pertaining to the first periphery will be less context-dependent than the reference universe "event" (e.g., Paralympics, Olympic) pertaining to the contrasted area, which in turn will be less context-dependent

than the reference universes "inspiration" (e.g., exciting, respect, impressive, […]), "supercrip" (e.g., courage, ambition, motivation, […]), "marginalisation" (e.g., other, unknown, under represented, […]) and "modern values of sport" (e.g., competition, training, medal, […]) belonging to the second periphery.

The figure 46 presents the tentative structure of the social representation of sport in Germany, from a universe reference perspective.
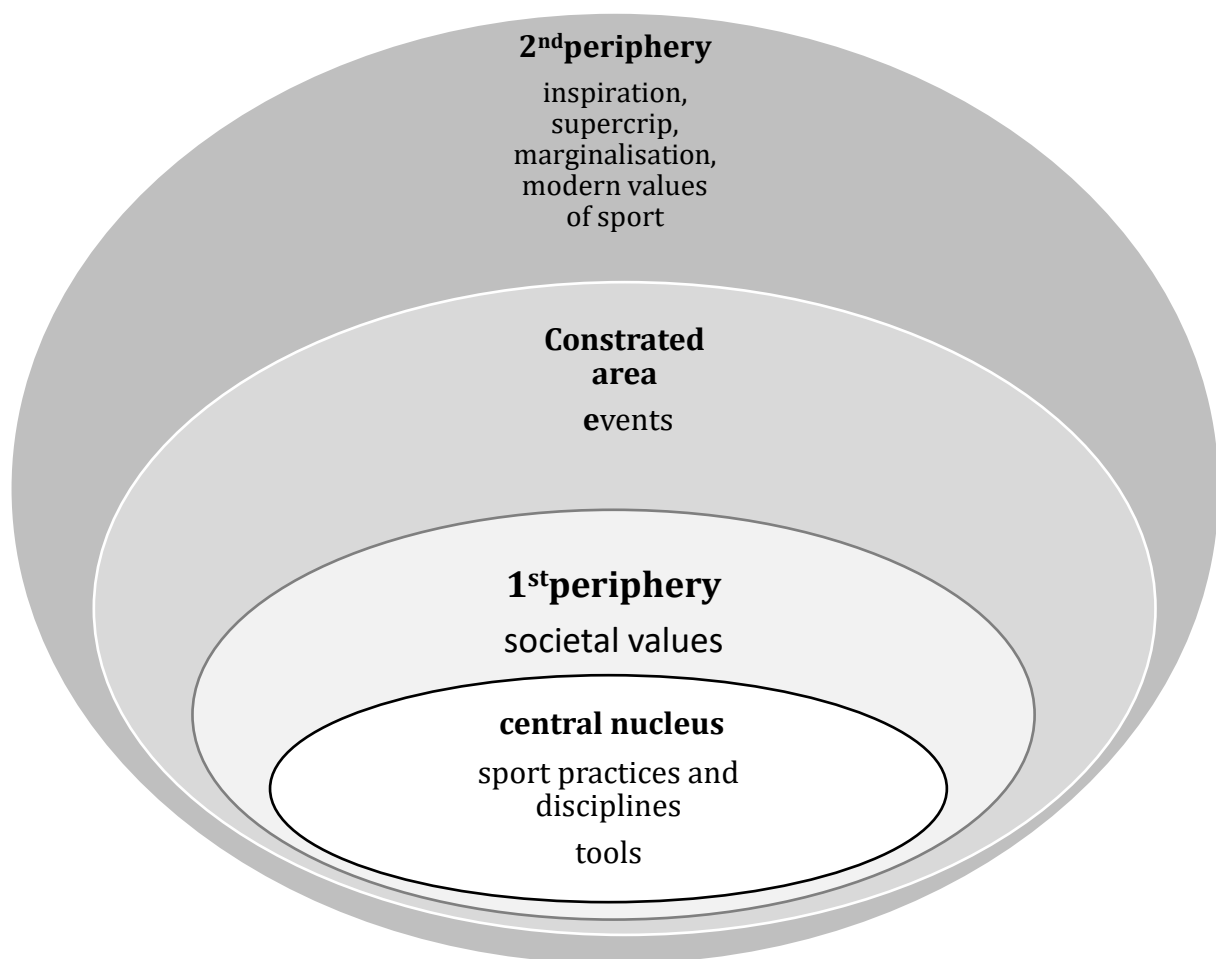
Figure 46 Tentative structure of the social representation of sport in Germany

3.4. Insights From The Similarity Analysis

Having carried out a semantic classification above—that is, having organised our corpus according to the semantic proximity of items (how close in terms of meaning they

are to one another)—it was now time to organise it according to how statistically close (co-occurrent) the items are with one another.

Since we had so far only analysed forms evoked by at least 2% of our respondents—that is, 65 forms representing 457 occurrences (49.4% of our corpus)—we decided to carry out a graph theory-based similarity analysis on the whole corpus. Just as we did in the Cameroonian instance.

A similarity analysis of the whole corpus with the threshold of the statistical link between items set at 2 yielded the figure 47 here below.
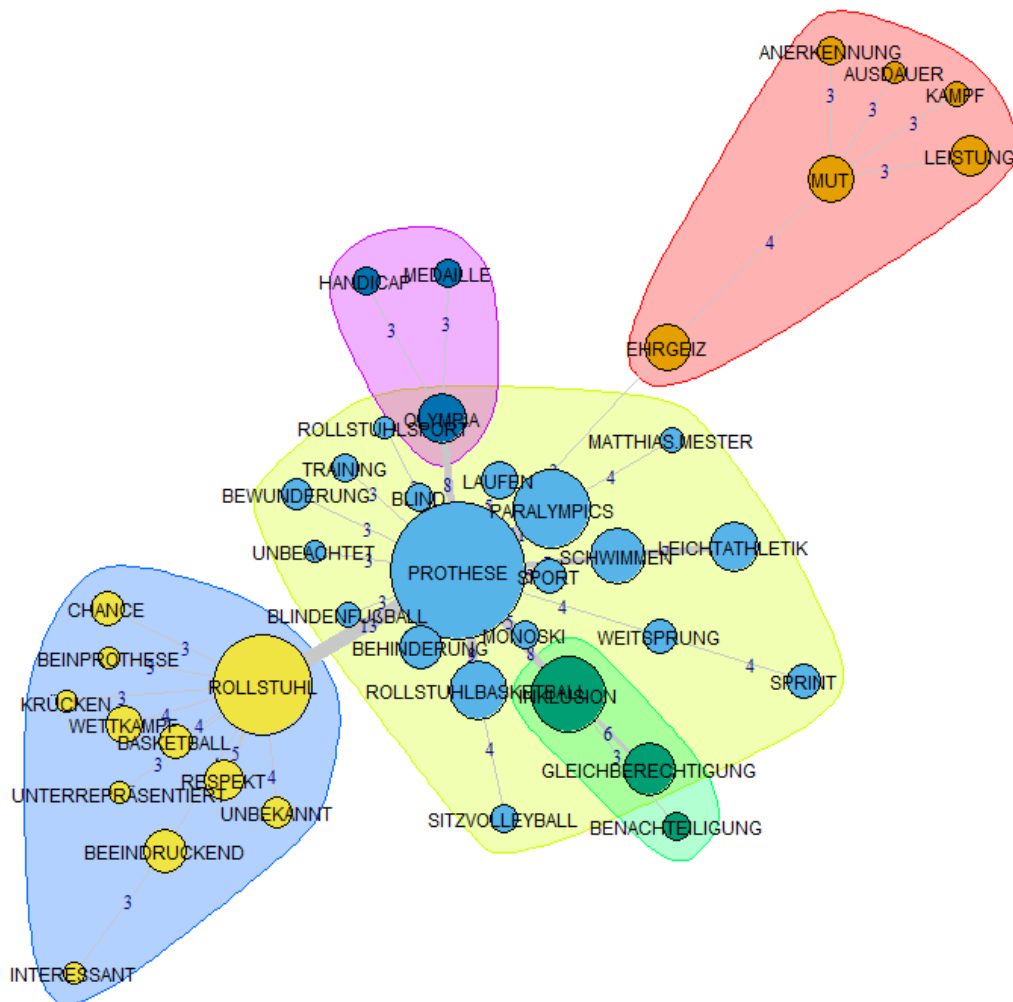
Figure 47 Similarity tree of the German corpus

The architecture of the similarity tree employing graphs theory-based statistical links upholds the centrality hypothesis for the items "prosthesis ", "wheelchair", "Paralympics", and "inclusion". However, it does question the centrality of the items "wheelchair basketball" and "equity".

Considering that the two latter items verged on the thresholds (12.32 of frequency and 4.11 for the rank) for including items in the hypothetical central core as they respectively hit 15 for frequency and 4.1 for average rank for the first and 13 for frequency and 3.9 for average rank for the second, we decided to shift these items to the first periphery.

The new hypothetical central core of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany henceforth was composed of the items "prosthesis ", "wheelchair", "Paralympics" and "inclusion", while the first periphery encompassed the items "wheelchair basketball", "equity", and "swimming". As for the contrasted elements and those of the second periphery, they remained unaltered. The figure 48 below presents the new structure of the Paralympic sport social representation in Germany.

2nd periphery
"athletics",
"alympics",
"courage",
"ambition",
"ambition",
"impressive",
"competition"
[...]

Constrated area
"disability",
"performance",
"sprint ", "long jump" [...]

1st periphery
swimming ,
basketball,
equality of chance

central nucleus
"prosthesis"
"wheelchair",
"Paralympics",
"inclusion", [...]
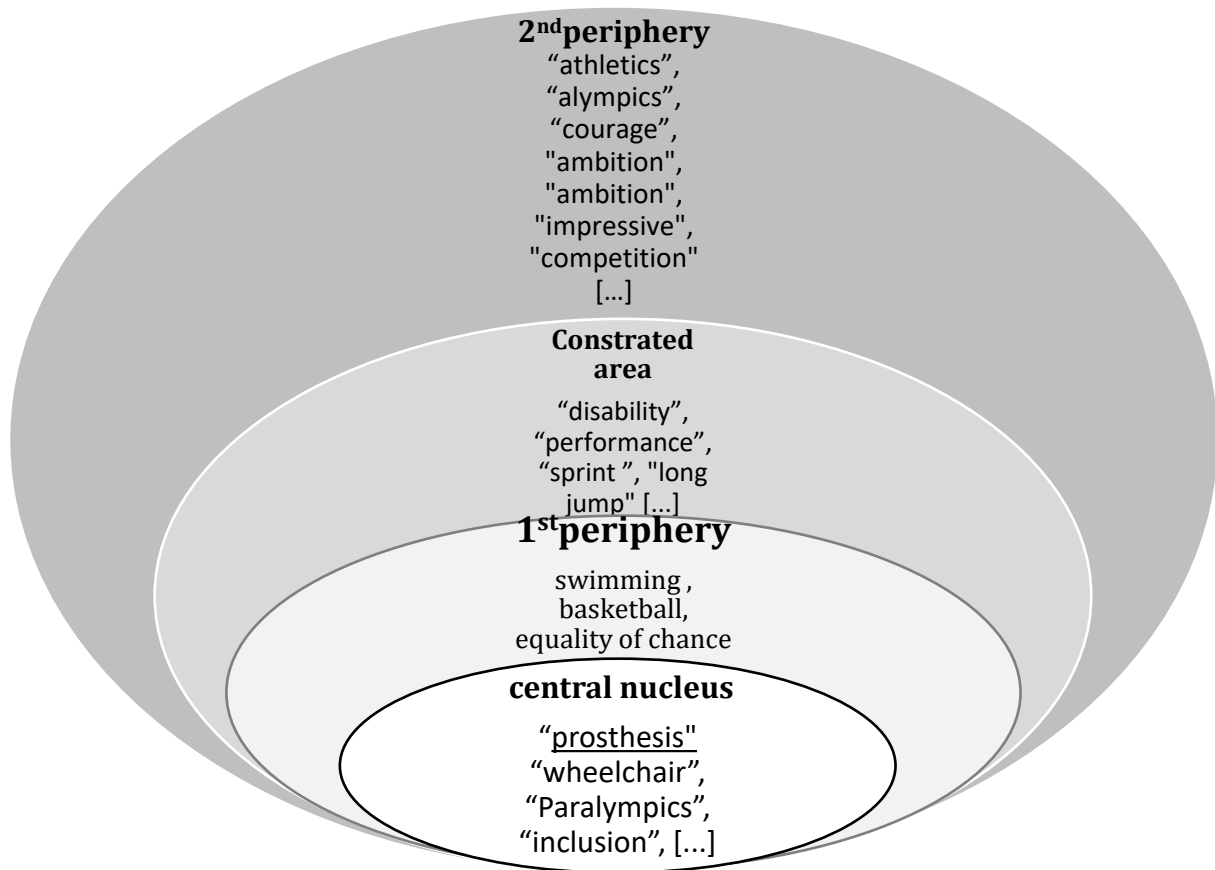
Figure 48 New structure of the Paralympic sport social representation in Germany

From a reference universe perspective

➢ Cluster 1 bespoke the "supercrip" reference universe. Its location in the architecture upholds the peripherality of the reference universe it bespeaks (supercrip).

➢ Cluster 2 was not furnished enough to enable the identification of the sense deposited within.

➢ Cluster 3 predominantly bespoke the reference universe "sport practices and disciplines", although some traces of the reference universes "tools, and "events" were perceivable. This cluster also included a subcluster, the deposited sense of which will be investigated below. The relative position of cluster 3 in the similarity tree upholds the centrality hypothesis formulated for its dominant reference universe, "sport practices and disciplines".

➢ Cluster 4 encompassed the reference universe "inspiration", and the left-over part (the part that had not been included in cluster 3) of the reference universe "tools". Its position on the similarity tree supports the peripherality hypotheses of the reference universes "tools" and "inspiration".

➢ Cluster 5 is a sub-cluster of the broad cluster 3. It bespeaks the reference universe "societal values of sport". Its relative position on the similarity tree backs up the peripherality hypothesis for the reference universe "societal values of sport".

4. The Social Representation of Paralympic Sport in France

From October 2020 to February 2021, we administered the French version of the same social representation questionnaire we administered in Cameroon and in Germany to 627 French citizens of an average age of 29 ±8.32 years old, comprising 422 women and 205 men; they were split into 419 sport practitioners and 208 non-practitioners, and 346 residents of urban areas and 281 residents of rural areas.

From this questionnaire we harvested a corpus of 4130 occurrences composed of 1264 distinct forms, of which 899 were hapaxes.

4.1. Access to the Field of the Social Representation

In accordance with our methodology (see the title 1 of this chapter), the access to the field of the social representation of Paralympic sport in France was given on the sole basis of the frequency of evocations associated with Paralympic sport by our respondents. Due to the high heterogeneity among evocations, which entails a relatively small amount of consensus, we lowered the threshold for considering an element a part of the field of the social representation from 10%, as recommended by several authors (e.g., Lacassagne et al., 2004; Lacassagne et al., 2006; Bert, 2016), to 5%, as made possible by Doise and Palmonari (1986).

The figure 49 below presents the elements of the field of the social representation of Paralympic sport in France, that is, elements that have been associated with Paralympic sport by at least 5% (32 people) of our respondents in France.

mod	freq	percent of total	row number	percent of rows
COURAGE	215	5.21	214	34.13
FORCE	85	2.06	85	13.56
FAUTEUIL	79	1.91	79	12.6
COMPETITION	77	1.86	76	12.12
SPORT	72	1.74	70	11.16
DEPASSEMENT DE SOI	67	1.62	67	10.69
ADAPTATION	65	1.57	65	10.37
RESPECT	63	1.53	63	10.05
HANDICAP	59	1.43	58	9.25
PROTHESE	56	1.36	56	8.93
VOLONTE	55	1.33	55	8.77
PERFORMANCE	52	1.26	51	8.13
DETERMINATION	49	1.19	49	7.81
EGALITE	48	1.16	47	7.5
ATHLETE	43	1.04	43	6.86
PERSEVERANCE	41	0.99	41	6.54
FAUTEUIL ROULANT	40	0.97	40	6.38
DIFFICULTE	34	0.82	34	5.42
JO	31	0.75	30	4.78

Figure 49 Elements of the field of the social representation of Paralympic sport in France

From that table, we identified 18 items composing the field of the social representation of Paralympic   sport in France. These items are namely the elements "courage", "strength", "chair" (fauteuil in French), "competition", "sport", "self-transcendence" (depassement de soi), "adaptation", "respect", "handicap", "prosthesis", "will", "performance", "determination", "equality", "athlete" "perseverance", "wheelchair" and "difficulty".

4.2. Access to the Structure of the Social Representation

According to our methodology, entry to the structure of the social representation of Paralympic sport in France was given in many steps, the first of which was a prototypical analysis (Verges, 1992, 1994) of the items. The figure 50 below presents the prototypical analysis (Verges, 1992, 1994):

<= 3.79 Rangs > 3.79

Zone du noyau	Première périphérie
COURAGE-215-2.8 FAUTEUIL-79-3.3 DEPASSEMENT DE SOI-67-3.5	FORCE-85-4.2 COMPETITION-77-4.3 SPORT-72-3.8
Elements contrastés	**Seconde périphérie**
RESPECT-63-3.5 HANDICAP-59-3.2 FAUTEUIL ROULANT-40-3.6	ADAPTATION-65-4.6 PROTHESE-56-4.1 VOLONTE-55-3.9 PERFORMANCE-52-4.2 DETERMINATION-49-4.1 EGALITE-48-5.3 ATHLETE-43-4.3 PERSEVERANCE-41-4.3 DIFFICULTE-34-4.4

Frequences >= 66.67 / *< 66.67 Frequences*

Figure 50 Prototypical analysis of the French corpus

Based on this prototypical analysis (Verges, 1992,1994), we could deduce a hypothetical structure of the social representation of Paralympic sport in France in which the central nucleus would be composed of the items "courage", "chair", and "self-transcendence"; the first periphery of the elements "strength", "competition", and "sport"; the contrasted area of the empirical indicators "respect", "handicap" and "wheelchair"; and the second periphery of the elements "adaptation", "prosthesis ", "will", "performance", "determination", "equality", "athlete", "perseverance" and "difficulty".

From a sense-building perspective, this means that when representing Paralympic sport to themselves, the French respondents would consensually summon the notions of "courage", "chair" and "self-transcendence" first, then according to the intricacies and specifics of the context they would evoke the other notions composing the field of the social representation according to the rationale that elements of the first periphery ("strength", "competition", and "sport") would be less context-dependent than those of the contrasted area ("respect", "handicap" and "wheelchair"), which in turn would be less context-dependent than those of the second periphery ("adaptation", "prosthesis ", "will", "performance", "determination", "equality", "athlete", "perseverance" and "difficulty").

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The figure 51 presents the hypothetical structure of the Paralympic sport social representation in France.
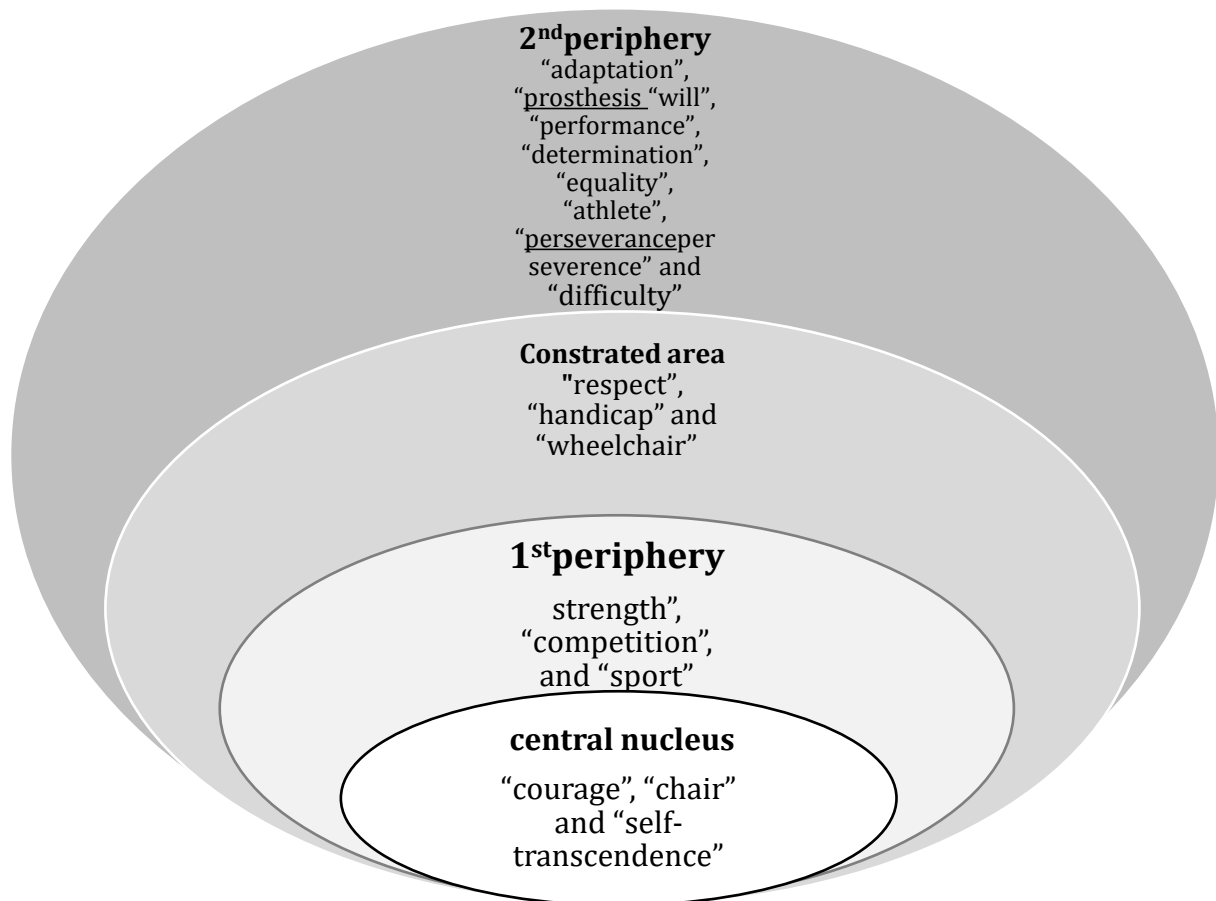
Figure 51 Hypothetical structure of the Paralympic sport social representation in France

4.3. Categorical Analysis

Considering that so far we had only analysed elements evoked by at least 5% of our respondents—that is, at least 32 of our 627 respondents—and in order to account for a larger number of evocations that our respondents associated with Paralympic sport and thereby account for a higher proportion of the meanings deposited within our corpus, we deemed it advisable and useful to carry out our similarity analysis on all the elements referred to by at least 2% of our respondents—that is, at least 13 of our 627 respondents.

This procedure allowed us to categorise by abduction (Lahlou, 1995, 2008) the 56 items (representing 1976 occurrences, that is, 45. 85 % of the total amount of evocations composing our corpus) evoked by at least 2% of our respondents into 11 conceptions (Carugati et al., 1994), or "smallest common paradigms" (Lahlou, 1995, 2008), bespeaking reference universes that were summoned by our respondent to construct their representation(s) of Paralympic sport. Table 30 below presents these 11 reference universes.

Categories	Words	Frequency	Average rank
sport practices and disciplines	sport, basket, swimming (natation), adapted sport (sport adapté), athletics (athletisme)	178	4.31
events and brands	Paralympics (jeux paralympiques) olympics (jo) olympic Paralympic	86	3.56
modern values of sport	competition (compétition), performance, victory (victoire), medal (médaille), effort, training (entraînement)	210	4.79
tools	chair (fauteuil), wheelchair (fauteuil roulant), prosthesis (prothèse)	175	3.62
elite athete	champion, athlete, sport practitioner (sportif)	90	4.94
disability	disability (handicap) mental	89	3.84
	blind (aveugle)	17	4.7
supercrip	courage, self-transcendence, (dépassement de soi), strength (force), will (volonté), determination, perseverance, overcoming (dépassement), abnegation, tenacity (tenacité), resilience, pride (honneur), feat (exploit).	640	3.66
societal values	adaptation, equality (égalité), hope (espoir), team (equipe), solidarity (solidarité), inclusion, acknowledgement (reconnaissance), sharing (partage), support (soutien), passion	249	5.18
marginalisation	difficulty (difficulté), difference, less broadcast (peu mediatisé), diversity (diversité)	90	4.87
inspiration	respect, impressive (impressionnant), courageous (courageux), admiration, merit (mérite)	152	3.68

Table 30 categorical analysis

This categorical classification suggests that, in terms of the architecture of cognition (Carugati et al., 1994), the social representation of Paralympic sport in France is built

around 11 references universes or paradigm s (Lahlou, 1995, 2008) which were summoned with different magnitudes to represent Paralympic sport.

These reference universes are the categories "supercrip", "societal values of sport", "modern values of sport", "tools" "inspiration", "type of disability", "type of people with disability", "events and brands", "elite athlete", "practices and sporting disciplines", and "marginalisation".

Apart from the reference universe "elite athlete", all the other reference universes were defined earlier when addressing the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon and in Germany (see titles 2 and 4 of this chapter).

The reference universe "Elite athlete" encompasses all the traits and features of elite athletes that our respondents associated with Paralympic sport (e.g., champion, athlete, etc.).

An application of Verges (1992, 1994) prototypical analysis to these reference universes (with a threshold for including a reference universe set at 2 % of the total number of evocations within the corpus) yielded the table below.

	average rank: 4.15	
Average frequency: 196	supercrip (640) (3.66)	societal values of sport (249) (5.18)
		modern values of sport (210) (4.79)
	tools (175) (3.62)	practices and sporting disciplines (178) (4.31)
	inspiration (152) (3.68)	
		elite athlete (107) (4.9)
	disability type (89) (3.84)	
		marginalisation (90) (4.87)
	events and brand (86) (3.56)	

Table 31 Prototypical analysis to these reference universes

From this table, we can determine the hypothetical structure of the social representation from a paradigmatic perspective; that is, we can determine the order of precedence in which paradigms (Carugati et al., 1994) are evoked in the construction of the social representation . This hypothetical structure suggests that the references universe "supercrip" would be central to the social representation, that is, resorted to first

and independently from the context to represent Paralympic sport in France; following that, the reference universes "societal values" and "modern values of sport" that constitute the first periphery would be evoked, then the reference universes "tools", "inspiration", "disability type", and "events and brands" from the contrasted area and finally the reference universes "practices and sporting disciplines", "elite athlete", and "marginalisation" from the second periphery. The figure 52 presents the hypothetical structure of the social representation of Paralympic sport in France from a reference universe perspective
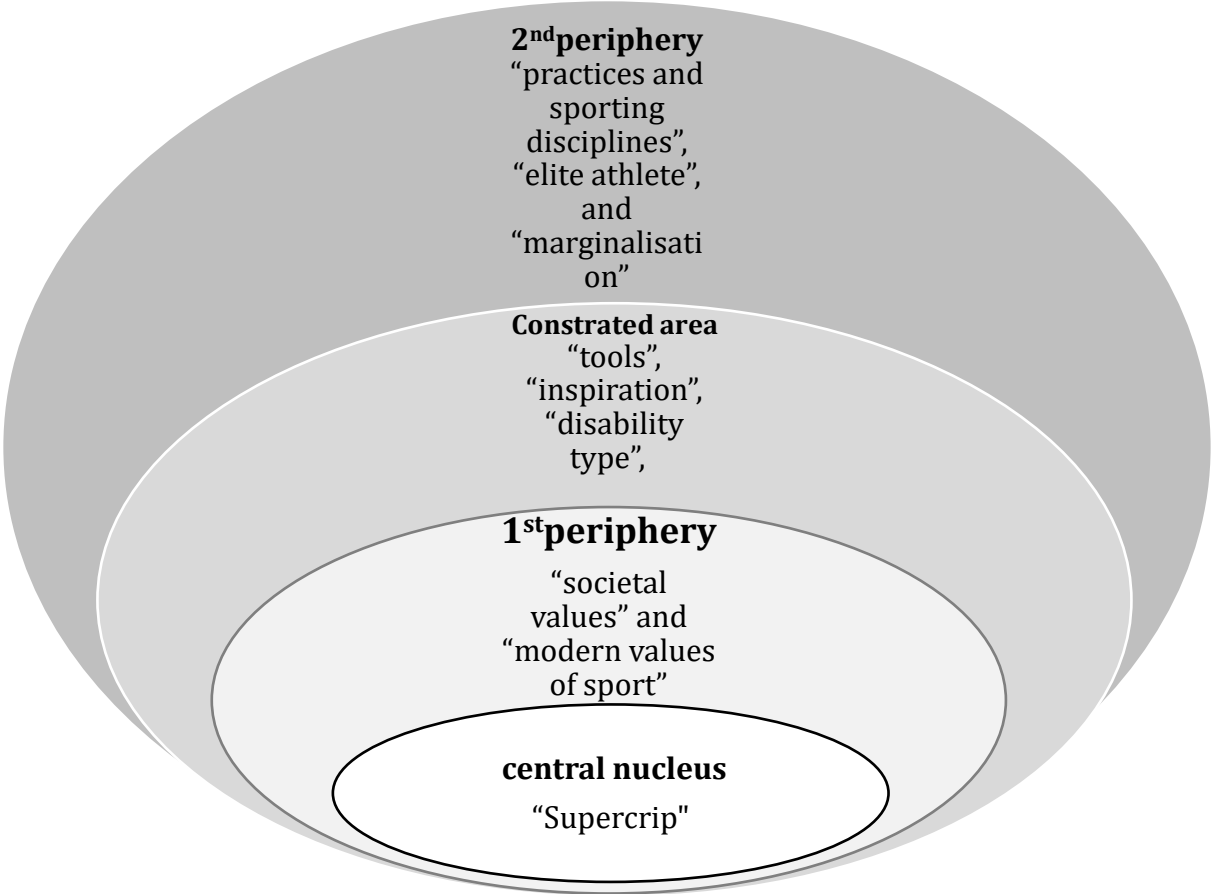
Figure 52 Hypothetical structure of the social representation of Paralympic sport in France

4.4. Insights from the Similarity Analysis

In order to improve our understanding of the social representation of Paralympic sport in France, we carried out a similarity analysis provided by the software IRAMUTEQ and based on graphs theory. This similarity analysis was carried out on the whole corpus. The figure 53 below shows the similarity tree representing the statistical architecture assumed to match the semantical architecture of the most prominent elements of our corpus.
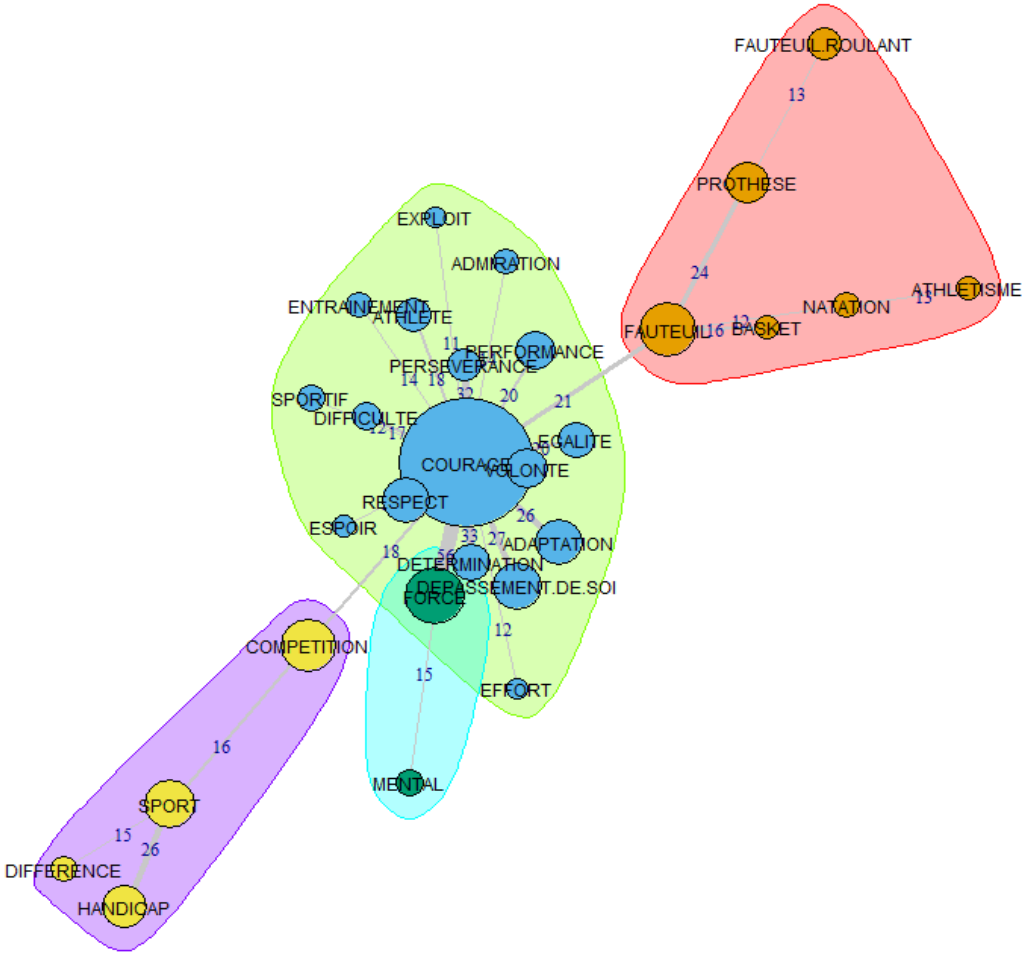
Figure 53 Similarity tree representing the statistical architecture of the French corpus

This similarity tree suggests a number of hypotheses and doubts to us. Firstly, it reinforces the hypothesis for the centrality of the items "courage" and "chair" within the

social representation as the statistical links connecting these items to others seem quite strong.

Secondly, it cast some doubt on the centrality of the item "self-transcendence" as this item has no connections downstream from it; this suggests its removal from the central nucleus to the first periphery.

Thirdly, this similarity tree suggests applying a hypothesis of centrality to the item "competition", which displays various strong upstream and downstream links with other elements of the social representation.

Next, the statistical strength that this similarity tree exhibits between the items "mental" and "strength" casts some doubt on the belonging of the item "mental" to the reference universe "disability type", as was suggested in our categorical analysis.

Finally, this similarity tree suggests the inclusion of the unsettled elements from the contrasted area into the second periphery, as the tree shows only modest and scarce links between them and the other elements.

All these modifications suggest a new hypothetical architecture of the social representation of Paralympic sport in France, as displayed in Figure here below.
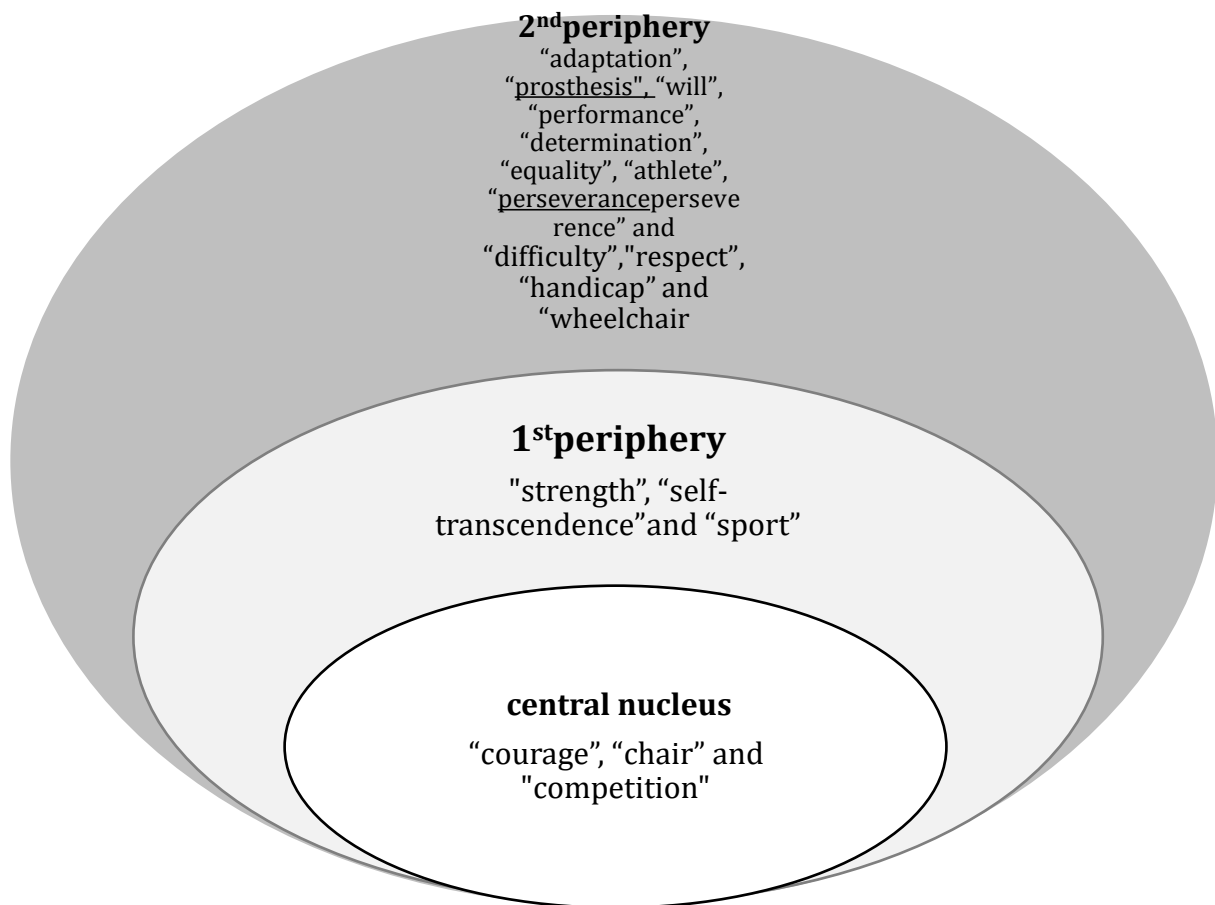
Figure 54 New hypothetical architecture of the social representation of Paralympic sport in France

Based on the similarity tree (see figure 53), and from a paradigmatic perspective, we could confirm the hypothetical centrality of the reference universe '"supercrip" as its empirical indicator (courage, self-transcendence, difficulty, […]) dominate the central cluster of our similarity tree.

5. Operationalisation of the Variable Social Representation for our Model.

Our intent in studying the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon, France and Germany was to understand what Paralympic sport refers to in the inter-subjective experience of people in these countries, in order to use all of these conceptualisations made about Paralympic sport in these countries as a measurement tool (scale or index) to extend the Planned Behaviour Theory that constitutes the nucleus of our analysis model.

Operationalising social representations into measurement tools (scales of indexes) has been done by several scholars in the field of marketing Ballah, 2018; Corbel, 2021, Tanoh, 2021.

As we saw all along the title 4 of the present chapter, empirical indicators (Carugati et al., 1994) of the social representations of Paralympic sport in Cameroon, France and Germany are numerous yet not highly consensual. As a consequence, they are so varied that the categorical analyses and similarity trees bring more information about the social representation than the empirical indicators themselves. This means that if we remain at an elementary level of abstraction —that is, at the level of empirical indicators—we would lose a great deal of information about the representations one the one hand, and have to use for each country empirical indicators of social representation to build our country-specific social representation measurement tool (scale or index) on the other hand, which would yield a very long measurement tool (scale or index). Apart from the huge informational loss, Such a long measuring tool would be difficult to use as people would probably be unwilling to complete a very long questionnaire for our upcoming confirmatory study.

Given the difficulty of using elementary indicators (Carugati et al., 1994) to operationalise the social representation as a variable, we resorted to a higher level of abstraction: the paradigmatic level (Lahlou, 1995, 2008). This involves using the various reference universes which capture the core of the different empirical indicators to build our measurement tool. This procedure is similar to what Kunkel et al. (2017) did with brand associations. Table 32 presents the different reference universes forming the social representation of Paralympic sport in each country.

Cameroon	France	Germany

sport practices and disciplines	sport practices and disciplines	sport practices and disciplines
modern values of sport	modern values of sport	modern values of sport
tools for practitioners	tools	tools
societal values	societal values	societal values
supercrip	supercrip	supercrip
marginalisation & medical model of disability	marginalisation	marginalisation
prosperity-related values	events and brands	events and brands
post-modern values	inspiration	inspiration
types of impairment	disability	
types of practitioners	elite athlete	

Table 32 Different reference universes forming the social representation of Paralympic sport in each country.

From this table, we can easily notice the high level of consubstantiality that the social representations in each country entertain with one another. This consubstantiality eases the operationalisation of the social representation from a paradigmatic perspective.

when we compile the reference universes pertaining to the fields of the social representations (from a paradigmatic perspective) of Paralympic sport in the countries concerned, we obtain the following list: (1) sport practices and disciplines, (2) events and brands, (3) types of impairment , (4)types of practitioner, (5) tools, (6) elite athlete, (7) modern values, (8) societal values, (9) prosperity-related values, (10) inspiration, (11) post-modern values, (12) supercrip, and (13) marginalisation.

The operationalisation of the social representation would consist of an index (rather than a scale). As a matter of fact, the operationalisation of the social representation as a variable is likely more the criteria of an index than those of a scale.

Jarvis et al. (2004) defined four criteria for distinguishing between reflective and formative measurement tools. These criteria are synoptically presented in Table 33 below.

	Reflective construct	**Formative construct**
Direction of causality implied by the conceptual definition	The direction of the causality goes from the construct to its indicators	The direction of the causality goes from indicators to the construct

	Indicators are manifestations of the construct	Indicators are features of the construct's definition
	Changes within indicators do not lead to change within the construct	Changes within indicators do imply changes within the construct
	Change within the construct do lead to changes within the indicators	Changes within the construct do not imply changes in the indicators
Interchangeability of indicators	Indicators are interchangeable	Indicators are not interchangeable
	Indicators are consubstantial	Indicator do not need to be consubstantial
	The deletion of one indicator do not alter the construct	Le deletion of an indicator would alter the construct
Covariation of indicators	Indicators do covary within one another	Indicators do not mandatorily covary
Antecedents and consequences of indicators	Indicators have the same antecedents and consequences	Indicators do have different antecedents and consequences

Table 33 Criteria for choosing reflective of formative models. Source : Jarvis et al. (2004, p.79)

As the reference universes composing our construct were formed through the abduction (Lahlou, 1995, 2008) of empirical indicators (Carugati et al., 1994) around the smallest common paradigms (Lahlou, 1995, 2008), we tentatively (pending confirmatory operations) postulate that:

(a) These reference universes are features of the social representation (from a paradigmatic perspective); that is, they contribute to the social representation. In other words, the direction of causality goes from the reference universes to the social representation from a paradigmatic perspective.

(b) These reference universes are neither interchangeable nor consubstantial, as they constitute different paradigms or conceptions. The removal of any reference universe from the social representation (from a paradigmatic perspective) would alter the social representation, as the social representation is formed from all the reference universes composing it.

(c) These references universes do not covary, as they embody different and independent conceptions.

(d) These reference universes come from different empirical indicators.

Based on the above, we were able to operationalise the social representation (from a paradigmatic perspective) as a formative construct. Within the list of reference universes above, the items 1, 3, 4,5,7,8,9,11,12, and 13 will formatively form the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon, while the items1,2,4,5,6,7,8,10,12, and

13 will formatively form the social representation of Paralympic sport in France and the items 1,2,5,7,8,10,12, and 13 the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany.

Given that the reference universes composing the constructed social representation emerge from the abduction of empirical indicators into paradigms (Lahlou, 1995,2008), they could also be considered (if necessary) first-order constructs; in this case, the social representation could be envisioned as a second-order formative construct. These first-order constructs could be measured with single items as was the case in Kunkel et al.'s (2017) work on brand associations.

The psychometric properties of this operationalisation of the social representation as a variable for extending our model are however yet to be further analysed and discussed in the part of our work vested to quantitative studies.

PART III: QUANTITATIVE SURVEY(S)

This part synthetises intakes from theoretical developments and empirical studies along with research questions, then establishes a conceptual model along with hypotheses, and finally confirms or disconfirms these hypotheses. It is composed of two chapters.

CHAPTER VII: INTAKES FROM THE THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENTS AND EMPIRICAL STUDIES FOR A CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The present chapter aims at: (1) synthesising intakes from theoretical developments and empirical studies; along with research questions (2) establishing a conceptual model along with hypotheses.

It is structed according to the table of contents below:

Intakes from Theoretical Developments and Empirical Studies

As theoretical anchors for our work aiming to describe, explain, and model people's behaviours towards Paralympic sport, we syncretised three theoretical grounds.

1. The first was the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1985), which links behaviours to attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. It has been totally or partially used in the field of sport sciences to analyse intentional and/or actual sport exercising behaviour (e.g., Wang and Zhang, 2015, Hagger et al., 2002), spectating intentions (e.g., Norman, Clark and Walker, 2005; Lu, Lin and Cheng, 2011), TV sport viewing intentions (Chen and Lin, 2009), and in marketing research to analyse green and environmentally friendly products consumption (Stavros et al., 1999 ; Liu et al., 2020) ; Higher education marketing (Gatfield and Cheng, 2008) ; consumer's showrooming behaviour (Arora et al., 2017); retailer's myopia and customer's dishonest return (King et al., 2010) ; investment intention (Akhtar and Das, 2018) ; Canadian intention to donate to charity (Mittelman and Rojas-Mendez, 2018), consumer' complaint intentions (Zhao, 2011) ; Intention to revisit a destination (Abbasi, 2021) ; Blood donation intention and behaviour (Holdershaw, 2011) ; behavioural intentions towards mobile text coupons (Hsu et al., 2006), Student banking Australia (Tucker et al., 2020), Intention to use bio plastic (Tano et al., 2022), Gym supplement choice (Nagar, 2020)

Since the traditional model of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1985) did not work in some instances for the analysis of sport spectator behaviour (e.g., Lu, Lin and Cheng, 2011), and as Hagger et al. (2001), Norman, Conner, and Bell (2000), Cunningham and Know (2003), Yordy and Lent (1993), Wang (2001), Bozionelos & Bennett (2015), Bae, Won, Lee and Park (2020), Norman, Clark and Walker (2005), Eddosary (2015), Wang and Zhang (2015), and Hagger et al. (2002) have recognised the need to extend the planned behaviour model in order to improve its predictive power, we supplemented the model with the extension "previous behaviour", which has been proven in several instances to increase the planned behaviour model's predictive power in sport spectating contexts (e.g., Cunninghan and Know, 2003) or sport exercising context (e.g., Yordy and Lent, 1993; Wang, 2001; Norman, Conner, and Bell, 2000; Cunningham and Know, 2003; Bozionelos & Bennett, 2015). This construct of previous behaviour has also been phrased as "past behaviours" (Hagger et al.,2001; Ajzen, 2002) or "previous experiences" (Hagger et al., 2002).

After reviewing all the main models that have been used for analysing sport consumption behaviour, we decided to retain the planned behaviour model as the core of our model for the analysis of Paralympic sport consumption behaviour.

We have opted for the use of the planned behaviour model for two main reasons: on the one hand, it syncretises some insights from many sport consumption behaviour models, especially identity-based models, cognitive models, constraints-as-motives models, and can be extended (as we will see in the following sections) with insights from even more sport consumption models. On the other hand, unlike some of the other models we reviewed in earlier sections, the planned behaviour model is applicable to both Paralympic sport viewers and non-viewers. It is also applicable to people who have had no prior spectating or viewing experience with Paralympic sport as well as to those who have had prior experiences with it.

The second theoretical ground was the Theory of the Social Representation (Moscovici, 1961) along with its developments linking social representations to culture (Jodelet, 1989; Jahoda, 2012), media (Wagner et al., 2002), identities (Moliner, 1993; Abric, 1994a; Moliner & Deschamps, 2012), and practices (past) (Tafani & Souchet, 2002, 2004; Sénémeaud, Girandola, Georget & Salès-Wuillemin, 2013; Salès-Wuillemin, Gosling & Girandola, 2014) on the one hand, and to attitudes (Rouquette, 1996; Moliner & Tafani 1997; Rateau, 2000; Tafani, 2001), behaviours and practices (present and future) (Abric, 1994a,b; Flament, 1994; Valsiner; 2003a,b) on the other hand. This theory has also been applied along with its above-mentioned developments to the social object "sport" (Lacassagne et al, 2004; Lacassagne et al., 2006; Piermatteo et al., 2014; Bert, 2016; Piermattéo et al., 2018). As our first exploratory study proved that Paralympic sport was an object of social representation (see chapter V), and our second exploratory study provided us with the main dimensions around which the social representations of Paralympic sport in Cameroon, France and Germany are organised at a paradigmatic level, the social representation was conceptualised along with its above-mentioned theoretical developments as a further extension of the planned behaviour model, fitting together (theoretically) with the planned behaviour model downstream, and with further constructs (which will be presented in the next sections) upstream. Such a conceptualisation of the social representation as a variable within a model has been made in marketing research by Ballah (2018), Tanoh (2021), Corbel (2021).

The third was the American traditional psycho-cognitive model of sport consumption, linking consumption behaviours to motivations (reasons for action) (Trail and James, 2001; Fink, Trail and Anderson, 2002; Wann and Waddill, 2003; Mehus, 2005; Wann, 2005; Lee, 2007; Funk, Filo, Beatom, and Pritchard, 2009; Kim and trail, 2010; Trail (2019), and Mayer and Hungenberg (2020), constraints (barriers to action) (trail et al. 2008; Kim and Trail, 2010; Trail and Kim, 2011; Jones et al., 2017; Mayer and Hungenberg, 2020), and points of attachments (identifications) (Robinson and Trail (2002 Trail, Robinson, Dick and Gillentine, 2003; Robinson, Trail, Dick and Gillentine, 2005). Insights from this motivations, constraints and points of attachment -based approach to sport consumption behaviour were used to further extend and enrich our already extended planned behaviour model.

Besides these three main theoretical pillars of our study, and considering that 1) our first exploratory study enabled us to notice that media were referred to as the main source of the Paralympic sport experience in all three countries, 2) that media were also cited as one of the two major sources of social representations (Wagner, 2002, 2020), as well as sources of attitudes (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005, Noumbissie, 2010), 3) that Paralympic sport is an unobtrusive issue (Zucker, 1976) and therefore a proper object for the media influence on representations, attitudes and behaviour towards it (McCombs and Shaw, 1972; McCombs, 2005; McCombs, Shaw and Weaver, 2014) in their agenda setting theory, and 4) the theorisation of how media shape our overall depiction of the world (Gerbner, 1967, 1969a, 1969b, 1973; Gerbner, 2002; Morgan, 2002; Mosharafa, 2015; Shrum, 2017) , we felt it useful and advisable to conceptualise media influences as variables further extending our model.

The s yncretisation of the above-mentioned theoretical grounds enabled us to suggest a framework for analysing Paralympic sport consumption behaviour (action) on the basis of attitudes (judgements towards the action), motivations (reasons for actions) (Trail & James, 2001), social representations (the meaning of and justification for action) (Abric, 1994a), constraints (barriers to action) (Trail et al., 2008), perceived behavioural control (feasibility of action), subjective norms (social influence on action) (Mugny et al., 2008; Mugny et al., 2009), media influence (on action) (McCombs & Shaw, 1972; Gerbner, 2002), identities (self or group preservation and /or affirmation in action) (Moliner & Deschamp, 2012), and practices (past actions) (Tafani & Souchet).

Supplementary variables to our model were values (guides for action) (Schwartz, 2006 a,b, 2012) bespeaking some cultural influence on attitudes and behaviour, and socio-demographic features: gender (Fink, Trail and Anderson, 2002; Lera-López and Rapún-Gárate, 2007; Kim, Magnusen, Kim and Lee, 2019), country (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001), age (Zhang et al., 2003), education (Lera-López and Rapún-Gárate, 2007), and sport level (Kim, Magnusen, Kim and Lee, 2019), accounting in the instance of sport consumption behaviour for some inter-individual or inter-group variations (influences on action). To these moderating variables, we added "proximity to disability", which was proven like the other socio-demographic features above to account for inter-group variations in representations of Paralympic sport in our first exploratory study.

Research Questions

Having outlined the theoretical foundations upon which we intend to ground our work, we can easily phrase the questions driving our research:

(1) What is the influence of attitudes on Paralympic sport media consumption?

(2) What is the influence of social norms on Paralympic sport media consumption?

(3) What is the influence of perceived behavioural control on Paralympic sport media consumption?

(4) What is the influence of past behaviours/ experiences on attitudes and media consumption behaviours towards Paralympic sport?

(5) What are the most important dimensions of Paralympic sport's social representation?

(6) What is the influence of social representations on attitudes and behaviours towards Paralympic sport?

(7) What is the influence of motives on attitudes and behaviours towards Paralympic sport?

(8) What is the influence of constraints on behaviours towards Paralympic sport?

(9) What is the influence of points of attachments on representations, attitudes, and behaviours towards Paralympic sport?

(10) What is the influence of media on representations, attitudes, and behaviours towards Paralympic sport?

3. Our Model

3.1 The Core of Our Model

The core of our model consisted of the planned behaviour model (Ajzen, 1985) extended with past experiences / behaviour (Ajzen, 2002; Hagger et al., 2002). This model, which has been used for analysing consumption behaviour in the field of Sport (e.g., Conningham and Kwon, 2003; Normann, Clark and Walker, 2005; Chen and Lin, 2009; Eddosary, 2015; and Muncu and Barnes, 2016), and the fields of green and environmentally friendly products consumption (Stavros et al., 1999 ; Liu et al., 2020) ; Higher education marketing (Gatfield and Cheng, 2008) ; consumer's showrooming behaviour (Arora et al., 2017) ;retailer's myopia and customer's dishonest return (King et al., 2010) ; investment intention (Akhtar and Das, 2018) ; Canadian intention to donate to charity (Mittelman and Rojas-Mendez, 2018), consumer' complaint intentions (Zhao, 2011) ; Intention to revisit a destination (Abbasi, 2021) ; Blood donation intention and behaviour (Holdershaw, 2011) ; behavioural intentions towards mobile text coupons (Hsu et al., 2006), Student banking Australia (Tucker et al., 2020), Intention to use bio plastic (Tano et al., 2022), Gym supplement choice (Nagar, 2020), posits among other relationships that (1) attitudes predict intentions, (2) subjective norms predict intentions (3) perceived behavioural control predicts intentions, (4) intentions predict behaviours, (5) perceived behavioural control predicts behaviour, and (6) past behaviours predict intentions. figure 55 below presents the core of our model
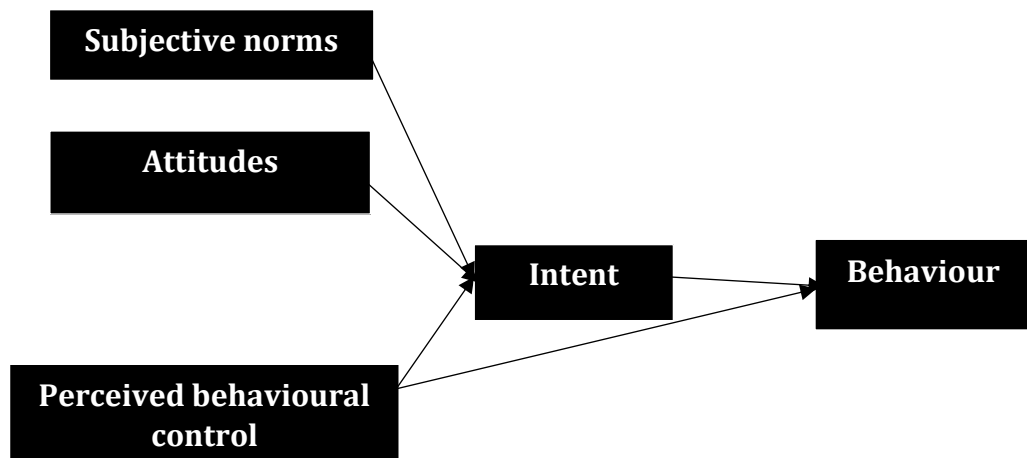
Figure 55 Core of our model

As it is impossible to measure both behaviours and intentions at the same time for the same event, we could only measure behaviour regarding the 2021 Paralympic games, and intentions towards the 2024 Paralympic games. However, since — in the context of Paralympic sport — intentions towards Paralympic sport measured regarding the 2024 Paralympics are not meant to predict behaviours towards Paralympic sport measured regarding the 2021 Paralympics, we decided to delete "intentions" and to transfer of the predicates that applied to this construct to the construct "behaviour" as it has been done in sport marketing studies studies by Lu, Lin and cheng (2011).

The Figure 56 below presents what the core of our model becomes after removing the construct "Intention".
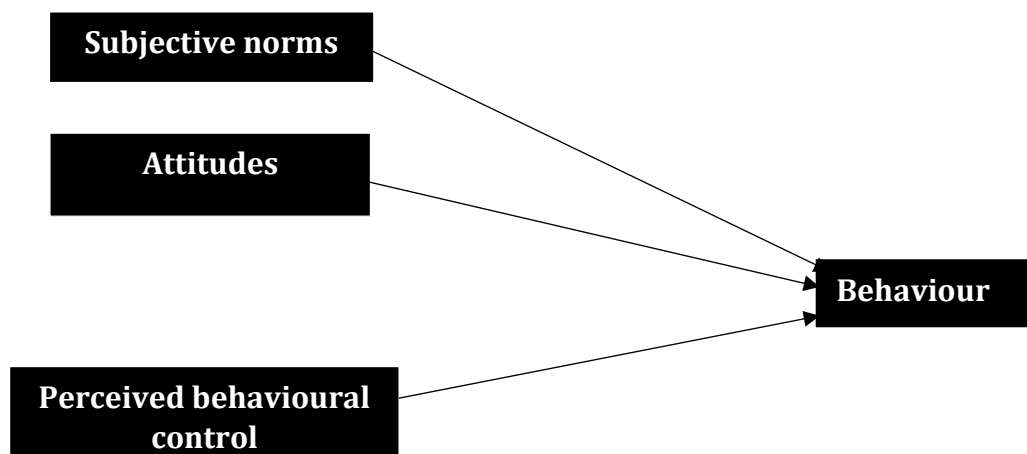
Figure 56 New core of our model

This new model posits that (1) attitudes towards Paralympic sport predict behaviours towards it, (2) subjective norms predict behaviours towards Paralympic

sport, (3) perceived behaviour predicts behaviours towards Paralympic sport, (4) past behaviours predict current behaviours towards Paralympic sport.

3.1.1 Dependent Variables: Behaviours

Sport consumption behaviour has been analysed in the literature as a compound construct encompassing one or many of the following:

➢ Past attendance (Pease & Zhang, 2001; Mahoney et al.; Ridinger and Funk; Neale and Funk, 2006; Hoye and Lillis, 2008; and Funk et al., 2009)

➢ Past, present and future (intentional) attendance (Kim & Trail, 2010, 2011; Mayer & Hungenberg, 2020)

➢ Media consumption (Fink et al., 2002b ; Kim et al, 2008; Kim et al., 2009; Andrew et al, 2009; Byon et al., 2009; Byon et al., 2010; Byon et al., 2011)

➢ Word of mouth (Swanson et al, 2003; Asada and Ko, 2016, 2019; Chang, Hang, and Ko, 2017; Wakefield and Bennett, 2018, Sato and al., 2018)

➢ Birging (Trail & James, 2001; Trail, Fink, and Anderson, 2003, Trail et al., 2005; Trail et al., 2009)

➢ Merchandise purchase (Trail & James, 2001; Trail, Fink & Anderson, 2003; Andrew et al., 2009).

➢ Intended merchandise consumption (Fink, Trail, Anderson, 2002b, Trail, & Ko, 2011, Cottingham et al., 2014b)

➢ Repatronage intention (Trail, Fink, and Anderson, 2003; Söderlund, 2006; Funk et al., 2009; Pease & Zhang, 2001; Byon et al., 2009; Byon et al., 2010; Byon et al., 2011, Cottingham et al., 2014b)

➢ Attendance intention (Zhang et al., 1997; Fink, Trail, Anderson, 2002b; Kim, Trail, & Ko, 2011)

➢ Online viewing intention (Fink, Trail, Anderson, 2002b; Byon et al., 2010 Cottingham et al., 2012, Cottingham et al., 2014a, b; Trail, & Ko, 2011)

➢ Statistics tracking (Fink, Trail, Anderson, 2002b)

➢ Wearing of team's clothing (Fink, Trail, Anderson, 2002b)

Given the specificity of high-performance disability sport (not broadly known), and the result of our first exploratory study which indicated that most people (in the three countries in which we are conducting our investigation) only experienced Paralympic

sport through media, and considering the ongoing context of the Covid19 pandemic which makes it difficult for Cameroonian, French and German potential spectators to attend the Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, it seemed more advisable to us to consider only two of the consumption-behaviour related variables itemised above: media consumption (including all the traditional, social and online media), and word of mouth.

We could have considered "intention for future consumption" (Paris 2024 Paralympics) as a dependent variable, that is, as final outcome our model and predicted by "present" "Behaviours (measured during Tokyo 2021 Paralympics). However, the fact that Paralympic games are held once every four years led us to believe that intentions for media consumption for the Paris 2024 games measured in 2021 might not be of great use in predicting actual media consumption behaviour in 2021, as the subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and attitudes related to Paralympic sport might not be the same by then (that is, the fact that the 2024 Paralympics will be held in Paris may change many variables related to intentions in France). Therefor we chose not to include "intention for future consumption" in our model.

Having operationalised our dependent variables into Media Consumption and Word-of-Mouth (WOM), all the predicates referred to above as applying to behaviours apply to these two constructs. The Figure 57 below presents the new architecture of the core of our model
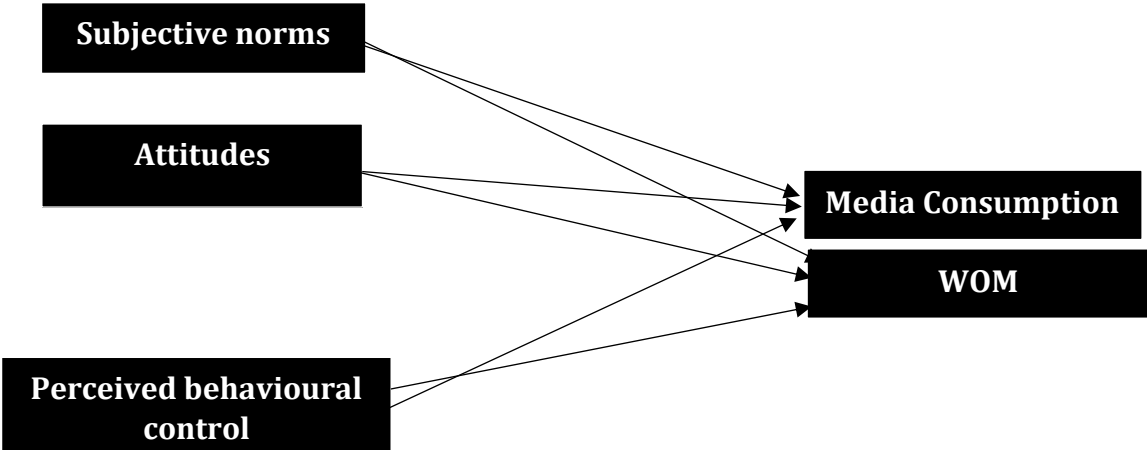
Figure 57 New architecture of the core of our model

3.1.2 Attitudinal Constructs

Regarding attitudes, since we chose to adopt the tri-dimensional model of attitude (Howland & Rosenberg, 1960; Ebbesen & Maslach, 1977; Eiser, 1986; Zanna & Rempel,

1988; Zanna, Haddock & Esses, 1990; Zimbardo) (see chap II), we conceptualised attitudes towards Paralympic sport into affective, cognitive, and conative (intention) dimensions. Having earlier eliminated the conative dimension of attitude (intention) from our model, all the predicates applying to attitudes apply to the affective and cognitive dimensions.

While the affective dimension of an individual's attitude towards Paralympic sport refers to their attraction or revulsion regarding it, which can be expressed in terms of likes and dislikes, favourable or unfavourable, interesting or boring, comfortable of uncomfortable, the cognitive dimension refers to ideas, knowledge, and beliefs about it (Noumbissie, 2010).In the North American motives, constraints and points of attachment model, "knowledge about the sporting practice" has been reversely theorised as a motive to sport viewership or spectatorship under the construct "lack of knowledge"(Kim and Trail, 2010, 2011).

This conceptualisation of "lack of knowledge" was further reversed to form the construct "knowledge" that was theorised as an internal and contextual variable that could according to the context be a motive or a constraint for sport consumption (Mayer and Hungenberg, 2020). Conceptualised as such, it measures the cognitive dimension of attitudes towards Paralympic sport, since both the knowledge and cognitive dimensions of attitude capture the same thing. As Cottingham et al. (2012, 2014a,b) found the construct knowledge to be a motive to sport consumption in the specific instance of Paralympic sport, we decide for this work to assume that knowledge is a motive to sport consumption in the instance of disability sport. The figure 58 below presents the new architecture of our model
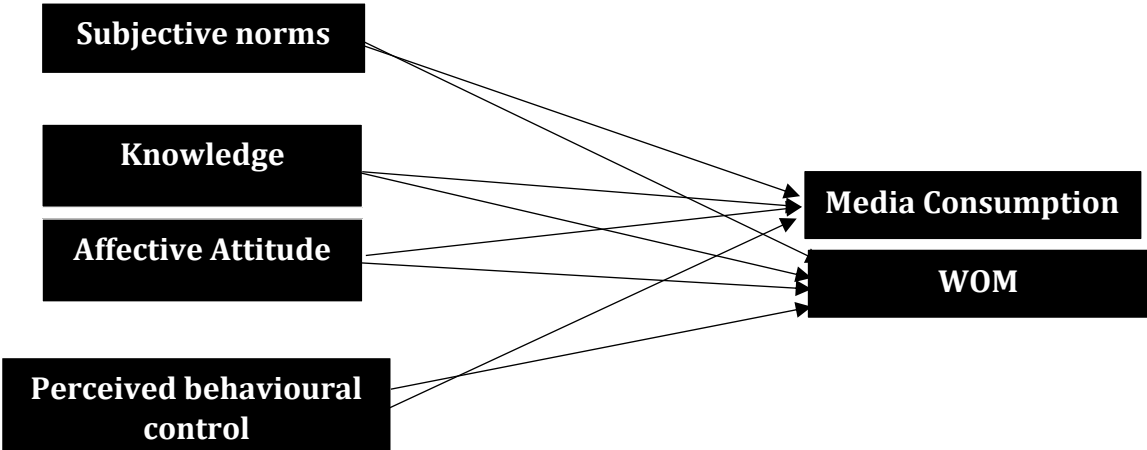
Figure 58 New architecture of our model

From here we can postulate the first hypotheses on the relationship between attitudes and behaviours.

H1	Knowledge positively influences media consumption
H2	Knowledge positively influences word-of-mouth
H3	The affective dimension of attitude positively influences media consumption
H4	The affective dimension of attitude positively influences word-of-mouth

3.1.3 Subjective Norms

Subjective norms bespeak the perceived social pressure on an individual to adopt a certain type of behaviour, and their motivation to comply with that expectation (Ajzen, 1991, Ham et al., 2015). Subjective norms have been distinguished in the literature into two components, namely social norms (Ham, Jeger & Ivkovic, 2015; Rivis & Sheeran, 2003) and descriptive norms (Cunningham & kwon, 2003; Ham, Jeger & Ivkovic, 2015; Rivis & Sheeran, 2003; Ajzen, 2001, p:5). While social norms refer to an individual's perception of other people's opinion about how they should behave (Ajzen, 1991, 2002; Ham et al., 2015), descriptive norms refer to an individual's measure of the effective behaviour performed by other people. To be more specific to our context of Paralympic sport media consumption, we chose to substitute the construct "lack of interest from others" (Trail et al., 2008; Kim et Trail, 2010, 2011), generated by the North American motives, constraints and points of attachment model and bespeaking a descriptive dimension of subjective norms, with the construct "descriptive norms". The figure 59 presents the newest architecture of our model
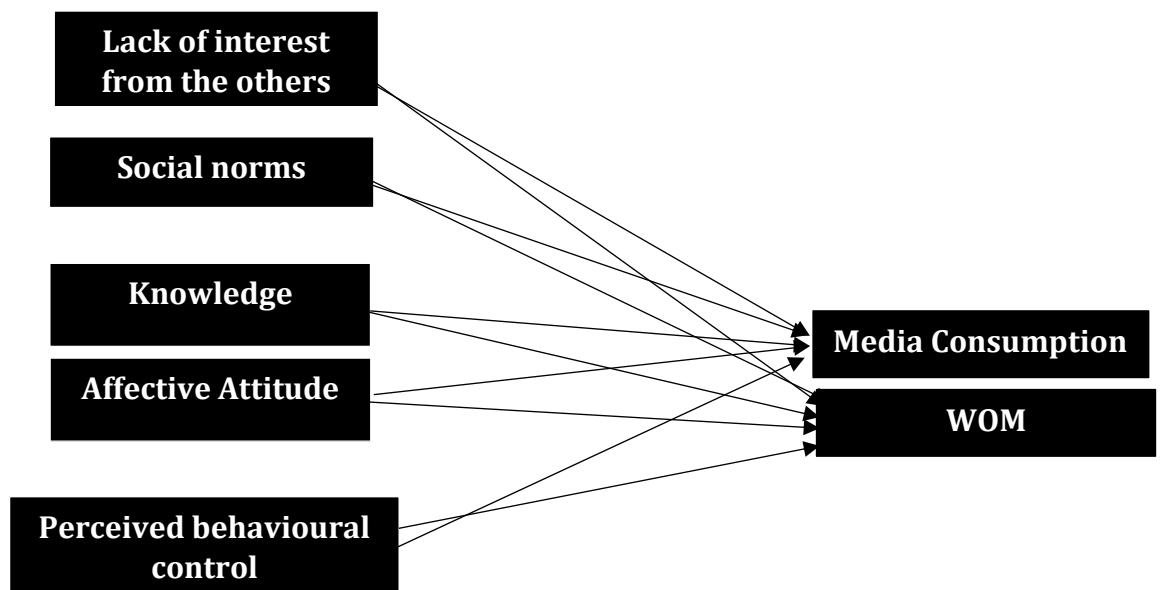
Figure 59 Newest architecture of our model

From here we can apply all the predicates mentioned above regarding subjective norms to these two constructs. This enables us to formulate a couple of further hypotheses:

H5	Social norms positively influence media consumption
H6	Social norms positively influence word-of-mouth
H7	Lack of interest from others negatively influences media consumption
H8	Lack of interest from others negatively influences word-of-mouth

3.1.4 Perceived Behavioural Control

Perceived behavioural control bespeaks both how much a behaviour depends on an individual's volition and their ability to perform that behaviour (self-efficacy) (Ajzen, 2002, Ham et al., 2015). To create the planned behaviour model, this construct was added to the theory of reasoned action to reinforce its predicting power by accounting for events that are not entirely dependent from the subject's volition.

This conceptualisation is very close to that of "constraints" as barriers to action (Meyer and Hungenberg, 2020) in the North American motives, constraints, and points of

attachment model. I n a Paralympic sport media consumption context, we found the constraint "sport entertainment alternative" (Trail et al., 2008; Kim and Trail, 2010, 2011) to be more adapted to bespeak a combination of non-volitional events and self-efficacy that accounts for perceived behavioural control. Therefore, we chose to substitute the construct "sport entertainment alternative" with the construct "perceived behavioural control". The figure 60 presents the newest architecture of our model
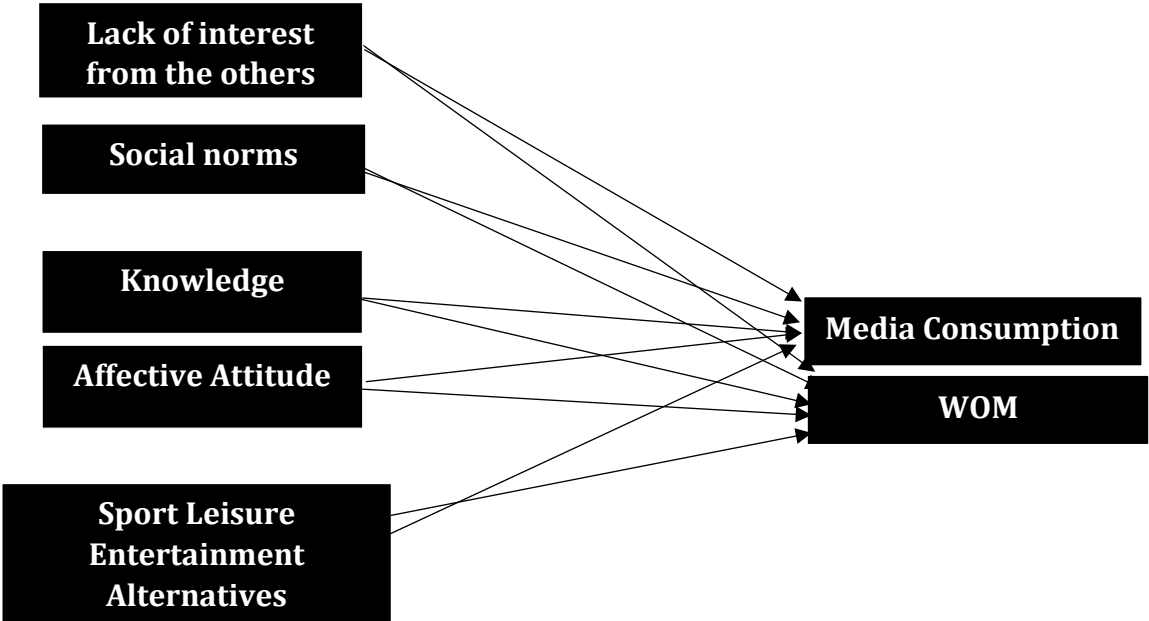
Figure 60: Newest architecture of our model

From here we could phrase a further hypothesis:

H9	Sport leisure entertainment alternatives negatively influence media consumption
H10	Sport entertainment alternatives negatively influence word-of-mouth

3.2. Extension with Past Behaviour/Experience

Past behaviours have been theorised to positively influence present behaviours (Ajzen, 2002; Hagger, 2002). They has also been theorised to positively influence the cognitive dimension of attitudes (Albarracin and Wyer, 2000). Since the cognitive dimension of attitudes towards Paralympic sport has been reversely assimilated to a lack

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of knowledge, the predicate above means that past behaviour/ experience regarding Paralympic sport would negatively influence a lack of knowledge about it. The figure 61 presents the newest version of our model
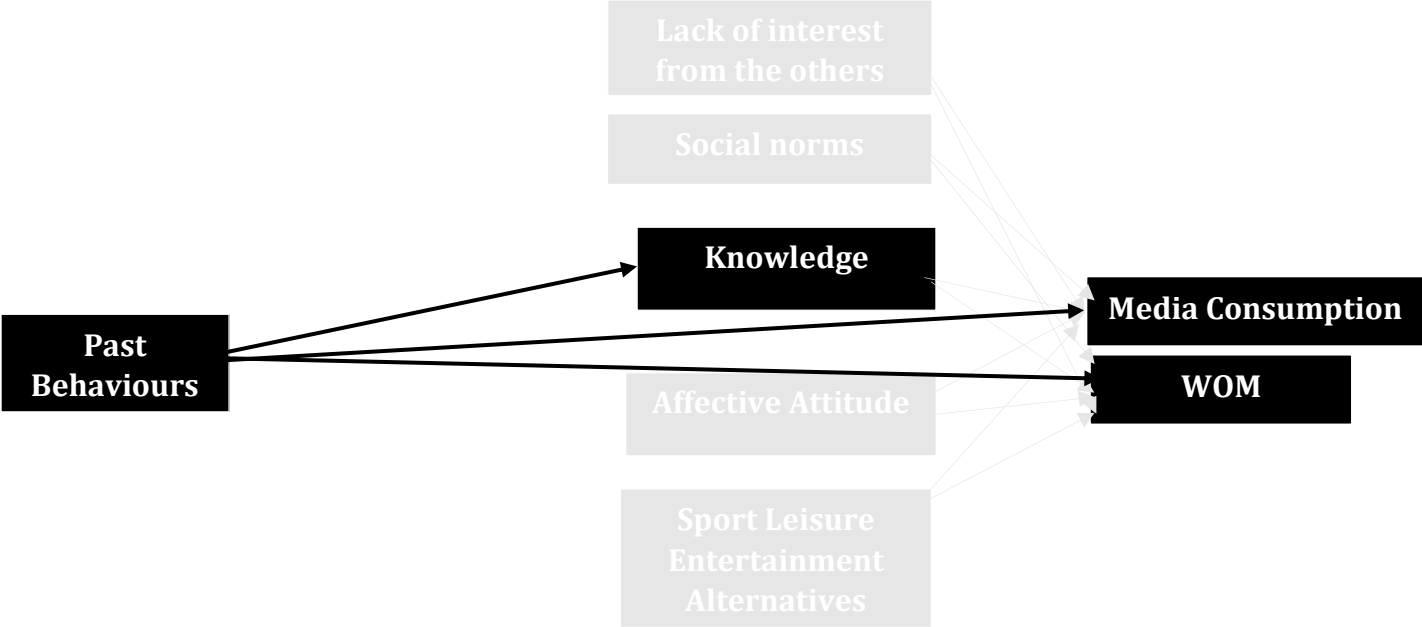
Figure 61 Newest version of our model

From the above, we can draw the hypotheses below:

H11	Past behaviour positively influences media consumption
H12	Past behaviour positively influences word-of-mouth
H13	Past behaviour positively influence knowledge

3.3 Extension with Social Representations

Social representations have been theorised to influence attitudes (Rouquette, 1996; Moliner & Tafani 1997; Rateau, 2000; Tafani, 2001). Our perspective is that social representations would positively influence the cognitive dimension of attitude, which in our instance is addressed as "knowledge". As for the affective dimension of attitude, it is hard to formulate any hypothesis in the direction of the influence of social representations on it.

Social representations have also been shown to entertain a relation of mutual dependence with practice, which can be here assimilated to behaviour—that is, upstream with past behaviour/experience (Tafani & Souchet, 2002, 2004; Sénémeaud, Girandola, Georget & Salès-Wuillemin, 2013; Salès-Wuillemin, Gosling & Girandola, 2014), and downstream with present or future behaviours (Abric, 1994a,b; Flament, 1994; Valsiner; 2003a,b). The figure 62 presents the newest version of our model
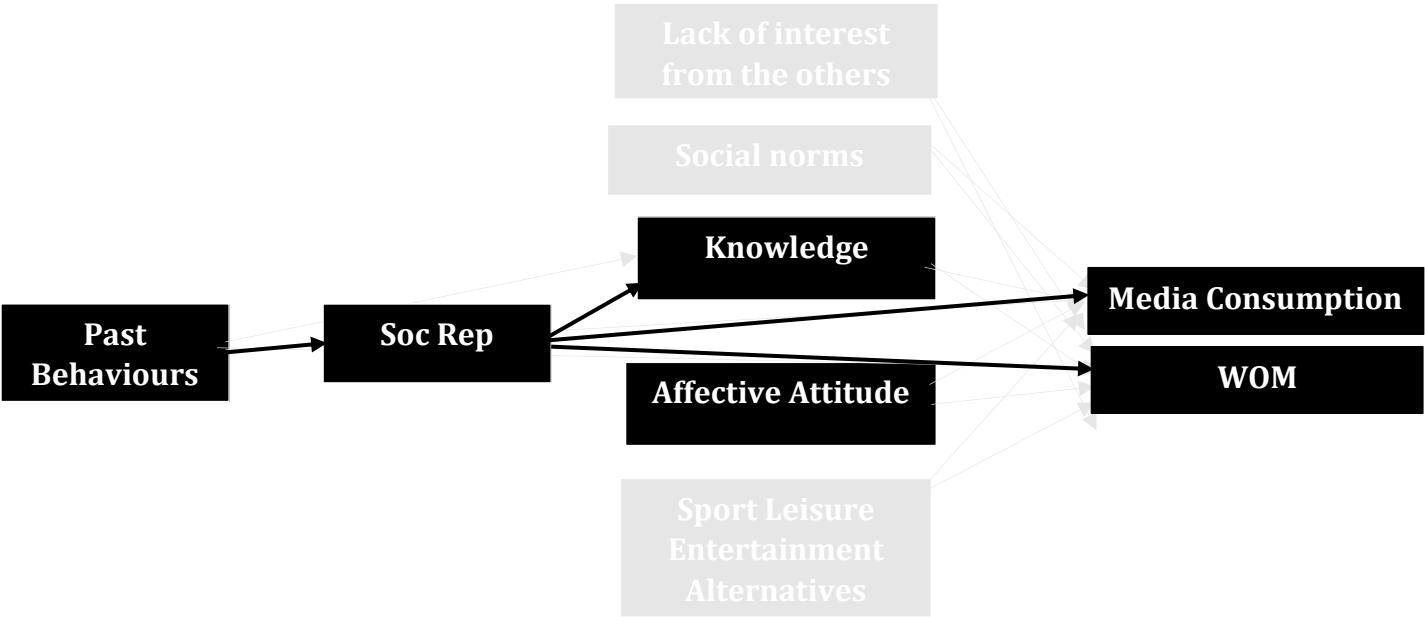
Figure 62 Newest version of our model

From the above, further hypotheses can be advanced:

H14	Past behaviour positively influences social representations
H15	Social representations positively influence knowledge
H16	Social representations positively influence media consumption
H17	Social representations positively influence word-of-mouth

3.4 Extension with Media Influences

The first exploratory studies enabled us to further realise the importance of media in shaping representations, attitudes and behaviours regarding Paralympic sport, as an overwhelming majority of our respondents referred to media as the main channel through which they experience Paralympic sport. According to Zucker (1978), this makes Paralympic sport an unobtrusive issue. As such, the media influence in shaping representations, attitudes and behaviours towards Paralympic sport would be more pronounced than in the case of obtrusive issues.

Considering that agenda setting effectivity is influenced by exposure frequency and attention (Drew and Weaver, 1990; Camaj and Weaver, 2013; Feezell, 2018), and that cultivation was also operationalised in terms of exposure (Shrum, 2017) and the level of reality (Potter, 1988)—that is, trust—and from our theoretical developments on social influence (Mugny & Perez, 1991; Maggi, 2000), media as a source of attitudes (Oskampf and Schultz, 2005), and of social representations (Wagner et al., 2002; Wagner, 2020), we retained two key levels determining how the media influence on representations, attitudes and behaviour could operate: 1) the media content that Meyer and Hungenberg (2020), and Kim and Trail (2010, 2011) have conceptualised as motives for sport consumption, and named media/p ublicity— which name we decided to use for the phrasing of our hypotheses—and 2) the exposure, attention, and trust given to the media content. We conceptualised the media influence on representations, attitudes and behaviours into these two paradigms, which we will later operationalise into a measurement scale. The figure 63 presents the newest version of our model
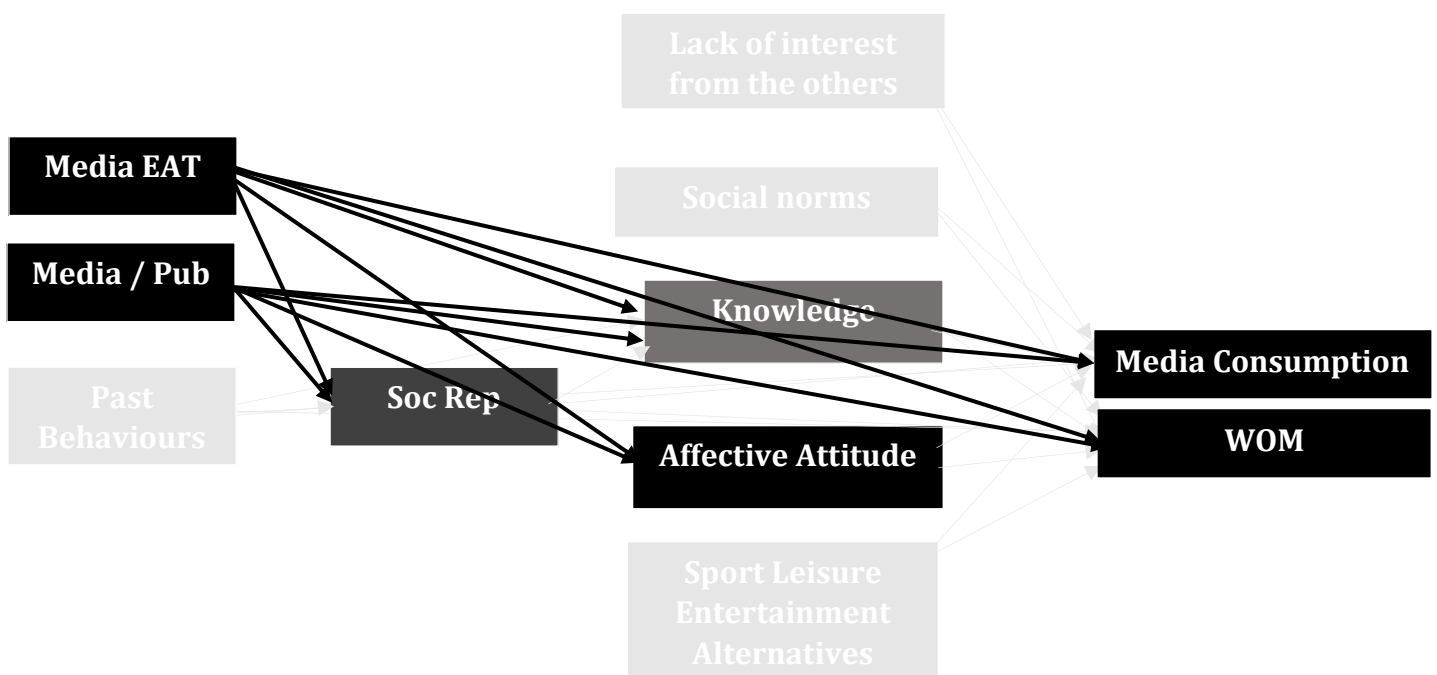
Figure 63 Newest version of our model

From here we could draw further hypotheses.

H18	Media/publicity positively influences social representation
H19	Media/publicity positively influences knowledge
H20	Media/publicity positively influences the affective dimension of attitudes
H21	Media/publicity positively influences media consumption
H22	Media/publicity positively influences word-of-mouth
H23	Media exposure, attention and trust positively influences social representation
H24	Media exposure, attention and trust positively influences knowledge
H25	Media exposure, attention and trust influences the affective dimension of attitudes

H26	Media exposure, attention and trust positively influences media consumption
H27	Media exposure, attention and trust positively influences word-of-mouth

3.5 Extension with Points of Attachment

As we demonstrated in an earlier section (see chapter III), three points of attachment seemed appropriated to our Paralympic sport context, namely (1) attachment to the community (Robinson & Trail, 2005; Cottingham et al., 2012); (2) attachment to the level (Robinson & Trail, 2005) and (3) national identity/pride (Kim et al, 2008).

These attachments were all theorised as motives (reason for actions) positively influencing sport consumption behaviour. Greer, Bandura (1977), Fish (2002) and Singer-Dudek and Gautreaux (2006), have shown the role of observational learning in the formation of attitudes (see chapter II). This observational learning is connected to identity, as individuals better copy or imitate people with whom they identify (or would like to identify). From this we could postulate that points of attachments — which are in fact different levels of identification in connection with Paralympic sport — might well positively influence attitudes towards Paralympic sport.

These points of attachment — that is, identities — can be connected to social representation. Our first exploratory study demonstrated that representations of Paralympic sport did somewhat vary according to rough identifications like religion, country, level of sporting practice, relationship to disability, and gender, though these were more moderators than predictors. This finding was also made in earlier studies. For example, the studies of social representations of sport carried out by Bert (2016), Lacassagne, Bouchet, Weiss and Jebrane (2004) and Lacassagne, Pizzio and Jebrane (2006) found representations of sport to be different according to the group, as respondents were grouped according to their relationship to sport practice or their country. Beyond this moderating role of these rough identifications (according to the sport practice or the country) played in social representation, we think identities could predict the social representation of Paralympic sport — that is, organise the inter-individual differences regarding the social representation — in coherence with the identity-preserving and affirming function of the social representation. This would be

consistent with the works of (Jodelet, 1989; Abric, 1994, 2003,2011; Moliner, 2001; Doise & Palmonari, 2002;Cohen-Scali & Moliner, 2008), the identity- preserving function (Moliner, 1993, 2008) or identity-preserving and -affirming (Moliner & Deschamp, 2012) function of the social representation.

This connection between social representations and identities has been well established, the former theorised as aiming to preserve the latter (e.g., Jodelet, 1989; Moliner, 1993, 2001, 2012; Abric, 1994, 2003,2011; Duveen, 1997, 200; Doise & Palmonari, 2002; Cohen-Scali & Moliner, 2008). As points of attachment are obviously identities, we can also postulate that they all positively predict social representations. The figure 64 presents the newest version of our model
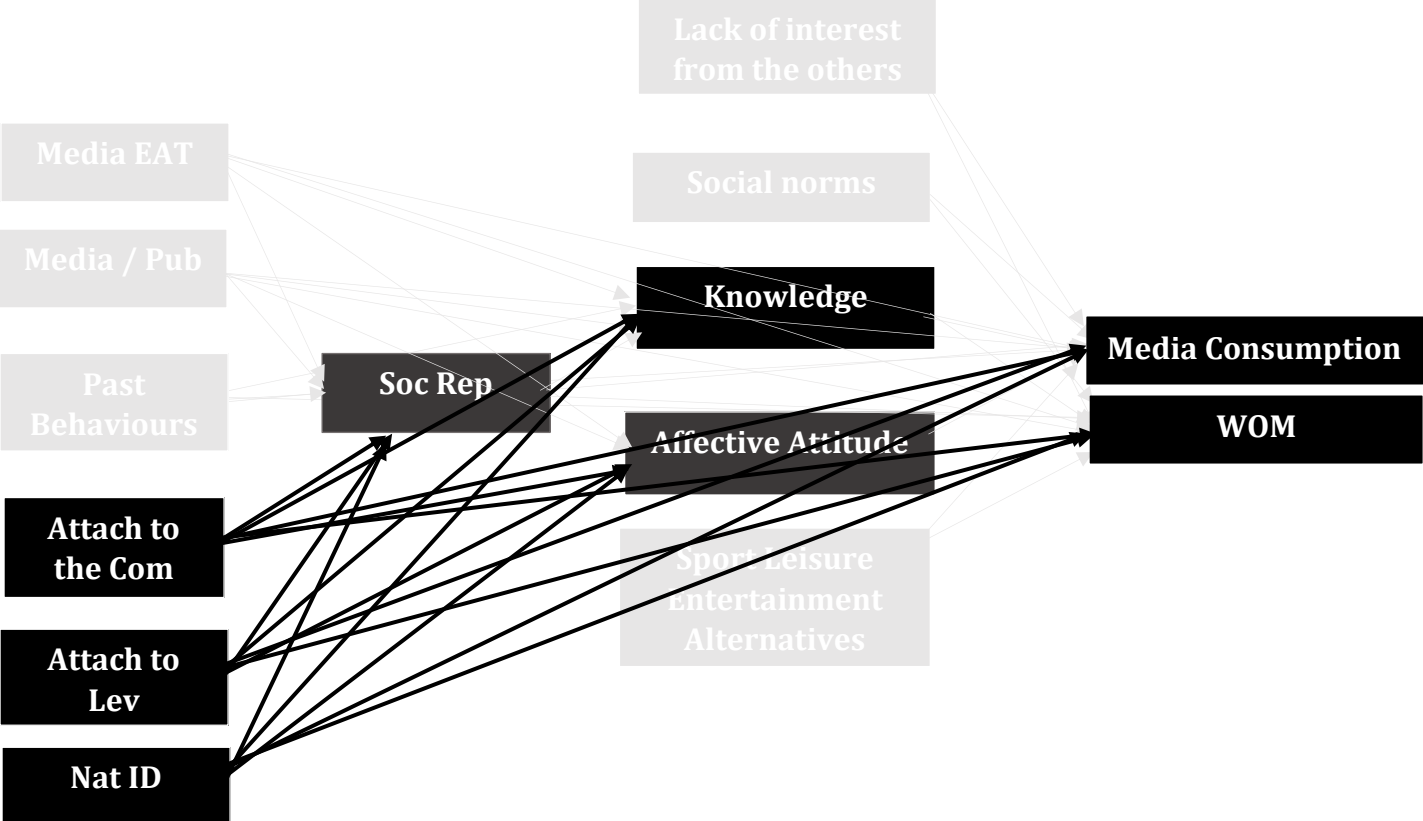
Figure 64 Newest version of our model

From the above, the further hypotheses below can be formulated:

H28	Attachment to the community positively influences social representations
H29	Attachment to the community positively influences knowledge
H30	Attachment to the community positively influences the affective dimension of attitudes
H31	Attachment to the community positively influences media consumption
H32	Attachment to the community positively influences word-of-mouth
H33	Attachment to the level positively influences social representations
H34	Attachment to the level positively influences knowledge
H35	Attachment to the level positively influences the affective dimension of attitudes
H36	Attachment to the level positively influences media consumption
H37	Attachment to the level positively influences word-of-mouth
H38	National identification/pride positively influences social representations
H39	National identification/pride positively influences knowledge
H40	National identification/pride positively influences the affective dimension of attitudes
H41	National identification/pride positively influences media consumption
H42	National identification/pride positively influences word-of-mouth

3.6 Specific Hypotheses on Social Representations

The second exploratory study enabled us to formulate some hypotheses on the centrality of the dimensions of social representations (see chapter VI). They can be compiled into the table below:

H43	The dimensions "practices and sporting disciplines'' and "types of practitioners" are the most important of the social representations of Paralympic sport in Cameroon.
H44	The dimensions "practices and sporting disciplines'' and "tools" are the most important of the social representations of Paralympic sport in Germany.
H45	The dimension "supercrip'' is the most important of the social representations of Paralympic sport in France.

3.7 Hypotheses of Mediation

From the main hypotheses above, we can infer some hypotheses of mediation. For practical purposes, we decided to consider only mediations with single constructs, that is, instances in which the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable passed through one single construct at a time, unlike other instances in which many constructs might mediate relationships already mediated by other constructs (a sort of multiple compound mediation). Table below presents these hypotheses of mediation

H46	H1+H12	Knowledge mediates the relation between past behaviour and media consumption
H47	H2+H12	Knowledge mediates the relation between past behaviour and WOM

H48	H1+H14	Knowledge mediates the relation between social representations and media consumption
H49	H2+H14	Knowledge mediates the relation between social representations and WOM
H50	H13+H14	Social representations mediate the relation between past behaviour and knowledge
H51	H13+H15	Social representation mediate the relation between past behaviour and media consumption
H52	H13+H16	Social representations mediate the relation between past behaviour and WOM
H53	H14+H17	Social representation mediate the relation between media/pub and knowledge
H54	H15+H17	Social representations mediate the relation between media/pub and media consumption
H55	H16+H17	Social representations mediate the relation between media/pub and WOM
H56	H1+H18	Knowledge mediates the relationship between media/pub and media consumption
H57	H2+H18	Knowledge mediates the relationship between media/pub and WOM
H58	H3+H19	Affective attitude mediates the relationship between media/pub and media consumption

H59	H4+H19	Affective attitude mediates the relationship between media/pub and WOM
H60	H14+H22	Social r epresentations mediate the relationship between m edia exposure, attention, trust and knowledge
H61	H15+H22	Social r epresentations mediate the relationship between m edia exposure, attention and trust (MEAT), and media consumption
H62	H16+H22	Social r epresentations mediate the relationship between m edia exposure, attention and trust (MEAT) and WOM
H63	H1+H23	Knowledge mediates the relationship between m edia e xposure, attention and trust (MEAT) and media consumption
H64	H2+ H23	Knowledge mediates the relationship between m edia e xposure, attention and trust (MEAT) and WOM
H65	H3+H24	Affective attitude mediates the relationship between media exposure, attention and trust (MEAT) and media consumption
H66	H4+H24	Affective attitude mediates the relationship between media Exposure, Attention and Trust (MEAT) and WOM
H67	H14+H27	Social Representation mediates the relation between Attachment to the Community and Knowledge
H68	H15+H27	Social Representation mediates the relation between Attachment to the Community and Media Consumption
H69	H16+H27	Social Representation mediates the relation between Attachment to the Community and WOM

H70	H1+H28	Knowledge mediates the relationship between Attachment to the Community and media consumption
H71	H2+H28	Knowledge mediates the relationship between Attachment to the Community and WOM
H72	H3+H29	Affective attitude mediates the relationship between Attachment to the Community and media consumption
H73	H4+H29	Affective attitude mediates the relationship between Attachment to the Community and WOM
H74	H14+H37	Social Representation mediates the relation between National Identity and Knowledge
H75	H15+H37	Social Representation mediates the relation between National Identity and Media Consumption
H76	H16+H37	Social Representation mediates the relation between National Identity and WOM
H77	H1+H38	Knowledge mediates the relationship between National Identity and media consumption
H78	H2+H38	Knowledge mediates the relationship between National Identity and WOM
H79	H3+H39	Affective attitude mediates the relationship between National Identity and media consumption
H80	H4+H39	Affective attitude mediates the relationship between National Identity and WOM

H81	H14+H32	Social Representation mediates the relationship between Attachment to the Level and Trust and Knowledge
H82	H15+H32	Social Representation mediates the relationship between Attachment to the Level and Media Consumption
H83	H16+H32	Social Representation mediates the relationship between Attachment to the Level and WOM
H84	H1+H33	Knowledge mediates the relationship between Attachment to the Level and Media Consumption
H85	H2+ H33	Knowledge mediates the relationship between Attachment to the Level and WOM
H86	H3+H34	Affective attitude mediates the relationship between Attachment to the Level and Media Consumption
H87	H4+H34	Affective attitude mediates the relationship Attachment to the Level and WOM

3.8 Moderating Variables

Several authors have demonstrated the moderating role of the main socio-demographic variables in the prediction of sport consumption behaviour . Among these variables are gender (Fink, Trail and Anderson, 2002; Lera-López and Rapún-Gárate, 2007; Kim, Magnusen, Kim and Lee, 2019), country (Schantz & Gilbert, 2001), age (Zhang et al., 2003), education level (Lera-López and Rapún-Gárate, 2007), and sport level (Kim, Magnusen, Kim and Lee, 2019). To these we can add the variables "proximity to disability" and "proximity to sporting venues", as they were demonstrated along with those above to contribute to contexts in which representations of Paralympic sport were formed.

The socio-demographic variable of "country" was conceptualised to capture a certain cultural- or value-related dimension that would have been very costly (in terms of length of the final questionnaire) if included in the overall model as an independent variable, and whose influence on attitudes and behaviour has been demonstrated at a country level (cultural orientations) (Schwartz,1994, 2006b, 2006c). As "age" corresponds to different realities in Cameroon than in the other two countries (for example, the average age at which people have their first child is around 30 in France and Germany, and much lower in Cameroon), we decided not to assess the moderating power of age on our structural model.

We also decided not to assess the moderating power of the categorical variable "education level", as we were not interested in drawing any elitist pictures of Paralympic sport consumer's profiles. At the end, we deemed six potentially moderating categorical variables worthy of our interest, namely (1) country, (2) gender, (3) proximity to disability, (4) level of sporting practice, (5) proximity to venues, and (6) sport follower status — that is, whether the respondent usually followed sport competitions or not.

4. Operationalisation of Variables

All our variables were operationalised with seven-point Likert scales or indexes, generated from the existing literature, or which built upon insights from the existing literature for the purpose of this work. Likert-type constructs have been used in the scientific literature for operationalising concepts (see Tanoh, 2021; Corbel, 2021). The main advantage of having uneven point measures is that they offer the possibility for neutral evaluation (Gavard Perret et al., 2012, 2018). The seven-point measure is the most used in marketing research, as it offers evaluation possibilities that are more in line with what people know (Gavard Perret et al., 2012, 2018), namely 1) Disagree Strongly, 2) Disagree, 3) Slightly Disagree, 4) Neutral, 5) Slightly Agree, 6) Agree, and 6) Agree Strongly.

4.1 Attachment to the Community

For measuring the first-order construct "attachment to the community", we chose not to use Cottingham et al.'s (2012) construct of "Attachment to the Disability Community" (see chapter III) because its scope was limited to only disability sport fans. Instead, we decided to adapt Trail's (2012) construct of "Identification to the Community" to the disability community, as it seemed applicable to Paralympic sport fans as well as to those who were not even aware of the existence of Paralympic sport.

In a sport consumption context, this construct demonstrated in many instances Cronbach above 0.82 and AVE Above 0.62 (e.g., Trail, 2012)

Kindly rate to what extent you do agree (or not) with the statements itemised below.

	Statement	Strongly disagree (1).... Strongly agree (7)
1	I feel connected to numerous aspects of the disability community	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
2	I feel a part of the disability community	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
3	I support the disability community as a whole	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

4.2 Attachment to the Level

For measuring "Attachment to the Level", we chose to used Trail's (2012) operationalisation of the construct, which has demonstrated in several instances Cronbach above 0.78 and AVE above 0.56 (e.g.,. Trail, 2012).

Kindly rate to what extent you agree (or not) with the statements itemised below.

	Statement	Strongly disagree (1).... Strongly agree (7)
1	I am fan of high-performance sport regardless of who or what team is playing/performing.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
2	I am not just fan of one specific high-performance sport, but of high-performance sport in general.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
3	I consider myself to be a fan of high-performance sport in general and not just one specific team or athlete.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

4.3 National Identification/Pride

For measuring "National Identification"—or more precisely, the extent to which Paralympic sport is associated with national pride/identification (Kim et al., 2008)—we chose to use an adaptation of Funk et al.'s (2002) operationalisation of the construct. This operationalisation has demonstrated a Cronbach above 70 and an AVE of 0.45 (Funk et al., 2002, Kim et al., 2008).

Kindly rate to what extent you agree (or not) with the statements itemised below.

	Statement	strongly disagree (1).... strongly agree (7)
1	Watching or following Paralympic sport in media could be a way to support my country.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
2	A victory from an athlete of a team from my country in a Paralympic sport would make me feel proud to be a citizen.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
3	Patriotism could be a good reason for watching or following Paralympic sport in media when	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

	a team or an athlete from my country is performing.	

4.4 Media Exposure, Trust, and Attention

We found in the literature no scale for measuring (as continuous variable) the "Media Exposure, Trust and Attention" that according to the theoretical developments of the Agenda Setting Theory (McCombs and Shaw, 1976) and the Cultivation Theory (Gerbner, 1980) (e.g., Weawer et al., 2013, Gao et al., 2012) are the three levels determining the media influence on audiences' picture of the world. The scale we found offered categorical measures (e.g., Hoe et al., 2009; Nagler, 2017).

This is why we quickly designed the reflexive scale below, capturing the three enablers of media influence on audiences' representation of the world, and whose psychometrical features will be explored when assessing our whole measurement model.

Kindly rate to what extent you agree (or not) with the statements itemised below.

	Statement	Strongly disagree (1).... Strongly agree(7)
1	Usually, I listen and pay attention to the news and other live or broadcast programs through media every day.	1......2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
2	Usually, I trust and give credit to what media say.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
3	I use media to get information about things that are important to me.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

Media/publicity

For measuring the construct "media and publicity", we adapted a syncretisation of Meyer and Hungenberg's (2020) subscale addressing this construct, which demonstrated a Cronbach of 0.75 and an AVE of 0.52, and Kim and Trail's (2010, 2011) one that demonstrated a Cronbach of 0.84 and an AVE of 0.54 (Kim & Trail, 2010).

Kindly rate to what extent you agree (or not) with the statements itemised below.

	Statement	Strongly disagree (1).... Strongly agree (7)
1	There are commercials, advertisements, fliers, and	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

	posters for promoting Paralympic sport events.	
2	Paralympic sport is present and promoted on social media.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
3	There is a media (TV , radio, Internet , etc.) publicity about Paralympic sport	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

4.5 Media Consumption

With regard to consumption, we adapted the Sport Consumption Behaviour Intention Scale (SCB) that has been used in several sport marketing research studies (Karastamatis, 2009; Kim, Trail, & Ko, 2011 and Kiremitci, Demiray, Aycan, & Gençer, 2014), and the reliability and validity of which has been proven in many countries in a Paralympic sport media consumption context. In the instance of American football, the subscale media consumption loaded a Cronbach of 0.96 and an AVE or 0.87 (kim Trail & Ko, 2011). The adapted version of the Sport Consumption Behaviour Intention Scale (SCB) we used is as follows:

Kindly indicate to what extent you agree (or   not) with the statement here below:

Items	Statements	Strongly disagree (1).... Strongly agree (7)
1	During the Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, I followed news on Paralympic sport through media (TV, radio, Internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
2	During the Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, I watched or listened to disability sport competitions through media (TV, radio, Internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
3	During the Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, I supported disability sport by watching or listening to disability sport competitions through media (TV, radio, Internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

4.6 Past Behaviours

To measure future behaviours, we retake the scale we used for measuring intentional media consumption and adjusted the conjugation form. The scale obtained from this conjugation adjustment was the following:

Kindly indicate to what extent you agree (or not) with the statement below:

Items	Statements	Strongly disagree (1).... Strongly agree (7)
1	B efore the Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, I followed news on Paralympic sport through media (TV, radio, Internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
2	B efore the Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, I watched or listened to disability sport competitions through media (TV, radio, Internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
3	B efore the Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, I supported disability sport by watching or listening to disability sport competitions through media (TV, radio, Internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

Word-of-mouth

With regard to "Word-Of-Mouth", several authors like Maxham III (2001), Swanson & Kelley (2001), Brown, Barry, Dacin & Gunst (2005), Cheng, Lam & Hsu (2006), Foubert, and Gremler (2011), Wien &Olsen (2012), Mikalef, Giannakos & Pateli (2013) and Brüggen, have studied this construct. Of the measurements proposed by the scholars mentioned above, the word-of-mouth (positive scale) developed by Brüggen, Foubert, and Gremler (2011) seemed to be general enough to be applied to our attitude object. Furthermore, though it has not been tested in many countries yet, its reliability (Cronbach alpha = 0.87) is quite well established and most of its items overlap with the ones proposed by other scales. Given that we are addressing Paralympic sport media consumption, we deemed it useful to syncretize the insights of Brüggen, Foubert, and Gremler's (2011) word-of-mouth scale to those of Conna Yang's (2010) electronic word-of-mouth scale.

Though the original version was built on a 5-point Likert basis, we adjusted the rating to a 7-point Likert basis to facilitate the statistical analyses. Thus, the scale we will use for measuring positive word-of-mouth intention is as follows:

Items	Statements	Strongly disagree (1).... Strongly agree(7)
1	During and after the Paralympics, I said positive things about disability sport to other people (orally or through Internet).	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
2	During and after the Paralympics, I recommended disability sport to a friend or colleague (orally or through Internet).	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
3	During and after the Paralympics, I encouraged friends and relatives to watch, listen or follow (on TV, radio, or Internet) or disability sport competitions, games or events (orally or through Internet).	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

For parsimonious reasons, we have chosen to only measure the positive word-of-mouth intention. This is why other sub-dimensions of the original scale were ignored.

4.7 Subjective Norms

The construct of subjective norms has been distinguished in the literature into two components: social norms (Rivis & S heeran, 2003; Ham, Jeger & Ivkovic, 2015) and descriptive norms (Ajzen, 2001, p:5; Rivis & Sheeran, 2003; Cunningham & Kwon, 2003; Ham, Jeger & Ivkovic, 2015).

4.8 Lack of Interest from Others

As explained earlier, we substituted the first-order construct "Lack Of Interest From Others" used by Kim & Trail (2010, 2011) with the subscale "Descriptive Norms". This construct has demonstrated a satisfying Cronbach (0.69) (Kim & Trail 2010). It has also been used reversely by Mayer and Hungenberg (2020), and demonstrated a Cronbach of 0.71. Its operationalisation is displayed below:

Kindly rate to what extent you agree (or not) with the statements itemised below.

Items	Statements	Strongly disagree (1).... Strongly agree(7)
1	My family is not or would not be interested in watching or following high- performance disability sport/Paralympic sport through media (TV, I nternet, social media, etc.)	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
2	My spouse/best friend is not or would not be interested in watching or following high- performance disability sport / Paralympic sport through media (TV, Internet, social media, etc.)	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
3	My friends are not or would not be interested in watching or following high- performance disability sport/Paralympic sport through media (TV, I nternet, social media, etc.)	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

4.9 Social Norms

As for the other subscale (social norms), several subscales have been developed and validated by the authors mentioned above for measuring subjective norms. It seemed a good option to us to use the syncretized items of the subscales for measuring social norms developed by Cunningham & Kwon (2003) in a sport event context and Ham, Jeger & Ivkovic (2015) in a green food context, and apply them to our attitude object for the "social norm" first-order construct of our model, as both subscales from Cunningham & Kwon (2003) and Ham, Jeger & Ivkovic's (2015) operationalisation of social norms were very reliable (Cronbach alphas above 0.78) and as many items from both scales were seemingly applicable to our attitude object. The scale obtained from the procedure described above looks as follow:

Kindly rate to what extent you agree (or not) with the statements itemised below.

Items	Statements	Strongly disagree (1).... Strongly agree(7)
1	My family would approve of my watching, following or attending	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

	disability sport competitions or events.	
2	People close to me would approve of my watching, following or attending disability sport competitions or events.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
3	Society would approve of my watching, following or attending disability sport competitions or events.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

4.10 Sport Entertainment Alternatives

The operationalisation of the construct "sport entertainment alternatives" was made by syncretising and adapting Trail et al. (2008) and Kim et al.'s (2010, 2011) operationalisations of this construct, which respectively demonstrated Cronbachs above 0.79 and 0.65. Kim et al's (2010) operationalisation of this construct also demonstrated an AVE of 0.54.

Let us assume some Paralympic sport content is scheduled on some media (TV, Internet, social network, etc.). How impactful will the different situations itemised below be on your availability to watch or follow the Paralympic sport content?

Items	Situations	No impact at all (1)…. A large negative impact (7)
1	The broadcasting of other sport (sport for people without disability) on media in the same time slot.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
2	The possibility for you to attend a local non-professional sport event/competition (sport for people without disability) in your area.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7
3	The possibility for you to attend a professional sport event/competition (sport for people without disability) in your area.	1.....2.......3.......4.......5......6......7

4.11 Attitude

4.11.1. Cognitive Dimension: "Knowledge"

The construct "knowledge" was reversely constructed from the constraint "lack of knowledge" (Kim et Trail, 2010,2011), theorised as a constraint on sport consumption. This conceptualisation of knowledge was operationalised by Meyer and Hungenberg (2020), into the scale below, whose Cronbach was loaded at 0.91 and AVE 0.49:

Kindly rate to what extent you agree (or not) with the statements itemised below.

Items	Statements	Strongly disagree (1).... Strongly agree(7)
4	I understand the technical aspects of most Paralympic sports	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
5	I understand the rules of most Paralympic sports	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
6	I understand the game (or competition) strategy of most Paralympic sports.	1...2...3...4...5...6...7

4.11.2. Affective Dimension of Attitude

The affective dimension of attitude towards Paralympic sport was measured with a semantic differential scale (Crites et al., 1994), adapted from the one used by Gagger et al. (2001), and Cunningham and Kwon (2003) to measure people's attitudes towards women's basketball, and whose Cronbach's Alpha was estimate to 0.94.

This scale looks as follows: kindly indicate your affectivity about watching Paralympic sport.

	For me, watching or following Paralympic Sport through media is (or would be):
1	Unpleasant 1...........2.............3............4.............5............6...........7 Pleasant
2	Boring 1...........2.............3............4.............5............6...........7 Exciting
3	Dull 1...........2...........3............4............5...........6...........7 Entertaining

4.12 Socio-Demographics

As developed in the chapter III, we retained 6 socio demographics for our qualitative survey, namely: (1) country, (2) gender, (3) proximity to disability, (4) level of sporting practice, (5) proximity to venues, and (6) sport follower status—that is, whether the respondent usually followed sport competitions or not.

As for the country, if its self-evident that we sorted our respondent according to whether they were Cameroonian, French and German.

As for the gender, we decided to consider only the two traditional gender especially male or female. Our respondents were asked to check the case corresponding to their gender.

With regard to proximity to disability, proximity to venues and sport follower status, respondents were asked to reply to the questions related to these variables by checking either the case yes or the case no.

Endly Concerning the sporting level, respondents were asked how frequently they practice sport. People practicing sport less than once every two weeks were considered non-practitioners, and those practicing sport at least once every two weeks were considered practitioners.

Appendix 52 presents the questionnaire that we administered to our respondents in French (in France), in German (in Germany) and in French and/ or English in Cameroon.

CHAPTER VIII: CONFIRMATORY STUDY

This chapter reports the confirmatory study's procedures and results. Its structure is according to the table of contents below:

1.Sampling and Data Collection and Screening

From September 13th 2021 to February 21st 2022, the confirmatory questionnaire described earlier (see chapter VII) was submitted to 1000 Cameroonian, 490 French and 290 German.

In France and Germany, the questionnaires were administered online through google form, with parameters making all the answers mandatory, apart from some socially-apprehended socio-demographics like household's income, marital status, level of education, and job.

Due to the relatively expensive cost of internet access in Cameroon, we printed over 1500 copies of our confirmatory questionnaire, and hired and trained a team of 20 students from the university of Yaoundé 1 and 12 from the National Institute of Youth and Sport of Yaoundé (NIYS) to go around the country to submit our questionnaire to by-passers.

Due to corona - related restrictions that limited contacts, we were compelled to do with a "sample of convenience", that is the few free-willing respondents we could find on through our personal and professional networks (in France and Germany), and on the streets in Cameroon.

Out of the 490 responses we received from our French respondents, 16 were filled with very regular patterns of answers to our questions, which let us assume beyond reasonable doubt that the respondent who provided these responses did not seriously fill in our questionnaire. We therefore removed these 16 responses before analysing our data.

As for the 290 responses we received from our German respondents, we identified 17 whose answer's pattern was suspicious and fed the thesis of an unserious filling-in of our questionnaire. We therefore deleted these 17 responses before carrying out our data analysis.

With regards to the 1000 responses we received from our Cameroonian responders, 109 were either unthoroughly filled in , or filled in with very similar and repetitive patterns that let us suspect a lack of seriousness from the responders that provided these responses. We therefore deleted these 109 responses before carrying out our data analysis.

At the end of the day, our sample(s) was composed of 273 German, 474 French, and 891 Cameroonian. The table 34 below shows the main socio demographics of our sample(s).

	Germany	France	Cameroon
women vs men	189 vs 84	257 vs 217	403 vs 488
Sport practice (yes vs no)	201 vs 72	393 vs 81	474 vs 417
Relative with disability (yes vs no)	128 vs 145	168 vs 306	415 vs 476
Sport viewer or spectator (yes vs no)	145 vs 128	344 vs 130	703 s 187
Leaving close to a sport facility (yes vs no)	208 vs 65	374 vs 100	478vs 413
rural vs urban	116 vs 157	155 vs 319	167 vs 724
Pre- university vs university level	140 vs 128 (5 blanks)	44 vs 420 (10 blanks)	64 vs 745 (82 blanks)
Total	273	474	891

Table 34 Main socio demographics of our sample (s)

2.Analyses

Following the construction of our analysis model, we conducted three analyses: (1) the evaluation of the measurement model, (2) the evaluation of the structural model, and (3) the analysis of moderations through the assessment of heterogeneity.

These analyses were carried out with the structural equations method (SEM) (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988). The SEM measures relationships between exogenous and endogenous variables, which helps in assessing measurement and structural models. We chose to use the SEM with the "*partial least square*" approach (PLS) (Wold, 1985), which models data through a succession of simple and multiple regressions, because according to Hair et al. (2019) it is more conducive for research which has one of the features below;

- Models combining formative and reflective constructs

- Complex models comprising a high number of constructs, indicators and/ or relationships.

- Studies with small samples

- Analyses aiming to test a theoretical framework from a predictive perspective

- Data with a problematic distribution, for example data not following the normal law

- Research based on controversial data

- Exploratory research for developing theories

The Partial Least-Squares Structural Equation Model (PLS-SEM) approach has been used in marketing research (e.g., Gudergan et al., 2008 ; Hair et al., 2012b).

2.1 The Measurement Model Assessment

The evaluation of the measurement was performed through the Confirmatory Composite Analysis (CCA); (Henseler et al., 2014 ; Schuberth et al., 2018 ; Hair, Black, et al. 2019 ; Hair, Page, et Brunsveld, 2020 ; Hair, Howarda et Nitzl, 2020). The CCA is " *a series of steps executed with PLS-SEM to confirm both reflective and formative measurement models of established measures that are being updated or adapted to a different context*" (Hair et al., 2020).

The evaluation of the measurement model—also referred to as the "outer model" (Hair, 2019)—depends on whether the latter is formative or reflective. This assessment has been increasingly referred to in the literature as the CCA, when the PLS-SEM is used

(e.g., Henseler et l., 2014; Schuberth et al, 2018; Tanoh, 2021). We provided an extensive description of the differences between formative and reflective constructs in an earlier section (see title 5 of the chapter VI). Hair et al. (2020) provided a rich account of the assessment of reflective and formative measurement models.

2.1.3 Verification of the formativety of the social representation

Before engaging into all the operations described above, we found advisable to use the Confirmatory Tetrard Analysis (CTA) (Gudergan et al.,2008; Hair et al., 2018) to very that the social representation is indeed formative as suggested by the selection of its items.

2.1.2 Assessment of Reflective Measurement Models.

Building on insights from Hair et al. (2011), Hair et al. (2012), Henseler et al. (2016), Hair et al (2017), Hair (2019) and Hair et al. (2019), Hair et al. (2020) defined seven steps in the CCA for assessing reflective measurement models: 1) the estimate of loadings and their significance; 2) the assessment of indicators' reliability; 3) the assessment of constructs' composite reliability; 4) the assessment of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE); 5) the assessment of the discriminant validity; 6) the assessment of nomological validity; and finally 7) the assessment of predictive validity.

The table 35 below presents the main features and thresholds recommended by mainstream authors for each of these steps.

Evaluation criteria for reflective measurement models	
Steps	**Features and thresholds**
(1) Estimate of indicators' loadings and their significance	$0.708<$loadings with $1.96<$ t-statistics and p value <0.05 (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2020) Two-tailed bootstrapping (Hair et al., 2012)
(2) Indicator reliability	Self-evident when the latter step has been thoroughly carried out. Can be overlooked as Lorgnier et al (2021) did.
(3) Composite reliability	Captures the construct's internal consistency Cronbach' alpha (α), Composite reliability (CR) $0.70< \alpha$ & and CR < 0.95

	(Hair et al., 2019 ; Hair et al., 2020)
(4) Average variance extracted	Captures convergent validity, that is, the variance shared between the construct and its indicators. 0.50< AVE (Hair, 2019)
(5) Discriminant validity	Captures construct's distinctiveness heterotrait–monotrait (HTMT) ratio HTMT < 0.85 (Hair et al., 2019)
(6) Nomological validity	Cap tures correlations between the reflective constructs and their network, that is, constructs theoretically related to them (Hair et al., 2020). The correlation should reach the theoretically anticipated level ((Malhotra and Birks 2007; Alvarado-Herrera et al.,2017).
(7) Predictive validity	Captures compositional invariance, which can be assessed through the Measurement Invariance of Composites (MICOM) (Hair et al. 2020; Henseler et al. 2016).

Table 35 Main features and thresholds recommended by mainstream authors

2.1.3 Assessment of Formative Measurement Models

Building on insights from Henseler et al. (2016), Hair et al. (2017), Hair (2019) and Hair et al. (2019), Hair et al. (2020) suggested a five-stage procedure for assessing formative measurement models : 1) the measurement of convergent validity; 2) the assessment of indicator multicollinearity; 3) the assessment of indicator weight size and significance; 4) the assessment of indicators' contribution to the formative construct, and 5) the assessment of constructs' predictive validity.

The features and recommended thresholds for each of these steps are summarised in table 36 below:

Evaluation criteria for formative measurement models	
Steps	**Formative model**
(1) Convergent validity	Captures the extent to which the formative construct correlates with a reflective one assessing the same measure with different indicators. 0.7< convergent validity (Hair et al. 2017)

(2) Multicollinearity	Captures the extent to which the formative construct's indicators correlate with one another. Assessed through the variance inflation factor (VIF), ideally VIF <3 but VIF <5 is acceptable (Hair et al., 2019, Hair et al., 2020 b)
(3) Indicators' weight size and significance	Captures how much indicators contribute to the formative construct's score. Weights should be significant (p<0.05)(Hair et al. 2017, Sarstedt et al., 2019). For small samples, a threshold of 0.10 has also often been used (Hair et al., 2020)
(4) Indicators' contribution to the formative construct	Captures the absolute contribution of indicators (considered separately), that is, the volume of information contributed by each indicator in forming the construct, when no other indicator is considered in the calculation. Assessed through outer loading and recommended to be above 0.5 and significant (p<0.05) (Hair et al., 2020)
(5) Predictive validity	The same as with the reflective measurement model described earlier.

Table 36 Features and recommended thresholds

2.2 Evaluation of The Structural Model

After the evaluation of the measurement model comes the evaluation of the assessment of the structural mode—also referred to as the "inner model" (Hair 2019). Building on the insights from Sarstedt et al. (2014), Hair et al. (2017), Hair, Hut et al (2017), Hair et al ; (2018), Hair (2019), Hair et al. (2019), Shmueli et al. (2019), and Sarstedt et al. (2019), Hair et al (2020) suggested a six-step procedure for the structural model assessment : 1) the evaluation of the structural model's collinearity; 2) the examination of paths' coefficient size and significance; 3) the in-sample analysis of the dependent variables' R^2; 4) the in-sample analysis of the f^2 effect size; 5) the in-sample analysis of the predictive relevance Q^2 ; 6) the out-of-sample prediction analysis with PLS predict.

The features and recommended thresholds for each of these steps are summarised in table 37 below:

Steps in the structural model assessment

(1) The evaluation of the structural model's collinearity	Verifies that multicollinearity is not a problem, that is, that predictors do not correlate too much with exogenous variables, which would be a problem for multiple regression analyses . Assessed through the variance inflation factor (VIF). I deally VIF <3 but VIF <5 is acceptable (Hair et al., 2019, Hair et al., 2020 b)
(2) The examination of path coefficients size and significance	Enables testing of the hypothesised relationships between independent and dependent variables either through direct effects, or through indirect effects. The closer paths are to 0, the weaker the relationship. In significant path coefficients (p greater than 0.05) are not to be considered (Hair t al., 2019).
(3) The in-sample analysis of dependent variables' R^2	R^2 = the coefficient of determination. It captures the in-sample overall predictive power (the percentage of the endogenous variables explained by exogenous variables). According to Zikmund (2000) and Moore et al. (2013), $0 < R^2 < 0.30$ means the model has weak to nil predictive power; $0.3 < R^2 < 0.7$ means the model is of a moderate predictive power, and $0.7 < R^2$ means the model is of a high predictive power.
(4) The in-sample analysis of the f^2 effect size	The effect size— also referred to as f^2— captures each predictive construct's contribution to the overall structural model's predictive power. A predictor f^2 is calculated by comparing the structural model R^2 with and without this predictor (Hair et al., 2017). According to Cohen (1988), when $< f^2 < 0.02$, the effect is null; when $0.02 < f^2 < 0.15$ the effect is small; when $0.15 < f^2 < 0.35$ the effect is moderate; and when $0.35 < f^2$ the effect is large.

(5) The in-sample analysis of the predictive relevance Q^2	Also referred as blindfolding (Stone, 1974), Q^2 is another measure of the structural model's in-sample predictive relevance. According to Hair et al. (2020), when $Q^2 < 0$, the relevance is null; when $0 < Q^2 < 0.25$, the relevance is small; when $0.25 < Q^2 < 0.50$ the relevance is moderate; and when $0.50 < Q^2$, the relevance is high.
(6) The out-of-sample prediction analysis with PLS predict	This is another measure that assesses the model's predictive accuracy. This measure is particularity recommended by Shmueli et al. (2019) and Hair et al. (2020) for assessing the structural model. This analysis combines Q^2 predictions—for which thresholds are the same as for the Q^2—and the difference (in- vs out-sample) between the amount of prediction error (MAE or RMSE). See Hair et al. (2020, p 107-108) for further details.

Table 37: Steps in the structural model assessment

Besides these mainstream procedures, we decided to carry out other analyses in order to account for the categorical variables' moderation, and determine the dimensions of the social representation that best predicted media consumption behaviour

2.2.1 Analysis of Moderation Through Observed Heterogeneity

Heterogeneity is observed when heterogenous data groups are attributed to observable features (Hair et al., 2014, 2017). We hypothesised that "gender", "proximity" to "disability", "country", "proximity to venues", "sport follower", and "sport practice" would generate heterogenous groups.

The observed heterogeneity is investigated through the Multi Group Analysis (MGA), which enables the researcher to check whether there are significant differences between estimates of group-specific parameters (Hair et al., 2017). This analysis is a way of accounting for some level model of moderation with the categorical variables. Prior to performing the MGA, the partial invariance of measure should be further explored; that is, the configurational invariance should be totally demonstrated (step 1 of the MICOM), the compositional invariance should be totally demonstrated (step 2 of the MICOM), and

the equality of mean composites or variance composites should be only partially demonstrated, if not at all (step 3 of the MICOM) (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2020; Tanoh, 2021).

2.2.2 Determination of the Social Representation's Central Nucleus

Building upon the structural perspective of social representations (Flament, 1994a, Abric, 1994 a, b, c, 2003, b), and the insights from Lo Monaco et al.'s (2008) test of independence from context for identifying the social representation's central nucleus, and considering that the formative indicators' outer- weights represent their relative contribution in forming the formative construct (Hair et al., 2020), we decided to use outer- weights (obtained with double tailed bootstrapping with 5000 subsamples as recommended by Hair et al. (2020)) to identify the items which most contributed to forming the formative construct "social representation", that is, the social representation's central nucleus.

2.2.3 Determination of the best predictors of (positive) Paralympic sport media consumption

To determine the variable that best predicted Paralympic sport media consumption, we resorted to the Importance-Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) (Höck et al.,2010; Schloderer et al., 2014; Ringle and Sarstedt, 2016; and Hair et al., 2018).

The IPMA allows us to further extend the results of the PLS-SEM analyses by taking into account the importance (total effect) of constructs and their items, and the performance (average construct or item score) (Matthews, Hair and Matthews, 2018).

We also decided for the cases in which social representation would predict (positive) Paralympic sport media consumption, to run an IPMA on constructs' indicators, as to see which item(s) of the social representation best predicts Paralympic sport media consumption.

2.3 Smart PLS Operational Settings

For computing outer loadings, outer weights, VIFs, Composite Reliabilities and Cronbach's Alphas, we used the thumbnail "Calculate", then the option " PLS Algorithm ", with the settings " Factor ", " Maximum Iterations = 300, and Stop Criterion = 7 ". The

results we got from there allowed us to have a first glimpse of the measurement models' features. However, in order to obtained more complete reports of these measurements along with their level of significance , we used the option " Bootstrapping " with the settings " 5000 Subsamples ", " Complete Bootstrapping ", " Bias-Corrected and Accelerated (BCA) Bootstrap ", " Two-Tailed ", and " Significance Level = 0.05 ".

MICOM was obtained with the option " Permutation ", with the settings " 5000 Permutations ", " Two-Tailed ", " significance Level= 0.05 " and " Do Parallel Processing ".

Path coefficients and features associated to them (e.g., T- statistics and P Values) were computed with the Bootstrapping option, following the same settings described above.

R^2 were obtained with the option " PLS-Algorithm " and the settings " Path ", " Maximum Iterations = 10000, and Stop Criterion = 7 ".

Q^2 were computed with the option " Blindfolding " and the setting " Omission Distance= 10)

Q^2 predict were calculated with the option " PLS Predict " and the options " Number of Fold= 10 " and " Number of repetitions= 10 " ; these are the software's default settings.

The Multi-group analyses (MGA) were carried out with the option " Multi-Group Analysis (MGA) " and the default settings of the software Smart PLS 3.

The Importance-Performance Map Analysis (IPMA) was carried out with the settings "Target Construct = Media Consumption" and "IPMA Results= All he Predecessors of the Selected Target Construct.

3.Results

3.1 Germany-Specific Results

3.1.1 Analysis of the measurement model

3.1.1.1 Verification of the formativity of the social representation

Unlike what the selection of social representation's items let us assume, The CTA (Gudergan et al., 2008; Hair et al., 2018) rather shown that the construct social representation is reflexive. The table 38 below presents the results of the CTA of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany.

RS	p values	Bias	CI low adj	CI up adj
1: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS13	0.712	0.001	-0.535	0.418
2: RS1,RS10,RS13,RS12	0.260	0.008	-1.052	0.470
4: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS2	0.988	0.001	-0.374	0.376
6: RS1,RS12,RS2,RS10	0.000	0.015	-2.443	-0.339
7: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS5	0.332	0.001	-0.591	0.303
10: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS7	0.974	-0.002	-0.537	0.552
13: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS8	0.248	0.001	-0.824	0.368
17: RS1,RS10,RS2,RS13	0.019	0.010	-1.692	0.199
23: RS1,RS10,RS7,RS13	0.832	0.002	-0.526	0.453
26: RS1,RS10,RS8,RS13	0.361	-0.000	-0.511	0.954
30: RS1,RS2,RS5,RS10	0.023	-0.003	-0.245	1.757
33: RS1,RS2,RS7,RS10	0.001	-0.009	0.061	1.836
42: RS1,RS5,RS8,RS10	0.003	-0.008	-0.007	1.792
73: RS1,RS12,RS7,RS8	0.600	0.001	-0.468	0.663
85: RS1,RS13,RS5,RS7	0.154	0.001	-1.020	0.366
97: RS1,RS2,RS5,RS8	0.011	-0.006	-0.151	1.882
100: RS1,RS2,RS7,RS8	0.001	-0.013	0.149	2.199
110: RS10,RS12,RS5,RS13	0.310	-0.004	-0.562	1.143
121: RS10,RS12,RS2,RS7	0.737	-0.000	-0.600	0.751
156: RS10,RS5,RS7,RS2	0.062	0.005	-1.498	0.348

Table 38 TCA of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany.

The fact that more than 80% of the CI low are of a different sign with their corresponding CI up means that the construct social representation in Germany is rather a reflexive construct (Wong, 2019).

This unexpected situation prompted us to assess the dimensionality of the social representation in Germany through an EFA, confirmed by a Principal Component Analysis (PCA). PCA are commonly used in marketing to confirm factors composing a scale (cf. Evrad, Pras, and Roux, 2009; Tanoh, 2021).

The use of the software Jamovi for our EFA and PCA allow us to identify 2 dimensions composing the construct social representation in Germany composed of only 4+2 =6 items that loaded above 0.65 , and satisfied Barlett and KMO tests. The table 39 below presents these results.

	Factor		
	1	**2**	KMO test
SR.1		0.800	0.749
SR.2		0.820	0.729
SR.5			0.853
SR.7	0.671		0.857
SR.8	0.769		0.797
SR.10	0.763		0.796
SR.12	0.720		0.813
SR.13			0.834
	Bartlett test		
χ²	**ddl**	**p**	
463	28	< .001	

Table 39 Factor loading, KMO and Bartlett test results for the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany.

From the above, we can conclude that the most important items of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany are (In random order of importance) the items RS1 : sport disciplines and practices, RS2: events and brands, RS7: modern values, RS8: Societal values, RS10: inspiration and RS12: Supercrip.

These items are reflexivelly organised into two dimensions, namely RS DIM1 composed of the items RS1 and RS2, and RS DIM2 composed of the items RS7, RS8; RS10 and RS12.

3.1.1.2 Reflective Model Assessment

a. Indicators' Loadings

Table 40 below presents the constructs' loading along with their mean values, standard deviations, t-statistics and p values.

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
Aff Attitude 1 <- Affective attitude	0.925	0.925	0.012	78.798	0.000
Aff Attitude 2 <- Affective attitude	0.919	0.918	0.015	60.777	0.000
Aff Attitude 3 <- Affective attitude	0.944	0.944	0.008	111.953	0.000
Attach com 1 <- Attach com	0.891	0.891	0.016	54.274	0.000
Attach com 2 <- Attach com	0.818	0.817	0.030	27.248	0.000
Attach com 3 <- Attach com	0.728	0.726	0.041	17.657	0.000
Attach level 1 <- Attach Level	0.928	0.928	0.012	76.789	0.000
Attach level 2 <- Attach Level	0.942	0.942	0.012	79.006	0.000
Attach level 3 <- Attach Level	0.952	0.952	0.008	126.582	0.000
Lack of Int from other 1 <- Lack from Interest from the others	0.862	0.855	0.052	16.545	0.000
Lack of Int from other 2 <- Lack from Interest from the others	0.732	0.729	0.081	9.050	0.000
Lack of Int from other 3 <- Lack from Interest from the others	0.784	0.770	0.069	11.330	0.000
Med Consump 1 <- Media Consump	0.906	0.906	0.015	61.608	0.000
Med Consump 2 <- Media Consump	0.937	0.937	0.010	89.271	0.000
Med Consump 3 <- Media Consump	0.942	0.942	0.010	92.781	0.000
Media / Pub 1 <- Media / Pub	0.847	0.848	0.021	40.463	0.000
Media / Pub 2 <- Media / Pub	0.864	0.862	0.026	33.371	0.000
Media / Pub 3 <- Media / Pub	0.832	0.830	0.029	28.572	0.000
Media EAT 1 <- Media EAT	0.869	0.855	0.069	12.530	0.000
Media EAT 2 <- Media EAT	0.577	0.556	0.143	4.033	0.000
Media EAT 3 <- Media EAT	0.724	0.709	0.112	6.437	0.000
Nat Id 1 <- Nat ID	0.889	0.889	0.016	55.544	0.000
Nat Id 2 <- Nat ID	0.883	0.882	0.020	43.406	0.000
Nat Id 3 <- Nat ID	0.684	0.680	0.064	10.668	0.000
Past behav 1 <- Past Behaviour	0.934	0.934	0.011	85.667	0.000
Past behav 2 <- Past Behaviour	0.953	0.953	0.009	102.939	0.000
Past behav 3 <- Past Behaviour	0.944	0.944	0.012	76.154	0.000
Soc Norms 1 <- Soc Norms	0.810	0.805	0.044	18.340	0.000
Soc Norms 2 <- Soc Norms	0.913	0.912	0.018	51.279	0.000
Soc Norms 3 <- Soc Norms	0.902	0.902	0.017	51.983	0.000
WOM 1 <- WOM	0.898	0.898	0.014	64.793	0.000
WOM 2 <- WOM	0.936	0.936	0.013	74.067	0.000
WOM 3 <- WOM	0.924	0.924	0.012	77.000	0.000

knowledge 1 <- knowledge	0.912	0.912	0.014	64.384	0.000
knowledge 2 <- knowledge	0.935	0.934	0.010	97.187	0.000
knowledge 3 <- knowledge	0.914	0.913	0.017	52.377	0.000
sport Ent Alt 1 <- Sport ent Alt	0.953	0.953	0.009	105.226	0.000
sport Ent Alt 2 <- Sport ent Alt	0.955	0.955	0.009	105.638	0.000
sport Ent Alt 3 <- Sport ent Alt	0.757	0.753	0.046	16.305	0.000
RS1 <- RS DIM 2	0.844	0.836	0.045	18.839	0.000
RS10 <- RS DIM1	0.785	0.783	0.028	27.568	0.000
RS12 <- RS DIM1	0.737	0.737	0.040	18.426	0.000
RS2 <- RS DIM 2	0.855	0.855	0.037	23.180	0.000
RS7 <- RS DIM1	0.734	0.733	0.034	21.302	0.000
RS8 <- RS DIM1	0.770	0.766	0.034	22.698	0.000

Table 40 Constructs' loading along with their mean values

Apart from the indicators "Media Exposure, Attention and Trust 2" and "National Identity 3", which loaded respectively 0.577 and 0.684, all the other indicators from the reflective constructs loaded above Hair et al.'s (2020) recommended threshold (0.708<loadings with 1.96< t-statistics and p value<0.05).

As the constructs "Media Exposure, Attention and Trust" and "National Identity" are only formed of three indicators, and that their loadings are tolerated in some literature (cf. Tanoh, 2021) we decided not to delete them yet, but to observe how they will behave during the upcoming assessment steps.

b. Composite Reliability and Convergent Validity

Table 41 below presents for each construct the Aphas, Rho A, CR and AVE.

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Affective attitude	0.921	0.922	0.950	0.864
Attach Level	0.935	0.938	0.958	0.885
Attach com	0.743	0.756	0.855	0.665
Lack from Interest from the others	0.713	0.751	0.836	0.631
Media / Pub	0.806	0.817	0.885	0.719
Media Consump	0.920	0.920	0.949	0.862
Media EAT	0.621	0.682	0.772	0.537
Nat ID	0.777	0.868	0.863	0.679
Past Behaviour	0.938	0.939	0.961	0.890
Soc Norms	0.849	0.869	0.908	0.768

Sport ent Alt	0.872	0.939	0.921	0.798
WOM	0.908	0.908	0.942	0.845
Knowledge	0.909	0.910	0.943	0.847
RS DIM 2	0.614	0.615	0.838	0.722
RS DIM1	0.751	0.753	0.843	0.572

Table 41 Construct the Aphas, Rho A, CR and AVE.

The constructs "Media Attention, Exposure and Trust" and "second dimension of the social representation" are below the Alpha threshold suggested by Hair et al. (2020) (0.70< α & and CR < 0.95), with respectively 0.621. Apart from these constructs, all the others satisfied Hair et al.'s (2020) requirements and Alpha threshold. All the constructs including the latter also satisfied Hair et al.'s (2020) requirements for the CR and AVE.

We decided therefore to delete the construct "Media Attention, Exposure and Trust" from our model since after failing outer loading requirements it also failed Cronbach Alpha requirements. We also decided to delete the construct "second dimension of the social representation, as it is only composed of two items and do not perform a satisfying Alpha. As for the construct "National Identity", we decided to keep it in our model (for the moment) as, although the outer loading of its third item was slightly below Hair et al.'s (2020) threshold, the whole construct however satisfied the Cronbach, Alpha, CR, and AVE requirements.

From now on, only the first dimension of the social representation (RS Dim 1) will be considered, and assimilated to the construct "social representation" (RS).

c. Discriminant Validity

Table 42 below presents the HTMT associate for each pair of constructs.

	Affective att	Attach Level	Attach com	Lack from Int	Media / Pub	Media Consu	Nat ID	Past Behavio	RS	Soc Norms	Sport ent Alt	WOM
Affective attitude												
Attach Level	0.529											
Attach com	0.482	0.254										
Lack from Int	0.272	0.105	0.312									
Media / Pub	0.308	0.299	0.304	0.122								
Media Consu	0.628	0.498	0.493	0.276	0.498							
Nat ID	0.540	0.349	0.523	0.149	0.213	0.463						
Past Behavio	0.508	0.436	0.433	0.284	0.419	0.734	0.349					
RS	0.314	0.209	0.477	0.150	0.167	0.181	0.434	0.224				
Soc Norms	0.471	0.262	0.252	0.181	0.236	0.321	0.299	0.266	0.142			
Sport ent Alt	0.515	0.329	0.326	0.121	0.230	0.410	0.481	0.295	0.239	0.403		
WOM	0.529	0.509	0.451	0.273	0.520	0.825	0.350	0.678	0.277	0.303	0.354	
knowledge	0.408	0.395	0.419	0.175	0.239	0.504	0.306	0.473	0.235	0.192	0.275	0.424

Table 42 HTMT associate for each pair of constructs

Having deleted the constructs "Media Exposure, Attention and Trust" and "second dimension of the social representation" from our overall model, all the remaining constructs satisfied Hair et al.'s (2020) requirements regarding the HTMT (< 0.85), thereby confirming their discriminant validity.

d. Nomological Validity

The table 43 below presents the correlations between the variable future behaviour (which was added to our model for the purpose of the nomological validity assessment) and other variables of our model.

	Future Behaviour
Affective attitude	0.741
Attach Level	0.505
Attach com	0.387
Lack from Interest from the others	-0.284
Media / Pub	0.331
Media Consump	0.718
Nat ID	0.524
Past Behaviour	0.586
RS	0.282
Soc Norms	-0.342

Sport ent Alt	0.517
WOM	0.624
Knowledge	0.405

Table 43 Nomological Validity

Apart from the construct "Social Norms", all the others satisfied the theoretically expected correlations with the construct "Future Behaviour" (e.g., Muncu and Barnes, 2003, Kim and Trail, 2010, 2011; Trail, 2019; Mayer and Hungenberg, 2020), thereby demonstrating a good monological validity.

As for the construct "Social Norms", the fact that it correlated with the construct "Future Behaviour" in a way opposed to the theoretically expected one can be accounted for by Mayer and Hungenberg (2020)'s warning about the fact that some constructs initially theorised as motivators end up proving themselves to be constraints.

e. Construct's Compositional Invariance

Tables 44 to 48 respectively present MICOM (step 2) according to gender (men vs women), sport follower status (Yes followers vs No non-followers), proximity to disability (yes vs no), proximity to sport venues (yes vs no), and sport level (Yes practitioners vs No non-practitioners).

MICOM According to "Gender" (Men Vs Women)

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Affective attitude	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.377
Attach Level	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.256
Attach com	0.998	0.996	0.985	0.571
Lack from Interest from the others	0.966	0.952	0.830	0.356
Media / Pub	0.993	0.996	0.986	0.195
Media Consump	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.375
Media EAT	0.973	0.912	0.703	0.664
Nat ID	0.997	0.995	0.980	0.525
Past Behaviour	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.721
RS	0.995	0.986	0.959	0.740
Soc Norms	0.996	0.992	0.975	0.495
Sport ent Alt	1.000	0.996	0.987	0.814
WOM	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.645
Knowledge	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.669

Table 44 MICOM According to "Gender" (Men Vs Women)

MICOM According to Sport Follower Status (Yes Vs No)

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Affective attitude	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.879
Attach Level	0.999	1.000	0.999	0.025
Attach com	0.992	0.996	0.987	0.110
Lack from Interest from the others	0.930	0.967	0.899	0.115
Media / Pub	0.999	0.996	0.989	0.739
Media Consump	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.607
Nat ID	1.000	0.995	0.983	0.900
Past Behaviour	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.841
RS	0.619	0.648	0.442	0.370
Soc Norms	0.992	0.995	0.983	0.205
Sport ent Alt	1.000	0.997	0.989	0.995
WOM	0.999	1.000	1.000	0.030
Knowledge	0.999	1.000	0.998	0.169

Table 45 MICOM According to Sport Follower Status (Yes Vs No)

MICOM According to Proximity to Disability (Yes Vs No)

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Affective attitude	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.248
Attach Level	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.751
Attach com	0.994	0.996	0.987	0.209
Lack from Interest from the others	0.983	0.969	0.898	0.523
Media / Pub	0.999	0.996	0.989	0.643
Media Consump	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.518
Nat ID	0.999	0.996	0.984	0.730
Past Behaviour	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.846
RS	0.668	0.660	0.460	0.499
Soc Norms	0.996	0.995	0.984	0.452
Sport ent Alt	1.000	0.997	0.990	0.915
WOM	0.999	1.000	1.000	0.025
Knowledge	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.531

Table 46 MICOM According to Proximity to Disability (Yes Vs No)

MICOM According to Proximity to Sport Venues (Yes Vs No)

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Affective attitude	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.801
Attach Level	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.480
Attach com	1.000	0.994	0.980	0.896

Lack from Interest from the others	0.998	0.937	0.741	0.925
Media / Pub	0.995	0.995	0.983	0.315
Media Consump	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.253
Nat ID	0.999	0.993	0.977	0.845
Past Behaviour	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.820
RS	0.962	0.983	0.952	0.090
Soc Norms	0.991	0.988	0.965	0.283
Sport ent Alt	1.000	0.995	0.983	0.773
WOM	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.650
Knowledge	0.999	0.999	0.998	0.333

Table 47 MICOM According to Proximity to Sport Venues (Yes Vs No)

MICOM According to "Level of Sport Practice" (Yes Practitioners Vs No Non Practitioners)	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Affective attitude	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.926
Attach Level	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.798
Attach com	0.985	0.995	0.983	0.064
Lack from Interest from the others	0.997	0.944	0.793	0.922
Media / Pub	0.999	0.995	0.983	0.794
Media Consump	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.248
Nat ID	0.998	0.994	0.979	0.663
Past Behaviour	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.497
RS	0.990	0.982	0.951	0.480
Soc Norms	0.999	0.990	0.971	0.887
Sport ent Alt	1.000	0.996	0.985	0.762
WOM	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.804
Knowledge	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.829

Table 48 MICOM According to "Level of Sport Practice"

When reading the MICOM (step 2) results above, and considering the MICOM (step 3) in appendices 53 to 55 with Hair et al. (2021) and Lorgnier et al.'s (2021) eyes, we can confirm the compositional invariance, and the partial composite invariance of our overall reflective model according to gender, proximity to sport venues and level of sport practice divides, which postulates the predictive validity of our overall reflective model provided that a further MGA be carried to analyse the heterogeneity of our results.

As a matter of fact, although there is only a partial composite invariance, and considering the fact that apart from the variables country or continent, no other moderating variable is central to our work, we can carry out analyses on these German data, and further perform an MGA to account for heterogeneities due to the moderating

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variable according to which our German data were compositionally invariant as did Rasoolimanesha et al. (2017), Rasoolimanesha et al. (2020) and Tanoh (2021).

3.1.2 Assessment of the Structural Model

a. Structural Model Convergent Validity

Table 49 below presents the structural model's VIF

	Affective attitude	Media Consump	RS	WOM	knowledge
Affective attitude		2.138		2.138	
Attach Level	1.178	1.571	1.281	1.571	1.303
Attach com	1.246	1.490	1.306	1.490	1.403
Lack from Interest from the others		1.204		1.204	
Media / Pub	1.120	1.211	1.196	1.211	1.196
Nat ID	1.279	1.586	1.298	1.586	1.365
Past Behaviour		1.649	1.441	1.649	1.443
RS		1.223		1.223	1.214
Soc Norms		1.277		1.277	
Sport ent Alt		1.416		1.416	
Knowledge		1.385		1.385	

Table 49 German structural model's VIF

All these VIFs satisfy Hair et al.'s (2020) requirements for the structural model's convergent validity (VIF < 3 to 5).

b. Path Coefficients

Table 50 below presents the path coefficients of the relations between independent and dependent variables within our structural model. As hinted at by Hair et al. (2020), the significance of these path coefficients also enable us to validate or invalidate our hypotheses.

	Relations	Original	SDEV	T stat	P values	status
H1	knowledge -> Media Consump	0.096	0.053	1.836	0.066	Invalidated
H2	knowledge -> WOM	0.039	0.053	0.731	0.465	Invalidated
H3	Affective attitude -> Media Consump	0.182	0.057	3.196	0.001	Validated
H4	Affective attitude -> WOM	0.060	0.057	1.055	0.292	Invalidated
H5	Soc Norms -> Media Consump	0.015	0.045	0.328	0.743	Invalidated
H6	Soc Norms -> WOM	-0.017	0.044	0.393	0.694	Invalidated

H7	Lack from Interest from the others -> Media Consump	-0.064	0.040	1.596	0.111	Invalidated
H8	Lack from Interest from the others -> WOM	-0.092	0.051	1.804	0.071	Invalidated
H9	Sport ent Alt -> Media Consump	0.065	0.037	1.756	0.079	Invalidated
H10	Sport ent Alt -> WOM	0.046	0.048	0.968	0.333	Invalidated
H11	Past Behaviour -> Media Consump	0.393	0.061	6.486	0.000	Validated
H12	Past Behaviour -> WOM	0.353	0.062	5.667	0.000	Validated
H13	Past Behaviour -> knowledge	0.269	0.067	4.045	0.000	Validated
H14	Past Behaviour -> RS	-0.008	0.064	0.120	0.904	Invalidated
H15	RS -> knowledge	0.013	0.063	0.211	0.833	Invalidated
H16	RS -> Media Consump	-0.102	0.044	2.339	0.020	Invalidated
H17	RS -> WOM	0.053	0.049	1.078	0.281	Invalidated
H18	Media / Pub -> RS	0.020	0.058	0.346	0.730	Invalidated
H19	Media / Pub -> knowledge	-0.000	0.062	0.000	1.000	Invalidated
H20	Media / Pub -> Affective attitude	0.087	0.053	1.647	0.100	Invalidated
H21	Media / Pub -> Media Consump	0.160	0.042	3.801	0.000	Validated
H22	Media / Pub -> WOM	0.209	0.046	4.498	0.000	Validated
H23	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H23	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H25	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H26	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H27	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H28	Attach com -> RS	0.239	0.053	4.532	0.000	Validated
H29	Attach com -> knowledge	0.171	0.062	2.775	0.006	Validated
H30	Attach com -> Affective attitude	0.183	0.052	3.515	0.000	Validated
H31	Attach com -> Media Consump	0.073	0.042	1.749	0.080	Invalidated
H32	Attach com -> WOM	0.052	0.055	0.954	0.340	Invalidated
H33	Attach Level -> RS	0.129	0.076	1.687	0.092	Invalidated
H34	Attach Level -> knowledge	0.191	0.065	2.926	0.003	Validated
H35	Attach Level -> Affective attitude	0.332	0.048	6.946	0.000	Validated
H36	Attach Level -> Media Consump	0.105	0.054	1.931	0.054	Invalidated
H37	Attach Level -> WOM	0.185	0.053	3.505	0.000	Validated
H38	Nat ID -> RS	0.244	0.067	3.619	0.000	Validated
H39	Nat ID -> knowledge	0.077	0.066	1.167	0.243	Invalidated
H40	Nat ID -> Affective attitude	0.310	0.051	6.078	0.000	Validated
H41	Nat ID -> Media Consump	0.115	0.048	2.364	0.018	Validated
H42	Nat ID -> WOM	0.004	0.057	0.072	0.943	Invalidated

Table 50 Path coefficients for direct relations between independent and dependent variables within our structural model in Germany

c. Specific Indirect Effect

Table 51 below presents the path coefficients of the relations between independent and dependent variables within our structural model. As hinted at by Hair et al. (2020), the significance of these path coefficients also enables us to validate or invalidate our hypotheses.

	Relations	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values	
H46	Past Behaviour -> knowledge -> Media Consump	0.026	0.027	0.016	1.638	0.102	Invalidated
H47	Past Behaviour -> knowledge -> WOM	0.010	0.011	0.015	0.684	0.494	Invalidated
H48	RS -> knowledge -> Media Consump	0.001	0.002	0.009	0.114	0.909	Invalidated
H49	RS -> knowledge -> WOM	0.000	0.001	0.005	0.078	0.938	Invalidated
H50	Past Behaviour -> RS -> knowledge	0.000	0.001	0.008	0.051	0.959	Invalidated
H51	Past Behaviour -> RS -> Media Consump	-0.005	-0.007	0.008	0.630	0.529	Invalidated
H52	Past Behaviour -> RS -> WOM	0.003	0.006	0.007	0.359	0.720	Invalidated
H53	Media / Pub -> RS -> knowledge	0.000	0.001	0.005	0.019	0.985	Invalidated
H54	Media / Pub -> RS -> Media Consump	-0.001	-0.002	0.007	0.173	0.863	Invalidated
H55	Media / Pub -> RS -> WOM	0.001	0.002	0.006	0.104	0.917	Invalidated
H56	Media / Pub -> knowledge -> Media Consump	-0.000	-0.001	0.007	0.000	1.000	Invalidated
H57	Media / Pub -> knowledge -> WOM	-0.000	-0.000	0.004	0.000	1.000	Invalidated
H58	Media / Pub -> Affective attitude -> Media Consump	0.016	0.015	0.011	1.423	0.155	Invalidated
H59	Media / Pub -> Affective attitude -> WOM	0.005	0.005	0.007	0.795	0.427	Invalidated
H60	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H61	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H62	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H63	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H64	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H65	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H66	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H67	Attach com -> RS -> knowledge	0.003	0.005	0.020	0.137	0.891	Invalidated
H68	Attach com -> RS -> Media Consump	-0.033	-0.024	0.016	2.132	0.033	Validated
H69	Attach com -> RS -> WOM	0.016	0.018	0.014	1.152	0.249	Invalidated
H70	Attach com -> knowledge -> Media Consump	0.017	0.017	0.011	1.486	0.137	Invalidated
H71	Attach com -> knowledge -> WOM	0.007	0.006	0.010	0.679	0.497	Invalidated
H72	Attach com -> Affective attitude -> Media Consump	0.033	0.033	0.015	2.279	0.023	Validated

		Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics	P Values	Result
H73	Attach com -> Affective attitude -> WOM	0.011	0.011	0.012	0.942	0.346	Invalidated
H74	Nat ID -> RS -> knowledge	0.002	0.004	0.018	0.129	0.897	Invalidated
H75	Nat ID -> RS -> Media Consump	-0.028	-0.021	0.015	1.872	0.061	Invalidated
H76	Nat ID -> RS -> WOM	0.013	0.015	0.013	1.077	0.281	Invalidated
H77	Nat ID -> knowledge -> Media Consump	0.007	0.008	0.009	0.866	0.386	Invalidated
H78	Nat ID -> knowledge -> WOM	0.003	0.003	0.006	0.507	0.613	Invalidated
H79	Nat ID -> Affective attitude -> Media Consump	0.056	0.055	0.020	2.788	0.005	Validated
H80	Nat ID -> Affective attitude -> WOM	0.019	0.019	0.018	1.009	0.313	Invalidated
H81	Attach Level -> RS -> knowledge	0.001	0.003	0.012	0.109	0.913	Invalidated
H82	Attach Level -> RS -> Media Consump	-0.016	-0.013	0.011	1.435	0.151	Invalidated
H83	Attach Level -> RS -> WOM	0.008	0.010	0.010	0.802	0.423	Invalidated
H84	Attach Level -> knowledge -> Media Consump	0.018	0.019	0.013	1.407	0.159	Invalidated
H85	Attach Level -> knowledge -> WOM	0.007	0.008	0.011	0.655	0.513	Invalidated
H86	Attach Level -> Affective attitude -> Media Consump	0.060	0.058	0.020	3.067	0.002	Validated
H87	Attach Level -> Affective attitude -> WOM	0.020	0.020	0.019	1.025	0.306	Invalidated

Table 51 Specific Indirect Effect

d. Model's Predictive Power (r^2)

Table 52 below presents the R^2 bespeaking the model's predictive power for each dependent variable.

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
Affective attitude	0.417	0.427	0.054	7.729	0.000
Media Consump	0.622	0.635	0.035	17.580	0.000
RS	0.176	0.194	0.041	4.329	0.000
WOM	0.528	0.551	0.043	12.145	0.000
knowledge	0.272	0.292	0.049	5.560	0.000

Table 52 R^2 bespeaking the model's predictive power

From the above, we can see that the model has a weak predictive power (r^2 from 0.176 to 0.272) for the dependent variables "Social Representation" and "Knowledge", and a moderate predictive power for the dependent variables "Affective Attitude", "Media Consumption", and "WOM" (r^2 from 0.417 to 0.622).

Table 53 below presents the f^2 associated with each relation between an independent variable and a dependent one.

e.	Affective Attitude	Media Consum	SR	WOM	Knowledge
Affective Attitude		**0.041**		0.004	
Attach Level	*"0.161"*	0.018	0.017	0.046	**0.038**
Attach Com	**0.046**	0.009	**0.074**	0.004	**0.029**
Lack of interest from others		0.009		0.015	
Media/Pub	0.011	**0.056**	0.000	0.076	0.000
Nat ID	**0.129**	**0.022**	**0.051**	0.000	0.006
Past behaviour		*"0.248"*	0.002	*"0.160"*	**0.069**
SR		**"0.22"**		0.005	0.00
Soc Norms		0.00		0.002	
Sport Ent Alt		0.008		0.003	
Knowledge		0.018		0.002	

Table 53 f^2 associated with each relation between an independent variable and a dependent one

The f^2 values in black (or in highlighted characters if printed in black on white) bespeak that the independent variables associated with them significantly contributed to the r^2 values for the prediction of the dependent variable associated to them, but with a small effect (f^2 between 0.02 and 0.15).

The f^2 in red (or in normal character if printed black on white) bespeak that the independent variable did not significantly contributed to the r^2 (f^2 lower than 0.02).

The f^2 in green (or in italics and quotation mark if printed in black on white) bespeaks that independent variables associated to them significantly contributed to the r^2 with a moderate effect (f^2 between 0.15 and 0.35)

f. Model's predictive relevance:($Q2$)

Table 54 below presents the model's predictive relevance for each of the dependent variables.

	Q^2 (=1-SSE/SSO)
Affective attitude	0.354
Media Consump	0.521
RS	0.084
WOM	0.431
Knowledge	0.217

The reading of this table from Hair et al.'s (2020) perspective hints that our model demonstrates a highly relevant predictive power for the prediction of the dependent v ariable "Media Consumption", a moderate predictive relevance for the dependent variables "WOM" and "Affective Attitude", and a very small predictive relevance for the dependent variable "Social Representation".

g. Model's Predictive Accuracy (Q^2 Predict)

Table 55 below presents for each item the Q^2 predict (out-of-the sample), along with the RMSE in- vs out-of-sample difference, and the predictive accuracy stemming from these parameters.

	RMSE (in sample)	Q^2_predict (in sample)	RMSE (out sample)	Q^2_predict (out-of-sample)	Level of Q2	Difference RMSE (in vs out sample)	predictive accuracy
Aff Attitude 3	1.206	0.353	1.184	0.376	MEDIUM	POSITIVE	Weak
Aff Attitude 2	1.207	0.338	1.187	0.359	MEDIUM	POSITIVE	
Aff Attitude 1	1.415	0.330	1.332	0.406	MEDIUM	POSITIVE	
Med Consump 3	1.484	0.508	1.545	0.466	High	NEGATIVE	Moderate
Med Consump 2	1.564	0.455	1.558	0.459	Medium	POSITIVE	
Med Consump 1	1.595	0.481	1.602	0.477	Medium	NEGATIVE	
							Weak
RS12	1.502	0.029	1.595	-0.095	WEAK	NEGATIVE	
RS8	1.704	0.077	1.772	0.002	WEAK	NEGATIVE	
RS7	1.464	0.101	1.528	0.021	WEAK	NEGATIVE	
RS10	1.599	0.097	1.630	0.062	WEAK	NEGATIVE	
WOM 2	1.469	0.402	1.528	0.353	MEDIUM	NEGATIVE	Moderate
WOM 1	1.634	0.402	1.689	0.361	MEDIUM	NEGATIVE	
WOM 3	1.421	0.426	1.468	0.387	MEDIUM	NEGATIVE	
knowledge 2	1.668	0.181	1.708	0.140	WEAK	NEGATIVE	Weak
knowledge 3	1.636	0.192	1.683	0.145	WEAK	NEGATIVE	
knowledge 1	1.597	0.226	1.607	0.217	WEAK	NEGATIVE	

Table 55 Q^2 predict (out-of-the sample)

The exploitation of this table with Hair et al. (2020) suggests that our model demonstrates a moderate predictive accuracy for the prediction of the dependent variables "Media Consumption" and "WOM", and a weak predictive accuracy for the dependent variables "Social Representation", "Affective Attitude", and "Knowledge".

h. Determination of the Variables that Best Predicted (Positive) Media Consumption

The figure 65 below presents IPMA of the predictors of Paralympic sport media consumption.
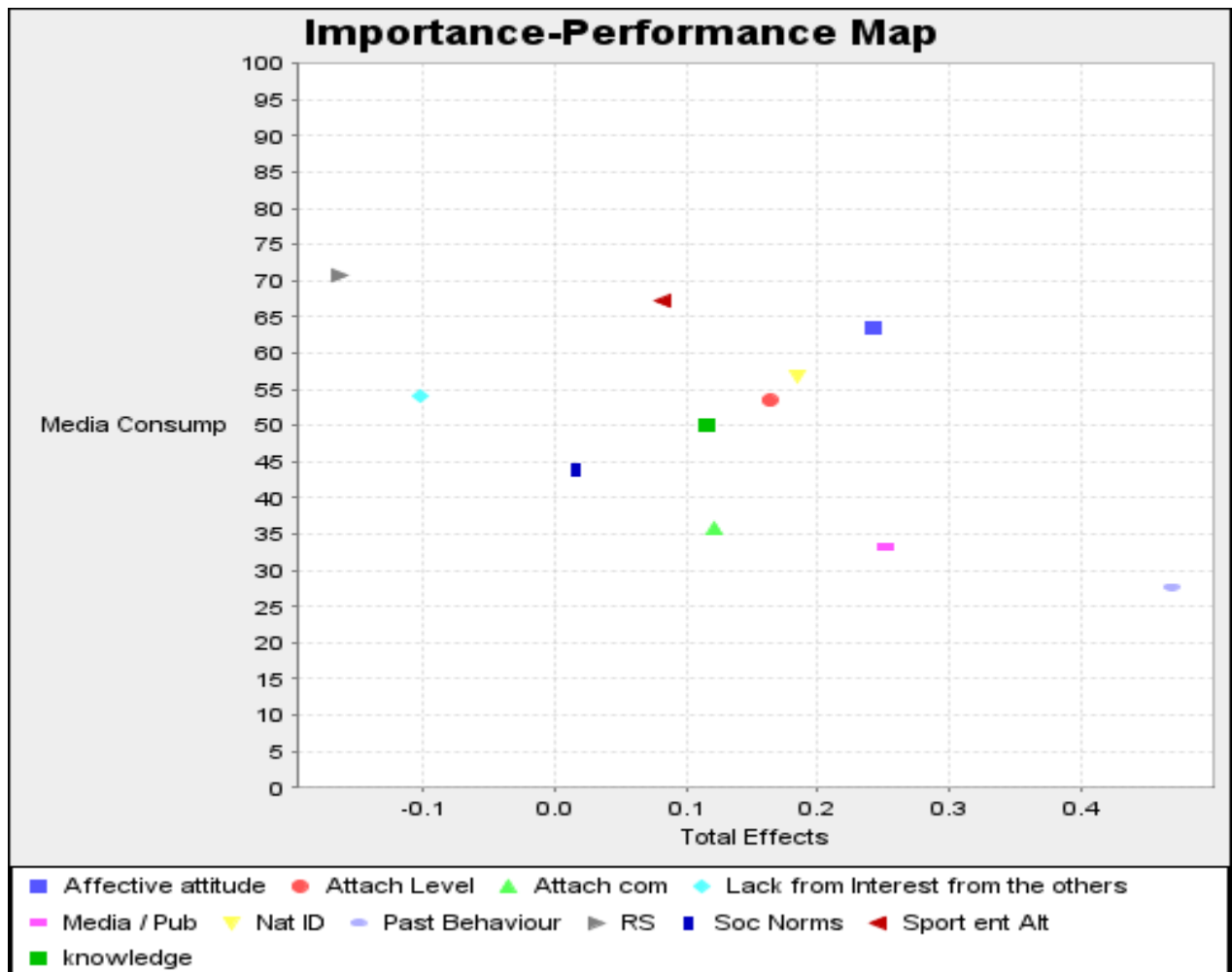
Figure 65 IPMA of our structural model in Germany

From this figure, it seems that that the best predictors of Paralympic sport in Germany, that is, those with the best total effect (importance), and the best measurability (Performance) are from top down, (1) affective attitude, (2) past behaviours, (3) national identity and (4) media/pub.

As the social representation rather negatively influenced Paralympic sport media consumption behaviour, we did not deem useful to run an IPMA on the social representation to see which of its item(s) best predicted the media consumption behaviour.

3.1.3 Analysis of Moderations with Categorial Variables.

The analysis of our structural model's compositional invariance (see the subtitle e from the title 3.1.1.2 of the present chapter) showed that it was compositionally invariant according to the gender, proximity to sport venues and level of practice divides. Given the high number of variables within our structural model (13 variables), a total invariance of the measure in the sense of Rasoolimanesha et al. (2017), Rasoolimanesha et al. (2020) and Tanoh (2021) could not be attained. We can therefore postulate the partial invariance of our structural model according to the latter divides, which qualifies our it for an MGA that would also allow us to determine the heterogeneity status of all its predicates.

Heterogeneity According to Gender

Table 56 below presents the MGA of relationships between independent and dependent variables according to the gender divide, along with the heterogeneity status entailed.

	Relations	Original men	Original women	T stat men	T stat women	P values	P values	Heterogeneity status
H1	knowledge -> Media Consump	0.216	0.071	2.260	1.187	0.024	0.235	Validated
H2	knowledge -> WOM	0.125	0.032	1.407	0.477	0.160	0.634	Invalidated
H3	Affective attitude -> Media Consump	0.093	0.190	1.015	2.865	0.310	0.004	Validated
H4	Affective attitude -> WOM	0.115	0.039	1.104	0.552	0.270	0.581	Invalidated
H5	Soc Norms -> Media Consump	-0.097	0.021	1.297	0.394	0.195	0.694	Invalidated
H6	Soc Norms -> WOM	-0.075	-0.005	1.004	0.091	0.315	0.927	Invalidated
H7	Lack from Interest from the others -> WOM	-0.084	-0.082	0.854	1.305	0.393	0.192	Invalidated
H8	Lack from Interest from the others -> Media Consump	0.093	-0.105	1.227	2.175	0.220	0.030	Validated
H9	Sport ent Alt -> Media Consump	0.095	0.040	1.348	0.865	0.178	0.387	Invalidated
H10	Sport ent Alt -> WOM	0.157	0.009	1.916	0.156	0.055	0.876	Invalidated
H11	Past Behaviour -> Media Consump	0.483	0.357	4.291	5.225	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H12	Past Behaviour -> WOM	0.362	0.332	3.227	4.285	0.001	0.000	Invalidated
H13	Past Behaviour -> knowledge	0.159	0.364	1.326	4.803	0.185	0.000	Validated
H14	Past Behaviour -> RS	0.133	0.008	1.036	0.083	0.300	0.934	Invalidated

H15	RS -> knowledge	0.231	-0.045	1.352	0.534	0.177	0.594	Invalidated
H16	RS -> Media Consump	-0.040	-0.164	0.341	2.273	0.733	0.023	Validated
H17	RS -> WOM	-0.000	0.053	0.003	0.755	0.997	0.450	Invalidated
H18	Media / Pub -> RS	0.046	-0.025	0.392	0.292	0.695	0.770	Invalidated
H19	Media / Pub -> knowledge	0.020	0.011	0.167	0.142	0.868	0.887	Invalidated
H20	Media / Pub -> Affective attitude	0.099	0.050	1.162	0.773	0.245	0.440	Invalidated
H21	Media / Pub -> Media Consump	0.040	0.191	0.527	3.887	0.598	0.000	Validated
H22	Media / Pub -> WOM	0.236	0.201	2.731	3.498	0.006	0.000	Invalidated
H28	Attach com -> RS	0.208	0.309	1.809	3.363	0.071	0.001	Validated
H29	Attach com -> knowledge	-0.044	0.251	0.332	3.731	0.740	0.000	Validated
H30	Attach com -> Affective attitude	0.239	0.160	2.912	2.385	0.004	0.017	Invalidated
H31	Attach com -> Media Consump	0.151	0.091	1.725	1.781	0.085	0.075	Invalidated
H32	Attach com -> WOM	0.096	0.056	0.947	0.830	0.344	0.407	Invalidated
H33	Attach Level -> RS	0.187	0.169	1.611	1.570	0.107	0.117	Invalidated
H34	Attach Level -> knowledge	0.332	0.056	2.901	0.700	0.004	0.484	Validated
H35	Attach Level -> Affective attitude	0.404	0.369	5.553	6.313	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H36	Attach Level -> Media Consump	-0.021	0.151	0.222	2.162	0.825	0.031	Validated
H37	Attach Level -> WOM	-0.036	0.268	0.419	4.120	0.675	0.000	Validated
H38	Nat ID -> RS	0.195	0.190	1.594	1.678	0.111	0.093	Invalidated
H39	Nat ID -> knowledge	0.055	0.134	0.447	1.653	0.655	0.098	Invalidated
H40	Nat ID -> Affective attitude	0.257	0.283	3.595	4.176	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H41	Nat ID -> Media Consump	0.078	0.106	0.914	1.731	0.361	0.083	Invalidated
H42	Nat ID -> WOM	0.018	-0.020	0.223	0.277	0.824	0.782	Invalidated

Table 56 MGA of relationships between independent and dependent variables according to the gender divide

Heterogeneity According to the Proximity to Sport Venues

Table 57 below presents the MGA of relationships between independent and dependent variables according to the proximity to sport venues divide, along with the heterogeneity status entailed.

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	Relation	Original Yes	original No	T stat Yes	T stat No	P value Yes	P values No	Heterogeneity status
H1	knowledge -> Media Consump	0.111	0.035	1.811	0.331	0.070	0.741	Invalidated
H2	knowledge -> WOM	0.041	0.022	0.701	0.170	0.484	0.865	Invalidated
H3	Affective attitude -> Media Consump	0.128	0.356	2.114	2.427	0.035	0.015	Invalidated
H4	Affective attitude -> WOM	0.032	0.145	0.565	0.798	0.572	0.425	Invalidated
H5	Soc Norms -> Media Consump	-0.012	0.048	0.252	0.442	0.801	0.658	Invalidated
H6	Soc Norms -> WOM	-0.032	-0.025	0.670	0.198	0.503	0.843	Invalidated
H7	Lack from Interest from the others -> WOM	-0.058	-0.137	1.035	1.063	0.301	0.288	Invalidated
H8	Lack from Interest from the others -> Media Consump	-0.039	-0.083	0.858	0.869	0.391	0.385	Invalidated
H9	Sport ent Alt -> Media Consump	0.098	-0.085	2.173	0.992	0.030	0.321	Validated
H10	Sport ent Alt -> WOM	0.055	-0.041	0.983	0.361	0.326	0.718	Invalidated
H11	Past Behaviour -> Media Consump	0.391	0.430	5.568	3.488	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H12	Past Behaviour -> WOM	0.398	0.192	5.417	1.362	0.000	0.173	Invalidated
H13	Past Behaviour -> knowledge	0.273	0.260	3.757	1.411	0.000	0.158	Validated
H14	Past Behaviour -> RS	0.060	0.022	0.778	0.141	0.436	0.888	Invalidated
H15	RS -> knowledge	0.004	0.034	0.041	0.186	0.968	0.852	Invalidated
H16	RS -> Media Consump	-0.086	-0.058	1.310	0.392	0.190	0.695	Invalidated
H17	RS -> WOM	0.087	-0.116	1.536	0.705	0.125	0.481	Invalidated
H18	Media / Pub -> RS	-0.006	0.376	0.079	2.484	0.937	0.013	Invalidated
H19	Media / Pub -> knowledge	-0.002	0.007	0.032	0.039	0.974	0.969	Validated
H20	Media / Pub -> Affective attitude	0.042	0.223	0.668	2.168	0.504	0.030	Validated
H21	Media / Pub -> Media Consump	0.148	0.203	2.924	2.143	0.003	0.032	Invalidated
H22	Media / Pub -> WOM	0.218	0.254	4.459	1.715	0.000	0.086	Validated
H28	Attach com -> RS	0.214	0.329	2.519	2.601	0.012	0.009	Invalidated
H29	Attach com -> knowledge	0.162	0.190	2.161	1.607	0.031	0.108	Validated
H30	Attach com -> Affective attitude	0.193	0.167	3.093	2.024	0.002	0.043	Invalidated
H31	Attach com -> Media Consump	0.072	0.034	1.386	0.364	0.166	0.716	Invalidated
H32	Attach com -> WOM	0.051	0.099	0.796	0.867	0.426	0.386	Validated
H33	Attach Level -> RS	0.131	0.008	1.402	0.049	0.161	0.961	Invalidated
H34	Attach Level -> knowledge	0.162	0.238	2.200	1.583	0.028	0.114	Validated
H35	Attach Level -> Affective attitude	0.299	0.336	5.325	3.331	0.000	0.001	Invalidated
H36	Attach Level -> Media Consump	0.110	0.071	1.754	0.670	0.079	0.503	Invalidated
H37	Attach Level -> WOM	0.146	0.348	2.561	2.494	0.010	0.013	Invalidated
H38	Nat ID -> RS	0.277	0.147	2.908	1.031	0.004	0.303	Validated

H39	Nat ID -> knowledge	0.095	0.044	1.176	0.314	0.240	0.754	Invalidated
H40	Nat ID -> Affective attitude	0.315	0.333	5.309	3.772	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H41	Nat ID -> Media Consump	0.109	0.059	1.771	0.620	0.077	0.535	Invalidated
H42	Nat ID -> WOM	0.020	-0.054	0.284	0.400	0.776	0.689	Invalidated

Table 57 MGA of relationships between independent and dependent variables according to the proximity to sport venues divide

Heterogeneity According to the Level of Sport Practice (Yes Practitioner Vs No Non-Practitioner).

Table 58 below presents the MGA of relationships between independent and dependent variables according to the level of sport practice divide, along with the heterogeneity status entailed.

	Relations	Origin al yes	Origin al yes	T stat yes	T stat no	P value yes	P value no	Heterogeneity
H1	knowledge -> Media Consump	0.126	0.021	2.045	0.178	0.041	0.858	Validated
H2	knowledge -> WOM	0.023	0.166	0.374	1.401	0.708	0.161	Invalidated
H3	Affective attitude -> Media Consump	0.238	0.110	3.746	0.874	0.000	0.382	Validated
H4	Affective attitude -> WOM	0.081	0.047	1.120	0.471	0.263	0.638	Invalidated
H5	Soc Norms -> Media Consump	0.016	0.054	0.313	0.439	0.755	0.661	Invalidated
H6	Soc Norms -> WOM	0.009	-0.102	0.159	1.125	0.874	0.261	Invalidated
H7	Lack from Interest from the others -> WOM	-0.071	-0.136	1.087	1.656	0.277	0.098	Invalidated
H8	Lack from Interest from the others -> Media Consump	0.011	-0.181	0.238	1.820	0.812	0.069	Invalidated
H9	Sport ent Alt -> Media Consump	0.023	0.114	0.450	1.272	0.653	0.203	Invalidated
H10	Sport ent Alt -> WOM	-0.004	0.038	0.064	0.443	0.949	0.658	Invalidated
H11	Past Behaviour -> Media Consump	0.386	0.462	5.503	3.392	0.000	0.001	Invalidated
H12	Past Behaviour -> WOM	0.374	0.285	5.043	2.076	0.000	0.038	Invalidated
H13	Past Behaviour -> knowledge	0.306	0.124	4.123	0.811	0.000	0.418	Validated
H14	Past Behaviour -> RS	0.058	0.145	0.687	0.756	0.492	0.450	Invalidated
H15	RS -> knowledge	0.066	-0.056	0.581	0.362	0.561	0.717	Invalidated
H16	RS -> Media Consump	-0.108	-0.073	1.589	0.492	0.112	0.622	Invalidated
H17	RS -> WOM	0.064	-0.002	0.939	0.014	0.348	0.989	Invalidated
H18	Media / Pub -> RS	0.095	-0.117	1.233	0.793	0.218	0.428	Invalidated
H19	Media / Pub -> knowledge	-0.042	0.097	0.571	0.697	0.568	0.486	Invalidated
H20	Media / Pub -> Affective attitude	0.093	0.072	1.460	0.678	0.144	0.498	Invalidated

H21	Media / Pub -> Media Consump	0.159	0.243	3.051	2.568	0.002	0.010	Invalidated
H22	Media / Pub -> WOM	0.210	0.216	3.923	2.049	0.000	0.040	Invalidated
H28	Attach com -> RS	0.238	0.287	2.931	1.650	0.003	0.099	Validated
H29	Attach com -> knowledge	0.128	0.320	1.710	2.957	0.087	0.003	Validated
H30	Attach com -> Affective attitude	0.178	0.168	2.542	1.870	0.011	0.062	Validated
H31	Attach com -> Media Consump	0.055	0.130	1.137	1.321	0.256	0.186	Invalidated
H32	Attach com -> WOM	0.038	0.024	0.562	0.222	0.574	0.824	Validated
H33	Attach Level -> RS	-0.005	0.334	0.053	1.703	0.958	0.089	Invalidated
H34	Attach Level -> knowledge	0.150	0.187	2.141	1.202	0.032	0.229	Validated
H35	Attach Level -> Affective attitude	0.266	0.399	4.661	3.805	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H36	Attach Level -> Media Consump	0.073	0.035	1.338	0.236	0.181	0.814	Invalidated
H37	Attach Level -> WOM	0.147	0.294	2.665	2.073	0.008	0.038	Invalidated
H38	Nat ID -> RS	0.300	0.088	3.164	0.595	0.002	0.552	Validated
H39	Nat ID -> knowledge	0.017	0.223	0.201	2.027	0.840	0.043	Validated
H40	Nat ID -> Affective attitude	0.349	0.283	5.918	2.733	0.000	0.006	Invalidated
H41	Nat ID -> Media Consump	0.147	0.006	2.403	0.066	0.016	0.947	Validated
H42	Nat ID -> WOM	0.090	-0.186	1.227	2.071	0.220	0.038	Validated

Table 58 Heterogeneity According to the Level of Sport Practice (Yes Practitioner Vs No Non-Practitioner).

3.2 France-specific results

3.2.1 Assessment of the Measurement Model

3.2.1.1 Verification of the formativity of the social representation

Unlike what the selection of social representation's items let us assume, The CTA (Gudergan et al., 2008; Hair et al., 2018) rather showed that the construct social representation for France is reflexive.

The table 59 below presents the results of the CTA of the social representation of Paralympic sport in France.

RS	P Values	Bias	CI Low adj.	CI Up adj.
1: RS1,RS10,RS11,RS12	0.653	-0.009	-0.448	0.607
2: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS11	0.306	-0.010	-0.823	0.456
4: RS1,RS10,RS11,RS13	0.734	-0.009	-0.383	0.489
6: RS1,RS11,RS13,RS10	0.831	0.021	-0.889	0.744
10: RS1,RS10,RS11,RS3	0.561	-0.006	-0.276	0.405
13: RS1,RS10,RS11,RS4	0.671	-0.005	-0.263	0.350
17: RS1,RS10,RS5,RS11	0.014	0.015	-1.400	0.200
20: RS1,RS10,RS6,RS11	0.104	0.006	-1.277	0.440
24: RS1,RS11,RS7,RS10	0.006	0.008	-1.307	0.120
26: RS1,RS10,RS8,RS11	0.483	-0.003	-0.869	0.575
27: RS1,RS11,RS8,RS10	0.152	0.005	-0.843	0.333
28: RS1,RS10,RS11,RS9	0.745	-0.008	-0.360	0.455
31: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS13	0.244	-0.007	-0.597	0.302
37: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS3	0.459	-0.005	-0.393	0.259
43: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS5	0.437	-0.006	-0.494	0.318
47: RS1,RS10,RS6,RS12	0.145	0.005	-1.012	0.395
59: RS1,RS10,RS2,RS13	0.000	-0.001	-1.887	-0.279
62: RS1,RS10,RS3,RS13	0.002	-0.002	-1.212	0.055
66: RS1,RS13,RS4,RS10	0.003	0.000	-1.224	0.075
68: RS1,RS10,RS5,RS13	0.094	0.008	-0.947	0.308
76: RS1,RS10,RS13,RS8	0.733	0.011	-0.643	0.762
84: RS1,RS2,RS3,RS10	0.002	0.002	-0.055	1.283
86: RS1,RS10,RS4,RS2	0.173	-0.000	-0.359	0.153
88: RS1,RS10,RS2,RS5	0.000	-0.005	-1.632	-0.178
92: RS1,RS10,RS6,RS2	0.847	0.001	-0.269	0.299
97: RS1,RS10,RS2,RS8	0.000	0.004	-2.168	-0.406
102: RS1,RS2,RS9,RS10	0.000	0.003	0.261	1.559
105: RS1,RS3,RS4,RS10	0.840	0.009	-0.375	0.403

110: RS1,RS10,RS6,RS3	0.458	0.002	-0.629	0.400
171: RS1,RS12,RS2,RS11	0.000	0.003	-2.114	-0.423
214: RS1,RS11,RS13,RS9	0.868	0.015	-0.477	0.494
231: RS1,RS2,RS7,RS11	0.000	-0.001	0.404	1.885
247: RS1,RS11,RS3,RS7	0.001	0.002	-1.258	-0.020
290: RS1,RS11,RS9,RS6	0.119	0.012	-0.902	0.315
308: RS1,RS12,RS4,RS13	0.090	0.011	-0.694	0.216
333: RS1,RS2,RS5,RS12	0.000	0.004	0.076	1.256
337: RS1,RS12,RS2,RS7	0.000	0.001	-1.529	-0.170
343: RS1,RS12,RS2,RS9	0.000	-0.000	-1.106	-0.091
350: RS1,RS12,RS5,RS3	0.535	0.010	-0.489	0.683
363: RS1,RS3,RS9,RS12	0.263	0.007	-0.374	0.723
376: RS1,RS12,RS4,RS9	0.177	0.007	-0.666	0.276
377: RS1,RS12,RS9,RS4	0.753	0.009	-0.586	0.470
410: RS1,RS13,RS3,RS2	0.174	-0.004	-0.432	0.190
430: RS1,RS13,RS3,RS4	0.344	-0.012	-1.130	0.654
454: RS1,RS13,RS4,RS7	0.016	-0.005	-1.092	0.189
458: RS1,RS13,RS8,RS4	0.555	-0.008	-0.582	0.423
479: RS1,RS13,RS8,RS6	0.868	-0.008	-0.593	0.552
484: RS1,RS13,RS7,RS8	0.210	-0.011	-1.082	0.513
504: RS1,RS3,RS7,RS2	0.057	0.000	-0.139	0.495
535: RS1,RS2,RS5,RS9	0.000	0.004	0.366	1.793
565: RS1,RS3,RS4,RS8	0.913	0.011	-0.426	0.432
609: RS1,RS5,RS8,RS4	0.992	-0.006	-0.639	0.647
626: RS1,RS4,RS9,RS7	0.064	0.004	-0.315	1.065
636: RS1,RS6,RS8,RS5	0.587	-0.000	-0.528	0.731
640: RS1,RS5,RS7,RS8	0.174	-0.014	-0.389	0.961
741: RS10,RS3,RS6,RS11	0.431	0.004	-0.675	0.414
775: RS10,RS11,RS5,RS9	0.000	0.005	0.466	2.500
793: RS10,RS11,RS8,RS9	0.000	0.008	0.307	2.032
1037: RS10,RS2,RS8,RS6	0.005	0.017	-1.389	0.100
1078: RS10,RS3,RS6,RS7	0.946	0.006	-0.818	0.838
1238: RS11,RS12,RS7,RS5	0.015	-0.016	-0.290	1.927
1306: RS11,RS13,RS4,RS6	0.057	-0.007	-0.295	1.090
1373: RS11,RS2,RS7,RS4	0.006	0.009	-1.223	0.113
1425: RS11,RS4,RS9,RS3	0.000	0.025	-2.379	-0.421
1700: RS12,RS3,RS8,RS7	0.654	0.013	-0.743	0.939

Table 59 TCA of the social representation of Paralympic sport in France

The fact that more than 80% of the CI low are of a different sign with their corresponding CI up means that the construct social representation in France is rather a reflexive construct (Wong, 2019).

This unexpected situation prompted us to assess the dimensionality of the social representation in France through an EFA, confirmed by a Principal Component Analysis

(PCA). PCA are commonly used in marketing to confirm factors composing a scale (cf. Evrad, Pras, and Roux, 2009; Tanoh, 2021).

The use of the software Jamovi for our EFA and PCA allow us to identify 2 dimensions composing the construct social representation in France composed of only 5+2 =7 items that loaded above 0.65 , and satisfied Barlett and KMO tests.

The table 60 presents these results.

| | Factors | | |
	1	2	KMO Test
RS.1		0.854	0.671
RS.2		0.763	0.777
RS.4			0.827
RS.5			0.843
RS.6	0.672		0.888
RS.7	0.728		.868
RS.8	0.775		0.890
RS.10	0.805		0.858
RS.12	0.689		0.876
RS.13			0.912
	Barlett test		
χ^2	ddl		p
1496	45		< .001

Table 60 Factors ladings, KMO and Barlett test results for the social representation of sport of Paralympic sport in France

From the Table below, we could operationalise the social representation of Paralympic sport in France into a two-dimension reflexive scale, composed of 5+2=7 items, organised in RS DIM1 that comprises the items RS1 (sport practices and disciplines) and RS2 (events and brands), and RS DIM 2 that comprises RS6 (elite athlete), RS7(modern values), RS8 (societal values), RS10 (inspiration) and RS12 (supercrip).

3.2.1.2 Assessment of Reflective Constructs

a. Indicators' Loadings

Table 66 below presents the constructs' loadings along with their mean values, standard deviations, t-statistics and p values.

	Original	Mean	SDEV	t-stat	P values
Attach com 1 <- Attach Com	0.810	0.806	0.034	23.549	0.000
Attach com 2 <- Attach Com	0.688	0.681	0.072	9.620	0.000
Attach com 3 <- Attach Com	0.655	0.656	0.057	11.482	0.000

Attach level 1 <- Attach Level	0.901	0.901	0.012	75.118	0.000
Attach level 2 <- Attach Level	0.899	0.899	0.014	62.885	0.000
Attach level 3 <- Attach Level	0.929	0.929	0.009	109.273	0.000
Lack of Int from other 1 <- Lack of Interest from the others	0.778	0.773	0.079	9.813	0.000
Lack of Int from other 2 <- Lack of Interest from the others	0.810	0.804	0.061	13.219	0.000
Lack of Int from other 3 <- Lack of Interest from the others	0.890	0.881	0.049	18.116	0.000
Med Consump 1 <- Med Consump	0.938	0.938	0.010	91.933	0.000
Med Consump 2 <- Med Consump	0.935	0.935	0.012	75.583	0.000
Med Consump 3 <- Med Consump	0.817	0.816	0.026	30.917	0.000
Media / Pub 1 <- Media/ Pub	0.868	0.868	0.019	44.877	0.000
Media / Pub 2 <- Media/ Pub	0.934	0.934	0.007	130.929	0.000
Media / Pub 3 <- Media/ Pub	0.926	0.925	0.009	101.610	0.000
Media EAT 1 <- Media EAT	0.801	0.801	0.032	25.068	0.000
Media EAT 2 <- Media EAT	0.844	0.842	0.025	33.544	0.000
Media EAT 3 <- Media EAT	0.767	0.764	0.041	18.763	0.000
Nat Id 1 <- Nad Id	0.842	0.842	0.017	48.871	0.000
Nat Id 2 <- Nad Id	0.875	0.874	0.016	53.976	0.000
Nat Id 3 <- Nad Id	0.800	0.800	0.026	30.936	0.000
Past behav 1 <- Past Behav	0.889	0.888	0.014	61.640	0.000
Past behav 2 <- Past Behav	0.949	0.948	0.006	157.752	0.000
Past behav 3 <- Past Behav	0.944	0.944	0.005	172.294	0.000
RS1 <- RS DIM1	0.780	0.785	0.039	20.154	0.000
RS10 <- RS DIM 2	0.781	0.779	0.024	32.205	0.000
RS12 <- RS DIM 2	0.723	0.725	0.025	29.349	0.000
RS2 <- RS DIM 1	0.910	0.911	0.013	72.661	0.000
RS6 <- RS DIM 2	0.766	0.766	0.023	33.904	0.000
RS7 <- RS DIM 2	0.791	0.792	0.021	37.519	0.000
RS8 <- RS DIM 2	0.766	0.766	0.023	33.166	0.000
Soc Norms 1 <- Soc Norms	0.944	0.943	0.018	53.919	0.000
Soc Norms 2 <- Soc Norms	0.837	0.834	0.039	21.401	0.000
Soc Norms 3 <- Soc Norms	0.844	0.840	0.042	20.320	0.000
WOM 1 <- WOM	0.883	0.872	0.034	26.074	0.000
WOM 2 <- WOM	0.866	0.868	0.032	27.196	0.000
WOM 3 <- WOM	0.828	0.831	0.040	20.496	0.000
knowledge 1 <- Knowledge	0.893	0.892	0.012	76.317	0.000
knowledge 2 <- Knowledge	0.933	0.933	0.008	123.072	0.000

				110.74	
knowledge 3 <- Knowledge	0.926	0.926	0.008	7	0.000
sport Ent Alt 1 <- Sport ent Alt	0.911	0.910	0.014	62.878	0.000
sport Ent Alt 2 <- Sport ent Alt	0.970	0.970	0.004	240.838	0.000
sport Ent Alt 3 <- Sport ent Alt	0.968	0.968	0.006	160.338	0.000

Table 61 Constructs' loadings along with their mean values, standard deviations

Apart from the indicators Attach com 2 and 3, which respectively loaded 0.681 and 0.651, all the other indicators from the reflective constructs loaded above Hair et al.'s (2020) recommended threshold (0.708<loadings with 1.96< t-statistics and p value<0.05). As the construct "Attachment to the Community" only counts three items—two of which do not satisfy Hair et al.'s (2020) outer loadings recommendation—we decided to delete this construct from our model.

b. Composite Reliability and Convergent Validity

Table 62 below presents for each construct the Aphas, Rho A, CR and AVE.

	Cronbac's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	(AVE)
Aff Attitude	0.929	0.931	0.955	0.875
Attach Level	0.896	0.898	0.935	0.828
Knowledge	0.905	0.908	0.941	0.841
Lack of Interest from the others	0.768	0.783	0.866	0.684
Med Consump	0.878	0.886	0.926	0.807
Media EAT	0.730	0.738	0.846	0.648
Media/ Pub	0.896	0.913	0.935	0.828
Nad Id	0.793	0.810	0.878	0.705
Past Behav	0.919	0.930	0.949	0.860
RS DIM1	0.620	0.689	0.835	0.717
RS DIM2	0.823	0.824	0.876	0.586
Soc Norms	0.872	1.279	0.908	0.768
Sport ent Alt	0.946	0.967	0.965	0.903
WOM	0.828	0.867	0.895	0.739

Table 62 Aphas, Rho A, CR and AVE of our measurement model in France

From this table, we can see that apart from the first dimension of the social representation (RS DIM1), all our constructs satisfied the requirements regarding

Cronbach' alpha (α), the Composite reliability (CR) (0.70< α & and CR < 0.95 (Hair et al., 2019 ; Hair et al., 2020) and the AVE (0.50< AVE) (Hair, 2019; Hair et al., 2020).

As the RS DIM1 is only composed of two items and does not meet the Cronbach and Rho A requirements, we decided to delete it from our model. Therefore, for the remaining analyses, the variable RS was solely referred to its second dimension RS DIM 2.

c. Discriminant Validity

Table 63 below present the HTMT associated with each pair of constructs.

	Aff Attitude	Attach Level	Knowledge	Lack of Inter	Med Consum	Media EAT	Media/ Pub	Nad Id	Past Behav	RS	Soc Norms	Sport ent Alt
Aff Attitude												
Attach Level	0.356											
Knowledge	0.384	0.480										
Lack of Inter	0.250	0.403	0.257									
Med Consum	0.348	0.176	0.183	0.197								
Media EAT	0.269	0.449	0.351	0.320	0.149							
Media/ Pub	0.266	0.391	0.414	0.239	0.050	0.462						
Nad Id	0.568	0.537	0.416	0.361	0.396	0.447	0.310					
Past Behav	0.419	0.538	0.485	0.258	0.101	0.413	0.536	0.377				
RS	0.254	0.260	0.301	0.205	0.196	0.263	0.263	0.417	0.177			
Soc Norms	0.513	0.527	0.514	0.284	0.225	0.379	0.563	0.489	0.749	0.261		
Sport ent Alt	0.491	0.555	0.507	0.282	0.195	0.418	0.580	0.458	0.825	0.186	0.869	
WOM	0.185	0.117	0.076	0.076	0.150	0.102	0.084	0.147	0.098	0.053	0.097	0.173

Table 63 HTMT associated with each pair of constructs within the model in France.

Having deleted the constructs "Attachment to the Community", and RS DIM1, all the remaining constructs (apart from social norms and sport entertainment alternatives) satisfied Hair et al.'s (2020) requirements regarding the HTMT (HTMT < 0.85), thereby confirming their discriminant validity.

Considering the fact that the HTMT value for Sport entertainment alternatives and social norms was not very distant from the threshold recommended by Hair et al. (2020), and that these two variables satisfied all the other conditions, we decided to keep these two values within our analysis model.

d. Constructs' Nomological Validity

For assessing the constructs' nomological validity, we used the construct "Future Behaviours", which is not part of our measurement model but was added to the questionnaire for the purpose of helping to measure the constructs' monological validity.

Table 64 below presents the correlations between this construct and the ones in our model, which are all supposed to be its theoretical predictors.

	Future Behav
Aff Attitude	0.588
Attach Com	0.512
Attach Level	0.540
Knowledge	0.481
Lack of Interest from the others	0.237
Med Consump	0.266
Media EAT	0.374
Media/ Pub	0.485
Nad Id	0.535
Past Behav	0.701
RS	0.237
Soc Norms	0.696
Sport ent Alt	0.753
WOM	-0.171

Table 64 Correlations between this construct and the ones in our model

Apart from the constructs "WOM" and "Lack of Interest From The Others"— which correlated with the construct "Future Behaviour" in a way opposed to the theoretical expectation (Muncu and Barnes, 2003; Trail, 2019)—all the other constructs correlated with the construct Future Behaviour within the range of the theoretical expectation (Kim and Trail, 2010, 2011; Trail, 2019, Mayer and Hungenberg, 2020).

e. Predictive validity

Tables 65 to 69 respectively present the MICOM (step2) according to "Gender" (men vs women), "Proximity to Disability" (yes vs no), "Sport Level" (practitioners vs non-practitioners), "Proximity to Sport Venues" (yes vs no), and "Sport Follower Status" (followers vs non-followers).

MICOM According to the Gender Divide

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Aff Attitude	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.669
Attach Level	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.285
Knowledge	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.507
Lack of Interest from the others	0.986	0.975	0.930	0.445
Med Consump	0.999	0.998	0.994	0.534
Media EAT	0.997	0.993	0.977	0.649
Media/ Pub	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.953
Nad Id	1.000	0.999	0.997	0.821
Past Behav	0.999	1.000	0.999	0.081
RS	0.990	0.994	0.986	0.138
Soc Norms	0.999	0.992	0.972	0.875
Sport ent Alt	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.888
WOM	0.966	0.990	0.970	0.039

Table 65MICOM according to the gender divide

MICOM According to the Proximity to Disability Divide

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Aff Attitude	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.872
Attach Level	0.999	1.000	0.999	0.229
Knowledge	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.259
Lack of Interest from the others	0.971	0.971	0.906	0.218
Med Consump	0.998	0.998	0.993	0.328
Media EAT	0.971	0.992	0.975	0.033
Media/ Pub	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.914
Nad Id	0.998	0.999	0.997	0.145
Past Behav	0.999	1.000	0.999	0.144
RS	0.996	0.993	0.984	0.738
Soc Norms	0.996	0.990	0.967	0.561
Sport ent Alt	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.810
WOM	0.996	0.988	0.966	0.653

Table 66: MICOM According to the Proximity to Disability Divide

MICOM According to the Level of Sport Practice (Yes Practitioner Vs No Practitioner)

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Aff Attitude	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.972
Attach Level	0.999	0.999	0.998	0.371
Knowledge	0.999	1.000	0.999	0.161

Lack of Interest from the others	0.980	0.937	0.693	0.435
Med Consump	0.998	0.997	0.989	0.322
Media EAT	0.997	0.985	0.951	0.694
Media/ Pub	1.000	0.999	0.996	0.911
Nad Id	0.999	0.998	0.994	0.554
Past Behav	0.998	0.999	0.998	0.042
RS	0.996	0.988	0.969	0.845
Soc Norms	0.996	0.969	0.894	0.667
Sport ent Alt	1.000	0.997	0.994	0.775
WOM	0.986	0.982	0.947	0.284

Table 67 MICOM According to the Level of Sport

MICOM According to the Proximity to Sport Venues Divide

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Aff Attitude	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.512
Attach Level	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.398
Knowledge	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.513
Lack of Interest from the others	0.991	0.946	0.766	0.606
Med Consump	0.993	0.998	0.991	0.070
Media EAT	0.988	0.988	0.961	0.270
Media/ Pub	0.999	0.999	0.997	0.400
Nad Id	1.000	0.998	0.995	0.964
Past Behav	0.995	1.000	0.999	0.003
RS	0.985	0.990	0.975	0.188
Soc Norms	0.999	0.979	0.937	0.896
Sport ent Alt	0.998	0.997	0.996	0.117

Table 68 MICOM According to the Proximity to Sport Venues Divide

MICOM According to the Sport Follower Status Divide (Yes Vs No)

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Aff Attitude	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.920
Attach Level	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.835
Knowledge	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.122
Lack of Interest from the others	0.983	0.953	0.819	0.465
Med Consump	1.000	0.998	0.993	0.811
Media EAT	0.999	0.990	0.968	0.880
Media/ Pub	1.000	0.999	0.997	0.888
Nad Id	0.999	0.999	0.996	0.388
Past Behav	0.999	1.000	0.999	0.143
RS	0.995	0.992	0.980	0.694

Soc Norms	0.992	0.984	0.958	0.406
Sport ent Alt	0.997	0.999	0.997	0.051
WOM	0.985	0.987	0.963	0.227
WOM	0.998	0.983	0.957	0.819

Table 69 MICOM According to the Sport Follower Status Divide

When reading the MICOM (step 2) resuls above, and considering the MICOM (step 3) in appendix 56 Hair et al. (2021) and Lorgnier et al.'s (2021) eyes, we can confirm the compositional invariance, and the partial composite invariance of our overall reflective model according to the sport follower status divide, which postulates the predictive validity of our overall reflective model provided that a further MGA be carried to analyse the heterogeneity of our results.

As a matter of fact, although there is only a partial composite invariance, and considering the fact that apart from the variables country or continent, no other moderating variable is central to our work, we can carry out analyses on these French data, and further perform an MGA to account for heterogeneities due to the moderating variable according to which our German data were compositionally invariant as did Rasoolimanesha et al. (2017), Rasoolimanesha et al. (2020) and Tanoh (2021).

3.2.2 Assessment of the Structural Model

a. Structural Model Convergent Validity

Table 70 below presents the French structural model's VIF

	Aff Attitude	Knowledge	Med Consump	RS	WOM
Aff Attitude					
Attach Level	1.430	1.579	1.671	1.576	1.671
Knowledge					
Lack of Interest from the others			1.178		1.178
Med Consump					
Media EAT	1.309	1.326	1.342	1.323	1.342
Media/ Pub	1.248	1.435	1.543	1.413	1.543
Nad Id	1.337	1.438	1.532	1.346	1.532
Past Behav		1.581	2.620	1.578	2.620
RS		1.163	1.183		1.183
Soc Norms			2.846		2.846
Sport ent Alt			3.961		3.961

Table 70 VIF for our model in France.

All these VIFs satisfy Hair et al.'s (2020) requirements for the structural model's convergent validity (VIF < 3 to 5), thereby confirming the convergent validity of our model in France

b. Path Coefficients

Table 71 below presents the path coefficients of the relations between independent and dependent variables within our structural model. As hinted by Hair et al. (2020), the significance of these path coefficients also enables us to validate or invalidate our hypotheses.

		Original	STDEV	T Stat	P Values	
H1	Knowledge -> Med Consump	0.029	0.052	0.553	0.580	Invalidated
H2	Knowledge -> WOM	0.004	0.053	0.069	0.945	Invalidated
H3	Aff Attitude -> Med Consump	0.168	0.060	2.797	0.005	Validated
H4	Aff Attitude -> WOM	-0.128	0.058	2.214	0.027	Invalidated
H5	Soc Norms -> Med Consump	0.174	0.066	2.630	0.009	Validated
H6	Soc Norms -> WOM	0.098	0.076	1.302	0.193	Invalidated
H7	Lack of Interest from the others -> Med Consump	0.066	0.043	1.536	0.125	Invalidated
H8	Lack of Interest from the others -> WOM	0.105	0.057	1.844	0.065	Invalidated
H9	Sport ent Alt -> Med Consump	0.051	0.081	0.624	0.533	Invalidated
H10	Sport ent Alt -> WOM	-0.201	0.089	2.247	0.025	Validated
H11	Past Behav -> Med Consump	-0.138	0.064	2.153	0.031	Invalidated
H12	Past Behav -> WOM	0.065	0.074	0.879	0.379	Invalidated
H13	Past Behav -> Knowledge	0.221	0.056	3.948	0.000	Validated
H14	Past Behav -> RS	-0.047	0.055	0.844	0.399	Invalidated
H15	RS -> Knowledge	0.109	0.046	2.358	0.019	Validated
H16	RS -> Med Consump	0.052	0.052	1.005	0.315	Invalidated
H17	RS -> WOM	0.079	0.051	1.567	0.117	Invalidated
H18	Media/ Pub -> RS	0.136	0.059	2.590	0.010	Validated
H19	Media/ Pub -> Knowledge	0.136	0.048	2.816	0.005	Validated
H20	Media/ Pub -> Aff Attitude	0.095	0.044	2.151	0.032	Validated
H21	Media/ Pub -> Med Consump	-0.182	0.054	3.389	0.001	Invalidated
H22	Media/ Pub -> WOM	-0.055	0.060	0.911	0.362	Invalidated
H23	Media EAT -> RS	0.049	0.051	0.927	0.354	Invalidated
H24	Media EAT -> Knowledge	0.027	0.047	0.586	0.558	Invalidated
H25	Media EAT -> Aff Attitude	0.009	0.048	0.192	0.848	Invalidated
H26	Media EAT -> Med Consump	0.030	0.052	0.581	0.561	Invalidated

H27	Media EAT -> WOM	0.141	0.057	2.463	0.014	Validated
H28	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H29	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H30	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H31	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H32	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H33	Attach Level -> RS	0.048	0.056	0.865	0.387	Invalidated
H34	Attach Level -> Knowledge	0.179	0.057	3.134	0.002	Validated
H35	Attach Level -> Aff Attitude	0.090	0.055	1.630	0.103	Invalidated
H36	Attach Level -> Med Consump	-0.032	0.052	0.609	0.543	Invalidated
H37	Attach Level -> WOM	-0.097	0.062	1.579	0.114	Invalidated
H38	Nad Id -> RS	0.279	0.058	4.778	0.000	Validated
H39	Nad Id -> Knowledge	0.106	0.051	2.084	0.037	Validated
H40	Nad Id -> Aff Attitude	0.431	0.047	9.161	0.000	Validated
H41	Nad Id -> Med Consump	0.207	0.057	3.612	0.000	Validated
H42	Nad Id -> WOM	-0.103	0.059	1.755	0.079	Invalidated

Table 71 Path coefficients for direct relations between independent and dependent variables within our structural model in France

c. Specific Indirect Path Effects

Table 72 below presents the specific indirect effects within our structural model. The significance (p value) of these effects also enables us to validate or invalidate our hypotheses of mediation.

	Mediation hypotheses	Original	Mean	STDEV	T Stat	P Values	Status
H46	Past Behav -> Knowledge -> Med Consump	0.006	0.006	0.012	0.523	0.601	Invalidated
H47	Past Behav -> Knowledge -> WOM	0.001	0.000	0.012	0.067	0.947	Invalidated
H48	RS-> Knowledge -> Med Consump	0.004	0.004	0.008	0.526	0.599	Invalidated
H49	RS-> Knowledge -> WOM	0.001	0.000	0.008	0.066	0.948	Invalidated
H50	Past Behav -> RS-> Knowledge	-0.009	-0.009	0.009	0.974	0.330	Invalidated
H51	Past Behav -> RS-> Med Consump	-0.003	-0.003	0.005	0.707	0.480	Invalidated
H52	Past Behav -> RS-> WOM	-0.007	-0.007	0.007	0.919	0.358	Invalidated
H53	Media/ Pub -> RS-> Knowledge	0.014	0.015	0.010	1.361	0.174	Invalidated

H54	Media/ Pub -> RS-> Med Consump	0.006	0.005	0.007	0.869	0.385	Invalidated
H55	Media/ Pub -> RS-> WOM	0.011	0.011	0.009	1.196	0.232	Invalidated
H56	Media/ Pub -> Knowledge -> Med Consump	0.004	0.004	0.008	0.499	0.618	Invalidated
H57	Media/ Pub -> Knowledge -> WOM	0.001	-0.000	0.008	0.065	0.948	Invalidated
H58	Media/ Pub -> Aff Attitude -> Med Consump	0.016	0.016	0.009	1.687	0.092	Invalidated
H59	Media/ Pub -> Aff Attitude -> WOM	-0.012	-0.012	0.009	1.398	0.162	Invalidated
H60	Media EAT -> RS-> Knowledge	0.011	0.011	0.008	1.308	0.191	Invalidated
H61	Media EAT -> RS-> Med Consump	0.004	0.005	0.006	0.760	0.447	Invalidated
H62	Media EAT -> RS-> WOM	0.008	0.009	0.008	1.121	0.262	Invalidated
H63	Media EAT -> Knowledge -> Med Consump	0.001	0.000	0.003	0.263	0.793	Invalidated
H64	Media EAT -> Knowledge -> WOM	0.000	-0.000	0.003	0.035	0.972	Invalidated
H65	Media EAT -> Aff Attitude -> Med Consump	0.002	0.001	0.009	0.177	0.860	Invalidated
H66	Media EAT -> Aff Attitude -> WOM	-0.001	-0.001	0.007	0.172	0.864	Invalidated
H67	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H68	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H69	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H70	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H71	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H72	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H73	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H74	Nad Id -> RS-> Knowledge	0.036	0.037	0.016	2.293	0.022	Validated
H75	Nad Id -> RS-> Med Consump	0.015	0.015	0.015	1.015	0.310	Invalidated
H76	Nad Id -> RS-> WOM	0.028	0.028	0.014	1.947	0.052	Invalidated
H77	Nad Id -> Knowledge -> Med Consump	0.003	0.003	0.006	0.482	0.630	Invalidated
H78	Nad Id -> Knowledge -> WOM	0.000	-0.000	0.006	0.063	0.950	Invalidated

		Original Sample (O)		Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values	
H79	Nad Id -> Aff Attitude -> Med Consump	0.072	0.074	0.028	2.607	0.009	Validated
H80	Nad Id -> Aff Attitude -> WOM	-0.055	-0.056	0.027	2.066	0.039	Validated
H81	Attach Level -> RS-> Knowledge	0.018	0.019	0.011	1.668	0.095	Invalidated
H82	Attach Level -> RS-> Med Consump	0.007	0.008	0.008	0.912	0.362	Invalidated
H83	Attach Level -> RS-> WOM	0.014	0.015	0.010	1.462	0.144	Invalidated
H84	Attach Level -> Knowledge -> Med Consump	0.005	0.005	0.010	0.528	0.597	Invalidated
H85	Attach Level -> Knowledge -> WOM	0.001	0.000	0.010	0.066	0.947	Invalidated
H86	Attach Level -> Aff Attitude -> Med Consump	0.015	0.016	0.012	1.285	0.199	Invalidated
H87	Attach Level -> Aff Attitude -> WOM	-0.011	-0.012	0.010	1.168	0.243	Invalidated

Table 72 Specific indirect effects within our structural model in France

d. Model's Predictive Power

The Table 72 below presents the r² for each of the dependent variables.

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
Aff Attitude	0.271	0.280	0.038	7.079	0.000
Knowledge	0.318	0.330	0.037	8.686	0.000
Med Consump	0.167	0.184	0.038	4.367	0.000
RS	0.139	0.152	0.034	4.087	0.000
WOM	0.076	0.098	0.026	2.923	0.003

Table 73 r² for each of the dependent variables.

From the above, we can see that our model has a weak predictive power (r² from 0.076 to 0.318) for all its dependent variables.

e. Independent Variables Contribution to The r^2: f^2

Table 74 below presents the independent variables' contributions to the r^2 for each dependent variable.

	Aff Attitude	Knowledge	Med Consump	SR	WOM
Aff Attitude			0.022		0.012
Attach Level	0.008	**0.029**	0.001	0.002	0.006
Knowledge			0.001		0.000
Lack of Interest from the others			0.005		0.010
Media EAT	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.016
Media/ Pub	0.010	0.019	**0.026**	0.016	0.002
Nad Id	*"0.191"*	0.012	**0.031**	**0.067**	0.007
Past Behav		**0.045**	0.009	0.002	0.002
RS		**0.027**	0.003		0.011
Soc Norms			0.013		0.004
Sport ent Alt			0.001		0.011

Table 74 Independent variables' contributions to the r^2 for each dependent variable

The f^2 values in black (or in highlighted characters if printed in black on white) bespeak that the independent variables associated with them significantly contributed to the r^2 values for the prediction of the dependent variable associated to them, but with a small effect (f^2 between 0.02 and 0.15).

The f^2 in red (or in normal character if printed black on white) bespeak that the independent variable did not significantly contributed to the r^2 (f^2 lower than 0.02).

The f^2 in green (or in italics and quotation mark if printed in black on white) bespeaks that independent variables associated to them significantly contributed to the r^2 with a moderate effect (f^2 between 0.15 and 0.35)

f. Predictive Relevance

Table 75 below present the Q2 for the prediction of each dependent variable.

	SSO	SSE	Q^2 (=1-SSE/SSO)
Aff Attitude	1422.000	1092.666	0.232
Knowledge	1422.000	1055.360	0.258
Med Consump	1422.000	1229.087	0.136
RS	2370.000	2183.136	0.079

WOM		1422.000	1351.132	0.050			

Table 75 Q2 for the prediction of each dependent variable

When reading this table with Hair et al.'s (2020) eyes and considering their thresholds, we can conclude that for the dependent variables "Affective Attitude", "Media Consumption", "Social Representation", and "WOM", the predictive relevance is small, while for the dependent variable "Knowledge", the predictive relevance is moderate.

g. Predictive accuracy

The table 76 below presents for each dependent variable, the prediction accuracy of our model in France.

Q_2 predict

	RMSE (in sample)	Q²_predict (in sample)	RMSE (out – of – sample)	Q²_predict (out- of (sample)	Q2 Level	RMSE difference in vs out sample	PREDICTIVE accuracy
Aff Attitude 2	1.344	0.239	1.345	0.238	Small	Negative	
Aff Attitude 3	1.341	0.206	1.320	0.231	Small	Negative	
Aff Attitude 1	1.261	0.214	1.209	0.278	Medium	Negative	Small
knowledge 1	1.623	0.210	1.661	0.173	Small	Negative	
knowledge 3	1.594	0.256	1.641	0.211	Small	Negative	
knowledge 2	1.625	0.234	1.667	0.193	Small	Negative	Small
Med Consump 1	1.115	0.118	1.117	0.115	Small	Negative	
Med Consump 3	1.208	0.085	1.221	0.066	Small	Negative	
Med Consump 2	1.151	0.097	1.167	0.072	Small	Negative	Small
RS7	1.799	0.070	1.831	0.036	Small	Negative	
RS10	1.664	0.070	1.668	0.065	Small	Positive	
RS8	1.709	0.054	1.774	-0.019	Null	Negative	
RS6	1.598	0.049	1.606	0.039	Small	Negative	Small

RS12	1.495	0.084	1.512	0.063	Small	Negative	
WOM 3	1.742	0.009	1.792	-0.049	Null	Negative	
WOM 2	1.869	0.032	1.875	0.026	Small	Negative	
WOM 1	1.910	0.016	1.946	-0.021	Null	Negative	Null

Table 76 predictive accuracy of our model in France

From the table below, and Hair et al.'s (2020) guidelines, we can say that our model's predictive accuracy is nil for the dependent variable "WOM" and small for all the other dependent variables.

h. Determination of the best predictors of (positive) Paralympic sport media consumption in France.

The figure 66 below presents the IPMA of the predictors of Paralympic sport media consumption in France.
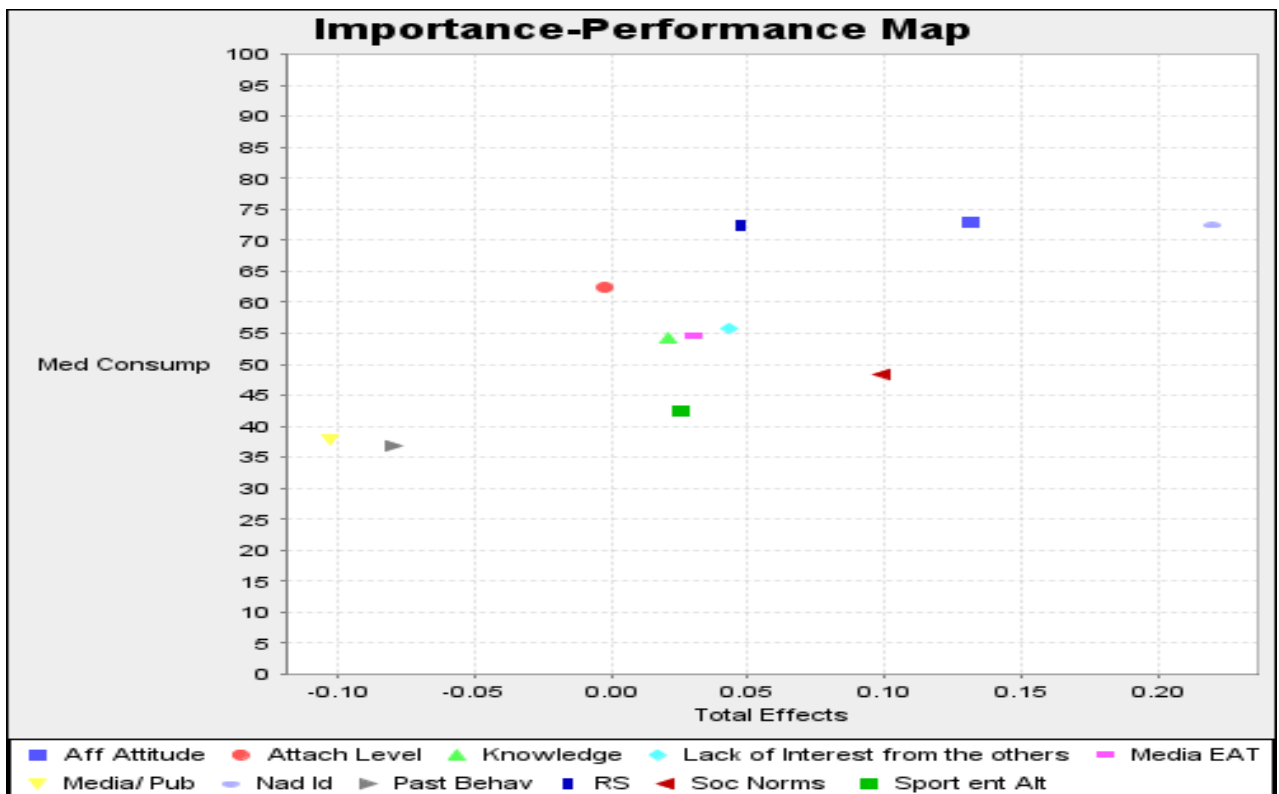
Figure 66 IPMA of our structural model in France

From this figure, it seems that that the best predictors of Paralympic sport in France, that is, those with the best total effect (importance), and the best measurability (Performance) are from top down, (1) national identity, (2) affective attitude, and (3) social norms.

As the Paralympic sport' social representation in France had no significant influence on Paralympic sport media consumption behaviour, we did not deem useful to run an IPMA on it to see which of its item(s) best predicted the media consumption behaviour.

3.2.3 Analysis of moderations with categorial variables.

The analysis of our model's compositional invariance (see the subtitle e from the title 3.2.1.2 of this chapter) showed the partial invariance of our structural model according to the sport follower divide (step 1 and 2 of Micom validated but step 3a or 3b not validated), which qualifies our structural model for an MGA according to the sport follower status, which would also allow us to determine the heterogeneity status of all its predicates.

Heterogeneity According to the Sport Follower Status.

Table 77 below presents the MGA of the relationships between independent and dependent variables according to the sport heterogeneity status divide, along with the heterogeneity status entailed.

		Path Coef (Yes)	Path Coef (No)	p-Value (Yes)	p value (No)	Heterogeneity
H1	Knowledge -> Med Consump	0.040	-0.023	0.517	0.828	Invalidated
H2	Knowledge -> WOM	-0.032	0.115	0.619	0.276	Invalidated
H3	Aff Attitude -> Med Consump	0.199	0.110	0.006	0.312	Validated
H4	Aff Attitude -> WOM	-0.125	-0.125	0.058	0.292	Invalidated
H5	Soc Norms -> Med Consump	0.158	0.227	0.074	0.065	Invalidated
H6	Soc Norms -> WOM	0.111	-0.012	0.199	0.932	Invalidated
H7	Lack of Interest from the others -> Med Consump	0.046	0.097	0.298	0.310	Invalidated
H8	Lack of Interest from the others -> WOM	0.110	0.072	0.078	0.632	Invalidated
H9	Sport ent Alt -> Med Consump	-0.004	0.119	0.968	0.391	Invalidated
H10	Sport ent Alt -> WOM	-0.175	-0.266	0.065	0.114	Invalidated
H11	Past Behav -> Med Consump	-0.114	-0.194	0.096	0.122	Invalidated
H12	Past Behav -> WOM	0.043	0.150	0.587	0.335	Invalidated
H13	Past Behav -> Knowledge	0.186	0.292	0.003	0.006	Invalidated

H14	Past Behav -> RS	-0.067	-0.059	0.269	0.613	Invalidated
H15	RS -> Knowledge	0.132	0.165	0.035	0.098	Validated
H16	RS -> Med Consump	0.017	0.095	0.773	0.460	Invalidated
H17	RS -> WOM	0.114	0.112	0.074	0.276	Invalidated
H18	Media/ Pub -> RS	0.156	-0.020	0.013	0.872	Validated
H19	Media/ Pub -> Knowledge	0.147	0.093	0.007	0.375	Validated
H20	Media/ Pub -> Aff Attitude	0.117	-0.015	0.024	0.853	Validated
H21	Media/ Pub -> Med Consump	-0.178	-0.171	0.007	0.041	Invalidated
H22	Media/ Pub -> WOM	-0.024	-0.098	0.730	0.369	Invalidated
H23	Media EAT -> RS	0.044	0.174	0.432	0.136	Invalidated
H24	Media EAT -> Knowledge	0.038	0.010	0.507	0.905	Invalidated
H25	Media EAT -> Aff Attitude	0.017	-0.002	0.787	0.976	Invalidated
H26	Media EAT -> Med Consump	-0.017	0.120	0.775	0.232	Invalidated
H27	Media EAT -> WOM	0.204	-0.030	0.001	0.813	Validated
H28	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H29	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H30	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H31	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H32	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H33	Attach Level -> RS	0.267	0.002	0.000	0.983	Validated
H34	Attach Level -> Knowledge	0.141	0.226	0.021	0.041	Invalidated
H35	Attach Level -> Aff Attitude	0.007	0.110	0.915	0.243	Invalidated
H36	Attach Level -> Med Consump	0.039	-0.076	0.529	0.382	Invalidated
H37	Attach Level -> WOM	-0.096	-0.119	0.131	0.248	Invalidated
H38	Nad Id -> RS	0.227	0.232	0.000	0.033	Invalidated
H39	Nad Id -> Knowledge	0.174	-0.012	0.004	0.896	Validated
H40	Nad Id -> Aff Attitude	0.416	0.466	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H41	Nad Id -> Med Consump	0.248	0.088	0.000	0.399	Validated
H42	Nad Id -> WOM	-0.097	-0.046	0.148	0.686	Validated

Table 77 MGA of the relationships between independent and dependent variables according to the sport heterogeneity status divide

3.3 Cameroon-Specific Results

3.3.1 Assessment of the measurement model

3.3.1.1 Verification of the Formativity of the Social Representation

Unlike what the selection of social representation's items let us assume, The CTA (Gudergan et al., 2008; Hair et al., 2018) rather shown that the construct social representation is reflexive.

The table 78 below presents the results of the CTA of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon.

SR	P Values	Bias	CI Low adj.	CI Up adj.
1: RS1,RS10,RS11,RS12	0.685	-0.000	-0.564	0.719
2: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS11	0.742	-0.003	-0.604	0.741
4: RS1,RS10,RS11,RS13	0.591	-0.005	-0.668	0.494
6: RS1,RS11,RS13,RS10	0.966	-0.004	-0.751	0.777
10: RS1,RS10,RS11,RS3	0.453	-0.001	-0.736	0.470
13: RS1,RS10,RS11,RS4	0.338	-0.000	-0.789	0.441
17: RS1,RS10,RS5,RS11	0.815	0.003	-0.733	0.836
20: RS1,RS10,RS6,RS11	0.018	0.012	-1.247	0.204
24: RS1,RS11,RS7,RS10	0.928	-0.000	-0.718	0.757
26: RS1,RS10,RS8,RS11	0.682	-0.011	-0.646	0.848
27: RS1,RS11,RS8,RS10	0.854	-0.011	-0.656	0.754
28: RS1,RS10,RS11,RS9	0.205	-0.001	-0.979	0.447
31: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS13	0.025	0.000	-0.976	0.196
37: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS3	0.680	-0.000	-0.544	0.694
43: RS1,RS10,RS12,RS5	0.083	-0.001	-0.325	1.014
47: RS1,RS10,RS6,RS12	0.142	0.010	-1.091	0.416
59: RS1,RS10,RS2,RS13	0.714	0.006	-0.803	0.635
62: RS1,RS10,RS3,RS13	0.532	0.007	-0.707	1.009
66: RS1,RS13,RS4,RS10	0.183	0.005	-0.912	0.389
68: RS1,RS10,RS5,RS13	0.684	-0.007	-0.762	0.611
76: RS1,RS10,RS13,RS8	0.281	-0.005	-1.002	0.525
84: RS1,RS2,RS3,RS10	0.794	0.006	-0.854	0.721
86: RS1,RS10,RS4,RS2	0.682	-0.002	-0.799	0.629
88: RS1,RS10,RS2,RS5	0.876	-0.005	-0.704	0.783
92: RS1,RS10,RS6,RS2	0.999	0.007	-0.710	0.697
97: RS1,RS10,RS2,RS8	0.008	0.001	-1.652	0.190
102: RS1,RS2,RS9,RS10	0.000	0.001	0.122	2.003

105: RS1,RS3,RS4,RS10	0.955	-0.003	-0.668	0.696
110: RS1,RS10,RS6,RS3	0.214	0.001	-1.010	0.465
171: RS1,RS12,RS2,RS11	0.001	0.001	-1.708	0.006
214: RS1,RS11,RS13,RS9	0.479	-0.019	-0.864	0.596
231: RS1,RS2,RS7,RS11	0.021	0.001	-0.245	1.309
247: RS1,RS11,RS3,RS7	0.712	0.012	-0.909	0.708
290: RS1,RS11,RS9,RS6	0.017	-0.011	-0.185	1.156
308: RS1,RS12,RS4,RS13	0.324	0.008	-0.517	0.921
333: RS1,RS2,RS5,RS12	0.005	0.006	-0.145	1.491
337: RS1,RS12,RS2,RS7	0.045	-0.006	-1.477	0.383
343: RS1,RS12,RS2,RS9	0.009	0.000	-1.376	0.176
350: RS1,RS12,RS5,RS3	0.008	-0.006	-0.148	1.330
363: RS1,RS3,RS9,RS12	0.018	-0.005	-0.205	1.193
376: RS1,RS12,RS4,RS9	0.708	0.000	-0.924	0.740
377: RS1,RS12,RS9,RS4	0.025	-0.001	-0.240	1.192
410: RS1,RS13,RS3,RS2	0.359	0.001	-0.915	0.523
430: RS1,RS13,RS3,RS4	0.614	-0.009	-0.748	1.030
454: RS1,RS13,RS4,RS7	0.960	0.009	-0.686	0.647
458: RS1,RS13,RS8,RS4	0.822	-0.011	-0.822	0.740
479: RS1,RS13,RS8,RS6	0.160	0.012	-0.464	1.084
484: RS1,RS13,RS7,RS8	0.246	0.004	-0.526	1.065
504: RS1,RS3,RS7,RS2	0.414	-0.010	-0.558	0.939
535: RS1,RS2,RS5,RS9	0.000	-0.003	0.351	2.279
565: RS1,RS3,RS4,RS8	0.127	-0.008	-0.365	0.995
609: RS1,RS5,RS8,RS4	0.031	-0.010	-1.243	0.287
626: RS1,RS4,RS9,RS7	0.000	-0.003	0.296	1.929
636: RS1,RS6,RS8,RS5	0.748	-0.014	-0.665	0.836
640: RS1,RS5,RS7,RS8	0.131	-0.001	-0.368	0.967
741: RS10,RS3,RS6,RS11	0.900	0.010	-0.717	0.647
775: RS10,RS11,RS5,RS9	0.001	-0.009	0.031	1.716
793: RS10,RS11,RS8,RS9	0.450	-0.000	-0.754	0.479
1037: RS10,RS2,RS8,RS6	0.137	0.009	-1.030	0.388
1078: RS10,RS3,RS6,RS7	0.064	-0.001	-1.211	0.355
1238: RS11,RS12,RS7,RS5	0.003	-0.000	-0.078	1.283
1306: RS11,RS13,RS4,RS6	0.124	0.001	-0.254	0.675
1373: RS11,RS2,RS7,RS4	0.065	0.002	-1.099	0.320
1425: RS11,RS4,RS9,RS3	0.001	-0.004	-1.547	-0.015
1700: RS12,RS3,RS8,RS7	0.568	-0.016	-0.879	0.652

Table 78 CTA of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon

The fact that more than 80% of the CI low are of a different sign with their corresponding CI up means that the construct social representation in Cameroon is rather a reflexive construct (Wong, 2019).

This unexpected situation prompted us to assess the dimensionality of the social representation in France through an EFA, confirmed by a Principal Component Analysis

(PCA). PCA are commonly used in marketing to confirm factors composing a scale (cf. Evrad, Pras, and Roux, 2009; Tanoh, 2021).

The use of the software Jamovi for our EFA and PCA allow us to identify 2 dimensions composing the construct social representation in France composed of only 4+2 =6 items that loaded above 0.65 , and satisfied Barlett and KMO tests.

The tables 79 presents these results.

	Factors		KMO test
	1	2	
RS1			0.884
RS3		0.761	0.840
RS4			0.856
RS5			0.889
RS7	0.716		0.875
RS8	0.775		0.864
RS9			0.864
RS11	0.767		0.851
RS12	0.740		0.890
RS13		0.665	0.817
Bartlett test			
χ^2	**ddl**		**p**
2004	45		< .001

Table 79 Factors loadings, KMO and Bartlett tests results for the social representation of Paralympic sport in Cameroon

From the above, we can conclude that the most important items of the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany are RS3 (types of impairment), RS7 (modern values), RS8 (societal values), RS11 (post-modern values), RS12(supercrip), RS13 (marginalisation).

These items are reflexively organised into two dimensions, namely RS DIM1 composed of the items RS3 and RS13, and RS DIM2 composed of the items RS7, RS8, RS11 and RS12.

3.3.1.2 Reflective Model Assessment

a. Indicator Loadings

Table 80 below presents the constructs' loadings along with their mean values, standard deviations, t-statistics and p values.

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
Aff Attitude 1 <- Affective Attitude	0.871	0.871	0.011	80.276	0.000
Aff Attitude 2 <- Affective Attitude	0.870	0.869	0.014	60.910	0.000
Aff Attitude 3 <- Affective Attitude	0.830	0.828	0.017	47.510	0.000
Attach com 1 <- Attach Com	0.795	0.795	0.018	43.284	0.000
Attach com 2 <- Attach Com	0.683	0.683	0.031	22.210	0.000
Attach com 3 <- Attach Com	0.745	0.745	0.024	30.487	0.000
Attach level 1 <- Attach Level	0.812	0.811	0.016	49.335	0.000
Attach level 2 <- Attach Level	0.821	0.821	0.016	52.455	0.000
Attach level 3 <- Attach Level	0.824	0.823	0.016	51.464	0.000
Future Behav 1 <- Future Behaviours	0.825	0.825	0.013	65.640	0.000
Future Behav 2 <- Future Behaviours	0.855	0.854	0.012	72.057	0.000
Future Behav 3 <- Future Behaviours	0.844	0.843	0.015	57.515	0.000
Lack of Int from other 1 <- Lack from Int from others	0.818	0.817	0.021	38.398	0.000
Lack of Int from other 2 <- Lack from Int from others	0.850	0.850	0.016	51.569	0.000
Lack of Int from other 3 <- Lack from Int from others	0.845	0.844	0.017	50.144	0.000
Med Consump 1 <- Media Consump	0.833	0.832	0.014	59.665	0.000
Med Consump 2 <- Media Consump	0.879	0.879	0.009	96.029	0.000
Med Consump 3 <- Media Consump	0.853	0.854	0.012	72.093	0.000
Media / Pub 1 <- Media/ Pub	0.783	0.782	0.018	43.118	0.000
Media / Pub 2 <- Media/ Pub	0.849	0.849	0.013	65.764	0.000
Media / Pub 3 <- Media/ Pub	0.849	0.848	0.013	66.908	0.000
Media EAT 1 <- Media EAT	0.819	0.819	0.016	52.361	0.000
Media EAT 2 <- Media EAT	0.768	0.768	0.023	33.535	0.000
Media EAT 3 <- Media EAT	0.735	0.736	0.024	30.738	0.000
Nat Id 1 <- Nat ID	0.851	0.851	0.014	60.556	0.000
Nat Id 2 <- Nat ID	0.833	0.834	0.015	55.471	0.000
Nat Id 3 <- Nat ID	0.784	0.783	0.018	43.501	0.000
Past behav 1 <- Past Behaviours	0.854	0.854	0.013	67.832	0.000
Past behav 2 <- Past Behaviours	0.881	0.880	0.010	86.173	0.000

Past behav 3 <- Past Behaviours	0.889	0.889	0.009	95.574	0.000
Soc Norms 1 <- Soc Norms	0.841	0.840	0.016	52.721	0.000
Soc Norms 2 <- Soc Norms	0.859	0.859	0.014	59.428	0.000
Soc Norms 3 <- Soc Norms	0.807	0.807	0.021	38.080	0.000
WOM 1 <- WOM	0.857	0.858	0.012	74.310	0.000
WOM 2 <- WOM	0.877	0.876	0.010	84.745	0.000
WOM 3 <- WOM	0.854	0.854	0.013	66.529	0.000
knowledge 1 <- Knowledge	0.820	0.819	0.016	52.583	0.000
knowledge 2 <- Knowledge	0.867	0.867	0.012	71.677	0.000
knowledge 3 <- Knowledge	0.847	0.847	0.014	62.007	0.000
sport Ent Alt 1 <- Sport Ent Alt	0.751	0.750	0.024	31.774	0.000
sport Ent Alt 2 <- Sport Ent Alt	0.848	0.848	0.013	67.249	0.000
sport Ent Alt 3 <- Sport Ent Alt	0.814	0.813	0.017	48.168	0.000
RS11 <- RSDIM 2	0.789	0.789	0.017	45.087	0.000
RS12 <- RSDIM2	0.767	0.769	0.019	41.298	0.000
RS13 <- RSDIM 1	0.605	0.595	0.060	9.999	0.000
RS3 <- RSDIM 1	0.891	0.893	0.023	38.773	0.000
RS7 <- RSDIM 2	0.750	0.750	0.019	39.799	0.000
RS8 <- RSDIM 2	0.775	0.775	0.018	42.182	0.000

Table 80 Constructs' loadings along with their mean values

Apart from the indicator "Attachment to the Community 2", which loaded 0.683, and "RS13" which loaded 0.605, all the other indicators from the reflective constructs loaded above Hair et al.'s (2020) recommended threshold (0.708<loadings with 1.96< t-statistics and p value<0.05).

As the construct "Attachment to the Community" is only formed of three indicators, we decided not to delete it yet, but to observe how it would behave during the upcoming assessment steps.

b. Composite Reliability and Convergent Validity

Table 81 below presents for each construct the Aphas, Rho A, CR and AVE.

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	CR	AVE
Affective Attitude	0.821	0.832	0.893	0.735
Attach Com	0.591	0.596	0.786	0.551
Attach Level	0.755	0.755	0.859	0.671
Future Behaviours	0.794	0.795	0.879	0.709
Knowledge	0.799	0.801	0.882	0.714
Lack from Int from others	0.788	0.790	0.876	0.702
Media Consump	0.817	0.817	0.891	0.732

Media EAT	0.667	0.673	0.818	0.600
Media/ Pub	0.768	0.768	0.867	0.684
Nat ID	0.761	0.764	0.863	0.677
Past Behaviours	0.847	0.847	0.907	0.765
Soc Norms	0.784	0.788	0.874	0.698
Sport Ent Alt	0.727	0.730	0.847	0.648
WOM	0.829	0.829	0.897	0.745
RSDIM1	0.300	0.356	0.727	0.579
RSDIM2	0.772	0.772	0.854	0.594

Table 81 Aphas, Rho A, CR and AVE.

The constructs "Attachment to the Community", "Media Attention, Exposure and Trust" and "RSDIM1"are below the Alpha threshold suggested by Hair et al. (2020) (0.70< α & and CR < 0.95), with respectively 0.591, 0.667 and 0.300. Apart from these constructs, all the others satisfied Hair et al.'s (2020) requirements and Alpha thresholds. All the constructs, including the latter ones, satisfied Hair et al.'s (2020) requirements of CR and AVE. Therefore, we decided to delete the constructs "Attachment to the Community", "Media Attention, Exposure and Trust" and RSDIM1. As for the construct "National Identity", we decided to keep it in our model (for the moment) as, although the outer loading of its third item was slightly below Hair et al.'s (2020) threshold, the whole construct satisfied the Cronbach Alpha, CR, and AVE requirements.

For the next analyses, the construct RS (social representation) was solely composed the dimension RSDIM2

c. Discriminant Validity

Table 82 below presents the HTMT associate of each pair of constructs.

	Affective Att	Attach Level	Knowledge	Lack from Int	Media Consu	Media/ Pub	Nat ID	Past Behavic	RS	Soc Norms	Sport Ent Alt
Affective Attitude											
Attach Level	0.349										
Knowledge	0.235	0.532									
Lack from Int	0.089	0.135	0.293								
Media Consu	0.323	0.492	0.633	0.342							
Media/ Pub	0.160	0.449	0.494	0.295	0.631						
Nat ID	0.393	0.593	0.213	0.115	0.249	0.261					
Past Behavic	0.334	0.488	0.579	0.341	0.840	0.602	0.236				
RS	0.371	0.424	0.163	0.052	0.139	0.137	0.700	0.145			
Soc Norms	0.439	0.425	0.252	0.170	0.301	0.264	0.508	0.341	0.486		
Sport Ent Alt	0.308	0.486	0.433	0.432	0.520	0.405	0.471	0.504	0.256	0.563	
WOM	0.388	0.592	0.349	0.161	0.475	0.446	0.603	0.445	0.507	0.501	0.521

Table 82 HTMT associate of each pair of constructs.

Having deleted the constructs "Attachment to the Community" and "Media Exposure, Attention and Trust" from our overall model, all the remaining constructs satisfied Hair et al.'s (2020) requirements regarding the HTMT (HTMT < 0.85), thereby confirming their discriminant validity.

d. Nomological validity

	Future Behaviours
Affective Attitude	0.279
Attach Level	0.333
Future Behaviours	1.000
Knowledge	0.482
Lack from Int from others	0.257
Media Consump	0.635
Media/ Pub	0.515
Nat ID	0.115
Past Behaviours	0.735
RS	0.062
Soc Norms	0.252
Sport Ent Alt	0.393
WOM	0.346

Table 83 Nomological validity

Apart from the constructs "Lack of Interest From Others" and "Sport Entertainment Alternatives", and "Social Rrepresentation", all the others satisfied the theoretically expected correlations with the construct "Future Behaviour" (e.g., Muncu and Barnes,

2003, Kim and Trail, 2010, 2011; Trail, 2019; Mayer and Hungenberg, 2020), thereby demonstrating a good nomological validity.

As for the constructs "Lack of Interest From Others" and "Sport Entertainment Alternatives", the fact that they correlated with the construct "Future Behaviour" in a way contrary to the theoretically expected one can be accounted for by Mayer and Hungenberg's (2020) warning that some constructs initially theorised as motivators end up proving themselves to be constraints.

With regard to the social representation, we assume that its poor correlation to the variable future behaviours could be due to the facts that we deleted a whole dimenson of it (RSDIM1), as it did not meet the Cronbach requirements recommended by Hair et al. (2020), which from structural (Abric, 1994a), and socio-dynamic (Doise, 1993) perspepctives could explain that the relationships theoretically expected between the original representation and future behaviours do not apply to the new representation (the one satisfying psychometric properties).

We therefore decided to keep all the constructs of our model (apart from "Attachment to the Community" and "Media Exposure, Attention and Trust", which were deleted during the previous assessment step) for the following steps of our reflective model assessment.

e. Predictive validity

Tables 84 to 88 respectively present the MICOM (step 2) "According to Gender" (men vs women), "Sport Follower Status" (Yes followers vs No non-followers), "Proximity to Disability" (yes vs no), "Proximity to Sport Venues" (yes vs no), and "Sport Level" (Yes practitioners vs No non-practitioners).

MICOM According to Gender (Men Vs Women)

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Affective Attitude	0.998	0.999	0.998	0.129
Attach Level	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.488
Knowledge	0.999	0.999	0.998	0.290
Lack from Int from others	0.999	0.997	0.991	0.665
Media Consump	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.739
Media/ Pub	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.920
Nat ID	0.999	0.999	0.998	0.130
Past Behaviours	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.982

RS	0.999	0.999	0.997	0.0580
Soc Norms	1.000	0.999	0.996	0.781
Sport Ent Alt	0.999	0.999	0.995	0.358
WOM	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.978

Table 84 MICOM According to Gender (Men Vs Women)

MICOM according to sport follower Status (Yes vs No)

	Original	Mean	5.0%	p-Values
Affective Attitude	0.999	0.999	0.996	0.470
Attach Level	0.998	0.999	0.997	0.183
Knowledge	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.567
Lack from Int from others	0.995	0.995	0.985	0.283
Media Consump	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.755
Media/ Pub	0.999	0.999	0.996	0.434
Nat ID	1.000	0.999	0.997	0.783
Past Behaviours	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.986
SR	0.999	0.998	0.995	0.840
Soc Norms	0.999	0.998	0.994	0.692
Sport Ent Alt	0.997	0.998	0.992	0.242
WOM	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.847

Table 85 MICOM according to sport follower Status

MICOM According to Proximity to Disability (Yes Vs No)

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Affective Attitude	0.999	0.999	0.998	0.339
Attach Level	0.997	0.999	0.998	0.012
Knowledge	0.999	1.000	0.998	0.184
Lack from Int from others	0.999	0.997	0.991	0.700
Media Consump	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.085
Media/ Pub	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.845
Nat ID	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.402
Past Behaviours	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.653
SR	0.934	0.919	0.855	0.618
Soc Norms	0.997	0.999	0.996	0.125
Sport Ent Alt	0.998	0.999	0.995	0.274
WOM	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.633

Table 86 MICOM According to Proximity to Disability

MICOM According to Proximity to Sport Venues

	Original Correlation	Correlation Permutation Mean	5.0%	Permutation p-Values
Affective Attitude	0.999	0.999	0.998	0.345
Attach Level	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.935
Knowledge	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.943

Lack from Int from others	0.996	0.997	0.991	0.301
Media Consump	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.716
Media/ Pub	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.544
Nat ID	0.999	0.999	0.998	0.169
Past Behaviours	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.515
SR	0.945	0.920	0.856	0.762
Soc Norms	0.999	0.999	0.996	0.496
Sport Ent Alt	0.997	0.999	0.995	0.159
WOM	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.360

Table 87 MICOM According to Proximity to Sport Venues

MICOM According to Level of Sport Practice (Yes Practitioners Vs No Non-Practitioners)

	Original Correlation	**Correlation Permutation Mean**	**5.0%**	**Permutation p-Values**
Affective Attitude	0.998	0.999	0.998	0.125
Attach Level	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.814
Knowledge	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.626
Lack from Int from others	0.999	0.997	0.991	0.814
Media Consump	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.861
Media/ Pub	1.000	0.999	0.998	0.844
Nat ID	0.999	0.999	0.998	0.203
Past Behaviours	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.207
SR	0.935	0.918	0.852	0.651
Soc Norms	0.999	0.999	0.996	0.583
Sport Ent Alt	0.999	0.998	0.995	0.587
WOM	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.432

Table 88 MICOM According to Level of Sport Practice

When reading the MICOM (step 2) results above, and the MICOM (step 3p in appendices 57 to 60 with Hair et al. (2021) and Lorgnier et al.'s (2021) eyes, we can confirm the compositional invariance, and the partial composite invariance of our overall reflective model according to the gender, the follower status, the proximity to sport venues and the level of sport practice divides, which postulates the predictive validity of our overall reflective model provided that a further MGA be carried to analyse the heterogeneity of our results.

As a matter of fact, although there is only a partial composite invariance, and considering the fact that apart from the variables country or continent, no other moderating variable is central to our work, we can carry out analyses on these French data, and further perform an MGA to account for heterogeneities due to the moderating

variable according to which our German data were compositionally invariant as did Rasoolimanesha et al. (2017), Rasoolimanesha et al. (2020) and Tanoh (2021).

3.3.2 Assessment of the Structural Model

a. The Structural Model's Convergent Validity

Table 89 below presents the structural model's VIFs

	Affective Attitude	Knowledge	Media Consump	SR	WOM
Affective Attitude			1.265		1.248
Attach Level	1.365	1.499	1.618	1.457	1.595
Knowledge			1.480		1.474
Lack from Int from others			1.181		1.180
Media/ Pub	1.136	1.362	1.420	1.362	1.419
Nat ID	1.255	1.609	1.722	1.255	1.443
Past Behaviours		1.414	1.695	1.414	1.691
RS		1.432	1.527		
Soc Norms			1.473		1.420
Sport Ent Alt			1.543		1.541

Table 89 Structural model's VIFs

All these VIFs satisfy Hair et al.'s (2020) requirements for the structural model's convergent validity.

b. Path Coefficients

Table 90 below presents the path coefficients of the relations between the independent and dependent variables within our structural model. As hinted at by Hair et al. (2020), the significance of these path coefficients also enables us to validate or invalidate our hypotheses.

		Original	Mean	STDEV	T Stat	P Values	Status
H1	Knowledge -> Media Consump	0.170	0.169	0.032	5.360	0.000	Validated
H2	Knowledge -> WOM	-0.007	-0.009	0.036	0.184	0.427	Invalidated
H3	Affective Attitude -> Media Consump	0.063	0.062	0.025	2.488	0.006	Validated

H4	Affective Attitude -> WOM	0.070	0.070	0.032	2.192	0.014	Validated
H5	Soc Norms -> Media Consump	-0.018	-0.019	0.026	0.697	0.243	Invalidated
H6	Soc Norms -> WOM	0.096	0.095	0.036	2.645	0.004	Validated
H7	Lack from Int from others -> Media Consump	0.035	0.036	0.026	1.322	0.093	Invalidated
H8	Lack from Int from others -> WOM	-0.023	-0.022	0.031	0.726	0.234	Invalidated
H9	Sport Ent Alt -> Media Consump	0.084	0.084	0.032	2.638	0.004	Invalidated
H10	Sport Ent Alt -> WOM	0.117	0.119	0.036	3.237	0.001	Invalidated
H11	Past Behaviours -> Media Consump	0.475	0.474	0.034	13.956	0.000	Validated
H12	Past Behaviours -> WOM	0.102	0.102	0.037	2.736	0.003	Validated
H13	Past Behaviours -> Knowledge	0.307	0.307	0.035	8.838	0.000	Validated
H14	Past Behaviours -> SR	-0.007	-0.006	0.034	0.192	0.424	Invalidated
H15	RS-> Knowledge	0.017	0.016	0.034	0.510	0.305	Invalidated
H16	RS-> Media Consump	-0.050	-0.052	0.030	1.678	0.047	Invalidated
H17	RS-> WOM	0.155	0.159	0.035	4.414	0.000	Validated
H18	Media/ Pub -> SR	-0.041	-0.042	0.033	1.259	0.104	Invalidated
H19	Media/ Pub -> Knowledge	0.157	0.157	0.035	4.443	0.000	Validated
H20	Media/ Pub -> Affective Attitude	0.027	0.027	0.036	0.739	0.230	Invalidated
H21	Media/ Pub -> Media Consump	0.154	0.154	0.033	4.716	0.000	Validated
H22	Media/ Pub -> WOM	0.142	0.142	0.034	4.151	0.000	Validated
H23	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H24	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H25	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H26	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H27	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H28	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H29	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H30	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H31	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H32	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H33	Attach Level -> SR	0.118	0.120	0.040	2.974	0.002	Validated
H34	Attach Level -> Knowledge	0.248	0.247	0.037	6.674	0.000	Validated
H35	Attach Level -> Affective Attitude	0.165	0.164	0.042	3.899	0.000	Validated
H36	Attach Level -> Media Consump	0.047	0.048	0.030	1.562	0.059	Invalidated
H37	Attach Level -> WOM	0.155	0.154	0.041	3.776	0.000	Validated
H38	Nat ID -> SR	0.496	0.496	0.035	14.113	0.000	Validated
H39	Nat ID -> Knowledge	-0.071	-0.073	0.038	1.868	0.031	Invalidated

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	Hypotheses	Original	Mean	STDEV	T Stat	P Values	Status
H40	Nat ID -> Affective Attitude	0.231	0.232	0.041	5.666	0.000	Validated
H41	Nat ID -> Media Consump	0.009	0.006	0.032	0.283	0.389	Invalidated
H42	Nat ID -> WOM	0.182	0.179	0.038	4.796	0.000	Validated

Table 90 the path coefficients of the relations between the independent and dependent variables within our structural model

c. Specific Indirect Effects Path

Table 91 below presents the specific indirect effects within our structural model. The significance (p value) of these effects also enables us to validate or invalidate our hypotheses of mediation.

	Hypotheses	Original	Mean	STDEV	T Stat	P Values	Status
H46	Past Behaviours -> Knowledge -> Media Consump	0.052	0.052	0.011	4.604	0.000	Validated
H47	Past behaviours' -> Knowledge -> WOM	-0.002	-0.003	0.011	0.182	0.428	Invalidated
H48	RS-> Knowledge -> Media Consump	0.011	0.011	0.007	1.575	0.058	Invalidated
H49	RS-> Knowledge -> WOM	-0.000	-0.001	0.003	0.147	0.442	Invalidated
H50	Past behaviours -> RS-> Knowledge	0.001	0.001	0.003	0.281	0.389	Invalidated
H51	Past behaviours' -> RS-> Media Consump	-0.001	-0.001	0.002	0.310	0.378	Invalidated
H52	Past behaviours -> RS-> WOM	0.002	0.003	0.006	0.339	0.367	Invalidated
H53	Media/ Pub -> RS-> Knowledge	-0.001	-0.001	0.003	0.472	0.318	Invalidated
H54	Media/ Pub -> RS-> Media Consump	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.515	0.303	Invalidated
H55	Media/ Pub -> RS-> WOM	-0.003	-0.003	0.006	0.543	0.294	Invalidated
H56	Media/ Pub -> Knowledge -> Media Consump	0.027	0.027	0.008	3.507	0.000	Validated
H57	Media/ Pub -> Knowledge -> WOM	-0.001	-0.001	0.006	0.178	0.430	Invalidated
H58	Media/ Pub -> Affective Attitude -> Media Consump	0.002	0.002	0.003	0.653	0.257	Invalidated
H59	Media/ Pub -> Affective Attitude -> WOM	0.002	0.002	0.003	0.640	0.261	Invalidated
H60	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H61	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H62	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H63	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H64	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H65	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H66	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H67	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H68	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H69	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H70	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H71	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H72	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

H73	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H74	Nat ID -> RS-> Knowledge	0.031	0.033	0.019	1.622	0.052	Invalidated
H75	Nat ID -> RS-> Media Consump	-0.024	-0.021	0.017	1.359	0.087	Invalidated
H76	Nat ID -> RS-> WOM	0.072	0.075	0.020	3.578	0.000	Validated
H77	Nat ID -> Knowledge -> Media Consump	-0.012	-0.012	0.007	1.786	0.037	Validated
H78	Nat ID -> Knowledge -> WOM	0.000	0.001	0.003	0.158	0.437	Invalidated
H79	Nat ID -> Affective Attitude -> Media Consump	0.015	0.015	0.007	2.190	0.014	Validated
H80	Nat ID -> Affective Attitude -> WOM	0.016	0.016	0.008	1.998	0.023	Validated
H81	Attach Level -> RS-> Knowledge	0.010	0.011	0.007	1.378	0.084	Invalidated
H82	Attach Level -> RS-> Media Consump	-0.008	-0.007	0.006	1.354	0.088	Invalidated
H83	Attach Level -> RS-> WOM	0.023	0.025	0.009	2.508	0.006	Validated
H84	Attach Level -> Knowledge -> Media Consump	0.042	0.042	0.010	4.095	0.000	Validated
H85	Attach Level -> Knowledge -> WOM	-0.002	-0.002	0.009	0.181	0.428	Invalidated
H86	Attach Level -> Affective Attitude -> Media Consump	0.010	0.010	0.005	2.140	0.016	Validated
H87	Attach Level -> Affective Attitude -> WOM	0.012	0.012	0.006	1.842	0.033	Validated

Table 91 Specific indirect effects within our structural model

d. Structural Model's Predictive Power

Table 92 below presents the R^2, bespeaking the model's predictive power for each dependent variable.

	R^2	R^2 Adjusted
Affective Attitude	0.121	0.118
Knowledge	0.309	0.305
Media Consump	0.564	0.559
SR	0.302	0.299
WOM	0.418	0.411

Table 92 R^2, bespeaking the model's predictive power for each dependent variable.

From the above, we can see that the model has a weak predictive power ($r^2 = 0.121$) for the dependent variables "Affective Attitude" and a moderate predictive power for the dependent variables "Knowledge", "Media Consumption", "Social Representation" and "WOM" (r^2 from 0.309 to 0.564).

e. Independent Variables' Contribution to r^2:(f^2)

Table 93 below presents the f^2 associated with each relation between an independent variable and a dependent one.

	Affective Attitude	Knowledge	Media Consump	SR	Wom

Affective Att			0.008		0.008
Attach Level	0.024	0.061	0.005	0.029	0.027
Knowledge			0.046		0.002
Lack of Int			0.004		0.003
Media/Pub	0.002	0.028	0.040	0.002	0.026
Nat Id	0.051	0.006	0.001	*"0.297"*	0.033
Past Behaviours		0.098	*"0.309"*	0.002	0.012
SR		0.000	0.004		0.026
Soc Norms			0.002		0.012
Sport ent Alt			0.012		0.017

Table 93 f^2 associated with each relation between an independent variable and a dependent one

The f^2 values in black (or in highlighted characters if printed in black on white) bespeak that the independent variables associated with them significantly contributed to the r^2 values for the prediction of the dependent variable associated to them, but with a small effect (f^2 between 0.02 and 0.15).

The f^2 in red (or in normal character if printed black on white) bespeak that the independent variable did not significantly contributed to the r^2 (f^2 lower than 0.02).

The f^2 in green (or in italics and quotation mark if printed in black on white) bespeaks that independent variables associated to them significantly contributed to the r^2 with a moderate effect (f^2 between 0.15 and 0.35)

f. The Model's Predictive Relevance: (Q^2)

Table 94 below presents the model's predictive relevance for each of the dependent variables.

	Affective Attitude	Knowledge	Media Consump	SR	WOM
Q^2 (=1-SSE/SSO)	0.086	0.217	0.407	0.174	0.299

Table 94 Model's predictive relevance for each of the dependent variables

The reading of this table from Hair et al.'s (2020) perspective hints that our model demonstrates a moderate predictive relevance for the prediction of the dependent variables "Media Consumption" and "WOM" and a weak predictive relevance for the dependent variables "Affective Attitude", "Social Representation" and "Knowledge".

g. The Model's Predictive Accuracy (Q² Predict)

Table 95 below presents for each item the Q^2 predict (out-of-sample), along with the RMSE in- vs out-of-sample difference, and the predictive accuracy stemming from these parameters.

	In sample			Out-of-Sample					Model accuracy
	RMSE	MAPE	Q²_predict	RMSE	MAPE	Q²_predict	Q2 level	Difference in vs out	
Aff Attitude 2	1.676	46.705	0.081	1.635	44.519	0.126	Weak	Positive	
Aff Attitude 3	1.728	51.028	0.069	1.732	50.558	0.065	Weak	Negative	
Aff Attitude 1	1.614	43.737	0.099	1.583	41.407	0.133	Weak	Positive	Weak
knowledge 3	1.848	70.230	0.206	1.848	69.364	0.206	Weak	Neutral	
knowledge 2	1.764	66.776	0.233	1.764	65.498	0.233	Moderate	Neutral	
knowledge 1	1.771	63.489	0.199	1.797	63.716	0.175	Weak	Negative	Weak
Med Consump 1	1.603	62.321	0.369	1.616	62.378	0.358	Moderate	Negative	
Med Consump 3	1.607	58.994	0.393	1.629	59.397	0.376	Moderate	Negative	
Med Consump 2	1.592	58.796	0.401	1.591	58.184	0.401	Moderate	Positive	Moderate
RS11	1.507	38.285	0.219	1.491	36.650	0.236	Moderate	Positive	
RS7	1.691	50.286	0.134	1.689	49.381	0.136	Weak	Positive	
RS12	1.620	42.760	0.169	1.610	41.477	0.179	Weak	Positive	
RS8	1.637	45.173	0.164	1.627	43.907	0.175	Weak	Positive	Weak
WOM 1	1.633	49.254	0.284	1.655	49.216	0.264	Moderate	Negative	
WOM 2	1.575	45.427	0.285	1.593	45.421	0.269	Moderate	Negative	
WOM 3	1.642	50.619	0.282	1.650	49.890	0.274	Moderate	Negative	Moderate

Table 95 Q² predict (out-of-sample), along with the RMSE

The exploitation of this table with Hair et al.(2020) suggests that our model demonstrates a moderate predictive accuracy for the prediction of the dependent variables "Media Consumption" and "WOM", and a weak predictive accuracy for the dependent variables "Social Representation", "Affective Attitude" and "Knowledge".

h. Determination of the best predictors of Paralympic sport media consumption

The figure 67 below presents our model IPMA for the Cameroonian sample.
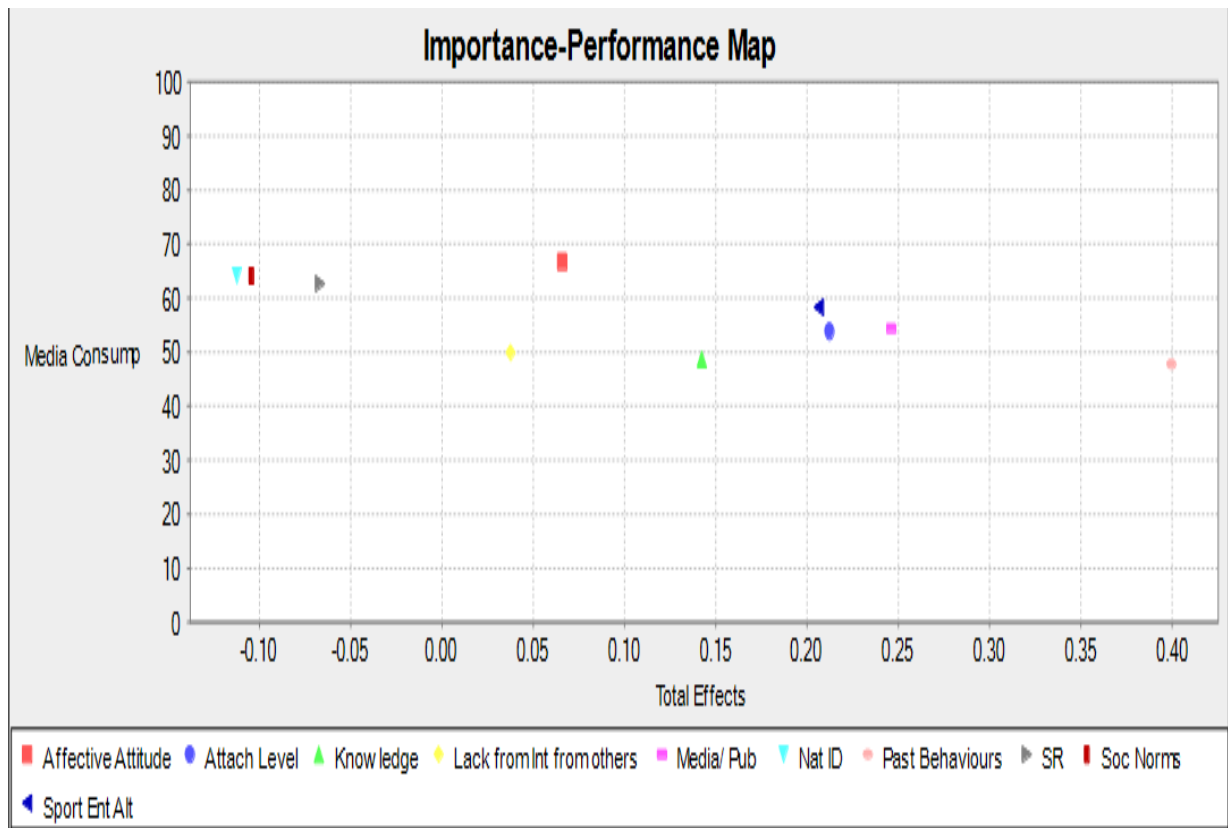
Figure 67 IPMA of our structural model in Cameroon

from this figure, the best predictors of Paralympic sport media consumption in Cameroon are from top down (1) past behaviours, (2) media publicity and (3) attachment to the level.

3.3.3 Analysis of moderations with categorial variables.

The analysis of our structural model's compositional invariance (see subtitle e of the title 3.3.1.2 of this chapter) showed that it was compositionally invariant according to the "Proximity to Sport Venues" and "Level of Practice" divides. Given the high number of variables within our structural model (13 variables), a total invariance of the measure in the sense of Rasoolimanesha et al. (2017), Rasoolimanesha et al. (2020) and Tanoh (2021) cannot be attained. We can therefore postulate the partial invariance of our structural model according to the latter divides, which qualifies our structural model for an MGA that would also let us determine the heterogeneity status of all of its predicates.

Heterogeneity According to the Proximity to Sport Venues

Table 96 below presents the MGA of relationships between independent and dependent variables according to the "Proximity to Sport Venues" divide, along with the heterogeneity status entailed.

		Path Coef Yes	Path Coef No	t-Value Yes	t-Value No	p-Value Yes	p-Value No	Heterogeneity
H1	Knowledge -> Media Consump	0.115	0.244	2.833	4.990	0.005	0.000	Invalidated
H2	Knowledge -> WOM	0.025	-0.027	0.525	0.531	0.600	0.596	Invalidated
H3	Affective Attitude -> Media Consump	0.085	0.031	2.477	0.781	0.013	0.435	Validated
H4	Affective Attitude -> WOM	0.046	0.127	1.166	2.442	0.244	0.015	Validated
H5	Soc Norms -> Media Consump	-0.012	-0.019	0.338	0.454	0.736	0.650	Invalidated
H6	Soc Norms -> WOM	0.122	0.114	2.420	2.143	0.016	0.032	Invalidated
H7	Lack from Int from others -> Media Consump	0.068	-0.008	1.849	0.197	0.064	0.844	Invalidated
H8	Lack from Int from others -> WOM	0.026	-0.087	0.623	1.795	0.533	0.073	Invalidated
H9	Sport Ent Alt -> Media Consump	0.104	0.050	2.269	1.107	0.023	0.268	Validated
H10	Sport Ent Alt -> WOM	0.135	0.108	2.592	2.012	0.010	0.044	Invalidated
H11	Past Behaviours -> Media Consump	0.480	0.460	10.270	8.937	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H12	Past Behaviours -> WOM	0.105	0.076	1.995	1.386	0.046	0.166	Validated
H13	Past Behaviours -> Knowledge	0.250	0.348	4.854	7.345	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H14	Past Behaviours -> SR	0.017	-0.005	0.271	0.066	0.786	0.947	Invalidated
H15	RS-> Knowledge	0.115	0.029	2.113	0.434	0.035	0.664	Validated
H16	RS-> Media Consump	-0.058	-0.033	1.267	0.540	0.205	0.589	Invalidated
H17	RS-> WOM	0.0132	0.0288	0.321	0.0654	0.622	0.843	Invalidated
H18	Media/ Pub -> SR	0.032	-0.036	0.506	0.593	0.613	0.553	Invalidated
H19	Media/ Pub -> Knowledge	0.176	0.127	3.529	2.520	0.000	0.012	Invalidated
H20	Media/ Pub -> Affective Attitude	0.043	-0.009	0.944	0.164	0.345	0.869	Invalidated
H21	Media/ Pub -> Media Consump	0.177	0.126	3.879	2.889	0.000	0.004	Invalidated
H22	Media/ Pub -> WOM	0.118	0.161	2.518	3.100	0.012	0.002	Invalidated
H23	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H24	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H25	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H26	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H27	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H28	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H29	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H30	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H31	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H32	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H33	Attach Level -> SR	0.111	0.207	1.753	2.949	0.080	0.003	Validated

H34	Attach Level -> Knowledge	0.248	0.235	4.633	4.331	0.000 0.000	Invalidated
H35	Attach Level -> Affective Attitude	0.149	0.157	2.508	2.657	0.012 0.008	Invalidated
H36	Attach Level -> Media Consump	0.029	0.062	0.665	1.397	0.506 0.162	Invalidated
H37	Attach Level -> WOM	0.071	0.246	1.264	4.435	0.206 0.000	Validated
H38	Nat ID -> SR	0.511	0.480	8.328	5.585	0.000 0.000	Invalidated
H39	Nat ID -> Knowledge	-0.076	-0.064	1.343	1.222	0.179 0.222	Invalidated
H40	Nat ID -> Affective Attitude	0.253	0.227	4.205	4.070	0.000 0.000	Invalidated
H41	Nat ID -> Media Consump	0.024	-0.008	0.546	0.163	0.585 0.870	Invalidated
H42	Nat ID -> WOM	0.317	0.189	6.169	3.919	0.000 0.000	Invalidated

Table 96 MGA of relationships between independent and dependent variables according to the "Proximity to Sport Venues" divide

Heterogeneity According to the Level of Sport Practice (Yes Practitioner Vs No Non-Practitioner).

		Pat Coef Yes	Pat Coef No	t-Value Yes	t-Value No	p-Value Yes	p-Value No	Heterogeneity
H1	Affective Attitude -> Media Consump	0.111	0.007	3.289	0.175	0.001	0.861	Validated
H2	Knowledge -> Media Consump	0.167	0.176	3.890	3.615	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H3	Knowledge -> WOM	-0.007	0.008	0.165	0.144	0.869	0.886	Invalidated
H4	Affective Attitude -> WOM	0.061	0.128	1.392	2.431	0.164	0.015	Validated
H5	Soc Norms -> Media Consump	-0.016	-0.022	0.450	0.565	0.653	0.572	Invalidated
H6	Soc Norms -> WOM	0.136	0.115	2.687	2.225	0.007	0.026	Invalidated
H7	Lack from Int from others -> Media Consump	0.042	0.027	1.189	0.643	0.235	0.520	Invalidated
H8	Lack from Int from others -> WOM	-0.054	0.003	1.264	0.054	0.206	0.957	Invalidated
H9	Sport Ent Alt -> Media Consump	0.069	0.106	1.773	2.013	0.076	0.044	Validated
H10	Sport Ent Alt -> WOM	0.104	0.103	2.157	1.759	0.031	0.079	Validated
H11	Past Behaviours -> Media Consump	0.466	0.491	9.960	9.708	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H12	Past Behaviours -> WOM	0.082	0.119	1.600	1.999	0.110	0.046	Validated
H13	Past Behaviours -> Knowledge	0.320	0.291	6.978	5.580	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H14	Past Behaviours -> SR	0.083	-0.034	1.224	0.529	0.221	0.597	Invalidated
H15	RS-> Knowledge	0.074	0.064	1.139	1.065	0.255	0.287	Invalidated
H16	RS-> Media Consump	-0.096	0.020	1.758	0.374	0.079	0.709	Invalidated
H17	RS-> Knowledge	0.0312	0.0218	1.243	2.019	0.059	0.68	Invalidated

H18	Media/ Pub -> SR	0.026	-0.038	0.432	0.656	0.665	0.512	Invalidated
H19	Media/ Pub -> Knowledge	0.171	0.130	3.633	2.503	0.000	0.012	Invalidated
H20	Media/ Pub -> Affective Attitude	0.081	-0.048	1.597	1.010	0.110	0.313	Invalidated
H21	Media/ Pub -> Media Consump	0.160	0.146	3.595	2.893	0.000	0.004	Invalidated
H22	Media/ Pub -> WOM	0.171	0.102	3.753	1.878	0.000	0.060	Validated
H23	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H24	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H25	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H26	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H27	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H28	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H29	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H30	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H31	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H32	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
H33	Attac Level -> SR	0.122	0.212	1.831	3.352	0.067	0.001	Invalidated
H34	Attac Level -> Knowledge	0.199	0.298	4.035	5.159	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H35	Attac Level -> Affective Attitude	0.107	0.242	1.967	3.886	0.049	0.000	Invalidated
H36	Attac Level -> Media Consump	0.056	0.037	1.433	0.755	0.152	0.450	Invalidated
H37	Attac Level -> WOM	0.180	0.152	3.527	2.286	0.000	0.022	Invalidated
H38	Nat ID -> SR	0.441	0.518	4.499	8.195	0.000	0.000	Invalidated
H39	Nat ID -> Knowledge	-0.067	-0.084	1.307	1.470	0.191	0.142	Invalidated
H40	Nat ID -> Affective Attitude	0.148	0.322	2.747	5.518	0.006	0.000	Invalidated
H41	Nat ID -> Media Consump	0.051	-0.039	1.260	0.778	0.208	0.437	Invalidated
H42	Nat ID -> WOM	0.253	0.225	5.527	3.885	0.000	0.000	Invalidated

Table 97 Heterogeneity According to the Level of Sport Practice

3.4 Synthesis

The table 98 and 99 below synthetise the results from our structural model assessment.

		Cameroon	France	Germany
H1	Knowledge -> Med Consump	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H2	Knowledge -> WOM	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H3	Aff Attitude -> Med Consump	Validated	Validated	Validated
H4	Aff Attitude -> WOM	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H5	Soc Norms -> Med Consump	Invalidated	Validated	Invalidated
H6	Soc Norms -> WOM	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H7	Lack of Interest from the others -> Med Consump	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H8	Lack of Interest from the others -> WOM	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H9	Sport ent Alt -> Med Consump	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H10	Sport ent Alt -> WOM	Invalidated	Validated	Invalidated
H11	Past Behav -> Med Consump	Validated	Invalidated	Validated
H12	Past Behav -> WOM	Validated	Invalidated	Validated
H13	Past Behav -> Knowledge	Validated	Validated	Validated
H14	Past Behav -> RS	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H15	RS -> Knowledge	Invalidated	Validated	Invalidated
H16	RS -> Med Consump	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H17	RS -> WOM	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H18	Media/ Pub -> RS	Invalidated	Validated	Invalidated
H19	Media/ Pub -> Knowledge	Validated	Validated	Invalidated
H20	Media/ Pub -> Aff Attitude	Invalidated	Validated	Invalidated
H21	Media/ Pub -> Med Consump	Validated	Invalidated	Validated
H22	Media/ Pub -> WOM	Validated	Invalidated	Validated
H23	Media EAT -> RS	N/A	Invalidated	N/A
H24	Media EAT -> Knowledge	N/A	Invalidated	N/A
H25	Media EAT -> Aff Attitude	N/A	Invalidated	N/A
H26	Media EAT -> Med Consump	N/A	Invalidated	N/A
H27	Media EAT -> WOM	N/A	Validated	N/A
H28	N/A	N/A	N/A	Validated
H29	N/A	N/A	N/A	Validated
H30	N/A	N/A	N/A	Validated
H31	N/A	N/A	N/A	Invalidated
H32	N/A	N/A	N/A	Invalidated
H33	Attach Level -> RS	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H34	Attach Level -> Knowledge	Validated	Validated	Validated
H35	Attach Level -> Aff Attitude	Validated	Invalidated	Validated
H36	Attach Level -> Med Consump	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H37	Attach Level -> WOM	Validated	Invalidated	Validated
H38	Nad Id -> RS	Validated	Validated	Validated
H39	Nad Id -> Knowledge	Invalidated	Validated	Invalidated

		Validated	Validated	Validated
H40	Nad Id -> Aff Attitude	Validated	Validated	Validated
H41	Nad Id -> Med Consump	Invalidated	Validated	Validated
H42	Nad Id -> WOM	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated

Table 98 synthesis of the country-specific direct relationships

	Relations	Cameroon	France	Germany
H46	Past Behaviour -> knowledge -> Media Consump	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H47	Past Behaviour -> knowledge -> WOM	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H48	RS -> knowledge -> Media Consump	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H49	RS -> knowledge -> WOM	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H50	Past Behaviour -> RS -> knowledge	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H51	Past Behaviour -> RS -> Media Consump	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H52	Past Behaviour -> RS -> WOM	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H53	Media / Pub -> RS -> knowledge	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H54	Media / Pub -> RS -> Media Consump	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H55	Media / Pub -> RS -> WOM	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H56	Media / Pub -> knowledge -> Media Consump	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H57	Media / Pub -> knowledge -> WOM	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H58	Media / Pub -> Affective attitude -> Media Consump	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H59	Media / Pub -> Affective attitude -> WOM	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H60	N/A	N/A	Invalidated	N/A
H61	N/A	N/A	Invalidated	N/A
H62	N/A	N/A	Invalidated	N/A
H63	N/A	N/A	Invalidated	N/A
H64	N/A	N/A	Invalidated	N/A
H65	N/A	N/A	Invalidated	N/A
H66	N/A	N/A	Invalidated	N/A
H67	Attach com -> RS -> knowledge	N/A	N/A	Invalidated
H68	Attach com -> RS -> Media Consump	N/A	N/A	Validated
H69	Attach com -> RS -> WOM	N/A	N/A	Invalidated
H70	Attach com -> knowledge -> Media Consump	N/A	N/A	Invalidated
H71	Attach com -> knowledge -> WOM	N/A	N/A	Invalidated
H72	Attach com -> Affective attitude -> Media Consump	N/A	N/A	Validated
H73	Attach com -> Affective attitude -> WOM	N/A	N/A	Invalidated
H74	Nat ID -> RS -> knowledge	Invalidated	Validated	Invalidated
H75	Nat ID -> RS -> Media Consump	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H76	Nat ID -> RS -> WOM	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H77	Nat ID -> knowledge -> Media Consump	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H78	Nat ID -> knowledge -> WOM	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H79	Nat ID -> Affective attitude -> Media Consump	Validated	Validated	Validated
H80	Nat ID -> Affective attitude -> WOM	Validated	Validated	Invalidated
H81	Attach Level -> RS -> knowledge	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated

H82	Attach Level -> RS -> Media Consump	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H83	Attach Level -> RS -> WOM	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H84	Attach Level -> knowledge -> Media Consump	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H85	Attach Level -> knowledge -> WOM	Invalidated	Invalidated	Invalidated
H86	Attach Level -> Affective attitude -> Media Consump	Validated	Invalidated	Validated
H87	Attach Level -> Affective attitude -> WOM	Validated	Invalidated	Invalidated

Table 99 synthesis of the country-specific mediation

Discussion and conclusion

Our research's results suggest two types of predictions (and non-predictions) of the Paralympic sport social representation, attitudes (affective and cognitive) and consumption behaviour (media consumption and WOM), namely transnational predictions (and non-predictions) and country-specific predictions (and non-predictions).

cross-country predictions (and non-predictions)

The affective dimension of attitude is the only transnational direct predictor of media consumption behaviour (H3). This variable (the affective dimension of attitude) is its self-predicted by national identity at a cross-country level (H40), and qualifies as total mediator of the relationship between national identity and media consumption (H79).

Another variable predicted at a cross-country level is the cognitive dimension of attitude towards Paralympic sport, which is predicted by past behaviours (H13), and attachment to the level (34).

The last variable that could be predicted at a cross-country level is the social representation, which was predicted by national identity (H38).

The figure 68 presents the part of the model that worked at a cross-country level.
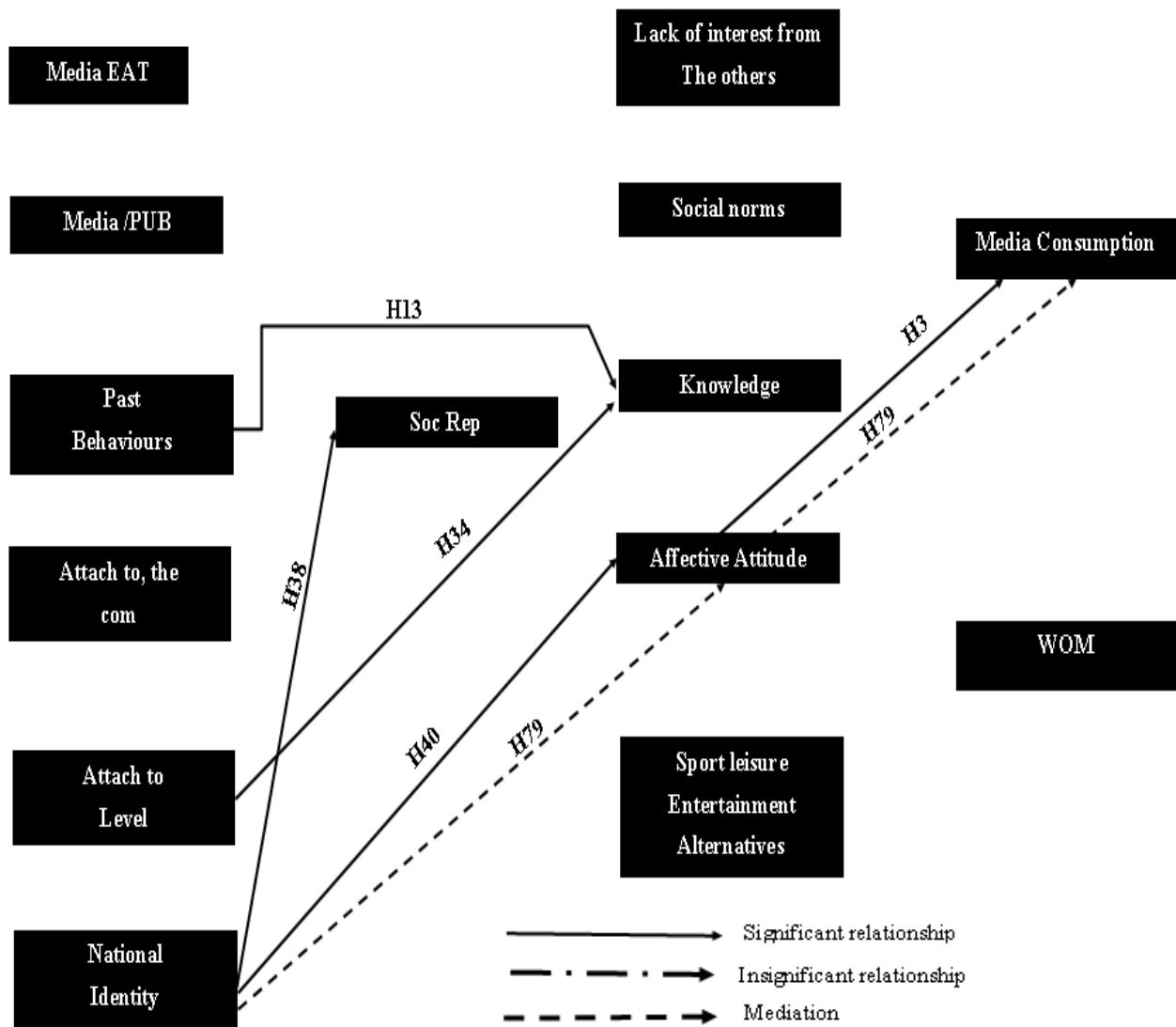
Figure 68 model with cross-country significant relationships.

Just like there were transnational predictions, there also were cross-country non-predictions. In all the three countries, Paralympic sport media consumption was never predicted by lack of interest from others (H7), sport entertainment alternatives (H9), social representation (H16), or attachment to the level (H36). In the same token, the variable WOM was never predicted by Knowledge or lack of interest from others (H8),

As for the social representation, it was never predicted by past behaviours (H14).

The figure 69 below presents the part of the model that did not work at a cross-country level.
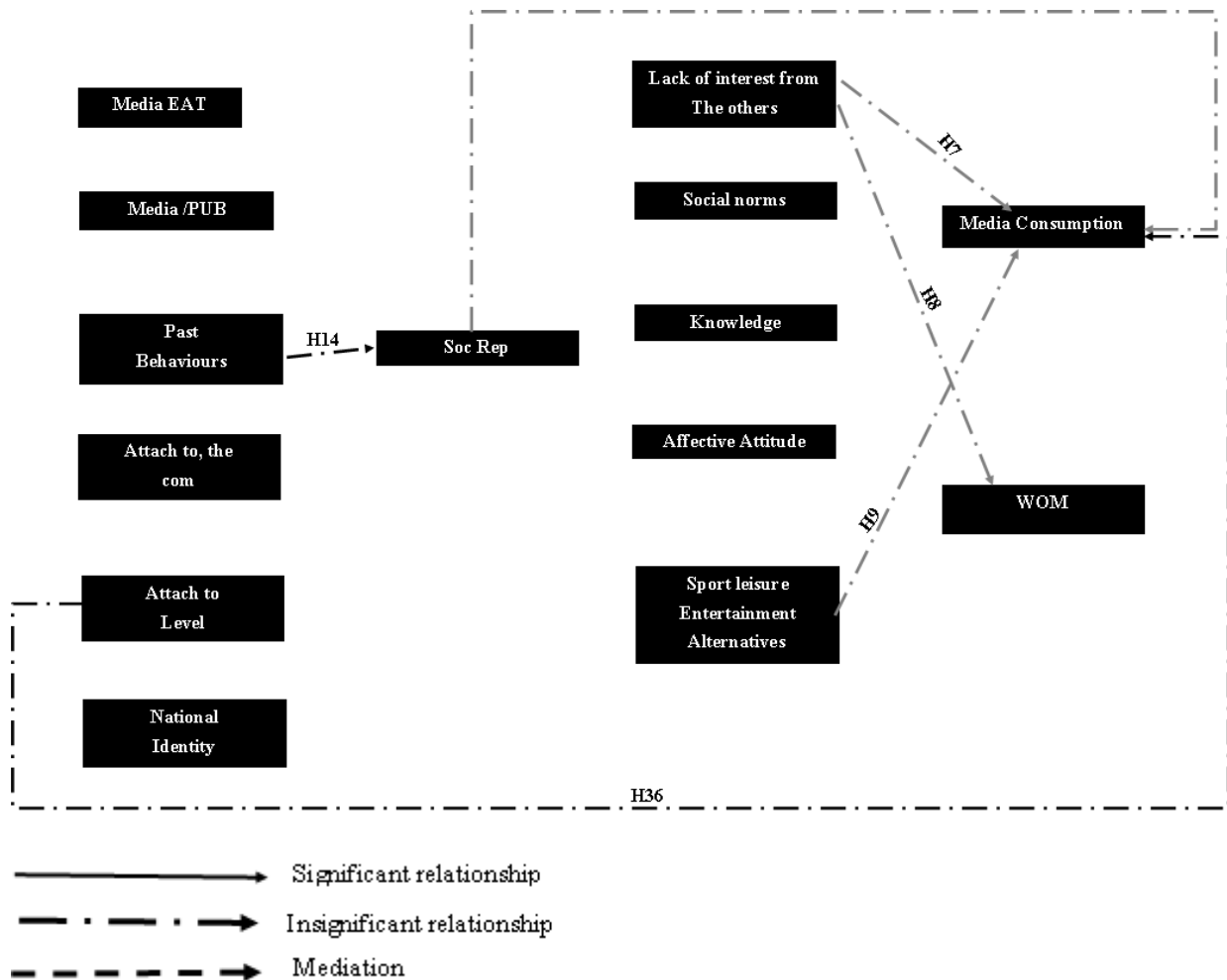
Figure 69 model with cross-country insignificant relationships

From these cross-country predictions and non-predictions, it appears that at a cross-country level:

(1)The affective dimension of attitude towards Paralympic sport is the only direct predictor of Paralympic sport media consumption. That is, the pure-affect model of sport consumption behaviour (Vakratas and Ambler, 1999; Trail, 2019, p. 48) – according to which the only predictor of sport consumption behaviour is affect (affective dimension of attitude) – applies at a cross-country level to our population. Which means that likes and dislikes about Paralympic sports are crucial in the audience decision making for Paralympic sport media consumption.

(2)People that have had past experiences with Paralympic sport, may know a bit about Paralympic sport, but this knowledge about it does not always prompt them to consume it through media. According to Trail (2000)'s model of sport consumption behaviour and Trail (2005)'s model of cognitive loyalty, this hints that they are probably

dissatisfied about the previous experiences they had with Paralympic sport, or at least that their expectations were disconfirmed through these previous experiences. Therefore, as suggested by several authors (cf. Schantz and Gilbert, 2001, 2012a, b; Gilbert and Schantz, 2008; Brittain, 2012, 2016) , efforts should be made at several levels (in the definition of the disciplines as well as in the staging of Paralympic games, and the media presentation), and by various stakeholders (organisers as well as media) to ensure that the experiences with Paralympic sport are pleasurable, that is, that audience's expectations are met.

(3)As the affectivity towards Paralympic sport totally mediates the relationship between national identity and Paralympic sport media consumption, a way for these various stakeholders to improve the affectivity towards Paralympic sport is to activate the audience's national identity in the staging, or the media depiction or reporting of the Paralympic games. A way of activating these national identities, could be to include more competitors' country-specific symbols, visual images, words, etc. (cf. Cialdini, et al., 1976; Chatman and von Hippel, 2001; Forehand and Deshpande, 2001; Hong, et al., 2000; Reed, 2002) like flags, local languages, outfits, local specialities, etc., in the staging and the media presentation of Paralympic games.

(4)The reasons for the default of Paralympic sport media consumption do not lie into the concurrence of sport leisure entertainment alternatives, or in the lack of interest from other people as suggested by Trail et al. (2008) and Kim and Trail (2010, 2011), but rather in its inability, or at least its media depiction or presentation inability, to whet audiences' affectivity.

(5) Paralympic sport seems to present a unique case, of a social object whose social representations seem to be detached from past and future practices, which disconfirms Abric (1994b)'s work on the mutual dependence between social representations and practices.

(6) Attachment to the level which was amply theorised in sport contexts as a motive for sport media or on-site consumption (Robinson and trail, 2002; Kim and Trail, 2010, 2011), was not pertinent in any of three countries we studied. This might suggest that this variable does not apply to the disability-sport context.

The country -specific predictions

Apart from the transnational predictions (or non-predictions) presented above along with their implications, some other predictions (or non-predictions) only applied to one or two of the three countries in which we carried our investigation out.

France

In the instance of France, apart from the predictions (or non-predictions) mentioned above (those valid at a cross-country level), Paralympic sport media consumption was predicted by social norms (H5), and national identity (H41). The WOM was predicted by sport entertainment alternative (H10) and media EAT (H27).

As for attitudinal constructs, the affective dimension was predicted by media/pub (H20), while the cognitive dimension (knowledge) was predicted by media/pub (H19) and national identity (H39). With regard to the social representation of Paralympic sport in France, it was predicted by media/pub (H18).

In terms of mediation, affective attitude mediated the relation between national identity and WOM (H80), just as social representation mediated the relationship between national identity and knowledge (H74)

The figure 70 presents the part of the model that applied to France, apart from the cross-country model.
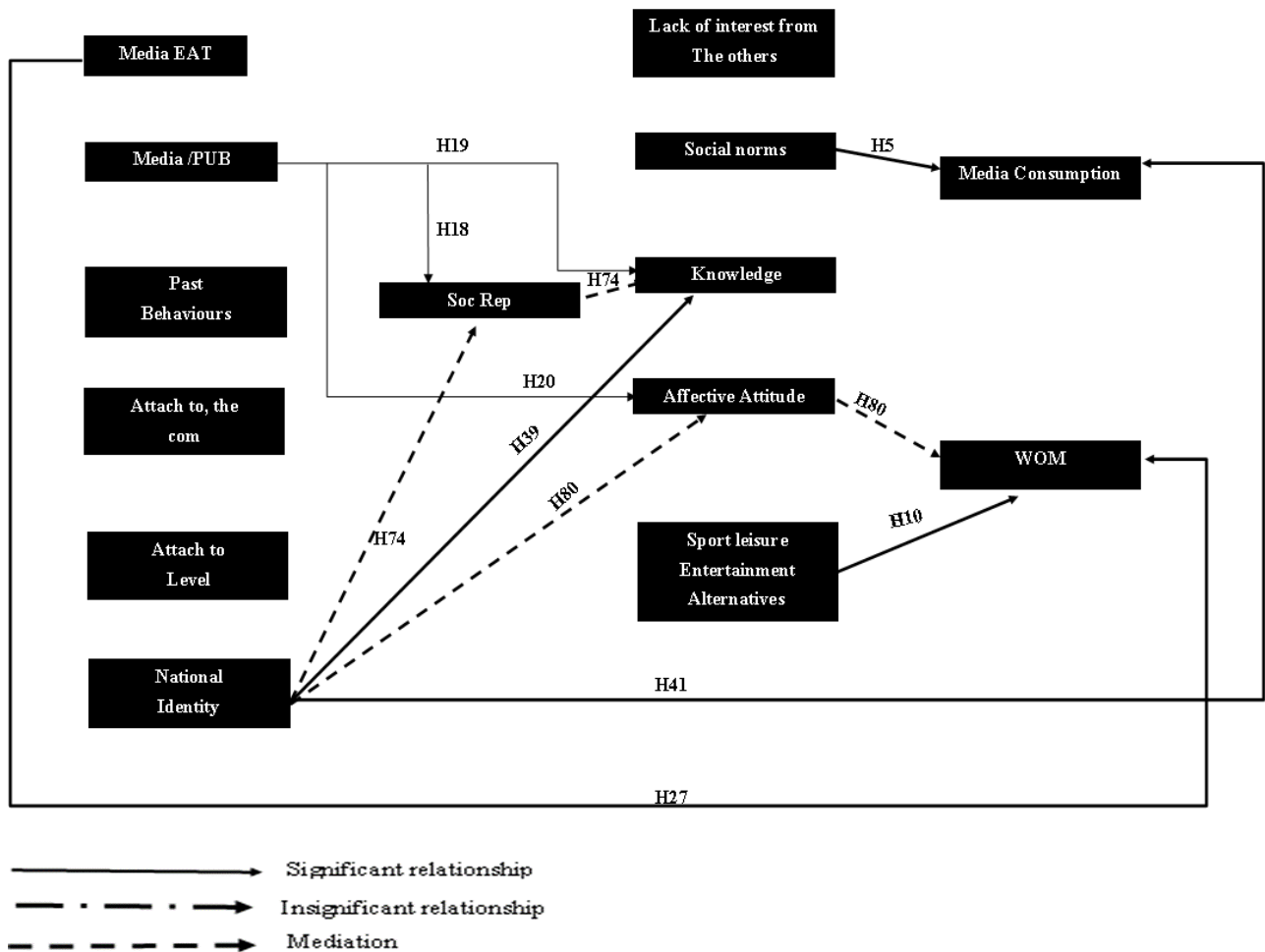
Figure 70 supplementary significant relationships specific to France

Just as some predictions were specific to France, some non-prediction also specifically applied to this country. Media consumption was not predicted by knowledge (cognitive dimension of attitude) (H1), past behaviour (H11), or media/pub (H21) and media EAT (H26). WOM was not predicted by social representation (H17), knowledge (H2), affective attitude (H4), social norms (H6), lack of interest from the others (H8), past behaviour (12), media/pub (H22), media EAT (H27), attachment to the level (H37) or national identity (H42).

With regards to attitudinal constructs, the affective dimension of attitude was not predicted by media EAT (H25), or attachment to the level (H35). The cognitive dimension of attitude (knowledge) was not predicted by media EAT (H24).

Finally the social representation of Paralympic sport in France was not predicted by media EAT (H23) and attachment to the level (H33). The figure 71 below presents the

part of the model that did not work in France (apart from the cross-country model that did not work in any of the three countries).
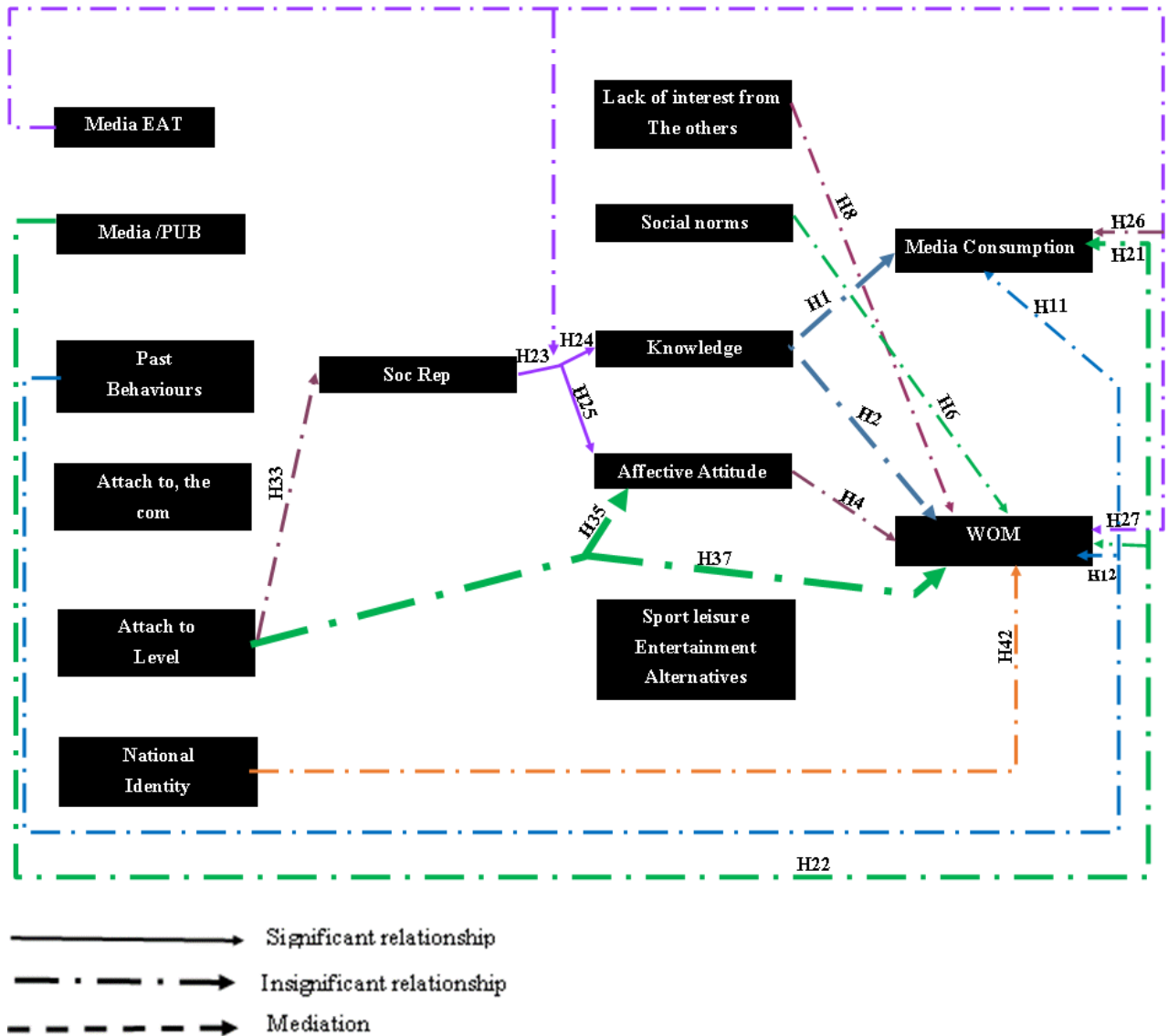
Figure 71 Supplementary insignificant relationships specific to France

From these France-related predictions and non-predictions, it appears that above the four cross-country predicates presented earlier (see page 437), in France:

(1) The effect of national identity is even more reinforced, as it directly predicts the media consumption of Paralympic sport, and indirectly the WOM about Paralympic sport. This meets Kim et al. (2008) and Yosaf et al. (2015) findings according to which national identity/ pride constitutes a motive for sport consumption and predicts sport consumption behaviour.

(2) Social norms also directly predict Paralympic sport media consumption, as theoretically suggested by the modified planned behaviour model we adopted from Ajzen (1991). This results however might demonstrate more some social desirability bias (Grimm, 2010) than a collective inclination to support Paralympic sport, especially as neither the social representation, nor the knowledge (cognitive dimension of attitude) did in the instance of France, directly or indirectly predict Paralympic sport media consumption. Such a bias is unfortunately current in studies addressing social issues through self-reported questionnaires (Sullman & Taylor, 2010), and in the particular instance of surveys related to disability issues (cf. Deshields et al., 1995; Van de Mortel, 2008; Kim et al., 2015)

(3) Media exposure, attention and trust did predict the WOM, but not the media consumption, just as the media/pub did predict knowledge and affective dimension of attitude, without any significant repercussion on the media consumption behaviour. This bespeaks the fact that the media presentation of Paralympic sport by French media, is still to be improved, and further legitimates Schantz and Gilbert (2001, 2012a, b), Gilbert and Schantz (2008), and Brittain (2012, 2016)'s call for a better media presentation and reporting of Paralympic sport.

(4) sport leisure entertainment alternatives predicted (negatively influenced) the WOM about Paralympic sport, as suggested in an earlier study by Kim and Trail (2010). Therefore, lobbying with all the sport governing bodies to obtain a global sport break (some sort of Paralympic sporting truce) during the week in which Paralympic games are staged, could help drawing more attention on Paralympic sport in France, and probably in some other countries, whose Paralympic sport consumption pattern may resemble to the French one

Germany

In Germany, apart from the cross-country predictions presented above along with their implications, the Paralympic sport media consumption was predicted by past behaviours (H11), media/ pub (H21), and national identity (H41). The WOM was predicted by past behaviours (H12) and media/pub (H22).

In terms of mediation, affective attitude mediated the relationships between attachment to the community (H72), attachment to the level (H86) and media

consumption. Also, social representation mediated the relationship between attachment to the community and media consumption (H68).

As for attitudinal constructs, the affective dimension of attitude towards Paralympic sports was predicted by attachment to the community (H30), attachment to the level (H35) and national identity (H40). The cognitive dimension of attitude (knowledge) was predicted by attachment to the community (H29), and attachment to the level (H34).

With regards to the social representation, it was predicted by attachment to the community (H28) and national identity (H38).

The figure 72 presents the part of the model that apart from the cross-country model, worked in Germany.

Figure 72 supplementary German-specific significant relationships

Just as some predictions were specific to Germany, some non-predictions also specifically applied to this country. Media consumption was not predicted in Germany by knowledge (H1), social norms (H5), lack of interest from others (H7), sport entertainment alternatives (H9), social representation (H16), attachment to the community (H31), or attachment to the level (H36). The WOM was not predicted by the variables knowledge (H2), affective attitude (H4), social norms (H6), lack of interest from

the others (H8), sport entertainment alternatives (H10), social representation (H17), attachment to the community (H32), or national identity (H42).

With regard to the attitudinal constructs, the affective dimension of attitude towards Paralympic sport in Germany was not predicted by media/pub (H20). As for the cognitive dimension (knowledge), it was not predicted by national identity (H39), media/pub (H19), and social representation (H15).

Concerning the social representation of Paralympic sport in Germany, it was not predicted by attachment to the level (H33), media/pub (H18), and past behaviour (H14).

The figure 73 below presents the model that worked (or was not applicable) elsewhere, but did not work in Germany.
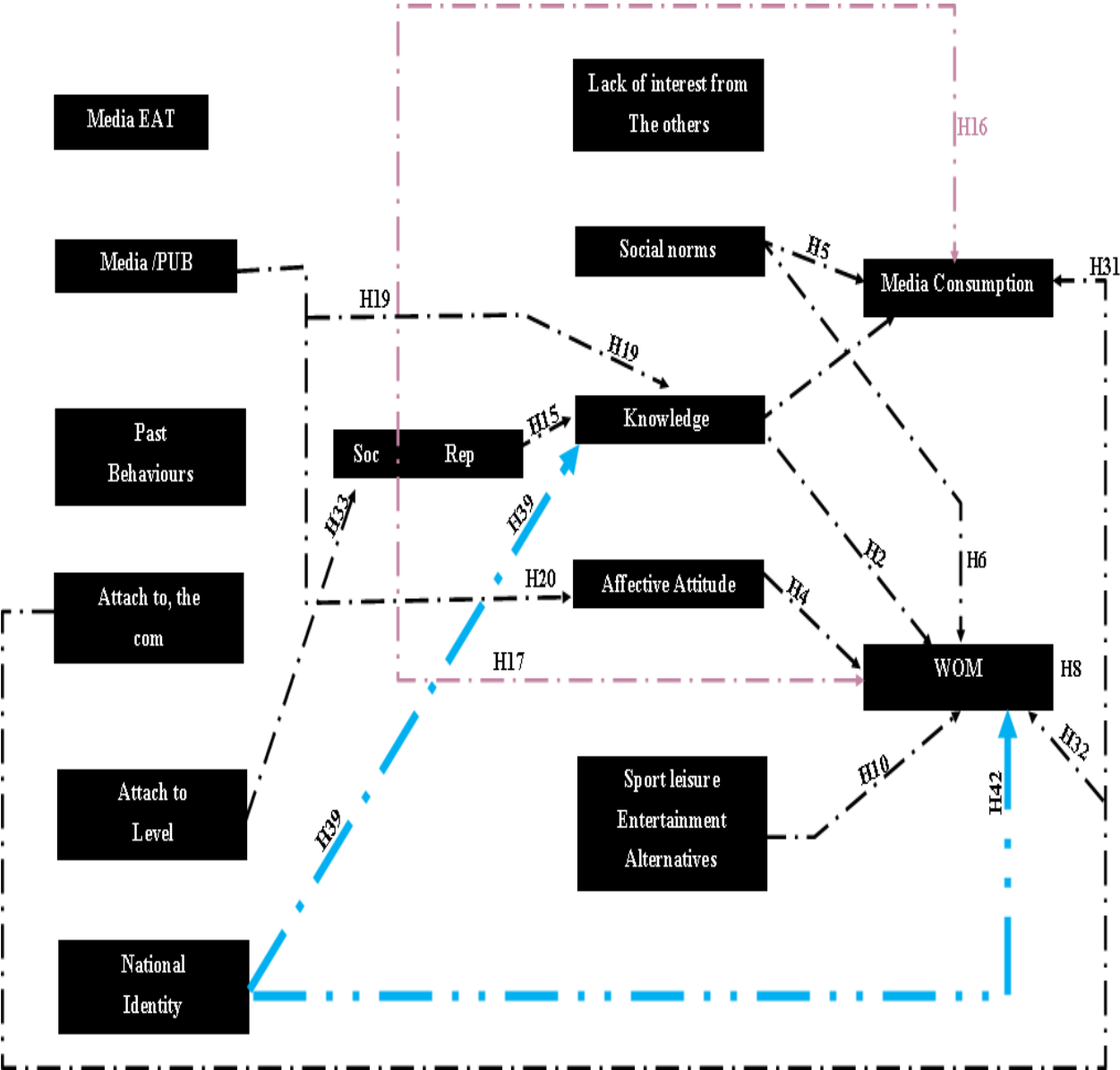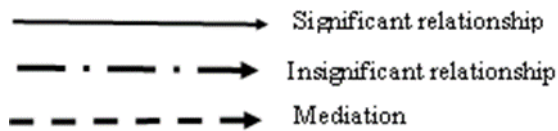
Figure 73 supplementary German-specific insignificant relationships

From these Germany-related predictions and non-predictions, it appears that above the cross-country predicates presented earlier (see pages 437-439), in Germany:

(1) The effect of national identity is even more reinforced, as it directly predicts the media consumption of Paralympic sport, thereby confirming the findings from Kim et al. (2008) and Yosaf et al. (2015) studies, which found national identity / Pride to be a motive for sport consumption.

(2) As indirect predictors (through the mediation of affective attitude) of Paralympic sport media consumption, attachments to the community and to the level come as two further boosters of affectivity towards Paralympic sport. This shows the importance for German reporters not only of putting the emphasis on national identity activators when presenting Paralympic sport, but also of highlighting the (high level) sporting aspect of disability sport and the singularity of its community of practitioners (people with disabilities).

(3) Germany media publicity about Paralympic sport seemed to have fostered Paralympic sport media consumption, as it was found to predict Paralympic sport media consumption. media / pub appears here as a motive for sport consumption as suggested by Kim and Trail (2010) and Mayer and Hungenberg (2020). This is coherent with the findings of Schantz and Gilbert (2001) who despite deeming it insufficient, highlighted that the German media presentation and reporting of Paralympic sport during the Paralympic games was qualitatively and quantitatively better to the French one. However, the patterns linking media/ pub to media consumption behaviour are still to be identified, as media/pub did not predict either the affective dimension nor the affective dimension of attitudes towards Paralympic sport.

(4) Past behaviours also levelled the Paralympic sport media consumption up, but not for purely cognitive, or purely affective reasons, as although it (the variable past behaviours) did predict behaviour, it did not predict one or another dimension of attitude, which means that the consumption pattern from past behaviour to Paralympic sport

media consumption is not the one of Trail and al. (2000)'s sport consumption model. This also prompts for further investigation, to identify German-specific variables that may enrich the understanding of the role of past experiences with Paralympic sport in predicting Paralympic sport media consumption.

Cameroon

In Cameroon, apart from the cross-country predictions presented above, the Paralympic sport media consumption was predicted by knowledge (H1), past behaviours (H11), media/ pub (H21) and national identity (H41). The WOM was predicted by affective attitude (H4), social norms (H6), past behaviour (H12), Social representation (H17), media/pub (H22), attachment to the level (H37), and national identity (H42).

As for the attitudinal constructs, the affective dimension of attitude was predicted by attachment to the level (H35), and the cognitive dimension of attitude (knowledge) was predicted by media/pub (H19), and attachment to the level (H34).

With regards to the social representation, in Cameroon, it was predicted by the attachment to the level (H33), of which he mediated the relationship with Paralympic sport media consumption.

The figure 74 below presents the part of the overall model that demonstrated significant effects in Cameroon.
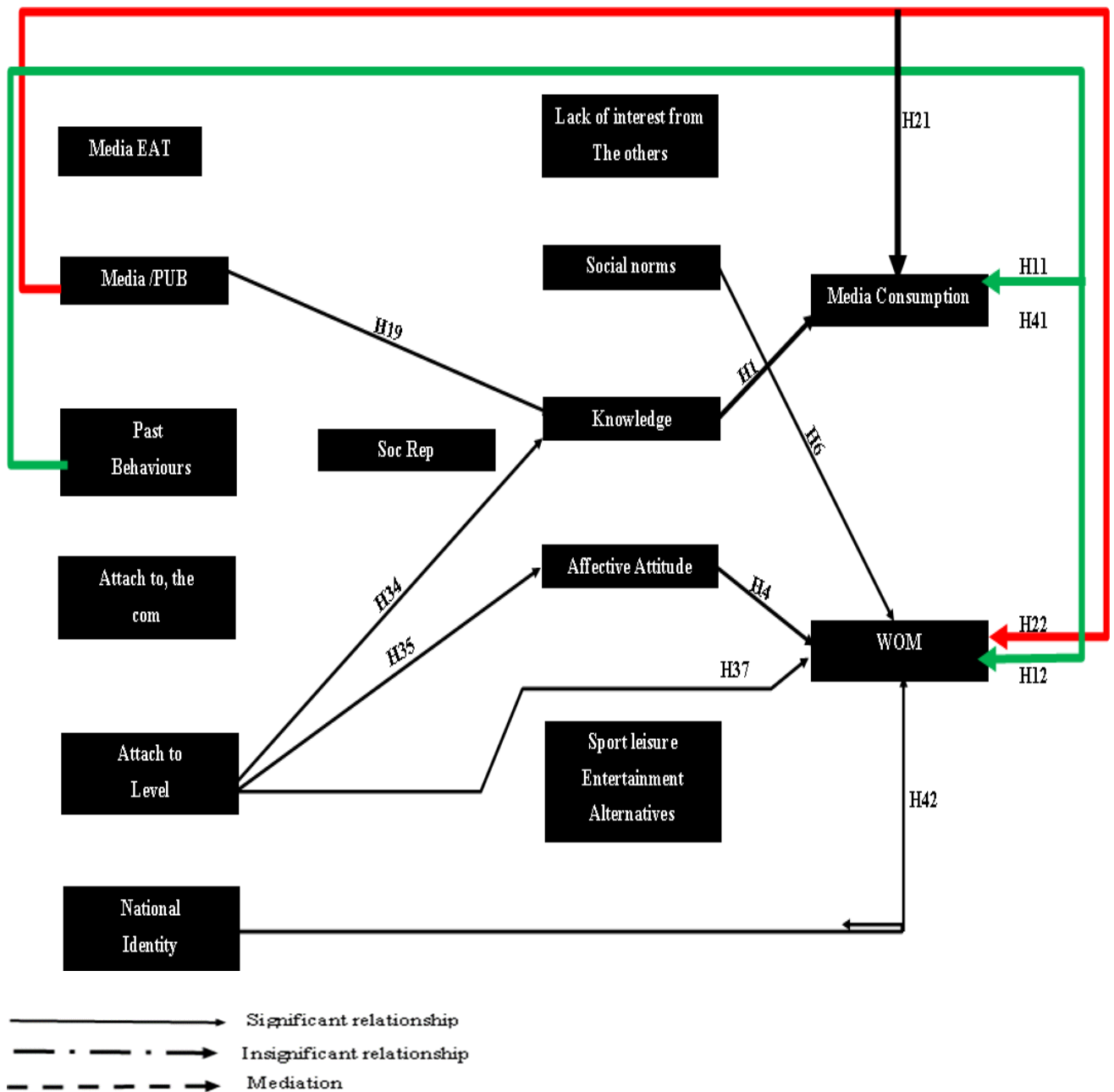
Figure 74 supplementary Cameroon-specific significant relationships

In terms of mediation, knowledge mediates the relationships between past behaviour and media consumption (H46), between media/pub and media consumption (H56), between national identity and media consumption (H77), and between attachment to the level and media consumption (H84). The affective dimension of attitude mediates the relationships between attachment to the level and media consumption (H86), between attachment to the level and WOM(H87), and between national identity and WOM (H80). The social representations mediates the relationships between attachment to the level and WOM (H83), and between national identity and WOM (H76).

The figure 75 below presents the part of the overall model that demonstrated significant mediations in Cameroon.
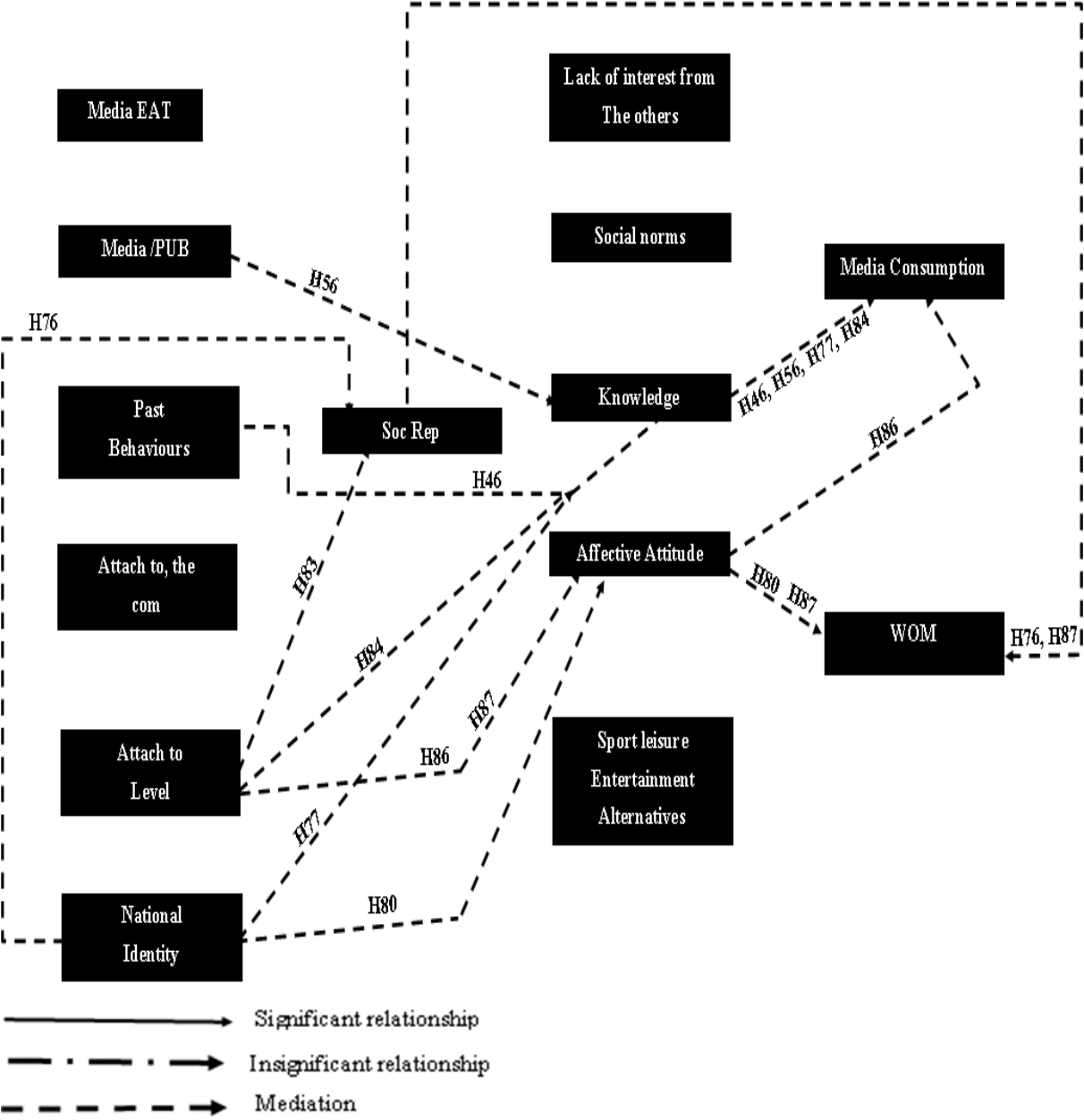
Figure 75 supplementary Cameroon-specific significant mediations

Just as some predictions were specific to Cameroon, some non-predictions also specifically applied to this country.

Concerning behavioural constructs, media consumption was not directly predicted by attachment to the level (H36), national identity (H41), social representation (H16), sport leisure alternatives (H9) or lack of interest from others (H7). The WOM was not

directly predicted by Knowledge (H3), lack of interest from the others (H8) and spot leisure alternatives (H10).

With regard to attitudinal constructs, knowledge was not predicted by national identity, and the affective dimension of attitude was not predicted by media/pub.

As for the social representation, it was not predicted by media/pub.

The figure 76 below presents the part of the overall model that did not demonstrate significant effects in Cameroon.
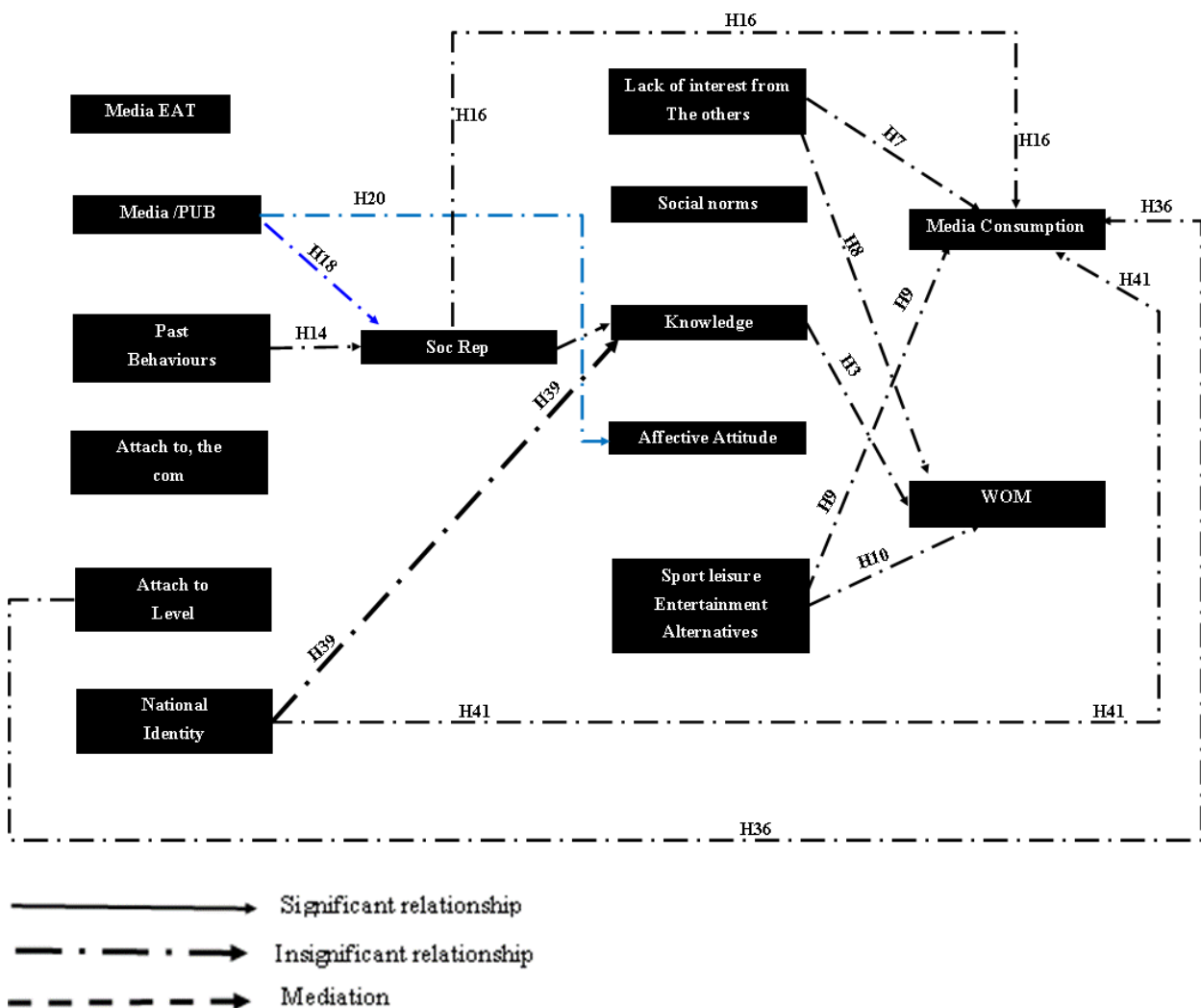
Figure 76 Part of the overall model that did not demonstrate significant effects in Cameroon.

From these Cameroon-related predictions and non-predictions, it appears that above the four cross-country predicates presented earlier (see pages 437-439), in Cameroon:

(1) The cognitive dimension of attitude (knowledge) seems to be more important than the affective dimension of attitude in predicting Paralympic sport media consumption. That is, unlike Frenchs and Germans for whom the decision making of Paralympic sport media consumption is purely based upon their affectivity towards it, Cameroonians' decision making of Paralympic sport media consumption is more based upon cognitive aspects than on their affectivity towards Paralympic sport.

(2) Past behaviours directly and indirectly (through the cognitive dimension of attitude) predict media consumption. According to the Trail et al. (2005) cognitive loyalty model of sport consumption, this means that Cameroonians are rather satisfied by their previous experiences with Paralympic sport. In this instance, the satisfaction is cognitive (cf. Caro & Garcia (2007)'s cognitive-affective model of satisfaction within the framework of a sport event), as the cognitive aspect of attitude mediates the relationship between past behaviours/experiences and Paralympic sport media consumption.

(3) The cognitive dimension of attitude (knowledge) mentioned above is also levelled up by attachments to the level, media/pub and national identity, of which it mediates the relationship with Paralympic sport media consumption. Considering that attachment to the level and national identity also level up the affective dimension of attitude, which mediates the relationship between them and media consumption behaviour, media should shape a depiction of Paralympic sport which apart from activating the audience's national identity (as recommended in page 439), emphasises the (high performance) sporting aspect of Paralympic sport.

(4) Media/pub directly predicts Paralympic sport media consumption, which would normally mean that publicities around Paralympic games were successful in Cameroon. However, considering that unlike French people who mostly follow Paralympics through French media (Mediametrie.fr, 2022) and German people that mostly follow Paralympics through German media (Merkur.de, 2022), it is common fact that Cameroonian people do not always follow Paralympics through Cameroonian media. We therefore cannot attribute the predicate mentioned above to Cameroonian media.

Theoretical and methodological contributions

This work was an opportunity to include many firsts, innovations, and distinctive features of which the most prominent are:

- The application of the theory of social representation to the Paralympic sport.
- The application of the theory of planned behaviour for predicting Paralympic sport media consumption.
- The overlapping of several disciplines and the syncretisation of predictors from various theoretical fields to predict Paralympic sport media consumption.
- The study of the social representation of an "umbrella concept" from a paradigmatic perspective.
- The use of a mixed methodology alloying qualitative and quantitative studies and requiring various tools and analysis software (Iramuteq , Jamovi and Smart PLS).
- The internationality (Cameroon, France, and Germany), which allowed us to identify cross-country predicates as well as country-specific ones.
- The attempt to qualify, psychometrically quantify, and include media influence as a construct within a model predicting attitudes and behaviour.
- A reflexion on the concept of disability from a third person's perspective.
- A reflexion on Paralympic sport's endogenous identity.

Managerial contributions

Our work offered serious paths for levelling up Paralympic sport media consumption. Of these paths, the most prominent are:

At a cross-country level

- The importance for Paralympic sport umbrella organisation and governing bodies, and the media to emphasise on pro prositive (affective) attitudinal elements in the staging and the reporting of Paralympic sport.
- The importance for Paralympic sport umbrella organisation, governing bodies, and media to include more elements stimulating and activating audiences' national identity in the staging and the reporting of Paralympic games.

Specifically for Cameroon

- Organisers and media should stage and shape a depiction of Paralympic sport that apart from activating the national identity of the audience as described earlier in the page 453, emphasises the (high level) sporting aspect of Paralympic sport.

Specifically for France

- Lobbying with all the sport governing bodies to obtain a global sport break (sort of Paralympic sporting truce) during the week in which Paralympic games are staged, could help drawing more attention on Paralympic sport in France.

- Revising the way that French media advertise (through publicity) Paralympic sport, to include more activators of national identity.

Specifically for Germany

- The importance for German reporters not only to put the emphasis on national identity activators when presenting Paralympic sport, but also to highlight the (high level) sporting aspect of disability sport and the singularity of its community of practitioners (people with disabilities).

Opening for future research

This work opens doors for further investigations, which should address one or more of the following questions:

- Our study demonstrated the need for various stakeholders to activate audiences' national identity in the staging and the reporting of the Paralympic games. Therefore future work could investigate more in-depth how this national identity could be activated in a Paralympic sport context.
- The construct media EAT we designed to measure media exposure, attention and trust did not demonstrate satisfactory psychometrical properties in some of our samples, thereby jeopardising our efforts and aim of accounting for media exposure, attention, and trust influence on Paralympic sport media consumption in some countries. A further investigation aiming at re-conceptualising this construct and designing a tool for its measurement would be more than welcome.

- Past behaviours have been shown in some instances to directly predict media consumption behaviour, but not the affective or the cognitive attitude, not even the social representation. Given that Paralympic games are staged on a quadrennial basis, we doubt that conditionings could explain this relationship. Therefore Future research should also further investigate the pattern and itinerary of prediction from past to future behaviours.

- Tackling the question of Paralympic sport consumption from a brand marketing perspective could be very interesting. As a matter of fact, as an umbrella term, Paralympic sport could be assimilated to a brand under whose umbrella all the sports staged during Paralympics are. In that perspective, it could be interesting to investigate its brand equity, image, and associations, in order to develop strategies for further developing and expanding this brand.

Limitations of our work

Our study experiences several limitations. These limitations are of two orders, especially conjunctural and structural.

Conjectural limitations are those related to the Covid 19 pandemic, that narrowed our mobility and did not allow us to have a balanced sample (the same number of respondents per country), nor a representative sample (a sample whose socio demographic features match the composition of the population at a national level).

Structural limitations include the fact that we did not always resort to professional translators when translating concepts, or interview-based contents, as we chose to trust our proficiency in French, German and English, and dictionaries that were available to us.

Another structural limitation is the fact that we did not investigate the specific media (e.g. TV channels, radio channels, specific websites or streaming platforms) through which Cameroonians experienced Paralympic games. As a consequence of that limitation, we did not know to which media our recommendations were to be addressed, as it is common fact that Cameroonian from urban areas frequently resort to foreign TV channels to watch live sporting events that are not broadcast by local channels.

Among the limitations of our work, it is worth nothing that our operationalisation of the variable social representation did not allow us to account enough for its variability, and thereby to account for country-specific cultural dimensions.

Social desirability biases (Deshields et al., 1995; Van de Mortel, 2008; Sullman & Taylor, 2010; Grimm, 2010; Kim et al., 2015) also seemed to appear in some of our results. Our research design failed to address this question beforehand.

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List of Abbreviations

CTA: Confirmatory Tetrad Analysis

DHC: Descending Hierarchical Classification

HTR: Hapax legomena/Token ratio

IPC: International Paralympic Committee

IPMA: Importance Performance Map analysis

IRaMuTeQ : Interface de R pour les Analyses Multidimensionnelles de Textes et de Questionnaires

KMO : Kaiser, Meyer et Olkin

MGA: Multi Group Analysis

N/A: Non Applicable

NFO: Need For Orientation

PWD: People With Disabilities

SEM: Structural Equations Method

SEM-PLS: Structural Equations Method by the PLS approach

MICOM : measurement invariance of composite models

PLS : Partial Least Squares

SR: Social representation (but also often referred to as RS)

SRT: Social Representation Theory

VIF : Variance Inflation Factor

 UNCRPD: United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

TTR: Type-Token Ratio

 UPIAS: Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation

 WHO: World Health Organisation

Appendices

The appendices are sorted according to the table of contents below:

Communication contract: "the universities of Dijon and Koblenz are carrying a study on high performance disability sport. Thank you for you availability and for accepting to participate in this study. Please be assured that all your answers will strictly remain confidential and won't be subject to any judgment. All the data collected from you will solely be used for mutualized statistics".

Themes, questions et relaunch: the table here below summarizes the different themes, questions and relaunch.

	Themes	Questions	Relaunch
1	Denomination of the practice	According to You, what Name best describes Disability sport? Why? can you please tell me about (retake the name given) Are you interested in High performance	
2	Interest/ consumption	disability sport? How – in what way –? (spectator, tv viewer, fan , etc.) Do you know any major actor of that practice ? (Coaches, athletes, etc.)	If yes : what motivates your interest in That ? If not : why are you not interested in that ?
3	Perceived image	How do you perceive that practice? What does that inspire you? If you were to talk about that to someone who knows nothing about, what would you tell him/her?	What image / representation do you have of that?
4	Psychological aspect	In your opinion, why do some people with disabilities choose to practice high performance sport, despite of their disability?	

5	Knowledge about the practice	What do You know of disability sport ? What are the disciplines involved? What are the disabilities involved? What are the organizations in charge of administering it locally or/ and internationally? What are the events/ competitions at a local or international level?	
6	Information channel & Media	How did you learn about all the information you have just given (what channel(s))? How to you judge the media covering of high performance disability sport? According to you, why do media choose to treat high performance disability sport that what?	
7	Search for potential variable	In your view, what could influence or help changing the ways people perceive or react to high performance disability sport?	In what way and how would that influence perceptions and reactions towards high performance disability sport? Could you please give some examples?
8	Assessment of the variable "proximity to disability".	Do you think the proximity to a disabled person (having for example a close relative bearer of disability) can significantly influence our perception / reaction to high performance disability sport?	Do you see any other thing that could influence our perception / reaction to high performance disability sport?
9	Assessment of the variable religion	Do you think religion can significantly influence our perception / reaction to high performance disability sport?	Do you see any other thing that could influence our perception / reaction to high performance disability sport?
10	Assessment of the variable political belonging	Do you think that one's political belonging can influence his perceptions and representations of high performance disability sport?	Do you see any other thing that could influence our perception / reaction to high performance disability sport?
11	Assessment of the variable "sporting level and sporting culture".	Are you interested in able-bodied' high performance sport? Which ones? How do you express your interest / what is (are) your relation to it? (fan , tv viewer, practitioner,	Do you think your sporting level or sporting culture influences or orients your perception/ reaction to high performance disability

		coach , etc.). What sport (s) do you practice? How often do you practice sport on a weekly basis? What is you sporting level (non-practitioner, amateur, national, international) Have you got relative that practice sport or do have a good sporting culture? ?	sport? In what ways? Is it more about sporting solidarity or your sporting expertise (mastery rules and understanding efforts) ?
12	Opening	Is There anything you deem worthwhile about high performance disability sport and that we have not talked about?	Would you kindly develop a bit more?
13	Olympism vs paralympism	If you were to compare high performance disability sport to able-bodied high performance sport, what differences and what likenesses would you put forward? Which one do you prefer? Why?	If applicable. What makes you like the one and not the other?
14	Attractiveness criteria	According to you, what makes the attractiveness of a sporting event or competition?	
15	Relation to disability	What relationship do you entertain with disability? Have you got any relative or friend bearer of a disability?	
16	Socio demo	How close are you to him/her? Age, gender, sex, profession, nationality, religion, education level, field of study/field studied.	

17 Miscellaneous   Would you like to add anything else?

Thanks a lot for you availability and your responses.

2. *Content and structure of the DHC for all corpora together*

DHC of all corpora togeter

Paralympic sport as union of Paralympic values, and conative and media dimensions

Paralympic values, as union of affective and cognitive dimensions

Affective dimension of Paralympic sport, as union of emotional, motivational and inspirational dimensions.

Class 1: 29.60%
Emotional dimension associated to disability sport and to normalcy
Sport; High; level; Disability; situation; Able-bodied; difference; normal; To Practice; to adapt; psychological Relation (rapport in French); Sporting; Particular; Cripple; to ask; Media (adjective); Effort; to allow; Ministry; Access (noun); Similarity Motor (adjective); Performance; rule; Accessible; Solidarity; Function (noun)

Significant Variables of context

Nationality: Nat 1= French
Proximity to disability: Prox2=no
Level of practice: Np3= national
Age: Age2=21-25
Religion: Rel1= catholic

Class 2: 13.70%
Motivational & inspirational dimensions
Desire (envie in french); life; encourage; Achieve; to motivate; Motivation; reach; Courage; passion; ability; to inspire; Will; Surpass; Support (noun); Get out; Succeed; above; only; to live; Physical; Confidence; Pleasure; to finish; Capable; Dream

Significant Variables of context

Nationality: Nat2= Cameroonian
Ethnicity: Rac1= BAME
Age: Age3= 26-30 years old
Interest in disability sport:
Sex: Inter1=yes
Proximity to disability: Prox3= not really/ do not know
Religion: Rel3=Muslim or Rel2= protestant
Level of practice: Np1= do not practice
Influence of political belonging: Iap2= no

Class 3: 28 %
Cognitive dimension associating socio cultural questions to Paralympic sport
Religion; To influence; Political; To interest; Perception ; Belonging ; Sensitize ; Go; Right (wing); Topic; vision; Left (wing); change; To pose; Necessarily ; Think; Relative (noun); religious; Interest ; To bring; Influence (noun); Manner ; Public (adjective); social; Extreme ; To work; To seek; representation; question; Speak

Significant Variables of context

Age: Age 1= 18-20 years old
Level of practice: Np2= amateur
Interest in disability sport:
Inter2=no
Nationality: Nat1= French
Ethnicity: Rac2= white
Influence of political belonging:
Ipa1=yes
Sex: Sex1= female
Proximity to disability: Prox3= not really/ do not know
Religion: Rel 4= non-believer/ other religion

Class 4: 28.80%
Conative and media dimensions
Game(s) (in the sense of Paralympics or Olympics); Olympic; Paralympic; Basket; athletics; football; To watch; Foot (as root for football); Rolling (in the sense of wheel chair) chaise in French; swimming; Tennis; TV; Chair; championship; Contest; race; example; to cut; national; Time (occurrence); Chair (Fauteuil in French); Blind; Volley; International; week; to play; TV Viewer; Channels; jump; France; Team; Internet; Television; Event ; Time; competition, Basketball, To throw.

Significant Variables of context

Nationality: Nat 3 =German
Sex: Sex2= male
Age: Age 2=21-25
Interest in disability sport:
inter3=not really
Level of practice: NP3=national

3. most prominent elements from the class 1 from the DHC of all corpora together

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Sport	272.78	47.42	< 0.0001
High	266.09	72.73	< 0.0001
level	228.42	59.48	< 0.0001
Disability	176.92	50.51	< 0.0001
situation	158.06	57.48	< 0.0001
Able-bodied	90.05	67.46	< 0.0001
difference	89.61	68.33	< 0.0001
normal	86.92	65.91	< 0.0001
To Practice	69.95	60.84	< 0.0001
To adapt	61.56	78.85	< 0.0001
psychological	35.9	100.00	< 0.0001
Relationship *(rapport in French)*	35.46	59.04	< 0.0001
Sporting	35.18	47.83	< 0.0001
Particular	32.94	89.47	< 0.0001
Cripple	31.89	41.56	< 0.0001
To ask	31.41	63.16	< 0.0001

Media (adjective)	30.77	80.00	< 0.0001
Effort	29.13	63.46	< 0.0001
To allow	28.69	54.17	< 0.0001
Ministry	25.92	87.5	< 0.0001
Access (noun)	24.58	80.00	< 0.0001
Similarity	24.23	60.78	< 0.0001
Motor (adjective)	24.22	65.79	< 0.0001
Performance	24.19	56.72	< 0.0001
rule	21.77	70.37	< 0.0001
Accessible	21.51	100.00	< 0.0001
Solidarity	21.29	85.71	< 0.0001
Function (noun)	19.95	75.00	< 0.0001
Constraint	19.95	90.91	< 0.0001

4. Pertinent variables of context for the class 1 of the DHC of all corpora together

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Nationality	Nat1= French	10.95	0.00093
Proximity to disability	Prox2= no	10.77	0.00103
Level of practice	Np3= national	8.34	0.00388

Age	Age2=21-25	6.13	0.01326
Religion	Rel1= catholic	4.55	0.03290

5. most prominent elements from the class 2 from the DHC of all corpora together

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Desire *(envie in french)*	154.07	76.09	< 0.0001
life	130.25	53.76	< 0.0001
encourage	104.39	73.53	< 0.0001
Acheive	93.16	89.47	< 0.0001
To motivate	88.74	69.70	< 0.0001
Motivation	87.98	79.17	< 0.0001
reach	86.62	45.83	< 0.0001
Courage	83.02	76.00	< 0.0001
passion	83.02	76.00	< 0.0001
ability	81.13	93.33	< 0.0001
To inspire	77.61	67.74	< 0.0001
Will	69.09	78.95	< 0.0001
Surpass	69.09	78.95	< 0.0001

Support (noun)	68.48	92.31	< 0.0001
Get out	63.34	63.33	< 0.0001
Succeed	63.11	77.78	< 0.0001
Above	62.30	81.25	< 0.0001
Only	62.24	45.71	< 0.0001
To live	58.35	43.42	< 0.0001
Physical	57.75	40.66	< 0.0001
Confidence	55.74	84.62	< 0.0001
Pleasure	50.37	66.67	< 0.0001
To finish	46.98	70.59	< 0.0001
Capable	45.07	51.35	< 0.0001
Dream	44.37	100.00	< 0.0001

6. Pertinent variables of context for the class 2 of the DHC of all corpora together

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Nationality	Nat2= Cameroonian	37.47	< 0.0001
Ethnicity	Rac1= BAME	31.15	< 0.0001
Age	Age3= 26-30 years old	17.41	< 0.0001

			0.00017
Interest in disability sport	Inter1=yes	14.12	
Sex	Sex1= female	12.26	0.00046
Proximity to disability	Prox3= not really/ do not know	8.21	0.00415
Religion	Rel3=Muslim	7.86	0.00504
	Rel2= protestant	4.58	0.03243
Level of practice	Np1= do not practice	5.61	0.01783
Influence of political belonging	Iap2= no	4.82	.002807

7. most prominent elements from the class 3 from the DHC of all corpora together

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Religion	180.88	87.88	< 0.0001
To influence	170.00	93.59	< 0.0001
Political	125.47	82.93	< 0.0001
To interest	74.88	50.55	< 0.0001

Perception	74.00	77.05	< 0.0001
Belonging	65.51	96.43	< 0.0001
Sensitize	62.10	100.00	< 0.0001
Go	59.91	73.68	< 0.0001
Right (wing)	55.12	95.83	< 0.0001
Topic	53.88	78.57	< 0.0001
vision	53.7	92.31	< 0.0001
Left (wing)	49.94	95.45	< 0.0001
change	46.44	71.43	< 0.0001
To pose	45.39	81.25	< 0.0001
Necessarily	44.08	58.70	< 0.0001
Think	41.06	37.52	< 0.0001
Relative (noun)	38.78	58.54	< 0.0001
religious	38.77	100.0	< 0.0001
Interest	38.58	66.04	< 0.0001
To bring	38.58	81.48	< 0.0001
Influence (noun)	37.54	70.73	< 0.0001
Manner	36.55	65.38	< 0.0001
Public (adjective)	34.22	49.34	< 0.0001
social	33.77	82.61	< 0.0001

Extreme	33.75	80.00	< 0.0001
To work	31.11	66.42	< 0.0001
To seek	30.96	62.75	< 0.0001
representation	30.95	100.00	< 0.0001
question	30.94	51.35	< 0.0001
Speak	29.57	42.09	< 0.0001

8. Pertinent variables of context for Class 3 the DHC of all corpora together

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Age	Age 1= 18-20 years old	15.92	< 0.0001
Level of practice	Np2= amateur	13.72	0.00021
Interest in disability sport	Inter2=no	12.96	0.00031
Nationality	Nat1= France	10.19	0.00141
Ethnicity	Rac2= white	9.44	0.00212
Influence of political belonging	Ipa1=yes	7.5	0.00617
Sex	Sex1= female	5.98	0.01447
Proximity to disability	Prox3= not really/ do not know	4.9	.02691
Religion	Rel 4= non-believer/ other religion	4.59	0.03216

9. Most prominent elements from the class 4 from the DHC of all corpora together

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p

Game(s) (in the sense of Paralympics or Olympics	535.67	86.47	< 0.0001
Olympic	331.95	90.59	< 0.0001
Paralympic	291.41	75.59	< 0.0001
Basket	214.14	97.78	< 0.0001
atheltics	158.39	85.00	< 0.0001
football	142.51	85.39	< 0.0001
To watch	132.55	62.39	< 0.0001
Foot (as root for football)	125.93	87.67	< 0.0001
Rolling (in the sense of wheel chair) chaise in French	115.09	91.53	< 0.0001
swimming	100.09	90.57	< 0.0001
Tennis	90.05	93.18	< 0.0001
TV	87.05	72.53	< 0.0001
Chair	85.55	97.3	< 0.0001
championship	84.21	87.76	< 0.0001
Contest	82.72	89.13	< 0.0001
race	82.55	92.68	< 0.0001

example	79.05	53.97	< 0.0001
To cut	78	97.06	< 0.0001
national	74.76	76.92	< 0.0001
Time (occurrence)	74.71	63.20	< 0.0001
Chair (Fauteuil in French)	69.99	82.00	< 0.0001
Blind	69.56	86.05	< 0.0001
Volley	64.76	100.0	< 0.0001
International	63.68	75.86	< 0.0001
week	62.31	85.0	< 0.0001
To play	61.20	70.42	< 0.0001
TV Viewer	57.95	96.15	< 0.0001
Channels	57.24	100.0	< 0.0001
jump	54.74	100.0	< 0.0001
France	49.41	86.67	< 0.0001
Team	47.68	65.28	< 0.0001
Internet	46.58	91.67	< 0.0001
Television	44.18	74.42	< 0.0001
Event	42.18	68.52	< 0.0001
Time	41.38	54.4	< 0.0001

Competition	40.55	50.0	< 0.0001
Basketball	39.79	71.11	< 0.0001
To throw	38.03	76.47	< 0.0001

10. Pertinent variables of context for the class 4 of the DHC of all corpora together

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Nationality	Nat3=German	15.83	< 0.0001
Sex	Sex2= male	12.83	0.00034
Religion	Rel3= Muslim	11.74	0.00061
Age	Age 2=21-25	8.35	0.00385
Interest in disability sport	Inter3= not really / do not know	5.33	0.02098
Level of practice	Np3= international	5.24	0.02203

11. Cameroonian interviewees socio demographics and rough features

Variables / Sujets	Nationalité	Religion	Niveau d'étude	Âge	sexe	genre	Sujet handicapé	Intérêt sport paralympique	Intérêt sport olympique	Nom donné à la pratique du SHN par des PSH
1	CMR	Protestante	L1 Biologie	19 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Non	Non	Sport pour handicapés
2	CMR	Protestant	BAC+5 STAPS	30 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Non	Oui	Aucun
3	CMR	/	BAC+5 STAPS	32 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Pas vraiment	Oui	Sport pour personnes handicapées
4	CMR	/	BAC+3 Biochimie	29 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Oui	Sport pour handicapés
5	CMR	Spirituelle	BAC+5 littérature française	29 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Oui	Handisport
6	CMR	Croyante	BEPC	25 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Non	Aucun
7	CMR	Protestante	BAC+5 Médecine	21 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Non	Non	Sport pour handicapés
8	CMR	catholique	BAC+3 Logistique et transport	28 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Oui	Invalid sport
9	CMR	Protestante	BAC+5 STAPS	30 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Oui	Assistance avec exercices physiques
10	CMR	Musulmane	BAC+5 Biologie	25 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Non	Oui	Le Handisport
11	CMR	Musulmane	BAC+5 STAPS	28 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Oui	les sports paralympiques
12	CMR	Protestante	BAC+4 Droit privé	30 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Non	oui	Aucun
13	CMR	Catholique	BAC+5 Traduction	30 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Oui	Sport pour handicapés
14	CMR	Protestante	BAC+3 Médecine	22 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Pas vraiment	Oui	Les paralympiques
15	CMR	Catholique	BAC+3	29 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Oui	Le Handisport
16	CMR	Catholique	BAC+4 Droit privé	31 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Non	Non	Sport pour déficients
17	CMR	Chrétien	Doctorant en Droit public	32 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Non	Oui	Handisport
18	CMR	Catholique	BAC+2 Psychologie	24 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Oui	Handisport
19	CMR	Aucune	BAC+5 Droit des affaires	35 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Oui	Sport pour handicapés
20	CMR	Musulmane	BAC+2 Espagnol	20 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Pas vraiment	Oui	Sports Paralympiques
21	CMR	Aucune	BAC+4 histoire économique et sociale	43 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Oui	Oui	Sport pour handicapés
22	CMR	Aucune	BAC A4	36 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Oui	Oui	Oui	Sport pour personnes handicapées
23	CMR	Presbytérienne	Probatoire	28 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Oui	Oui	Oui	Jeux para-olympique
24	CMR	Catholique	BAC+2 Génie Ferroviaire	30 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Oui	Oui	Oui	Épanouissement personnel pour personnes handicapées

12. responses to the questions related to interest in disability sport

N°	RÉPONDANTS	INTÉRÊT SPORT PARALYMPIQUE	MANIFESTATION DE L'INTÉRÊT
1	ALLEMAGNE	Non	/
2	ALLEMAGNE	Non	/
3	ALLEMAGNE	Non	/
4	ALLEMAGNE	Pas vraiment	/
5	ALLEMAGNE	Oui	Fan
6	ALLEMAGNE	Non	/
7	ALLEMAGNE	Oui	Téléspectateur
8	ALLEMAGNE	Oui	Téléspectateur
9	ALLEMAGNE	Oui	Chercheur, spectateur, téléspectateur, enseignant
10	ALLEMAGNE	Oui	Spectateur, téléspectateur, fan
11	ALLEMAGNE	Pas vraiment	Téléspectateur occasionnel
12	ALLEMAGNE	Pas vraiment	Téléspectateur occasionnel
13	ALLEMAGNE	Pas vraiment	/
14	CAMEROUN	Non	/
15	CAMEROUN	Non	/
16	CAMEROUN	Pas vraiment	Spectateur, téléspectateur
17	CAMEROUN	Oui	Téléspectateur, chercheur
18	CAMEROUN	Oui	Spectateur
19	CAMEROUN	Oui	Spectateur
20	CAMEROUN	Non	/
21	CAMEROUN	Oui	Téléspectateur
22	CAMEROUN	Oui	Spectateur, téléspectateur
23	CAMEROUN	Non	/
24	CAMEROUN	Oui	Spectateur, téléspectateur
25	CAMEROUN	Non	/
26	CAMEROUN	Oui	Téléspectateur
27	CAMEROUN	Pas vraiment	/
28	CAMEROUN	Oui	Spectateur
29	CAMEROUN	Non	/
30	CAMEROUN	Non	/
31	CAMEROUN	Oui	Spectateur, téléspectateur
32	CAMEROUN	Oui	Spectateur, téléspectateur
33	CAMEROUN	Pas vraiment	/
34	CAMEROUN	Oui	Téléspectateur
35	CAMEROUN	Oui	Pratiquante, Spectateur, téléspectateur
36	CAMEROUN	Oui	Pratiquante, Spectateur, téléspectateur

37	CAMEROUN	Oui	Téléspectateur
38	FRANCE	Oui	Téléspectateur
39	FRANCE	Non	/
40	FRANCE	Pas vraiment	/
41	FRANCE	Oui	Téléspectateur
42	FRANCE	Non	/
43	FRANCE	Non	/
44	FRANCE	Non	/
45	FRANCE	Pas vraiment	/
46	FRANCE	Pas vraiment	/
47	FRANCE	Intermédiaire	Téléspectateur occasionnel
48	FRANCE	Oui	Spectateur, téléspectateur, fan
49	FRANCE	Oui	Téléspectateur
50	FRANCE	Non	/
51	FRANCE	Non	/
52	FRANCE	Pas vraiment	Téléspectateur occasionnel
53	FRANCE	Pas vraiment	Téléspectateur occasionnel
54	FRANCE	Pas vraiment	Téléspectateur occasionnel
55	FRANCE	Pas vraiment	/

13. respondents channels for accessing information about disability sport

N°		CANAUX D'INFORMATION
1	ALLEMAGNE	Background académique
2	ALLEMAGNE	Aucune information
3	ALLEMAGNE	Télévision, internet
4	ALLEMAGNE	Télévision
5	ALLEMAGNE	Télévision, journaux et articles spécialisés
6	ALLEMAGNE	Journaux
7	ALLEMAGNE	Télévision, background sportif, internet
8	ALLEMAGNE	Journaux, magazines sportifs
9	ALLEMAGNE	Revues spécialisées, journaux, recherches, télévision, internet
10	ALLEMAGNE	Journaux, télévision, internet
11	ALLEMAGNE	Télévision, médias
12	ALLEMAGNE	Télévision, journaux
13	ALLEMAGNE	Échanges avec des amis, télévision
14	CAMEROUN	Échanges avec des amis, télévision
15	CAMEROUN	Background académique, télévision, profession
16	CAMEROUN	Background académique, télévision, profession, internet
17	CAMEROUN	Médias
18	CAMEROUN	Radio, télévision
19	CAMEROUN	Expériences personnelles
20	CAMEROUN	Aucune information
21	CAMEROUN	Échanges avec des amis
22	CAMEROUN	Background académique, télévision, profession, radio, internet
23	CAMEROUN	Télévision
24	CAMEROUN	Background académique, télévision, profession, radio
25	CAMEROUN	Télévision
26	CAMEROUN	Expériences personnelles, médias
27	CAMEROUN	Télévision, internet, radio
28	CAMEROUN	Expériences personnelles
29	CAMEROUN	Expériences personnelles, télévision
30	CAMEROUN	Médias audiovisuels
31	CAMEROUN	Expériences personnelles, télévision
32	CAMEROUN	Télévision
33	CAMEROUN	Expériences personnelles
34	CAMEROUN	Médias audiovisuels

35	CAMEROUN	Expériences personnelles
36	CAMEROUN	Entourage, internet, télévision
37	CAMEROUN	Télévision, internet, journaux
38	FRANCE	Expériences personnelles, internet
39	FRANCE	Background académique, médias
40	FRANCE	Télévision, internet
41	FRANCE	Journaux, télévision
42	FRANCE	Télévision
43	FRANCE	Télévision, réseaux sociaux, bouche à oreille
44	FRANCE	Background académique, télévision
45	FRANCE	Télévision
46	FRANCE	Télévision, internet
47	FRANCE	Expériences personnelles, médias
48	FRANCE	Expériences personnelles, médias
49	FRANCE	Télévision, internet
50	FRANCE	Échanges avec des amis
51	FRANCE	Background académique, télévision, journaux, entourage
52	FRANCE	Background académique, télévision
53	FRANCE	Télévision, échanges avec des amis
54	FRANCE	Background académique, médias
55	FRANCE	télévision

Synthesis of Reniert's HDC (XXX) of the Cameroonian corpus

Paralympic sport as union of affective, cognitive & socio-cultural, conative dimensions and external influences (Media & Authorities)

Values as union of affective and cognitive dimensions

Affective dimensions

External influencers : Authorities and media

Dimensions external to practice

Class 3: (32.3%)
Affective & motivational dimensions associated to disability sport

Sport
Practice (verb)
Disability
High (haut in French)
Handicap (verb)
Situation; Society
Relative (noun)
Encourage; Realize
Like; Allow;
Motivate; Parents
Surpass; motivation
Integrate; Normal; strive
Able-bodied

Significant Variables of context

Religion: Rel4= non-religious or other
Interest in disability sport
Inter2= not interested in disability sport

Class 4: (8.4%)
Affective & emotional dimensions associated to disability

Courage: regain
Confidence (self)
Inspire; Limb; Help;
Run; Sickness;
Mobility; Easy;
Go through; Accident
Happy; Only; Accept
Reduce; Physically
Psychologically

Significant Variables of context

Belief in influence of political belonging: lap1= yes
Sporting level: N= National
Interest in disability sport: inter1= interested

Class 5: (10.2%)
Cognitive and socio-cultural dimension associated to Paralympic sport

Religion
Influence (verb)
Influence (noun)
Political; Belonging
Perception; Religious;
Advocate
Culture; Solidarity
City; Mentality
Generation; Respond
Cultural; Church
Change (verb);
Positively;
Thought (noun);
Ideology; Suit (verb)
Conception; Muslim
Mandatorily; Positive

Significant Variables of context

Proximity to a PWDs: Prox3= not really/ do not know
Level of practice Np2= amateur

Class 1: 14.4%
Authorities' role and media

Federation; Ministry;
Athlete; Authority
Discipline; national;
Level; International
Communication
Scale; Gap; Colleague
Handle; Media
(adjective); Activity;
Sell; Consider;
Mental; Impaired;
Problem; Participate;
Preparation;
Impairment; High
Service; Teacher
Present (verb)
Enthusiasm; be in charge

Significant Variables of context

Proximity to disability: Prox2= no
Disability status: Hand1= able-bodied
Education level: Ne3= Master degree or more

Class 2 : (18%)
Media role in paralympic sport

Interest (Verb)
TV; Media (Noun)
True; competition
Small; Pass;
Mediatization;
Organize; Channels (TV)
Mediatize;
Television;
Exclude; Discover;
Event; Channel (medium of communication);
That; Speak.

Significant Variables of context

Interest in disability sport: inter3= not really/ do not know

Class 6: (16.7%)
Conative dimension indicating practices

Basket; Athletics;
Rolling
Football; Chair; Foot
Race; Tennis;
Wheelchair; Volley;
TV viewer; Spectator
Swimming; Fan
Volleyball; Tricycle
Hand; jump; Olympic
Basketball; Committee
Play (verb); Foot (part of the body); Arm (part of the body); handball,
Throw (verb);
Championship; Javelin;
High (in the sense of high jump); game;
Crippled; Dimension
Dance; Function (verb)
Device; 100m;
Sometimes; Paralympic

Significant Variables of context

Disability status: hand2 = disabled

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16. Most prominent elements Class 1 DHC Cameroonian corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Federation	86.43	73.33	< 0.0001
Ministry	70.23	87.5	< 0.0001
Athlete	64.2	57.14	< 0.0001
Authority	53.9	100	< 0.0001
Discipline	45.46	44.83	< 0.0001
National	40.96	47.73	< 0.0001
Level	39.93	29.41	< 0.0001
International	37.14	46.51	< 0.0001
Communication	35.86	100	< 0.0001
Scale	30.41	62.5	< 0.0001
Gap	29.86	100	< 0.0001
Colleague	29.86	57.89	< 0.0001
Handle (in the sense dealing with)	29.6	57.89	< 0.0001
Media (adjective)	29.55	77.78	< 0.0001
Activity	29.22	42.22	< 0.0001
Sell	29.06	85.71	< 0.0001
Consider	28.58	64.29	< 0.0001
Mental	26.86	66.67	< 0.0001
Impaired	26.86	66.67	< 0.0001
Problem	24.98	52.38	< 0.0001
Participate	24.98	52.38	< 0.0001
Preparation (readiness)	23.87	1000	< 0.0001
Impairment	23.87	1000	< 0.0001
High(elevé in French)	23.87	1000	< 0.0001
Service	23.87	1000	< 0.0001
Teacher	23.87	1000	< 0.0001
Present (verb)	23.26	83.33	< 0.0001
Enthusiasm	23.26	83.33	< 0.0001
Be in charge	21.83	63.64	< 0.0001

17. Pertinent Variables of context for the class 1 of the DHC of the Cameroonian corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Proximity to disability	Prox2= no	7.87	0.00501
Disability status	Hand1= able-bodied	6.89	0.00865
Education level	Ne3= Master degree or more	5.5	0.01897
Interest in disability sport	Inter1= yes interested	4.24	0.03951

18. Most prominents elements of the class 2 of the DHC of the Cameroonian corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Interest (verb)	92.35	49.6	< 0.0001
TV	75.27	79.31	< 0.0001
Media (noun)	67.69	74.19	< 0.0001
True	55.15	71.43	< 0.0001
Competition	52.31	45.74	< 0.0001
Small	49.44	73.91	< 0.0001
pass	40.63	58.33	< 0.0001
Mediatization	39.43	80.0	< 0.0001
Organize	38.07	68.18	< 0.0001

Channels (Tv)	34.95	83.33	< 0.0001
Mediatize	25.58	48.72	
Television	23.3	69.23	
Exclude	22.83	100.0	< 0.0001
Discover	21.9	77.78	< 0.0001
Event	21.9	77.78	< 0.0001
Channel (medium of communication)	21.83	85.71	< 0.0001
that	20.93	39.68	< 0.0001
Speak	20.8	33.93	< 0.0001

19. pertinent variables of context for the class 2 of the DHC Cameroonian corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Interest in disability sport	Inter3= not really/ do not know	11.6	0.00065

20. Most prominent elements class3 Cameroonian corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Sport	111.85	51.06	< 0.0001

Practice (verb)	104.14	77.67	< 0.0001
Disability	89.39	63.79	< 0.0001
High(haut in French)	69.64	70.83	< 0.0001
Handicap (verb)	60.36	54.04	< 0.0001
Situation	44.56	62.63	< 0.0001
Society	33.08	84.62	< 0.0001
Relative (noun)	25.97	77.78	< 0.0001
Encourage	25.63	75.86	< 0.0001
Realize	25.33	100.0	< 0.0001
Like	23.6	64.58	< 0.0001
Allow	23.35	60.66	< 0.0001
Motivate	20.62	77.27	< 0.0001
Parents	19.67	82.35	< 0.0001
Surpass	19.47	91.67	< 0.0001
motivation	19.47	91.67	< 0.0001
Integrate	19.12	78.95	< 0.0001
normal	18.97	62.22	< 0.0001
strive	18.96	100.0	< 0.0001
Able-bodied	17.75	53.75	< 0.0001

21. pertinent variables of context class 3 DHC Cameroonian Corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Religion	Rel4= non-religious or other	7.66	0.00563
Interest in disability sport	Inter2= not interested in disability sport	6.84	0.00893
Proximity to a person with disability	Prox3= not really/ do not know	6.35	0.01172
Sex	Sex2= male	5.39	0.02027
Belief in the influence of political	Iap2 = non	5.35	0.02077

22. most prominent elements Class 4 DHC Cameroonian corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Courage	131.79	83.33	< 0.0001
regain	88.35	50	< 0.0001
Confidence (self)	88.22	1000.0	< 0.0001
Inspire	56.99	11.18	< 0.0001
Limb	56.88	48.15	< 0.0001
Help	54.97	85.71	< 0.0001

Run	48.45	61.54	< 0.0001
Sickness	46.65	75.0	< 0.0001
Mobility	46.65	75.06	< 0.0001
Easy	44.23	63.64	< 0.0001
Go through	44.23	83.33	< 0.0001
Accident	44.23	83.33	< 0.0001
Happy	43.99	1000.0	< 0.0001
Only	36.64	34.15	< 0.0001
Accept	35.07	60.0	< 0.0001
Reduce	30.79	62.5	< 0.0001
Physically	30.79	62.5	< 0.0001
Psychologically	30.79	62.5	< 0.0001

23. Pertinent variables of context class 4 DHC Cameroonian corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Belief in influence of political belonging	Iap1=yes	9.68	0.00185
Sporting level	Np3= national level	7.75	0.00536
Interest in disability sport	Inter1= interested	3.92	0.04774

24. Most prominent elements Class 5 DHC Cameroonian corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Religion	325.79	84.62	< 0.0001
Influence (verb)	157.63	71.05	< 0.0001
Influence(noun)	111.49	68.97	< 0.0001
Political	96.86	57.89	< 0.0001
Belonging	90.81	77.78	< 0.0001
Perception	86.31	59.38	< 0.0001
Religious	70.78	100.0	< 0.0001
Advocate	61.89	100.0	< 0.0001
Culture	55.43	75.0	< 0.0001
Solidarity	53.52	80.0	< 0.0001
City	53.01	100.0	< 0.0001
Mentality	52.44	87.5	< 0.0001
Generation	44.14	100.0	< 0.0001
Respond	44.14	100.0	< 0.0001
Cultural	44.14	100.0	< 0.0001
Church	39.28	70.0	< 0.0001
Change(verb)	37.43	56.25	< 0.0001

Positively	35.29	100.0	< 0.0001
Thought (noun)	35.29	100.0	< 0.0001
Ideology	35.29	100.0	< 0.0001
Suit (verb)	35.29	100.0	< 0.0001
Conception	35.29	83.33	< 0.0001
Muslim	35.29	45.83	< 0.0001
mandatorily	33.8	45.38	< 0.0001
Positive	31.5	66.67	< 0.0001

25. Pertinent variables of context class 5 DHC Cameroonian corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Proximity to a person with disabilities	Prox3= not really/ do not know	11.09	0.00089
Level of practice	Np2= amateur	12.05	0.02804

26. Most prominent elements class 6 DHC Cameroonian corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Basket(short form of basketball)	260.5	96.36	< 0.0001

Athletics	226.04	90.91	< 0.0001
Rolling (in the sense of a wheel)	210.23	100.0	< 0.0001
Football	194.22	88.24	< 0.0001
Chair	171.88	97.22	< 0.0001
Foot (short form of football in French)	139.5	93.75	< 0.0001
Race (in the sense of track & field)	97.9	88.46	< 0.0001
Tennis	97.65	85.71	< 0.0001
Wheelchair	85.72	100.0	< 0.0001
Volley (short form of volleyball)	80.62	100.0	< 0.0001
TV viewer	79.11	94.44	< 0.0001
Spectator	73.19	80.0	< 0.0001
swimming	63.98	93.75	< 0.0001
Fan	65.37	100.0	< 0.0001
volleyball	60.3	100.0	< 0.0001
Tricycle	55.24	100.0	< 0.0001

Hand(short form of handball)	45.13	100.0	< 0.0001
jump	40.09	100.0	< 0.0001
Olympic	39.47	51.11	< 0.0001
basketball	38.89	78.57	< 0.0001
Committee	38.85	90.0	< 0.0001
Play (verb)	36.37	54.29	< 0.0001
Foot (part of the body)	36.16	52.63	< 0.0001
Arm (part of the body)	34.91	73.33	< 0.0001
handball	33.75	81.82	< 0.0001
Throw (verb)	33.53	57.14	< 0.0001
Championship	31.94	57.69	< 0.0001
Javelin	30.03	100.0	< 0.0001
High (in the sense of high jump)	28.96	87.5	< 0.0001
game	28.24	37.08	< 0.0001
Crippled	25	100.0	< 0.0001
Dimension	25	100.0	< 0.0001
Dance	25	100.0	< 0.0001

Function (verb)	25	100.0	< 0.0001
Device	25	100.0	< 0.0001
100m	25	100.0	< 0.0001
sometimes	24.06	85.71	< 0.0001
Paralympic	22.88	37.68	< 0.0001

27. Pertinent variables of context class 6 DHC Cameroonian corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Disability status	Hand2= disabled	7.34	0.00672

28. sociodemographic features of French respondents

Table of French respondent's socio-demographic characteristics

Variables Sujets	Nationalité	Religion	Niveau d'étude	Âge	sexe	genre	Sujet handicapé	Intérêt sport paralympique	Intérêt sport olympique	Nom donné à la pratique du SHN par des PSH
1	FRA	Aucune	BAC+2 Médecine	22 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Oui	Oui	Oui	Aucun
2	FRA	Aucune	Doctorant en Psychologie	28 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Non	Oui	L'Handisport
3	FRA	Aucune	/	18 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Pas vraiment	Non	Handisport
4	FRA	catholic	BAC+5 Management du sport	25 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Oui	Le Handisport
5	FRA	Musulmane	/	21 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Non	Pas vraiment	Le Handisport
6	FRA	protestant	BAC+2 Psychologie	21 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Non	Oui	Le Handisport
7	FRA	Aucune	BAC+4 Médecine	25 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Non	Oui	Un sport adapté
8	FRA	Aucune	L2 Psychologie	19 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Pas vraiment	Non	Aucun
9	FRA	Aucune	BAC+4 enseignement	28 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Pas vraiment	Oui	Le Handisport
10	FRA	Aucune	Doctorant en psychologie du sport	25 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Intermédiaire	Oui	L'Handisport
11	FRA	Catholique	BAC+5 enseignement	55 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Oui	Le sport
12	FRA	protestant	CAP	53 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Oui	Oui	Le Handisport
13	FRA	Aucune	Doctorante en psychologie Marketing	34 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Non	Non	Le Handisport
14	FRA	Aucune	BAC+1 STAPS	18 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Non	Oui	Le Handisport
15	FRA	Catholique	BAC+5 Médecine	23 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Pas vraiment	Oui	Le Handisport
16	FRA	Catholique	/	17 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Pas vraiment	Pas vraiment	Le Handisport
17	FRA	Aucune	BAC+4 Management sportif	21 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Pas vraiment	Oui	Sport handicap et Activité physique adaptée
18	FRA	Catholique	/	21 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Pas vraiment	Oui	Aucun

Synthesis of Reniert's HDC (XXX) of the French corpus

Paralympic sport as union of conative, affective, cognitive dimensions, and adapting activities of people with disabilities

Disability in relation with sport

Dimensions External to practice

Class 1 : 29.3%

Conative dimension: practices associated to Paralympic games

Games; Olympic Paralympic; watch; Basket; Foot (short form of football); Match (noun) football); France; swimming Athletics; TV; Cut (verb) Team; come; Football Competition; Championship; Beautiful Tennis; Wheelchair; Time (occurrence); Handball; Win; Event; Triathlon; Name.

Significant variables of context

Sex: Sex2= male Belief in the influence of political belonging; lap3= not / or do not know Level of practice: Ne1= non-practitioner

Class 2; 18.9%

Affective (motivational and emotional) dimension: "Disabled" going towards sport

High; Level; Situation Disability; Athlete; Sport Recognition; Media (adjective); Prove Reach (verb); society; Difficult; Accessible Culture; Inspire; Willingness Access (Noun); capacity; Capable.

Significant variables of context

Belief in the influence of political belonging; lap2= no Level of education: Ne2= university level below master

Class 3 : 26%

Adapting activities to people with disabilities: sport going towards "disabled"

In comparison with Physical; Difficulty; Club Mental; Adapt; Activity Similarity; Motor (adjective) Pathologies; basis; According to; Arm; Arrive Problem; Disabled; Precisely Start (verb); Try; Only; Effort.

Significant variables of context

Influence of political belonging: lap2= no **Education Level:** Ne2= university level below the Master

Class 4 : 25.8%

Cognitive dimension: Politics, media, society associated to disability sport

Influence (Verb) ; Political Religion ; Question ; Vision ; Right (political wing) Media (noun): topic Far (extreme in the political context); wonder; think Way (manner); Left (wing) Tendency; perception Social; Party (political) Speak; network Belonging (noun) Rather, Sensitize; possible Necessarily.

Significant variables of context

Level of practice: NP2= amateur **Age:** age4= above 30 **Interest in disability sport:** inter2= no **Religion** : rel2 = protestant

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30. most prominent elements Class 1 DHC French Corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
games	197.51	96.47	< 0.0001
Olympic	124.47	96.36	< 0.0001
Paralympic	120.46	91.8	< 0.0001
watch	94.84	73.4	< 0.0001
basket	74.04	100	< 0.0001
Foot (short form of football)	63.23	93.55	< 0.0001
Match(noun)	54.58	90.00	< 0.0001
France	53.28	92.59	< 0.0001
swimming	50.81	92.31	< 0.0001
athletics	40.89	82.76	< 0.0001
TV	39.5	75.68	
Cut(verb)	37.38	94.44	< 0.0001
team	37.14	71.43	< 0.0001
come	35.11	69.77	< 0.0001
football	32.78	85.71	< 0.0001
competition	32.08	64.71	< 0.0001

championship	31.68	100.0	< 0.0001
beautiful	28.05	84.21	< 0.0001
tennis	27.59	92.86	
Wheelchair	27.48	82.35	< 0.0001
Time (occurrence)	26.8	62.00	
Handball	25.16	92.31	< 0.0001
Win	23.4	82.35	< 0.0001
event	22.93	78.95	< 0.0001
triathlon	22.74	91.65	< 0.0001
name	22.51	68.97	< 0.0001

31. Pertinent variables of context class 1 DHC French corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
sex	Sex2= male	727.27	< 0.0001
Belief in the influence of political belonging	Iap3= not / or do not know	7.86	0.00505
Level of practice	Ne1= non-practitioner	4.3	0.03806

32. Most prominent elements class 2 DHC French corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
High	169.53	79.81	< 0.0001
Level	159.69	63.64	< 0.0001
Situation	156.04	60.66	< 0.0001
Disability	109.47	47.63	< 0.0001
athlete	86.28	69.05	< 0.0001
sport	66.92	40.83	< 0.0001
Recognition	25.8	100.0	< 0.0001
Media (adjective)	25.8	100.0	< 0.0001
prove	23.45	84.62	< 0.0001
Reach (verb)	23.45	84.62	< 0.0001
society	19.13	64.0	< 0.0001
difficult	18.63	88.89	< 0.0001
Accessible	17.16	100.0	< 0.0001
culture	15.83	87.5	< 0.0001

inspire	15.83	87.5	< 0.0001
Willingness	15.83	87.5	< 0.0001
Access (noun)	15.18	71.43	< 0.0001
capacity	15.18	71.43	< 0.0001
capable	15.12	75	< 0.0001

33. Pertinent variables of context class 2 DHC French corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Belief in the influence of political belonging	Iap2= no	4.64	0.03115
Level of education	Ne2= university level below master	4.02	0.04504

34. Most prominent elements class 3 DHC French corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
in comparison with	66.39	65.22	< 0.0001
physical	61.42	69.44	< 0.0001
Difficulty	50.0	75.0	< 0.0001
Club	49.77	63.16	< 0.0001

Mental	49.2	67.74	< 0.0001
Adapt	48.65	63.89	< 0.0001
Activity	46.69	72.0	< 0.0001
Similarity	37.1	76.47	< 0.0001
Motor (adjective)	37.1	76.47	< 0.0001
Pathologies	30.11	100	< 0.0001
basis	28.87	88.89	< 0.0001
According to	28.74	76.92	< 0.0001
Arm	24.78	75.0	< 0.0001
Arrive	24.75	46	< 0.0001
Problem	22.28	60.0	< 0.0001
Disabled	21.98	46.51	< 0.0001
Precisely	21.86	48.65	< 0.0001
Start(verb)	21.47	100.0	< 0.0001
Try	21.12	61.11	< 0.0001
Only	20.43	85.71	< 0.0001
Effort	20.01	62.5	< 0.0001

35. Pertinent variables of context class 3 DHC French corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P

Influence of political belonging	Iap2= no	4.62	0.03115
Education Level	Ne2= university level below the Master	4.02	0.04504

36. *most prominent elements class 4 DHC French corpus*

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Influence (Verb)	70.22	93.10	< 0.0001
political	68.20	87.88	< 0.0001
Religion	60.29	89.29	< 0.0001
Question	43.11	6739	< 0.0001
Vision	40.88	89.47	< 0.0001
Right (political wing)	40.74	100.0	< 0.0001
Media(noun)	37.81	100.0	< 0.0001
topic	36.72	81.82	
Far (extreme in the political context)	33.28	92.86	< 0.0001
wonder	33.28	92.86	< 0.0001

think	32.80	37.36	< 0.0001
Way (manner)	32.25	87.5	< 0.0001
Left (wing)	31.94	100.0	< 0.0001
Tendency	30.38	92.31	< 0.0001
perception	28.48	78.95	< 0.0001
social	25.77	72.73	< 0.0001
Party (political)	25.72	75.00	< 0.0001
speak	24.83	45.22	< 0.0001
network	24.6	90.91	< 0.0001
Belonging (noun)	23.18	100.0	< 0.0001
rather	23.14	58.97	< 0.0001
Sensitize	23.12	73.68	< 0.0001
possible	21.72	90.0	< 0.0001
Necessarily	20.61	50.0	< 0.0001

37. Pertinent variables of context class 4 DHC French corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Level of practice	Np2= amateur	12.88	0.00033
Age	Age4=above 30	7.46	0.00629

Interest in disability sport	Inter2=no	6.31	0.01198
Influence of political belonging	Iap1= yes	5.19	0.02275
Religion	Rel2= protestant	4.85	0.02762

38. Sociodemographic features of German respondents

TABLEAU DES CARACTÉRISTIQUES DES RÉPONDANTS (Allemagne)
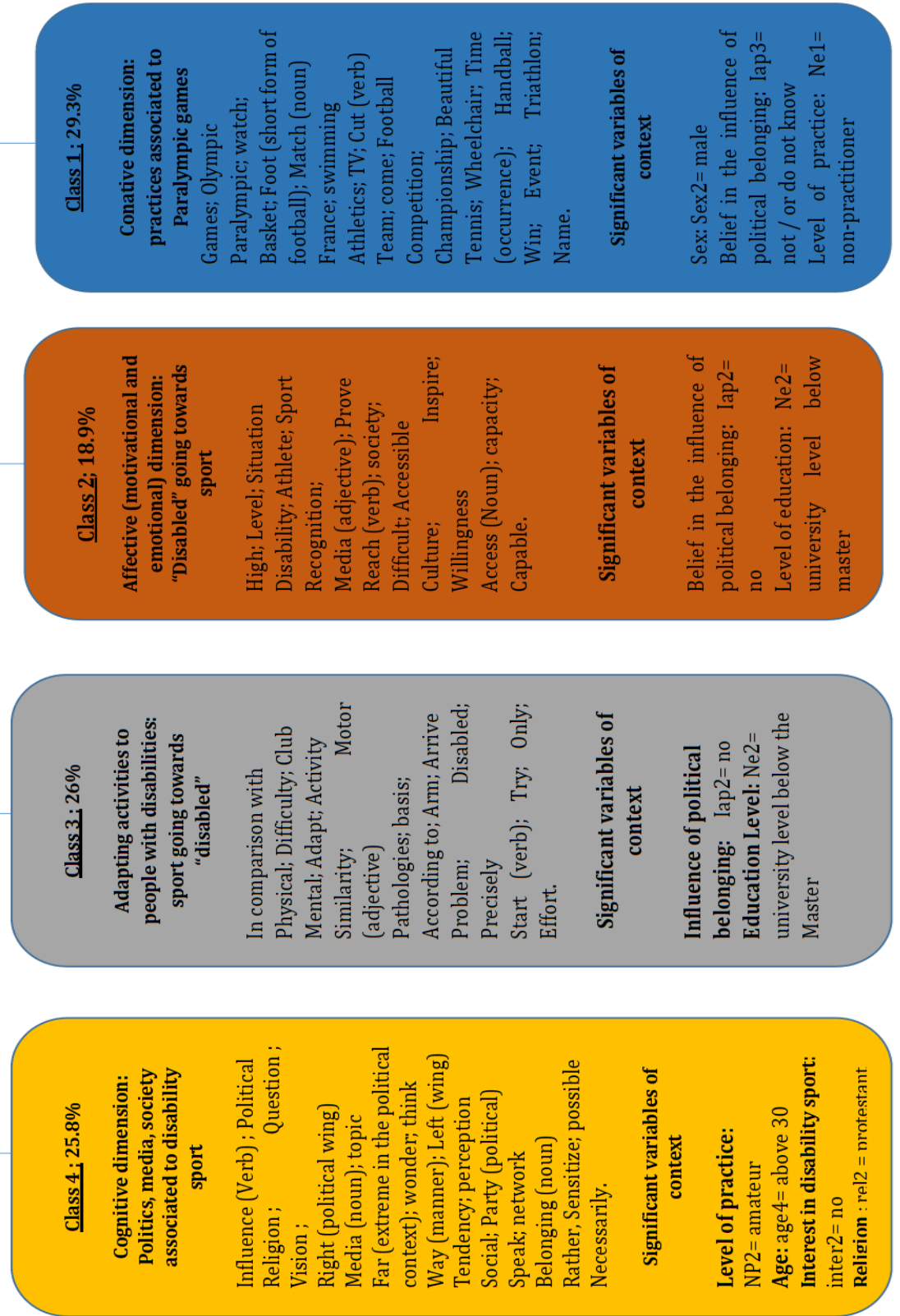
Variables / Sujets	Nationalité	Religion	Niveau d'étude	Âge	sexe	genre	Sujet handicapé	Intérêt sport paralympique	Intérêt sport olympique	Nom donné à la pratique du SHN par des PSH
1	ALD	Aucune	BAC+3 sciences du sport	24 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Non	oui	
2	ALD	Protestante	BAC+5 administration	27 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Non	Non	Hurplashop / behinderten sport
3	ALD	/	BAC+3 enseignant	26 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Non	Oui	Jeux olympiques
4	ALD	Aucune	BAC+2 langue moderne et allemand	21 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Pas vraiment	Pas vraiment	Paralympiques
5	ALD	Protestante	Bachelière	29 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Oui	Oui	Wachstum (growth)
6	ALD	/	Doctorante en littérature contemporaine	31 ans	Féminin	Féminin	Non	Non	Un peu	Inclusion
7	ALD	Protestant	BAC+3	28 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Oui	Oui	Jeux paralympiques
8	ALD	Aucune	Chercheur	34 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Oui	Oui	Hurplashop sport (paralympiques)
9	ALD	Catholique	Professeur	72 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Oui	Oui	Sport paralympique
10	ALD	Protestant	Doctorant en manager	39 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Oui	Oui	Paralympishup sport (paralympique)
11	ALD	/	Historien sportif	39 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Pas vraiment	Oui	Behinderten sport
12	ALD	Protestant	BAC+2 histoire	21 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Pas vraiment	Oui	Sport professionnel
13	ALD	/	/	34 ans	Masculin	Masculin	Non	Pas vraiment	Pas vraiment	Jeux paralympiques

Synthesis of Reniert's HDC (XXX) of the German corpus

Paralympic sport as union of values and conative and media dimension

Values as union of emotional, cognitive and inspirational dimensions

Paralympic movement as union of Paralympic sport and Paralympic environment

Paralympic environment

Class 1: (23.5%)
Cognitive dimension associated to disability sport
Society; Understand
Help (noun); To Cripple
Certainly; To Show
Capable; To Open
To help; Support (noun)
Need (noun); To remain
Case; Dream (noun);
Ready; To succeed; To feel; To change;
Important
Significant Variables of context

Interest in disability sport: Inter3= not really/ do not know
Religion: Rel2= protestant
Age: Age2=20-25 years old

Class 2: (15.9%)
Emotional dimension associated to disability
High; Level; Disability;
Situation; Performance
Completely; to think
Reason; Sport; Aesthetic (adjective); to mention
To compete; to go;
Religion; Knowledge
Inspire; Kind (Genre in French); Fan; To
Influence; Big; Type
Significant Variables of context
Religion: Rel4= non believer or worshippers from other religions
Proximity to disability: Prox1= yes
Level of practice: Np2= amateur
Interest in disability sport: Inter2= no
Sex: Sex2= male
Influence of political belonging: lap1=yes or lap3=not really/ do not know

Class 3: (6.9%)
Inspirational dimension associated to Paralympic sport
Foot; hand; motivate; cruel; rally; swimming
Goal; future; Sensations
Give; body; Respect;
Daily; life; Problem
Motivation; learn ;
Rolling (as a wheel);
basket; Impressive;
Significant Variables of context
Sex: Sex1=female
Age:Age3=26-30
Proximity to a person with disability : Prox3= not really/ do not know
Level of education: Ne2= university level below master
Religion: Rel2= protestant
level of practice: Np2= amateur
Interest in disability sport: Inter1=yes
Belief in the influence of political belonging: lap1= yes

Class 4: 39.4%
Conative and media dimensions
Olympic; Games; Watch
Event; football; Information
TV; basketball; example
Interest; together; Pass (be broadcast); Paralympic;
Team; to follow; rule; Know; different; to play
Media (adjective); friend
Significant Variables of context
Belief in influence of political belonging: lap1=yes
Proximity to disability: Prox2= no
Level of education: Ne2= university below master
Religion: Rel2= protestant
Level of practice: Np2= amateur
Age: Age3= 26-30 or Age 2=21-25
Interest in disability sport: Inter3= not really/do not know
Sex: Sex1= female

Class 5: (14.2%)
Paralympic sport in the world and in Germany
Olympic vs Paralympic sport in Germany
Back stages and decision-making processes in the IOC and the IPC

Medal; Country ; To pose; So much; Horse; Mr. Steadward; President; New; contract; commission; Win; Write; Paper; Norbert; Clinic (noun); Take; To start ; Accident; Student; Christian; China; Transmit ; rehabilitation

Significant Variables of context
Influence of political belonging lap2= no
Religion: Rel1= Catholic
Proximity to disability: Prox3= not really/ do not know
Level of practice Ne1= do not practice
Age: age4= above 30
Level of education Ne3= above master
Sex: Sex2= male

40. most prominent elements of the class 1 of the DHC of the French Corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Society	73.28	85.00	< 0.0001
Understand	34.61	53.12	< 0.0001
Help (noun)	31.89	100.00	< 0.0001
To Cripple	31.43	36.36	< 0.0001
Certainly	31.05	80.00	< 0.0001
To Show	26.48	62.5	< 0.0001
Capable	22.11	70.00	< 0.0001
To Open	21.2	100.0	< 0.0001
To help	21.05	75.00	< 0.0001
Support (noun)	20.5	83.33	< 0.0001
Need (noun)	18.09	57.14	< 0.0001
To remain	18.5	66.67	< 0.0001
Case	15.99	53.33	< 0.0001
Dream(noun)	15.88	100.00	< 0.0001
Ready	14.88	100.00	< 0.0001

To succeed	15.41	80.00	< 0.0001
To feel	16.69	60.00	0.00012
To change	12.42	54.55	0.00042
Important	12.27	41.67	0.00046

41. Pertinent variables of context associated with the class 1 of the DHC of the French corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Interest in disability sport	Inter3= not really/ do not know	8.08	0.00446
Religion	Rel2= protestant	4.71	0.03002
Age	Age2=20-25 years old	4.54	0.03314

42. Most prominent elements of the class 2 DHC French corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
High	153.22	81.94	< 0.0001
Level	141.62	75.00	< 0.0001
Disability	76.63	50.68	< 0.0001

Situation	70.25	72.92	< 0.0001
Performance	56.74	87.5	< 0.0001
Completely	19.72	100.00	< 0.0001
To think	18.41	35.47	< 0.0001
Reason	18.04	75.00	< 0.0001
Sport	16.42	31.23	< 0.0001
Aesthetic (adjective)	16.41	100.00	< 0.0001
To mention	16.41	100.00	< 0.0001
To compete	16.41	100.00	< 0.0001
To go	14.75	40.00	0.00012
Religion	13.24	64.29	0.00027
Knowledge	13.11	100.00	0.00029
Inspire	12.68	66.67	0.00037
Kind (*Genre in French*)	12.59	51.85	0.00038
Fan	12.07	83.33	0.00051
To Influence	11.96	75.00	0.00054
Big	11.81	43.75	0.00059
Type (noun)	10.07	52.38	0.00150

43. Pertinent variables of context Class 2 DHC French corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
religion	Rel4= non believer or worshippers from other religions	42.69	< 0.0001
Proximity to disability	Prox1= yes	23.58	< 0.0001
Level of practice	Np2= amateur	20.8	< 0.0001
Interest in disability sport	Inter2= no	14.62	0.00013
Sex	Sex2= male	10.64	0.00110
Influence of political belonging	Iap1=yes	5.88	0.01527
Influence of political belonging	Iap3= not really/ do not know	5.65	0.01749

44. Most prominent elements class 3 DHC French corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
foot	174.10	77.27	< 0.0001
hand	83.86	80.00	< 0.0001
motivate	81.14	100.00	< 0.0001
cruel	81.14	100.00	< 0.0001
rally	67.93	85.71	< 0.0001
swimming	55.63	63.64	< 0.0001
goal	41.62	80.00	< 0.0001
future	41.62	80.00	< 0.0001
Sensations	38.68	62.5	< 0.0001
give	37.82	31.58	< 0.0001
body	33.42	66.67	< 0.0001
Respect	33.42	66.67	< 0.0001
Daily	33.42	66.67	< 0.0001
life	26.82	33.33	< 0.0001
Problem	23.36	33.33	< 0.0001
motivation	21.95	60.00	< 0.0001
learn	17.37	50.00	< 0.0001

Rolling (as a wheel)	16.64	66.67	< 0.0001
basket	16.64	66.67	< 0.0001
Impressive	14.98	36.36	0.00010
Reach	14.98	36.36	0.00010
Thing	10.39	14.74	0.00126

45. Pertinent variables of context class 3 DHC French corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Sex	Sex1=female	30.78	< 0.0001
Age	Age3=26-30	27.46	< 0.0001
Proximity to a person with disability	Prox3= not really/ do not know	17.53	< 0.0001
Level of education	Ne2= university level below master	12.44	0.00041
Religion	Rel2= protestant	9.5	0.00205
level of practice	Np2= amateur	9.17	0.00245
Interest in disability sport	Inter1=yes	6.33	0.01187

Belief in the influence of political belonging	Iap1= yes	6.3	0.01205

46. Most prominent elements class 4 DHC French corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Olympic	50.06	78.57	< 0.0001
Games	43.96	65.35	< 0.0001
Watch	35.64	73.85	< 0.0001
event	29.93	81.58	< 0.0001
football	25.16	100.0	< 0.0001
Information	20.35	100.0	< 0.0001
TV	18.58	82.61	< 0.0001
basketball	18.21	76.61	< 0.0001
example	18.01	65.00	< 0.0001
interest	15.85	76.92	< 0.0001
together	15.85	87.5	< 0.0001
Pass (be broadcast)	14.92	83.33	0.00011
Paralympic	14.37	54.40	0.00015

team	14.33	86.67	0.00018
To follow	14.01	100.00	0.00022
rule	14.01	100.00	0.00028
know	13.62	61.67	0.00034
different	13.17	75.00	0.00042
To play	12.82	85.71	0.00046
Media (adjective)	12.43	100.00	0.00078
friend	12.26	76.19	0.00098
Germany	11.26	70.37	0.00098
championship	10.86	90.00	0.00098
Small	10.86	90.00	0.00190
Internet	10.86	100.00	0.00224

47. Pertinent variables class 4 DHC French corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Belief in influence of political belonging	Iap1=yes	39.1	< 0.0001
Proximity to disability	Prox2= no	27.37	< 0.0001

Level of education	Ne2= university level below master	21.75		< 0.0001
Religion	Rel2= protestant	19.59		< 0.0001
Level of practice	Np2= amateur	11.23		0.00080
Age	Age3= 26-30	10.45		0.00122
	Or			
	Age 2=21-25	5.22		0.02232
Interest in disability sport	Inter3= not really/do not know	9.6		0.00194
Sex	Sex1= female	4.39		0.03623

48. Most prominent elements class 5 DHC French corpus

Words	Values of chi2 (bespeaking for his attachment to the class)	Percentages segments (utterances) containing the word	Values of p
Medal	110.01	90.91	< 0.0001
Country	73.94	100.00	< 0.0001
To pose	42.04	81.82	< 0.0001
So much	35.76	87.5	< 0.0001

Horse	30.49	100.000	< 0.0001
Mr. Steadward	30.49	100.0	< 0.0001
President	30.49	100.00	< 0.0001
new	30.49	100.0	< 0.0001
contract	30.49	100.00	< 0.0001
commission	30.49	100.00	< 0.0001
Win	24.96	46.43	< 0.0001
Write	24.35	75.00	< 0.0001
Paper	24.35	100.00	< 0.0001
Norbert	24.35	100.00	< 0.0001
Clinic (noun)	23.97	100.00	< 0.0001
Take	22.47	50.00	< 0.0001
To start	19.57	63.64	< 0.0001
Accident	19.57	58.33	< 0.0001
Student	19.05	71.43	< 0.0001
Christian	18.24	100.00	< 0.0001
China	18.24	100.00	< 0.0001
Transmit	18.24	100.00	< 0.0001
rehabilitation	18.24	100.00	< 0.0001

49. Pertinent variables of context class 5 DHC French corpus

Variables of context	values	Value of chi2 (bespeaking for the attachment to the class)	Value of P
Belief in influence of political belonging	Iap2= no	377.11	< 0.0001
Religion	Rel1= Catholic	122.44	< 0.0001
Proximity to disability	Prox3= not really/ do not know	119.29	< 0.0001
Level of practice	Ne1= do not practice	103.48	< 0.0001
Age	age4= above 30	58.85	< 0.0001
Level of education	Ne3= above master	58.85	< 0.0001
Sex	Sex2= male	19.83	< 0.0001

50. Summary of senses deposited into different classes for each country

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Class 6
CMR corpus	14.4% Authorities' role and media	(18%) Media role in paralympic sport	(32.3%) Affective & motivational dimensions associated to disability sport	(8.4%) Affective & emotional dimensions associated to disability	(10.2%) Cognitive and socio-cultural dimension associated to Paralympic sport	(16.7%) Conative dimension indicating practices
FRA corpus	29.3% Conative dimension: practices associated to Paralympic games	18.9% Affective (motivational and emotional) dimension: "Disabled" going towards sport	26% Adapting activities to people with disabilities: sport going towards "disabled"	25.8% Cognitive dimension: Politics, media, society associated to disability sport	X	X
GER corpus	(23.5%) Cognitive dimension associated to disability sport	(15.9%) Emotional dimension associated to disability	(6.9%) Inspirational dimension associated to Paralympic sport	39.4% Conative and media dimensions	(14.2%) Paralympic sport in the world and in Germany Olympic vs Paralympic sport in Germany Back stages and decision-making	X

51. Summary of pertinent variables associated to different classes for each country

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Clas
CMR corpus	Proximity to disability	Interest in disability sport	Religion	Belief in influence of political belonging	Proximity to a PWDs	Dis… st
	Disability status		Interest in disability sport	Level of practice	Level of practice	
	Education level			Interest in disability sport		
FRA corpus	Sex	Belief in the influence of political belonging	Influence of political belonging	Level of practice	X	
	Belief in the influence of political	Level of education	Education Level	Age		
				Interest in disability sport		
	Level of practice			Religion		
GER corpus	Interest in disability sport	Religion Proximity to disability	Sex	Belief in influence of political belonging	Belief in influence of political belonging	

52. Confirmatory study questionnaire

We thank you for taking your time to fill in this questionnaire. we are carrying out a survey on para sport (also referred to as Paralympic sport or high-performance disability sport). There is no wrong nor good answers. All your answers will be kept confidential and treated anonymously. Thanking you again for your availability.

1 – are you Cameroonian / French/ German ?   1❑ yes 2❑ no
If yes please fill in the questionnaire below   if no, please do not continue: this questionnaire does not concern you

2 – have you ever watched or followed a high-performance disability sport (Paralympic sport, para sport) competition directly (in an arena) or via media (tv, radio, internet, social networks, etc.) ?   1❑ yes 2❑ no

3 – As Cameroonian, kindly indicate how much you do agree with the propositions itemized here below about Paralympic sport, mindful that:
Do not agree at all 1……2.......3…….4……5……6…...7 Totally agree

	Speaking about Paralympic sport always and in all the instances equates to speaking about :	
1	Sporting disciplines that pertain to the realm of Paralympic sports (for example para basket, blindfoot, para-athletics, para swimming, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
2	Major disability sport events like Paralympics	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
3	The types of impairments observed within Paralympic sports (for example motor impairments, visual impairments, auditive impairments, mental impairments, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
4	The types of people with disabilities that do practice Paralympic sport (example blinds, deafs, dwarfs, amputees, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
5	The tools that are used by people with disabilities to practice Paralympic sport (for example prostheses, wheelchairs, crutches, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7

6	The fact that those practicing Paralympic sport are also high-performance sportsmen and women (that is, champions, athletes, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
7	Paralympic athletes' Performances or training.	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
8	The power of Paralympic sport to participate in the integration and the social insertion of people with disabilities	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
9	The power of Paralympic sport to make people with disability rich and famous.	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
10	How para-athletes inspire us through their practice.	
11	The power of Paralympic sport to contribute to people with disabilities' health and blossoming	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
12	How para-athletes do fight against their disability with courage and determination in order to overcome it and achieve performances that no one expected from them.	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
13	The marginalisation experienced by para-athletes (discrimination, mockeries, poor media coverage, lack of institutional financial support , etc.).	1...2...3...4...5...6...7

4- Kindly indicate to what extend the following propositions apply to you, mindful that:
Not at all 1……2.......3…….4……5……6…...7 Totally

1	I feel connected to numerous aspects in the disability community	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
2	I feel a part of the disability community	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
3	I support the disability community as a whole	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
4	I do understand technical aspects of most of the Paralympic sports	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
5	I do understand rules of most of Paralympic sports	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
6	I do understand game (or competition) strategy in most of Paralympic sports.	1...2...3...4...5...6...7

5 – Kindly indicate to what extend the following propositions apply to you, mindful that:
Not at all 1……2.......3…….4……5……6…...7 Totally

1	Watching or following Paralympic sport on media when a team or athlete from my country is competing could be a way to support my country	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
2	A victory from an athlete of a team from my country in a Paralympic sport would make me feel proud to be a citizen	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
3	Patriotism could be a good reason for watching or following Paralympic sport on media when a team or an athlete from my country is performing	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
4	I am fan of high-performance sport regardless of who or what team (or athlete) is playing/ performing.	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
5	I am not just fan of one specific high-performance sport, but of high-performance sport in general	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
6	I consider myself as a fan of high-performance sport and not just of one specific team or athlete.	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
7	I am more interested in the level of competition than in a particular sport, team or athlete.	1...2...3...4...5...6...7

6- Kindly indicate to what extend the following propositions apply to you, mindful that:
Not at all 1……2.......3…….4……5……6…...7 Totally

1	Usually, I listen and pay attention to the news and other live or broadcast programs through media every day.	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
2	Usually, I give credit to and trust what media say	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
3	I use media to get information about things that are important to me	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
4	Over the last three months, commercials, advertisements, fliers, and posters promoting Paralympic sport events were visible almost everywhere.	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
5	Over the last three months, Paralympic sport was present and promoted on social media	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
6	Over the last three months, there was a media (Tv, radio, internet, etc.) publicity about Paralympic sport	1...2...3...4...5...6...7

7 – Kindly indicate to what extend the following propositions apply to you, mindful that:
Not at all 1……2.......3…….4……5……6…...7 Totally

1	before Tokyo 2021 Paralympics (for example during Rio 2016 or Peongchang 2018 Paralympics), I tracked news on Paralympic sport through media (Tv, radio, internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
2	before Tokyo 2021 Paralympics (for example during Rio 2016 or Peongchang 2018 Paralympics), I watched or listened to disability sport competitions through media (TV, radio, internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
3	before Tokyo 2021 Paralympics (for example during Rio 2016 or Peongchang 2018 Paralympics), I supported disability sport by watching or listening disability sport competitions through media (TV, radio, internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
4	In the coming months or years, I will track news on Paralympic sport through media (Tv, radio, internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
5	In the coming months or years (for example in Paris 2024 Paralympics), I will watch or listen to disability sport competitions through media (TV, radio, internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
6	In the coming months or years (for example in Paris 2024 Paralympics), I will support disability sport by watching or listening disability sport competitions through media (TV, radio, internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7

8 – Kindly indicate to what extend the following propositions apply to you, mindful that:
Not at all 1……2.......3…….4……5……6…...7 Totally

1	During Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, I tracked news on Paralympic sport through media (Tv, radio, internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
2	During Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, I watched or listened to disability sport competitions through media (TV, radio, internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
3	During Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, I supported disability sport by watching or listening disability sport competitions through media (TV, radio, internet, social media, newspaper, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
4	During and after Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, I said positive things about disability sport to other people (orally of through internet).	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
5	During and after Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, I recommended disability sport to a friend or colleague (orally or through internet).	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
6	During and after Tokyo 2021 Paralympics, I encouraged friends and relatives to watch, listen or follow (on TV, radio, or internet) or to attend disability sport competitions, games, or events (orally or through internet).	1...2...3...4...5...6...7

9- Let us assume a Paralympic sport content is scheduled on media (TV, radio, internet, social network, etc.). Here below are itemised different situations itemised different situations. Kindly indicate how detrimental would each of these situations be on your availability (intention) to watch or follow the above-mentioned Paralympic sport content on media, mindful that:
Not at all 1……2.......3…….4……5……6…...7 Totally

1	The broadcasting of other sport (sport for people without disability) on media at the same time.	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
2	The possibility for you to attend a local non-professional sport event/competition (sport for people without disability) in your area	1...2...3...4...5...6...7
3	The possibility for you to attend a professional sport event/competition (sport for people without disability) in your area	1...2...3...4...5...6...7

10- Kindly indicate to what extend the following propositions apply to you, mindful that:
Not at all 1……2.......3…….4……5……6…...7 Totally

1	My family would approve of me watching, following, or attending to high performance disability sport / Paralympic sport competitions or events	1...2...3...4...5...6...
2	People close to me would approve of me watching, following, or attending to high performance disability sport / Paralympic sport competitions or events	1...2...3...4...5...6...
3	Society My family would approve of me watching, following, or attending to high performance disability sport / Paralympic sport competitions or events	1...2...3...4...5...6...
4	My family is not (or would not) be interested in watching or following high performance disability sport / Paralympic sport through media (TV, internet, social media, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...

5	My spouse/best friend is not (or would not) be interested in watching or following high performance disability sport / Paralympic sport through media (TV, internet, social media, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...
6	My friends are not or would not be interested in watching or following high performance disability sport / Paralympic sport through media (TV, internet, social media, etc.)	1...2...3...4...5...6...

11- kindly indicate your affectivity about watching Paralympic sport

	For me, watching or following Paralympic Sport through media is (or would be)
1	Unpleasant 1..........2............3............4.............5...........6............7 pleasant
2	Boring 1..........2............3............4.............5...........6............7 exciting
3	Dull 1..........2.........3............4.............5...........6............7 entertaining

12 – What are the six main Paralympic sport disciplines you did watch or follow during the last Paralympics (Tokyo 2021)?

1	2	3
4	5	6

13 – Through what channel(s) did you watch or follow those disciplines (tv or radio, or internet, or social media, etc.)

1❑ TV   2❑ social networks   3❑ internet (apart from social networks)   4❑ newspapers   5❑ radio

6❑ other

14 – would you define yourself as fan of Paralympic sport (high performance disability sport) ?   1❑ yes   2❑ no

15 – Do you usually follow or Watch sports in general ?   1❑ yes   2❑ no

16– what is your job :

1❑ farmer   4❑ enterprise manager   7❑ qualified worker

2❑ small business holder 5❑ Employed   8❑ job less

3❑ unskilled worker   6❑ self-employed   9❑ retired   10❑ student   11❑ other

17 – what is your marital status ?   1❑ single   3❑ Married   5❑ divorced
2❑ in a relationship   4❑ widow(ed)   6❑ other ……………….

18- Kindly provide us with the following details regarding yourself :

Your age :	Do you bear any impairment ? 1❑ yes 2❑ no
Your gender: 1❑M 2❑F 3❑other	Does any relative of yours bear any impairment ? 1❑ yes 2❑
Highest educational level : ………………………	How frequently do you do sport ?
What area do you dwell in : 1❑rural 1 ❑ urban	1❑ more that 3times a week 2❑ 1 to 3 times a week
What is your household's size (number of people) ?........	3❑ once every two weeks 4❑once monthly
Do you live close to sporting venues or facilities ? 1❑ yes 2❑ no	5❑Less than once a month.

19 – what is your annual household's income? : 1❑ less than 500 000 cfa   2❑ between 500 000 and 999 999 cfa

3❑ between 1000 000 and 199 999 cfa   4❑ between 2000 000 and 4999 999 cfa

5❑ 5 000 000cfa +

53. Micom step 3a (means) according to the gender divides in Germany

MICOM - Step 3a (mean)   Zoom (100%)   Copy to Excel   Copy to R

	Original difference	Permutation mean difference	2.5%	97.5%	Permutation p value
Affective attitude	-0.540	-0.013	-0.271	0.247	0.000
Attach Level	0.171	-0.015	-0.316	0.190	0.170
Attach com	-0.209	-0.003	-0.242	0.231	0.130
Lack from Interest from the others	0.297	-0.014	-0.239	0.215	0.020
Media / Pub	-0.245	0.009	-0.250	0.266	0.080
Media Consump	-0.293	0.006	-0.226	0.282	0.030
Nat ID	-0.346	-0.029	-0.344	0.204	0.020
Past Behaviour	-0.148	0.002	-0.236	0.213	0.260
RS	-0.121	-0.021	-0.266	0.242	0.420
Soc Norms	0.402	0.011	-0.213	0.221	0.000
Sport ent Alt	-0.321	-0.023	-0.278	0.220	0.010
WOM	-0.202	0.010	-0.293	0.264	0.150
knowledge	0.198	-0.003	-0.240	0.230	0.150

54. Micom Step 3a Germany accooroding the proximity to benues

MICOM – Step 3a (mean)

Zoom (100%)　Copy to Excel　Copy to R

	Original difference	Permutation mean difference	2.5%	97.5%	Permutation p value
Affective attitude	0.275	0.021	-0.266	0.302	0.070
Attach Level	0.457	-0.014	-0.267	0.255	0.000
Attach com	0.039	-0.010	-0.316	0.226	0.810
Lack from Interest from the others	0.380	-0.023	-0.327	0.251	0.010
Media / Pub	0.133	-0.015	-0.324	0.229	0.330
Media Consump	0.097	0.002	-0.285	0.309	0.480
Nat ID	0.023	0.016	-0.266	0.244	0.950
Past Behaviour	0.029	-0.006	-0.251	0.213	0.890
RS	0.019	-0.002	-0.267	0.229	0.840
Soc Norms	-0.187	-0.001	-0.277	0.237	0.210
Sport ent Alt	0.128	0.011	-0.261	0.240	0.400
WOM	0.060	-0.007	-0.292	0.279	0.640
knowledge	0.173	-0.001	-0.280	0.236	0.260

55. Micom Step 3a according to the level of sport practice in Germany

MICOM – Step 3a (mean)

Zoom (100%)　Copy to Excel　Copy to R

	Original difference	Permutation mean difference	2.5%	97.5%	Permutation p value
Affective attitude	0.574	-0.012	-0.239	0.236	0.000
Attach Level	0.922	-0.016	-0.323	0.219	0.000
Attach com	0.454	-0.026	-0.319	0.207	0.000
Lack from Interest from the others	0.012	-0.000	-0.303	0.271	0.950
Media / Pub	0.366	-0.011	-0.312	0.209	0.010
Media Consump	0.649	-0.027	-0.286	0.271	0.000
Nat ID	0.458	-0.007	-0.316	0.228	0.000
Past Behaviour	0.495	-0.023	-0.293	0.263	0.000
RS	0.406	-0.009	-0.307	0.257	0.000
Soc Norms	-0.342	0.003	-0.427	0.262	0.040
Sport ent Alt	0.195	-0.018	-0.327	0.266	0.240
WOM	0.443	0.003	-0.251	0.236	0.000
knowledge	0.540	-0.003	-0.299	0.235	0.000

56. Micom Step 3a according to the disability sport follower status divide in France

MICOM – Step 3a (mean)

Zoom (100%) [Copy to Excel] [Copy to R]

	Original difference	Permutation mean difference	2.5%	97.5%	Permutation p value
Aff Attitude	0.601	0.007	-0.229	0.264	0.000
Attach Level	1.393	0.012	-0.215	0.205	0.000
Knowledge	0.567	0.009	-0.185	0.199	0.000
Lack of Interest from the others	0.762	-0.006	-0.196	0.155	0.000
Med Consump	0.250	-0.016	-0.202	0.210	0.000
Media EAT	0.708	-0.007	-0.214	0.170	0.000
Media/ Pub	0.674	0.002	-0.208	0.169	0.000
Nad Id	0.713	0.000	-0.175	0.215	0.000
Past Behav	0.826	0.019	-0.222	0.269	0.000
RS	0.139	-0.005	-0.154	0.179	0.140
Soc Norms	0.792	0.004	-0.193	0.200	0.000
Sport ent Alt	0.920	0.013	-0.196	0.226	0.000
WOM	-0.114	0.008	-0.234	0.236	0.290