INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY

REPORT ON THE I.O.A.'s SPECIAL SESSIONS AND SEMINARS 2000

ANCIENT OLYMPIA

INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY

8th INTERNATIONAL POSTGRADUATE SEMINAR ON OLYMPIC STUDIES
4/5 - 14/6/2000

5th INTERNATIONAL SESSION FOR RESIDENTS OR DIRECTORS OF NATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMIES AND OFFICIALS OF NATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEES
2/6 - 8/6/2000

ANCIENT OLYMPIA

GREECE

ISBN: 960-8144-33-7
ISSN: 1108-6831

Published and edited by the International Olympic Academy. Scientific supervisor: Dr. Konstantinos Georgiadis/IOA Dean. Athens 2001

EPHORIA OF THE INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY

President	Nikos FILARETOS (I.O.C. Member)
1st Vice-Président	Georgios MOISSIDIS
2nd Vice-Président	Spiros ZANNIAS
Dean	Konstantinos GEORGIADIS
Member ex-officio	Lambis NIKOLAOU (I.O.C. Member)
Members	Dimitris DIATHESSOPOULOS Georgios YEROLIMBOS
	Ioannis THEODORAKOPOULOS Epaminondas KIRIAZIS
Cultural Consultant	Panayiotis GRAVALOS
Honorary President	Juan Antonio SAMARANCH
Honorary Vice-Président	Nikolaos YALOURIS

THE HELLENIC OLYMPIC COMMITTEE

President	Lambis NIKOLAOU (I.O.C. Member)
1st Vice-Président	Ioannis PAPADOYANNAKIS
2nd Vice-Président	Emmanuel KATSIADAKIS
Secretary General	Dimitris DIATHESSOPOULOS
Treasurer	Athanassios BELIGRATIS
Deputy Secretary General	Ioannis PSILOPOULOS
Deputy Treasurer	Andreas ARVANITIS
Member ex-officio	Nikos FILARETOS (I.O.C. Member)
Members	Georgios ALIKAKOS
	Georgios ANEMOYANNIS
	Georgios VASSILAKOPOULOS
	Ioannis VASSILIADIS
	Georgios YEROLIMBOS
	Georgios DROSSOS-PAPPAS
	Spiros ZANNIAS
	Pavlos KANELLAKIS
	Kostas KARABETSOS
	Georgios LISSARIDIS
	Efstratios MOLIVAS
	Georgios MONAHOS
	Georgios MOISSIDIS
	Athanassios PRAGALOS
	Georgios SAKELLION
	Ioannis SGOUROS
	Freddy SERPIERIS
	Konstantinos TRIVELAS
	Georgios HALKIDIS
	Theodoros HAMAKOS
	Christos CHRISTODOULATOS

I.O.C. COMMISSION
FOR THE IOC COMMISSION FOR CULTURE
AND OLYMPIC EDUCATION

President	Zhenliang HE IOC member in China
Vice-Président	Nikos FILARETOS IOC member in Greece
Members	Fernando Ferreira Lima BELLO IOC member in Portugal Valeriy BORZOV IOC member in Ukraine Ivan DIBOS IOC member in Peru Sinan ERDEM IOC member in Turkey Nat INDRAPANA IOC member in Thailand Carol Anne LETHEREN IOC member in Canada General Major Francis NYANGWESO IOC member in Uganda Lambis W. NIKOLAOU IOC member in Greece General Mounir SABET IOC member in Egypt Ching-Kuo WU IOC member in Chinese Taipei S.E.M. Mohamed ZERGUINI IOC member in Algeria
Representatives of IFs	Juan Angel CALZADO Klaus SCHORMANN
Representatives of NOCs	George MOISSIDES Fern. BELTRANENA VALLADARES

Representatives of ANOC	Henri SERANDOUR
Representatives of Athletes	Charmaine CROOKS
	Philippe RIBOUD
Individual members	Vittorio ADORNI
	Helen BROWNLEE
	Judge Conrado DURANTEZ
	Jean DURRY
	Kostas GEORGIADIS
	Yoon-bang KWON
	Marc MAES
	Alicia MASONI de MOREA
	Luis MONREAL
	Norbert MÜLLER
	Robert PARIENTE
	Thomas ROSANDICH
Secretariat	General Secretariat

PROLOGUE

In this Report, the works of two I.O.A.'s sessions, which were held in the premises of Ancient Olympia during the year 2000, are published. a) the works of the 8th International Postgraduate Seminar on Olympic Studies, b) the works of the 5th International Session for Presidents or Directors of NOAs and officials of NOCs.

The 8th International Postgraduate Seminar on Olympic Studies was organised from the 4th of May until the 14th of June. The 32 students who took part in this Seminar came from 24 countries. Moreover, two representatives of the I.O.C. attended the works of the Seminar and presented the work and the activities of the Olympic Museum of Lausanne.

In this Report also, all the students papers, which sum up to 32, are presented. The topics of the papers cover a wide range of the Olympic Movement. Once more, the students level was high and their papers remarkable. Many of these papers were original researches by postgraduate students that stand up to the Olympic scientific research that is done by the I.O.A.

Fourteen professors from 10 different countries attended the works of the Seminar. Professors Dr. W. Decker, Dr. S. Miller and Dr. E. Albanidis, presented topics relative to: Sport before the Greeks, Sport in Early Greece (Minoan-Mycenaean Civilization and Homer), the Ancient Olympic Games, the early hellenistic stadium at Nemea and its contribution to our understanding of ancient athletics, the evolution of the Greek stadium as an architectural form and its reflection of the changing status of athletics in ancient society as well as the starting mechanisms for the ancient foot race.

During the second part of the Seminar professors Dr. R. Mechikoff and D. Wallechinsky and Dr. K. Georgiadis covered topics related to the history of the modem Olympic Games, such as the renovation of the Olympic Games and the inspiration and innovation: the philosphical contributions of Pierre de Coubertin, and different historical aspects of the Summer and Winter Olympic Games.

During the third week of the Seminar, professors Dr. B. Cram, *Dr. M. Ajisafe and Dr. R.M. Répond dealt with topics related to the social aspects of sport in the Olympic Movement, i.e. postmodernism -the rediscovery of the body- the sportification of the society, the internal differentiation of sport, a critical pedagogical review of post modern modes of sport from the perspective of a contemporary intrepretation of Olympism, the consequences for sport coaching / management and the education of sport coaches / managers as well as the Olympic Movement in Africa.*

During the fourth part of the Seminar Professors Dr. J. MacAloon, Dr. B. Houlihan and Dr. H. Ren presented to the students topics covering the fields of I.O.C. 2000 Commission Process, the Olympic Movement and the international policies on sport, doping in sport and why opposing it, problems of Olympic Movement in the developing countries and problems in connecting sport with culture and education.

Finally, the Seminar closed with the lectures of Dr. B. Kidd and Dr. J. Dally related to human rights in sports, athletes rights and spectators rights, the Olympic Games as an arena of honor for the display of ethical values in sport and the contemporary sporting values.

We should also note that this year, for the first time, two professors from Loughborough University, Dr. Ian Henry and Dr. Eleni Theodoraki, took part in the last evaluation part of the Seminar's works.

According to the agreement between the University of Loughborough and the I.O.A., the students of the Postgraduate Seminar after having succesfully sat an exam, they get 30 credits from the University of Loughborough. The 50% of the grade depends on the students short paper, 25% on the students critical review on the works of the Seminar and 25% on the oral examination that students are subjected to. Thirteen students of the 8th Postgraduate Seminar took part in the evaluation program while twelve of them passed the exam.

The 5th International Session for Presidents or Directors of National Olympic Academies and Officials of National Olympic Committees was held from the 2nd of June until the 8th of June 2000. The Session focused on the "Various models of effective education: Options and methods of implementation and evaluation strategies". Members and Officials of NOAs and NOCs took part in the Session. The purpose of the Session was, first, to further educate the officials on Olympic Education topics and second, to secure those prerequisites that are nec-

essary for the harmonious cooperation among the officials of the two statutory organizations of the Olympic Movement. There were 96 participants (72 male-24 female) coming from 62 NOAs and 27 NOCs. Seventy of them represented the 62 NOAs while thirty three the 27 NOCs, respectively.

The eight lecturers (3 female-5 male) presented with clarity the theoretical framework of the Olympic Education programs as well as the methods of their implementation and the results of their evaluation.

For one more year, the NOAs and NOCs representatives presented the numerous activities related to the Olympic Education in their countries. In total, 29 short presentations were presented, mainly referring to the remarkable work of the NOAs.

The works of the Session closed with the presentation of the conclusions from 8 work-teams (2 french-speaking and 6 english-speaking). The conclusions of the Session are published in the Report and refer to the definition of the meaning of the Olympic Education, the teaching methods, the multicultural education, the NOAs activities as well as the cooperation between the NOCs and the NOAs.

The I.O.A. and the HOC with the publication of this Report, continue their valuable offer to the Olympic Movement. A Movement that is based on the educational value of sports that focus on the harmonious shaping of the morals and the character of young people. A Movement that is based on the educational procedure that supports the participation of Arts and Spirit in the Games and put emphasis on the civilization and the human dignity.

Dr. Kostas Georgiadis
Dean of the I.O.A.

8th INTERNATIONAL POSTGRADUATE SEMINAR ON OLYMPIC STUDIES

4/5 - 14/6/2000

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

LECTURERS

Dr. Konstantinos GEORGIADIS Dean, International Olympic Academy	52, Dimitrios Vikelas Avenue 152 33 Halandri, Athens GREECE
Prof. Dr. Wolfgang DECKER	Deutsche Sporthochschule Köln, Institut für Sportgeschichte Carl-Diem-Weg 6, D-50 927 Köln GERMANY
Prof. Dr. Evaggelos ALBANIDIS	"Democritus" University of Thrace Department of Physical Education & Sports Science 691 00 Komotini, GREECE
Prof. Dr. Stephen MILLER	Nemea Excavations University . of California, Berkeley Archea Nemea, 205 00, Korinthia GREECE
Mr. David WALLECHINSKY	6, Place de l' Eglise 13520, Maussane Les Alpilles FRANCE
Prof. Dr. Robert MECHIKOFF	Department of Exercise and Nutritional Science San Diego State University San Diego, California, 92182 USA
Prof. Dr. Mike AJISAFE Dr.	P.O. Box 2511 Doha, QATAR
Bart CRUM	University of Tilburg Helene Swarthlaan 33 1422 KG Uithoorn THE NETHERLANDS
Prof. Dr. Rose-Marie REPOND	Faculté des Sciences Sociales et Politiques, Institut des Sciences du Sport et de l' Education Physique Université de Lausanne Villa des Sports-Dorigny CH-1015, Lausanne SWITZERLAND

Prof. Dr. John MacALOON	Professor and Associate Dean Graduate Division of the Social Sciences University of Chicago 5828 S. University Ave., Chicago, IL 60637, USA
Prof. Dr. Barrie HOULIHAN	Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy Dept. of Physical Education, Sports Sciences and Recreation Management Loughborough University Loughborough Leicestershire, LE11 3TU, U.K.
Prof. Dr. John DALY	81, Onkaparinga Road Bridgewater 5155 South Australia AUSTRALIA
Prof. Dr. Bruce KIDD	Dean, Faculty of Physical Education and Health, University of Toronto 55, Harbord str., Toronto Ontario, M5 S2 W6, CANADA
Prof. Dr. Hai REN	Director of Centre for Olympic Studies Beijing University of Physical Education Beijing CHINA
Dr. Eleni THEODORAKI	Department of Physical Education, Sports Science and Recreation Management Loughborough University Loughborough, Leicestrshire LE 11 3TU U.K.
Prof. Dr. Ian HENRY Director of the Institute of Sport and Leisure Policy Loughborough University, Loughborough, Leicestershire	LE 11 3TU Great Britain

COORDINATOR

Mr. Elias MUSANGEYA	Hinse 5791 Kuwadzana 7 P.O. Mufakose, Harare ZIMBABWE

PARTICIPANTS

Mr. Mansour AL-TAUQI	Department of Physical Education, Sports Science and Recreation Management Loughborough University Loughborough, Leicestershire LE 11 3TU U.K.
Mr. Mahfoud AMARA	Department of Physical Education, Sports Science and Recreation Management Loughborough University Loughborough, Leicestershire LE 11 3TU U.K.
Ms. Martha BARTOLO	54 St Paul Milqi Burmarrad Spb 08 MALTA
Mrs. Ruth BECK-PERRENOUD	Musée Olympique Lausanne Documentation Fondation du Comité International Olympique Quai d'Ouchy 1, Case Postale 1001 Lausanne SUISSE
Mrs. Anke BOHNE	Kölnstr. 114 D- 53111 Bonn GERMANY
Mr. Federico GALLO	Via Bragarina 30 19126 La Spezia ITALY
Ms. Beatriz GARCIA	C/Llobatera 6 08339 Vilassar De Dalt Barcelona, SPAIN

Mr. Angel Maria GIL PAREJO	Esquero, 1, 2° 06400 - Don Benito Badajoz, SPAIN
Ms. Debra GOOD	129 Uppre Clont Arf Str. Seaforth NSW, 2092 AUSTRALIA
Mr. Thomas KAPTAIN	Laessoegade 21, 2th 5000 Odense C DENMARK
Mr. Silvan KELLER	Aarontie 4B10 40500 Jyväskylä FINLAND Kastanienbaum str. 06 6047 Kastanienbaum SWITZERLAND
Mr. David KIPSHIDZE	David-Garedge Str. 16-40 Rustavi GEORGIA 383040 Index
Mr. Hung-Yu (Richard) LIU	13, Pich Str. Shapshed, LE12 9BB, UK Department of P.E., S.S. and Rec. Man. Loughborough University LEICS LE 11 3TU UK
Ms. Nicole-Marie LUITWIELER	Dantestraat 68 3076 KN Rotterdam THE NETHERLANDS
Mr. Máximos MALFAS	Apolpenas Str. 1 311 00 Lefkada GREECE
Mrs. Aiga MARENA	Artilerijas Str. 24-6 Riga, LV - 1010 LATVIA
Mr. Minoru MATSUNAMI	248, 2-17-10 Akasaka Minato-Ku Tokyo 107- 0052, JAPAN

Mr. Andy MIAH	De Montfort University 37 Lansdowne Rd. Bedford, MK40 2BZ, UK
Ms. Catherine MONNIN	5, Rue Saint-Hilaire 25220 Thise FRANCE
Ms. Orsolya PINTER	2083 Solymar Hóvirág U.30 HUNGARY
Mrs. Somkid PINTHONG	2088 Sports Authority of Thailand Huamark Bangkapi Bangkok 10240 THAILAND
Ms. Cornelia POVAR	77 Stefan Cel Mare Av. 2012 Chisinau, MOLDOVA (Job) 133/3 Columna Str. 2 012 Chisinau MOLDOVA (Home)
Ms. Galina RAGOZINA	55, 33/49, Irinovsky Pr. 195030 Saint-Petersburg RUSSIA
Mrs. Fabienne ROUILLER	Musée Olympique Lausanne Documentation Fondation du Comité International Olympique Quai d'Ouchy 1, Case Postale 1001 Lausanne SUISSE
Mr. Naif SA'ADA	Jordan Olympic Committee P.O. Box 19258 Amman, JORDAN
Ms. Parissa SAFAI	340 Kerrybrook Drive Richmond Hill, ON L4C 3R1 CANADA
Ms. Evi SALEPI	Agios Serafim Lokridos 350 09, Fthiotida GREECE

Ms. Amanda SCHWEINBENZ	115 Elmhurst Drive Hamilton, ON L8T IC5 CANADA
Ms. Heather SHERIDAN	4, Eclipse Terrace Upper Bath Street Cheltenham Gloucestershire GL50 2BA U.K.
Mr. Thomas THIELECKE	Hegelstrasse 29 55122 Mainz GERMANY
Ms. Marianne TJ0RNHOM	Bergrådveien 35a 0873 Oslo NORWAY
Ms. Sophia VAKIRTZI	19 Vas. Amalias Ave. 145 61 Kifissia, Athens, GREECE
Mr. Kalle VOOLAID	Anne 49-31 50606, Tartu, ESTONIA
Ms. Jun WANG	China Sport Museum A3. AN Ding Road 100101 Beijing, CHINA

LIBRARY

Mr. Themis LAINIS	52, Dimitrios Vikelas Avenue 152 33 Halandri Athens, GREECE

STAFF

Ms. Anastasia BALELI	58, Travlandoni Str 157 72, Ano Ilisia Athens, GREECE
Mr. Giorgos FERGADIS	7, Kontopoulou Str. 153 42, Agia Paraskevi Athens, GREECE

ATHLETIC ACTIVITY IN PHOENICIA

by Sophia VAKIRTZI *(GRE)*

Introduction

The issue of the origin of the Olympic Games is one of the most important concerns of archaeological research dealing with ancient athletism. Within this context, research has turned to the study of the so-called Eastern Civilizations (e.g. the civilizations of the Egyptians, the Hittites, the Phoenicians, the Sumerians, the Mesopotamians), in order to examine their relationship to athletism. The reason for such an orientation in the research, is the interaction between all the cultures of the Mediterranean basin during Prehistoric times, and in particular during the Bronze Age, which covers, in general, the 3rd and 2nd millennium B.C.

This project is part of a broader paper *an* the athletic activity of Eastern Civilizations which was written for the purposes of an academic seminar on ancient athletism. Here, the conclusions from the case of Phoenicia are presented. The scientific works examining athletism in Phoenicia remain restricted to one single study, made by the Lebanese doctor of Pedagogy of Sport Science, Labib Boutros. The title of his study is "Phoenician Sport - Its influence on the origin of the Olympic Games" (Amsterdam, 1981).

In my effort to seek information regarding athletism in Phoenicia, I have referred to the study of Dr. Boutros. The paper which follows presents the conclusions I have come to, by examining the information provided in his work.

I. The Phoenicians: A Brief Presentation[1]

The earliest indirect references to the inhabitants of Phoenicia, are found in the archives of Mesopotamian cities, dating to the beginnings of the 2nd millennium B.C., as well as in the archives of the Egyptian kingdoms. The ancient Greek writers refer to "Phoenicia", meaning the region between modern Palestine and Syria, on

the eastern Mediterranean coast. The Phoenicians, a people of Semitic origin, seem to have settled there in the beginning of the 3rd millennium B.C. They developed cities which maintained an independent system of government. Among these, Byblos, Sidon and Tyre grew into important economical centres. Since agriculture could not be favoured due to the geomorphology of their land, the Phoenicians soon developed another economical activity, the maritime trade. This activity opened to the Phoenicians a wide horizon and Phoenician colonies emerged throughout the coasts of the Mediterranean basin, especially around the years 1000 - 700 B.C. From the 7th century B.C. and on, Phoenicia underwent a number of succesive conquests by the new political power of the Assyrians, the Persians, the Macedonians of Alexander the Great and his successors, and finally, the Romans. By destroying Carthage, the last major Phoenician city of the Mediterranean, the Romans put an end to the historical presence of the Phoenicians. A brief reference to the religion of the Phoenicians, obliges us to mention their worship of Baal, their most important male deity. In him they worshiped the forces of nature, as in Astarte, a female deity, they saw their goddess of fertility. Besides these primary figures of worship, Phoenicians honoured secondary deified heroes, the most important being Melkart.

II. Atletic Activity in Phoenicia

a) Information deriving from Mythology

Mythology is a spiritual creation which incorporates the earliest beliefs, habits and customs of a people. Therefore, using mythology in order to trace seeds of real facts is a method which can be applied quite often, especially in the case of Prehistoric cultures.

Phoenician mythology refers to an annual combat between the Phoenician god Baal and another deity, Mot. This seasonal combat, as described in the cuneiform texts of Ugarit, resembles free-style wrestling, according to Dr. Boutros[2]. If this view stands, then one should accept that the Phoenicians attributed to their gods the knowledge of a certain technique in fighting. This myth may be providing evidence that the Phoenicians were familiar with some sort of wrestling. However, could the myth alone prove that wrestling fights were taking place in a more or less organized way between Phoenicians? Even if the resemblence between the combat of the myth and free-

style wrestling can be accepted, it cannot be concluded that wrestling was a social manifestation of athletic character in Phoenician society. Greek mythology is also examined, in order to trace relevant information. One myth of the birth of the Olympic Games connects their beginning to the greek hero Heracles[3]. According to a theory, Heracles is the parallel of the Phoenician hero Melkart, who was transported by the expansion of the Phoenicians to mainland Greece[4]. Consequently, this theory concludes that the attribution of the birth of the Olympic Games to Heracles, proves their origin from Phoenicia[5].

The relationship between the two mythological figures of Hercules and Melkart is widely accepted, and it strongly suggests an interaction between Greek and the Phoenician civilizations. This interaction has been proved, both historically and archaeologically. Beyond that, it seems rather arbitrary to magnify this relationship into a theory of a Phoenician origin of the Olympic games, if this view is not supported by further evidence. Such evidence would be historical documents, mentioning clearly athletic activities on Phoenician land, and even more, archaeological findings in Phoenicia which would attest the performance of athletic festivals.

In other words, if there had been athletic activity in Phoenicia, where are the archives which provide us this information and where are the premises of such athletic performances?

b) Information deriving from archaeological research

According to Dr. Boutros, the historical documents referring to Phoenician athletic activity are either insufficient, or have been lost[6]. Therefore, the first part of the question remains without an answer.

As far as the matter of athletic establishments is concerned, two Phoenician archaeological sites have been examined. Excavations of the settlements in Amrit and in Tyre have yielded architectural ruins which provide elements for the investigation of athletism in Phoenicia.

i. Amrit

The area called Amrit is located on the northern Phoenician coast, just opposite the island Arwad.

The archaeological site was excavated in 1954 and it includes a temple, a construction which has been named "stadium" and graves[7].

What interests us here is the construction which was named "stadium". The typology of this construction shall be reviewed, so as to examine whether it deserves to be characterized as an athletic ground.

Then we shall examine its chronology, because this is the main criterion determining its cultural identity.

It should be noted beforehand, that the relevant study referring to the "stadium" of Amrit, does not mention the discovery of any kind of moveable archaeological artifact of athletic character, or any inscriptions which might identify the site.

The characteristics of the "stadium" are the following[8].

- It is a long construction of 220 m. length and 30 m. width
- On the north side and half of the south side it is surrounded by 10 stone steps. These steps are carved in the local limestone. The other half of the south side maintains traces of a stone construc tion of a different raw material.
- The east end of the north side is slightly curved, in the form of a sphendone. This was the typical scheme of the narrow sides of ancient Greek stadiums, from the 4th century B.C. and on[9]. This curve is not continual but it is interrupted in both its endings by cuttings which are considered as entrances to the "stadium".
- Below the stairs of the south side there is another formation con sidered to be an entrance.
- The west side is not preserved.

All the above characteristics belong to the typical architectural form of the ancient greek stadion[10].

Consequently, we can accept the existence of an athletic ground at Amrit, even if we do not have any other archaeological evidence enlighting the utilisation of this construction.

As far as the chronology of the stadium is concerned, two dates have been proposed

- The excavator of Amrit dated its first use in the 3rd century A.D., during the age of Roman domination[11].
- Dr. Boutros proposes a much earlier dating, as early as the 15th century B.C[12]. This second dating is grounded in the following arguments

1. The "primitive" technique of the construction of the stadium. Such a technique does not justify its dating to the Roman epoch. It rather refers to an earlier date of construction.

2. The carving of the stairs of the stadium resembles the stone blocks of a neighbouring temple (about 200 m. distant). This re semblance implies the simultaneous building of both construc tions (stadium and temple).
   Several datings have been suggested for the temple, varying from the *9th* to the 7th century B.C.[13], while Dr. Boutros has proposed a dating as early as the 15th century B.C. His dating, however, is poorly grounded. But even if it was unquestionable, the dating of the temple cannot be a firm proof for the dating of the stadium.
3. The close connection between religion and athletism during an cient times, once again, leads Mr. Boutros to believe that the temple and the stadium must have been built in the same time.

The logical basis of the above arguments does not suffice to prove the suggested dating. Moreover, the second argument is extremely weak. The suggested dating to the 15th century B.C. for the construction of the temple, is not grounded well enough, at least not as it appears in the work of Dr. Boutros.

The insecure dating of the stadium influences the conclusions regarding athletic activity in Phoenicia.

If this stadium was built in the time of Roman domination, then it is rather difficult to attribute it to Phoenician culture. This view shall be better explained after the case of Tyre is presented.

ii. Tyre

Tyre is located on the Phoenician coast, south of Amrit, as well as of Byblos and Sidon.

The excavation of Tyre begun in 1947 by the Lebanese General Direction of Antiquities. The excavated archaeological site includes architectural remains covering a large area. Among these remains, archaeologists have identified the ruins of athletic grounds[14].

These include a Palaestra, a hippodrome and other areas which are named "athletic halls"[15].

In the case of Tyre, the athletic character of these buildings is unquestionable. What distinguishes the views of scholars is the time of construction of these athletic units, with relation to their identification. The excavator attributes the athletic establishments of Tyre to its Roman conquerors[16] (e.g. 2nd- 4th century A.D.). Consequently, this view suggests that the athletic activities performed there, were introduced to the area as a result of Roman rule.

Dr. Boutros doubts, again, the dating of the excavator. He suggests that the athletic grounds of Tyre were previous to the Roman conquest of the city, and therefore, the work of Phoenicians[17]. The argumentation for this view seems to be based on the palaestra. Dr. Boutros argues that since the typology of this building does not correspond to typical Roman architecture, it cannot date from Roman times. He also argues that an earlier, hellenistic phase of the Palaestra, which has been proved by excavation, is a proof for an overall earlier phase of the athletic grounds of Tyre. But this remains to be proved by further excavation.

Therefore, all the arguments in favour of an athletic installation at Tyre earlier than the Hellenistic epoch are extremely weak. The dating of the site to the Roman times suggested by the excavator, remains the most credible.

Furthermore, a reference on the hippodrome of Tyre, as well as to Roman coins from the same area which have the inscription "ACTIA HERACLIA", clearly show the existence of athletic activities during the years of the Roman domination[18]: equestrian games, hippodromes, and games in honour of Heracles, are all historically proved. Tyre is an excellent sample of athletic architecture of Roman times. Beyond that, however, we cannot consider that it has so far offered data for an early athletic tradition, Phoenician in origin and in concept.

III. Conclusion

The earliest traces of unquestionable athletic activity in Phoenicia are the hellenistic phase of the Tyrian athletic establishments. It seems that a little later, during the period of Roman domination, athletic festivals were well organised in Tyre. In Amrit, some kind of athletic activity must have been taking place in the Roman stadium discovered there, as well. Further excavation would probably enlighten the case of Amrit.

The question which rises here is whether we can accept such athletic activities, dating from the roman times, as a Phoenician cultural element. In that late historical period, the athletic festivals belonged to an already formed and ecumenical tradition, spread within the limits of the Hellenistic and Roman world.

I think that we should accept as Phoenician only those testimonies which derive from the very early phases of the Phoenician civilization.

Any other athletic activities, introduced in the area in the Hellenistic epoch or in Roman times are simply cultural loans.

Theoretically, of course, such a cultural influence could have found an already cultivated athletic tradition in Phoenicia. However, the information presented in this paper does not suffice to prove such a case.

Consequently, we cannot speak of athletic activity, clearly Phoenician in origin and in concept, until research provides us with more information.

Furthermore, we cannot accept that the origin of the Olympic Games can be traced in the Phoenician civilization, in any way.

Notes

l.DOMI, vol. 15.
2. Boutros, p. 24.
3. Valavanis, p. 25.
4. Boutros, p. 31.
5. Boutros, pp. 35-36.
6. Boutros, p. 1" the documents on the Phoenicians were insufficient...", p. 61 "... the texts narrating the history of the city and its athletic stadium are lost...", p. 81 "nothing important has been revealed concerning festivals or social celebrations of the Tynans".
7. Boutros, p. 65.
8. Boutros, p. 66.
9. Valavanis, p. 70.
10. Valavanis, pp. 70-71.
11. Boutros, p. 69.
12. Boutros, pp. 75-76.
13. Boutros, p. 76.
14. Boutros, p. 81.
15. Boutros, p. 95 and on.
16. Boutros, p. 84.
17. Boutros, pp. 89-95, 124-125.
18. Boutros, pp. 103, 121.

Bibliography

1. Encyclopedia DOMI, Athens 1971.
2. P. Valavanis, "Athla, athlites kai epathla", EREFNITES, Athens 1996.
3. L. Boutros, "Phoenician Sport - Its influence on the Olympic Games", Amsterdam 1981.

STUDIES IN SPORTS DURING THE ROMAN IMPERIAL AGE. REPRESENTATIONS OF ATHLETIC SUBJECTS AND THEIR CONTEXTS

by Anke BOHNE, M.A.[1] *(GER)*

Roman sports in antiquity are generally associated with chariot-racing, gladiatorial games and hunts in the amphitheatres (venationes). The Romans, however, also knew sports in the modern sense, even though there was no term equivalent to the modern "sports": this, as well as physical exercise was called either ars gymnastica, ludi gymnici, or exercitatio in gymnasiis.

The Ph.D project

My current Ph.D. project at the Department of Archaeology at the University of Bonn (Germany), that I started in November 1999, deals with the presentation of athletics and sports in the modern sense in mosaics, reliefs and wall paintings of the Roman Imperial Age. In spite of more than sufficient material a systematic treatment of these representations does not yet exist[2]. Apart from typology and iconography the thesis will concentrate on the context and intention of these works of art. I pursue an interdisciplinary approach by examining both written and archaeological sources. Results shall be suggested for the importance of sports in Imperial Rome in general and the social significance of renditions in art in particular.

If we think of ancient representations of sports our first association is with athletes painted on Greek vases. However, sport was also a theme of Roman art, although to a far less extent than in Greece. Occasional examples of athletic motifs occur as early as 200 BC while their numbers increase from the 2nd and 3rd centuries AD onwards.

Apart from large-scale statues erected in the houses of wealthy Romans, as well as smaller figurines, physical exercise appears foremost in wall paintings, reliefs (stucco, decorative or funeral), and

mosaics. Small objects of art should not be forgotten: clay vessels, the so-called terra sigillata[3], oil lamps, cameos and coins. But my intention is to include only wall paintings, reliefs and mosaics which have not yet been systematically collected.

The Gafsa-Mosaic

The genre of mosaic will be in the centre of my thesis. The largest number of athletic depictions can be found among these. Individual victorious athletes or stereotyped pairs of pugilists mostly form the topic of the mosaics. Most mosaics connected with sporting competitions come from Italy and North Africa, especially Tunisia. During the 2nd and 3rd centuries AD Tunisia (and Egypt) provided most of Rome's grain. This resulted in a certain prosperity within the province which, in turn, is reflected in numerous villas and baths richly decorated with mosaics that can be found in the territory of modern Tunisia.

One of the most complete and realistic picture of such a competition in Roman time can be seen in a mosaic that was found near Gafsa in Tunisia in 1987 and dates from around 300 AD[4].

The mosaic, which is partly fragmented, covered the floor of a small bath complex in a rural settlement not known to us in detail. On a white background the multi-coloured mosaic shows fourteen detailed scenes of competitions (the so-called pentathlon and a boxing match) arranged in four lines. It is divided into nine separate fights plus two scenes which show the prizes for the winners and how they are awarded. From the presence of the referee and the awarding ceremony it is clear that these are not training exercises. Moreover no audience can be seen.

It has to be stressed that the scenes in the mosaic are nothing like modern photographs of competitions and can in no way be seen as snapshots of actual athletic competitions circa 300 AD. Not all of the events and disciplines shown took place at the same time. Instead we are dealing with an overview that summarizes - similar to a final report - the highlights of the games.

The questions

In my dissertation the Gafsa mosaic, as every other mosaic, will not only be considered with respect to iconographie, typological and chronological aspects. That means that I am going to ask:

a) what kind of sports are depicted on the mosaics?

b) are there parallels between the different depictions of athletes and sports on several mosaics?

c) when can the respective mosaics be date?

The representations of athletic subjects on respective mosaics will also be seen in the context of written and epigraphical sources: The differences between the Roman view on physical activities in the written sources and the pictorial sources must be investigated[5]. In addition the depictions of sports should also be seen in the context of epigraphical evidence of sporting events which took place in the Roman Empire. In the case of the Gafsa mosaic, this is in Roman Tunisia. Athletic competitions were not as popular the gladiatorial fights all over the Roman world. In North Africa, however, inscriptions show that a large number of events connected to pugilists' matches were financed by urban dignitaries. These competitions were financed by municipal officials and local dignitaries.

My research will also stress the architectural context of the respective representations and as a result will determine the reasons for choicing a sporting topic. The Gafsa mosaic, for instance, has been found in a bath complex. Its theme is perfectly appropriate for baths as these were the sorts of places where people mainly did sports in Roman time. The representations of athletic subjects belonged to the typical decoration of the public and private baths in the Roman Imperial Age as well. But, besides the public and private baths, sporting decorations can also be found in some cases in a funeral context. Therefore, it could be very interesting to investigate where the depictions of athletic subjects can be found and whether there are links between the preferences of respective kinds of sports and respective locations. It is, for instance, strange that the mosaic of Gafsa does not show those kinds of sports that took place within the baths but a fully-fledged competition that would probably be held in a stadium or, for lack of other facilities, in an amphitheatre. This leads us to the question: Who actually commissioned the mosaic and what he or she intended by doing this.

Summary

I hope that the comprehensive view of sports representations in Roman art will provide us with new insights into the value of the

individual disciplines as well as the intentions and contexts of these works of art.

Notes

1. I wish to express my thanks to Christiane and Joerg Fuendling (Bonn) for the translations of the text. As my thesis is in no way finalized this paper must, out of necessity, be brief and preliminary. Quotations and abbreviations in this paper are according to the guidelines of the Deutsches Archaeologishes Institut; cf. Archaeologischer Anzeiger 1997, 6ff.; Archaeologischer Anzeiger 1991, XXVff.
2. Sports as reflected in pictorial sources of the Roman Imperial Age is only taken into account by archaeologists. For a summary treatment that refers almost exclusively to the Greek sphere see: C. Bluemel, Sport und Spiel bei den Griechen und Roemern. Bildwerke aus den Staatlichen Museen zu Berlin (1934); J. Fink, Der Sport bei den Griechen und Roemern im Bilde ihrer Kunst, Gymnasium 58, 1951, 129ff. For selected questions concerning the iconography of athletes and the representation of Greek-style *agones* see B. Gassowska, Cirrus in vértice. For one of the problems of the Roman athlete iconography see: Melanges K. Michalowski (1966) 421ff.; J.-P. Thuillier, Le cirrus et la barbe, MEFRA 10, 1998, 151ff.; M. Guarducci, RM 89, 1982, 103ff.; ead., RM 93, 1986, 301ff. A first essay to compile parts of the pictorial sources is Ch. Landes (ed.), Catalogue de l' exposition: Le stade et ses spectacles. Musée archaeologique Henri Prades (1994), but this catalogue, its contributions being brief and summary, cannot replace a thorough survey.
3. I. Weber-Hiden, Wettkampfdarstellungen auf Terra Sigillata, Nikephoros 5, 1992, 103ff.
4. M. Khanoussi, Les spectacles de jeux athlétiques et de pugilat dans l'Afrique ro maine, Roemische Mitteilungen 98, 1998, 315ff.; id., Ein roemisches Mosaik aus Tunesien mit der Darstellung eines agonistischen Wettkampfes, Antike Welt 22, 1991, 147 ff.
5. On the state of research in Classical Philology and Ancient History see R. W. Fortuin, Der Sport im augusteischen Sport (1996) 1ff. For a general overview cf. I. Weiler, Der Sport bei den Voelkern der alten Welt (1988) 215ff.; J.-P. Thuillier, Sport im antiken Rom (1999). The differences between the view in the written and in the pictorial sources are big: For instance, you can find a lot of references concerning swimming and ball games in the written sources, but no or only a few depictions.

General literature

l. B. Gassowska, Cirrus in vértice. One of the problems of the Roman athletic iconography in: Melanges K. Michalowski (1966) 421ss.
2. A. Kankeleit, Der sportliche Agon auf Roemischen Mosaiken in Griechenland, Nike phoros 12, 1999 (forthcoming).
3. M. Khanoussi, Les spectacles de jeux athlétiques et de pugilat dans l'Afrique romaine, RM 98, 1991, 315ff.
4. id., Ein Römisches Mosaik aus Tunesien mit der Darstellung eines Agonistischen Wettkampfs, AW 22,1991, 147ff.

5. J. Lancha, Les Jeux dans les mosaïques, peintures et sculptures, DossAParis 45, 1980, 76ff.
6. Ch. Landes (ed.), Catalogue de *Y* exposition: Le stade romain et ses spectacles. Musée archaeologique Henri Prades (1994).
7. J. - P. Thuillier, Le cirrus et la barbe, MEFRA 110, 1998, 351 ff.
8. J. - P. Thuillier, Sport im antiken Rom (1999).
9. I. Weber-Hiden, Wettkampfdarstellungen auf Terra Sigillata, Nikephoros 5, 1992, 103ff. 10.
10. K. W. Weber, Panem et circences. Massenunterhaltung als Politik im antiken Rom (1999) 70ff. 11.
11. I. Weiler, Der Sport bei den Voelkem der Alten Welt (1988) 215ff.

A BRIEF RESUME OF THE DECLINE OF ANCIENT OLYMPIC GAMES: FROM GREEK "OLYMPIC GAMES" TO ROMAN "LUDÍ CIRCENSES"

by Federico GALLO *(ITA)*

Chronological reference:

700-500 B.C. Archaic period
500-323 B.C. Classical period
323-31 B.C. Hellenistic period

---

776 B.C. First recorded edition of the Games in Olympia
756-754 B.C. Foundation of Rome
338 B.C. Macedonian domination of Greece
336-323 B.C. Kingdom of Alexander the Great
146 B.C. Roman invasion of Greece
31 B.C. Imperium Romanum under Augustus
313 A.D. Emperor Constantinus' edict declares Christian religion official cult in the Empire
395 A.D. Emperor Theodosius' edict bans all pagan worship: end of the Olympic Games
476 A.D. Rome falls in the hands of Odoacer, a barbarian leader: end of Roman western Empire

1. Introduction

The Ancient Olympic Games ended after almost 1200 years of history. The reasons of this event have been discussed in depth. Even if we know with certainty that they stopped around the year 395 A.D., their 293rd edition being the last recorded one, it is not easy to point out what happened during this long span of centuries. According to the common point of view, especially in the past fifty years, it is believed that the Greek Olympic tradition, after an ideal peak of glory during the Hellenic period was weakened in spirit because of professionalism and pragmatism and finally succumbed to

the Roman invasion of Greece and Christian religious thought. Current views incline to a more subtle interpretation and would indicate that there was no essential difference between the period of the greek *poleis* and the following political changes leading to the Roman occupation of the country; as a matter of fact not only tradition survived and remained almost the same in many aspects, but also the Roman period was, for the Olympic Games, more rational, more methodical and more universal, extending to the non-greek world known at the time. Other considerations point out that the assumed amateurism of ancient athletes in the hellenic period is a historical fake. It seems that the Games conclusion was suddenly decided by an adversión towards pagan festivities by the newly dominant religious thought which forced *de facto* the political power (i.e. Emperor Theodosius) to stop them and that their site was utterly destroyed by barbaric invasions.

2. The philosophy of ancient Greek Olympic Games

Having their roots in the human instinct for competition, the ancient Games were "...pervaded by the spirit of noble emulation and competition [which] was the key to progress and prosperity"[1]. It was a religious phenomenon with political consequences, strictly connected with the cult of heroicized mortals and the Greek pantheon of Mount Olympus. The name of Olympia itself suggests the "heavenly" implication of the activities that took place there.

In ancient thought the best citizen-athletes were considered divine, because of the inner and natural aesthetic perfection of the human body, image of the Greek god. The dual concept of *kalokagathia,* the beauty and the goodness, expressed the result of education through "Gymnastics and Music". A close relationship between god and man is further proved by the presence of a divine element in the spirit of noble emulation, whose origin belongs to earlier funeral rites and holy cults (which constituted a common celebration of gods and heroicized men).

The Games "...led to the birth of national consciousness as well as to the religious unity" of Hellenism and to the respect for excellence of the opponent, to competition on "equal terms"[2].

In an ideal view human values were upgraded and acquired a true meaning, because the games were based on selflessness and

aimed at the improvement of the human character. By competing, the individual sprang from mediocrity to excellence and approached the domain of the divine, rewarded only with a wreath of wild olive, the *kotinos*.

In the opinion of the greek historian Pausanias, the Olympic victor acquired a divine dimension: "...he was deemed equal to a god"[3].

Through the ages the Olympic festivals, hold every four years, by promoting the gathering of Greek people, proved to be a unifying and not a separating event in history of Greece, because of its power of peaceful unification dictated by the god-sent power of the Truce *(ekecheiría).* This institution guaranteed neutrality within a limited period to the region of Elis and to all people travelling to Olympia as spectators or participants of the Games. Even if this didn't mean complete peace for all the greek land (in that case, given the frequency - for the times - of the Games the historical constant warfare of Greek poleis cannot be explained), the Truce levelled political differences and conflicts among the ancient cities so that they could realize their common historical background, customs, traditions, way of thinking and national consciousness. It is important to underline that this "...law constitutes a unique example in world history of a politically divided people which achieved unity", yet temporally limited, thanks to a popular religious festivity, and that there has never been "...any similar institutions or law elsewhere among the peoples of this Earth"[4]. During these Games "the Greeks cultivated their political virtues; in these festivals they wished to experience the living symbol of the unity of the nation..."[5]. This identity was promoted by integrating ancient sport as a means of educating and developing the human personality; there was a close relationship between physical and spiritual existence or, in other words, a unity between sport and philosophy. In the period of athletic apogee, between the VI and V century B.C., poetry, music, painting and sculpture were prone to represent athletic activities, which right in that period assumed the true character of Panhellenic manifestations. In the stadiums of Olympia, Nemea, Delphi and Isthmya, physical ability met with artistic inspiration and athletic victory summoned, at the same time, the muse of the poet and the sculptor's suggestion. It is this idealistic identity that inspired Pierre de Coubertin to revive the Games as

"Olympic", with their philosophic, cultural and peaceful message, and not as "plain" world championships.

3. The issue of professionalism

De Coubertin placed a great emphasis on the supposed purity of the ancient version of the Games, describing the selflessness of amateur greek athletes in search of glory and perfection. While this was a noble aim in the modern capitalistic and materialistic society of the time (if not of today, too), we should bear in mind that a "decadence" of the agonistic phenomenon already existed in ancient times and "professionalism" among athletes was already widespreaded. If the earlier prizes were olive wreaths, symbol of immortality and future fame, by the VI century B.C. the *poleis* started integrating those symbols with more conspicuous rewards. Solon reported that Athens rewarded athletes with 500 drachmas in case of an Olympic victory and with 100 at the Isthmian Games. Even the city of Ephesus used to do that, and many other cities confirmed this custom by offering free meals and life allowances to their champions: privileges which could be sold or left as heritage. An Olympic victory improved the social condition of the athlete, and honours and wealth soon followed. The most prevident of them accumulated resources for the moment of their retirement (usually after forty years of age ex-athletes became either coaches, politicians or organizers of the Games). Furthermore "....a clear distinction between professionalism and amateurism did not exist in ancient times, and the fact that, from a linguistic point of view, there were no terms to express precisely these two separated concepts, but only the correspondent words of *athletes* or *agonistes*, means that there was no need of expressing the distinction of rewarded performances among other kinds"[6]. Using the ancient tradition as a pretext, De Coubertin's attempt to impose athletes' amateurism in the reborn Games was a sort of historical mystification.

In the VI and V centuries B.C. with the institution of the gymnasium, physical education, already considered the basics for military training, was extended to every free citizen and not only restricted to royal or aristocratic members. The rise of democracy (around the 6th century B.C.) as the main government institution inside the Greek *poleis* led to the awareness of everybody having the

same right about the education of the body, in a sort of archaic "sport for all" concept. Therefore the great participation of the young people in the gymnasium facilities started, places where they got into contact with philosophers whose aim was to educate them physically and mentally. A new interest rose in anatomy by physicians and philosophers, leading to the birth of the first "coaches", "managers" and "sport doctors" *ante litteram* (i.e. before the designation of such categories as we know them) dedicated to a research in the physiologic and dietetic fields. Their researches led to a scientific interest which contributed, among others, to the rise of athletic professionalism.

Beside that, while the four great agonistic cults (Olympic, Delphic, Isthmian and Nemean Games) were traditionally limited to upper classes, other local, smaller and less famous games collected poorer athletes seeking to earn money by winning contests. The shifting from "natural and spontaneous" agonism (as the polish historian B. Bilinski called it) to professional athletism was a short step. In that way, together with musicians' and actors' organizations, guilds of professional athletes appeared in the hellenistic and roman period, their members eager, as obvious, to earn money or valuable prizes. During the IV and III century B.C. a greater democratization of the games took place, and career athletes, whose performance was a real employment, were called to participate instead of members of aristocratic families. Specialization and professionalism were the results of the democratization of the games; athletes were compelled to be better trained and to specialize their performance in order to secure a regular income, and already since the early V century B.C. they took a particular care in shifting from the coulours of their own town to the flag of the ones offering a better contract.

4. The Macedonian period

For the Macedonian king Philippus II (382-336 B.C.) and his son Alexander the Great (356-323 B.C.), the Olympic manifestation became a symbol of social unity and common awareness, and due to this reason it was directed to the political goal of Panhellenic reconciliation. Alexander's conquests in Africa and Asia enormously increased the geographic area and populations exposed to Greek culture. Alexander, particularly sensitive to the unifying power of the

Games, organized frequent athletic contests in Asia to promote a reconciliation between Greeks and eastern "barbarians". Regarding Olympia, Alexander always considered that site the capital of his huge kingdom; the Elean delegation, being responsible for the Olympic Games, was always the first to be received in the king's court in Babylon. The Games became coloured by the "sophistication" of a brilliant and powerful man coming from a provincial region (Alexander was considered a Macedonian "countryman" by his opponents and not properly Greek); regular athletic contests were held to increase the prestige and the grandeur of the parties following the great events of the king's life. The Games were exploited either as a means of spreading Greek culture filtered by provincialism, or as an *instrumentum regni*, a ruling tool to produce an impressive effect over vanquished peoples, foreign courts and important guests (the Romans kept and improved this custom). For centuries to come, a Greek language and culture became fundamental for every provincial who wanted to obtain success; sport practice and formal athletic performances during public recurrences were part of that greek cultural heritage. At the same time the decline of gymnastics in Greece began, a consequence brought by the spirit of warfare spirit of the Macedonians and by their expansion towards Asia. The youths were pushed mainly to military training; they also began neglecting "athletic establishments and preferred to gather in the new philosophical schools, as the messages they received from the scholars of those times were more attractive and revolutionary"[7], especially those related to the "irrationalist" cults of mysticist eastern civilizations; "the palaestra and the gymnasion were gradually abandoned"[7].

5. Sport in ancient Italy: from agonistic cult to spectacle

The Eleans enjoyed their first edition of Olympic Games (776 B.C.), that later became one of the best sacred Panhellenic expression, when Rome was yet to be born (756-754 B.C.). That means the Greeks had a wonderful cultural agonistic event, while people living in the area of the next-to-be established city of Rome were nothing more than rude sheperds and countrymen. It is evident how much Rome was backward in respect of contemporary Greece, by which its culture originated (we could think about the legend of

Aeneas, the mythical Trojan hero, who was considered the forefather of the Latins). However even in early Rome a sort of physical activity, similar to and shadowing the Greek one had been practiced since the very beginning. The link between Greek *agones* and Roman *ludi* was based on their religious value, because both manifestations were originally religious rites. The Romans organized contests and games on the occasion of archaic holidays and anniversaries, such as funeral ceremonies, marriages, births, or in order to avert adversities and calamities and to celebrate public offices and military victories. But the Romans didn't have great agonistic cults, because their *ludi*, requested by public authorities, mantained a civic aspect and were initially restricted to Roman citizens. *Ludi* means "games": the Greek aspect of individual excellence was missing, because the Romans identified themselves in the dimension of the state with a collective sense. In that way the acts of cult were associated with public shows, offered to the gods for keeping at bay their wrath or to obtain their graces: this was the *ludus*, different from the greek *agon* which found its top expression in the approaching of the single individual towards the divine state and god. There was another meaningful difference between these two kinds of activities: the Romans didn't keep any chronology of their champions, while the chronology of agonistic athletes, in special way that of the Olympic ones, had a fundamental value for the Greeks, because it recorded the flux of time and events. If the years of the Olympiads marked greek history, that of the Romans was denoted by the offices of consuls and emperors.

Beyond the points in common between the Roman and Greek expressions of sport practice (i.e. the archaic religious aspect and the military value), we should consider the Etruscan civilization as the filter for the changes which mainly affected the Roman taste. The Etruscan people, whose roots are still uncertain, dominated Italian reality from the VII century to the III century B.C. (the latter being the period of their final defeat and assimilation into Roman expansion). By occupating the Roman administration during the first period of the Roman Kingdom and early Republic, the Etruscan society influenced the customs and traditions of Roman people. The Etruscan priest-kings, called *lucumones*, held feasts and competitions like in ancient Greece, but with an original taste for decadent practices, human sacrifices (in a form of primeval gladiatorial show)

and public spectacles. The Etruscans not only inherited the agonistic richness from Greece, a tradition they probably watched and copied from the ancient Greek colonies in South Italy, but they also mixed it with peculiar elements; there was a shifting from sacred agonism to spectacular agonism and then to *Ludi*. It is the latter meaning that passed on into the tradition of the Romans: at the dawn of their civilization they attached to their agonistic events a ritual, religious value, so that all the rites of the archaic period were essentially purificational, dedicational, celebrational rites of some recurrency, while later on, contaminated by Etruscan influence, they accepted the idea of holiday as spectacle, entertainment, *"ludus"*. The audience lost its identification with the ritual and became exclusively a group of spectators; the true meaning of cultural agon was lost and a deep "degeneration" of sport games began, turning them into a less religious and more bloody form to appease the taste of the public. There was a change from the relationship between citizen and gods (which was the expression of devotion and of the offering of strength and physical power to divine dimension) to a detached participation in a sort of country party, coarse and noisy. The typical greek aesthetic-moral concept of *kalokagathia,* of the perfectioning of the spirit through sport practice and of its elevation through agonistic activity, of the completion of man by being "beauty, good and valorous" at the same time, was no longer present. Livy (VII, 2, 1-7) tells us that in 364 B.C., to put an end to a pestilence, the Romans invited from Etruria (a region that included a part of northern and middle Italy, where the twelve main Etruscan cities were settled) mimes, musicians, dancers, jugglers and actors for a propitiatory show; performances such as boxing matches (more violent than greek boxe and *pankratius,* due to the use of the *cestus* — a leather bondage over the forearm and hand with metal knuckles), chariot races with the *triga* (three horses that made the balance of the cart more unstable and more dangerous, so more spectacular) and shows of *desultores* (acrobats on horses) became very popular in Rome, where they were introduced from Etruria. Even the gladiatorial fight, so much loved by the Romans, had etruscan origins, because in that land there was a tradition of human sacrifice for celebrational and propitiatory purposes. It was believed that human blood could give new vigour to dead men, and a votive offer *(munus)* could placate

the restlessness of the fallen by the deaths of innocents. Tertullianus (de Spect. XII) explains how that kind of activity *(muñera)* shifted from honouring the deads to celebrating living characters, magistrates and priests. The *muñera* were common especially in the region of Campania (South-West of Italy) under etruscan administration and it was there that the more able professionist gladiators were formed (for instance the famous gladiator Spartacus. slave revolt in 73-71 B.C. began at Capua in Campania). Etruscan athletes were exclusively professionists and thanks to their professional skill they were requested to operate in the neighbouring Rome.

6. The Greek Olympiads under the Roman rule

For centuries, at first during the second Macedonian War (197 B.C.), in which the Roman legions started to interfere with Greek politics and then after the final defeat of Greece (146 B.C.), many Roman military and politic leaders payed their respect to Olympia and to the Eleans, rendering homage in front of the statue of Zeus in the temple of Olympia and leaving gifts in the Altis, thus mantaining the holy cult. Relations between the newly established province of Greece and Rome thereafter were exceptionally good, and many Roman leaders promoted and salvaged financially the existence of the Games, and of the site in Olympia as well : the numerous statues in Olympia dedicated to Roman leaders and Emperors are both a proof and a symbol of that. Under the Roman rule, with the introduction of *pax romana* (roman peace - the concept of roman domination over the known world as a universal guarantee of peace and agreement) in the Greek peninsula, a new age for the Olympic Games began. This period was "neither a farce" "nor a restoration"[8], but, on the contrary, a time of intense activity, with the transformation of the fundamental greek Olympic tradition, closed in on itself, into an ecumenical and international Olympic culture despite the political and cultural changes. During the Roman Empire the Olympic Games were opened to an even greater number of foreigners, altering and turning the ancient religious spirit to a new more pragmatic and "global" dimension. The spirit and ethics of the Games of the V century B.C. were never to be found again, although the greatest religious and athletic tradition retained a place of consideration and honour. According to some authors (Scanlon among them) the

last century of Roman Republic saw the apogee of the Olympic Games; they were modified, of course, but they survived in Olympia (except some rare exceptions for short periods) still lively in spirit, still attracted as many Greeks as before and still attended in great numbers by the peoples under the authority of Rome. The renown of the Games remained intact: the list of winners in the 72 B.C. edition shows the "universality" of the Games, crowned champions and participants not only coming from the Péloponnèse, but also from Asia Minor, Egypt and provinces of the Mediterranean Basin. We should consider the following points

1) It is true that the rough and ruthless Roman conquerors, part of a military organized society, were conquered by the beauty and grace of the Greek culture and the Olympic Games were part of that wealth. As a consequence the Greek Olympic Games were proposed in a Roman environment mainly by famous characters that showed philohellenic tastes and interests (Sulla, Pompeus, Curius, Augustus, Nerón, Tiberius among others). For instance, emperor Augustus respected ancient Greek culture and wanted to revive cults and traditions of ancient Greece; he thought that cultural assimilation was a more durable way of winning over a vanquished people than military action. This also explains the creation of the Imperial Games and "Isolympics" in numerous cit ies of the huge Roman Empire as an homage to those of Olympia.
2) Evidence shows a mixture of different tastes and traditions, the Greek ones merging with the Etruscan-Roman ones. Agon and athletism never became part of Latin customs. The Romans, a rough and utilitarian population, considered athletics as a means to gain military efficiency and never as an end in itself. As ath letes, Roman citizens were expected to be brave and courageous legionnaires, and they couldn't follow the aesthetic idea of physical perfection, nor understand the benefit of the Olympic Truce as a means to attain collective identity (inside the Empire peace was already guaranteed, at the borders warfare was endless). As spec tators they were prone to act as excited watchers, to applaud professionist athletes as idols of the crowd, but unable to go over the pure show, unable to *realize* the spiritually educational value of physical training.

3) The Romans began to appreciate the Greek Games since the II century B.C, when the cults, Panhellenic or local ones, were al ready in an advanced state of corruption and degeneration for the reasons showed earlier, the victories of athletes having lost their ideal and holy magnificence, the gymnasia appearing as schools of immorality and idleness; it was a short step for the athletes' performances to become professional and even more spe ctacular, theatrical and sensational to strike the imagination of the public; the victors now merely pretended that they were com peting, but in reality they adjusted their strength and skill to the material prize offered. The dignity of the athlete was sacrificed to material gains. The athlete had then become a "mercenary" and the religious aspect of the Games totally degraded.
4) The Romans took the parallel festivities in their circuses *(ludi circenses* promoted by political men) with greater zeal. Gladiatorial shows, slaughtering of Christians, combats with wild animals, even naval battles inside the round shaped Coliseum and chariot races inside the elliptic shaped Circus Maximus were found more exciting than peaceful gymnic events that took places in the rec tangular Greek stadium. If greek participation in athletism and to the Games in the classical period was restricted to Greek free citizens, while slaves, dishonourable persons, deserters and dese crators were not allowed, in the Imperial age Romans exploited war prisoners, mercenaries, criminals, Christians and sentenced to death as victims for perilous and bloody manifestations. If the greek athlete swore to be worthy of victory in front of the Zeus temple *("Orkizomai!")*, the roman gladiator greeted the politic leader with the slogan *"Ave Caesar, morituri te salutant!"* (Hail Caesar, those who are going to die greet you!). If the spectator in the classical period was satisfied by the perfection and the honest sweat of athletic competitions, the spectator in the Imperial Age preferred the blood spilling from the wounds of the fighters. If the Greek crowd admired the beauty of athlete's naked body, the Roman "fans" (supporters) identified themselves with the colour of their favourite team clothes, nakedness being considered an immoral custom in roman society (the Latin author Cicero defined nakedness "the beginning of every evil").

5) Roman establishment thought useful the huge numbers of public shows and festivities instituted during the year; the echo around them was also a way by which roman leaders relieved revolutionary dangers in cosmopolitan urbanized areas, where the situation of the poorer classes was explosive. A riotous crowd, supported by public elargitions and provisions was usefully kept busy by watching great shows at the circus. Under the Republic and under the Empire, this brought to a vertiginous proliferation of *ludi* (especially chariot races) that enriched the holiday calendar by reaching over 180 days of public festivities during the late imperial age.Whence the politic slogan "give people *panem et circenses"*, by which a leader could master troubles and unstable conditions by providing enough food and public entertainments.

7. The end of the Games

What led to a stop to such an ever-adapting event? How was it possible the end of the agonistic cult, which characterized the greek civilization and heavily influenced foreign and later societies? We should indicate a strong adversión towards pagan festivities by a newly dominant religious thought, which was soon followed by barbaric invasions.

Constantine's edict of 313 A.D. officially accepted and promoted the introduction of Christian religion in the Roman society, but paganism still survived for a long period in the countryside and among intellectuals. However the advent of the new Christian religion and its rapid spreading within the Roman Empire hastened the end of archaic practices. The most meaningful act of this conflict was the "conversion" of Emperor Theodosius as a sensible Christian, whose edict of 395 A.D., by banning all pagan cults and temples, put an indirect but effective stop to Olympic Games. The Games were unfortunately included in such category and the Greek culture, begun with the olive wreaths of the Olympic champions, was ended by the crowns of the early Christian martyrs, "athletes" of the new faith in Christ. The *askèsis*, once meaning body exercise, assumed a new value of spiritual mysticism.

According to Professor J. Mouratidis "In Olympia, the games remained, until the end, true to Zeus' wishes and to the sanctity of the place. The sport festivals of the Greeks owed their longevity,

their purity but also their termination to their close association with religion. Perhaps their fate would have been different if they had not been so closely linked with the cult of Olympian Zeus. The Christian religion had valid reasons for demanding the abolition of the Games; they were not simply linked to the old religion, they represented its most remarkable tradition"[9].

The holy centre of Olympia was eventually occupied and looted by hordes of Goths in 395 A.D., and then subject to further disasters as earthquakes, landslides and floods which badly damaged and partially covered the site until the first attempt at excavations in 1829.

Notes

l. E.N. Gardiner "Athletics of the ancient world", Oxford 1930, p.39.
2. R. Flaceliere "Les jeux grecs", p.299. S.Pausanias, v.' III, 15-7.
4. T. Yannakis, Proceedings of IOA-1990, p.68.
5. "History of Greece", Vol.A, p.456; R. Flaceliere "The public life of Greeks".
6. Angeli Bernardini, "Proceedings of Italian Olympic Academy-1998", p. 18.
7. T. Yannakis, "Proceedings of IOA-1990", p.66.
8. Scanlon, Th.F., "Greek Athletics and the Construction of Culture", The Classical Bullettin 74.2, 1998.
9. J. Mouratidis, "The O. G. in antiquity: legend, tradition, institution, reality?", Pro ceedings of IOA-1992, p.55.

Bibliography

l. Mandell, R.D., Sport : *a cultural history,* New York 1984.
2. Gardiner, E.N., *Athletics in the Ancient World,* Oxford 1930.
3. Gardiner, E.N., *Sports e giuochi nella Grecia mítica,* vol.1, Napoli 1955.
4. Scanlon, Th.F., *Greek Athletics and the Construction of Culture,* The Classical Bul lettin 74.2, 1998.
5. Bilinski, B., *Agoni ginnici. Componenti artistiche e intellettuali nell'antica agonistica greca,* Roma 1979.
6. Bilinski, B., *L'agonistica sportiva nella Grecia antica,* Roma 1961.
7. Teja, A., *L'esercizio fisico in Roma antica,* Roma 1988.
8. Bellizzi, Di Tano, Teja, *Lo sport a Koma,* Roma 1990.
9. Pallottino, M., *Etruscologia,* Milano 1982.
10. Gori, G., *Gli etruschi e lo sport,* Urbino 1986.
11. International Olympic Academy, *Proceedings of IOA,* 1990-1991-1992.
12. Italian Olympic Academy, *Proceedings of AONI,* 1998-1999.
13. CONI, *Quaderni dell'AONI,* nn. 1,2, 1988-1991.

ORGANIZING THE ANCIENT OLYMPICS

by Naif SA' ADA *(JOR)*

The Ancient Olympics were not just sport events, but also contained religious ceremonies, cultural, musical and poetry competitions, and art exhibits, and other numerous activities, which require a central management. The Official Authorities led by the king, his consultants and legislators were the ones organizing the Olympics and providing all its fundamentals, and in the state of Elis, the organizing of the Olympics remained in the hands of the KING and his Nobles selected from the 10 countries under his Rule.

The legislators were the ones making the rules and regulations for the games, and they were the ones with the responsibilities to supervise the ceremonies, organization of the games, inserting new activities and games as well as assigning penalties, or in other words, setting the guidelines of the Olympics, and the referees were left with the task of executing and implementing those lines with their official assistants.

Historians argued on the length of the games, as they differed on the date of its evolution from one event to 12 events and competitions, and until the 24th Olympic, in the year 684 B.C., the Olympics only included six events which would start and end in one day, then carriage racing was added to the 25th Olympics, a second day to the 37th in 632 B.C., and it continued to grow until it included 12 games which used to take 5 days after the year 520 B.C.

The Olympics were held once every four years, during the 11th to the 16th day of the 7th month of the 4th year, when the moon would be full, the timing was not that easy, as they used the Greeks religious calendar.

In the old Greek history, there were many wars between city-states, but during the Holy Truce, which included the month of the Olympics, the previous and following months. No armed conflicts or any use of arms were allowed, in the state of Elis, and meant actually stopping the war for the period of the truce, which was made for

the first time between: King Iphitus of Elis, King Cleosthenes of Pisa and King Lycurgus of Sparta.

By making this truce, and committing the Greeks to it, the three kings, were able to stop the effect of any war on the holding of the Olympics, and assure the safety of thousands of competitors, spectators, an officials, who used to come to Olympia to participate or watch the games for example the war against Elis was forbidden during the truce, by any means. A war between Sparta and Elis was stopped during the period of the holy truce to allow the Olympics to be held.

The Callers announcing the truce, used to travel from city to city, under the patronage and protection of god Zeus. Announcing his protection to the games, and who ever comes to participate in or watch it. Spectators used to come from all over Greece to watch the Olympics, the poor on foot, spending almost 10 days with anticipation and enthusiasm, the rich with their decorated carriages driven by horses, the poets, philosophers, traders, official delegations, farmers and all walks of life, would travel for long distances and many days all by his own means, and abilities to witness those magnificent days and offer sacrifices to the GODS. Every one was allowed into Olympia, the stadiums, and the competition arenas, except from married women, who were not allowed only at all other times. The same for the slaves who were not allowed to witness or participate in the games.

Every city (State-City) used to send a big official delegation, selected from their finest leaders, nobles, men of the cloth, spokesmen, poets and philosophers, as the Olympic festival was a wide field for exchanging opinions and ideas, showing greatness, wealth and power, it was also an advertising opportunity for every city which wanted to show it's ranking and position between Greek cities, each delegation would bring gifts and sacrifices to Zeus, the king of Elis and the Gods in Olympia, they would also have big parties honoring the champs and meet with other parties to negotiate trade issues, a truce or other political issues.

Gorgeias took advantage of being a head of a delegation in the 79th Olympics, 392 B.C. to make a historical speech to the crowed of spectators encouraging them to stop the wars between the Greeks, and inviting them to unite against the Persians, and the occasion of the Olympics used to bring the Greek warriors together in one place under the shade of the truce.

THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT IN MOLDOVA: PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE

by Cornelia POVAR *(MDA)*

It is a great pleasure and honour for me to have the opportunity to represent Moldova today.

My country is a young state which closely follows democratic and economic reforms, actively promoting a policy of openness, friendship and co-operation among its neighbors throughout the world.

Moldova is wellknown due to its traditions and customs which, despite of its historic circumstances have been preserved and handed down from generation to generation. The same is for sport.

For more than 45 years that means from August 1944 up to 1991, the symbolic year of the Soviet Union breakdown, Moldova was part of one of the most powerful Empires in the world, from social, political and economic points of view.

The system was very centralized: each of the 15 Republics that formed the USSR were specialized in mostly one field such as agriculture, industry, winery, and so on, according to their geographical position. The centre of everything was Russia with its heart in Moscow, the capital of the USSR. All the best athletes from the Soviet Republics were mainly trained there as members of the Olympic team because the best facilities were built there. For instance, the total amount of sport facilities in Moscow was estimated by that time at about 5,000 with a capacity of 15.000 participants each. Six sport complexes and 6 Olympic Villages were built, especially for the 1980 Moscow Olympic Games.

The best coaches and referees were also trained there. The rest of the athletes used to practice their specific and traditional sports for each of the Republics that needed no special facilities. Some of the most popular sports in Moldova were and still are the combat ones such as Wrestling (Freestyle and Greco-Roman) and Judo as well as team sports such as Football, Volleyball, Basketball, etc.

But, on August 27, 1991 Moldova took its chance and became independent.

At the very beginning when we became independent, everything seemed to be much easier than we experienced in fact. It took about seven years to return to the Latin alphabet. Moldavians spoke Romanian before but used to write with Russian letters. We felt a great financial and spiritual support on behalf of Romania the part of which we were before being occupied. We still had good specialists and sport reserves, but it was not enough.

So, the representatives of the Republic of Moldova started participating in the Olympic Games in Rome in 1960. As Moldova was part of the Soviet Union until it became independent, Moldavian athletes took part in the most important world and continental events, including the Olympic Games, under the Soviet flag.

Following the Olympic Games in Rome, Moldavian athletes were present in the Olympic delegations of the Soviet Union, in all the following Olympics, until the collapse of the Russian Empire and the Declaration of Independence in August 1991.

The first gold medal and the title of Olympic Champion was won by a woman Larisa Alaxandrova-Popova, the current President of the National Association of Women and Sport of the Republic of Moldova, which was established in 1999. This was in canoeing at the 1980 Moscow Olympic Games.

Another great athlete, the weight lifter Tudor Casapu won several championships of the USSR. In 1990, in Budapest, Casapu became World Champion (category 75kg) and in 1992, he won the gold medal in Barcelona, winning the title in an individual sport one year after Moldova was recognized as an independent country by the world community.

Barcelona represented an important moment for Olympic Moldova.

The Olympic Games of 1992 were the last ones for a great team who took part in it under the name of "Unified Team".

During the Soviet period Moldova was represented in Barcelona by the largest number of athletes in its whole history: 11. The results were excellent: 1 gold, 1 silver and 3 bronze medals.

Until the historical start in Atlanta the Olympic athletes of Moldova had won: 6 gold medals, 5 silver medals and 7 bronze medals.

The Olympic delegation, parading in the Olympic stadium of the Centenary in 1996, were for the first time representing the Republic of Moldova and was composed of 42 athletes who confirmed their qualifications.

The Olympic champions of Seoul, Nicolae Juravschi and Victor Reneischi, won silver medals in the distance of 500m double canoeing. The wrestler in the Greco-Roman style, Serghei Mureico won the bronze medal in the 130kg category.

But the new leaders of our young state got no previous experience. The economical situation of Moldova started to go down. All the other fields of social and economical life have been also affected.

Gradually, many of the sports specialists and performance athletes started to emigrate abroad as they did not speak the new state language and they did not want to learn it. This was problematic as this was one of the first criteria to get a job. More than that, specialists and athletes were offered better opportunities such as training facilities, better salaries, and so on, by various foreign clubs. And they accepted them. This still remains one of the major problems of Moldovan society. Many good athletes still change Moldova for other countries: six Moldavian athletes will participate in the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games thanks to their performance but as citizens of other countries, such as Serghei Mureico - the Greco-Roman Wrestler (bronze medal, Atlanta '96, Dumitru Usaghin (Boxing) and Nicolae Poslari (Freestyle Wrestling) will evaluate for Bulgaria, Natalia Valeeva - the Archery World Champion will represent Italy, Vasile Lapteacru (Freestyle Wrestling) will concur for Germany and Valeriu Calancea (Lifting) - for Romania. The same also applies for sports coaches. According to the opinion of the specialists, Serghei Mureico and Natalia Valeeva have all the chances to obtain medals and Vasile Lapteacru and Valeriu Calancea can be classified between the 10 best athletes in their events.

There is also a possibility that Tudor Lazarenco, another great Moldavian athlete will represent Canada at the Olympics.

Up to now only 3 athletes (Mureico, Valeeva and Lapteacru) have received the formal permission of the NOC of Moldova to represent the corresponding countries.

Like the majority of other Ex-Soviet Union Republics such as Belarus, Estonia, Ukraine, Georgia, Armenia and Latvia, Moldova

has to undergo a very severe transitional period. During this really very difficult period of time when sport is not regarded as one of the priorities of the country, Moldova has experienced and continues to experience a great deal of assistance from the International Olympic Committee and many other International bodies.

The last Olympic Cycle was a very proactive one for the NOC of Moldova, so Moldova has benefited from almost all the programmes provided by the Olympic Solidarity.

The Olympic Solidarity programme comprises three main sectors

- Training officials, and, in particular, organising specialised courses and offering scholarships.
- Drawing up and distributing sports information.
- Assisting in the planning and construction of sports facilities.

The scholarships are divided into three distinct groups: young promising athletes, coaches and former high level athletes of university standard.

The basic aspects of this programme are the same as those of the athletes. Nominations are made by the National Federations and the best candidates are presented by the NOCs for consideration by Olympic Solidarity. But the NOC of Moldova decided to distribute the 6 scholarships offered to our country to 23 athletes according to the athletes' performance. If the athletes did not manage to qualify for the Olympics, their scholarships would be immediately terminated so the remaining amount could be distributed to the best athletes.

At present Moldova has 27 athletes who have qualified for the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games.

On 29th January, 1991, in Chisinau, the Capital of Moldova, the Congress for the creation of the NOC was held. The delegates elected as President of the NOC, Mr. Efim Josanu and as Secretary General, Mr.Nicolae Ambrosi.

The National Olympic Committee of the Republic of Moldova was recognised by the International Olympic Committee and integrated into the International Olympic Movement on 9th March 1992 when it obtained temporary recognition. On 24th September 1993, during its 101st session in Monaco, the IOC officially recognised the NOC of Moldova.

The National Olympic Committee of Moldova is made up of 56 members who are elected and/or coopted by the Session upon the recommendation of the Executive Board. They are ambassadors of their National Sports Federations, National Olympic Academy, Sports Trade Union Association, and so on. The number of the National Sports Federations whose sports are included in the Olympic programme is 37. The responsibilities of the IFs include the legislation, organisation and development of sport. They also have to ensure the technical running of their sports, with the IOC remaining the final authority on all non-technical questions concerning the Olympic Games and Movement.

The National Olympic Academy of Moldova was funded in 1994. In 1997 the Association of Olympic Athletes was born under the guidance of Mr. Nicolae Juravschi, a double Olympic champion in Seoul and silver medallist in Atlanta.

There are no other superior bodies responsible for sport except for the National Olympic Committee, the Department of Youth and Sport within the Ministry of Science and Education and the Parliamentary Commission for Youth and Sport. The Olympic Committee is mainly responsible for sponsoring of high performance athletes that are members of the National and Olympic teams and includes the purchasing of sports equipment, air tickets, paying for accommodation, and so on. The Department of Youth and Sport is responsible for the physical preparation of the athletes. The Department of Youth and Sport is financed by the Government. But, because of inflation the government is currently unable to pay salaries, scholarships and the money foreseen by the budget.

Olympic Solidarity extends its field of activity to various areas which are characterized by educative and social principles.

The objective of the technical sports courses is to give technical sports instruction to coaches and athletes. Usually they are directed by experts appointed by the IF concerned. The IFs also define the syllabuses and evaluate and provide the teaching materials.

Olympic Solidarity analyses and evaluates each of these courses thus providing a record of the activities of each NOC and their results. The courses are planned for a period of 4 years, one year in advance.

So, the NOCs know in advance their budget and are able to prepare a more rational programme.

Many organisations are involved in this process. In Moldova the NOC is responsible for the good organisation and running of the courses. In 1999 the NOC of Moldova decided to use the OS Administrative subsidy to purchase the air tickets for Moldavian athletes to participate in the European Youth Olympic Days. In 2000 the necessary equipment needed for the whole delegation of Moldova to participate in the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games was purchased thanks to the same subsidy. An official letter was sent to the Olympic Solidarity requesting permission to do it. After receiving their approval, the NOC of Moldova signed a formal agreement with the German Adidas Company. So, one of the biggest problems was solved.

Another important course to be considered is the Sports Medicine course. Though there is a Medical Commission within the NOC of Moldova, there is no Doping Control Commission. The athletes have limited opportunities to go abroad for these tests because of lack of time and finances. That is why during the last 4 years the NOC of Moldova has organised and held 1 Regional and 1 National Course on Sports Medicine where the issues of doping and sports injuries have been discussed.

The NOC of Moldova also organises National courses on Sport and the Environment that is also a very significant and real problem.

The organisation and running of the Olympic movement as well as the relations between these bodies are defined and set out in the "Olympic Charter" which incorporates the Olympic rules, bye-laws and instructions as well as all pertinent information.

Another way to bring the Olympic Idea and the Olympic Movement closer to the younger generation is, of course, literature. Moldova has some publications on the Olympic Movement from Romania but they are not enough of course because their number is limited.

A measure which is used more and more in various countries is the organisation of "Olympic Day" which is usually celebrated on June 23. As a way of celebrating this day all over the world the President of the International Olympic Committee, H.E. Mr. Juan Antonio Samaranch, decided in 1987 to suggest to the NOCs that they organise a sports event open to the general population. All

NOCs who organise a sports event are supplied with certificates for distribution to the participants and the Olympic Solidarity sends $ USA 1,500 upon receipt of a report of the event to cover part of the expenses. Annually Moldova has about 20.000 participants in this event. In Moldova it is celebrated late in May because the main participants in the Athletic Run dedicated to this day are school pupils and starting with June, they have already their vacation. On this day we also organise special lectures during which various problems of sport and the Olympic Games are discussed. There is also a special class when all school students write compositions on Olympic Movement.

But the educational aspects of the Olympic Movement does not include only school students and the young but also the adults. So, the NOC of Moldova organises National Stages for specialists activating in various fields of social life. But it has to be remembered that the forming of opinions in the Olympic sense can be achieved beyond the school environment.

The NOC is implementing a wide programme of developments which focuses on sport for all. All these initiatives will comply with the programmes of government institutions but always in respect of its autonomy and independence.

As a matter of fact Moldova does not use the Olympic Solidarity Technical scholarship for former athletes of individual Olympic sports in order that they might complete their university education. This is because Moldavians used to speak Russian during the Soviet times and no special attention was paid to the foreign language in schools that was usually French. At the moment for an athlete to be considered an ideal candidate he or she must be an athlete who has practiced an individual Olympic sport for a long period of time during which he/she will have participated in an Olympic Games and will have achieved such results as to classify him/her as a high level athlete. But, suddenly, they speak no foreign language.

Moldavians feel a great support from the Government. The country's President, Mr. Petru Lucinschi, has signed a Decree on the Juridical Statute of the NOC which underlines the supremacy of the Olympic Charter in the territory of the Republic of Moldova. But there are not so many possibilities to implement the Olympic Ideals in practice. And Olympic Solidarity assistance will not last forever...

CHINA SPORTS MUSEUM - A SHOWCASE DISPLAYING CHINESE SPORTS TRADITION AND OLYMPIC CULTURE

by Jun Wang *(CHN)*

If the Olympic arena presents a dynamic and transient opportunity for athletes and audiences to experience and enjoy the Olympic Movement and sports culture, then, Olympic museums are the educational institutions to convey Olympic culture. By collecting and displaying Olympic relics and historical remains for the common people, and also creating a permanent Olympic cultural exchange place for athletes and spectators. Like other Olympic museums, China sports museum has the same functions. It is a showcase for displaying Chinese sports traditions and Olympic culture.

1. Collection

China sports museum opened in 1990 and is an exclusive center for collecting, exhibiting and studying sports relics and historical documents. It is located southeast of the National Olympic Sports Center and has a floor space of 7100m^2 and an exhibiting area of 2510m^2. It has extensive facilities, including 6 exhibition halls, 1 center hall, a library and an archives, which keep more than 4000 articles, 5000 photos, 10000 books, 40000 files and 2000 videodisks about ancient and contemporary sports in China. These historical relics, the colorful painted bricks showing archers aiming at animals in hunting (unearthed from Wei Jin Dynasty's Tomb in Jia Yuguan, Gan Su Province) and Song Dynasty's Engraved Bricks showing Polo games (discovered in Luo Yang, He Nan Province) belong to the historical relics Band 2 of our country. The Ming Dynasty's High-Stem Porcelain bowl (showing very young children at play, and Qiu Ying's Painting with two people playing chess painted by Qing Dynasty painters and so on are the essence of historical relics in sports. The precious historical relics mentioned above are not only the basis of

our holding the exhibition, but also provide information services for sports colleagues to do their research.

2. Exhibition

The exhibitions are divided into 6 parts, including: The Ancient Sports Hall (the 1st Hall), The Modern Sports Hall (the 2nd Hall), The Contemporary Sports Hall (the 3rd & the 4th Hall), The Olympics Hall (the 5th Hall) and The Minority Nationalities Traditional Sports Hall (the 6th Hall). The temporary exhibitions are held in the Central Hall. The combination of China sports tradition with the Olympic culture is the main theme of all the exhibition halls. The modern and advanced exhibiting techniques help to display the traditions of old China sports and Olympic culture one after another, along the time tunnel, leaving and unforgettable impression on visitors.

The Ancient Sports Hall (the 1st Hall) exhibits Chinese sports in ancient times. The ancient China sports was a multi-functional and comprehensive physical activities which health preservation combine entertainment, education and military drills into one. More than 100 antiques, 80 photos and 20 paintings are presenting the history of Chinese ancient sports from remote prehistory through the Ming-Qin Dynasty (1644-1911).

The period before the Qin Dynasty (BC 21century-BC 221), Chinese ancient sport in its infancy was beginning to take shape. The works depicting dancing, hunting, archery, wrestling and swimming reproduce the process of China's ancient sports developing from production, labor, tribal conflicts and daily activities.

The period from Qin Dynasty to three states (Wei, Shu, and WU BC 221-AD 280) was the rising time of the Feudalism in China. The establishment of the unified multinational feudal nation, the development of politics, economics and culture, and the relative tranquility of the people's life created favorable circumstances for the sports boom. The sports activities of this period found full expression in a plethoric tomb murals; stone relief; brick relief; pottery figurines; poems and other literary works, which we have in plenty. CuJu (Chinese ancient football) was one of the most popular physical activities at this time, and is richly represented in the relics mentioned above. Drum-beating, chess-playing, wrestling and so on were also very popular, then are fully embodied in the exhibits as well.

It was during the period from Jin Dynasty to Tang Dynasty (AD265-907) that ancient sporting events, such as polo, martial arts and health preservation took their shape and throve. The displayed batting figurines are various in forms, realistic in action and very rhythmical, and demonstrate the boom of this sports event at that time. In addition, the pictures vividly show the high skill level being reached in chess games.

During the period from Song dynasty to Yuan dynasty (AD960-1368), when the Chinese pop sports were booming, the feudal city economy was prospering and the citizen culture was thriving rapidly. Entertainment and sports activities such as Chinese wrestling, swimming, acrobatics, chess-games, boat-racing and the way of health preservation became more popular than ever before. The documents and relics held in our museum from this ancient game of CuJu are also very abundant. For example "The football performance painting on a porcelain pillow in the Jin dynasty", "the ball-kicking painting of emperor of Song Dynasty kicks the ball" and "the lines Bronze Mirror painting depicting CuJu" and shown in the exhibition indicate that many kinds of ancient sports were progressively perfecting.

During both the Ming and Qing Dynasties Chinese ancient sports experienced a special development process because of the unfavorable political and economical situation, some sports events, such as CuJu (ball kicking) began to become weak. But the martial arts in common people, whose system and different style were well formed, embarked on a new stage of development in this period as the pictures on the porcelain and other instruments vividly show.

The Modern Sports Hall (the 2nd hall). More than 200 exhibits and pictures show the development of Chinese sports from 1840-1949. Some of them, though not many, are of high value, for example: The Illustration of Sports published in 1904 was the earliest sports book preserved up to now in China; and includes pictures of a Chinese soccer team in 1902, and Li Sen, the first woman who took part in Berlin's Olympic Games in 1936 etc. It is worth mentioning the many kinds of badges, plaques and emblems won in the National Games before 1949, and the many books donated by Mr.Wu Wenzgong, LiQinglian, Wang Shilin, both famous scholars in Taiwan and on the mainland. As well a sports medal donated by Chai Jianhong, senior editor of China Publishing House and won by his father

in 1930's is on show to the visitors, and provides important information for the visitors and history research fellows.

The Modern sports in China has clearly retained some of our traditional events and also adopted some Western sports. Both the Oriental and Western sports events have been coexisting and developing in the process of repulsion and absorption and finally have formed the Sports Culture, characteristic of China. The whole Modern Hall objectively introduces the sports-inheriting and passing-on people of modern time, the evolution of school physical education, the Martial Arts Association and the traditional sports, All-China Sports Association and modern sports, overseas Chinese and modern sports, China and Far-eastern Games, China and the International Olympic Committee, and the sports of the revolutionary base areas and liberated areas led by Communist Party of China. Our collected historical materials are full, accurate and original, so they basically express the complete picture of the blending and development of the Chinese and Western sports culture of modern time in China.

The Contemporary Sports Hall (the 3rd and 4th hall) includes More than 500 exhibits and more than 500 pictures demonstrating the great achievement made by the People's Republic of China in the sporting field since its foundation in 1949. They include every dimension of contemporary sports, focussing on the outstanding achievements made by the Chinese athletes in while scaling the heights of sports in the international arena. Notable among them is the table tennis player, the first Chinese international champion owner, Rong Guotuan , the first golden medal owner at the 23rd Olympic Games: XuHaifeng, "Gymnastic Prince", Li Ning who has gained a world champion title 14 times, Chinese woman's volleyball team, international champion for 5 times in row. Part of the golden cups and medals won by Chinese athletes in Olympic Games, world cup championship, international championships and many instruments used by them are also on show to visitors. Spectators can appreciate the heroic posture of the former athletes and see the graceful bearing of today's sportsmen and women in the arena. On top of that, our exhibition also embodies the accomplishments which we have made in sports schools; scientific research in sports; sports publication; and the construction of sports facilities; in promotion of the socialist spiritual civilization and international exchanges through sports.

The Olympics Hall (the 5th hall) consists of 3 parts: the Olympic Movement, the Olympic Movement in China, and the bid of the P.R.C for the 2000 Olympic Games. The first part demonstrates the Ancient Olympic Games in Olympia, Greece, covering more than 1000 years from 776 BC to the 393 AD, and the course of development of the Modern Olympic Movement lasting more than 100 years from 1894 when the International Olympic Committee was established till now. In other words, this part covers 3000 years. It describes sequentially the origin, evolution and decline of the ancient games and the revival of the modern Olympic Movement one after another. For this exhibition we use pictures which mainly depict the history and status quo of the modern Olympic Movement; show when and where all the previous Olympic Games were held; the previous Chairmen of the I.O.C; the members of the I.O.C and some well known athletes. The second part shows that the Chinese people consistently support the Olympic Movement with the promotion of peace and friendship as its purpose. It also describes the occasions when the Chinese athletes took part in the Olympic Games three times from 1932 to 1948. In 1984 in Los Angeles (23rd Olympic Games) Chinese athletes returned to the Olympic Games and won 15 golden medals, thus turning over a new leaf in the Chinese Olympic history. Since then Chinese athletes have kept excellent records and taken the lead in the following Olympic Games. Here is the list of the Chinese athletes who have won the Olympic badges, and some pictures and material objects showing the friendly association of the Chinese Olympic Committee with the I.O.C and the Olympic Committees of other countries. Today, the Olympic Movement in China is progressing with greater momentum. In order to promote the Olympic Movement in China, Beijing's bid for the 2000 Olympic Games in 1991 embodied the Chinese people's expectation and pursuit of the Olympic spirit. It is through this process that the third part (the bid by China for the Olympic Games) shows how the Chinese government, people and expatriate Chinese supported Beijing bidding for 2008 Olympic Games.

The Minority Nationalities Traditional Sports Hall (the 6th hall) holds More than 300 photos and 500 exhibits showing the varied and graceful traditional sports activities of China's 56 nationalities. These activities feature of regional and national flavor and comprehensively reflect the contents and forms of sports of the 56 nation-

alities of China. Additionally, visitors can find sundry folk arts activities from different parts of China, such as horseracing, archery, swing-race, dragon/lion dance, top, shuttlecock, festivals and other interesting folk customs. Besides this, it also contains reports of sports meetings of minority ethnic groups.

The museum also holds a variety of temporary exhibition in the central hall, for example: One Century of Olympic Movement; The Fifty Years' Achievements in New China's Physical Culture and Sports were all held successfully one after the other. The 5000 Years of Chinese Sports-Arts and Tradition was an unparalleled success brought up by HeZgenliang, chairman of Culture Committee of International Olympic Committee, presided over by LinShuying, the vice-director of China sports museum, cooporated with Asia Arts Museum in France held in International Olympic Museum in Lausanne from June to October in 1999. Mr. Juan Antonio Samaranch, president of the International Olympic Committee was present at the opening ceremony. This exhibition plays an active role in promoting understanding and exchanging the Chinese sports tradition and Olympic culture.

3. Education

Apart from the exhibition, the China sports museum, disseminates information by publishing the journal Physical Culture and Sports History and China's Sports Almanac, studys sports history and the Olympic Movement, and has compiled a lot of academic and popular books; one of them is the album 5000 Years of Physical Culture and Sports in China, designed by CuiLequan, the first doctor of sports history in China. The album has excellent pictures and accompanying essays, is beautifully printed and for the first time comprehensively shows the grand spectacle of 5000 years of Chinese sports. Furthermore, the China sports museum invited Dr. Hai Ren, professor of Beijing university of physical education and sports, a devotee in the study and dissemination of Olympic Movement ideals, and has made great contributions to promoting the development of Olympic Movement in China, to work as an editor-in chief, together with research fellows at the China sports museum, to compile the Olympic Encyclopedia. This is a monumental book with more than million words which will play a great role in promoting the Olympic

Movement in China. It will also be a reference book which Chinese scholars can use to do their research and pass on Olympic knowledge. I,O,C Cultural Commissioner, He Zhenliang wrote the preface to this book.

The China sports museum attaches great importance to academic research, holds seminars of National sports and Olympic studies, and remains in contact with the circle of sports historians and museums in North America, Europe, Japan, Korea, Hong Kong and Taiwan etc. In order to improve cooperation and exchanging information with the international museums. The China sports museum has become a member of The International Council of Museums from 1998.

China sports museum is a place where athletes and spectators can communicate and exchange their information. It has invited many famous athletes as guests to meet visitors, so the exhibition is made more realistic and vivid. For example: During the exhibition of Chinese 50 Years of Physical Culture and Sports, the famous athletes Wang Junxia, Xu Haifeng and Wang Yifu were invited to deliver a lecture to visitors. It proved highlight of the exhibition.

China sports museum takes every opportunity to carry out the education of patriotism, sports and Olympic culture. For instance: During the celebration of one hundred years of Olympic Movement in 1994, a series of educational programs were held. One of them is to invite many former athletes who have taken part in the Olympic Games to speak about their experience and their feelings in the struggle for the motherland. This arouses and inspires the patriotism in young students.

In the past 10 years, more than 1,000,000 people have visited the museum from different places in China and abroad, including many IOC members, presidents and secretaries general of international sports associations, and other sports guests from many countries. Due to the striking contribution to promote Chinese traditional sports and spread Olympic culture, China sports museum had the honor to have been named: "The Education Base for Youth in Beijing" by Beijing people's municipal government on May 1992; and was named in June 1996:" The Patriotism Education Base" by the China general bureau of National sports.

NOT JUST A FASHION STATEMENT: BATHING SUITS, UNIFORMS, AND SPORTSWEAR IN THE EARLY OLYMPIC GAMES

by Amanda SCHWEINBENZ *(CAN)*

Historically, women's participation in the Olympic Games was not welcomed by Pierre de Coubertin and other international sport leaders. It is unlikely that women would have participated in the early Games in any sort of athletic capacity, if not for the mandate of host city organizing committees to determine the nature of sporting events and the various ceremonies and mass exercises. These residual Victorian attitudes were not restricted to members of Coubertin's International Olympic Committee. Indeed, they were common place among the middle classes and gentlemen of Europe and the Americas. With respect to work, play, and cultural activity, medical and social ideologies had played a significant role in construction of distinct gender identities and practices in Victorian society. Sport for men, particularly in Britain, the United States, and Canada served as a proving ground for the development of appropriate masculinities, where physicality and competition signified some of the most important qualities of manhood. However, for girls and women, even light exercise for women of middle class stature and above was viewed as social taboo by the turn of the century.

Victorian fashion had reinforced such social mores and by design had helped to position women as the arbiters of sexuality and physical control; and instruments such as the corset, the hoop skirt, and the bustle ensured that any sort of exercise for women would be impractical, if not uncomfortable. When Coubertin's Olympics unfolded in Paris in 1900, women such as Charlotte Cooper demonstrated that exercise and femininity were not necessarily as contradictory as leading social commentaries suggested. Women's participation at the Olympic Games continued through 1908 and 1912, and more broadly the place of women in sport was ensured by the efforts of Alice Milliat, the FSFI, and female participants from other

parts of the world. This study examines the "fashion" of early female Olympians, in their respective sports, offering comments on dominant views about sexuality, the reactionary viewpoints of Olympic leaders, and the challenges to conventional attitudes about female physicality. The kinds of sport-related Olympic uniforms were related not only to the limitations imposed by masculinist sport culture; rather they had broader significations in the world of contemporary fashion, the dictates of appropriate codes of sexuality, and were important in the changing notions of more physical femininities and the public display of female bodies. Material for the study is appropriated from an array of secondary literature on the Olympic Games, medical and social history, the history of sexuality, and form the social history of fashion. The analytical framework is borrowed from contemporary feminist and pro-feminist analyses of gender and the historical sociology of the gender construction of sport and body culture. Other sources include photographs, newspaper accounts, and the letters and collections of significant Olympic personalities and administrators, and from the minutes of the IOC and executive councils.

From studies such as this, an understanding of how men and women have experienced sport in different ways comes to the fore. Further, it is important to note that like other major sport movements in the 20th century, the Olympic Games have been organized around lines of gender. Clothing and fashion within the Games provide indicators of some of the barriers which faced female athletes and how their success ultimately depended upon some significant challenges to conventional wisdom and practice.

The recent decision by the International Volleyball Federation to enforce dress codes upon male and female players highlights the significance of apparel in the social construction of modern sport. This is not a new phenomenon, however, as fashion has always played a role in determining how female athletes experience sport. Indeed, Pierre de Coubertin's Olympic Games of the early 1900s were an important medium for the expression of social and sexual mores through sport fashion and competitive costume.

Traditional Victorian ideals about how a woman should act and dress were not limited to the Victorian Era alone. Upper class white men during the late 1800s and early 1900s had a tremendous in-

fluence on societal norms and beliefs and by extension on the general population. Sport of course was a part of these spheres of influence. Distinct gender identities were constructed through medical and social ideologies with respect to work, play, and cultural activity. In the 19th century, Britain, the United States, and Canada, sport was a proving ground for the development of appropriate masculinities. Sport was intended to create men out of boys; physicality and competition signified some of the most important qualities of manhood and the Olympic Games were an important international avenue for the expression of these values. At the opposite end of the spectrum it was considered inappropriate for women to participate in physical activity for fear that they would develop masculine qualities or suffer physiological problems. At the turn of the century female participation in sports or physical activity was still deemed a social taboo.

Post Victorian Era fashion reinforced social mores about the position that women were to hold in society. Victorian fashion design for women restricted and controlled movement, ensuring that any sort of physical activity would be impractical and uncomfortable. Women were to give the impression of appropriate femininity with every step and gesture; with the use of the corset, the hoop skirt and the bustle, idealistic femininity was preserved.

The newly formed International Olympic Committee[1] (IOC) was headed by a traditionally Victorian aristocrat, the Baron Pierre de Coubertin who personally chose the members of the committee who were generally also Princes, Barons, or very wealthy men. Coubertin's Games were intended for sporting gentlemen, a group of like-minded individuals with common interests and attitudes toward social progress and competition. Coubertin had no intention of allowing women to participate in his Games, a common male attitude made clear by his statement that women's participation in sport was contrary to the "Laws of Nature."[2] This paper comments on the general organization of sport during the early Olympic Games, with particular emphasis on the experience of participation and physical image with respect to sport fashion. The Olympic Games became a fundamental public stage for the display of 'appropriate' sport clothing - a clear message about women's bodies, contested meanings of female sexuality, and the social experience of women at the Olympics.

Since local organizing committees composed the competitive program of the Olympics until 1912, there were some women's events in the Games. Pierre de Coubertin's ideas about women participating in 'his' Olympics were not a secret. On several occasions the founder of the modern Olympic Games denounced women's athletic endeavors and discredited their athletic abilities. In 1912 he wrote in *Revue Olympique* that the Olympic Games should be reserved for men.[3] Coubertin was a product of Victorian times but also had a significant influence in promoting such values. The perception that women competing in sports were "the most unaesthetic sight human eyes could contemplate"[4] was held generally by upper class men during the early 1900s. This of course included Coubertin. When he was forced to acknowledge women's participation in the Games, his words were carefully chosen to sustain a rather ambivalent posture about a clear cut decision:

"We feel that the Olympic Games must be reserved for men, ... As the saying goes: a door must be open or closed. Can women be given access to *all* the Olympic events? No? ... Then why permit them some and bar them from others? And especially, on what basis does one establish the line between events permitted and events prohibited? There are not just tennis players and swimmers [both events already in the Olympics for women]. There are also fencers, horsewomen, and in America there have also been rowers. Tomorrow, perhaps, there will be women runners or even soccer players. Would such sports practiced by women constitute an edifying sight before crowds assembled for an Olympiad? We do not think that such a claim can be made.

... Such is not our idea of the Olympic Games in which we feel [that] we have tried and that we must continue to try to achieve the following definition: the solemn and periodic exaltation of male athleticism with internationalism as a base, loyalty as a means, arts for its setting, and female applause as reward."[5]

In spite of the misgiving of Coubertin and other powerful sport organizers, active women saw the value of sport for women but also acknowledged the growing popularity of the Olympic Games.

Alice Milliat, a widowed rowing enthusiast from France, was the woman who ultimately pushed the IOC to include women's track and field in the Olympic program. In 1919 Milliat, on behalf of the

Fédération des Sociétés Féminines Sportives de France, proposed the inclusion of women's track and field in the 1920 and 1924 Olympic Games but was rejected by the IOC.[6] Frustrated by the lack of organizational interest in women's track and field, Milliat formed the Fédération Sportive Feminine Internationale (FSFI) in 1921, which would govern women's track and field at an international level.[7] In 1922 the FSFI hosted its First Women's Olympic Games in Paris, simulating the men's Olympic Games, with women from five countries competing in eleven events before 20,000 spectators.[8]

Eventually Milliat approached the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF), and with the help of its president, Johann Siegfried Edström, women's track and field made its debut at the 1928 Olympic Games in Amsterdam on a temporary basis. At the IOC General Session 25-30 May 1930, women's track and field was accepted on a permanent basis into the Olympic Games.[9] During this period of tentative acceptance of women's participation, there were numerous changes in fashion and sport apparel. With broader social and political changes taking place, some of the restrictive clothing styles fell by the wayside as women wore shoes and wore revealing swimwear. These were significant shifts from the residual Victorian values about the public display of women's bodies.

Clothing and the Games

Women's fashion, for leisure and daily wear, changed drastically between the 1880s and the 1930s. During the 1880s the bustle was replaced by a corset, which accentuated the bust and the behind. This contraption was made of steel and heavy cotton or canvas inserts that laced at the rear.[10] The corset was not discarded until the mid 1920s when fashion no longer dictated the accentuation of a woman's bust or behind, but rather a sleek, elongated body. Tight lacing and heavy woolen clothing were blamed for female ailments. By 1880, Dr. Jaeger introduced dress reform as part of a campaign for change on the grounds of health and science, protesting against fashion that deformed a woman's figure, impeded her bodily movements, or injured her health.[11]

Leisurewear during the 1880s was cumbersome and awkward. Gymnasium dresses consisted of "knee-britches, short skirts, and blouse-waists with long sleeves" and long stockings.[12] Bathing cos-

tûmes were a knee length flannel dress that buttoned at the front, long sleeves, wide, braid collar, belted at the waist, and stockings making any sort of athletic movement in the water very difficult.[13] Tennis clothes differed little from day to day wear as women played in trained dresses that tied at the back with high-heeled shoes, thus severely restricting playing style and speed of the games.[14] Cycling was difficult because dresses were long, heavy and pleated, causing the hem to catch in the wheels. Women began wearing a split skirt, but this was also heavy, though it did allow for freer movement.

Victorian clothing was designed to conceal a woman's body. Middle to upper class women were covered from head to foot with heavy, bulky clothing that inhibited natural movement. Kathleen E. McCrone points out in *Sport and the Physical Emancipation of English Women 1870-1914,* that "rapid motion, ample waists and the raising of arms above the head were considered unfeminine, so sleeves were cut to inhibit the latter, corsets became tighter and petticoats got more voluminous."[15] Leisurewear varied little from everyday wear. Women wore long pleated bloomers covered by a long skirt, with long sleeves and a collared neck.[16] The traditional wool sea-bathing costumes were now replaced by a flannel, knee length dress that were accompanied by a cloak or cape, resembling the gymnasium wear and everyday wear.[17] Tennis costumes were "flannel with deep kilted skirt[s] and long basque bodice[s], an embroidered apron with pocket to hold the balls, and along overcoat which [was] intended to be removed for playing."[17] Women were discouraged from exercising, but light physical activity was permitted if intended to improve domestic capabilities.

By the turn of the century, the traditional corset was replaced by a "S-shaped silhouette" corset that produced an over-hanging bust, flat waist and a projecting behind.[18] Gymnasium wear consisted of "a bloomer outfit that was loose, cut low at the neck, with sleeves to the elbows... long black stockings and thin flat shoes without heels."[19] Tight corsets and uncomfortable clothes were being abandoned for more practical clothing. Swimwear was a "below-knee serge dress worn over matching bloomers and often accompanied by stockings and bathing shoes."[20] It is important to mote at this time, women began to increase their involvement in physical activity, but

leisure time was limited to middle and upper class women who could afford to participate in clubs that offered women's activities.

At the 1900 Games in Paris, eleven women competed in golf, lawn-tennis and yachting as a direct result of the Paris organizing committee inserting these events in the program. Charlotte Cooper, the first woman to win an Olympic title, competed at the 1900 Games in tennis.[21] Cooper's tennis dress had a high collar, long sleeves, a belt and was ankle length, while her shoes had a slight heal and were pointed at the toe.[22] Cooper's athletic excellence was somewhat compromised by the feminine ideal, an expectation that a woman's beauty in appearance and form was more important than an efficient performance.

During the next four years clothing changed little. Women interested in bicycling began discarding their inhibiting under garments, and the S-shaped corset for more comfortable attire, although women of middle and upper class were generally reluctant to abandon fashion for more comfortable physical activity. Archery was first introduced at the Olympic Games in St. Louis in 1904. Six women from the United States participated, with Lida Howell winning first place.[23] The athletic clothing of archers looked identical to everyday wear. The women did not discard their full, bulky dresses but, rather, added archery equipment to extend fashionable clothing.

By 1910, the "New Woman" of fashion emerged.[24] Women were wearing tailored suites that increased mobility and freedom. Many women were seeking job opportunities outside of the home, attaining higher levels of education, and becoming more physically fit. The impractical S-shaped corset was abandoned and replaced by a longer, fitted undergarment that was both more comfortable and more practical for movement. Schools were implementing mandatory physical activity components, calisthenics and marching drills, for all girls.[25] Yet, perspiration and overexertion were still prohibited, and fatigued girls were encouraged to sit down under trees to rest.

Women's gymnastics was introduced in the program of the 1912 Stockholm Games. It was reported that the women dressed in "colourful and lovely costumes" and displayed a "collective movement which had the beauty of the ballet."[26] Their uniforms were a short sleeved dress that was mid calf length, with a rounded collar and synched at the waist.[27] The women wore long stockings and rubber

soled shoes without a heel.[28] Invoking a certain historically feminized nostalgia on the early Games, Lord Killanin notes in 1976, that these early female gymnasts appeared to display a "glorious national spirit of the free and democratic nations of the North" when they performed their routines.[29]

The swimmers at the 1912 Games wore simple suits that were quite risqué for their time. Fanny Durack of Australia wore a two-piece suit that consisted of shorts with a sleeveless top that covered her shorts, while Wilhelmina Wvlie, also of Australia, wore a one-piece suit with shorts, that was also sleeveless, but was tight fitted[30] The fashion trend for swim suits during this time was a one-piece knitted suit that was long and loose.[31] The suits that Durack and Wvlie wore inhibited their performance less because they were tight fitting over a looser suit that would have weighed them down. It was evident that some female athletes began to care more about performance than the social criticism that certainly was forthcoming.

The onset of the First World War impacted every aspect of life imaginable. Fighting men left vacancies in industries, which women bravely filled. Fashion and work apparel needed to change, because full skirts were hazardous in the workplace. Slimmer, shortened outfits were designed to fit the need of these working women.[32] Women were finding new social freedoms that had previously been inaccessible. Work, school, and leisure activities became more widespread for women of every social class distinction. When the War was over, some women were reluctant to return to their previous stations in life, as wives and mothers, and looked to sustain their independence and seek emancipation by fighting for the right to vote and work outside the home.

The 1920s were deemed by many sport historians as the "Golden Age of Sport" because of the increased accessibility and participation in sport. Women were now running, playing and rejecting the traditional ideals of non-athletic "lady-like" activities that had previously inhibited their physical pleasure and practical enjoyment. Gymnasium wear became more comfortable, with the introduction of knickers and comfortable shirts that allowed for increased movement.[33] Swimsuits were one-pieced woolen knit, with pants attached to the hem of the skirt.[34]

'Plain' diving at the 1920 Games in Antwerp, was the event where young fourteen year old Aileen Riggin of the United States won gold.[35] This young Olympian wore a simple one-piece swim suit that was cut low in the front and under the arms and a few inches above the mid thigh.[36] Such a suit would have crossed the boundaries of appropriateness for an older women. A child's suit was more revealing than a woman's during the early 1920s without the skirt and pants attached.

By the mid 1920s women's fashion gradually became more liberal compared to the traditional Victorian fashion of the early 1900s. Skirts became shorter below the knee to mid calf, necklines lower and material more comfortable. Silk and satin were used compared to traditional wool. Gymnasium wear made the transition to long shorts, reaching just above the knee and a T-shirt.[37] Bathing attire became more practical, but not for swimming. The suits became shorter, the neck-line lower, armholes larger and the overskirt was eliminated, but the suits were still made of heavy material, wool or flannel, thus making competitive swimming difficult.[38] The female swimmers at the 1924 Games wore one-piece wool suits that were sleeveless, cut in a "U" at the neck, and consisted of shorts to the upper thigh. Even in the "Golden Age" of women's sports, residual Victorian values informed the codes of display of women's bodies.

Lawn tennis made its final appearance at the 1924 Games in Paris. As tennis was considered a socially elite sport, women's attire changed very little from its debut at the 1900 Games in Paris. Female competitors wore long, white, pleated skirts that were mid calf length, along with a white, collared blouse that had short sleeves.[39] The women had progressed into flat-soled shoes, but still wore long white stockings.[40]

When Canada sent its first women's team to compete in the 1928 Games in Amsterdam, the female track and field athletes were 'dressed for the occasion.' The six women from Canada marched in "white silk blouses, white pleated flannel skirts, white silk stockings and scarlet shoes with a scarlet hat and blazer."[41] In the absence of ceremony and formality however, the Canadians dared to expand the extent of bodily exposure. When the women appeared on the field in their running attire, fans were shocked at their debatably skimpy outfits. The Canadians had cut the sleeves from their shirts

and chosen a more brief style of running shorts to allow for more freedom and movement of the arms and legs.[42] The female competitors from the other competing countries chose to race in short-sleeved shirts and running shorts that came to the mid thigh, over the Canadians' sleeveless shirts and shorter running pants.

Conclusion

Women's participation in the Olympic Games was not encouraged by its founder, Pierre de Coubertin. Indeed the Games' organizing committees, the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF), the Fédération Sportive Feminine Internationale (FSFI), and particularly Alice Milliat, were responsible for women's participation. Through the impassioned insistence for inclusion by Milliat, the IOC and IAAF were forced to concede to women's sport, lest they should lose control over a growing popular movement. Female athletes ignored conventional boundaries and continued to resist and make adaptations to values surrounding women's participation in competitive sport.

Victorian dress had limited the range of motion for female athletes, preserved comfortable notions about appropriate behaviours and the sexual overtones of moving female bodies. Athletes benefited from changing attire but also made their own modifications to sportswear to enhance performance. The cult of winning, so popular among male participants at the Olympics, became a focal point for female athletes who dared to appear publicly in front of large crowds with clothing that tested commonly held values about sexuality and physical expression. Change in attire both subtle and significant altered women's sports directly. The increasingly popular Olympic Games became the venue for these new expressions, announcing the arrival of the newly empowered female athlete who cared less about the boundaries imposed by the early leaders of international sport.

Notes

1. The International Olympic Committee was originally named the International Committee of the Olympic Games at the first congress in Paris in 1894.
2. Pierre de Coubertin, "L'Education des Jeunes Enfants et des Jeunes Filles," Revue Olympique (October 1902), 61, quoted in Uriel Simri, "The Development of Female Participation in the Modem Olympic Games," *Stadion* VI ( ), 188.
3. Pierre de Coubertin, Revue Olympique (July 1912), 109, quoted in Liselotte Diem, "Olympic Sports for Women Evaluation of Declarations," 115.

4. Pierre de Coubertin, Revue Olympique (January 1908), 13, quoted in Uriel Simri, 'The Development of Female Participation in the Modern Olympic Games," *Stadion* VI, 188.
5. 109-111 quoted in Olympic Competition 137
6. Mary H. Leigh and Theresa M. Bonin, "The Pioneering Role of Madame Alice Milliat and the FSFI in Establishing International Trade and Field Competition for Women"
7. *Ibid.*
8. *Ibid.*
9. *Minutes of the Olympic Congress of Berlin 1930: IIIrd Year of the IXth Olympiad May 25-30* (Lausanne, IOC, 1930), 25.
10. Eileen Collard, *Clothing in English Canada* (Burlington: Eileen Collard, 1975), 21.
11. Jiliang Park, "Sport, Dress Reform and the Emancipation of Women in Victorian England: A Reappraisal," *The International Journal of the History of Sport,* 13-14.
12. Adelaide M. Cole, "A History of Gymnasium Wear," *JOPERD* (September 1986), 68.
13. Patricia Ann Mucklow, "A Study of Major Trends in Costume Design in Physical Education and Selected Individual Sports for Girls and Women in the United States from 1940-1971" (Thesis: Smith College, 1973), 56.
14. Phillis Cunnington and Alan Mansfield, *English Costume for Sports and Outdoor Recreation: From the Sixteenth to the Nineteenth Centuries"* (Adam and Charles Black: London, 1969), 88.
15. Kathleen E. McCrone, Sport *and the Physical Emancipation of English Women 1870-1914* (London: Routledge, 1988), 217.
16. Cole, 67.
17. Collard, 48.
18. Cunnington, 88.
19. *The Encyclopedia of Fashion from 1840 to the 1980s* (London: Thames and Hudson), 221.
20. Cole, 69.
21. Elizabeth Ewing, *History of Twentieth Century Fashion* (London: B.T. Batsford Ltd., 1992), 77.
22. The First Games of the Modern Olympiad saw no women competing officially. Melpomene, a woman from Greece did compete in the marathon race, but unof ficially. After being denied entry by the Greek organizing committee and still de termined to race, she positioned herself at the start so officials could not see her. In a time of four hours and thirty minutes, Melpomene finished the marathon, even after being denied entry into the Olympic stadium to complete the final lap. (See Jane Leder, *Grace and Glory: a Century of Women in the Olympics* (Washing ton, D.C.: Multi-Media Partners and Triumph Books, 1996), 6.
Lord Killanin and John Rodda ed., *The Olympic Games* (Don Mills, Ontario: Collier Macmillan Canada, Ltd., 1976), 31.
23. *Ibid.*
24. Bill Mallon, *The 1904 Olympic Games: Results for All Competitors in All Events, with Commentary* (North Carolina: McFarland & Company, Inc., 1998), 47.
25. John Peacock, *Twentieth-Century Fashion: The Complete Source Book* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1993), 30.
26. Bruce Kidd, *The Struggle for Canadian Sport* (Toronto: Associated University Press, 1983), 163.

27. Killanan, 42.
28. *Ibid.*
29. *Ibid.*
30. *Ibid.*
31. Martin Tyler ed., *The History of the Olympics* (London: Marshall Cavendish, 1975), 23.
32. Ewing, 79.
33. John Peacock, *Twentieth-Century Fashion: The Complete Source Book* (London: Thames and Hudson, 1993), 30.
34. Cole, 68-69.
35. Claudia B. Kidwell, *Women's Bathing and Swimming Costume in the United States* (Washington, D.C.: Smithsonian Institution Press, 1968), 28.
36. Killanan, 46.
37. *Ibid.*
38. Cole, 68.
39. James Laver, *Taste and Fashion, from the French Revolution to Today* (London: George G. Harrap and Company Ltd., 1937), 221.
40. The Associated Press, *Pursuit of Excellence: The Olympic Story* (Connecticut: Grolier Enterprises Inc., 1979), 98.
41. *Ibid.*
42. "Canadian Gils' team Popular in England" The Globe and Mail (28 July 1928), 13.
43. "Canadian Wins 100-Meter Race," *The Globe and Mail* (31 July 1928), 8.

SOME ASPECTS OF THE TYPES OF THE OLYMPIC VILLAGES DURING THE LAST TWO DECADES

by Paraskevi SALEPI *(GRE)*

Introduction

The general theme of this presentation is how effective the Olympic Villages are for the athletes and the team officials. I will mention the aims and the main reasons that an Olympic Village should achieve. I am also going to briefly discuss the planning of the Olympic Villages of the last two decades. I will continue with a short explanation of the main characteristics of the Olympic Village of Athens 2004. Finally there will be some conclusions concerning my topic.

From the conceptual point of view, the Olympic Village -any Olympic Village- is, in itself, the only place where the saying "the most important thing is to take part" really takes on its full meaning. Effectively, fraternal cohabitation in a happy, relaxed atmosphere beyond not only race, religion and sex, but, above all, beyond competition itself confers an extraordinary special character on the Olympic Village. A character which is probably the key to the smooth running of the Olympic Games as a whole (Abad, 1996).

Historical Introduction

The concept of the modern Olympic Village stems from the Los Angeles Olympic Games in 1932. On that occasion, the Organizing Committee built wooden housing to accommodate all the participants (Official Report, Los Angeles 1932). After the Games had ended, the buildings were knocked down and the land returned to its owners. These ephemeral buildings, coupled with the use of old barracks and the temporary fitting-out of schools provided models which were repeated right up to the Helsinki Games in 1952, and even copied again in Tokyo 1964.

The cost of accommodating the athletes was the main factor that persuaded countries participating in the Los Angeles '32 Olympic Games to use a common village for accommodation. Several members

of the IOC initiated a discussion about the two possible solutions: the Olympic Village and the use of the city's hotels. The second possibility was shown to be more costly, bearing in mind that there were only a small amount of hotels in Los Angeles. The women athletes ended up being accommodated in the Chapman Park Hotel near the city center, so starting the tradition of separating the sexes in Olympic residences. The Olympic Residences were separate for men and women until 1984 (Munz, 1996). There is no separation of the sexes after 1984. Nowadays, the Olympic Village is a group of buildings, which are offered for accommodation, offices etc. to every national delegation. The last years the Olympic Village includes buildings for the Press and the Mass Media representatives, with capacity of approximately 5.000 persons.

Why the Olympic Village is useful to athletes and team officials?

The IOC Olympic Charter states in bye -law 42- the objective of the Olympic Village is to bring together all competitors, team officials and other team personnel in one place.

According to Synadinos (1997) the Olympic Village is built to fulfil four main functions

- To provide proper accommodation, nutrition and all the necessary services to the athletes and their escorts
- To operate as administrative center for the National Olympic Com mittees (delegations)
- To offer proper training facilities for each sport (Olympic Park)
- Finally, to provide leisure and entertainment facilities, cultural activities areas and religion areas (Synadinos 1997)

During the training and the leisure programs, athletes from all over the world are coming closer to each other. That kind of companionship has as a result the growing of the ideal of "fair play" which is also obvious during the Games. Another important result is the cultural exchanges among the athletes and the promotion of another "model of life", more democratic, more social.

Purposes and aims of the planing of the Olympic Village

Before the selection of the area and the construction methodology for the Olympic Village, a preliminary research is necessary in order

to ensure that the final decision will be the best possible. The purpose of the research is to examine all the necessary presumptions for the construction of the Olympic Village. The collected elements are very important as they are going to be used for the development of the architectural planning (Synadinos, 1997). The general aims that should be achieved are

- The support of the candidature.
- The development of a national policy for the post Olympic use of the Olympic Village.
- An Olympic Village is very important for an area, especially be cause of its size. The successful completion and function during the Games and its post-Olympic use, will become a future example for imitation or avoidance.
- An Olympic Village should be modern and at the same time based on human perceptions, taking into consideration the 'urban' way of life, where children and adults are living together, work, play, grow up, rest and spend their spare time.
- It has to provide all the comforts that usually exist into a limited urban environment, including the opportunities for work.
- It has to offer to the inhabitants a high quality of life.
- It has to satisfy the cultural and social necessities of the inhabi tants, to respect the architectural expression, the national char acter and the traditions of each nation. It is also important to be adaptable to the future technological and social progress.

Villages of the last two decades

The Olympic village of the Moscow '80 Olympics is an obvious example of the operations insertion into the regulated planning of the city's Development Master Plan, 1971-1990, within the general context of the 10th Five-Year Plan of Economic and Social Development.

The Olympic operations of Seoul '88 and Barcelona '92 were characterized by the existence of major urban renovation plans, with a double content: The city's urban and economic development clearly encouraged degrees of urban internationalization and globalization and the recovery of hitherto marginal urban elements. In this context, and in contrast to the territorial ephemerality of the University Villages of Los Angeles and Atlanta, the Seoul and Barcelona Olympic

Villages emphasised the recovery of suburbs in crisis. The symbolic importance of Olympic urbanism became the establishment of a new urban space, and residential fabric as the driving force behind their creation. In spite of the differences between the two cities, the planning contexts were very similar. In both cases, the areas were subject to urban renovation. The Chamsil area to the south-east of the city in Seoul and the Poblenou area on the sea front in Barcelona, constituted city problem areas. The first case was an old, floodable area on the banks of the Han River, occupied in the 60s by various mass-housing installations affected by major environmental pollution problems. In Barcelona, it was an old area occupied by industry, characterized by the accumulation of warehouses, railway facilities and precarious housing (Munz, 1996).

In Los Angeles, 1984, the city had already 17 of the 23 required facilities, so the impact on the Urban structure was minimal. The Organizing Committee decided not to build any new residential complexes choosing instead to accommodate the athletes in three University Campuses, already housing the necessary technical services, logistics and other facilities required. The University of Southern California (USC) Village was characterized by its proximity to the city center and by the closeness of the building units. The expense of Los Angeles demonstrates how fitting out University Campuses could provide places for extremely flexible Olympic Villages in terms of capacity concerned, whilst solving the problem of post-Olympic management.

As in Los Angeles case, Atlanta '96 used the facilities of the Georgia Institute of Technology for the Olympic Village. These were chosen because of their central location, their proximity to competition venues - all at distances of under 5 Km - and because of the ready existence of a variety of infrastructure including: residential restaurants, telecommunications, medical, athletic and leisure facilities. These facilities were rounded off with the construction of the "Village Festival Center", a large shopping mall and the Olympic towers, two apartment buildings for athlete accommodation (Kittell, 1996).

In Sydney, the initiative involves the creation of a housing neighborhood in an area of renovation near Sydney harbor in Homebush Bay. In fact, the whole Olympic complex is considered to be connected with urban recovery and development of the area, as was in

the case of Seoul. Because of the environmental advantages, various parks have been planned, adapting the operation to the topography of the area. As far as the type of housing at the temporary Village is concerned, there will be a wide variety, ranging from detached houses to apartment blocks of various heights. The operations include improving transportation and the connection to Parramata, Sydney's second largest commercial center, using ferries to cross the river of the same name (Stephen Kittell, 1996).

The identity of the Olympic Village in Athens, 2004

As it concerns Athens the Olympic Village of Athens will be built at Lekanes Acharnon, in the municipality of Acharnai. It is going to cover an area of about 1,240,000 square meters. The site for the Olympic Village is at the foot of Mt. Parnitha, not far from the Parnitha National Park, to which it is linked by road and by aerial cable car. The environmental and climatic conditions of the selected area are ideal and from the point of view of spatial planning it was rated by the Master Plan for the Athens conurbation as an ideal "ekistic outlet" (Athens, 2004 Candidate City).

The Olympic Village site is adjacent to the suburb called Thrakomakedones, a purely residential area with particularly low population density, consisting of generally small one and two storey buildings and a population of no more than 5.000. It will be 11 Km from the Olympic Stadium and 23 Km from the historic Center of Athens. There will be 2,400 housing units, which after the end of the Olympic Games will be a neighborhood for approximately 10,000 inhabitants. In the residential complexes, 8,800 rooms have been designed, that aim to offer comfort and cover all the special needs of the athletes (Synadinos, 1999). It is important to mention that an average allocation of 15 m^2 of raw floor per athlete is to be provided, which is 25% higher than the allocation recommended by the IOC. From the functional point of view, the Olympic Village will be consisted of three zones: The International Zone, which will include the shopping center, meditation area and the logistic center; The Residential Zone, which will include the accommodation area, the polyclinic, the delegation's administrative headquarters, the information center with NOCs, restaurants, delegation's storage areas and service staff, and

the third Zone which will include the Olympic Park, will provide training facilities for the athletes.

The residents of the Olympic Village are going to be athletes from all over the world who believe in more than 50 different religions and speak more than 300 dialects. They will have different morals and customs. Some will seek to stay completely alone at some times and to contact people at other times. Finally, there will be athletes of 28 different sports, all requiring different facilities (Synadinos 1999).

Although the post-Olympic use is an important factor as well the Olympic Village has to provide the best conditions for the best athletes from all over the world.

The Olympic Village of Athens 2004 offers an opportunity for investment for the government as well as for the commercial sector.

It is anticipated that the construction of the Olympic Village will start in 2001.

A bidding was held to design the Village and by the end of November 2000 an architect responsible for the Village will have completed the drawings.

The Athens 2004 organizers are committed to create the best Olympic Village ever, as it is the case of the Olympic Games itself. For this reason the plans and ideas for the Olympic Village may change in the future according to the planning of the Olympic Games as a whole.

Conclusion

As it concerns the Olympic Villages of list two decades, it is obvious that there are two types of Olympic Villages. First the model of Los Angeles 1984 and Atlanta 1996 with the ephemeral Villages. Second the model used in Seoul 1988 and Barcelona 1992 with the large residential complexes. The Villages in Los Angeles and Atlanta are financially more acceptable and better fore the environment because of their non creation of new facilities.

Although the construction of a new Olympic Village from the very beginning offers the best conditions for athletes and officials who will use it during the Olympic Games. It can also help the development of poor socio-economic areas and in this case it is very important to consider the post Olympic use of the Village. Finally it

has to be mentioned that the part of the Olympic Games which has to do with the Olympic Villages represents an interesting area for further research because the research is limited right now.

Two years ago, at the same place, here in Olympia, Mrs. Anita De Franz, Olympic Medallist and IOC Member in USA, had shared with us her experience from the Olympic Village, as an athlete. She had mentioned at her speech, that when she thinks of her experience in the Olympic Games, the very first image that comes to her mind is the Olympic Village. A place, where respect and confidence are shared by all. The home of those who appreciate and practice excellence.

Bibliography

1. Franz Anita, Report on the IOA's special sessions and seminars 1998, Ancient Olympia.
2. Kittel S. The Olympic Village of Sydney 2000", Olympic Villages Hundred Years of Urban Planing and Shared Experiences, Documents of the Museum, Lausanne, 1996.
3. Muñoz Francesc Manuel, Historic Evolution and Urban planning, Typology of Olympic Villages, Olympic Villages Hundred years of Urban Planing and shared Experiences, Documents of the Museum, Lausanne, 1996.
4. Olympic Bit Committee Organisation Chart, 1997, "Athens 2004 Candidate City", Olympic Village Theme 12, vol. 3.
5. Synadinos P., 1997, Environmental Consequences of the organisation of the Olym pic Games, University of Aegeon.
6. Synadinos P., 1999, The philosopy of the Olympic Village, Olymbionikis, Athens.
7. X^{th} Olympiad Committee of the Games of the Los Angeles, 1933.
8. The Games of the X^{th} Olympiad Los Angeles 1932.

AVERY BRUNDAGE AND THE 1936 OLYMPIC GAMES

by Thomas KAPTAIN *(DEN)*

In October 1999 I went to the University of Illinois, the United States, to visit the Avery Brundage Collection (ABC). It was interesting to read all the primary sources about Brundage and the 1936 Olympic Games, and it provided numerous primary sources to support my thesis. The major purpose of this paper is to evaluate the arguments used in the debate about whether or not the United States should have participated in the Olympic Games in Germany in 1936. Specifically, I will be focusing on Brundage's role in this debate.

Introduction

I would like to begin by introducing the conditions in Germany towards 1936, followed by an introduction to Avery Brundage. In 1931, after a meeting in Barcelona, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) awarded Germany the Olympic Games in 1936. The German sports organizations saw the Games as an opportunity to restore their reputation after the First World War. At the time when the IOC made its decision, Germany was being governed under democratic leadership, the Weimar Republic, but at the time of the Games, Germany was under the National Socialists Party headed by Adolf Hitler[2].

After Hitler came to power on January 30th 1933, it became doubtful whether Germany could continue organizing the 1936 Olympic Games because of Hitler's anti-Semitic[3] views. Anti-Semitic policies were introduced shortly after Hitler became Chancellor, thus setting in motion the deteriorating conditions of the Jews. On September 15th 1935 the Nuremberg Laws were introduced by the Nazis which deprived Jews of their German citizenship and civil rights, making Hitler's policies regarding Jews clear to the entire world. At the time when Germany was to host the Olympic Games most of the Jews

had been excluded either by law or terror from public and private employment[4].

At first it was uncertain whether Hitler wanted to host the 1936 Olympic Games. Before his accession to power Hitler had denounced the Olympics as: *"An invention of Jews and Freemasons and a play inspired by Judaism which cannot possibly be put on in a Reich ruled by National Socialists"*[5]. Dr. Goebbels, who had been appointed Minister of Propaganda, convinced Hitler that the Games were a splendid opportunity to demonstrate German vitality and organizational expertise[6]. Having seized the political value of the Games Hitler issued a direct order that the: *"...Olympic Games had to take place in Berlin by all means"*[7]. Hitler expressed that the Games would contribute substantially to the National Socialist movement by allowing other nations to understand further the German culture, and by promoting the development of sport among German youth - the latter being, in his opinion, of vast importance to the welfare of the nation[8].

A short while after Hitler gained power major changes took place within the area of sport in Germany. The Nazis started to take over sport facilities and on June 2nd 1933 the Third Reich minister of Education decreed that Jewish citizens should be excluded from all youth and health organizations. Thereafter, many towns and communities started to exclude the Jews from sport clubs, organizations and public sport facilities. In essence competition between Jews and Aryans[9] was forbidden[10].

While this was the social context of this period in history, it is important to my discussion to focus our attention to Brundage and his role in this situation.

Avery Brundage

Avery Brundage was born in Detroit in 1887 and reared in Chicago. At an early age he developed an interest in track and field and became a versatile performer able to compete in all events. After graduation from the University of Illinois, Brundage continued his interest in athletics and became a member of the 1912 Olympic team. In 1915 Brundage established his own construction company and quickly became a millionaire. As president of the Amateur Athletic Union (1928-33, 1935) and the American Olympic Committee (1930-1936), Brundage was directly involved in the debate of whether

or not to send an American team to the 1936 Olympic Games in Berlin because of the German treatment of the Jewish athletes[11].

The Debate to Participate or Not

In June 1933 the IOC held a meeting in Vienna to discuss the violation of the Olympic regulations by the Nazi regime. Since the Nazis had come to power, newspapers had reported that Jewish athletes in Germany were being denied membership in sport clubs and were being prevented from training, competition, and use of practice fields. The IOC was concerned about the reported racial discrimination carried out against the Jewish athletes and they requested a guarantee from the German delegates that the persecution of Jewish athletes would cease. The German delegation gave both a verbal and a written guarantee, known as the "Vienna Pledge", stating that they would comply with IOC regulations regarding discrimination[12].

The two sports associations responsible for sending an American team to the Olympics - the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) and the American Olympic Committee (AOC) - were still suspicious about the German guarantees regarding discrimination against the Jewish athletes, and as a consequence created the "Kirby Resolution" which called for a boycott of the 1936 Games[13]. After the announcement of the American resolution, the Nazi leaders became nervous and established a strategy to secure American participation. The Nazi strategy was to maintain that discrimination did not exist and that Jewish athletes were free to compete in the Olympic Games. The German leaders started to influence the American media with statements to change the American understanding of the conditions for Jews in Germany[14].

The American Olympic Committee decided to send their President Avery Brundage to visit Germany to study the situation first hand. The result of his evaluation would play an important role in the AOC decision on whether to attend the Games or not. While Brundage was in Germany he talked with political leaders, Americans living in Germany and with a number of Jews about the conditions for the Jewish athletes in Germany. He gathered what he felt constituted conclusive proof that Germany would honor her pledge not to discriminate against German-Jewish athletes. Before Brundage left for Germany he expressed the opinion that he expected to find

the German conditions in the right order and he would follow the IOC's attitude towards participation at the Olympic Games in Germany. In a statement published on the eve of his departure to Europe he exhorted the American youth to prepare for the coming Games and left little doubt that the German house of sport was in order[15]. Upon his return from his fact-finding tour, Brundage gave his report on September 27, 1934 to the AOC regarding the conditions for the Jewish athletes in Germany. Brundage had found that conditions for the Jewish athletes in Germany were fine and that there was no reason to boycott the Games. In the light of this report, the AOC accepted the German invitation to compete in the 1936 Games[16].

Concerned with the racial laws and the debate in the United States over participation in the Games, the American ambassador in Berlin, William Dodd, decided to carry out his own investigations. He interviewed some of the Jewish sportspeople and a picture emerged which differed sharply from Brundage's. Dodd's report from October 1935 described open discrimination against the Jewish athletes in Germany and suggested that the United States should not participate in the Games[17].

Meanwhile, the AAU maintained their position made a year earlier not to compete at the Games. Consequently a dispute started between the president of the AAU, Judge Jeremiah T. Mahoney, and the president of the AOC, Brundage. Brundage wanted to secure the American participation at the Olympic Games in Germany and Mahoney was opposed to this idea.

Because of Brundage's visit to Germany, the Nazis started to give the impression that they were looking for Olympic participants among Germany's Jewish athletes. For that reason, twenty-one Jewish candidates were nominated for the German Olympic team in June 1934 - none of them were later selected for the final team[18]. In spite of the nomination of Jewish athletes the American agitation continued to mount. Because of this, American IOC member Charles H. Sherrill, went to Germany to secure Jewish athletes on the German team. Just before the final vote by the AAU regarding the participation in the Olympics, Sherrill succeeded in securing two half-Jews on the German team, Hélène Mayer (fencing) and Rudi Ball (ice hockey)[19].

Avery Brundage became the spokesperson for the United States to send a team to the Olympic Games in Germany. He tried, therefore, to reduce the negative reports coming from Germany. When Brundage was sure that the AOC had accepted the Olympic invitation, his most important assignment was to influence the public debate and the AAU to support American participation in the Games. Brundage's goal was to convince the AAU to reject the proposal for a boycott of the Games at their meeting in December 1935 where the final decision regarding participation was to be made.

Brundage's argument was at this time based on one of his fundamental principles that politics and sports were not to be mixed. Brundage held the opinion that the Olympic Games were of much greater importance than a single country's politics and therefore a boycott was not of any importance. As long as the host country was participating according to the Olympic regulations, the Games must go on[20]. In 1935 Brundage published in a sixteen-page pamphlet named *Fair-Play for American Athletes*. In this, Brundage argued to keep politics and sports separate and questioned readers as to whether they wanted to create "martyrs" of the American Olympic athletes by having them boycott the Games. Brundage had the opinion that the American athletes should not be involved in the German struggle between the Jews and the Nazis. According to Brundage, the main problems were the Nazi opponents" dissatisfaction of the Olympic regulations, their wish for a boycott to subvert the Nazis, and the use of the Olympics as a political weapon[21]. The decisive point in Brundage's argument was Germany's respect of the Olympic regulations. He argued that if they did not respect those regulations he would agree with the boycott[22]. For this reason, Brundage tried to moderate all indications that the Germans were not respecting these regulations.

Several examples show that in spite of what was happening in Germany Brundage wanted the Olympics to take place there. With the introduction of the Nuremberg Decrees in 1935 the whole world was able to see how German Jews were treated with serious racism and were not allowed the same opportunities as other Germans. These laws meant changes for the Jews in German society and even Brundage must have had difficulty understanding how these laws were not to affect the Jewish athletes. In fact shortly after the im-

plementation of the Nuremberg Laws, Jews were "visibly" assaulted in the streets of Berlin[23].

Critics of American participation in the Olympic Games used these events in the media to show the American population at large the anti-Semitism that was present in Germany and which the German government tried to cover up. The boycott party therefore, based its statements on the premise that discrimination was prevalent and on the belief that the Germans would not live up to the "Vienna Pledge". The boycott party held the position that this discrimination was a breach of the Olympic regulations about fair-play and sportsmanship. As long as the Jewish athletes were excluded from the German sports clubs they did not have the possibility to practice and compete which made it impossible to achieve their best performances. The boycott movement did not believe that these conditions coincided with the IOC's idea of fair-play and sportsmanship. Another argument was based on Hitler's wish to exploit the Olympic Games in Germany for Nazi propaganda. Hitler wanted to show the world that not only was Germany a powerful nation again but it was also the happiest and richest country in the world. Despite the jealousy of German rivals, Hitler wanted to indicate that the Aryan race, particularly the Germans, was physically superior[24].

Brundage was heavily criticized because of his opinions concerning the 1936 Olympic Games and, therefore, he attacked those who were opposed to him. He strongly believed that it was impossible to trust the American newspapers when they described the situation in Germany. According to Brundage most newspapers were being managed and controlled by Jews, and thus were biased[25]. In 1935 Brundage wrote a letter to Sigfrid Edström, president of the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF), in which he accused Jews of having started the boycott to influence the people of German descent in the United States to reject participation in the Games. According to Brundage, Jews with communist and socialist inclinations had been particularly active in the boycott party and Brundage saw himself as their personal adversary[26]. As early as 1933 Brundage described how Jews and communists were behind the boycott party in the United States[27]. Brundage characterized his opponents in various ways to fit his argument for participating, for instance, sometimes Brundage's opponents consisted of 20 million Catholics and

more than 4 million Jews whether at other times he stated that only a few caused trouble[28]. His strategy was clearly the manipulation of fact and rhetoric. Besides these attacks on the boycott party as whole, Brundage also made a personal attack on the most prominent member of the party, Jeremiah T. Mahoney. According to Brundage, Mahoney's opinion was completely political because Mahoney wanted to become the mayor of New York City. According to Brundage there was a large population of Jews in New York and Mahoney's position was motivated by his attempt to win votes from this Jewish group[29]. At the American Athletic Union's (AAU) convention in December 1935 the final decision was to be made regarding participation in the Games. The session turned out to be the most controversial in the organization's history. Brundage informed the convention that regardless of how they voted, an American Olympic Team would be sent to Germany. By a slim majority the Union's members voted in favor of sending an American team to Germany. The AAU specified that this was not to be "construed to imply endorsement of the Nazi government"[30].

Conclusion

Looking back at this unique situation it is clear that all the indications coming from Germany regarding the violation of Olympic regulations could not possibly be fabricated and that Brundage should have listened more carefully to the arguments of his opponents. Testimonies from both Jewish and American officials in Germany clearly showed that discrimination against the Jewish athletes was taking place. Even Brundage indicated in a letter to Edström that he doubted whether the German state would respect the regulations being made with the IOC[31]. But, ultimately, Brundage's arguments were based upon the belief that as long as Germany respected the Olympic regulations there was no reason to boycott the Olympic Games. For that reason Brundage should have changed his opinion and endorsed a boycott as the regulations were not being respected. He considered it of significant importance to observe the Olympic regulations and the Nazis were not doing this. It could be argued that since there were still diplomatic relations between Germany and the rest of the world there was no reason, for the leaders

of the sport organizing bodies to *take* the political decision to boycott the Games[32].

There is evidence to support the idea that Brundage was motivated by personal causes to support the American participation at the Games. In 1933 Brundage knew that he was in line for election to the IOC and to deliver an American team to Germany undoubtedly sharpened his possibilities. In spite of all the signals of Germany having no intention to live up to the Olympic regulations, Brundage continued to be a strong spokesperson for American athletic participation and a marked critic of the boycott party[33].

Notes

1. By American I mean United States of America.
2. Hart-Davis, Duff: *Hitlers Games* pages 43-44. Century, 1986.
3. An anti-Semite is a person who is against Semitec people *such* as Jews and Arabs.
4. Shirer, William L.: *The rise and fall of the third Reich; A History of Nazi Germany* page 323. Fawcett Crest, New York, 1950.
5. Hart-Davis, Duff: *Hitlers Games* pages 45-46. Century, 1986.
6. Guttmann, Allen: *The Olympics* page 55. University of Illinois Press, 1992.
7. Bernett, Hajo: *The role of the Jewish sportsmen during the Olympic Games in 2936* pages 91-92. Physical education and sports in the Jewish history and culture; proceedings of an international seminar at Wingate Institute, July 1973, pages 88-113.
8. Holmes, Judith: *Olympiad 1936 - blaze of glory for Hitler's Reich* page 19. Ballan tine Books Inc., New York, 1971
9. An Aryan is a person whose descendents are of Indo-European origin.
10. Bernett, Hajo: *The role of the Jewish sportsmen during the Olympic Games in 1936* page 89. Physical education and sports in the Jewish history and culture; pro ceedings of an international seminar at Wingate Institute, July 1973, pages 88-113.
11. Gibson, Richard L.: *Avery Brundage: Professional Amateur* pages 13-14, 45-52. Thesis at University of Oregon, Eugene, 1978.
12. Kruger, Arnd: *The 1936 Olympic Games - Berlin* page 174. In Graham, Peter J.: The Modem Olympics. Leisure Press, 1976, pages 172-186.
13. Mandell, Richard D.: *The Nazi Olympics* pages 71. London, 1972
14. Bemett, Hajo: *The role of the Jewish sportsmen during the Olympic Games in 1936* pages 89-91. Physical education and sports in the Jewish history and culture; proceedings of an international seminar at Wingate Institute, July 1973, pages 88-113.
15. Marvin, C.: *Avery Brundage and American participation in the 1936 Olympic Games* pages 86-87. Journal of American studies, April 1982 pages 81-105.
16. Guttmann, Allen: *The games must go on. Avery Brundage and the Olympic move ment* pages 68-70. New York, Columbia University Press, 1984.
17. Bemett, Hajo: *The role of the Jewish sportsmen during the Olympic Games in 1936* page 100. Physical education and sports in the Jewish history and culture; pro-

ceedings of an international seminar at Wingate Institute, July 1973, pages 88-113.

18. Gottlieb, Moshe: *The American Controversy over the Olympic Games* page 191. American Jewish historical quarterly, vol. 61, 1971-72.
19. Wenn, S.R.: *A tale of two diplomats George* S. *Messersmith and Charles H. Sherrill on proposed American participation in the 1936 Olympics* page 39. Journal of sports history (Seattle) 16(1), Spring 1989, p. 27-43
20. Mandell, Richard D.: *The Nazi Olympics* pages 69-77. London, 1972
21. Guttmann, Allen: *The Olympics page* 59. University of Illinois Press, 1992
22. Avery Brundage to Dr. Theodore Lewald, May 1st and May 18th 1933, Avery Brundage Collection
23. Marvin, C.: *Avery Brundage and American participation in the 1936 Olympic Games* page 93. Journal of American studies, April 1982 pages 81-105.
24. Holmes, Judith: *Olympiad 1936 - blaze of glory for Hitler's Reich* page 7. Ballantine Books Inc., New York, 1971
25. Marvin, C.: *Avery Brundage and American participation in the 1936 Olympic Games* page 91. Journal of American studies, April 1982 pages 81-105.
26. Avery Brundage to Siegfried Edström, August 29th 1935, Avery Brundage Collection (ABC).
27. Avery Brundage to Dr. Theodore Lewald, May 1st 1933, ABC
28. Marvin, C.: *Avery Brundage and American participation in the 1936 Olympic Games* page 91. Journal of American studies, April 1982 pages 81-105.
29. Guttmann, Allen: *The Olympics* page 60. University of Illinois Press, 1992
30. Mandell, Richard D.: *The Nazi Olympics* page 79. London, 1972
31. Avery Brundage to Sigfried Edström, December 28th 1933, ABC
32. Kruger, Arnd: *The 1936 Olympic Games ~ Berlin* page 175. In Graham, Peter J.: The Modern Olympics. Leisure Press, 1976, pages 172-186.
33. Marvin, C.: *Avery Brundage and American participation in the 1936 Olympic Games* page 86. Journal of American stud.

Bibliography

Books

1. Gibson, Richard L.: *Avery Brundage: Professional Amateur.* Thesis at University of Oregon, Eugene, 1978.
2. Guttmann, Allen: *The games must go on. Avery Brundage and the Olympic Move ment.* New York, Columbia University Press, 1984.
3. Guttmann, Allen: *The Olympics.* University of Illinois Press, 1992
4. Hart-Davis, Duff: *Hitlers Games.* Century, 1986
5. Holmes, Judith: *Olympiad 1936 - blaze of glory for Hitler's Reich.* Ballantine Books Inc., New York, 1971
6. Mandell, Richard D.: *The Nazi Olympics.* London, 1972
7. Rürup, Reinhard: *1936 - The Olympic Games and National Socialism.* Argon Verlag Berlin, 1996.
8. Shirer, William L.: *The rise and fall of the third Reich; A History of Nazi Germany.* Fawcett Crest, New York, 1950.

Articles

9. Barney, R.K.: *Aven) Brundage.* Historical dictionary of the modem Olympic Movement, 1996, pages 366-379.
10. Bernett, Hajo: *The role of the Jewish sportsmen during the Olympic Games in 1936.* Physical education and sports in the Jewish history and culture; proceedings of an international seminar at Wingate Institute, July 1973, pages 88-113.
11. Brichford, M.J: *Avery Brundage - the man and the collection.* Olympic Scientific Congress, July 19-26, 1984, p. 245-251.
12. Creamer, Robert: *The embattled world of Avery Brundage.* Sports illustrated, vol. 4, 30 Jan. 1956.
13. Eisen, George: *The Voices of Sanity: American Diplomatic Reports from the 1936 Berlin Olympiad.* Journal of Sport History, 11, no. 3, winter 1984.
14. Gottlieb, Moshe: *The American Controversy Over the Olympic Games.* American Jewish historical quarterly, vol. 61, 1971-72.
15. Johnson, William: *Avery Brundage: The man behind the mask.* Sports Illustrated, 1980, vol. 53, p. 48-52; 55-58; 60; 63.
16. Johnson, William: *Defender of the faith.* Sport Illustrated, 1972 July 24, p. 32-43.
17. Kass, David A.: *The issue of Racism at the 1936 Olympics.* Journal of sports history, 1976, pages 223-235.
18. Kidd, Bruce: *The popular front and the 1936 Olympics.* Canadian journal of history and physical education, 1980, vol. 11 nr. 1, p. 1-18.
19. Kruger, Arnd: *Fair-play for American athletes - a study in anti-Semitism.* Canadian journal of history and physical education, 1978, vol. 9, p. 43-57.
20. Kruger, Arnd: *Sieg Heil to the Most Glorious Era of German Sport: Continuity and Change in the Modem German Sports Movement.* International Journal of the His tory of Sport 4, no. 1, 1987, p. 5-20.
21. Kruger, Arnd: *The 1936 Olympic Games - Berlin.* In: Graham, Peter J.: The Modern Olympics. Leisure Press 1976, p. 172-186.
22. Lucas, John A.: *A string of pearls: Avery Brundage discourses 1929-1972.* History, the evolution and diffusion of sports and games, 1975, p. 288-299
23. Marvin, C.: *Avery Brundage and American participation in the 1936 Olympic Games.* Journal of American studies, April 1982 p. 81-105.
24. Mayer, Paul Yogi: *Equality - Egality - Jews and Sport in Germany.* Leo Baeck Institute Year Book 25, The Chaucer Press, 1980, p. 221-241.
25. Ubberhorst, Horst: *The Importance of the Historians' Quarrel and the Problem of Continuity for the German History of Sport.* Journal of Sport History 17, no. 2, summer 1990, p. 232-244.
26. Wenn, S.R.: *A tale of two diplomats George S. Messersmith and Charles H. Sherrill on proposed American participation in the 1936 Olympics.* Journal of sports history (Seattle) 16(1), spring 1989, p. 27-43.
27. Wiggins, David: *The 1936 Olympic Games in Berlin: The response of American Black Press.* Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, vol. 54,no. 3, pp. 278-292.

THE BEGINNING OF OLYMPIC MOVEMENT IN ESTONIA

by Kalle Voolaid *(EST)*

Earlier years

Contemporary sport reached the area now known as Estonia in the 19th century. The role of Tartu University, reopened in 1802, was of great importance there.

In the university, in one of the strongest scientific centres in that time in Russia, much attention was paid to physical education. Already in Tartu University rules, confirmed in 1803, it was mentioned that in order to avoid the neglect of the physical culture besides the spiritual education, the university offered among its public institutions a fencing hall, dance floor, riding track and a swimming establishment with the medical supervision, rescue service and possibility to learn to swim. Teachers of riding, fencing and swimming already worked there at the beginning of century.[1]

Little by little new fields of sports were added. In the initiative of Tartu University lecturer **Karl Eduard Raupach,** gymnastics began to spread in Estonia starting in 1819. During his studies in Berlin from 1814 to 1817 Raupach had taken part in the gymnastic lessons of the "father of gymnastics" **Friedrich Ludwig Jahn** and he wanted to propagate the new field in Tartu. One of his greatest assistants became **Friedrich Georg Wilhelm Struve,** the world-famous astronomer who worked in Tartu at that time.

Culturally, the area of Estonia definitely belonged to the German sphere of influence in the 19th century and this was clear in sports too. Among the German people living in Estonia - the Baltic Germans - the signs of becoming organised began to appear among the active lovers of sports in the middle of the century. The first official sports societies were the Baltic-German gymnastic societies founded in Tallinn and Tartu in the 1860s.

Estonians themselves began to organise in the field of sports in the last decades of the 19th century. The first (unofficial) Estonian

sports society was Tallinn Heavy Athletics Circle founded by an enthusiast of heavy athletics **Gustav Boesberg** in 1888[2]. The first generation of the great Estonian athletes grew out of the weight-lifters-wrestlers who trained there. The best-known of them were **Georg Hackenschmidt,** the first European Champion in the Greco-Roman wrestling in Vienna in 1898, and **Georg Lurich,** the national pride of the Estonians, many-sided professional athlete and the popular hero of the folk-tales. He played great role in the popularization of sports among Estonians[3].

First information about the Olympic Games in the Estonian written word

The first information about the ancient Olympic games in the Estonian language was published in 1876 when the educator **Carl Robert Jakobson** published a chapter "Olimpia mängu-pühad" ("The Olympic Holidays") in the third part of his school books series "Kooli Lugemise Raamat" ("School Reading Book")[4].

Though the knowledge of the Olympic Games and their deeper essence was not rooted among the Estonians at the end of the century, information about it spread. Schoolteacher **H. Stein** described the ancient Olympic Games in the newspaper "Sakala" in 1895. There he also said that the spiritual advantage of such events was considerably greater than the financial expense[5]. The later foundation member of the Estonian Olympic Committee (EOC), **Oskar Kallas,** visited Greece during one of his long world journeys in 1895 and his travelogues were published both in one of the largely edited newspaper "Postimees" (the "Postman") as a sequel[6] and as a book as well[7]. Kallas also visited ancient Olympia and the Athens marble stadium[8].

Also news about the Olympic Games in Athens in 1896 was published in several Estonian newspapers[9,10].

First Estonians at the Olympic Games

Independent of the awakening sports life at home one athlete of Estonian origin was present at the Athens Games. His name was **Herman Lerchenbaum** and he was a member of the US navy boat's crew. Unfortunately, we cannot consider him as a real Olympic ath-

lete as the rowing competitions did not take place because of the stormy sea.

The arrival of the 20th century brought with it the fast organisation of Estonian sports life. New sports societies were founded, new fields of sports developed and the Estonians became more acquainted with world events. Interest in the establishment of international sports contacts deepened.

The first time Estonian athletes participated in the Olympic Games was in Stockholm Olympic Games in 1912 as part of the Russian team. Afterwards it is very difficult to find out which Baltic athletes in Stockholm were Estonians. According to the nowadays data, 14 athletes of the Estonian origin participated in Stockholm (but this number may not be final). Of course, most of them in Stockholm were not on the same level as the world's best. Despite that, the first Olympic medal of the Estonians was won there. **Martin Klein** won the silver medal in the Greco-Roman wrestling, competing against Finn Asikainen in the longest competition in the wrestling history[11].

The Stockholm Olympic Games were of revolutionary importance in the breakthrough of Olympic ideas among the Estonians. They were the first games that were widely reported in the Estonian press[12]. For the first time several Estonian papers had sent their correspondents to the games. An important fact is that one of the first known sports photos in the Estonian press was from the Stockholm Olympics. Photo about the opening ceremony of the games was published in the newspaper "Postimees"[13].

Already above-mentioned Oskar Kallas was a correspondent of the "Postimees" Stockholm. The ideas reflected in his Olympic reports can be considered as being the first expression of Olympism in the Estonian written word[14].

Estonia's joining with the international Olympic Movement

For several reasons the archives of the sports central organizations of the 1st Estonian Republic have preserved poorly. Especially serious is the problem in the case of the EOC. Material of five files from the period 1931-1940 only can be found in the Estonian National Archives[15]. Therefore it has been difficult to fix correctly the

events and processes that lead to the Estonia's uniting with the international Olympic Movement. For the same reasons, during writing the present paper the author has rested on that time journalism, memoirs and other such sources that included the information.

After World War I the world had drastically changed. For instance several monarchies had disappeared and several new states had been formed. Among others Estonia got independence in 1918. The sports life of the young republic developed rapidly. Organisational development soon led to the need to found a central sports organisation. Then, ideas about participation in the Antwerp Olympic Games in 1920 emerged[16].

The 1st Estonian Sports Congress took place in Tallinn on November 30, 1919. It was of revolutionary importance. 60 representatives from 20 Estonian sports societies assembled to the congress and a number of decisions that were essential to the Estonian sports movement were accepted. For instance, some of the decisions included the foundation of a central sports organisation, the Estonian Sports League (ESL), the Estonian Olympic Committee as well as the decision to participate in the Antwerp Olympic Games[17].

The first secretary of the EOC was Harry Kullerkupp who had received education in physical culture in St. Petersburg and promoted the so-called *sokol* system of gymnastics[16], later he was an active yachtsman and athletics referee[18].

Discussions about Estonian participation in the Olympics took place. Correspondence with the Antwerp Olympics organising committee was started to find out if it was possible for Estonia to participate in the Olympic Games. Thanks to the Estonian London embassy's activity, the Belgian Olympic Committee discussed the participation application and, since they had no right to make the final decision, the application was sent to the IOC. At the end the historical decision came - the President of the IOC, **Pierre de Coubertin,** personally confirmed that Estonia was allowed to participate in the Antwerp Games![19]

This was a great success for Estonia although it was in conflict with the official policy of the IOC. It was probably based on fruitful lobbying by the Estonian officials. There was a decision that allowed in the Olympic Games only the countries that had their own representatives in the IOC. Coubertin justified it with the need to keep

the "central states" - that had lost the war - away from the Games in Belgium[20] (We should pay attention to the fact that Antwerp had been greatly destroyed by the German army).

In the end, Germany, Austria, Hungary and Turkey were left out of the Antwerp Games. Latvia (a new state as Estonia) could not participate either. Attention has been drawn to the sporadic unstable behaviour of the Olympic leaders before the Antwerp Olympic Games[21] but the background of the decision which has been so important to Estonia has remained obscure until now.

The Estonian Olympic début was successful. 3 medals were won, one of them gold. Weight-lifter **Alfred Neuland** became the first Estonian Olympic Champion.

Successful participation at the Olympic Games raised the public interest in sport and led to the development of an intensive sports life all over Estonia. The ESL got 26 new members in 1920-1922. Material support to sport increased as well[22].

Actual foundation of the Estonian Olympic Committee

A period of silence in the activities of the EOC began after the Antwerp Olympic Games. Only in 1923, with the approach of the Olympic Games in Paris in 1924, the need for an active, with full rights and officially registered Olympic Committee arose.

Meanwhile, the Estonian Sports League had finished its activity as a central sports organisation and a new one, the Estonian Central Sports League (ECSL), had been founded[23]. The leaders of the ECSL participated actively in the founding of the EOC.

The Peace Council adopted the statutes of the EOC on December 8, 1923. The statutes were finally registered on December 15, 1923[24]. As a result of these official dates, the Estonian Olympic Committee considers the year 1923 to be its birth date.

Summary

Neither sports in the broader sense nor Olympic sports in the narrower sense had been mainly regarded by the state and given financial support in Estonia during the period from 1896 to 1936. Though the Fund for Furthering Culture (together with the Physical Culture Foundation) was founded in 1925, the support to sport was

unstable, especially in comparison with the neighbouring states of Finland, Latvia and Lithuania[25].

Despite this, the sports system that could be taken seriously was formed in Estonia at the end of the first period of independence (1918-1940). The Estonian Central Sports League, the Estonian Olympic Committee and the Board of the Physical Culture Foundation were formed and became vital. The main merit of the sports system was the guaranteeing of the economic possibilities that allowed numerous Estonian athletes to participate in the Olympic Games. And Estonian athletes were successful at Olympics - in the period from 1920 to 1936 they won 6 gold, 7 silver and 9 bronze medals.

The Estonian Olympic Committee managed to become an authoritative organisation. Two Estonian sports leaders were elected as members of the International Olympic Committee. **Karl Friedrich Akel** was the member of the IOC from 1928 to 1932 and **Joakim Puhk** from 1936 up to his death in 1942. The rising authority and active work of the EOC helped greatly in breaking through the negative attitude to sport widely spread in Estonia. The change in attitude was especially felt after the Estonians' success at the Berlin Games[26].

Unfortunately, the Olympic life of the Estonians ended because of the political conflicts that started the World War II. The new beginning arrived only in 1991 when the IOC recognised the again independent Estonian Olympic Committee and thus opened the door to participation in the Olympic Games.

Bibliography

1. Lenk, Valter "Üliõpilassport Eestis" ("Student Sport in Estonia"). Tartu, 1998. Tartu University. Pp. 16 - 28. 2.Hallismaa, Haljand "Eesti raskejõustiku isa Gustav Boesberg" ("Gustav Boesberg - father of the Estonian heavy athletics"), Tallinn, 1998. Olion. P. 5.
3. Voolaid, Kalle "Lunch and Nurmi. Life as a Fairy-tale?" Acta Academiae Olympiquae Estoniae vol. *7,* Tartu, 1999. National Olympic Academy of Estonia. Pp. 55-64.
4. Jakobson, Carl Robert "Olimpia mängu-pühad" ("Olimpic Holidays"), Tallinn, 1980. ENSV Raamatuühing. Pp. 7-15.
5. The "Sakala" (newspaper), November 29, 1895.
6. Kallas, Oskar "Ühte ja teist Palästina teekonnalt" ("Some facts from the journey to Palestine", the newspaper "Postimees' - the "Postman"), 1896, No 74 - 150.
7. Kallas, Oskar "Pühal maal" ("In the Holy Land"), Jurjew, 1898. P. 73.
8. The "Postimees" (the "Postman" - newspaper), 1912, No 146, p. 3.
9. The "Postimees" (the "Postman" - newspaper), 1896, No 71 - 82.

10. The "Ristirahva pühapäeva leht" (the "Sunday paper of the Christians"), May 05, 1896.
11. Greenberg, Stan "The Guinness Book of Olympic Facts and Feats", Enfield, 1996. Guinness Publishing. P. 202.
12. Eslon, Urmas "Spordiprobleemid sajandivahetuse ajakirjanduses" ("Sports prob lems in the press in the turn of the century"). Graduation work at Tartu University. Pp. 48 - 57. (Manuscript at Tartu University).
13. The "Postimees" (the"Postman" - newspaper), 1912, No 152. P.2.
14. Voolaid, Kalle "Estonian Olympic father Oskar Kallas" Avatud muuseum/Open Museum. Ettekannete teesid/Abstracts, Tartu 1999. Pp. 32 -34.
15. Luide, Sirje; Uuet, Liivi (compilers) "Eesti Riigiarhiivi fondide teatmik. I osa 1917 - 1944" ("Manual of the Estonian National Archives' collections. Part I 1917-1944"), Estonian National Archives, 1993. P. 384.
16. Toomsalu, Ruudi "Üks kevade ja üks suvi" ("One spring and one summer"), Huma, Tallinn, 1993. Pp. 26-27.
17. The "Vaba Maa" (the "Free Land" - newspaper), December 02, 1919, No 265.
18. Lovi, Oskar; Peterson, limar; Raudsepp, Vladimir; Soonberg, Leo "Spordibiograafil ine Leksikon" ("Lexicon of Sport Biographies"). Tallinna Kirjastuse Kooperatiiv, Tallinn 1937. Pp. 13-164.
19. The "Eesti Spordileht" (the "Estonian Sports Paper"-newspaper), May 22, 1920, No 2.
20. Coubertin, Pierre de "Olympic Memoirs", International Olympic Committee, Lausanne, 1997. P. 178.
21. Lermartz, Karl "The Exclusion of the Central Empires from the Olympic Games in 1920" Global and Cultural Critique: Problematizing the Olympic Games. Fourth International Symposium for Olympic Research, The University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario, Canada, 1998. Pp. 69-74.
22. Metsaots, Kadri "Eesti Spordi Keskliit 1922-1940" ("The Estonian Central Sports League 1922-1940"), Tartu, 1996 (graduation work at Tartu University). Pp. 17-38. (Manuscript in the Estonian Sports Museum).
23. Estonian National Archives, collection 1322, list 1, file 4, 1. 1.
24. "Eesti kehakultuuri aastaraamat XII" ("Annual of the Estonian Physical Culture XII"), Tallinn, 1938, p. 15.
25. Nurmberg, Reet "Sport and Physical Education in Estonia" ¡dissertation by the University of California, Berkeley), Berkeley, 1972. Pp. 99-100. (Manuscript in the Estonian Sports Museum)
26. Anvelt, Virge; Lääne, Tiit; Sommer, Sven; Voolaid, Kalle "Eesti Olümpiakomitee 75" ("Estonian Olympic Committee 75"), Estonian Olympic Committee, Tallinn, 1998. Pp. 40-45.

THE HISTORICAL STUDY OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT IN JAPAN

by Minora MATSUNAMI *(JPN)*

Introduction

The topics in this paper are limited to the Modern Olympics and I am going to consider Olympism in Japan from three perspectives - the past, present and the future. The following topics are the subjects in this paper.

1. Jigoro KANO and Participation in the Modern Olympic Games for Japan
2. "The One School per Country Movement" at the Winter Olympic Games in Nagano
3. The Future Olympic Games and the Olympic Movement (My per sonal opinions).

1. Jigoro KANO and Participation in the Modern Olympic Games for Japan

1.1 Jigoro KANO

Jigoro KANO was the person who worked to found the NOC in Japan to join the Modern Olympic Games.

Jigoro KANO was born in 1860. He started to learn "Jujutsu" (the old style of Judo) in the school of "Ten shin-Youshin" when he was 18 years old. Then he learned in the school of "Kito". He founded "Koudoukan-Judo" which adopted good points from various schools of "Jujutsu" in 1882. He also worked as a teacher in a secondary school. From 1893 he was appointed a principal of "Tokyo Koutou Shihan Gakkou" (Tokyo Normal school) which was the only school to train teachers for secondary education in Japan. He adopted sports (games) for physical education and a class of gymnastics and encouraged long distance running, walking and swimming for all students in school (Here, I am going to use the word "sports" which means mainly games, whose origin is recognized in Europe). In other

words, he promoted physical education in school. Thus, he was recognized as an expert on developing physical education and sports in Japan.

Jigoro KANO became a member of the International Olympic Committee in 1909. Mr. Gerard, the French ambassador to Japan, received a message from Baron Pierre de Coubertin to recommend somebody from Japan to become a member of the IOC. He was recommended to the IOC membership at the 14th IOC Session and he became the first member of the IOC from an Asian country. Until 1938, when he died at Pacific Ocean, he worked as a member of the IOC.

Jigoro KANO intended to develop friendships with the youth from all over the world by participating in the Olympic Games and to develop the physical strength and dignity of Japanese people by promoting sports in Japan. The modernization in Japan started to import European systems like education, military, the parliamentary system, and so on. In order to modernize Japan imported the system of a Nation-State. Sports, such as football and tennis, were also introduced from Europe. However, the only ones to enjoy sports were students. The opportunity to play sports was limited in school. In school, gymnastics (physical education) was a compulsory subject from elementary school. However, the class included only gymnastics and was not very interesting for students because it was monotonous. It was also used for military ends. Alternatively, sports meeting and matches between schools became very popular events.

With the experience of two wars, the Sino-Japanese War (of 1894-95) and the Russo-Japanese War (of 1904-05), the importance of exercise for physical strength as a soldier was noticed. When Jigoro KANO was recommended as a member of the IOC the importance of exercise and sports for physical education was recognized but there was almost no chance to do physical exercises and sports except in schools.

1.2 "The Japan Amateur Athletic Association"

Participating in the 5th Olympiad in Stockholm, KANO looked for the organization that might be able to help send athletes to the Olympic Games. However, not only the Ministry of Education but also other existing organizations did not respond to his request. So, cooperating with schools, "Dai-Nihon Taiiku Kyokai" (This means "Ja-

pan Physical Education Association". But the English translation was "The Japan Amateur Athletic Association") was founded in 1911. The purpose of this organization was not only to work as the NOC but also to encourage physical education for people in Japan. KANO was appointed the first president of "The Japan Amateur Athletic Association".

When "The Japan Amateur Athletic Association" was founded modern sports did not spread well. So, "The Japan Amateur Athletic Association" encouraged walking, jumping and swimming first. This was the same as KANO's idea. These exercises are easy to do anywhere. In schools, gymnastics was mainly taught to students. But students were not interested in it and did not continue to do gymnastics after graduation. Some students were interested in some sports such as baseball and tennis. However they were very difficult to play because the place to play was very limited and equipment was expensive.

The reason that walking was encouraged was easy: anyone can do it; it is cheap and it could be done all year round. But, walking without purpose is not so interesting. So, "The Japan Amateur Athletic Association" aimed to develop physical strength to encourage the custom of hiking to Jinja-shrine, temples or other sightseeing spots. Running races and jumping were also thought as a variation of walking.

It was argued that swimming was a very necessary sport for the Japanese because Japan is surrounded by sea and there are many rivers. Japan professed to have the maritime power and, thus, the Japanese should learn swimming. These were the same ideas that KANO practiced in the Tokyo Normal School.

1.3 "Seiryoku-Zenyou" and "Jita-Kyouei"

What was KANO's idea? Why did he encourage exercise (sports)? His ideas are expressed in two words "Seiryoku-Zenyou" and "Jita-Kyouei." These are the mental goals of "Koudoukan-Judo".

"Seiryoku-Zenyou" means that humans must use his or her mind and body effectively to achieve his or her goal. So, KANO encouraged the cultivation of both the mind and the body. Humans must make sure what their goal is to choose the most effective method to achieve the best result. For instance, in Judo, a small person who accurately learns techniques (Waza) can beat a big man. "Seiryoku" means the

energy influence to all human power. "Zen" means goodness. "Zenyou" means to use "Seiryoku" for goodness. KANO emphasized that this was the fundamental principle for the improvement, development and achievement of humans for the development of the body, knowledge and virtue of individuals. Also, this was the fundamental principle for organizing the nation. KANO thought that this word "Seiryoku-Zenyou" influences not only Judo but also all human life including education, science, economy, military affairs, and so on.

There are few things that can be done alone. In many cases people help each other and make compromises in order to achieve their goal. So, the relationship between person and person, organization and organization, nation and nation, should help each other and compromise to achieve the goal. "Jita-Kyouei" means everyone can prosper together. This is an idea of peaceful coexistence that is emphasized by mental cultivation. "Ji" means oneself. "Ta" means others. And "Kyouei" means to prosper together.

Because of the epoch that Japan was modernizing KANO had the idea of nationalism in these words. He imagined "Seiryoku-Zenyou" and "Jita-Kyouei" for Japan. "Seiryoku-Zenyou" is physical and mental education by sports. "Jita-Kyouei" is pacifism (world peace). These have some ideas in common with Olympism such as Coubertin thought.

KANO, as a founder of Judo, as a principal of Tokyo normal school and as a member of the IOC, encouraged physical education through sports. KANO's idea as "Seiryoku-Zenyou" and "Jita-Kyouei" corresponded with European systems.

By participating in the Olympic Games the Japanese could understand the position in the world from a sports perspective. There was also KANO's wish to make Japan a modern country.

2. "The One School per Country Movement" at the Winter Olympic Games in Nagano

2.1 "The one school per country movement"

Japan returned to the Olympic Games in the 6th Winter Olympic Games in Oslo 1952. The 18th Olympiad in Tokyo 1964 and the 11th Winter Olympic Games in Sapporo 1972 were held in Japan. Then, the Olympic Games came back to Japan in Nagano 1998.

The Nagano Olympics had three fundamental principles. They were the "Promotion of children's participation", "Coexistence with beautiful nature" and "the Olympic Games for peace and friendship". There were various movements in the Nagano Olympics. "The one school per country movement" was the most impressive one because of children's participation.

"The one school per country movement" is the movement that schools are assigned to cheer for participating countries - one school per country. The movement was modeled on the Asian Games in Hiroshima 1994 where there was the movement to cheer for participating countries by each community - one community per country. In Nagano there were 77 schools (including elementary schools, secondary schools and special schools for physically or mentally handicapped children). Each school was assigned one country that participated in the Olympics to cheer for and to develop cultural interchange. This movement started in June 1995. The Nagano-City board of education took the lead. The partner country was decided in the principal meeting. Each school had the responsibility for the method of cultural interchange.

"The one school per country movement" is the movement for internationalizing education and different cultural understandings. The first step of this movement was to look for a connection with partner countries and to study the culture of partner countries. For each school the situation was different. There were countries that were well known while there were also countries that were little known in Japan. Each school planned a different method to study and provided opportunities for cultural interchange.

Students studied the languages, lifestyles and culture of their partner countries by holding exhibitions in schools or creating Internet Homepages, and so on. As students studied about partner countries they wanted direct communication.

By studying about countries before participating in the Olympics this movement became the practice of internationalizing education and different cultural understandings. Schools invited people from their partner country or visited the embassy of their partner country with the cooperation of the PTA (Parents and Teachers Association) and community. This was an opportunity to have direct communication with partner countries.

There were events to promote children's participation like concerts, a party with officials from partner countries and other events such as making memorial relieves of partner countries in M-wave (the main rink for speed skating and ice hockey). These are also good occasions for the children. When the athletes came to the Olympic Village students (children) went there and met with the athletes.

"The one school per country movement" could provide the opportunity to promote international interchange in order to understand the different culture directly for students (children). Students (children) observed the difference of the culture, could study Olympism, and could experience the Olympic Games for world peace and friendship through sports. "The one school per country movement" allowed students (children) to understand the importance of informing their partner countries about Japanese culture and the importance of the ability to coexist with different cultures.

2.2 *"The one school per country movement" afterwards*

The end of the Olympics did not mean the end of "the one school per country movement". Schools continue this movement after the Olympics. The first movement started only in Nagano City but now this movement has spread to surrounding areas and all over Japan. The point is how this movement spread and continues to spread.

Before the Olympics students studied the language and culture of partner countries and took the opportunity to meet the people from their partner countries. During the Olympics students had the opportunity to meet athletes, staff and officials. After the Olympics students tried to communicate continually with the people and schools in their partner countries. "The one school per country movement" still continues.

"The one school per country movement" aimed to make international communication a daily occurrence. Notably, the main movement is to develop communications between students of similar generations in partner countries.

"The Hello Bear Movement" is one of the movements to develop communications between students of similar generations. "The Hello Bear Movement" provides the opportunity for students to exchange letters through the mediation of a teddy bear. Schools in Nagano send trunks with teddy bears and reply postcards to schools in their partner countries. The school receiving the trunk delivers it to an-

other school. Finally, the school in the partner country sends back the trunk to the school in Nagano. In this process this movement provides the opportunity to exchange letters. This movement looks like a teddy bear travelling around the partner country. In this way the movement continues to communicate with partner countries through the exchange of letters, through the Internet and through the exchange of pictures.

Students (children) who join this movement can understand Olympism as world peace, friendship and international understanding. The Nagano Olympics were full of the spirit of Olympism because children and students voluntarily participated in the Olympics and the movements.

The activities like "the one school per country movement" will succeed in Japan. I hope this movement will become more global to break down various boundaries and barriers in the world such as nationality or race. This will allow the spirit of Olympism to turn into reality.

3. The Future Olympic Games and the Olympic Movement (My personal opinions)

3.1 The Problem of the Modern Olympic Games

I am going to refer to my personal opinions in order to break down the various barriers for future Olympics. 1999 was an important year for the IOC. The reformation of the IOC started because the bribery suspicion of the 2002 Salt Lake City Olympics' invitation was detected. In the process of reformation the IOC started the Ethics Commission and the IOC 2000 Commission, and so on. These series of IOC reforms will play an important part in showing the self-cleansing power of the IOC.

I think the Olympic Games have now come to a critical point. The Olympic Games has become too large and it has many problems such as

1. Doping
2. Too much commercialism
3. Too much intervention by the mass media (It makes the Olympics as the TV shows)
4. Environmental problems, and so on.

And the Olympic Games itself has become over-competitive to get medals. We need to reconsider Olympism and to discuss what kind of Games the Olympics should aim to be at this time.

For instance, if the Olympic Games is the best games in the world to show the best performance to realize the motto of "citius, altius, fortius"("swifter, higher, stronger"), I think it is very difficult to remove doping. Doping is done in secret. It can be said that the Olympics itself gives rise to doping problems because the Olympic Games must show the best performance. The introduction of any new legislation or regulations will be too late for new doping technology. Now many people and the IOC say "No" to doping from the perspective of medical and sports ethics. This can be described in terms of doping from the inside of the body. In addition, the Olympic Games become an exhibition about new sports technology such as equipment and sport institutions to break a record. So, we need to consider doping from the outside of the body. I mean that the innovations of equipment and sport institutions operate as doping from the outside of the body. For example: the new swimsuit that decreases resistance in the water; the swimming pool without a wave; a running track made of new rubber that can run faster; spike shoes that only a few athletes and shoemakers know the design of the sole; the floors for gymnastics that enable gymnasts to jump higher; expensive high-tech training machine, and so on. The doping from inside and outside of the human body makes the Games uninteresting because the human bodies will not be the most important factor of the Games.

The Olympics is a country (nation) versus country (nation) games. It is the festival of nations (ethnic groups). This is one of the factors influencing the enthusiasm for the Olympics. In the Olympics people support and cheer their own country. However, we can say that the boundary of the country (nation) has become very vague now. The nationality cannot identify ethnic groups because the boundary of countries (nations) was created by modern European systems through the war. This problem about the boundary of nations is old. For example, a Korean marathon runner won the Gold medal as a Japanese in the 11th Olympiad in Berlin. More recently, during the World Cup Football in France, the French national team showed the nonsense of nationality and ethnicity. The same applies to the Olym-

pics. It may be desirable for the Olympics to be country (nation) versus country (nation) games as the festival of nations (ethnic groups). However, country (nation) versus country (nation) games give rise to over-competitive to get medals. Now as the outline of nation (country) is changing we must reconsider the system of country (nation) versus country (nation) games.

3.2 The possible future of the Olympics

The Olympics in the future will be changing in this information-oriented society. To adapt to such à society the Olympics need to have many ideas. For example

1. For the doping problems

How can we solve doping problem from inside and outside of the human body? The IOC strictly prohibits doping from the perspective of fair-play and sport ethics. From the same perspective we may prohibit the use of high technology sports gear (such as spike shoes for track and field). This is one approach to fair-play. New technology always costs a lot of money. Only a few athletes can use high technology sports gear because of the over-competition of technological innovations. If we cannot stop this unfairness the myth of fair-play in the Olympics may be endangered. The result is the same if we stop the Anti-Doping movement now.

2. Too much commercialism

The Olympic Games is merchandised now. Many things around the Olympics are always connected to much money. I am afraid the commercialism has become too much. If more money produces more gold medals the Olympics loses its spirit. A balance must be maintained. The Olympic Games must always look for a good balance between the Games and commercialism. Too much commercialism produces many problems in the Olympics.

3. The critical point of modern sports

The Modern Olympic Games was started by an idea of a man named Pierre de Coubertin. Still now, the Olympic Games is the biggest festival in the world. As time goes by the Olympic Games also change and the world is changing so the Olympics also need to change. But the Olympic Games have many problems now. The

reason for the problems can be said to be ***Euro-centerism.*** The problems in the Olympics are the same as in modern sports. The Olympic Games includes only modern sports whose origin is in Europe or America and some sports which are already modernized (Europeanized). I think we should be free from a modern system like the Nation-State in the future. The modern systems were produced by Euro-centerism through the wars. We would do better to pay attention to the sports called "traditional sports" or "ethnic sports" such as ritual dance and the sport connecting to religion, animism, festival, and so on. (For example, mob football in GBR, Yabusame in Japan, ball games by north and south Native Americans and traditional wrestling in Africa, the Middle East and Mongolia, and so on). If we do this we can rediscover the new worth of sports. These are key for the future success of the Olympic Games.

We must continue to consider the future Olympics and to change the Olympic Games because the problems, such as doping, too much commercialism and too much intervention by the mass media destroy the Olympic ideals. Now is the time for the ***"de-construction"*** of the Modern Olympics. Therefore, we have to reconsider the structure, systems, boundaries and barriers of the Olympics.

Conclusion

I referred above to the Modern Olympic in Japan. First, I refer to the idea of Jigoro KANO from the perspective of the past Modern Olympics in Japan. His idea was for the development of a nation and to train people. It can be said that the Olympic Movement was used for nationalism in Japan. There were some points in common between KANO's idea and Coubertin thought on Olympism. For example, they both aimed at physical education and mental education through sports and believed in world pacifism through sports.

Then, I referred to the participation of children and students, in the Nagano Olympics especially "the one school per country movement" from the perspective of the present. The movement reflected the spirit of Olympism as world peace, friendship and further international understanding. This movement can be said to be the trial to overcome the boundaries and barriers of the nationalities.

The future Olympics will have to change because the high information-oriented society in which *we* live will make the earth smaller

and eliminate the boundaries and barriers that modern systems (Euro-centrism) have produced. The Olympics must continue to change. We must have many new ideas for future success in the Olympic Games.

Bibliography

1. Japan Olympic Academy, *"JOA times"*, Vol.23, Japan Olympic Academy, Tokyo, 1999.
2. Japan Olympic Academy, *"Encyclopedia of Olympic"*, Japan Olympic Academy, Tokyo, 1981.
3. Japan Physical Education Association, *"The History of Japan Physical Education Association"*, Tokyo, 1986.
4. Koudoukan, *"The Series of KANO Jigoro Taikei"*, Koudoukan, Tokyo, 1988.
5. Jinpei Kato, *"KANO Jigoro"*, Shouyou-Shoin, Tokyo, 1970.
6. Junzou HASEGAWA, *"Idea and Education of KANO Jigoro"*, Meiji-Shoin, Tokyo, 1981.
7. NAOC, *"The Legacy of the NAGANO Olympic Games"*, Nagano, 1998.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE ORGANISATIONAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE ORGANISING COMMITTEES FOR THE OLYMPIC GAMES (OCOGs). THE CASE OF SYDNEY 2000-OCOG (SOCOG)

by Máximos MALFAS *(GRE)*

In recent years the Olympic Games have become an enormous sporting event. The emerged professionalisation of sports and particularly of sport events and the increasingly key role of the media and corporate sport sponsorship of sports, have been in evidence since the 1984 Olympic Games in Los Angeles (Nash and Johnstone, 1998). These Olympics were a substantial commercial success benefiting from a vast increase in television income and corporate sponsorship. A surplus of US $215m was produced by the organisers, which was greater than all the prior Games combined (Essex and Chalkley, 1998). Since then, financial investment in Olympic Games has increased dramatically. The last Olympics in Atlanta (1996), for example, generated US$ 2.5 Billion only through television coverage, sponsorships and tickets sales (Essex and Chalkley, 1998). The television rights alone for the Atlanta Games cost[1]US$'95 872 Million and for the Sydney Games (2000) the television rights holders are due to pay a total of US$'95 1,124 Million (Preuss, 2000).

In the light of this commercial success and the possibility of potential commercial success, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) encouraged a substantial increase of the size of the Olympic Games (MacDonald, 1998). Since the 1984 Olympics every Olympiad has been bigger than the previous one. The Olympic sports for the Summer Olympics have increased from 21 at the Los Angeles Olympics (1984) to 28 for the next Olympics in Sydney (2000). In Sydney it is anticipated that the Olympic village will accommodate 10,200 athletes representing 198 countries compared to the 6800 athletes representing 140 countries in the L.A Olympics (BOA, 2000).

In order to stage such a big event considerable investment in both sporting facilities and supporting infrastructure (for example,

accommodation, transportation, telecommunications and so on) is required. In effect, cities' motives wishing to stage the Olympics are derived from the stimulus to economic development and urban regeneration (Kitchen, 1996). In Barcelona Olympics (1992), for instance, public investment of US$'95 6.2 billion was used to redevelop the city and the province of Catalonia (Preuss, 2000). The benefits to be derived from staging the Olympic Games for the host cities can be enormous and various, ranging for the economic to the social and environmental. The Olympic Games, for example, can generate economic activity as a result of the employment created by the vast numbers of tourists visiting the city before, during and after the event (Lawson, 1996).

The significant benefits of hosting the Olympic Games, however, must be appraised in the light of an unenviable record of incidents including fatalities, financial mismanagement, unethical practices and so on. Specific examples include the near bankruptcy of the city of Montreal (1976 Olympic Games) as well as the logistic, transportation and security problems in the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games (Morphet, 1996). It seems that, staging the Olympic Games magnifies all a city's existing strengths as well as weaknesses. Atlanta's experience highlights the benefits as well as the costs of being under the international Olympic spotlight.

The contemporary status of the Olympic Games, therefore, requires effective as well as efficient organisation. The responsibility for this is entrusted by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) to the National Olympic Committee (NOC) of the country of the host city as well as to the host city itself. The NOC forms an Organising Committee of the Olympic Games (OCOG) which from the time it is constituted, communicates directly with the IOC (Olympic Charter-1999, rule 39, §1). The OCOGs co-operate with various entities for example, the IOC, International Federations, governments, the private sector and so on, in order to ensure the best possible facilities and environment for the athletes and visitors as well as the smooth transaction of the Games. Given the vast economic and human resources involved, the management of such an event is one of the most complex projects imaginable. In Atlanta's Games, for example, the Organising Committee, the ACOG, had relationships with more than 1,000 organisations (ACOG, 1996).

The aim of this paper is to identify and examine some of the issues raised above within the organisational environment of OCOGs with special reference to the Sydney 2000 Organising Committee (SOCOG). In order to achieve this, SOCOG will be treated as a sport organisation and organisation theory will be employed as the theoretical base. Mintzberg's (1979) "configuration approach" has been selected as the theoretical framework for examining SOCOG.

Mintzberg's Configuration Approach

Mintzberg's (1979) approach possesses a prominent place within organisation theory. He argues for a holistic examination of organisations in the sense that effective organisations achieve a coherence among their component parts, and that they do not change one element without considering the consequences to all of the others. More specifically, he argues that organisational design elements such as spans of control and structures in organisations should not be randomly selected but rather according to internally consistent groupings. Moreover, these groupings should be consistent with the situation of the organisation in terms of its age and size, the conditions of the industry in which it operates and its production technology (Mintzberg, 1981). In effect, organisations will fall into natural clusters, or what he calls *"configurations"*. Mintzberg (1979) identifies six *basic parts of the organisation,* five basic *co-ordinating mechanisms,* nine *parameters of design,* and four *situational factors.* The combination of these organisational elements will produce five different types of organisations, the *configurations.* A brief description of Mintzberg's (1979) approach is outlined below.

Basic Parts of the Organisation. An organisation begins with a person who has an idea. According to Mintzberg (1979) this person forms the top management, the *strategic apex.* This person hires people to do the basic work of the organisation, in what he calls the *operating core.* As the organisation grows communication is required between the top management and the operation core and this is achieved though the employment of intermediate managers; that is, the *middle line.* In addition to these basic parts, an organisation needs specialists who design systems for planning and control of the work (e.g. budget). These will form the *technostructure.* Additionally, *support staff is* needed to provide any kind of indirect services

to the rest of the organisation (e.g. secretary). Mintzberg's basic parts of the organisation are shown in figure 1.

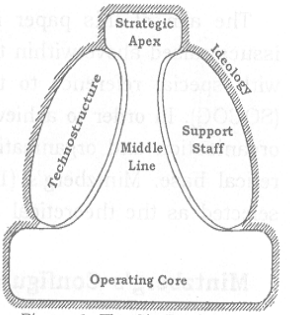


Figure 1: The Six Basic Parts of the Organization

(Source: Mintzberg, 1979)

Basic Co-ordinating Mechanisms. Now that the basic parts of the organisation are identified, mechanisms are required to co-ordinate the work between these parts. Mintzberg (1979) identifies six mechanisms through which co-ordination of work can be achieved: a) *direct supervision* is the simplest case where co-ordination is achieved at the strategic apex, when for example the CEO gives the orders; b) co-ordination can be achieved through *standardisation of work processes*. In this case the specialists in technostructure design the standards which then are directly applied at the operation core; c) *standardisation of outputs* is the case when the results of the work are specified. The technostructure is again responsible for this specification; d) when an organisation needs highly trained professionals, like in the case of a sport therapist centre, co-ordination can be achieved through *standardisation of skills*. Skills refer to knowledge which can be standardised outside the organisation, say, at a university or a training centre; e) finally, when organisations face complexity in producing work, *mutual adjustment* emerges (c.f. Appendix A). This is an informal form of communication usually evident when project teams are working towards the same output such as the case of the OCOGs which run various projects (for example, the Olympic village, transportation and so on), which all target an effective transaction of the Olympic Games.

Parameters of Design. Mintzberg (1979, p.66) argues that *"organisational structure encompasses formal and informal means* (that is, the parameters of design) *that organisations use to divide and co-ordinate their work in order to establish stable patterns of behaviour"*. These means are presented below: a) *job specialisation* refers to the number of tasks in a given job and the worker's control over these tasks; b) *behaviour formalisation* refers to the number of operating instructions such as job descriptions, rules, regulations and the like,

used to achieve standardisation of work processes; c) *training and indoctrination* refer to the use of formal instruction programmes to establish and standardise employees' requisite skills, knowledge and norms to do particular jobs; d) *unit grouping* refers to the optional bases by which positions are grouped into units and these units into higher-order units. Unit grouping can be achieved by function (for example, product, client and so on) or market (for example, local, national and so on) bases; e) *unit size* refers to the number of positions contained in a single unit; f) *planning and control systems* refer to mechanisms used to standardise outputs (for example, budgetary planning); g) *liaison devices* refer to mechanisms used to encourage communication between different units (for example, executive meetings, standing committees etc.); and finally *decentralisation* refers to the diffusion of decision making power. Decision-making can be delegated down the hierarchy (vertical decentralisation) or to employees at the same level of hierarchy (horizontal decentralisation).
Situational Factors. Mintzberg (1979, 1981) argues that the choice of the design parameters, mentioned above, is influenced by the situation of the organisation. That is, the *age and size* of the organisation, its *technical system,* the distribution of *power* within and around the organisation, and its *environment.* An old and big organisation for example, is expected to have highly specialised jobs as well as highly formalised behaviour. By using a series of such hypotheses Mintzberg (1979) identifies five different types of organisations, namely *simple structure, machine bureaucracy, professional bureaucracy, divisionalised form* and *adhocracy* (c.f. Appendix B).

With reference to Mintzberg's model, an examination of SOCOG's environment is presented in the following sections.

The Nature of OCOGs

When examining an OCOG it is important to acknowledge certain particularities of its nature. An OCOG operates under the "umbrella" of the Olympic Movement and the IOC in particular, which is its supreme authority (OC-1999, rule 1§1). OCOGs co-operate directly with the Olympic Movement for not more than seven years while the climax of their co-operation-the Olympic Games- amounts to less than 1% of the OCOG life-cycle. Moreover, its size increases dramatically throughout its life cycle. SOCOG, for example, employed

14 staff in 1994, 375 staff in 1997 and 1063 staff in June 1999 (SOCOG, 1999).

The organisation theory literature suggests that the overall size of an organisation is closely associated with the structural features adopted (Kimberly, 1976; Kimberly and Rottman, 1987; Frisby, 1995; Kikulis *et al*, 1995). Within the same context, Mintzberg (1979) argues that an increase in the organisational size would, among others, increase the number and differentiation of organisational units. In 1997, for instance, SOCOG's structure comprised of 4 business groups and 16 divisions serving 5 programmes (SOCOG, 1997), while in 1999 it comprised of 6 business groups, 22 divisions and 74 programmes (SOCOG, 1999).

The above examples highlight the importance of organisational *age* and *size* as situational factors which affect the structure of SOCOG. It is important, though, to understand that some of Mintzberg's situational factors play a more important role in determining the situation of the organisation in some organisations than in others. In the case of the OCOGs, the organisational environment is one of the most important situational factors, basically because of the differentiated interests of the entities involved (IOC, Governments, sponsors and so on). In the following section the environment of OCOGs, and of SOCOG in particular, will be identified and analysed.

The Organisational Environment of OCOGs. The Case of SOCOG

When referring to organisational environment an obvious question is raised: "Which environment"? A basic distinction is the external and internal environment. The key element of the *internal environment* is the corporate culture, that is, values, beliefs, understanding, and norms shared by the members of the organisation (Schein, 1992). On the other hand, *the external environment* includes all elements existing outside the boundary of the organisation that have the potential to affect the organisation (Daft, 1998). The *general external environment* includes international, political, sociocultural, technological and economic factors and affects the organisation indirectly (Daft, 1997). The focus of this paper is on the part of the external environment that directly affects an organisation; that is its

task *environment*. This can include owners, customers, suppliers, associates, competitors and so on (Morden, 1996).

In the case of OCOGs it could be considered that the owner is the IOC; customers are the NOCs which represent the athletes of their countries, the spectators, and the IFs which represent the 28 sports; suppliers are the IOC, the taxpayers and the governments, as well as the sponsors and the TV rights holders who are also customers at the same time. Other entities of an OCOG's task environment could be private corporations which invest in the Games, and special groups, such as environmental and aboriginal groups in the case of SOCOG. From this point on the term "environment" will be used as synonymous to "task environment".

Mintzberg (1979) identified two basic dimensions of organisational environment. Each is introduced briefly below

Stability An organisational environment can range from *stable* to *dynamic*. This is closely related to the levels of prediction of the environmental needs. An environment can be dynamic when, for example, customers' interests or a competitor's strategy change unexpectedly.

Complexity An organisation's environment can range from *simple* to *complex*. An environment is complex to the extent that it requires the organisation to have a great deal of knowledge about customers, associates, and so on. However, when knowledge can be rationalised, that is, broken down into easily comprehended components, the environment becomes simple.

Based on the stability and complexity dimensions, four basic organisational environments can be identified. They can be shown in matrix form as follows

	Stable	**Dynamic**
Complex	Decentralised, Bureaucratic (Standardisation of skills)	Decentralised, Organic (Mutual adjustment)
Simple	Centralised, Bureaucratic (Standardisation of work processes)	Centralised, Organic (Direct supervision)

(Source: Mintzberg 1979, pp.286)

Simple and stable environments encourage centralised, bureaucratic structures where co-ordination is achieved through *stand-*

ardisation of work processes. Complex, stable environments lead to structures that are bureaucratic but decentralised. These organisations co-ordinate through *standardisation of skills.* When an organisational environment is dynamic but nevertheless simple, the organisation requires the flexibility of organic structure but its decision-making power can remain centralised. *Direct supervision* becomes its prime co-ordinating mechanism. Finally, when a dynamic environment is complex, decision-making power must decentralise to the specialists of the operating core, yet allow them to interact flexibly in an organic structure so they can respond to unpredictable environmental changes. In effect, *mutual adjustment* emerges as the prime co-ordinating mechanism (Mintzberg, 1979).

The aim of this paper is to identify the key players of the organisational environment of SOCOG and then draw conclusions concerning the type of its environment. For this reason, the environment of SOCOG is separated into two basic categories. These are, the *Olympic Movement* and *public governance.* The entities involved from the *commercial sector* and the various *public groups* will also be examined.

The Olympic Movement

The Olympic Movement includes the IOC, the International Federations (IF), the National Olympic Committees (NOC), and all the associations, clubs and individuals belonging to them (OC-1999, rule 3§1). The IOC is the central power of the Olympic Movement. The Olympic Games are IOC's exclusive property (OC-1999, rule 11) and consequently the OCOGs also, which enter the Olympic Movement as temporary systems. OCOGs become part of the Host City Contract (HCC) which involves the host city and the NOC of the host country (OC-1999 rule 39 § 4). The OCOGs should conduct its activities according to the HCC and the Olympic Charter (OC). Therefore, the IOC has legal power over an OCOG. This power, in its extreme, can be expressed as withdrawal of the organisation of the Games from the city, and consequently from the OCOG (OC-1999, rule 39§4). The major IOC's exertion of power, though, is based on its economic control over the OCOG. The IOC has been providing SOCOG approximately with 40% of the funds necessary to finance the Games. It has exclusive control of the negotiation of the television rights and TOP (The Olympic Partners) sponsorship deals for the Games and

in the future will also control international merchandising (Preuss, 2000).

It is clear from the above that the IOC is an important player that directly affects OCOGs. The recent bribery scandal, for instance, of some IOC members involved in the evaluation of Salt Lake bid has triggered bad publicity for the IOC and a loss in public confidence. In effect potential sponsors for the Sydney Olympics were discouraged from associating themselves with the Games, such as the case of Texaco-Caltex, an American Oil Company, which pulled out a US$ 6,3 million sponsorship deal (Associated Press, 1999a). This came at the time when SOCOG was trying to raise almost US$ 1 billion in outstanding revenue (Washington, 1999). The IOC scandal could also affect ticket sales since the public could be discouraged from buying one of the 5.5 million tickets. However, there is no evidence, as yet, that this is the case in the Sydney Olympics. The IOC is the most credible entity within the OCOG environment, although the above examples show that this is not always the case. In the case of the Sydney Olympics the IOC contributes to a more dynamic SOCOG environment.

Other entities of the Olympic Movement that can affect an OCOG are the IFs and the NOCs. The IFs provide the technical support related to the competitions. They are responsible in determining the location of each venue, the physical layout of the field of play, as well as reviewing the format of the competitions, the utilisation of facilities and so on. The primary link between IFs and SOCOG is the Games Operations Division. IF's demands, though, are changing especially when new technology is introduced in sports competitions or when athletes demand rescheduling of events. In September 1999, for example, the International Amateur Athletics Federations (IAAF) decided to introduce rest days between heats and finals for middle and long distance races. As a consequence, the SOCOG had to refund thousands of tickets and reissue new ones (Reuters, 1999).

The role of the NOCs manifests itself through their exclusive power over the presentation of their respected countries at the Olympic Games (OC-1999, rule 31§3). In co-operation with the IOC and the IFs, they are responsible for determining the number of qualifying athletes they should bring to the Games. They represent the athletes and all their enquiries which can be of various kinds. SOCOG, for

example, provided pre-event training centres for athletes who wanted to adapt to the Australian climate well in advance of the Games (SOCOG, 1999). NOCs are not necessarily major players in SOCOG's environment. Since, however, they represent the various and changing demands of the athletes, they also contribute to a more dynamic SOCOG environment.

Public Governance

After the failure of the privately-funded Olympics in Atlanta, the IOC encouraged more Governmental involvement in Sydney Olympics (Associated Press, 1998). In effect, the role of governments, as entities in the SOCOG's environment, is absolutely crucial. The most important role is held by the **New South Wales** (NSW) **Government** which is responsible for the construction of all Games related infrastructure, spending approximately US$'95 2.9 billion (Preuss, 2000). For this reason the NSW Government established the Olympic Co-ordination Authority (OCA). Other services from the NSW Government to SOCOG include the delivery of transport services through the Olympic Roads and Transport Authority (ORTA), the NSW Police, Health Department and Fire Brigade as well as the NSW Environmental Authority, Education Department and so on (SOCOG, 1999). The most direct involvement of the NSW Government with SOCOG is the appointment of the NSW Minister for the Olympics (Michael Knight, MP) as President of the SOCOG's Board of Directors. Evidence of NSW Government's control over SOCOG was clear in February 2000 when after the SOCOG's ticketing fiasco (they offered seats to sessions that had virtually no seats available), Mr Knight appointed a public servant to look after ticketing issues. Additional plans include the installation of a new team of civil servants to play a big part in organising the event. This had an immediate affect on SOCOG's structure since roles and authorities changed (Moore, 2000).

The Australian **Federal Government** is also involved in the organisation of the Games. This involvement is the responsibility of the Minister assisting the Prime Minister for the Sydney Olympics. The Federal Government supports SOCOG through its Departments of Health, Defence, Foreign Affairs, Immigration and so on. Federal Government's role as "influencer" within SOCOG's environment is not as important as the role of the NSW Government. The Federal Government, how-

ever, has been trying to influence SOCOG's strong operations through its representation in the SOCOG's Board of Directors (SOCOG, 1999). The two aforementioned Governments represent different political parties, and this has fed political conflicts between them which could affect the structure of SOCOG. For instance, the Federal Government was continuously opposing the dual role of the SOCOG's President of the Board (also the NSW Minister for Olympics), accusing the NSW Government of politicising the Games (Washington, 1998). This bickering between state and federal governments was a struggle to get the major share of the "kudos" that the Olympics will bring (Moore, 1998). This was clear before the state elections in March, 1999, when various scenarios concerning potential post-election change in the organisation of SOCOG emerged. Moreover, some members of the SOCOG Board of Directors resigned in order to compete in the political arena leaving SOCOG in a structural imbalance for more than two months (Associated Press, 1999b).

Commercial Sector and Public Groups

The entities from the commercial sector within OCOGs' environment are sponsors and television rights holders as well as partner companies which act as suppliers of money and services-in-kind to the OCOG. Public groups include various special groups with diverse interests such as environmental and aboriginal groups in the case of SOCOG. Their importance lies in the fact that an OCOG ought to have the appropriate knowledge and experience to deal with such entities. Some Sponsors, for example, accused SOCOG of being inexperienced in dealing with the commercial sector when sponsors did not receive the appropriate number and quality of Games tickets (Day, 1999).

Special public groups can also play a role in the environment of an OCOG. For example the SOCOG had to take into consideration the role of the Australian aboriginal groups in the Olympics. For this reason, a National Indigenous Advisory Committee was established to facilitate communication with such groups (SOCOG, 1999).

Conclusion

With reference to the environmental dimension of *stability,* we can argue that the entities from the Olympic Movement as well as from the public governance constitute a dynamic environment for SOCOG.

The SOCOG cannot anticipate incidents within the Olympic Movement that can affect the organisation of the Games or the political exertion of power over the SOCOG. Therefore, since the levels of prediction of the needs and attitudes of the entities in SOCOG's environment are low, we can conclude that SOCOG's environment is quite dynamic.

SOCOG ought to have the appropriate knowledge to deal with the diverse interests and needs of the entities in its environment. Relations and communications with the international sport network, governmental authorities, private firms and various special groups require a great deal of sophisticated knowledge about diverse industries and fields. This can lead us to the assumption that SOCOG's dynamic environment is also complex. SOCOG, however, managed to rationalise this knowledge by breaking it down into departments, divisions and programmes (c.f. Appendix C). It would be, though, arbitrary to say that SOCOG's environment is simple, but it is not as complex as it looks. The SOCOG employs individuals with special knowledge and experience in their respective fields who are, or should be, able, in most of the cases, to deal effectively with any environmental complexity.

Mintzberg (1979, 1981) suggests that when an environment is dynamic, a flexible organic structure is required. When a dynamic environment is simple the decision-making power should be centralised but when it is complex, decision making power should be decentralised. In the case of SOCOG we can argue that since its dynamic environment is neither simple nor complex, selective decentralisation of decision making *is* required. Co-ordination, therefore, should be achieved with *direct supervision* in some cases or *mutual adjustment* in others.

The discussion in this paper has identified the key players of the environment of an OCOG and of SOCOG in particular. It has been shown that entities from the Olympic Movement as well as from the Public Governance of the Host City and Country play the most important role as "influencers" in SOCOG's organisational environment. Other entities that can influence the structure of SOCOG are the sponsors and the media as well as special public groups such as environmental and aboriginal groups. SOCOG's environment has been classified as dynamic but not very complex. Concern, however,

should be placed on the fact that in the last couple of decades, every Olympic Games are bigger than the previous in terms of numbers of participating athletes and sports as well as the amount of money involved. In effect, more entities and consequently more diverse interests are involved. Consequently, obvious questions concerning the organisation of the Games can be raised. For instance, are the Olympics getting too big to organise? This is an obvious question especially when we see for the first time an OCOG (SOCOG) not having the responsibility for the Games-related infrastructure. Could it be possible for the IOC to maintain a group of specialists who will organise all the Olympic Games? Moreover, will we see future Games organised by more than one city like the case of the Football World Cup? What potential problems could this create? Finally, would it be appropriate to transfer some Summer Olympic sports to the Winter Olympics?

Note

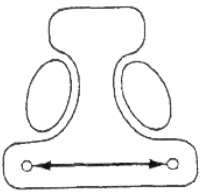
1. Value adjusted to 1995 US$ currency rate.

Bibliography

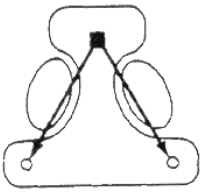
1. ACOG (Atlanta Organising Committee for the Olympic Games, 1996). *The Official Report of the Centennial Olympic Games: Planning and Organising.* Volume I
2. Associated Press (1999a). Recasts Lead to Raise Angle about Sponsors being Wor ried. *18 February (www.ap.org).*
3. Associated Press (1999b). Phillips Gets SOCOG Board Position. *14 January. (www. ap. org).*
4. British Olympic Academy (BOA, 2000) *XXVII Olympic Summer Games, Sydney, Australia.* Information Given at the BOA Annual Seminar, Lilleshall, 7-9 April.
5. Daft, R.L. (1997). *Management* (4th Edition). London: The Dryden Press
6. Day, M. (1999). SOCOG vs Media. *The Australian, 8 July,* pp.13
7. Emery, R. P. (1998, 2-4 July). *Bidding to Host a Major Sport Event-Strategic In vestment or Complete Lottery?* Paper presented at the Sport in the City, Sheffield.
8. Essex, S., & Chalkley, B. (1998). Olympic Games Catalyst of Urban Change. *Leisure Studies,* 77(1998), 187-206.
9. Frisby, W. (1995). Broadening Perspectives on Leisure Service Management and Research: what does organisation theory offer? *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration 13(1),* 58-72.
10. Kikulis, L. M., Slack, T., & Hinnings, C.R. (1995). Sector Specific Patterns of Organisational Design Change. *Journal of Management Studies, 32(1)*
11. Kimberly, R.J. (1976). Organisational Size and the Structuralist Perspective: A Review, Critique, and Proposal. *Administrative Science Quarterly 21,* 571-597

12. Kimberly, R.J., Rottman, D.B. (1987). Environment, Organisation, and Effective ness: A Biographical Approach. Journal of Management Studies, 24(6), 595-622.
13. Kitchen, T. (1996). Cities and the World Events' Process. *Town and Country Plan ning*, 65(11), 314-317.
14. Larsson Mossberg, L. (1997). The Event Market. *Annals of Tourism Research, 24(3),* 748-751.
15. Lawson, T. (1996). After its All Over. *Geographical Magazine, 68(7),* 20-24.
16. MacDonald, J. (1998). Cringing Aussies Lead the World. *The Australian, 29 April,* pp. 19.
17. Mintzberg, H. (1981). Organisation Design: Fashion or Fit? *Harvard Business Re view, January-February,* 103-116.
18. Mintzberg, H. (1979). *The Structuring of Organisations: A Synthesis of the Research,* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:Prentice-Hall.
19. Moore, M. (2000). I'll Take it from Here Sandy. *Sydney Morning Herald, 4 February* (www.smh.com.au).
20. Moore, M. (1998) Why the PM Wants to Win a Place in the Olympic Squad. *Sydney. Morning Herald, 19 October* (www.smh.coni.au).
21. Morden, T. (1996). *Principles of Management.* London: McGraw-Hill.
22. Morphet, J. (1996). The Real Thing. *Town and Country Planning,* 65(11), 312-314.
23. Nash, R., & Johnstone, S. (1998, 2-4 July). *The Case of Euro96: where did the party go?* Paper presented at the Sport in the City, Sheffield.
24. Olympic Charter (OC, 1999). *International Olympic Committee Publication, 12 De cember.*
25. Preuss, H. (2000). *Economics of the Olympic Games: Hosting the Games 1972-2000.* Sydney: Walla Walla Press.
26. Reuters (1999). IOC to Refund Tickets after Schedule Change. 16 September *(www.renters, com).*
27. Schein, H.E. (1992). *Organisational Culture and Leadership* (2nd Edition). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
28. SOCOG (Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games, 1997). *Annual Report, 1997.*
29. SOCOG (Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games, 1999). *Annual Report, 1999.*
30. Washington, S. (1999). IOC Allegations May Affect Funding. *The Australian Finan cial Review, 19 January,* pp.15.
31. Washington, S. (1998). Knight Moves into the Black. *The Australian Financial Re view, 4 May,* pp.7.

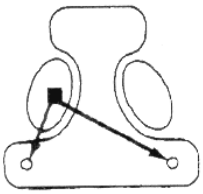
APPENDIX A
The Basic Co-ordinating Mechanisms



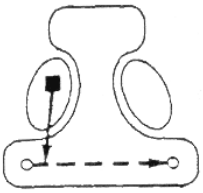
(a) Mutual Adjustment



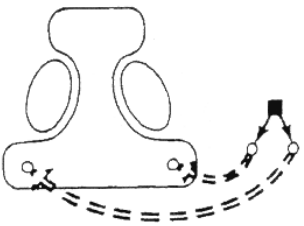
(b) Direct Supervision



c) Standardization of Work



(d) Standardization of Outputs



(e) Standardization of Skills

(Spurce: Mintzberg, 1979)

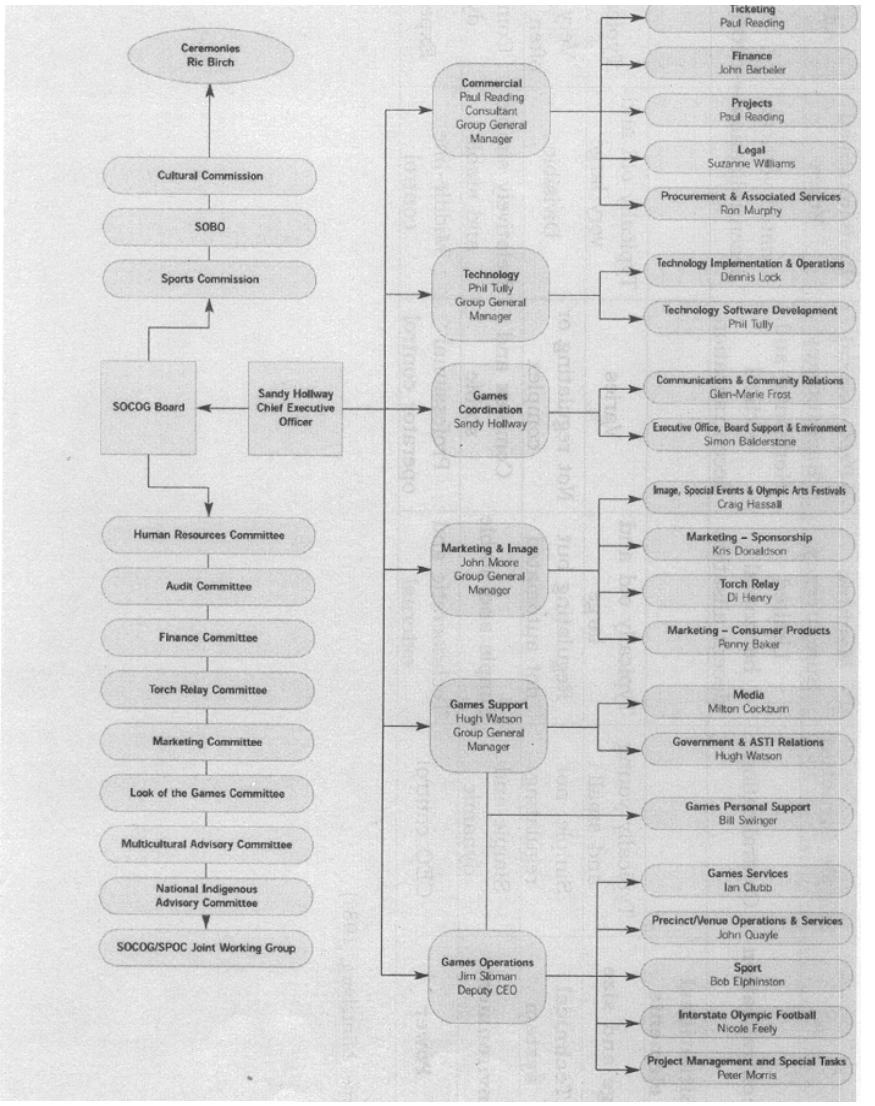
APPENDIX B
Dimensions of *the* Five Configurations

	Simple Structure	Machine Bureaucracy	Professional Bureaucracy	Divisionalised Form	Adhocracy
Key means of co-ordination	Direct supervision	Standardization of work	Standardization of skills	Standardization of outputs	Mutual adjustment
Key part of organisation	Strategic apex	Technostructure	Operating core	Middle line	Support staff
Structural elements					
Specialization of jobs	Little specialization	Much horizontal and vertical specialization	Much horizontal specialization	Some horizontal and vertical specialization	Much horizontal specialization
Training and indoctrination	Little	Little	Much	Some	Much training
Formalisation of behaviour	Little	Much	Little	Much	Little
Grouping	Usually functional	Usually functional	Functional and market	Market	Functional and market
Unit size	Wide	Wide at bottom, narrow elsewhere	Wide at bottom, narrow elsewhere	Wide at top	Narrow throughout
Planning and control systems	Little planning and control	Action planning	Little planning and control	Much performance control	Limited action planning
Liaison devices	Few	Few	Liaison devices in administration	Few	Many liaison devices throughout

	Simple Structure	Machine Bureaucracy	Professional Bureaucracy	Divisionalised Form	Adhocracy
Decentralisation	Centralisation	Limited horizontal decentralisation	Horizontal and vertical decentralisation	Limited vertical decentralisation	Selective decentralisation
Situational elements					
Age and size	Typically young and small	Typically old and large	Varies	Typically old and very large	Typically young
Technical system	Simple, not regulating	Regulating but not automated	Not regulating or complex	Divisible	Very complex, often automated
Environment	Simple and dynamic	Simple and stable	Complex and stable	Relatively simple and stable	Complex and dynamic
Power	CEO control	Technocratic and external	Professional operator control	Middle-line control	Expert control

(Source: Mintzberg, 1981)

APPENDIX C
The Management Structure of the Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (SOCOG)



(Source: SOCOG, 1999)

SPORT POLICY AND THE NOC IN TAIWAN

by Hung-Yu LIU *(TRE)*

The structure of this presentation is as follows: after a brief historical introduction and the concepts of government involvement in sports since 1973 on Taiwan ROC, I will indicate the government key organisations of sports and spheres of responsibilities for sports in this country. Subsequently, infrastructures for sport and the pragmatic policies adopted in relation to the Olympic Games will be illustrated.

Historical background

The emergence of national policies and the development of sports policies and organisations have been bound up with the development of political, economic and social reforms on Taiwan ROC since the 1970s. After moving from Mainland China in 1949, the ruling party, KMT, held power for more than 50 years in central government until an opposition party, DPP, took the power in the presidential election this year.

With a democratic government, economic freedom, social diversity, universal education, and a rising level of achievement in high technology, ROC is gradually entering the ranks of fully developed nations. ROC has also maintained the legacy of traditional Confucian culture in Taiwan, and further glorified Chinese culture and arts. This hard-earned success has led many to talk about the "Taiwan Experience" as a model for other developing nations. In its 50 years, in pave in Taiwan, the KMT, has improved the military preparedness, and has worked consistently to realize the ideals of the 'Constitution' through pragmatic policies and actions. The hard-work and enterprising spirit of the people have created 'economic miracle' that has made the ROC ranking fifteenth in the table of largest trading nations (Chen C. J., 2000). In terms of sports, Taiwan is a very interesting case of sports development. First, it is essentially a new state. Second, sport has played key role in the development of the state. Fi-

nally, the place of Olympic sport in that development *is* very significant.

Government's involvement in sport

Broadly speaking, there are five principal types of rationale for state involvement in sport: improving military preparedness of the state, gaining health benefits of recreation and sport, preserving group or class advantage for example by restricting access to the countryside, using sport as a means of social integration, and exploiting with the relationship between sport and international prestige (Houlihan, 1997, pp. 61-65).

In terms of Taiwan, particularly from the 1960s to the end of the 1970s, the threat from Mainland China was huge. Military preparedness of the state was a significant priority in that period. In particular, a few pieces of legislation were developed to support the armed forces, promote physical fitness for conscripts and to add training for elite sports-persons in the armed forces. In particular the 1974 Act (1873) announced that programs for elite sports-persons should be developed in the national defence system.

From the late 1970s to the late 1980s, the tension between Taiwan and Mainland China was alleviated by degrees. The Taiwanese State (Republic of China) was starting to consider and promote sport and physical recreation through sport for all programs and through all levels of the educational system. In particular, it produced the Ten Year Plan' for sport for all in communities around the country in 1973 and for providing access to sport facilities for all citizens. This focus on sport for all indicates the second rationale for sports policy.

From the 1990s, sport policy was concerned with health benefits of physical recreation and sport. According to statistics produced by the Ministry of Education (1997), health aims of primary school in Taiwan are considerably lower than those in South Korea, Japan, and Mainland China. To emphasize the importance of health and sport, President Lee declared at the "National Sport and PE Meeting" in the city of Taipei 1997 that physical fitness with education was a priority equal to that of maintaining national power.

Using sport as a means of social integration was to be a priority to overcome social instability within the working class from the mid-1980s until the end of the 1990s. There were more and more inter-

actions in the fields of sport and traditional art during this period (eg. martial art, Tai-Chi etc) Taiwan itself also had three professional leagues established at the end of 1980s: one baseball league, and two basketball leagues. This may all be seen as examples of using sport as one of the tools for social integration in this society.

A fifth theme in state sport policy is the increasing concern with the relationship between sport and international prestige. The ROC government was acutely aware of the potential of sport to enhance the image of Taiwan and promote its ideology after 1949. In particular, the ruling party would like to intervene in matters of sport and physical recreation and such interventions to take sport as a tool to foster the image of the ROC. Still under the threat from Mainland China since 1949, people in Taiwan do need sport to promote their national identity internally and externally. It can be a tool for promoting the country image, for physical fitness, for health care, as a vehicle for interaction with Mainland China. Despite the complex and changing rationales for sport, the organisational framework in government for sport is uncomplicated.

The government spheres of responsibility

The national policy clearly points out the government responsibility to support sport as a element of education. According to the national policy before 1990s, educational annual national expenditure should be fifteen percent of all national expenditure. The PE and sport is one of the codes in the education system. Four and half billion Taiwan Dollars are contributed to this field each year (White Paper, 1999).

The Department of Physical Education and Sport (DPS) in the Ministry of Education was founded in 1973 as a key organization for the sport and physical education movement. This organisation is divided into three divisions, the Division of International Affairs, the Division of Social Sport, and Sport and PE in schools. The DPS can be viewed as the most important organisation for PE and sport in central government.

Different ministries and departments in charge of aspects of sport in the spheres mentioned above are

- The Ministry of Education *which controls PE Promotion and Sport* within the educational system.

- The Department of Health is responsible for promoting *sport* as a *precaution* in public health and for *examining sport* doping.
- The Ministry of the Interior *supports* the management *of sport facilities of non-government bodies for all* citizens and for top com petitive *sportspersons.*
- The Ministry of Defence *controls* sports in the army, especially for the top athlete soldiers *prepared* for international competitions.
- The Mainland Affair Council *dealing* with *sport* policy and inter action with the PRC.
- The Ministry of Economic Affairs and co-operation *supporting* the framework of labours' physical fitness.
- The Ministry of Finance and Treasury *deals* with taxes and the *use* and management of sport facilities.
- The Department of Agriculture *supporting* leisure *programs* for *farmers '* physical fitness.
- The Department of Youth Commission *supporting* leisure and phy sical recreation *programs* for young people.
- The Foreign *Office supporting the framework of travelling* for sport smen, sportswomen and foreign political-cultural affairs.

However, the DPS can not meet the demands of the sports system and most of the sports experts were concerned to promote the upgrading of the Sport Council. The awareness of citizens about sport in Taiwan rose after the end of 1970s when the Sport For All grew globally. Second, the DPS can not accommodate all of its responsibilities, including "Sport for All", "Sport Excellence" and "Sport and PE in Schools". These three elements will be discussed in the following pages. Third, the emerging sport policy area suffered from the absence of a voice at Cabinet level. The fragmentation of responsibilities for sport made this more important.

Many experts in PE and sport urged the upgrading of the obligations of the DPS (see table 1). The first stage was to establish a Physical Education Committee in the Ministry of Education. They were also trying to highlight the significance of the Sport Council in the National Educational Meeting which provides ideas and plans for government in Taiwan. This was also promoted and discussed in the Congress through two of the parliamentarians who took second place and third place in the Olympic Games in 1960 and 1968.

However, the key moment came when both President Lee and Premier Lain announced that it was time to create Sport Council in Taiwan.

Table 1. Chronology of promotion for Sport Council on Taiwan ROC, 1973-1998

Year/ Issues	Key issue for creating Sport Council
1973	Department of PE and Sport in the Ministry of Education was built
1982	PE and Sport Committee *were* established in the Ministry of Education
1988	Sixth National Educational Meeting
1990	Sport Council upgrade was discussed in the Parliament
1994	Seventh National Educational Meeting
1995	President Lee claimed that Sport Council is important in this country
1996	Premier Lain announced Sport Council is necessary in the central government
1997	Sport Council was created in July first
1998	Act 87000004200 on law for Sport Council

Source: Information office 1999

After the founding of the National Council on Physical Fitness and Sport, the respective roles and functions of the DPS and the NCPFS were adjusted in the central government. The major responsibility of DPS is the promotion of physical fitness, regulation of the PE curriculum and students' health care in schools, while, the NCPFS holds its responsibility for Sport for All and the Sport Excellence campaign.

The new administrative organization has five key departments: the Department of Planning and Research, Sport for All; Sports Excellence; the International Department; Facilities and it had the following committees: Laws and Regulations Committee, Administrative Appeals Committee and Sports for the Disabled Committee. The establishment of the NCPFS greatly enhanced the significance of sport and PE in government. The number of staff in the DPS and the NCPFS was increased from eighteen to one hundred and forty. Furthermore, sports expenditure has been sharply increased from four

and half billion Taiwan Dollars to eighty eight billion Taiwan Dollars (White Paper ROC, 1999).

As the sports Minister (1997) announced the NCPFS is concerned with providing and maintaining a sound infrastructure for sport development in ROC and committed to raising the overall standard of sport arena. The mission of NCPFS is to build a healthy nation based on a dedication to promoting participation in sport for all citizens so as to enhance the quality of life and contribute to a national society. We expect to attract millions of people in this country to participate in many programs and finally we also plan to help our athletes achieve their goals and win recognition for ROC in international competitions. All of these plans are being implemented with the co-operation of various sports associations, schools, enterprises and organisations in both the public and private sectors in Taiwan (Cho L.Y. 1998).

It can be foreseen that sport for all, and sporting excellence will be the two main policy directions for this new organisation. With the Sports Council established in the central government, flexible and powerful negotiation through vertical and horizontal communication in the Cabinet would be feasible.

Infrastructure of sport and pragmatic policy

For over thirty years, sport has played a significant role in this country. Since the beginning of isolation from Mainland China, the ROC government has suffered from, internal and external, unstable situations with little support. Nevertheless, as can be seen in table 3 the government gradually developed a number of programs and a sports Act. Three items, sport for all, sport elite and PE in schools have provided the focus for government in sport policy over the past thirty years.

Table 2. Chronology of key sport policy 1970s-1990s on Taiwan ROC

Year/ Item	Context of Act /Program /Plan		
	Sport For All	**Sport Elite**	**PE in Schools**
1971			Sport promotion in high school
1973	First stage of sport for all		
1974		Elite sport in army	
1979	Second stage of sport for all		Elite athletic promotion in high school
1981			Program of elite sport
1982	Act of sport law	Act of sport law	Act of sport law
1983		Program of Sino-national award for elite athletic	Index of PE curriculum of high school
1985	Sport committee in Ministry of		
1987	Third stage of sport for all program		
1988		Program of north elite sport trainning centre	
1989	Program of NOC for international program	Program of elite sport for young, program of coaches for elite sport	Program of sport for army
1990	Fouth stage of sport for all		Program of academic research for PE and sport
1993			Program of academic publishimg for PE and sport
1998	Act of Sport Council	Act of Sport Council	Act of Sport Council

Source: Government official paper 1970-2000 Taiwan ROC

Pragmatic policy and the NOC

Pragmatic diplomacy in its basic sense consists of expedient measures and methods adopted to deal with external relations and matters when a normal approach to official diplomacy is not operable, the practice of which is called pragmatic diplomacy "or subtle diplomacy" (Bernard, 1994, p.298).

From 1949 until the early 1970s Taiwan had received only diplomatic and military support from the US in its stand off with Mainland China. However, in the period from .1971 to 1979 after the Nixon rapport in act with the PRC, the ROC renounced the United Nations and cut foreign ties with United States of America. Following the failure of foreign affairs, the government considered adopting a new approach to face the new international environment. Interaction was accepted by government as a sensible policy. As a result of this more pragmatic approach by both side, 20,688 people in ROC and 1964 people in Mainland China benefited from this policy by being added to visit each other. The number has been on the increase every year by around 500 people under such pragmatic policy.

Concerning sport, in particular, the ROC government changed its sport strategy and rejoined the international sports community. Taiwan rejoined the IOC and has taken the title "Chinese Taipei" on behalf of ROC since 1986. Following this pragmatic policy, the ROC government has focused on the aim of attending international sport event to spread the name, flag and ideology of ROC.

As the social, economic and political importance of sport has increased over the past thirty years or so, the multi-relationship between government and non-government sectors has become more intense and more significant in shaping the development of sport in Taiwan.

In respect of the National Olympic Committee, when the DPS was created in the Ministry of Education in the year of 1973, the NOC undertook a new role. It was the sole organisation sponsored by government for the Olympic Games and elite sport promotion at the national level. As table 4 points out, there are many organisations for elite sport promotion of national, provincial and local levels. The NOC, has played the role of connecting the three level of organisation to promote elite sport. Furthermore, following the pragmatic policy, NOC has also strengthened the Taiwan international role through

attending international sport academic meetings and hosting international sport events and games.

Table 3. Non-governing bodies of sport In Taiwan

Level	Organization	Aims and Goal
National	National Olympic Committee, ROC	Sport elite for international competition
	Physical Education Association, ROC	Academic research of PE and Sport
	Sport Association, ROC	Sport elite and sport for all
	PE Association of National Defence	Sport elite in the national army
	Association of Disability, ROC	Promotion of disable people
	PE Association of High School, ROC	Sport fitness and sport elite of high school students
	Federations of Elite Sport, ROC	Sport elite for each level
Provincial	Federation of Elite Sport (23 divisions)	Sport elite for provincial level
Local	Federation of Elite Sport (23 divisions)	Sport elite for local level

Source: White paper on Taiwan ROC, 1999

The outcome of pragmatic policy for attending international sport events could be seen in table 4. Through three levels of Olympic, Asian and international university games, the progress of this country is obvious over the past forty years.

Table 4. Number of medals won by Taiwan ROC

Item/Year	1960	1966	1984	1988	1992	1996		
Olympic Game	1	1	1	5	6	1		Total Awards
Item /Year	1954	1958	1966	1970	1990	1994	1998	
Asia Game	13	34	19	18	31	43	77	Total Awards
Item /Year	1991	1993	1995	1997				
International University Sport Event	1	3	4	4				Total Awards

Source: Sport statistics ROC, 1999

Conclusion

In this presentation I have sought to firstly point out the government involvement in sport in Taiwan ROC in four perspectives and then move to the issue of sport policy as the agenda in the central government. Finally the pragmatic policy of Taiwan is explained, with the country moving from international domain to a pragmatic policy of accepting that it could not represent China in international relations or in international sport (IOC). Sport for all, sport excellence and PE in schools are the objectives of government in Taiwan. Particularly, after 1997 the new organizations have brought new power in these fields.

In this context, Taiwan has been trying to create an excellent sport environment through many dimensions such as government investment, experts of Sport and enhanced infrastructure. The pragmatic policy, moreover, has led Taiwan to have more potential in its role in international sport and increase its acceptance by the international community.

Bibliography

1. Chen CJ, (2000) Republic of China 2000, Government information office: Taipei 2. Houlihan B, (1997) Sport, Policy and Politics. A comparative analysis Routledge:
   London
3. Henry I, (1993) the politics of Leisure Policy, Macmillan: London
4. Information office (1999), Annual report, Taipei: Information office
5. Jason C., (1994) Quiet Revolutions on Taiwan Republic of China, Kwang Hwa: Taipei
6. Laurence Chalip et al. (1996). National Sport Policies-An International handbook, London: Greenwood Press
7. LIU H.Y., (1996) Leisure and Recreation Transition after 1949 on Taiwan ROC, Master Thesis, Unpublished, Taiwan Normal University
8. Nassis P.P., (1994) Analysis of sports policy in Greece: through a strategic Relations Perspective 1980-1993, Doctoral Thesis, Unpublished, Loughborough University
9. NCPFS (1998), An introduction to the National Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, Taipei: NCPFS
10. National Council on Physical Fitness and Sport (1999), Statistic of sport on Taiwan ROC, Taipei: NCPFS
11. National Council on Physical Fitness and Sport (1999), White Paper of Sport on Taiwan ROC, Taipei: NCPFS

THE OLYMPIC GAMES: "WHAT IT MEANS TO THE ORGANIZING COMMITTEE, ATHLETES, SPONSORS, AND GENERAL PUBLIC?"

by Somkid PITHONG *(THA)*

Introduction

Ancient Olympic Games

The origins of the Olympic Games are generally attributed to the gods and heroes of Ancient Greece, who relished contests of speed and strength. Legends abound as to the origins of the Games. It is said that, after diverting the course of the River Alpheios, Heracles organized a race with his four brothers, and presented the winner with an olive wreath.

Modern Olympic Games

The modern revival of the Olympic Games was an educational project. It grew from one man's campaign to have physical activity included in his nation's educational curriculum. The reformer was a determined, idealistic French aristocrat, Pierre de Coubertin.

Coubertin's fascination with the ancient Greek philosophy and lifestyle became another key toward the rebirth of the Olympic Games. Coubertin began to combine the idea of an international sports festival with the concept of a Greek-styled Olympic Games. His hope was to celebrate the health, values and athletic talent of youth, exalt the individual athlete and unite communities and the world. The rest of his life was devoted to that dream. The first modern Olympic Games took place in Athens in 1896.

The purpose of the Games is to create the peace in the world by using the competition in the Games as an important tool. This is to enable the youth in the world to learn and improve their health and thoughts. With this concept, the Olympic Committee has put every possible mean to keep the games move to one direction and forward.

The Olympic Committee has used the "Olympic Movement" as a key word for every country to be aware and put it into practice. The Olympic Movement will enable the youth in the whole world to learn and develop their healths and thoughts.

The structure of Olympic Movement consists of several relevant organizations including the athletes. The Olympic Games is one major part of Olympic Movement, which is held once every 4 year. The following are the main organizations under the umbrella of Olympic Movement

1. IOC (International Olympic Committee)
2. IFs (International Sports Federations)
3. NOCs (National Olympic Committees)
4. OCOG (Organizing Committee for the Olympic Games)
5. ANOCs (Associations of National Olympic Committees)
6. NSFs (National Sporting Federations)
7. The Clubs
8. The Athletes.

As for the Games itself, it inevitably concerns four following major elements

1. Organizing Committee
2. Athletes
3. Sponsors, and
4. General Public.

These elements have been playing their major roles in the Olympic movement, and particularly the Olympic Games.

What it means to the Organizing Committee, Athletes, Sponsors and General Public?

The Organizing Committees of the Olympic Games

The organization of the Olympic Games is entrusted by the IOC to the National Olympic Committee of the country of the host city as well as to the host city itself.

The National Olympic Committee forms, for that purpose, an Organizing Committee for the Olympic Games (OCOG) which, from the time it constituted, communicates directly with the IOC, from which it receives instructions.

From the time of its constitution to the end of its liquidation, the OCOG must comply with the Olympic Charter, the contract entered

into between the IOC, The National Olympic Committee and the host city (Host City Contract) and the instructions of the IOC Executive Board.

The following are a few aspects of the work of an Organizing Committee

- to give equal treatment to every sport on the programme and ensure that competitions are held according to the rules of the IFs;
- to ensure that no political demonstration or meeting is held in the Olympic City or its surroundings;
- to choose and, if necessary, create the required venues: compe tition sites, stadium and training halls; to arrange for the required equipment;
- to lodge the athletes, their entourage, the officials;
- to organize medical services;
- to develop transportation planning;
- to meet the requirements of the mass media in order to offer the public the best possible information of the Games;
- to print the numerous documents required, such as invitations, accreditation cards, programmes, lists of results;
- to write the final Report on the celebration of the Games in the two official languages and distribute it within two years after the end of the Games.

Apparently, hard work would be placed upon the Organizing Committee but the question is why is it that so many cities still now want to candidate to host the Olympic Games? The answer can be partially looked at the statements quoted by Mr. David S. Alkman, the IOC marketing Manager said at the international Olympic Academy thirty eighth session between 15th July -30th July 1998 that Olympic Games Organizing Committees, in the current quadrenium the summer OCOG will receive more than 910 million US Dollar in broadcast and sponsorship revenues combined. Winter OCOG can expect at least 400 million US.Dollar from broadcast and sponsorship programes. These represent between 60% (Atlanta) to 85% (Lillehammer) of the OCOGs' budget and allows OCOG to provide additional support to NOCs and athletes such a free accommodation in the Olympic Village and travel subside of the Games based on their athletic merit, not their economic mean.

Athletes

The place of athletes in the Olympic Games has a great influence not only on the athletes themselves but also on the future of modern sport and the fate of the Olympic Movement, because athletes are the standard-bearers of all kinds of values pertaining to sport and the Olympism, the very essence of the Olympic Games. Nowadays, no one can deny that the Olympians are worshipped by million of enthusiastic admirers, especially the young people around the world.

The athletes' performance resembles in practice the long and difficult journey one has to take in order to reach success, i.e. to be the winner, especially in the Olympic Games. It is the ultimate dream or target of the athletes all over the world.

It is a great honor for any sportsman or sportswoman to take part in Olympic Games. It is an honor because very few have this chance and each appreciates that because it is an indication of individual achievement and the ability to contribute to the development of sports.

Laurel Brassey Iversen was a member of the U.S. Woman's National Volleyball Team from 1972 to 1987. She talked about her experiences in the 37th session for young participants at IOA between 7th July - 22nd July 1997. Her team trained 6-8 hours a day, 6 days a week, and 50 weeks a year. They did this for 6 years. In January 1980, President Jimmy Carter announced the U.S. boycott of the Olympic Games to protest the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan, by not sending a team to Moscow. She said her heart was broken and there was a huge void in her life. The bitter disappointment of the boycott disrupted many of her life. She was put over one third of her life into training for the Olympics. She was bitter for many years for would never be an Olympian. Her destination was not reached. She has learned more valuable and applicable life lessons through sport than by any other means.

The above statements present the spirit of sporting man and the dream of the athletes to be the Olympian. This may briefly conclude what the Olympic Games means to the Athletes all around the world. However, there is now a trend towards professionalism, as defined both in monetary and full-time training terms. Coaches, administrators and athletes at the highest levels of competition are essential full-time, with various support from governments, their associations,

sponsors and from employment as athletes. Some can receive prize money for appearances and performance.

It may be concluded that the desire of the sportsman to participate in the Olympic Games is as follows

1. Pride to be a part of the world's top sporting event as being "the most important moment of sporting career".
2. Need in victory which will consequently bring reputation and honor to result in the future life.
3. High financial reward of victory from various sources, for example national organization, private section, etc.

Sponsors

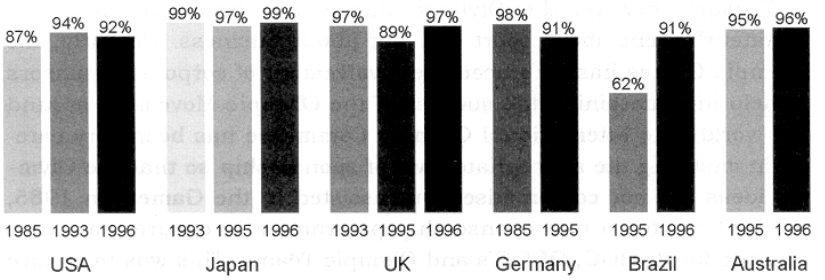
Through history, the Olympic Games has been considered an "amateur" event about sport and not about business. Recently, the Olympic Games has embraced the involvement of corporate sponsors to help in maintaining the success of the Olympic Movement around the world. The International Olympic Committee has been very careful in ensuring the appropriate level of sponsorship so that the Olympic ideas are not compromised but assisted in the Games. In 1985, the IOC created a new sponsorship programme to ensure maximum revenue for the IOC, OCOG's and Olympic Teams. This was to ensure the financial stability of the Olympic Games for the future. This sponsorship programme included higher rights fees for the exclusive use of the Olympic Rings and Olympic associations. It also limited the number of sponsors, unlike previous times. In Montreal, there were 628 sponsors and only 7 million dollars were raised, but today there are fewer sponsors who pay large amounts of money for exclusive rights. The benefits of sponsorship to the Olympic movement are as follows

- Sponsorship provides important funding to an Olympic Games, helping to run the Games and develop facilities.
- Sponsors will limit the amount of money to be provided by gov ernments.
- Sponsors help to finance the training of Athletes and help sport in a country through association and direct funding as a return for financial contributions. A company receives exclusive right to associate themselves with the Olympic Games and to use the most powerful symbol of the Games, the Olympic Rings. This has proven to be beneficial to companies in the following ways:

- Sponsorship of the Olympic Games raises the Public Opinion of the sponsoring company.
- The use of the Olympic Rings in packaging and advertising associates the sponsor with the Olympic ideals.
- The use of the Olympic Rings attracts attention to a product and will increase product sales.

The following chart indicates the world wide recognition of the Olympic Rings. An estimated 93% of people in the world instantly recognised the Olympic Rings survey provided by the IOC in 1996. In some countries, such as Japan, the number was as high as 99%.

Recognition of the Olympic Rings % (spontaneous)



It was very important that the corporate involvement in the Olympic Games is controlled so as to support, and not de-value Olympism. Because of this sponsor recognition is controlled, for example, within the stadiums and there is no advertising allowed.

However, for the sponsor, just being associated with the Games is hugely lucrative. The Olympic Rings are the most widely recognised symbols in the world and for any company which means Global penetration into the marketplace. It also means association with the virtues of the Olympic Games which is very valuable.

General Public

From the Public Opinion Survey at the Atlanta Games, 99% of the spectators agreed that their reasons to watch the Games is that Olympic Games is the world's top sporting event.

Citizens of the world have an important role in supporting the Olympic Movement especially those who are involved in the Games

such as the people in the Organizing Committee, Athletes, Officials, Referees, and Spectators. Spectators are regarded as being the most important part to support the success of the Games.

Reasons beyond the spectator's appreciation in watching the Games are their beliefs

1. The Olympic Games are the top sporting event in the world

This statement was validated by spectators interviewed at the 1996 Atlanta Games, ninety one percent of whom said that they had attended the Olympic Games because "it is the greatest sport event in the world". The general public around the world has consistently supported the idea that the Olympic Games are the world's top sporting event. Results from selected countries show that more than three quarters of the general public believe the Olympic Games to be the top sporting event, and they have done so far almost a decade.

Top Sporting Event (% agreed)

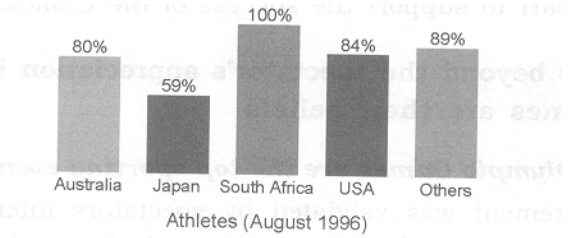
	Aug 1988	Oct 1988	Nov 1991	Sep 1992	Nov 1993	Jan 1996	Aug 1996
Brazil	94	93					95
Japan					82	86	92
Spain			80	85			93
UK	89		79	85	85	83	85
USA	93		74	78	79	80	91

Source: IOC/SRÍ

2. There is no greater sporting achievement than to win an Olympic medal

The general public in nine countries around the world certainly agreed that there is no greater sporting achievement than to win an Olympic medal - 80% agreed in August 1996. Among spectators who witnessed the Olympic Games experience first-hand in Atlanta, respect for the achievement of winning an Olympic medal was even greater - 87% agreed. This was similar to the Olympic athletes themselves, of whom 88% felt that there was no greater sporting achievement than to win an Olympic medal.

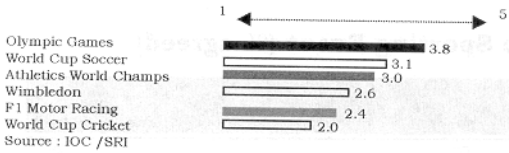
The Olympic Games are the most important moment of my sporting career so far



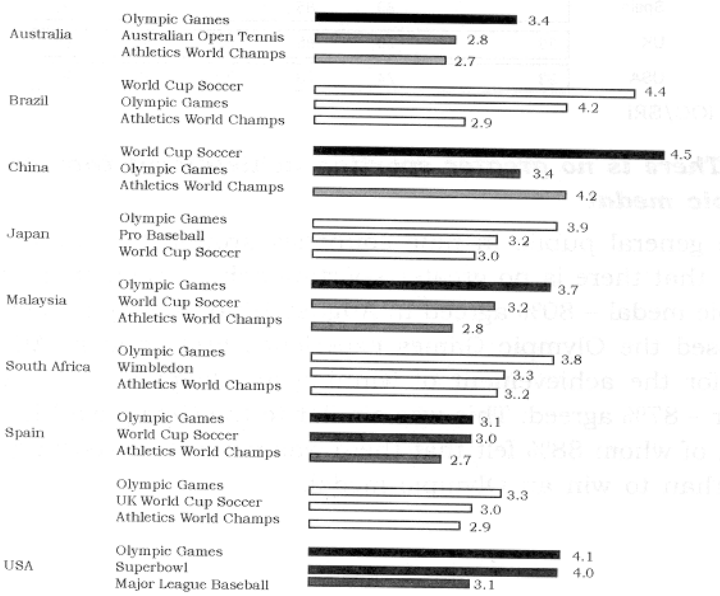
Source: IOC/SRÍ

3. *When compared to other sporting events, the Olympic Games evoked the greatest level of interest*

Research conducted during the Atlanta Games period in nine countries around the world showed that from among a selection of



Top rated sports events



sporting events the Olympic Games were rated top. On a rating scale from 1 (no interest) to 5 (extreme interest), the Olympic Games scored an average of 3.8.

Conclusion

The Olympic Games are considered to be the most superior sport event of the world. It creates the peace, harmony, spirit and powerfulness among the mankind. From the Ancient Greece until the present, it is still the greatest sports event. The IOC cooperates with other main organizations in running it successfully. To be an Olympian is the ultimate dream or target of any athlete. Behind the success, sponsors are also the important part to ensure the financial stability. Most of all, the amount of spectators who view the events can show the extreme success of the Olympic Games.

Bibliography

1. Servan, Flanklin-Schreiber. Fact sheets, IOC. Lausanne, Switzerland, 2000.
2. Jackson, Roger. Sport Administration Manual 1998 IOC. Lausanne, Switzerland.
3. The National Olympic Committees' Manual of the Olympic Marketing Programme.
4. International Olympic Academy. "Report of the 38th session 15th July-30th July 1998", Ancient Olympia.
5. International Olympic Academy. "Report of the 35th session 5th July-18th July 1995", Ancient Olympia.
6. International Olympic Academy. "Report of the 37th session 7th July-22ncl July 1997", Ancient Olympia.
7. Meenaghan, Tony. "Olympic Market Research Analysis Report". 1985-1996, Centre for Sports Marketing Studies, Dublin, Ireland.

HUNGARIAN OLYMPIC ATHLETES IN THE MIRROR OF AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

by Orsolya PINTÉR *(HUN)*

Introduction

It is a grate pleasure to be here on the 8th International Post Graduate Seminar on Olympic Studies and speak about the social characteristics of Hungarian Olympic Athletes. Many people know of Hungary's beauty: its capital called Budapest, its flat side with many folklore traditions called Hortobágy, and its real tourist place called Lake Balaton. You might also heard about our paprika, gulyás, and excellent vines.

Hungary has been taking part in the Olympic Movement since the really beginning. The sport life of Hungary has seen several transformations since the first Olympic Game in Athens. Especially rapid and radical changes occurred in the last two decades, when the significance of sport scientific centres, which deal with the social aspects of sports are more and more increasing in Hungary. One of the main centres of social research on sport in Hungary is the Social Sciences Department of the Semmelweis University, Budapest (the so called Hungarian University of Physical Education). The professors and their assistants, as well as the students of the department have carried out numerous scientific studies and works on different areas of Hungarian sport life.

One of these studies was concerned with the Hungarian Olympic Athletes of the 1980-1996 Olympic Games. The sociological research and the collection of the data was obtained in mid 1990s'. The results of this research was gathered and published by Gyöngyi Szabó Földesi in the book entitled "Semi-amateurs, Semi-professionals" (Földesi, 1999). A similar research was carried out by the same author on the 1948-1976 Hungarian Olympic Athletes entitled "Hungarian Olympic athletes about themselves and sport" (Földesi, 1986).

My presentation is mainly based on the results and statements of Földesi's previously mentioned book. The aim of this paper is to

discuss some of the specific topics of the book and to add some additional information for the better understanding of the 1980-1996 time period.

Amateurism and Professionalism

I can not circumvent this issue since the title of the book "Semi-amateurs, Semi-professionals" already addresses the issue of the distinction between "amateurism and professionalism". However, attempting to define "What constitutes an amateur athlete?" is as hard as trying to define the concepts of "sport", "game" and "play".

To create an overview on amateur and professional contemplation of Olympic Movement, I made use of the writings of John Lucas "From Coubertin to Samaranch": The Unsettling Transformation of the Olympic Ideology of Athletic Amateurism (Lucas, 1988) and D. Stanley Eitzen "The Sociology of Amateur Sport: An overview (Eitzen, 1989). In this part I will focus on the time period which last from the presidency of de Coubertin to the early years of the presidency of Samaranch.

The upper classes of mid nineteenth century England adored amateur sport. As the historian Ronald A. Smith wrote "the heart of amateurism (...) is social elitism, born in Victorian England by the upper classes to execute those of the working class" (Smith, 1988). The upper-class aristocrat did sporting activity for the pleasure of sport (especially the winning of the game was important for them) rather than making money by playing the game.

Pierre de Coubertin did not support the British mandate that members of the lower-class were disallowed amateur athletic competition. He wanted those suffering from poverty in his Olympic Games; but he wanted them to abide by set of rules, which were socially and, just as importantly, psychologically from an "alien" world. De Coubertin and the IOC supported the strengthening of the pure amateur code of absolutely no financial gain from athletic competition. Financial rewards were not allowed in the new Olympic Games.

Only little changes occurred concerning athletic amateurism, which was so-favoured by de Coubertin and his court, and so widely ignored by many of the era's top athletes through the leadership years of Bailler-Latour, Edström and Brundage. The word of "ama-

teur" is still to be found in the 1967 Rules, which states that the athlete must have a "real job" or "basic occupation" (IOC Rules, 1967) The next president of the IOC, Lord Killanin took the risky but necessary decision to move away from de Coubertin's model of pure amateurism. Killanin was impartial to capitalist athletes partially supported by corporations, and the state-supported athletes from socialist and Soviet bloc nations (Killanin, 1983).

Killanin was forced to make changes and he did so in 1973. The word "amateur" disappeared from the Olympic Charter that same year. Rule 26 on "Olympic Games Eligibility" had to be changed. He made liberal interpretation to the old "broken time" support system, gave greater autonomy to each federation regarding in deciding who cannot be regarded to be an amateur and he also stated that any money from sponsors must go "to the national federation or NOC and not to the individual (Killanin's Speeches From 1972 to 1981, Lausanne 1985, p. 49).

Lord Killanin's commitment to modifying Rule 26 and adding a By-Law 26 to the Olympic Charter is remembered as the most significant change during his presidency. Killanin's By-Law 26 allowed athletes, with federation permission, to earn money with their athletic fame. They could put this money in a "trust found" and borrow it when needed (with permission), and keep it all when their non-professional sporting days are over.

After Killanin left office in 1980, Juan Antonio Samaranch became the leader of the new realistic version of the Olympic ideology. In 1981 he states that the Olympic Games were the most important sport festivals of modern times and for them to remain so "we must allow the best athletes to take part, excluding real professionals" (Samaranch, 1981).

The Eleventh Olympic Congress in Baden-Baden, Federal Republic of Germany (September 23-30, 1981) emphasised the definition of professionalism instead of amateurism. The unfair "pure amateur" rules of the past times had undergone major transformation.

As it is obvious from this short overview on amateurism and professionalism in the Olympic Movement till the beginning of the last decade the description of an amateur or a professional athlete was never unambiguous and it is not so also today. The Hungarian top athletes were in paradox status in the past and also in the present.

While the athletes of the Olympic games were required to be amateurs, similarly to all top athletes in the Eastern Block, the Hungarian top athletes were only state - amateurs, in other words semi-amateurs, for they were financed by public money because of political reasons. Since the International Olympic Committee has changed its policy on amateurism and the Olympians have earned money with their sport performance, the status of Hungarian top athletes became semi-professional. This fact can be explained by the transformation of the so-called socialistic economy towards a market-based economy, which caused an intermediate situation in Hungarian society, and hence also in Hungarian sport.

1989/199O political system change in Hungary

The second circumstance I would like to mention before presenting the results of the book on the Hungarian Olympic Athletes, is the Hungarian political system change of 1989/1990.

The research of Földesi was concerned with the members of Hungarian Olympic Teams between 1980 and 1996. I think it is necessary to talk about the consequences of the 1989/1990 political system change, since this occurred during the above mentioned time period of the research.

At this point it is necessary to mention that the research and the book represent not only the opinions and life style of the Hungarian Olympians but also give an exact picture about Hungarian sport life in general. Since the Olympic sports were of high priority to the Hungarian Sports Leadership for decades and the Hungarian sport policy also remained focused on the Olympics after the 1989/1990 political system change. Mainly the Olympic sports were representing the Hungarian elite sport for decades.

The radical political and economical changes at the end of the eighties and the beginning of the nineties had significant impact on Hungarian society, including Hungarian sport. The socialist model of sport collapsed and was followed by a new social structure with different expectations.

The changes of the Hungarian society are discussed on the basis of Gyöngyi Szabó Földesi's study on "Transformation of Hungarian sport after the 1989/1990 political system change" (Földesi, 1996). Currently, I only have the possibility to introduce the main charac-

teristics of this transformation which can be displayed in the following categories

1. State control - versus - civil society
2. State funding - versus - "?" (lack of protection)
3. Centralisation - versus - decentralisation
4. Party decisions - versus - governmental conceptions
5. Commands from the East - versus - going West.

For each of these groups several examples can be found in the sport life of Hungary, thus the presentation of such examples could be a topic of an individual paper.

About the research

The research of the Social Sciences Department was concerned with the members of the 1980-1996 Hungarian Olympic Teams. Hungary did not take part on the Olympic Games in Los Angeles in 1984, but the Olympians were forenamed to the Olympic Games. Their participation was cancelled right before the commencement of the Los Angeles Olympic Games, hence the life of these Olympians was conditioned by the preparation for the 1984 Olympic Games until the last minute, thus they were included into the research as the members of the Olympic Teams of 1984. The number of Olympic Athletes in this "shadow" Olympic Team was 217.

Between 1980 and 1996 there were five Olympic Games, 1980 Moscow, 1984 Los Angeles, 1988 Seoul, 1992 Barcelona, 1996 Atlanta.

Number and percentage of Olympians in the research compared their number in the Olympic Teams*

Year of the Olympic Games	Number of Hungarian Olympians	Number of Olympians in the research	The percentage of Olympians in the research
	N	N	%
1980	261	251	88,5
1984	217	127	58,5
1988	188	164	87,2
1992	217	206	94,9
1996	212	166	78,3
Total	1095	894	81,6

* Based on: in 1980 and between 1988-1996 the participated, and in 1984 the forenamed Olympians

The total numbers of Hungarian Olympians on the five Olympic Games was 1095. Some of the Olympians participated on more than one Olympic Games, so the real number of the Olympic Teams is approximately seven hundred.

The research covers the 81,6% of the Hungarian Olympians, which is considered as a high percentage. As it is visible on the table above, the number of the accomplished interviews with the members of the Hungarian Olympic Teams was different in every Olympic year. The reasons for the missing interviews are

- the addresses of some Olympians were inaccessible despite our best intentions;
- some of the Olympians - mainly from the Olympic Team of 1984 - refused to give an interview;
- and unfortunately ten Olympians of this time period have already died in the middle of the 1990's.

Apart from the questionnaire-based data collection, 127 deep-interview and 173 detailed autobiographical reports were made with Olympians. Moreover, to get an exact picture about time period of 1980-1996, more than 200 people - coaches, sport officials, sport managers, sport doctors, sport scientists - were included into the survey by use of interview. The author and her colleagues on the department also consulted several experts in the written and electronic media.

Hungarian Olympic Athletes

Corresponding with the three main periods of an athlete's life cycle, the book "Semi-amateurs, Semi-professionals" consists of three major parts

- *"On your marks"* - preparation of athletes for their sporting ca reers;
- *"Wearing Hungarian Colours"* - basic demographic and status characteristics of Hungarian Olympians;
- *"A new game"* - the present situation of athletes who have already finished their sporting career.

In the following I will display one or two interesting topics of each of these parts. The quotations from the Olympic athletes and coaches are also form Földesi's book.

Preparation for sporting career

The first part of the book is concerned with the preparation of athletes for their sporting careers. The sport life of young athletes is demonstrated from the moment of their initiation into a sport until the day when they were selected to be a member of the national team. From the many interesting topics of this part I have chosen the one which deals with the circumstances influencing the Olympic athletes' sport selection in their childhood.

The table below is representing the opinion of the Olympic athletes on who influenced their sport selection. The table shows the differences in each of the Olympic years.

Who influenced the 1980-1996 Olympians in their selection of sport?*

	Female (%)					Male (%)				
	1980 n=61	1984 n=36	1988 n=33	1992 n=54	1996 n=47	1980 n=170	1984 n=91	1988 n=131	1992 n=152	1996 n=119
Parents	41	42	75	83	79	38	30	45	58	59
P.E. teachers	36	44	30	24	22	28	27	23	20	17
Friends	11	8	6	2	3	20	23	21	15	15
Coaches	25	17	18	20	19	14	22	22	18	16
Sisters and brothers	28	14	18	16	17	13	9	11	13	9
Other	17	6	6	11	8	5	7	5	4	5

* The Olympic athletes could name more than one person.

As it is visible from the graph, the biggest influence on the Hungarian Olympians sport selection comes from the parents. This is not accidental, since in most of the sports children start to compete at a very young age, when they are not able to make their own decisions, hence the parents have the chance to decide for them. It is obvious from the tables that from the Olympic Games of Seoul the role of parents in choosing sports has been increasing and at the same time the role of the education system has been decreasing. The decreasing influence of the education system can be explained by the fact that the Hungarian Sport Leadership gave less attention to the juniors from mid 1980s' onwards.

Parents usually supported their children towards sports, which have the best social "degree". But swimming, skating, rhythmical sport, gymnastics etc. can not hold that many juniors. So those children who were less talented in these sport had to switch sports several times. It has to be stated that at least these children avoided the one-sided training, although the systematic, many-sided training program would have been better.

"About Los Angeles with anger"

The second part of the book examines the basic demographic and status characteristics of Hungarian Olympians like their income, their social prestige, their educational level, their marital status, etc. At the same time the unsolved issues in the world of sport with which athletes have to cope, for examples drug use, health deterioration, devaluation of fair-play are also investigated. The author also discusses issues, which have never been studied before in Hungarian sport, like gay athletes' subculture, sexual harassment; or have hardly been touched upon like male domination.

In this part of my paper I would like to highlight one of the most interesting topics of this part, namely the Boycott of the Eastern Block on the 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games. I preferred this topic, since this is the first time that a Hungarian author speaks frankly about this painful issue of Hungarian sport life.

It is difficult to give an accurate and objective picture of the impact Hungary's non-participation on the 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games has had on the Hungarian Olympic Athletes' sport carrier, but as it is obvious from the following table, it clearly had a large impact on the 1984 Olympic Athletes' life. Their absence from the Olympic Games even had important consequences for the Olympians of the previous and following years.

This part of the book contains more quotations from the Olympic Athletes than the other parts. Despite the fact that to translate these quotations into English is really hard, I would like to try to introduce two of them as an example of how the Olympic Athletes think about this boycott.

Did the boycott of the Los Angeles Olympic Games affect the 1980-1996 Olympians' sporting career?

Olympic year	Respond of the Olympians					
	Male (%)			Female |%)		
	No	Yes, in a small extent	Yes, in a large extent	No	Yes, in a small extent	Yes, in a large extent
1980 n= 231	2	17	57	44	11	45
1984 n= 127	9	14	77	6	11	83
1988 n= 164	40	19	41	48	10	42
1992 n= 206	69	18	13	67	16	17
1996 n= 166	81	13	6	86	10	4

"For those athletes who were getting ready for four years, and were told 37 days before the journey that they could not go to the Olympic Games, was a disappointment for a whole lifetime" (Olympian of 1976 and 1980 and member of the forenamed team of 1984).

"...This fact had a main impact on every Olympians of that time. Many of them gave up and some of them remained, but the four years is four years. To be in a same condition after that many years is impossible. Let alone the age..." (member of the forenamed tern of 1984).

After finishing the sport career

In the third part of the book the author deals with the present situation of athletes who have already finished their sporting career. The age of their retirement from sports, the length of their sport career, their health status, and major reasons of their disengagement are examined. The writer outlines those problems the retired athletes have to face during their new, "civil career". She also discusses the difficulties of transferring sport fame into the civil life.

In this part of my presentation I would like to display the opinions of the retired Olympic Athletes regarding their present status of health.

Opinions of the 1980-1992 disengaged Olympians about their present health

Olympic year	Female (%)				Male (%)			
	good	middle	bad	total	good	middle	bad	total
1980	11	55	34	100 n=50	14	59	27	100 n=141
1984	12	50	28	100 n=27	19	60	21	100 n=71
1988	14	61	25	100 n=20	17	65	18	100 n=56
1992	15	63	22	100 n=9	24	61	15	100 n=33

It is obvious from the table above that the number among the disengaged Olympic Athletes who consider his/her present health as good is really low. It is interesting as the high percent of the retired Olympians attribute his/her bad health condition to their sport career. According to Földesi it would be a mistake to conclude this phenomenon, as the sport itself would be damaging for the health.

Conclusion

On the occasion of this presentation I tried to concentrate on the less discussed parts of the Hungarian sport life with the help of the research that was accomplished by the Social Sciences Department of the Semmelweis University. Along this presentation I was talking about

- The circumstances that influence the start of the Olympians' sport career,
- The opinions of the Hungarian Olympic Athletes about the boycott of Los Angeles,
- The opinions of the disengaged Olympic Athletes concerning their present health.

The book of Gyöngyi Szabó Földesi entitled "Semi-amateurs, Semi-professionals" is unfortunately only available in Hungarian. Nevertheless, a summary and the list of contents, as well as the list of tables can also be found in English. We can only express our hope

for its translation into English, since it would be useful for much research concerning the same issues in sport sociology.

In conclusion I would like to emphasise the need for similar research on Olympic and other elite sport athletes in the future, for these scientific studies are helping us to make proper decisions regarding Hungarian sport life. The Social Sciences Department of my university made some extra efforts in the framework of the ERASMUS program to carry out similar research on international level. Further contributions are more than welcomed from every researcher.

Bibliography

1. Eitzen, D. Stanley (1989): "The Sociology of Amateur Sport: An overview, In: International Review for Sociology of Sport, Vol. 24, 1989/2 pp. 95-104.
2. Földesi, Gyöngyi Szabó (1982): Hungarian Olympians About Themselves and Sport, Magyar Olimpiai Bizottság, Budapest, 1982.
3. Földesi, Gyöngyi Szabó (1996): Transformation of Hungarian sport after the 1989/1990 political system change". In: Magyar Sport Szellemi Körképe 1990-1995, OTSH-MOB, Budapest 1996.
4. Földesi, Gyöngyi Szabó (1999): Semi-amateurs, Semi-professionals, Magyar Olim piai Bizottság, Budapest, 1999.
5. International Olympic Committee, Rules 1967, p. 27.
6. Killanin, (1983): Eligibility and Amateurism, In Killanin and Rodda, The Olympic Games, 1983 p. 153.
7. Lord Killanin's Speeches From 1972 to 1981, Lausanne 1985, p. 49.
8. Lucas, John (1988): "From Coubertin to Samaranch": The Unsettling Transforma tion of the Olympic Ideology of Athletic Amateurism, In: Stadion, XIV, 1 Academia Verlag Richarz Sankt. Augustin, 1988, pp. 65-84.
9. Samaranch, Juan Antonio (1981): in The Times (London), January 29, 1981, p. 11.
10. Smith, Roland A (1988): Sports and Freedom. In: The rings of Big-Time College Athletics, New York 1988, p. 166.

THE INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF SPORT AND THE INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEE: TOWARD SPORT GLOBALIZATION

by Angel Maria GIL PAREJO *(ESP)*

The international development of sport

Although a sport practice may be similar across cultures, its meaning may be quite different in different cultures. Consequently, developing a sport internationally is a matter of finding ways to fit a sport into new cultural settings. As the size of the Games has grown and the number of non-European NOCs participants has expanded, two opposing forces have emerged regarding the Olympic Program. One force presses for program growth to slow; the other force presses for inclusion of new sports. Critics of the current program note that the Olympic idea has its roots in Western civilization, and that modern Olympism emerges from European concepts of competition and victory (Seppanen, 1989). Not only are indegenous Asian, African and American sports underrepresented, but there also is scant possibility for performances to be measured in terms other than "faster, higher, stronger". The key point is that sport is a category whose boundaries vary substantially from one culture to the next.

Although the governance of Olympic sports aptly illustrates the institutions that administer international sport, the vast majority of sports are not, in fact, included on the Olympic program. Sports governed by International Federations are designated in the Olympic Charter as Olympic sports.

To understand the international development of sport we must attend to: (a) relations between sport and culture and (b) the dynamics of sport diffusion.

The notion of "sports hero" and the celebration of champions that is common in Olympic-style sport are rejected by many cultures. Sports practices that emphasize competitive individualism might seen inappropriate or even threatening to persons whose culture

emphasizes cooperation over competition. Sport ceremonies that celebrates winners might threaten the egalitarian social customs that some cultures extol. The emphasis on sport result over sport performance might seen misdirected to spectators whose culture focuses their attention on the things a sport performance is intended to symbolize, rather than on outcomes. The fact that a sport's practice may be similar across cultures does not imply that a sport's meaning is the same in different cultures. Since this insight is pivotal for the development and promotion of sport internationally.

As regards sport diffusion, some strategies have been identified to foster sport internationally: (a) adapting sport practices to fit new cultural settings, (b) fostering the interest of elites (i.e., persons who wield political, social, and/or economic power), and (c) working entrepreneurially in communities to kindle interest in a sport. All of them are complementary strategies.

The globalization of sport

Sport is a subject to many of the same forces that are increasing the global distribution of consumer and entertainment products today. For example, Coca-Cola and the National Basketball Association (NBA) have similar international goals: increasing distribution and sales in foreign markets throughout the world. Both the NBA and Coca-Cola are responding to two forces that are stimulating international development. First, each has a need to find new markets in which to sell its products. Second, the increased use and availability of technology is making international distribution easier.

As the Olympic Games grew, the cost of financing the Games increased, and thus Games organizers were forced to rely more heavily on commercial enterprises. Concurrently with the growth of the Olympic Games, professional sport leagues and corporations have seized the opportunity to sell their products in international markets.

Corporations have realized that must look outside their boundaries to sell their products. The premise for a global strategy is basic: create products that have the same appeal and generate the same demand in all corners of the world. However, even these large companies found that in order to create demand, the product of advertising message must be adapted to account for differences in local culture and laws. Increasingly, sport organizations are eyeing a glo-

bal strategy. Efforts at globalizing the sport product can be seen on two fronts: (1) corporations are attempting to utilize the sport theme and sport products to enter the international marketplace, and (2) professional sport leagues are attempting to spread the popularity of their leagues and associated products (televised games, licensed sport products, etc.) overseas.

The activities of corporations involve with international sport can be grouped into two categories: efforts by manufacturers of sport-related products, and efforts by non-sport-related companies, which sponsor international sporting events, teams, and athletes to gain name recognition and thus sell their products in new global markets.

If it is the place where the competition is going to take place, the events planification, transformation of the rules, the event celebration or the creation of new disciplines, the organization and the evolution of sport in the future will obey to a simple logic of business and audiences. Thus, a production role is imposed by an external group of transnational corporations with the same interests. The role of the International Olympic Committee and International Federations as world institutions in charge of ruling is fading continuously and this benefits new structures for the sport world.

The future of sport in the global village

A boom in the global economy

Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990) contend that the rapid development of telecommunications is one of the factors driving development of the global economy. Information is being shared more quickly and more cheaply than ever before. Teleconferencing and global computer networking are making it possible to share information rapidly and without regard to distance. These new technologies make it possible for innovative sport practices to travel the globe at rates never before possible. The gap in knowledge between countries with sport research tradition and those where sport research in no yet developed is likely to shrink (cf., Rogers, 1983). The diffusion of sport knowledge will accelerate.

Increase interest in the Arts

Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990) claim that "the arts will replace sport as society's dominant leisure activity" (p. 84). They assert that

the artistic events, like ballet and opera, and venues of art, such as museums, will replace sports events end programs as preferred sources of entertainment. Thus, they contend that sport will find itself "in an increasingly competitive battle for people's leisure time and dollars" (p. 84). As a consequence, they argue that "corporate sponsorship of sports will plateau while arts sponsorship continues to grow" (p. 91).

If Naisbitt and Aburdene are correct, then sport organizations face new marketing designed to socialize children into sport participation and sport spectating are likely to become increasingly important for sport organizations (cf., Guber & Berry, 1993). Similarly, sports events and organizations may find it beneficial to link themselves to art, much as the Olympic Games have done by including the Olympic Arts Festival as one of the activities that surrounds the Olympic Games or the United States Sports Academy has done with its sport art gallery and presentation of the Sport Artist of the Year.

The development of "Free-Market Socialism"

One impact has been to increase the numbers of athletes from formerly communist countries who now seek to compete in professional leagues throughout the world. Although the professional leagues in many countries continue to restrict the number of foreign players who can be included on team posters, the trend for athletes to seek professional opportunities around the globe is likely to accelerate, adding new pressures to review restrictive rules of eligibility.

Cultural Nationalism

International sport teams become representatives of their place of origin. In most international competitions (e.g. regional tournaments, worlds championships, the Olympic Games), athletes and teams represent their country. Occasionally, however, they may represent local-level communities, as when professional soccer teams compete internationally.

There may be substantial interest in obtaining opportunities for international representation as an ethnic (rather than strictly national) group. As new multinational alliances like the European Community emerge, the significance of old national identities will be reduced. At the same time, local, regional, linguistic, and cultural identifications obtain increased significance. When this is the case, op-

portunities for international teams to represent entities other than nations may enhance the interest of athletes and spectators. It may prove effective to develop events wherein teams represent cities, provinces, or self-defined ethnic groups.

The privatization of welfare

To the degree that their projection can be generalized to sport, it suggest that public expenditures for sport services will decrease, and private organizations will be delegated responsibility for developing sport. This, in turn, will create opportunities for new business ventures supplying sport services that were once provided by governments.

The increasing importance of the Pacific Rim

First, nations of the Pacific Rim will have increasing potential as markets for sporting goods and services. Second, manufacturers or sporting goods and providers of sport services will face increasing competition from manufacturers and providers from Pacific Rim nations. Third, as the economies of these countries expand, so will the tourist travel of their citizens. As resorts and tourist destinations compete for the tourist dollars from the Pacific Rim, they will need to cater to the sport preferences of Asian travelers (cf., Inskeep, 1991).

Increasing number of women in leadership

Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990) note that "women have reached a critical mass in virtually all the white-collar professions, especially in business, which are being attracted at twice the rate of men" (p. 226). Thus, they contend that ability rather than gender will increasingly dictate who moves into management. If this is the case, entrepreneurship may become the preferred route for women into management of international sport enterprises.

Rapid advancement of applied biological sciences

Wining and, sometimes, even competing require technological capability. That, in turn, requires investment - often substantial investment. The requisite investments are beyond the capability of most developing nations. Consequently, the gap threatens to diminish in the long-term the interest that international transfer is becoming more rapid with the "boom in the global economy", the light-

ing factor in the use of this knowledge may be in its application through new equipment.

However, athletes of developing nations who have international potential must frequently relocate to developed countries in order to obtain state-of-the-art training and competition. Indeed, Olympic Solidarity's scholarship program is an explicit recognition of this necessity. Nevertheless, athletes who train overseas become "expatriate nationals". Their values as symbols of national unity is dilted (cf., Chalip, 1987; MacAloon, 1984).

Religious revival

Religious sentiments have found their way into international sport in three significant ways

- Organizations like the Fellowship of Christians Athletes provide an institutional basis for athletes to link their sports practices to their religious beliefs (Morton & Bueger, 1981). At international events, like an Olympic Games, organizations of religious athletes often sponsor religious services. These are often planned in the tradition of revivalist meetings.
- Evangelical groups plan and execute campaigns of evangelism at international sport events.
- Because religion is often synonymous with culture, an interna tional events manager must continue to monitor and provide for athletes ethnic needs, such as dietary habits and prayer require ments.

Increased individualism

Naisbitt and Aburdene (1990) argue that there is "new respect for the individual as the foundation of society and the basic unit of change" (p. 298). The contend that individual achievements will be increasingly rewarded, and entrepeneurial activities will increasingly dominate the political and economic landscape.

Bibliography

1. Bourg, J.F. (1997): "El deporte, una economia planetaria". In *El Estado del Mundo, Anuario económico y geopolítica mundial*, Editorial Akal, p. 52-55. Available on-line: [www.iusport.es/opinion/planeta.htm]
2. Chalip, L. (1987): *Multiple narratives, multiple hierarchies: selective attention varied interpretations, and the structure of the Olympic program.* In S-P. Kang,

J.J. MacAloon, & R. Da Matta (Eds.), "The Olympics and cultural exchange (pp. 539-576). Seoul: Hanyang University Institute for Ethnological Studies.
3. Guber, S.S. & Berry, J. (1993): *Marketing to and through kids.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
4. Hill, C.R. (1992): *Olympic Politics.* New York (USA): Manchester University Press.
5. Inskeep, E. (1991): *Tourism planning: An integrated and sustainable development approach.* New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
6. Landry, F., Landry, M. & Yerles, M. (1991): *Sport... The third Millenium. Proceedings of the International Symposium in Quebec City, Canada, May 21-25, 1990.* Saint-Foy: Les Presses de l'Université Laval.
7. Lucas, J.A. (1992): *Future of the Olympic Games.* Champaing, Illinois: Human Kinetics.
8. MacAloon, J.J. (1984): *La Pitada Olímpica: Puerto Rico, international sport, and the constitution of politics.* In E.M. Bruner (De.), "Text, play, and story: The construction and reconstruction of self and society (pp. 315-355). Washitong, DC: American Anthropological Association.
9. Morton, C. & Burger, R. (1981): *The courage to believe.* Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
10. Naisbitt, J. & Aburdene, P. (1990): *Megatrends 2000.* New York: William Morrow.
11. Seppanen, P. (1989): *Competitive sport and sport success in the Olympic Games: A cross-cultural analysis of value systems.* International Review for the Sociology of Sport 24, 24, p. 275-282.
12. Thoma, J.E. & Chalip, 1. (1996): *Sport Governance in the Global Community.* Fitness Information Technologies, Morgantown (USA).
13. Wright, G. (2000): Sport *Globalization.* Available on-line: http://www.olympic.org/ioc/e/news/review/olympic_econ_101199_e.html.

THE OLYMPIC ART COMPETITIONS AND MODERN ART

by Debra GOOD *(AUS)*

Introduction

The works entered in the Modern Olympic Games Pentathlon of the Muses - or Olympic Art Competitions - may not have been avant garde, or even groundbreaking but they should have a part in the current postmodern art historical discourse and research.

In his paper Pierre de Coubertin's Olympic exploration of modernism 1894-1914: Aesthetics, Ideology and the Spectacle Douglas Brown has dismissed the Olympic Art Competitions claiming its "dull history" has distracted Olympic research from the real focus of Coubertin's aesthetic ideals. For Brown the cultural component of the modern Olympic Movement, "has been embraced without so much as a pause to contemplate its origin or significance."[1] Brown's paper focuses on the influence of English art critic John Ruskin on Coubertin's aesthetics.

This paper will discuss the claim the history of the fine art competitions, held at each Olympic Games between 1912 and 1948 - during part of the most dynamic period in modern art history - is "dull." To do this requires a brief examination of art history, art management and Olympic politics at the time. No apologies are made for its focus on the visual art competitions and the exclusion of any discussion of the broader cultural policies, themes and issues that also play a part in Olympism.

Both space and time have limited the scope of this paper which raises more questions than it answers. It is the product of preliminary research serving as a foundation for a doctoral degree.

The Pentathlon of the Muses - The Modern Olympic Games Fine Art Competitions

Brown writes that when describing the 1906 Consultative Conference of Art, Letters and Sport that led to the introduction of the

art competitions - "history books have inflated the significance of the Fine Art Competitions at the expense of a more vital but also more complex and esoteric discourse that took place [Eurythmie: Sport, Architecture and the Fête Sportive]."[2] Until recently "history books" may have included a paragraph or two only partially telling the story of the arts at the Olympic Games and far from being 'inflated' the art competitions have been, more often than not, misrepresented.

Coubertin's Modern Olympic ideology is a broad and eclectic mix of diverse influences. Brown's paper presents an interesting discussion on the influence John Ruskin had on Coubertin's cultural vision for the modern games but is too restrictive. It also places too much emphasis on the discussions held at the conference. To begin with, as Coubertin wrote in his memoirs, he was disappointed by the absence of "great" artists at the conference. He admits this was probably because of the short notice given for the conference - suggesting the conference was hastily organised as an excuse for not attending the 1906 Athens Games - not just to officially introduce art to the Games.

Brown also ignores the plethora of other influences on the founder of the modern games and argues Coubertin placed as equal an importance on the 'arts, aesthetics and beauty' as he did on sports. It could also be argued that Coubertin clearly placed an importance on culture but was less concerned with the details of its inclusion only because of the comparative position and value of the arts in the broader contemporary international environment.

Despite Brown's argument, in today's academic environment the absence of an art historical discussion on the fine art competitions is notable given the size of the discourse discussing the sociopolitic, economic and cultural/aesthetic history of the body.

Although Olympic research is increasingly focussed on the cultural policies and programmes of the Olympic Games media and spectator focus is still on the sporting festival and the opening and closing ceremonies. Other cultural events at the Games have not commanded anywhere near the same level of spectator and athletic interest or media focus.

On the 31st of March 2000, Le Temps journalist Nicolas Julliard wrote of the art competitions - *The Pentathlon of the Muses* "Unfor-

tunately they never functioned well because the organizing countries tended to promote their own candidates. Finally, the great artists of the time did not themselves enrol in these competitions." But great artists of the time could not enter the competitions because entry was restricted to amateurs. The other charge - countries promoted their own has some truth but is not absolutely true. To focus on this issue ignores other more pertinent management problems associated with the competitions which also help explain why this occurred. The nature of these other issues have been identified by Olympic scholars, including Germany's Carl Diem and England's Donald Masterson but they have not been fully acknowledged - instead criticism has focussed on a stated mediocrity or partially thought-out arguments on amateurism.

The official reports repeatedly point to the management problems organising committees encountered in hosting the arts competitions, particularly the continually evolving regulations and the subsequent growth in categories. Another problem was the amount of time given in advance notifying of the competitions. Berlin's official report states that: "A considerable period of time was required... before the artists of the world could be convinced of the necessity and the object of such a mission, or before they recognized the close connections between art and sport clearly enough to find in sport a suitable inspiration for their creations and artistic forms."[3] As early as 1908, the London Committee had suggested entry forms should be sent out at least three years in advance of competitions as part of its justification of not hosting the arts competitions.In 1932, LA's manager Leila Mechlin suggested at least two years in advance as a suitable period of time. Despite this, Berlin sent out entry forms little more than 12 months in advance - but later reported a lack of interest in the competitions by artists.[4]

Masterson's extensive list of reasons given for the termination of the arts competitions included the lack of publicity for the arts events, the absence of an international arts organisation comparable to the sports' international federations, the unsuitability of sport as the sole artistic subject; the fact that few of the arts competitors actually attended the Games and that the artworks themselves did not always satisfy the criteria of sports as the subject. The often

reluctant commitment of the organising committees in the planning of the cultural programme is significant, but not often cited in research. Despite Douglas Brown's claims that research has focused on the dull history' of the fine art competitions, since they first appeared at the modern Olympic Games in Stockholm in 1912, National Organising Committees have struggled to appreciate or understand the role and significance of the cultural games and have either been unwilling or uncertain of how to integrate the arts with the sporting games. Today, despite the size, budget, success and national importance of recent Cultural Olympiads, it is one of the least known of international art festivals among both art world professionals and the general public.

A sacrifice on the altar of amateurism

After an extended debate that took place over a number of years the competitions were finally laid to rest, sacrificed on the alter of amateurism in 1954. In July 1953, IOC President Avery Brundage issued a circular letter on Fine Arts Competitions to IOC members which ultimately influenced the outcome of a final vote on the future of the competitions held in 1954 at the Athens Session of the IOC Executive. While the letter identified some of the issues mentioned above its main focus was on amateurism. He wrote

> *"One can be practically sure that under present conditions the winners of Olympic Fine Art medals will do everything possible to capitalise on their victories professionally. This... is not beneficial to the Olympic Movement. Despite the study that has been devoted to the subject and the lengthy discussions, however, no satisfactory conclusions have been reached. In 1952 we tried exhibitions instead of competitions because we did not want to give Olympic medals which are reserved for amateurs, to professionals. The result was anything but successful and the rule now calls again for competitions. "*[5]

and continues

> *I do not approve of staging Fine Arts competitions or exhibitions unless they are of the same high standard as the sport events...if you examine the records you will find that half the*

time the entries have been so mediocre that medals have not been awarded, even by sympathetic judges. (A total of 22 out of 167 medals were not awarded) [6].

Brundage's letter concluded that a shift to "special exhibitions, would ensure higher standards, eliminate any possible commercialization, and probably attract more general interest". History proves this has not been the case. These "exhibitions" have evolved into Olympic Arts Festivals with their own unique characteristics. Australia's own Olympic Arts Festival Director Leo Scofield acknowledged in his weekly newspaper column recently "Oddly, most people appear to be unaware a program of performing and visual arts has been a requirement of all modern Olympics"[7]. Scofield's comments are the latest in a long litany of similar journalistic pronouncements.

Today, cultural festivals held in conjunction with larger events such as the Olympic Games, Commonwealth Games and World Exhibitions struggle to acquire a commensurate profile with the main event. The Olympic Arts Festivals are often seen to be merely tacked on as entertainment for the spouses and are not appreciated for their raisson d'être, as an essential part of the Olympic ideology. The history of the Olympic Games Art competitions is far more interesting and complex than has been presented so far. They are intricately tied to the history of art management, the history of modern art and the history of exhibiting art.

A history of Art Exhibitions

Douglas Brown argues "Coubertin proposed a style of architecture that he described as harmonious eclecticism"[8]. It could be argued Coubertin adopted the notion of "harmonious eclecticism" in every aspect of the Modern Olympic Games. Coubertin was a pragmatic idealist adapting a plethora of influences and events for one purpose: the success of Olympism.

While the Modern Games are modeled on the Ancient Games they are also influenced by the Zappas Games held in Greece and Coubertin's visits to The Much Wenlock Games in Shropshire, England's private school, Rugby and International Exhibitions, some of which included art competitions. By the second half of the nineteenth century International Exhibitions had evolved into "epic" events that included large scale entertainment facilities. Paul Greenhalgh writes

The Franco-British Exhibition of 1908 "was the single most important cultural event of the period... covering a 140-acre site and boasting modern train and bus services to connect it to Central London. It was a spectacular affair, with opulent pavilions in a mixture of styles, an artificial lake and endless entertainment facilities. Restaurants, fair-ground rides, sideshows, theatres, shops and a huge sports stadium were interspersed amongst the fine and decorative-arts buildings, the science and technology halls and the administration blocks....and the superb gardens echoed to the sounds of orchestras and brass bands playing in the numerous bandstands. Art and science gave the whole a sound pedigree. The Palace of Fine Art in particular attracted comment for four supurb displays, of French Art 1200-1800, Modem French Art, British Art 1300-1800 and Modem British Art[9]

The 1908 London Games were deliberately held in conjunction with the Franco-British Exhibition in White City, like the 1900 Paris Games and 1904 St.Louis Games both of which were held in conjunction with the Parisian Exposition Universelles and American World's Fairs in St. Louis. According to Greenhalgh the exposition held in Paris in 1867 "was the one which in various respects set the pattern for all the others, especially in the realm of mass education. The event was heavily under the sway of the Saint-Simonians, the most prominent of these being Raymond LePlay,....[who] with his fellow organisers and allies, Jules Simon and Michel Chevalier, made educational idealism into a permanent ingredient of the Expositions Universelles."[10]

The influence of LePlay on Coubertin is now well documented. Greenhalgh points that it was the more popular "entertainments" or "pleasure facilities" that attracted the most attention the exhibitions, writing

"...the tone and atmosphere of the fine-art sections remained at a constant dryness throughout the nineteenth century, due to the influence of Ruskin and the Pre-Raphaelites on the one hand, with their moral haughtiness, and to the Royal Academy on the other, with its self-conscious imperialism. The mode of display enhanced the mood of selected works, as row upon row of dou-

ble-hung images, labelled and framed in careful uniformity, attempted to elevate the visitor with their anecdotal virtue... these rows contradicted what many then considered... the actual role of painting... which is ultimately bound up with the expression of human joy, love, dignity and tragedy. The potential for aesthetic consumption was sacrificed to fulfil maxims of the Victorian schoolroom".[11]

By the time the Pentathlon of the Muses first appeared at the Olympics in 1912 Modern Art had raised a storm in both Europe and the United States. In the private sector, away from the philosophies, ideals and modes of display of the Expositions Universelles and World Fairs, art was setting its own pace. Even though the management, display and advertising of art were still evolving. Martha Ward argues

"...exhibitions came to be portrayed as historical actors. In the period just before World War I, art exhibitions were promoted as events that would leave in their wakes transformed viewers and revolutionized artists. The Sonderbund exhibition in Cologne in 1912, the Post-impressionism shows in London in 1910 and 1912, the Armory Show in New York and Chicago in 1913, all were cast in the role of bringing modernism from foreign shores to their respective cities."[12]

These exhibitions were not intended to supplement the displays ultimately aimed at reinforcing the moral and social ideals and work ethics at the foundation of every universal exhibition and world fair, but rather worked to smash aesthetic tradition and their accompanying cultural/social ideals. It is this art, the art of Marcel Duchamp, Francis Picabia, Cezanne, Matisse, Monet, Manet, Juan Gris, and numerous others which now competes for space on the walls of the world's most famous "modern" art galleries and today defines "modern art".

As part of the History of Art

It is impossible to define "modern art" in this paper. Within the boundaries of "modernism" exist a number of 'isms' with their own characteristic, styles, colours and aims. In the evolution of modern art, subject matter became secondary to the style and skill of the

artist. For many artists it wasn't what you painted that mattered, but how you chose to represent it. Others on the other hand, used their subject to represent the "modern". Richard Bretell writes "Works of this sort could be painted in a wide variety of modernist styles or in careful replications of academic practice, but their chief value... was in the skilful, and clearly recognizable, representation of a modern subject" (Bretell, *Modern Art: 1851-1929,* pg.87). The modern subject included landscape, leisure activities and popular entertainments but often changed with the style. At all times art-works presented an element of morality, reflections of industry, social class, human achievement-humanity as it was, not as it should have been.

In *The Painting of Modem Life: Paris in the Art of Manet and his Followers,* T.J. Clark wrote

> *"It has sometimes seemed an intractable problem, ...Not so much that leisure and pleasure were chosen to be painted in the first place ....but that they survived as the new art's favourite theme and underwent such a potent series of transformations: ...leisure had become a mass phenomenon, a separately capitalized sector of social life in which great profits were to be had. Recreation took on increasingly spectacular forms: the park, the resort, the day at the river or the races, the café-concert, the football league, the Tour de France, and finally the Olympic Games".*[13]

Entrants in the Pentathlon of the Muses were not the avant garde of modern art they were not breaking down stylistic boundaries - but they were part of the "modern". Pierre de Coubertin wrote in his memoirs "The main stumbling block can be summed up in a few words: fear of the classical. The young artists who considered classical and stereotyped as synonymous, were obviously those on whom the success of the scheme would depend."[14]

It is uncertain if Coubertin was championing the more classical school of art or on the contrary, advocating the "modern" in this quote. What is clear is that those artists who entered works in the Olympic competitions practiced a broad range of aesthetic styles from impressionism, futurism and classicism through to realism; the subject of sport did not limit the Olympic artists to traditional styles of representation.

In 1883 Jules Laforgue wrote of Impressionism:

"Even if one remains only fifteen minutes before a landscape, one's work will never be the real equivalent of the fugitive reality, but rather the record of the response of a certain unique sensibility to a moment which can never be reproduced exactly for the individual, under the excitement of the landscape at a certain moment of its luminous life that can never be duplicated....Subject and object are then irretrievably in motion, inapprehensible and unapprehending.

In the flashes of identity between subject and object lies the nature of genius. And any attempt to codify such flashes is but an academic exercise".[15]

Bretell argues "The struggle to achieve what Laforgue called a flash of identity between subject and object was almost universally accepted as the duty of the modern artist". One aspect of that flash' is the quintessential truth - not a truth in pictorial representation but to expression of a thought, emotion or moral.

One of Richard Bretell's main points is "...the art museum, with its ideas of political power or personal memorial, stretched itself to include the promotion of the taste and ideas of men and women with the means and the leisure to make the best judgements about contemporary works of art. All this is not to say that the public has not benefited enormously from this enterprise. Rather, it is to point out the fundamentally private, and hence limited, nature of the vision put forward by these worthy figures." (ibid. p. 216)

Conclusion

This study is suggesting that the history of the Modern Olympic Games Pentathlon of the Muses has been lost by a succession of disinterested administrators and scholars. Today, there is no single collection of photographs detailing the works, or collection of the works themselves and more to the point there is no single art historical analysis of these works. Given this, it is puzzling how Mr. Douglas Brown can dismiss these works as "dull". As Mr Bretall points out, our historical appreciation of art has been determined for us. Museums of Modern Art throughout the world are only:

"the accessible diagrams of a terrifyingly vast human realm in which we can play, which we define, and through which we become ourselves."[16]

Douglas Brown's paper raises a pertinent question in relation to today's Olympic Arts Festivals that evolved out of the Olympic Art Competitions. If the history of the competitions is dull, why does the Movement insist on the Festivals today as they too continue to experience the same identity issues as the competitions?

The works submitted for the Pentathlon of the Muses were not just about sport - they were about Olympism. They were on the one hand the material manifestation of sporting events that were otherwise over within seconds or minutes, but more than that they were the manifestation of an ideology that, despite having roots in the Ancient world, were essentially modern.

Notes

1. Douglas Brown, *Pierre de Coubertin's Olympic exploration of modernism 1894-1914: Aesthetics, ideology and the spectacle,* Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, Washington, June 1996.
2. Ibid.
3. The Xlth Olympic Games Berlin Official Report, 1936 Official Report. Volume II by Organisationskomittee Fur Die XI Olympiade Berlin. 1936 E.V., p. 1106.
4. Ibid., pg. 1111.
5. Aveiy Brundage, Circular Letter to the IOC, July, 1953.
6. Ibid.
7. Scofield, Leo, *The Sunday Telegraph,* April 23, 2000.
8. Brown, Ibid.
9. Paul Greenhalgh, *Education, Entertainment and Politics: Lessons from the Great International Exhibitions,* in The New Museology, Reaktion Books, London, 1989. p. 88.
10. Ibid., p. 89
11. Ibid., p. 88.
12. Martha Ward, What's *important about the History of Modern An Exhibitions?,* Think ing About Exhibitions. Routledge, London, 1996, p. 459.
13. T.J. Clark, *The Painting of Modem Life: Paris in the Art of Manet and his Followers,* Thames and Hudson, London, 1985. p. 203.
14. Pierre de Coubertin, *Olympic Memoirs*
15. Richard Brettell, *Modem Art: 1851-1929: Capitalism and Representation,* Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1999. p. 86.
16. Ibid., p 217.

Bibliography

1. Brettell, Richard, R, *Modern Art: 1851-1929: Capitalism and Representation,* Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1999.
2. Brown, Douglas, A., *Pierre de Coubertin's Olympic exploration of modernism, 1894-1914: Aesthetics, ideology and the spectacle,* Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, Washington, June 1996.
3. Clark, T.J., *The Painting of Modem Life: Paris in the Art of Manet and his Followers,* Thames and Hudson, London, 1985.
4. Conrad, Peter, *Modem Times, Modem Places: Life & Art in the 20th Century,* Thames and Hudson, H&Y Printing Ltd., Hong Kong, 1998.
5. Coubertin, Pierre de, *Olympic Memoirs,* International Olympic Committee, Lausanne, 1979.
6. Dickinson, G., Lowes, *The Greek View of Life,* Methuen & Co. Ltd., London, 1960.
7. Good, D., *The Olympic Games' Cultural Olympiad: Identity and Management,* Master of Arts Thesis, American University, Washington D.C., 1998-9.
8. Greenberg, R., Ferguson, B.W., Nairne, S., eds., *Thinking about Exhibitions.,* Routledge, London, 1996.
9. Guttmann, Allen, *The Olympics: A History of the Modem Games,* University of Illinois Press, Urbana and Chicago, 1994.
10. Hobson, J.A., *John Ruskin Social Reformer,* 3rd edn., James Nisbet & Co., Ltd., London, 1904.
11. Knight Margaret, *Humanist Anthology: From Confucius to Bertrand Russell,* Barrie & Rockliff, Great Britain, 1961.
12. Ruskin, John, *Lectures on Art,* Introduction by Bill Beckley, Allworth Press, New York, 1996.
13. Taine, Hippolyte, *Notes on England,* Translated with an introduction by Edward Hyams, Thames and Hudson, London, 1957. 14. Vergo, Peter, ed., *The New Museology,* Reaction Books, London, 1993.

OPPORTUNITIES AND CONSTRAINTS TO PROMOTE THE SYDNEY OLYMPIC ARTS FESTIVALS[1]

by Beatriz GARCIA *(ESP)*

1. Introduction: Research background

Originally, the Olympic Games were supposed to bring an opportunity for the enhancement of the arts in conjunction with the sports competitions. French Baron Pierre de Coubertin funded the Modern Olympics in 1896 inspired by the ancient Greek tradition of quadrennial celebrations of athletics and the arts held in Olympia from 776 B.C. to 395 A.D. and expressed repeatedly his vision of the Games as a marriage of sports and the arts, signifying an ideal combination of the strength of body, mind and spirit (Carl Diem Institute 1966). The current Olympic Charter acknowledges this aspiration in section 44, where it establishes that the host city must develop a cultural program alongside the sporting events.

The nature of these programs or Cultural Olympiads (CO) has varied since the first time they took place in 1912 (Good 1998). In any case, despite the consistent commitment of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) to maintain the CO as an integral part of the Olympics, the cultural program has not achieved the outstanding international profile of the sporting events (Good ibid). The research undertaken to write this paper has confirmed the observation of Good that the CO receives hardly any media attention and both Olympic sponsors and audiences seem to be unaware of its existence, while arts organisations and governments have provided varying support.

The paper intends to prove these statements by offering a general review of the opportunities and constraints of promoting the current CO, the Olympic Arts Festivals (OAF) leading to the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. The main purpose is to determine the extent to which the aims, themes and activities of the four proposed festivals are being met and acknowledged, and discuss the reasons for possible dysfunctions between the planning and implementation stages of the program. The Sydney case should help to distinguish among

intrinsic and contextual problems in the application of the Cultural Olympiad concept.

2. The Sydney 2000 Olympic Arts Festivals: From planning to implementation

One distinguishing feature of the Sydney Olympic bid in 1992 was the ambitious character of the proposed cultural program. Following earlier initiatives by Barcelona and Atlanta, Sydney promised to cover the complete period of the Olympiad in the lead up to the Games (four years). The unprecedented decision to do so with different themes and emphasis each time to reflect Australia's diverse cultural character has repeatedly been defined as a relevant factor in winning the right to host the Games (McDonald 1994). The festivals' motifs, objectives and programs are summarized below

Year, name, length & location	Theme/ mission	Objectives	Program
1997 *The Festival of the Dreaming,* September to October (Sydney)	Celebration of the world's indigenous cultures, especially those of Australian Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders	General: expand a greater awareness and appreciation of Australian indigenous heritage. Specific: ensure indigenous authorship and control of the work presented	30 exhibitions, 14 dance and theatre productions, eight performance troupes, 50 films, a literature program, three concerts and special commissions involving overseas indigenous artists. Every state and territory of Australia was represented.
1998 *A Sea Change,* June to October (national)	A 'snapshot' of Australia's diverse migrant cultures. An exploration of the country cultural "transformations"	General: create a time-capsule of Australian culture in the end of the Millennium for generations to come Help people across the nation learn more about the arts in their country and demonstrate the importance of its geographic and cultural diversity	92 presenting companies and 122 dance, theatre, visual arts, literary, music and education events. Highlights: lighthouse and harbour concerts; touring exhibition *Sculpture by the Sea.* Publications: Anthology of Australian writing and photography

Year, name, length & location	Theme/ mission	Objectives	Program
1999 ***Reaching the World.*** November 1998 to January 2000 (international)	Events by Australian companies and artists touring to countries in each of the five regions represented by the Olympic symbol	General: bring Australian arts and culture to the international stages; Specific: establish collaborations with foreign governments and arts organisations	70 events travelling to 50 countries and 150 cities or towns including dance, music, theatre, visual arts, literature, films, architecture and design. Publication of *Australia on Show,* a guide to Australian Arts Broadcasting
2000 ***The Harbour of Life,*** August to October (Sydney)	Culmination of the Olympiad, "a festival on a scale to match the grandeur of the Games"	General: define the finest elements of Australian culture; present works on grand scale, unlikely to be seen again in a lifetime; establish artistic legacies	75 day-event focused in the harbour and Opera House - opera, theatre, dance and classical concerts; 30 visual arts exhibitions in key galleries and museums

The programming and production of each festival has been subject to changes depending on the social, economic and political climate in which they have occurred. These changes have affected the festivals' budget and resources allocation, and have ultimately influenced the ability to promote them and secure public awareness in the period preceding the Olympic year. Below is a list of factors considered to have affected the promotional potential and public status of the festivals either in the planning or implementation stages. They are grouped as opportunities and constraints for promotion.

For *The Festival of the Dreaming,* a good promotional opportunity was the politically charged climate in Australia in relation to the so-called *reconciliation process* with Aboriginal people which reached a peak by 1996 (Hanna 1999). This helped raise private and public funds or in-kind support and attracted massive media coverage. Other promotional opportunities came from the festival success in breaking *new ground for Aboriginal art* as it assisted to incorporate Aboriginal culture into mainstream cultural venues. An important constraint for promotion in the Games context was, however, the failure to establish a clear *Olympic Association (*Good 1998). After

the festival launch in July 1997, most media coverage did not include references to the Olympics (ibid). Furthermore the logo, though achieving wide recognition, did not assist in the task to promote the Olympic motto due to the marginal role the Olympic emblem played in its central iconography.

In the case of both middle festivals, *A Sea Change* and *Reaching the World,* a good opportunity was their *long exposure* which led to a varied *community involvement.* Their year long format allowed the integration of a wide range of events including flagship companies, community artists and institutions, children's shows and regional centres which were appealing to many different publics. They also had the opportunity to develop a *nationwide* and *international presence* respectively. Nevertheless, a key constraint for expanding awareness was, in the first place, their extremely *limited budget.* Both festivals counted on a budget smaller than $ 2m each, and as a result, most events were not produced thanks to or because of the OAF (Good 1998) and were not directly inspired in the festivals' mission statement. This led to an *inconsistency of subjects and approaches* that, together with the *dispersion of events in time and space* prevented most media from offering a consistent coverage.

The last festival, *The Harbour of Life* has many outstanding opportunities for promotion. In the first place, this the festival considered *'THE' Olympic Art Festival* by its own right, thanks to its being held shortly before and alongside the Games. In order to capitalize on this opportunity all OAF promotional material is focused on the Olympic imagery. Furthermore, all posters and publications including the festival's logo refer to it as the 'Olympic Arts Festival' instead of *The Harbour of Life,* its original title in the Bid documents. Other opportunities are the existing *international expectations,* as all participant nations will have their eyes on Sydney and expectably will be interested in knowing about its cultural background or its current quality of life. There is also the strong commitment to *showcase excellence,* manifested in the emphasis on large-scale events and the presence of international stars. Finally, there is the *location focus on the Harbour which* will secure the festival's impact by concentrating most venues in the same area, and most events in the same venue, the Australian icon, the Opera House. Interestingly, most of the constraints for promotion seem to be a direct result of the prior oppor-

tunities. In the first place, although the association with the *sporting events* will offer the OAF great occasions for media coverage, they will also be their *hardest competitor* as the Olympic concept is primarily related to sport and sport will be the first choice both for public and media, regardless of the efforts to prevent agenda clashes. Secondly, there is a threat to the festival image and credibility due to the *regular criticism by a section of the Australian arts community* during 1998 and 1999. They have denounced the excessive focus on international events, which has affected the possibility to offer a fair Australian multicultural representation in the final program, and the remarkable venue monopoly of the Opera House, which has prevented suburban and regional involvement. Finally, a critical constraint is the *lack of media agreements* so far. There is not a clear strategy to insert arts vignettes alongside the sporting competitions program to secure worldwide coverage and this will make extremely difficult to put the festival into the 'global' stage.

In summary, looking at the promotional impact of the OAF as a whole, the general public is likely to consider the *Harbour of Life* as the only truly 'Olympic Festival'. In this regard, the choice to focus on the harbour and the notable predominance of major companies' performances has opposed the original concept of a diverse festival showcasing a multicultural Australia. The decision to design the OAF to include such a varied program of activities during such an extended period of time in so many different places should have prompted the organisers to anticipate the difficulties of getting all festivals consistently publisiced an associated in the public's mind. To maximise their promotional impact, the Olympic motto should have been reinforced from the very beginning, and, as suggested by Good, the selected events should have shown a real link or unifying mission statement.

3. Context within which the Festivals occur: Corporate structures and networks

To determine the reasons why the festivals' initial mission and objectives have been difficult to achieve and why designed programs have been difficult to implement and promote adequately, it is necessary to understand the position that the OAF has within the Olympic host city preparations and the interest that existing and potential

stakeholders may have had in getting involved. The corporate structure and priorities of the Sydney Organizing Committee for the Olympic Games (SOCOG) play a key role in this regard. To understand it, it is critical to remember what is considered to be its main responsibility currently: to secure the success of a seventeen day event.

3.1 The role of SOCOG: What measures success in the Olympic Games?

Since 1984, the emphasis on corporate investment and media exposure has been fundamental to the development of the Olympic Games as the biggest peacetime event on the planet, securing enough funding to build the most ambitious installations and plans, the most ambitious competitions that an organising committee could imagine. It looks like the international humanist and modernist values of de Coubertin have been transformed into post-modernist global trade objectives and strategies. Sporting competitions and venue management in general have been adapted to this new reality. Interestingly, the role and sense of the OAF is still presented in the idealistic manner that characterised the first period of the Modern Games. This might explain why the Cultural Olympiad has not yet benefited from the increasing strategic opportunities offered by staging the Games.

Repeated interviews with marketing managers and assistants from the OAF department as well as community relations, sponsors liaison and media partners departments have reinforced the impression that the promotional and funding strategies of SOCOG have a very different effect on the sporting competitions and the arts festivals. Below is a list of relevant factors

1. In terms of sponsorship, the unique contributions of the highly successful Olympic Marketing programs, both worldwide -*The Olympic Partners* **(TOP) and nationwide** -*Team Millennium Partners,* **are not extended to the Cultural Olympiad.** Both programs attract high levels of investment by top range multinational corporations thanks to the so-called *exclusivity* principle which allows only one company by product category to be involved as Olympic sponsors. This opposes the general profile of arts sponsorship deals, where most interested companies belong to the same product area (banking, media, luxury brands). Furthermore, *the high investment required* ($40 million plus) clashes with the reduced and highly se-

lective primary target market of arts related marketing plans. As a result, most corporate managers are likely to see the OAF as the least cost-effective aspect of the Games, unable to compete with the appeal of the opening and closing ceremonies, torch relay and sports events (Jeffrey 1999, pers. com.).

2. In terms of media coverage, the worldwide exposure resulting from the lucrative Olympic TV broadcasting rights does not have a direct effect on leveraging the OAF. As argued by Good (1998), to date, specific clauses to guarantee the coverage of cultural activities associated to the Games have not been established. Donald McDonald, chairman of the Sydney 2000 Cultural Commission, mentioned in 1995 the possibility of creating a national cultural channel to cover all artistic activities, but by April 2000, there had not been any advance on this direction.

3. In terms of communication strategies, the mainstream Olympic promotions, publicity campaigns and community events are not directly associated with the arts festivals. In Sydney, the OAF has its own marketing and publicity department, working independently from the Communications and Community Relations (CCR) department. This arrangement may look like a logical decision considering the very specific needs of the festivals, but it relegates the OAF to a secondary place within the general Games communication campaign which receives a higher allocation of resources and is able to develop more impacting community programs. In 1999, the official presentations of the mascots, the educational program and the torch relay, received stronger media attention than both 1998 and 1999 Arts Festivals together. Another point worthy of remark is the way SOCOG's internet site has been designed; by mid 2000, the pages providing information on venues, time schedules or the history of Olympism do not include references to the OAF.

3.2. *Involvement and support of other OAF stakeholders*

Other key stakeholders considered to have the ability to influence on the Sydney OAF achievements are public bodies (Australian federal, state and local governments), Australian arts organisations, the mass media and private corporations, in particular, Olympic sponsors. The space limitations of this paper do not allow a detailed review of each stakeholder interests and expectations, nonetheless, in order to determine possible reasons for their level of involvement,

the reference to each of then is accompanied by the question assumed to be most relevant to understanding their approach to the OAF.

The public sector: *What deserves government support?* The Australian government is currently dominated by a rationalist approach to the arts (Nugent 1999). Consequently public bodies have supported the OAF considering their potential to create trade opportunities rather than for encouraging community participation and guaranteeing a fair national representation in the festival. As an example, the Australian Tourism Commission, for which the arts do not play a key role in the country image campaigns (White 2000, pers.com.) has been one of the bodies allowed greatest funds for promoting the Olympics, OAF included. Contrastingly, arts funding authorities such as the Australian Council have not received extra allowances for assisting "Olympic cultural projects" and have been unable to counterbalance the limited dedication of SOCOG to the arts program.

Australian arts organizations: *How is a unique arts opportunity created?* Arts groups around the world are usually opposed to the Games due to the fear to lose funds and media opportunities in benefit of sports. Nevertheless, after learning about the OAF, most Australian arts institutions showed an interest in participating and offering advice (Brown 1999, pers. com.) In any case, once the successful 1997 Aboriginal festival was over, SOCOG's inability to provide real opportunities to develop new projects and embrace emerging artists led most groups, especially those ethnic and community based, to feel skeptical about the festivals' benefits and renovate their bad impression on the Games. This has resulted in some rather negative publicity during 1998 and 1999.

The mass media: *What makes relevant a news story?* Although the two main Australian publishing companies happen to be Team Millennium Partners and have developed special Olympic outlets since 1997, they have not seen the OAF as a major resource of Olympic news stories due to the constraints explained in section 2. The fact that the principal paper of one of these companies *(The Sydney Morning Herald) is* the OAF official presenter has not helped to guarantee continuous and detailed coverage of the cultural events besides the publication of each festival program. In words of the paper Olympic editor, the OAF events do not provide the same level of controversy and human interest as the political and economical

issues, the infrastructure!, technical and sporting preparations leading to the Games and are therefore barely able to become Olympic headlines.

Olympic sponsors: ***How to capitalize on Olympic investment?*** For reasons commented in section 3.1., Olympic sponsors have not seen the OAF as a cost-effective area of investment in the Olympic context. Furthermore, SOCOG has been unable to provide the festivals with the strong corporate appeal of the sporting events and, beyond that, the strict Olympic marketing regulations have constrained the possibility to attract alternative private investment. This is remarkable in the case of those **private corporations** that are long term sponsors of arts organizations involved in the OAF program, since these companies are likely to seek a proper recognition of their support to the arts in the Olympic context and might be willing to provide extra funds. However, not only they have been denied a participation, but, following further Olympic regulations, during the period of the Games they have been requested to clear their logos and other corporate signs from the venues or art groups they traditionally support. This may have provoked internal controversies between the arts companies and their sponsors or even lobbying processes for withrawal from the OAF.

4. Conclusions and recommendations: The ultimate role of an Olympic Arts Festival

The difficulties associated with the promotion of the Sydney Games cultural program seem to be the result of a mixture of lack of information, lack of realistic planning and lack of coordination. The extremely ambitious promises of the bid stage could be taken as a condemn for failure rather than a achievable inspiration considering the notable lack of funds and resources allowed to realise them.

A fundamental constraint has laid in the very corporate structure of SOCOG, which has been strongly influenced by business interests and strategies according to the current state of IOC priorities (ie. securing worldwide media coverage and high levels of private investment for the Games). In this regard, neither the existing Olympic marketing imperatives take into consideration the specific needs of a cultural festival nor do the Cultural Olympiad aims seem to have been adapted to these imperatives. The effect in Sydney, as in other

Olympic cities (Good 1998), has been the progressive relegation of the OAF to an unfortunate secondary position. Interestingly, other dimensions of the Games defined as "cultural" (by opposition to "sportive") such as the Opening and Closing ceremonies and the Torch Relay enjoy great media coverage and public recognition, sometimes superior in nature to the sporting competitions. They are all dimensions of the Games that have been adapted to the Olympic marketing imperatives.

The OAF promotional constraints are also the result of a poor networking exercise among festivals' stakeholders. It looks like SOCOG has not been able to forecast the varying interests and expectations of the OAF potential stakeholders, and has therefore depended on their own initiatives to improve the festivals' conditions rather than providing strong motivations for their involvement.

The paper has discussed the opportunities and constraints for promoting the Sydney 2000 Olympic Arts Festivals. Nevertheless, it is relevant to place them within the difficult problem of expanding awareness on the original Cultural Olympiad concept itself. As commented in Good's thesis (1998) Pierre de Coubertin dreamed of creating an environment in modern society where artists and athletes were mutually inspired, a key component of the ideal being the association of arts with sport. Nevertheless, this goal has been put aside long ago and has not been used to increase the appeal of the arts activities in an Olympic environment. Kidd has referred to Mexico '68 and Munich '72 as the two last true reminders of this tradition (1999, pers. comm. 24 Sep).

The reason for abandoning the commitment towards Olympic arts activities related to sports exclusively seems to be associated to the feeling that it would limit the variety of works presented and the artists' freedom of expression (Good 1998, Burnosky 1994, Levitt 1990). Another likely reason could be the resulting constraint to showcase representative events of the host city culture. However, it could be argued that this decision has also affected the possibility of effectively integrating the arts in the Games, and has ultimately limited the possibility for artists and host culture exhibitions and shows to profit from the Olympic worldwide exposure. Going back to the Sydney example and its promotional limitations, the OAF has not shown consistent commitment to leverage the potential link of

arts and sport. Firstly, none of the festivals has consistently explored sport-related themes, and the eventual exhibitions of artworks inspired on sport have not had any remarkable role in the main program. Further to this, the promotion of the Olympic motto within the festivals' iconography has been faint up to the last festival in year 2000. Secondly, during the Olympic Games, there will be an enormous contrast between most art locations (Opera House at Sydney Harbour in the city centre) and most sporting locations (Olympic Park at Homebush, city suburb). As a result, the cultural and sporting spaces are most likely to be seen as separate areas/separate experiences, if there is not a strong commitment towards joint promotions. Without them, people attending one site for the sports will not necessarily attend the other for the arts. Interestingly, the excellent initiative to present Mahler's 'Symphony for a Thousand' in the Sydney Superdome at Olympic Park, will a one-off event performed one month prior to the Games opening ceremony. Once the sporting competitions start, the Olympic Park will not stage any OAF event.

Final remarks

The original concept of Cultural Olympiads may need to be updated and adapted to present times to increase its opportunities for promotion. Nonetheless, the genuine principle of breaking barriers and mixing up leisure and educational categories is far from being old-fashioned and unappealing to the public. The concept of sporting events has been completely transformed since the introduction of television. They have become fundamentally an entertaining and 'cultural' experience, of which the Olympic Games are the most evident example. Working towards a more explicit and acknowledged integration of the artistic perspective within the sporting context should not be seen as an unreasonable utopia but the logical result of these evolving transformations. This integration would also result in a deeper involvement of athletes and Olympic spectators in the cultural program which would therefore become much richer and relevant to the Games.

In order to effectively change the existing trend of Olympic Arts Festivals as a marginal misunderstood event, there are certain questions that both current and future Olympic arts managers, organis-

ing committee representatives, IOC members, government agents, potential sponsors and scholars should think about:

1. *What is the purpose of presenting highly ambitious Olympic Arts Festivals bids when the festivals' program implementation results are so poorly acknowledged?*
2. *Would it be beneficial for an Olympic Arts Festival to reduce 'high art' aspirations and be more approachable to guarantee accessibil ity and popularity?*
3. *What should be the balance between 'artwork' investment and 'pro motions' investment in such an unknown event?*
4. *Is the budget allocation the most relevant factor in ensuring the success of an Olympic arts festival or should we better say there is a need to improve stakeholder network strategies?*
5. *What level of commitment should be expected from an Olympic organizing committee to enhance the cultural activities in the context*
   . of the sporting competitions?
6. **Finally,** *what is the REAL role of an Olympic arts festival? Is this role being accomplished?*

Note

1. This paper is based on a report presented as part of the requirements for an MA course at the University of Technology of Sydney (Garcia 2000). This report will be the basis for a PhD dissertation directed by Prof. Miguel de Moragas i Spà at the Centre for Olympic Studies at Autonomous University of Barcelona.

Bibliography

1. Australia Council (1999) *Support for the arts handbook,* AC, Sydney.
2. Burnosky, R.L. (1994) *The history of the arts in the Olympic Games,* (MA Thesis) The American University, Washington DC.
3. Carl Diem Institute (Ed) (1966) *Pierre de Coubertin, The Olympic Idea: Discourses and Essays,* Editions Internationales Olympia, Lausanne.
4. Commonwealth of Australia (Eds) (1994) *Creative Nation. Commonwealth Cultural Policy,* Canberra.
5. Departement of Communication & The Arts (1996) *Business sponsorship of cultural activities,* Canberra.
6. García, B. (2000) *Potential impact of the Cultural Olympiad in the host city and country. Case Study: Opportunities and constraints of promoting the Sydney 2000 Olympic Arts Festivals* (report presented under the requirements for a MA Course at University of Technology, Sydney).
7. Good, D. (1998) *The Olympic Games' Cultural Olympiad: Identity and Management,* (MA Thesis), The American University, Washington DC.

8. Hanna, M. (1999) *Reconciliation in Olympism, The Sydney 2000 Olympic Games and Australia's Indigenous People,* University of New South Wales, Sydney.
9. IOC (1997a) *Olympic Charter,* IOC, Lausanne.
10. Levitt, S.H. (1990) *The 1984 Olympic Arts Festival Theatre,* (PhD Thesis) Univ. California Davis. California.
11. Monreal, L. (1997) "Sport, Olympisme et Culture" in: *Coubertin et l'Olympisme. Questions pour l'avenir,* Rapport du Congrès du 17 au 20 sept 1997, CIPC, Le Havre.
12. NSW Ministry for the Arts (1999), *Cultural Grants. 2000,* NSW Ministry for the Arts, Sydney.
13. Nugent, H. et al. (1999) *Securing the Future: Major Performing Arts Discussion Paper,* DCITA, Canberra.
14. Radbourne, J.& Fraser, M., 1996, *Arts Management, A practical guide,* Allen & Unwin:, Sydney.
15. Schofield, L. (1998) *The Sydney Weekly,* 21 Dec 98: 5.
16. Stevenson, D. (1997) "Olympic Arts: Sydney 2000 and the Cultural Olympiad" in: *International Review for the Sociology of Sport* (vol. 32, n. 3 1997) pp. 227-238.
17. Usher, R. (1999) *The Age* (9 Mar) p. 21.
18. SOCOG (1995) *Cultural Olympiad. Sponsor information kit,* Sydney.
19. SOCOG (1997) *Festival of the Dreaming. Complete Guide to the Festival,* Sydney.
20. SOCOG (1998a) *Festival of the Dreaming. Final report,* Sydney.
21. SOCOG (1998b) *Annual Repon,* Sydney.
22. SOCOG (1998c) *A Sea Change. Complete Guide to the Festival,* Sydney.
23. SOCOG (1998d) *Olympic Marketing. Marketing communications manual,* Sydney.
24. SOCOG (1999a) *A* Sea *Change. Final report,* Sydney.
25. SOCOG (1999b) *Harbour of Life. Complete Guide to the Festival,* Sydney.
26. SOCOG (1999c) *Team Millennium Olympic Partner Workshop* (march) Sydney.
27. SOCOG (1999d) *Reaching the World. Complete Guide to the Festival,* Sydney.
28. SOCOG (1999e) *Summary Budget: Olympic Arts Festivals. Figures from JDE,* Sydney
29. SOCOG (1999f) *SOCOG revised Games budget. News Release,* Sydney, 22 July.
30. *Sponsorship of the Sydney 2000 Paralympic & Olympic Games* (1997) AMR, Sydney
31. Sydney Bid Books (1993) Sydney Bid Ltd, Sydney.

Personal Interviews

1. *Brown, Karilyn* Program manager, *Olympic Arts Festivals, SOCOG* int by Beatriz Garcia (15 Sep 99).
2. *Cochrane, Peter* Olympic editor of *The Sydney Morning Herald* (13 Oct 99).
3. *Couttie, Sue* Publicity manager, *Olympic Arts Festivals, SOCOG* (23 Aug 99).
4. *Frost, Glenn Marie* Gen. manager *Communications and Community Relations, SO COG* (17 Sep 99).
5. *Good, Debra* Cultural Olympiad Researcher, *University of NSW* (informal interviews Jun- Aug- Sep 99).
6. *Hassall, Craig* General manager *Image, Special Events and OAF, SOCOG* (Jul 99 & Nov 99).
7. *Jeffrey, Adam* Group manager, Sponsorship and Olympics, *Telstra* (Aug 99).
8. *Keigheri, Victoria* Policy officer in the *Cultural Affairs and Protocol Unit, City of Sydney* (Aug 99).

9. *Kidd, Bruce* Dean of the Faculty of *Physical Education, University of Toronto* (24 Sep 99).
10. *Marinos, Lex* Ex-Director Carnivale, member *SOCOG Multicultural Advisory Com mittee* (13 Sep 99).
11. *McDonald, Donald* Chairman *SOCOG Cultural Commission,* interviewed in *Arts To day* (Dec 94).
12. *Sulway,Susan* Marketing manager for the *Olympic Arts Festivals, SOCOG* (14 Sep 99).
13. *White, Maggie* Manager, Olympic Games Liaison, *Australian Tourism Commission* (3 Mar 00).
14. For further references please contact the Centre for Olympic Studies at Autono mous University of Barcelona, E-mail: hyperlink "mailto:iceo2@cc.uab.es" or the author, E-mail: hyperlink "mailto:beatriz.garciag@cc.uab.es".

OLYMPIC SOLIDARITY AND SPORT GLOBALISATION PROCESS

by Mansour AL-TAUQI *(OMA)*

Introduction

Sociologists have taken different approaches to theorise the diffusion of sport throughout the globe. For some the diffusion of sport was considered as part of a process of cultural imperialism, while for others it referred to modernisation or homogenisation. It has been also classified as an element in the civilising process. However, most of these approaches acknowledge the role of transnational organisations in shaping modern sport as a global phenomenon.

There is no doubt that the greatest influence that has shaped modern sport and its globalisation has been the establishment of an international bureaucracy, international governing bodies, and more notably, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) in 1894. The legitimisation of these agencies in different countries and on the international scene was accompanied by dramatic changes in foundation of societies.

The president of IOC specified the ideology of the Olympic Solidarity (OS) Commission and pointed out that, "for the IOC, ensuring that the Olympic Games are a truly universal phenomenon is not meaningless talk, but a constant preoccupation" (cited in Miller, 1992). Currently, OS has twelve different programmes that provide financial, technical, managerial, and educational aid for 197 National Olympic Committees (NOC) in the five continents. This aid is very likely to increase due to the additional members joining the IOC every year.

Locus (1992: 91) states that "it has become a fact that the Olympic world family of sport international federations and NOCs has come to depend on Solidarity stipends, financial allowances that have taken on a life of their on... and for many NOCs, any decrease in money would be a hardship". The significance of OS is not limited to financial and technical support it is also extended to issues of power and participating in decision making. The IOC president,

Samaranch, in defining the work of OS suggests that "this assistance gives strength which accentuates NOCs identity and personality in their countries" (Olympic Solidarity Fact sheet, 1999). In addition, Gross-Traverso (1999:149) supports this notion by pointing out that the assistance received from the IOC through OS, has given NOCs a certain independence and hence a place in the decision-making process regarding sport development in their own countries. NOCs having had the financial resources to carry out their sport development programmes, enjoy to a certain extent the autonomy of function away from the government control.

To date there has been relatively little research on the development of OS. Most of the studies that do exist so far (e.g. Lucas, 1992); (Miller, 1992) have been limited to the level of describing and providing some historical background without paying much attention to the managerial and political aspects of the phenomenon. It is evident from the above outline that it would be beneficial to shed light on this important programme and investigate how it is provided and consumed and more importantly to pose question about whose interest does it promotes. It has also been indicated that there is a need to review future needs and possibilities of OS in order to achieve change through the existing superstructure of the Solidarity Commission (Gross-Traverso, 1999; Lucas, 1992; Final report 1995: 327).

This paper seeks to describe the ongoing Ph.D. research project of analysing OS policy and its impact on shaping the world sport order in this globalising era. Theories of globalisation will be examined, as well as the history of the creation of the Olympic aid commission. Finally, a link between OS and modernisation and cultural imperialism thesis will be illustrated.

Generally, the aims of the ongoing research project will be approached in three levels. First, at the *macro* level, the focus will be to analyse the ideology of OS and its change over time, and the rationales for developing such programmes. Second, at the *meso* level, an analysis of mechanisms for developing programmes at national level will be carried out. Third, at the *micro* level, selected national OS projects will be examined. It is believed that such investigation will contribute to the study of the globalisation of sport by furthering our understanding in the area of transnational transfer of competitive sport organisational practices from local to global and

vice versa. In addition, the role of the international agency (IOC) as an important mediator of the transfer will be examined.

Theoretical background

The diffusion of sport in the global system as suggested by Girginov (1998) could be generalised in three essential styles of globalisation: legitimised exchange, introverted diffusion, and the imposing of a new patterns of development. The first is illustrated by the exporting of rugby as English culture to America. The cultural product (rugby) was then transformed to a different national sport (American football). In this type of diffusion the contribution of the two parts involvement is acknowledged. The introverted diffusion was shown by the case of Germany's striving to outbid or to be better than England as an appreciation of their own culture and distaste for what is foreign. The nature of this kind of influence presupposes substantial political and economic involvement on behalf of the state. The last style of sport diffusion is also known as "holistic", and was illustrated by the case of Soviet-style physical culture as well as the spread modern sport in the developing societies. "Its starting point is the rejection of past sporting experiences, including values, structures and even personal achievements on ideological, pseudo-scientific and economic grounds, and the introduction of a distinct set of integrated practices... which is described as a holistic attitude" (Girginov, 1998:120). These styles of sport diffusion and its impact on the world sport system lead us to pose questions about the IOC programmes of sport promotion and the interests that it is promoting.

Sociologists in explaining these types of sport diffusion in the global arena have followed different approaches. One of these approaches is the modernisation thesis. It is closely linked to functionalism. It was the dominant paradigm in this research area until the 1970s. The approach is essentially concerned with how traditional societies reach the condition of modernity. The approach focuses on the economical, political, cultural, and social aspects of this process. Consideration is given to development of political institutions that support participatory decision-making. It assesses the use of technological innovation, management techniques, division of labour, and commercial activities in carrying out human tasks. The

changes that occur in societies are seen to be accompanied by urbanisation and the decline of "traditional societies".

The modernisation approach tends to assert that the effect of these trends leads to homogenisation as most societies all over the world eventually follow the western model of development (Maguire, 1999). King (1995), in his discussion about the criteria he attributes to modernity and its definition noted that the definition proposed is not just in relation to history but to one very specific history, which is basically, that of "the West".

Probably the best known of the economic contributions within the tradition of modernisation theory is that of Walt Rostow (1960). The author conceived development as a number of stages linking a state of tradition with what he called "maturity". This development was analysed primarily as an endogenous process. Five stages through which all developing countries had to pass in order to achieve modernity were proposed: 1) The traditional society, 2) the pre-condition for take-off to economic growth, 3) the take-off stage, 4) the road to maturity, and 5) the society of mass consumption. According to the author, international relations did, in fact, speed up the process of development. Rostow (1960) differed from the early development theorists by his much broader approach, but the key element of his thinking was, nevertheless, the process of capital formation.

In cultural terms, followers of the modernisation thesis explain that what we are experiencing in the global arena is simply another manifestation of modernisation. As Guttman (1991) notes

> *"While terms such mundialisation and globalisation are a welcome reminder that the social transformation of the present century are something more than a matter of unidirectional American influence, the concept of modernisation is preferable because it also implies something of the nature of global transformation. Whether conceptualised in terms of... the traditional and the modern, the particularistic and the universalistic, or some other admittedly simplified dichotomy, every one with a historically informed imagination recognises that there has been a social transformation in the last two centuries and that this transformation has produced a more secular and a more rationalised world, if not a more rational one" (p 188).*

Moving the discussion to the sport arena and its relation to the globalisation phenomenon, researchers who have employed the modernisation thesis to explain the cultural diffusion of sport stress the manner in which traditional sport is subject to modernisation processes. Gruneau (1988) has identified five contingent arguments that characterised the application of modernisation theory to sport. First, modern sport is an outcome of a progressive evolution. Second, sport has become increasingly democratised resulting in a greater opportunity for minority groups. Third, the development of modern sport is viewed as rational to the demand of urban industrial societies, emerging from the need for the rational organisation of games. Fourth, social conflicts in sport were simply transitory features of the emergence of modern sport. Fifth, there is a supposition that the characteristics of sport are essentially homogenous throughout modern societies, hence there is a tendency to view the model of modern sport as providing the model for societies in transition.

Eric Wagner (1990) reviewed a different set of trends that have been said to characterise a global sport. The author commented on the increasing global interconnectedness of sporting culture proposing that " the larger international process of development and modernisation...are fundamentally responsible for the change of the word sport" (p.400). This notion suggested that for traditional societies that undergo changes, their populations might be more receptive to Western sport. The chief concern in Wagner's work is to place the notion of Américanisation within the broader process of globalisation of sport. However, the researcher also observed that "Américanisation" is part of these processes.... but it is only one part of much broader process it is not by itself the key process. Therefore, he proposed the concept of 'mundialisation', which emphasised that the inputs in the sport global arena come from different part of the world. In supporting the modernisation thesis that is fundamentally responsible for changes in world sport. Wagner (1990:401) argued that as modern societies develop and traditional lifestyle changes, many young people look around for things to do to replace traditional ways of living...as urban/industrial/town/service jobs replace traditional rural ones, young men and increasingly young women search for pastime, and cultural forms that transform via media, such as soccer and basketball, may catch their attention. However, it could

be argued that the changes in world sport could not solely be attributed to the search of passed time, there are other economical, political forces responsible for the transformation of world sport.

Guttmann (1991) supported the modernisation thesis saying that Wagner was correct to insist that we are witnessing a homogenisation of sport rather than Americanisation, and that the concept of modernisation is preferable because it implies something about the nature of the global transformation.

The second approach on which this paper focuses, that explains the diffusion of sport in the global system is cultural imperialism. This approach developed the investigating of cross-cultural processes between societies. The cultural flow is identified with activities undertaken by the nation-state and/or multinational corporations. These activities entail a form of domination of one culture over another. Issues of control, power, and ability of indigenous people to understand, interpret, and resist cultural manipulation and domination arise in evaluating these types of studies. The idea of invention of an indigenous culture by a foreign one is central to an understanding the process involved. The main focus of the cultural imperialism approach is placed on the notion that the globe is made up of collection of nation-states in competition with each other, it views the world as an integrated political economical system of global capitalism.

Globalisation as cultural imperialism also identifies as that culture relationships as basically a reflection of the economic power relationships in the capitalist world. The driving force of globalisation is exploitation and ideological manipulation of societies and people as markets, consumers and labours. Recently, similar views to this have been referring to under the terms "Americanisation" and "commercialisation". Cultural imperialism is closely associated with the matrix of interests that tie capitalism to particular states, and thus given its economic dominance, in particular the United States.

In reviewing literature that utilised Américanisation notion to illustrate the cultural imperialism in sport practises, the work of Hoehn & Syzmaski (1999); Wilcox (1996); Adrews, Carrington, Jackson and Mazur (1996); Jackson (1994) provide evidences that support the domination of American culture in global modern sport. However, although these studies have acknowledged the strength of American culture, they have tended to assert that a comprehensive

understanding of Américanisation must address its complexity beyond a simple case of cultural imperialism. Issues such as appropriation of cultural form and strategic use to serve particular political interests within receiving countries should be taken in to account.

Researches have also utilised the cultural imperialism approach to explain the Western domination of transnational sport organisations such as the IOC and FIFA. For example Eichberg (1984:97) suggested that Olympism is a "social pattern" that reflects the culture of the Western (and East European) industrial societies. He points to several negative consequences of Olympism, such as, sciencetification of sport, drugs, and violence. The author explains that these excesses are not accidental or marginal, but logically related to the configuration of western Olympic sport, with its emphasis of "faster, higher, stronger". In this perspective Olympism is seen to reflect the colonial dominance of the west, and its remarkably successful spread across the globe.

Guttmann (1993:131) argued that the intense ritualism associated with the Olympic Games has emphasised the European origins of the Games and has made it necessary for non-western nations to participate in the Olympic Movement on western terms. The author investigated the IOC from 1954 up to 1990, He traced the process of IOC members recruitment, the origins of sport that constitute the Olympic Games programmes, the managerial structure in which sport is organised, and the geographical location of countries that have hosted the Games. The author's results illustrate the domination and the control of Western culture in the body of the Olympic movement. Similarly, Thomas and Chalip (1996) conclude that the majority of the world sport, particularly those whose origins were not European are excluded from the Olympic Games (see also Kidd, 1989; Seppanen, 1989).

Sugden and Tomlinson (1998) in their investigation of who rules "the peoples' game" noted that UN and UNESCO as transnational organisations depend excessively for material support upon the core nations of the developed countries. This dependency undermines their power to challenge the status quo. They argue that "economic dominant nations exercise limits to their tolerance of radical debate concerning the world order" (Sugden and Tomlinson, 1998:227). In the light of this argument Sugden and Tomlinson suggest that the

European countries if they feel their interests have been most damaged by the progress of the emergence of other nations in the football world, may withdraw from FIFA. As a consequence of this action FIFA would struggle financially since (as claimed by UEFA) Europe generates 80% of the game's global turnover and thus makes the greatest financial contribution to FIFA.

Sociologists have also used other approaches to explain the sport diffusion process in the global system. These approaches include figurational sociology that sees the spread of sport as a part of the "civilisation process", and dependency theory that illustrates how former colonised countries are still depending economically and culturally on colonisers. These theories are crucial in understanding the sport aid phenomenon and they will be examined in the development of the research project, though for pragmatic reasons they are not disarmed in this paper.

Olympic Solidarity history

Olympic solidarity is a body responsible for managing and administrating the share of television rights of the Olympic Games that is allocated to National Olympic Committees (NOCs). It exercises this responsibility in accordance with specific programmes of technical and financial assistance approved by the OS, which is chaired by the president of the IOC. The origins of OS date back to 26 June 1961, at the Athens Session of the IOC, when Conte de Beaumont (IOC member in France and Executive Board Member) proposed the creation of a committee to provide aid to countries on the point of gaining independence, particularly in Africa and Asia. Members appreciated the proposal but it was considered difficult to carry out. Thus, it was suggested to set up a working group to investigate the applicability of this proposal. The group consisted of Comte de Beaumont (France) as Chairman, Andrianov (Soviet Union), Gemayel (Lebanon), Alexander (Kenya), Touny (Egypt), and Sondhi (India).

At the 1962 session in Moscow, the working group was announced and it was called "Comité d' Aid International Olympique" (CAÍO). The early aim of the CAIO was to convince African countries to join the IOC family by promoting Olympic sport and its friendship ideal. Beaumont visited Africa and all African countries were invited to the session in Nairobi in October 1963. However, the session was trans-

ferred to Baden-Baden where it was transpired that the IOC members were not particularly interested, because there were insufficient funds for assistance of that kind, but it was agreed that the IOC as the principal authority in amateur sport, should be expected to fulfil its international task in matter of development of sport.

In order to carry out its activities in the early stages, the Aid Commission depended on the following sources of funds: the IOC helping funds, NOCs donations of 1000 SFr., and some IOC members were requested to seek help from their governments. In addition, thoughts about getting loans from the bank to built sport infrastructure were suggested. It is important to point out that the idea of generating 1000 SF from NOCs was consider by some IOC member that it could create a political conflict between richer and poorer countries and could cause embarrassment to the IOC. In response to this issue Comte de Beaumont in his report of the Commission's activities in Baden-Baden identified the following plan of action.

> *"I should like to call attention of the members who oppose the IOC handling fund: so far as we concentrate there will be no question of money in this plan. We would only call on the generosity of the rich cities (countries) of the world and ask them to sponsor the sport activities of the African cities in need. Such sponsorship would mean the sending of free equipment, the invitation of African coaches to training courses in national sports institutions, all expenses paid, the payment of trips to the Olympic Games for deserving athletes, and so on. In agreement with International Federations, we would study the offers and part them between those whose needs are most. The CAIO therefore, and the IOC would only be the link that stimulates good-will, that keeps the record and that favours the generous encounter of the rich with the poor, of the experienced with the unexperienced" (Comte de Beaumont, 1963, Baden-Baden).*

In 1965 due to the rapid evolution of sports in the world and the increase in member of the IOC to 120 countries, Comte de Beaumont suggested modifying the Commission's status and its structure to be able to meet the growth demand of the external environment. A few years later, three IOC vice presidents had been working on the subject, which had become something of a burning issue, because through members efforts the Commission had collected quite a lot

of money. However, it was not until 1968 when the CAIO formally became an IOC Commission and kept the same name. In the previous year, at the instigation of Giolio Onesti, the president of Italian Olympic Committee, had set up a commission called Olympic Solidarity. He was helped in this undertaking by colonel Raoul Mollet (BEL) and Raymond Gafner (SWI). Basically, the idea of OS was to take the NOCs share of the TV money and use it to finance various assistance projects. The CAIO and Olympic Solidarity were two different commissions working in the same task: In 1971 CAIO was transformed to Olympic Solidarity and was merged with a similar project initiated by the Permanent General Assembly of the NOCs. It has become a consultative body of the IOC and the NOCs. Its headquarter was in Rome and the Chairman was Jonkheer (Netherlands) with Giulio Onesti as its Co-ordinator.

In August 1972 the OS programme was drawn up and a decision made that the IOC would handle the NOC's shares of the TV money for the time being. It was considered that it would be more beneficial for NOCs than sending 130 equal shares to all. Other members of the commission suggested that the TV money could be used to pay for the NOCs competitors attending the Olympic Games.

In 1973 the first meeting of the aid commission in Varna (BUL) and in 1974 the first report on OS was made to the session and it was announced that there was about 10,000,000 SFr. in the account. This money belonged to the NOCs and the intention was to use the interest each year plus 15% of the capital. The money was being handled in Rome and the first programme approved costed 800,000 US$. It consisted of 36 missions by experts, 80 training courses, 115 scholarships, and printing of handbooks and technical brochures, including one on how to organise regional games. This was the first time that OS began to receive funds with support from the Italian Olympic Committee which it continued to do until 1979.

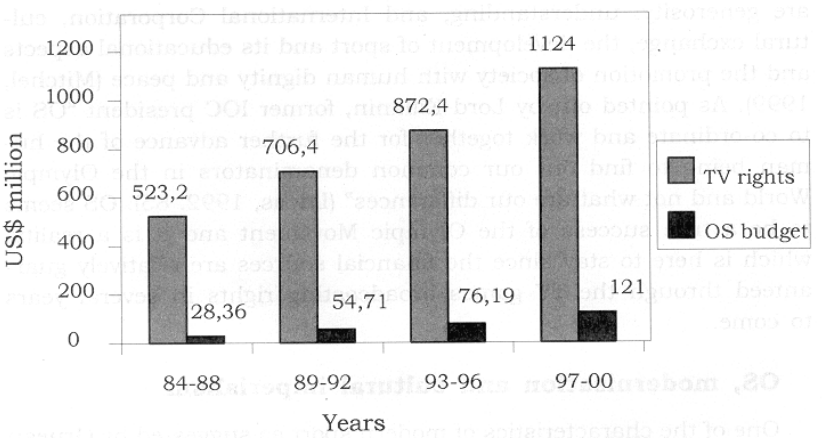
In 1981 after the 11th Olympic Congress held in Baden-Baden, president Samaranch transformed the Commission by giving it a degree of administrative autonomy. In 1982 he moved the OS office to the IOC headquarters in Lausanne. In addition, the structure of the commission was also modified, its chairman would automatically be the IOC president and the members, previously appointed in a personal capacity, would in future be appointed on the basis of their

function. Since then Ansemo Lopez (Spain) was appointed director as a voluntary basis until he resigned in 1996 and was replaced by Pere Miro i Sellares (Spain) on 1st January 1997.

Since the development of sport aid only on two occasions have sport goods industries been involved in supporting the aid programme. The first involvement was in 1977, when Adidas announced that the company would donate 600 specially designed overalls (training suites) for the courses. The second involvement was 1985 when shoe companies and the international sport goods industry donated millions of dollars in equipment and a welter of technical and scientific literature (Lucas, 1992).

The Olympic Games in Los Angeles in 1984 was the turning point for OS, when television broadcast rights were hugely increased, and the IOC revenues from the game were boosted. As a result, the solidarity budget was established in a quadrennial plan, and for the first time, the NOCs were able to benefit from fixed annual assistance provided by the IOC. It has been evident ever since that the budget of the OS is dramatically increasing. When comparing the first quadrennial plan (1985/1988) budget to the current budget (1997/2000), one sees a growth of approximately 400% (See chart 1).

Chart representing TV rights and OS budget



* Note that TV rights figures are transformed to 1995 exchange rate (see Preuss, 2000:108). OS budget figures are collected from OS annual reports from 1983-1999.

The establishment of the OS quadrennial plan and the growth of its budget have had a tremendous impact on the programmes and changed its way of functioning. Recently OS has had a very complex programme that provides sport aid to all NOCs recognised by the IOC. The aid is provided according to specific needs for each of the NOCs channelled through the Continental Associations. The component of this programme is shown in the table below.

Programmes for Continental Association	Programmes for all NOCs	Special programmes for most needed NOCs
-Annual grant to cover part of operating cost -Funding for annual seminars for NOC secretaries-general, executive board meetings, and general assemblies. -Development assistance for continental programmes	-Programme activities -Administrative assistance -Participation in the Olympic Games - Corporation with other IOC commissions namely, International Olympic Academy Medical commission, sport for all, sport and environment, and women in sport.	-Scholarships for athletes -Scholarships for young promising athletes -Scholarships for coaches -Training for sport administrators

The OS reflects the Olympic ethics, the basic notions of which are generosity, understanding, and International Corporation, cultural exchange, the development of sport and its educational aspects and the promotion of society with human dignity and peace (Mitchel, 1999). As pointed out by Lord Killanin, former IOC president "OS is to co-ordinate and work together for the further advance of the human being to find out our common denominators in the Olympic World and not what are our differences" (Lucas, 1992: 85). OS seems to be a true success of the Olympic Movement and it is a reality, which is here to stay since the financial sources are relatively guaranteed through the TV games broadcasting rights in several years to come.

OS, modernisation and cultural imperialism

One of the characteristics of modern sport as suggested by Grueau (1988) is that modern sport has become more democratic and resulted in a greater participation opportunity for minority groups. The démocratisation of sport is represented in OS programmes through schol-

arship programmes for athletes. OS provides opportunity for athletes in developing countries to train and to improve their skills physically and mentally preparing for the Olympic Games in a similar environment to that existing in more developed countries. Beside that, OS not only seeks to provide equal chances in the elite or competitive level, but also in mass participation. Sport for women and sport for all programmes are clear examples that illustrate the support for grass root participation and the reduction of classicism within societies. Grueau (1993) argued that amateurism and Olympic sport could provide a new world forum for culture of modernity that reconciles robust "manly" physically with respectability and restraint; passion with discipline and order; individualism with social solidarity.

Modern sports having been characterised with aspects such as standardisation, secularisation, specialisation and quantification, with a stronger orientation in establishing and breaking records by the means of science and technological innovations, is seen as product of the process of rationalisation that accompanied modernity. OS having had these different aid programs, it is not only spreading the sport, but also specific mode of conducting sport practises. Issues such as scientific training methods, sport tactics, long term planning, organising techniques and the use of technological and economic measurements in assessing performance are critical in this process. Since the creation of the Aid Commission De Beaumont stated that the aid is to "help and coordinate African countries according to IOC standard and statues" (IOC documents, 1961). OS supported this notion by following different strategies: sending sport experts to developing countries, providing sport science information, creating schools for sport leaders, establishing scholarship programmes for athletes and administrators and more over the creation of written moral and technical rules and bureaucratic organisational guidelines.

Modern sports are also characterised by capitalist economic values. Bero Rigauer (1993) argues that the economic base of capitalism has grown, and has had increasing structural and functional consequences for the evolution of sport. All sports, fun or serious, low or top levels, amateur or professional, are being transformed into big businesses in an increasingly commercial market. Active and receptive participation means nowadays the "consumption" of sport. The IOC with an ideology of helping developing nations seeks to

encourage *the* self-development in matter of sport, has created through OS a sport marketing program to teach sport leaders in these countries how to increase the benefits of sport activities and overcome their financial problems.

Eichberg (1984:97) suggested that Olympism is a "social pattern" that reflects the culture of the western (and East European) industrial societies. He points to several negative consequences of Olympism, such as, sciencetification of sport, drugs, and violence. The author explains that these excesses are not accidental or marginal, but logically related to the configuration of western Olympic sport, with its emphasis of "faster, higher, stronger". OS is meant to spread this Olympic motto to the developing countries, the spread process is accompanied with the spread of the concept of the body. Practices such as the denial of the body, the use of drugs, and intensive training are carried out in order to achieve excellence in sport. This concept of the body is some how imposed by the spread of modern sport.

Guttman (1993) noted that the Western origin dominates the IOC membership from 1954 up to 1990. Similar observation is found in the case of OS. The majority of members who form the Aid Commission in 1960s were Western. Even members who represented Africa like Angelo Bolanaki (Egypt) and Sir Reginal Alexander (Kenya) had Western ethnic backgrounds (Guttman, 1993:132).

IOC members involved with OS commission from 1961-2000

Name	Title	Countries	Year
Jean de Beaumont	I.O.A.C President & treasurer	France	1961
Avery Brundage	IOC President	USA	1962
Otto Mayer	IOC Chancellor	Switzerland	1962
Reginald Alexander	I.O.A.C Vice president	Kenya	1962
Constantin Andrianov	I.O.A.C Vice president	URSS	1962
Ahmed E. Touny	I.O.A.C Secretary	Egypt	1962

Name	Title	Countries	Year
Angelo Bolanaki	I.O.A.C	Egypt	1962
Hernan, Karnebeek	I.O.A.C Chairman	Holland	1973 -1976
Giulio Onesti	IOC president	Italy	1971
Lord Killanin	IOC president	Ireland	1977 -1979
Masaji Kiyokawa	IOC president	Japan	1980 -1981
Juan A. Samaranch	IOC president	Spain	1982 -
Anselmo Lopez	OS director	Spain	1982 -1996
Pere Miro i Sellares	OS director	Spain	1997 -

The examples provided above, support Girginov's (1998) argument that the diffusion of sport as specific cultural product from one location to another or from local to global, involves five interrelated process: a) the transfer of values and concept that are new for the recipient culture, b) the penetration of a distinct form of organisation, c) the introduction of specific modes of conducting the sporting practices (the way individuals become primarily involved in sport), d) the form of provision (voluntary or private) and e) the pattern of participation in sport. These processes do not, however, occur following a rational order or logic, they are dynamic and complex. In addition, these examples illustrate the common features that are shared between the modernisation and the cultural imperialism approaches in explaining the globalisation of sport. Maguire (1999:16) criticises these approaches and points out that they emphasise on the alleged homogenisation impact, and they tend to stress the unidirectional character of the global development from the West to the 'rest' and deploy a monocausal explanation to changes that occur globally. Even though some evidence of this unidirectional character of global development could be seen in sport aid programs, it would be a naïve observation to suggest that sport diffusion process is one way direction. Other aspects such as the recipients resistance to Western culture, the adaptation of transformed culture to specific cultural need, the civilising process of traditional or non Western culture and

more importantly, the contribution of other societies into the global culture.

Conclusion

This short paper has aimed to describe an ongoing Ph.D. project analysing the Olympic aid programs. The significance of OS as an important phenomenon that needs to be investigated has been revealed. Globalisation theories that explain the process of sport diffusion were examined as well as the historical development of the sport aid programs. Finally, the links between OS and modernisation and cultural imperialism theories were explored. It has been shown that OS provides, at least at some points in its history, evidence that leads support to these theories. It is believed that OS is a Commission that seeks to strengthen the relationship between IOC and the NOCs and spreads the Olympic ideal around the globe, playing an important role in shaping the world sport system. Understanding its goal and the interest it promotes will contribute to the understanding of the complex process of cultural interaction between local and global in mater of sport.

Bibliography

1. Arbena (1993) *international aspects of sport in Latin America: Perceptions, Prospects, and Proposal*. In Dunning, and al. (1993) The sport process: A Comparative and Developmental Approach. Human Kinetics Publishers
2. Andrews. D.L., Carrington, B., Jackson, S., and Mazur, Z (1996) Jordanscapes: A Preliminary Analysis of the Global Popular. *Sociology of sport Journal, 13, 428-457.*
3. Bero Rigauer (1993) *Sport and the economy: A Development Perspective*. In Dun ning, and al. (1993) *The sport process: A Comparative and Developmental Approach.* Human Kinetics Publishers
4. Dunning, E.G., Maguire, J.A, and Pearton (1993) *The sport process: A Comparative and Developmental approach.* Human Kinetics Publishers
5. Featherstone, M., Lash, S., and Robertson (1995) *Global Modernities.* Sage Publi cations.
6. Girginov, v. (1998) Capitalist Philosophy and Communist Practice: The transfor mation of Eastern European Sport and the international Olympic Committee. *Cul ture, sport, Society,* 1(1), 118-148.
7. Gross-Traverso, M. (1999) *Olympic Solidarity.* British Olympic Association.
8. Guttmann, A. (1994) *Game and Empire's Modern Sport and Cultural Imperialism.* Columbia University Press.
9. Guttmann, A. (1993) *The Defusion of Sport and the Problem of Cultural Imperialism.* In Dunning, and al. (1993) *The sport process: A Comparative and Developmental Approach.* Human Kinetics Publishers

10. Gruneau, R. (1993) *The Critique of Sport in Modernity: Theorising Power, Culture, and the politics of the body.* In Dunning, and al. (1993) *The sport process: A Comparative and Developmental approach.* Human Kinetics Publishers.
11. Gmneau, R. (1988) *Modernization or hegemony? Two views of sport and social development.* In Harvey and H. Cantelon (Eds) *Not Just a game: Essay in Canadian sport sociology. Ottawa: University of Ottawa press.*
12. Heinemann K. (1993) *Sport in Developing Countries.* In Dunning, and al. *The sport process: A Comparative and Developmental approach.* Human Kinetics Publishers
13. IOC (1976-98) Olympic Solidarity reports
14. IOC (1998) *Olympic Solidarity report:* http://www.Olympic.org/ioc/e/org/solidarity/so/_report_1998_e.html (23rd Nov, 1999).
15. Lucas, J. A. (1992) *Future of the Olympic Games.* Human Kinetics books, pp 85-93.
16. Maguire, J. (1999) *Global sport: Identities, Societies, Civilization.* Polity Press.
17. Miller, Devid (1992) *Olympic revolution: the bibliography of Juan Atonio Samaranch.* Pavilion Books limited, pp. 161-18
18. Mitchel, R (1999) Sport and Solidarity Participation in social development. *Olympic Review* 28, 42-47.
19. Seppanen, P. (1989) Competitive sport and sport success in Olympic Games: A cross- cultural analysis of value systems. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport 24,275-282*
20. Wilcox, R. C. (1994) *Sport in a global village.* Fitness Information technology, Inc.

OLYMPIC BIDDING - THE IOC EVALUATION COMMISSION REPORT

by Silvan KELLER *(SWI)*

1. Introduction

In 1896 the first Modern Olympic Games were held in Olympia, Greece. Due to ideological, but also to economic and political reasons the Games were to be held in another place every four years, unlike the Ancient Olympic Games. This was the starting point for the process of attributing - and bidding for - the Modern Olympic Games. The increasing dimension and significance of the Olympic Games made the attribution an issue of growing importance.

Despite a number of negative influences - the Olympic Games only a part fairs, the World Wars, financial crises and boycotts - the Olympic Games stayed magic. Their staging, however, became less attractive, due to the financial loss the Games generated. Only the advent of TV coverage, the abolishment of amateurism and the increasing interest of sponsors rendered the staging of the Olympic Games more attractive again. - The Olympic Summer Games 1984 in Los Angeles were the start of a new era and proved that the Games could generate significant financial benefit. Since then the number of cities bidding to stage the Games has increased. In certain years a pre-selection was even necessary.

The bidding process itself has thus again become a competition with growing dimensions, in which an increasing number of non-sport actors have their interests. The bidding process therefore needed to be standardised to a certain degree, however letting space for individual national features. The mode of the attribution changed little until very recently. Only the "Olympic Crisis" during the election process for the 2006 Winter Olympic Games, the suggestions of the IOC 2000 Reform Commission and their approval by the 110th IOC Session in December 1999 have brought changes.

In the bidding process for Olympic Games, the visit of the IOC Evaluation Commission to a candidate city is widely regarded as one

of the key-stages. After the visit to all candidate cities the commission writes a report, which used to be an internal document for IOC members and the IOC administration. Only in the last years it has been made publicly accessible.

2. Keywords

IOC - Olympic Games - Bidding - Candidature - Host City - Evaluation Commission

3. Statement of the problem

The IOC Evaluation Commission's visit is widely regarded as one of, if not the, key-stage in the bidding process. It is a logic consequence that the report the commission writes after the visit of all candidates - the *Evaluation Commission Report* (ECRP) - is awaited with much tension and interest by all stakeholders, especially by the bid committees. But is the ECRP as important a document as some people believe it is? The purpose of this study is to analyse the nature and function of the Evaluation Commission Report and to evaluate whether it has the importance it is often attributed to. The research questions therefore are:

- What are the ECRP's functions today in general?
- What are the ECRP's functions in the decision-making process?
- How is the ECRP perceived by different "stake-holders"?

4. Research design

4.1 Method

For the general level data qualitative methods, such as content analysis have been used, whereas the individual level data has been analysed both in a qualitative and a quantitative way.

4.2 Data collection

4.2.1 General Level Data

- Reports of former Organising Committees (Games 1980 →)
- Manual for Candidate Cities for the XX Olympic Winter Games 2006.
- Bid Books of Candidate Cities
- Evaluation Commission Report

- IOC vote results

4.2.2 Individual Level Data

- Observations at IOC Sessions (109th Session: Seoul 06/99, 110th Session: Lausanne 12/99)
- Observations at IOC 2000 Reform Commission Final Meeting (Lausanne 09/99)
- Observations at IOC Athletes Commission Meeting (Lausanne 03/00)
- In-depth interviews are a major part of the research. They have been lead with:

A- 68 IOC members	68 out of 113≈60%
B- 06 Winter IF presidents	06 out of 07≈85%
C- 12 IOC athletes commission members	12 out of 18≈66%
D- 02 IOC heads of administration	02 out of 03≈66%
E- 06 2006 Bid Committee representatives	06 out of 06≈100%

The letters A - E will be used below *("5.* RESULTS").

Interview type	In-depth interviews with guideline questionnaire
Length	25 minutes to several hours
Record-keeping	Written notes during the interview
Specifications	All interviews face to face conversation except: 01 interview lead by phone 04 completion of questionnaire by the interviewee
Language	The interviews were lead in English, French or German, except: 01 interview lead with the intermediary of an interpreter
Wording	The actual words of the questions were, where possible, kept identical throughout the whole lapse of time. It was, however, adapted to the situation (future/present/past tense or rendered more precise)
Place and date	Seoul 06/99 (109th IOC session) Lausanne 10/99 (IOC 2000 Reform commission, final meeting) Lausanne 12/99 (110th IOC session) Lausanne 03/00 (IOC athletes commission meeting)

Double counts	2 of the interviewed Winter IF presidents are also IOC members 7 of the interviewed IOC athletes commission members are also IOC members

4.3 Data analysis

The methods used are content analysis, in-depth interviews with guideline questionnaire and quantitative analysis of both general and individual level data.

5. Results

The results here below display the results of the questions of the questionnaire which are related to the Evaluation Commission Report. They are followed by a comment which tries to interpret the results, taking into consideration the qualitative part of the inter-

Q. 03 "As there were no official visits to the 2006 candidate cities, how did you inform yourself?" (5 most important sources of information)

A	05 blank		47 mentioned the *Evaluation Commission Report* as **one** of their sources	≈75%
	63 answers	⊠	07 mentioned the *Evaluation Commission Report* *as the* **only** source	≈11%
			09 did **not** mention the *Evaluation Commission Report* as a source	≈14%
C	00 blank		09 mentioned the *Evaluation Commission Report* as **one** of their sources	≈75%
	12 answers	⊠	01 mentioned the *Evaluation Commission Report* as the **only** source	≈08%
			02 did **not** mention the *Evaluation Commission Report* as a source	≈17%
B,D,E			the question was not asked	
A-E	05 blank		56 mentioned the *Evaluation Commission Report* as **one** of their sources	≈75%
	75 answers	⊠	08 mentioned the *Evaluation Commission Report* as the **only** source	≈10%
			11 did **not** mention the *Evaluation Commission Report* as a source	≈15%

Not all IOC members and athletes commission members mentioned the *Evaluation Commission Report* (ECRP) as one of their sources. This can have a multitude of reasons: 1) Some might have implied the report when they mentioned terms such as "Bid Books"

and "Bid Documents", even though these documents are produced by the bid committees and the report by the IOC. - 2) Others might have forgotten to mention it, as it seemed too obvious a source of information. - 3) Others still might really not have considered the ECRP as one of their sources. - Still ten percent considered the report their only source of information, which means that all bid documents, newsletters, additional studies and reports of the bid committees would be considered not pertinent as a source of information. Most of the interviewees actually mentioned the ECRP as one or the only source of information. This does, however, not mean that they would accept the report and its findings as a sort of prescription, the question being the sources of information, not the influences. These will follow below (Question 22).

Q. 08 "Did you read the whole *Evaluation Commission Report?*"

A	02 blank		55 YES (i.e. they said they had actually read the whole report)	≈83%
	66 answers	⊠	11 NO (i.e. they said they had read only parts of it)	≈17%
B	01 blank		05 YES (i.e. they said they had actually read the whole report)	≈100%
	05 answers	⊠	00 NO (i.e. they said they had read only parts of it)	
C	00 blank		08 YES (i.e. they said they had actually read the whole report)	≈67%
	12 answers	⊠	04 NO (i.e. they said they had read only parts of it)	≈33%
D	00 blank		02 YES (i.e. they said they had actually read the whole report)	≈100%
	02 answers	⊠	00 NO (i.e. they said they had read only parts of it)	
E	00 blank		05 YES (i.e. they said they had actually read the whole report)	≈83%
	06 answers	⊠	01 NO (i.e. they said they had read only parts of it)	≈17%
A-E	03 blank		75 YES (i.e. they said they had actually read the whole report)	≈82%
	91 answers	⊠	16 NO (i.e. they said they had read only parts of it)	≈18%

The results of question 8 shows that the sport administrators - mainly professionals - have indicated to have read the whole ECRP. This seems logical, since they should do so in respect to all candidates and because they have to know the findings of the commission that concern their federation, as well as those for other federations. Moreover the report contains much information that might be useful in view of the organisation of world championships, world cup events and the like. - One of the five bid committee representatives said not to have read the whole report. This might be due to the fact that he read only the reports of direct concurrents or certain specific chapters.

- A considerable number of IOC members and athletes commission members have said that they had not read the whole report. This does not mean that they have not read anything at all. It means, as the qualitative part has shown, that they have read parts of it; i.e. they have made a selective reading. They have either chosen specific chapters of the report, in which they compared the different candidates or they concentrated on all chapters of only certain candidates. - The following three facts need to be mentioned: The first is, that a careful reading and study of the report takes much time; both because of its length and because it is very condensed and complex matter. Some of the IOC members have many other functions and can not or do not want to take the time to read the whole report. - Secondly the report is written in French and English. A number of members speak hardly any French or English. It is unlikely that they have every two years a new report translated at their own expenses. They thus have no possibility to read it at all. - Thirdly the bidding committees consider it to be one of the duties of an IOC member to read the whole report. And, even though the careful reading and study of the ECRP takes time and effort, this is little compared to the efforts of the bidding committees.

Q. 09 "According to your reading which classification/ranking does it imply?"

A-E 26 blank	1st 37 SIO	4 TOR	20 SIO+TOR	7 SIO+TOR+3rd CAND.
68 answers ☒	2nd 2 SIO 11 TOR			
	3rd 1 SIO 9 TOR			
	4th 0 SIO 2 TOR			

Most of the non-respondents - and the rate of non-respondents is particularly high for this question - said that it is not the goal of the ECRP to make a ranking between the candidates, but to describe and compare the different features of the candidates. - The idea of my question was double. • First I wanted to learn whether the different stake-holder groups, as well as the members within each of the groups have a similar or a very different reading from each other. The results show that the reading was indeed relatively similar, both within and between the stake-holder groups, seeing Sion in the lead ahead or ex aequo with Torino, followed by Helsinki and Klagenfurt, Poprad-Tatry and Zakopane being at some distance. • Secondly I wanted to see whether there was some congruence between the results of the reading of the ECRP and the results of the election of

the host city. In this respect the results are confirmed in so far as both Sion and Torino have been chosen as the two finalists. It is contradicted by the fact that most respondents (95%) have seen Sion alone or ex aequo as the winner of the report, whereas Torino was elected to be the host city for the 2006 Olympic Winter Games; Torino had only been seen as the only or ex aequo winner of the ECRP by 45%. This means that the winner of the ECRP cannot be taken straightforward as the future winner. There are two possible reasons for that. The first is, that there are several months between the publishing of the report and the election day. There might be one or several very influencing events in this lapse of time which can alter the situation. The second is, that the report is taken as a source of information only, indicating which of the candidates are able and ready, leaving the choice between the able ones open, and not being a prescription whom to vote for. Question 23 is more concerned with the actual influence of the ECRP, along with other influencing factors.

Q. 10 "Did the *Evaluation Commission Report* contain anything particularly new or surprising for you?"

A	06 blank	21 YES	*Among the comments were*	
	62 answers ✉	41 NO	+ Data established by experts / Very scientific and fair	
			+ Very well done / Very sophisticated files	
B	01 blank	00 YES	+ Much better than former Evaluation Commission Reports	
	05 answers ✉	05 NO	+ More intensive than former Reports	
			+ Too many details / Much information	
C	00 blank	05 YES	+ Budgets brought to reasonable and comparable level	
	12 answers ✉	07 NO	+ Some corrections of some candidates not mentioned	
			+ Environmental problems of some candidates not mentioned	
D	01 blank	00 YES	+ Distances not clearly displayed	
	01 answers ✉	01 NO	+ Very Swiss touch	
			+ 2 bids are very close	
			+ 3 very strong candidates: SIO, TOR, HEL	
			+ SIO: rated much ahead of others	
			+ HEL: big distance HEL - Lillehammer	
			+ HEL: impossible due to distance and flight to Lillehammer	
			+ KLA: new concept / new concept with 3 countries	
E	the question was not asked ✉		but the interviewees stated the following spontaneously:	
			+ Very positive towards SIO+TOR	
			+ Swiss touch: for SIO the most positive / favourable formulation was always used → language, formulations	
A-E	08 blank	26 YES		
	80 answers ✉	54 NO		

Most of the interviewees stated that the ECRP did not contain anything particularly new or surprising for them. This might be due to the fact that most of them are used to such kinds of reports. Amongst those who stated that the ECRP did contain anything particularly new or surprising for them some expressed themselves in regards to the reports quality or some feature of it. Some, however, made remarks which indicate that they must have read or perceived the report as ranking the candidates ("2 bids are very close", "3 very strong candidates: SIO, TOR, HEL", "SIO: rated much ahead of others", etc.). Especially the bid committee representatives made comments, without actually being asked this question, which indicate that they were sensitive concerning both the content and the form of the report. Comments such as "very positive towards Sion and Torino" or "very Swiss touch..." show that other bid committees as direct concurrents felt that they were not equally treated. I found, however, no indications which would underline that. The IOC administration even took precautions and had the report translated by foreigners in order to avoid any Swiss influence, since there was a Swiss candidate participating. The comments, whether they are based on actual facts or on different perceptions of the ECRP, show that the Evaluation Commission has a very delicate duty, both in their visit and the writing of the report.

Q. 22 "Which do you consider to be the 3 biggest influences on yourself/IOC members?"

This question was followed by a list of possible influences, including the following:•Wish of the NOC•Wish of the country's athletes•Wish of the IOC president•Nationality of the candidate•Continent of the candidate•Personal contact/affection•Sport history of the town/country•Wish of continental association•Countries' political system•Personal visit to the site•Report of evaluation commission•Final presentation of bid committees•Media•Language of the candidate•Wish of TV stations •Wish of sponsors•Other... What...?–I display here below only the answers concerning the ECRP

A	03 blank		50	The *ECR* is one of the three influences	≈77%
	65 answers	⊠	15	The *ECR* is NOT one of the three influences	≈23%
B	01 blank		03	The *ECR* is one of the three influences	≈60%
	05 answers	⊠	02	The *ECR* is NOT one of the three influences	≈40%
C	02 blank		06	The *ECR* is one of the three influences	≈60%
	10 answers	⊠	04	The *ECR* is NOT one of the three influences	≈40%
D	00 blank		02	The *ECR* is one of the three influences	≈100%
	02 answers	⊠	00	The *ECR* is NOT one of the three influences	
E	00 blank		04	The *ECR* is one of the three influences	≈67%
	06 answers	⊠	02	The *ECR* is NOT one of the three influences	≈33%
A-E	06 blank		65	The *ECR* is one of the three influences	≈74%
	88 answers	⊠	23	The *ECR* is NOT one of the three influences	≈26%

The results show that in all stake-holder groups a majority of respondents have mentioned the ECRP as one of the three most influencing factors on themselves (respectively on the IOC members for non-voting interviewees). There are, however, considerable differences between the stake-holder groups. Whereas the interviewees of the IOC administration (D) were convinced that the ECRP was one of the three major influences, only three quarter of the IOC members (A) agreed to that; only two third of the bid committee representatives thought so (E) and only somewhat more than half (60%) of the IF presidents (B) and the members of the athletes commission (C) counted the ECRP among the three most influencing factors. The overall results show that a quarter of all respondents does not count the ECRP as one of the three biggest influencing factors; for this quarter the ECRP has thus a very limited influence. But even among the three quarter that count the ECRP among their three most influencing factors the ECRP is, as the question states, only one of the three factors. In the interviews only a very small number of respondents actually mentioned the ECRP as the main and even less as the only influencing factor.

Q. 23 "Have you already decided which candidate city you will vote for or do you wait and see what happens during the last week (session)?"

A-E	14 blank	33 YES	I/They have already decided	≈45%
	74 answers ☒	40 NO	I have not yet decided	≈54%
		01 +/-	They have more or less decided	≈01%

The answers to this question underline the comments made to the previous one (question 22). Less than half the respondents indicated that they had already decided which candidate to vote for before coming to the session during which the host city would be elected. A vote based on the ECRP only would normally be made before the session, since the report is published several month prior to it. Since the sessions are very busy, there would be no time to read and study the ECRP. Among those who made their mind up prior to the session it is further not evident whether the ECRP had a major, a minor or no influence at all on their decision.

6. Conclusion

The above results show that the Evaluation Commission Report is perceived and used by different stake-holders in different ways (as a source of information/as the main source of information/as a decision-making aid/as a ranking between the candidates/etc.). The perceptions vary within all stake-holder groups, but least in the IOC administration and the IF presidents, most among the IOC athletes commission members and the IOC members. This could be due to either the fact that in the former two groups there was only a relatively small number of interviewees or because there is a bigger heterogeneity (origin, background, culture, occupation, activities, etc) within the IOC members and the IOC athletes commission members. But the perceptions also vary between the stake-holder groups. The ECRP is thus also a source of misunderstanding and conflict. This is mainly due to two facts: 1) The report is mainly descriptive and does not quantify the findings of the commission, which leaves much room for interpretation. 2) The function of the report is not stated. A clear definition could prevent misunderstanding and conflict. To find a definition of the ECRP function and role could in itself be problematic and lead to conflict, since the views vary considerably between and within the stake-holder groups.

The findings for the above stated research-questions are

- For most of the interviewees the ECRP is a working tool, not "the bible".
- The majority of the interviewed IOC members use the ECRP as a source of information and not as a prescription for whom to vote for.
- Between 1) the establishment of Bid Books and the visit of the Evaluation Commission, 2) the visit of the Evaluation Commission and the publication of the ECRP and 3) the publication of the ECRP and the IOC Session (election of the host city), there are important lapses of time (up to several months). These are spans of time in which a candidate may win or lose ground compared to its concurrents. This means that a candidate which may be seen as ahead or behind can still lose or win, depending on its own and the concurrents actions
- A main finding is also that the ECRP is a "factor of elimination" and not a "factor of promotion". This means that a candidate is

very unlikely to win on the grounds of a positive ECRP; but if the ECRP contains very negative findings on a candidate, its chances to be elected as the host city are very strongly diminished

---

*** IMPORTANT**

The results presented here above represent the current state of analysis and evaluation. The research on this topic is being continued and new findings which are partly or entirely based on the above might arise. For the final results my thesis - the publishing is planned in monographic form in 2002 - needs to be consulted!

---

7. References

This reference list is divided into six parts according to the sources of information. It contains both official (IOC) and non-official information, scientific and non-scientific one.

7.1 IOC Publications

1. Guéorguiev, Nikolay. 1996. *Analysis of the Olympic Programme 1896- 1996.* Series: documents du musée. Musée Olympique. Lausanne: IOC.
2. Guéorguiev, Nikolay. 1997. *Analysis of the Winter Olympic Programme 1924 - 98.* Series: documents du musée. Musée Olympique. Lausanne: IOC.
3. IOC. 1993. *Report of the IOC Evaluation Commission for the XXVII Olympic Summer Games in 2000.* Lausanne: IOC.
4. IOC. 1994. Host *City Contract for the XIX Olympic Winter Games in the Year 2002.* Lausanne: IOC.
5. IOC. 1995. *1894 - 1994 - The International Olympic Committee: 100 Years, The Idea, The Presidents, The Achievements. 3* Vol. Lausanne: IOC.
6. IOC. 1995. *Report of the IOC Evaluation Commission for the XIX Olympic Winter Games 2002.* Lausanne: IOC.
7. IOC. 1997. *Manual for Candidate Cities for the XX Olympic Winter Games 2006.* Lausanne: IOC
8. IOC. 1997. *Olympic Charter.* Lausanne: IOC.
9. IOC. 1998. *Biographies of the Members of the IOC.* Lausanne: IOC.
10. IOC. 1998. *Olympic Movement Directory 1998.* Lausanne: IOC.
11. IOC. 1998. *Recommendations by the International Olympic Winter Sports Federa tions.* Annex 4 to Report of the Evaluation Commission for the XX Olympic Winter Games 2006. Lausanne: IOC
12. IOC. 1998-99. *Factsheets Al -A16, Bl -B17, C1 -C20.* Office of Communications. Lausanne: IOC à See Annex: Description list of fact files.
13. IOC. 1999. *Intermediary Report of the IOC 2000 Commission, 2nd June 1999.* Lausanne: IOC

14. IOC. 1999. *Olympic Charter.* Lausanne: IOC.
15. IOC. 1999. *Olympic Movement Directory 1998.* Lausanne: IOC.
16. IOC. 1999. *Press Release: IOC Executive Board Recommends Member Expulsion and Bidding Reforms.* Lausanne: IOC
17. IOC. 1999. *Rapport de Veille du 25 juin 1999.* Lausanne: IOC.
18. IOC. 1999. *Report by the IOC 2000 Commission to the 110th IOC Session.* Lausanne: IOC.
19. IOC. 1999. *Report of the IOC ad hoc* Commission *to Investigate the Conduct of Certain IOC Members and to Consider Possible Changes in the Procedures for the Allocation of the Games of the Olympiad and Olympic Winter Games.* Lausanne: IOC.
20. IOC. 1999. *Report of the Department of Communications and New Media. 109th IOC Session in Seoul, Korea.* Lausanne: IOC.
21. IOC. 1999. *Report of the Evaluation Commission for the XX Olympic Winter Games 2006.* Lausanne: IOC.
22. Lyberg, Wolf. 1996. *Fabulous 100 Years of the IOC: Facts-figures-and much, much more.* Series: History and Facts. Lausanne: IOC.

7.2 Candidature Files/Bid Books

1. Helsinki 2006 Bid Committee. 1998. *Helsinki 2006 - Candidate City Finland.* 3 vol. in a box. Vol.1: 107p., vol.2: 223p., vol.3: 127p. Helsinki: 2006 Association.
2. Klagenfurt 2006 Bid Committee. 1998. *Klagenfurt 2006 - Candidate City Austria.* 3 vol.
3. Poprad-Tatry 2006 Bid Committee. 1998. *Poprad-Tatry 2006 -Candidate City Slovakia. 3* vol. Vol.1: 103p., vol.2: 223p., vol.3: 129p. Poprad-Tatry: Candidature Committee Poprad-Tatry 2006.
4. Sion 2006 Bid Committee. 1998. *Sion 2006 - Switzerland Candidate.* 3 vol. in a box. Vol.1: 105p., vol.2: 217p., vol.3: 151p. Sion: Comité de Candidature Sion 2006.
5. Torino 2006 Bid Committee. 1998. *Torino 2006 - Candidate City Italy. 3* vol. in a box. Vol.1: 99p., vol.2: 225p., vol.3: 125p. Torino: Assoziazione Torino 2006.
6. Zakopane 2006 Bid Committee. 1998. *Zakopane 2006 - Candidate City Poland. 3* vol. in a case. Vol.1: 130p., vol.2: 248p., vol.3: 156p. Zakopane: Candidature Committee Zakopane 2006.

7.3 Other Pulbications by the Bid Committees

1. Helsinki 2006 Bid Committee. For *the Love of Sport.* Promotion booklets in 5 vol.
2. Sion 2006 Bid Committee. *Encyclopedia of Winter Sports.* Files about the venues.
3. Sion 2006 Bid Committee. *Rapport Final.*
4. Torino 2006 Bid Committee. 1998. *Green Card. The Environmental Context of the Candidature.* Study carried out for the Torino 2006 bid committee. Torino: Asso ziazione Torino 2006.
5. Torino 2006 Bid Committee. 1999. *Remarks on the Report of the IOC Evaluation Commission for the XX Olympic Winter Games.*
6. Torino 2006 Bid Committee. 1999. *Self-portrait - autoportrait.*
7. Zakopane 2006 Bid Committee. Olympic Winter Games Zakopane 2006. Three-fold leaflet.

7.4 Official Reports of Former Organising Committees

1. Albertville. 1992. Bidding for the Games. In *The Bid, Official Report of the XVI Olympic Winter Games of Albertville and Savoie, Vol. 1.* Albertville: Organising Committee. 12-26
2. Barcelona. 1992. The Challenge. From the idea to the nomination. In *Official Report of the Games of the XXV Olympiad Barcelona 1992, Vol. 1.* Barcelona: COOB.
3. Calgary. 1988. Bid History & Organisation Charts. In Official Report of the XV Olympic Winter Games Calgary 1988. Calgary: OCO'88. 41, 56, 72 - 73.
4. Lake Placid. 1980. Lake Placid Perseveres ... and is Awarded the Bid to Host the XIII Olympic Winter Games. In *Final Report - XIII Olympic Winter Games Lake Placid, N.Y.* Lake Placid: Lake Placid Organising Committee.
5. Lillehammer. 1986. Questionnaire from the Assembly of International Wintersports Federations to Candidate Cities Applying for the Olympic Winter Games (AIWF). In *Lillehammer Norway, Candidate to Host the 1992 Olympic Winter Games: The Facilities in Lillehammer.* Lillehammer: Lillehammer Olympic Development Association. 161 - 179.
6. Lillehammer. 1987. IOC Questionnaire. In *Lillehammer Norway, Candidate to host the 1994 Olympic Winter Games: Organization.* Lillehammer: Lillehammer Olympic Association. 295 - 316.
7. Lillehammer. 1995. Background for Lillehammer's Olympic Application. In *Official Report of The XVII Olympic Winter Games Lillehammer 1994, Vol. 1.* Lillehammer: LOOC. 22-31.
8. Nagano. 1998. Bidding for the Games. In *Official Report - The XVIII Olympic Winter Games.* Nagano: NAOC. 30 - 43.
9. Sarajevo. 1984. From an Idea to the Realization, In *Official Report.* Sarajevo: Organising Committee of the XIV Winter Olympic Games 1984 at Sarajevo. 4-5, 194 - 195.

7.5 Books / Articles / Periodicals / Magazines

1. Chappelet, Jean-Loup. 1991. *Le Système Olympique.* Grenoble: Grenoble University Press
2. Chappelet, Jean-Loup. 1998. L'évolution des Jeux d'Hiver depuis 1980. In *Revue juridique et économique du sport, no. 47, 06/98.* France: Lamy.
3. Chappelet, Jean-Loup. 1999. L'engagement des collectivités publiques dans une manifestation sportive: l'exemple de Sion 2006 Switzerland. In Baddley, Margareta. 1999. *La forme sociale des organisations sportives, questions de responsabilité.* Geneva: Helbing & Lichtenhahn, Faculté de Droit de Genève.
4. CIPRA. 1994 (?). *Analysis of the Compatibility of Big Winter Sports Events with Area, Environment and Society in the Alps: Final Report.* Vaduz, Liechtenstein: CIPRA (Commission Internationale pour la Protection des Alpes).
5. Espy, Richard. cl981. *The Politics of the Olympic Games: With an Epilogue, 1976 - 1980.* Berkeley, USA: University of California Press.
6. Hill, Christopher R. 1996. *Olympic Politics.* 2nd ed. Manchester, USA: Manchester University Press.
7. Huba, Karl-Heinz. 1980-. *Sport Intern: the international inside sports newsletter.* International Edition. Bi-monthly magazine. Munich: K.-H. Huba.

8. Jennings, Andrew. 1996. *The New Lords of the Rings: Olympic Corruption and how to Buy Gold Medals.* Pocket Books. London: Simon & Schuster. 9.
1989. Espaces du Sport. *Mappe Monde* 2/89. Montpellier: Reclus
10. Pellegrini Vincent & Cottagnoud, Alain. 1999. *Les Anneaux Déchus: Le Complot de Séoul.* Saint-Maurice, Switzerland: Editions Pillet / St-Augustin.
11. Persson, Christer. 1997. *The Process of Host Selection for the 2002 Olympic Winter Games.* Licenciate Thesis. Luleå: Luleå University of Technology.
12. Segrave, Jeffrey O. & Chu, Donald B. (eds.) cl981. *Olympism.* Champaign, Illinois: Human Kinetics Publishers.
13. Segrave, Jeffrey O. & Chu, Donald B. (eds.) 1988. *The Olympic Games In Transition.* Champaign, Illinois: Human Kinetics Publishers.
14. Senn, Alfred E. 1999. *Power, Politics and the Olympic Games: A History of the Power Brokers, Events and Controversies that Shaped the Games.* Champaign, Illinois: Human Kinetics.
15. Simson, Vyv & Jennings, Andrew. 1992. *The Lords of the Rings. Power, Money and Drugs in the Modern Olympics.* Toronto: Stoddart.
16. Stritt, Marc-Alain & Voillat, Françoise. 1998. *L'impacte économique des Jeux Olym piques Sion 2006, Switzerland candidate.* Neuchâtel: Editions CIES.

7.6 Internet Sites

1. http://blues.uab.es/olympic.studies/direc/menu01.htm
2. http://winter-games.net/#sidemap/
3. http://www.cnn.com/WORLD/europe/9901/23/olympics.01/
4. http://www.cnn.com/WORLD/europe/9901/23/olympics.02/
5. http://www.desnews.com/dn/print/1,1442,30001217,00.html
6. http://www.esb.utexas.edu/corey/olympics/wintergames/2006w.html
7. http://www.helsinki2006.fi/
8. http://www.klagenfurt2006.at/
9. http://www.nytimes.com/library/sports/other/012599oly-scandal.htm
10. http://www.olympic.org/
11. http://www.realaudio.com/contentp/npr.index.html
12. http://www.sion2006.ch/
13. http://www.tatry2006.sk/
14. http://www.torino2006.it/
15. http: //www.usatoday.como/olympics/oly.htm
16. http://www.usatoday.com/olympics/scandal.htm
17. http://www.zakopane2006.onet.pl/indexen.htm

MODERNISATION THEORY, HEGEMONY THEORY, MODERN SPORT AND OLYMPIC GAMES

by Mahfoud AMARA *(ALG)*

The research paper focuses initially upon the modernisation thesis that seeks to explain the dominant characteristics of contemporary social life in western societies and their spread to other societies. The objective is firstly, to discuss the impact of those characteristics or conditions in the transformation and development of sport, secondly to find out what are the consequences of this progress on the Olympic values, particularly those concerning with equality and démocratisation of sport.

The questions to be asked are

- Does the modernisation of sport fit with the modernisation thesis?
- Could the modernisation thesis, which has been used to explain the development of sport, be considered as only a conceptual ex tension of what is known as hegemony theory?
- And by implication who is benefiting from the modernisation of sport, and in what ways?

Modernisation?

King (1995) states that "modern" and especially "modernism" "modernity" and "modernist", are terms and concepts particularly used in the humanities to refer to particular movements and tendencies in the arts, principally in Europe and the USA and with very little reference to the world system as whole.

According to Maguire (1999:15) the modernisation thesis is closely linked to functionalism. It is concerned with how traditional societies reach modernity, through the development of political institutions that support participatory decision making, the growth and development of secular and rationalist ideologies. It is concerned also with division of labour, the use of management strategies and finally technological innovations and commercial activities.

Following the same idea Gruneau (1988:11) states that the main features of modernisation are

a) Industrialisation, which is seen as a key strategy in the modern isation of western societies, and which allows the emergence of new forms of technology in production that lead to increased com plexity and specialisation in the division of labour. Industrialisa tion also seen the beginnings of greater centralisation of economic and administrative functions in towns as well as the demographic composition of pre-industrial societies. As a result of industriali sation, new individualist philosophies have emerged, based on free market and individual freedoms. The latter includes rights to own property, freedom of speech and freedom of representation.
b) The extension of the rational scepticism which resulted from the use of science and experimentation to understand, analyse and control nature.
c) Capitalism or capitalist production in addition of nation state sys tem, is conceived as one of the greatest institutional elements promoting the acceleration and expansion of modern institutions (Giddens 1990:62)
d) Secularism which concerns according to Learner (1994 quoted in Keily 1998) with abandoning or at lest modifying "traditional" be lief

Giddens (1990:1) associates modernity with a time period and with initial geographical locations. He states that

> *"Modernity" refers to modes of social life organisation, which emerged in Europe from about seventeenth century.*

Modernity and "the West"

Is modernity exclusively a Western project? According to King (1995:111) the term "modernity" has become unproblematically associated with "the west". It represents the countries and regions that are already well situated as noted by Edoho (1997:5) in a reconfigured global economy, countries which have control over or access to, technology, markets and capital. The "other" or the "traditional rest" are not part of the modern, due to their inability to generate or access technology. This inability diminishes their status in the New World order.

Eisenstadt (1966, quoted in Kiely and Marfleet, 1998:28) in a manner similar to Giddens (1990:I) defines modernity and development as

> *The process of change toward those types of social, economic and political systems that have developed in Western Europe and North America (Eisentadt, 1966:1).*

Therefore, development or modernity is to be achieved primarily through economic growth, but most importantly by the adoption of Western values that represent the "norm" which needs to be followed. Those values as mentioned earlier include capitalism, industrialisation, rationalisation and secularism.

Modernisation of sport

Throughout the history of sport there has been a continual development, particularly in the recent years. This is due to the conditions of modernisation cited earlier, which have affected all the sectors including sport. According to Wixon and Frey (1996:23)

> Sport has *become a rational, technologically sophisticated highly organised and scientifically oriented corporate enterprise. The development as we know it today, has been marked by tendencies toward secularism, bureaucratic organisation, specialisation in division of labour, and measurement of virtually all aspects of performance.*

Industrialisation, capitalist production and the development of modern sport

The emergence of new forms of technology, means of production and mass production of goods, has led to increased complexity and specialisation in the division of labour and the beginnings of greater centralisation of economic and administrative functions, particularly in cities (Gruneau 1988). The industrialisation process has affected sport in modern society in different ways, mainly in communication, facilities and equipment.

1. Communication

According to Wixon and Frey (1996:25):

Mass *communication media have been critical factors in the commercial success of contemporary sport, but they also had a substantial impact on the popularisation of sport earlier in industrial age.*

One of the most important factors, which have contributed in developing sport is certainly the development of media (radio, tv, and recently cable and satellite]. Those communication tools, described by Robert (1993) as a multibillion dollar industry from hot air waves, are considered today as the largest industry, that can reach almost every living human being in the world. The development of mass communication particularly television has changed the relation between sport and spectators. In the past the presence of spectators was limited only to the stadium, and the intermediate link between the public at large and sports events was through limited instruments or mediums such as; photos in newspapers, written reports, or cinema. Live coverage was not possible only by Radio until the end of 19th century. The appearance of TV has revolutionised and globalised sport, allowing a concentration of billions around the world to watch the same event. In 1937, a few hundred Londoners were the first to see the first outside broadcast coverage of British sport, only 25 minutes of a men's singles match was televised from Wimbledon (Cashmore, 1986:193). During the last football World Cup 1998, the France Telecom Company delivered sound and vision, according to *Business of Sport* (Nov. 1998), to 40 billion viewers around the world, with 300 transmissions a day.

It could be argued from above that the organisation and success of events today, like the Olympic Games and the Football World Cup, depend exclusively on television transmission. This tool became a very valuable and natural vehicle for the merchandising income of many of the most powerful commercial interests in the world such as Coca-Cola, Nike, Adidas, and Budweiser. Seifart (1996:308) points out that

Television glorifies the Olympic, turns them into something spectacular, providing an essential precondition for commercial exploitation.

Elsewhere, Graig, *et al* (1989) state that

The Sport industry as a very dynamic and certainly experiencing a lot of changes, especially in area of revenue streams, and

operating capital, delivery system pricing, and market place competition.

Following the same perspective Cashmore (1996:195) argues that

If ever there was a marriage made in heaven, it was between television and sport... Commercial success of each was almost directly attributable to the other.

The question to be asked is: why tv stations are interested in broadcasting sporting events? The answer to this is that television stations find sports programmes cheap to produce, attracting huge audiences and advertisers in comparison with other programmes. Many other programmes are far more expensive to produce and do not have the uncertainty and drama which live sport event can bring (Bizley, 1997).

For this reason, television networks such as NBC, CBS, SKYTV, ESPN, are competing for transmission rights and exclusive live coverage of sports events like the Olympic Games, World Cup, UEFA, the Italian and English soccer. For example NBC (a television network) has payed $2.3 billion US for the rights of the 2004 summer, 2006 winter, and 2008 summer Olympic Games.

2. Equipment

Sport as with other activities, has been influenced by modern technology in different areas e.g. the equipment available today allows athletes to increase performance and enhance protection from injuries. Bjerklie, (1993) states that

The tools of the athlete's trade are now lighter, stronger, and better designed, than a few years ago.

Today, designers, professionals, and users are concentrating their efforts to produce new sophisticated equipment with a high tech design much of it derives, according to Kreighbaum and Smith (1996), directly from aerospace industry that is far more varied, safer and better designed.

Examples of the equipment that allows athletes to perform and break records in a wide range of events are: the new sprint bike with aerodynamic wheels and the hydrophobic wet suits. Another example is the new sprint shoes, which allow the foot to act ana-

tomically, designed to be correctly adapted to different surfaces [the ultra shoes, which were designed by Nike for Michael Johnson in Atlanta for summer Olympic Games]. New ski materials that help to maintain control at extremely high speeds; as well as the new tennis racket propelling balls faster. These are only a few examples, which illustrate the high level of advanced technology that sport equipment design has reached. Training facilities, have also been affected by the technological revolution. Developed countries are investing more money to develop and produce new technology in building new facilities, perhaps more than other sectors such as in education or in arts. The USA according to (Roots) *et al* (n.d), has invested $10 million since 1992 to equip laboratories and training centres with fitness equipment and also with sensors and cameras that investigate biomechanical aspects of athletes (muscular, segments strength and cardiovascular endurance). There is also the Centre of Cycling Technology in Italy, equipped with the most sophisticated high tech facility that tests the efficiency of the latest in sport equipment.

Another area affected by industrialisation is stadia design that has been considerably developed in recent years promoting better environments for supporters. The new generation of stadia, particularly in industrialised countries is built with new pitch surfaces such as plastic mesh roots reinforcement and plastic turf support with computer controlled nutrient injections. There are also some designs with new hybrid grass types, which require less light, grow faster and are more robust and with developed seats and moveable stands, developed to be more comfortable and safer.

Capitalist production process like industrialisation has transformed sport to become as mentioned by Gruneau (1988) a site for capital accumulation and leisure expenditure. For example , according to the same author

> *facilities were increasingly provided by entrepreneurs for a fee admission came to be charged for watching sport events, new labour market for "professional" players opened up, and new markets were developed for sport equipment. (Gruneau 1988)*

Urbanisation and the development of modern sport

Gruneau (1988:9) claims that

> *Modern sport has been widely viewed as a cultural by-product of the technological and social changes associated with the development of an urban and industrial society.*

Industralisation pushed people from rural area into towns and cities. These changes are said to have contributed to creating the conditions necessary for the emergence of modern sport and its démocratisation. Mc Intosh, (1987:172) states that

> *In 1800 no city in the world had more than a million inhabitants, London, the largest city, had 959,310 inhabitants. By 1850 London had two million, and Paris one million. Fifty years later the number of metropolis with more than one million inhabitants had risen to eleven, and to twenty-seven in 1930. By 1950 in the United States 83.929, 863 people lived in 168 urban areas with 50,000 inhabitants or more"*

Sport participation in pre-industrial societies was limited socially due to social and gender discrimination. The class background or as reported by Mc Pherson *et al.* (1989), social and biological characteristics were used as the main condition for selection and recruitment, and not individual abilities.

Sports were reserved for white men and the bourgeois class and rural inhabitants, although they were a majority of population in the 19th and early 20th century, did not take part in sport activities. Sport practice was restricted also as a consequence of strong opposition of religion which seen sport as frivolous, profane, useless distractions from religious observance, hard work and family devotions (Wixon & Frey, 1996:20). However, the growth of cities, the development of transportation, production and warfare contributed to a growing industrial working class becoming a new social force. The growth of urban areas offered a better standard of living and importantly better access to sport arenas, and a more affluent class of workers had more money and time to spend on sport and leisure activities (Wixon and Frey, 1996). These situations have increased the popularity of sport and transformed it from a socially and geographically limited phenomenon, to that of an international phe-

nomenon that grows and flourishes. The popularity of sport also has increased due to the appearance of more secular religions, which helped to expand the continuing breakdown of traditions and therefore more tolerance of sport (Gruneau, 1988)

Bureaucracy, rationality and modern sport

Wixon and Frey (1996:28) claim that

> *Modem sport is more than a commercialised mass phenomenon. It is also rational, technologically sophisticated, highly organised*

The increase in the popularity of sport led firstly, to the emergence of leagues and clubs and most importantly international federations like IOC, FIFA, UEFA which set rules and similar standards for most sport including the counting and measurement of performance. Secondly the development of governments' sport bureaucracies, national federations like NOCs which work with international sport organisations in regulating and controlling directly or indirectly various sports.

Sport has become more rationalised also due to the application of different sciences such as physiology, biomechanics and nutrition. Those sciences help to explore the human body and understand athlete reaction to chemical changes resulting from the sporting efforts and find links between mental attitudes and personalities of sportsmen and women during the competitions.

Sport sociologists and psychologists have also contributed in understanding the relationship between the athlete and the social environment, and its impact on individual and team performance. Gruneau (1988:25) claims that

> *Rationalisation has transformed play into work and has created an artificial need for spectacle. As a result, it is argued, sports of all types are increasingly replete with the constraints characteristics of capital market operations: specialisation, standardisation, bureaucratic decision making, over reliance on technology, and the constant drive for efficiency and maximum production.*

As an effect of the modernisation process a new hegemony, which is the hegemony of the west, has emerged reinforcing or consolidating the dependency between the core and periphery, also the interest of consumer capitalism. In the words of Gruneau (1988:30).

The new dominant social definition of sport has developed as part of the emerging hegemony and vested of consumer capitalism.

Hegemony?

Gruneau (1988:27) defines hegemony as

The whole range of processes through which dominant social groups extend their "influence" or "authority" to institutionalised modes of practice and belief. The objective of this is to win consent for the system and structure of social relations which sustain the dominant policy.

In other words, hegemony theory explains how dominant groups within society, or in the case of the globalisation process, between societies, are able to maintain their advantaged position over subordinate groups. The cause of this is that the dominant groups possess and/or control a greater share of the resources and subordinate groups as mentioned by Morgan (1994:321), neither possess or have access to such social life shaping resources.

For this reason, between dominant and subordinate groups, we speak more about a power relationship or manipulation than about negotiation. Dominant groups, classes or nations [the west], are exercising power to get what they want and make sure that their particular interests are being served, even if the other [subordinate groups or the rest] resist it.

Morgan (1997: 192) suggests that

... There is no possibility that dominant groups act against their own self-interests and bargain from a position of weakness rather than strength.

The question to be asked: can subordinate groups reverse hegemonic forces? According to Gruneau (1988:26) and from a Marxist perspective, in unequal and capitalist societies, subordinate groups always negotiate from a disadvantaged position. Consequently, as Morgan (1994: 192) claims, it is a mistake to treat such parties as major players in that hegemony. They can do nothing more than oppose an existing hegemony and maintain, as called by Hall (1993,

quoted in Houlihan 1994: 360), a superficial heterogeneity or resistance. Furthermore, in the words of Heinemann (1993:149)

> *...Even if developing countries concentrate the means at their disposal for sport advancement on high -performance sport, their chance of success would be still very limited. Thus, high-performance sport remains almost exclusively limited to industrial countries.*

If racial, gender or class discrimination has reduced within western countries due to the industrialisation, urbanisation and secularism (modernisation conditions), a new form of discrimination has emerged, it concerns with economical and technological barriers, which have emerged as a result of the new international order and western hegemony or control of the global market that tend to marginalise the interest of third world countries. According to Kiely (1998) the modernisation thesis ignores how the inequalities of capitalism restrict democracy. The evidence of this inequality could be found in the modern Olympic Game, the excessive use of technologically advanced equipment and methods of training have increased inequality of opportunities between nations in international sports events, as a result of financial barriers for participation.

> *The more sophisticated the participation, the greater the level of facility needed (Ingham and Loy, 1993: 254).*

Some athletes from certain countries with a lower economy (Third World) are excluded from competitions, and even if they could participate they could not be so successfully, because their governments cannot spend much money on the very developed equipment. An example is that of an "International" kayak competition in 1993, is where only three African countries were represented, because the material according to Bjerklie (1993,p.22-30) could cost $3000. Another example is the $5 million pursuit bike tested in a wind tunnel at the cost of $40000 per hour, which prohibits less economically developed countries from being able to compete effectively. Another kind of inequality has emerged also due to the development of mass communication, inequality between sport disciplines. Media, particularly television tends to concentrate on the major sports, which attract the largest audiences and sponsors or advertisers.

The questions to be drawn from the above discussion are the following

- What criteria are used to include or exclude sport within Olympic games? In other words, are universalisation and equality, taken into account more than commercialisation (broadcasting, sport industry, sponsoring)?
- Could démocratisation, equality and universalisation be fulfilled through the modern Olympic games, in this new technological age or capitalist world?
- Is the universalisation and equality realistic when we know that 800 million people are permanently undernourished, but some thing like 4 billion- two -third of the world population - live in poverty (Bauman, 1998:73)?
- Do Olympic values which had been established last century, need to be reconsidered in this century?

Bibliography

l. Baumann. Z., (1998), *Globalisation: The Human Consequences,* Polity Press, UK.
2. Bjerklie.D, (1993), High Tech Olympians, *Technology Review,* (July, pp 22-30).
3. Biezley.K,. (1997), Sport *in society,* Reed Educational and Professional Publishing Ltd
4. Edoho. F.M (1997) *Globalisation and The New World Order Promises, Problems, and Prospects for Africa in the Twenty-first Century,* Preager Publisher, USA.
5. Cashmore.E, (1996), *Making Sense of Sports,* Routledge, London
6. Easterling.K.E, (1993), *Advanced Materials for Sport Equipment,* Chapman & Hall, London
7. Giddens. A., (1990), *The Consequences of Modernity,* Polity Press.
8. Gruneau.R.S., (1988*), Not just a game, Essay in Canadian Sport Sociology,* Edited by Jean Harvey and Hart Cantelon, University of Ottawa Press, Canada
9. Graig. J, Klatell.D, Lemieux. P, Kosloff. S, (1989), *MIT communication forum on the future of televised sport.*
10. Houlihan. B., (1994), Hegemonization, Americanization, and Creolisation of Sport: Varieties of Globalisation, *Sociology of Sport Journal,* 11, pp. 356-375, Human Kinetics Publishers, and Inc.
11. Heinman.K., (1993), *The Sport Process, Sport in Developing Countries,* Edited by Dunning G.E, Maguire J.A, Pearton.E.R, Human Kinetics Publisher, pp 139-50.
12. Ingham G.A, Loy J.W, (1993), Sport *in social development,* Human Kinetics Pub lishers, USA.
13. King. D. A., (1995), *Global Modernity: The Times and Spaces of Modernity* (or who needs postmodernism?), Sage, pp 108-33.
14. Kiely.R, Marphleet.P, (1998), *Globalisation and the Third World,* Edited by Routledge, UK.

15. Kreighbaum.F.E, Mark.A.S, (1996), Sport *and Fitness Equipment Design,* Human Kinetics, USA.
16. Maguire.J., (1993), Globalisation, Sport and International Identities, *Society and Leisure,* Volume 16, N-2, pp 293-322, Quebec Press University
17. Morgan. J.W., (1994), Hegemony Theory, Social Domination, and Sport: The MacAloon and Hargreaves-Tomilson debate revisited, *Sociology of Sport Journal,* 11, pp. 309-329, Human Kinetics Publisher, Inc
18. Mc Intosh.P, (1987), Sport *in society,* West London Press
19. Mc Pherson, Barry .D, Curtis.James.E, Loy.J.W, (1989), *The Social Significance of Sport,* Eds, Human Kinetics Books, Illinois.
20. Susan. S, (November 1998), *Journal of Sport Business,* N27.
21. Seifard.H., (1996), *Sport and Economy Forum, The Commercialisation of Olympic Sport Media,* revised version of a paper originally presented at the conference of the Deutsher Hochschulasschuss Fur Leibeserziehung, Munich, Sep. 10-13, 1984
22. Robert.L, (1993) *The New York Times,* (December 26), Backtalk, NFL'S Remote Control,
23. Roots.E, Dornonkos.A, Granek.M, Hustler.M,(n.d) Has *Science Improved Sport?* (http//www.white.media.mit.edu/~i...t/has_ science _improved _sport.html1).
24. Wixon and Frey (1996), *A Sociology of Sport,* Wadworth Publishing Company.

WHAT IT TAKES TO BE A "REAL" OLYMPIAN: EXAMINING PAIN AND INJURY AND THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

by Parissa SAFAI *(CAN)*

As we enter the third millennium, the Olympic Games will once again showcase the powerful influence of international sport on the human spirit. And yet, no one can deny that that influence is not always to the benefit or welfare of athletes or spectators. In particular, very little research has been devoted to the production and reproduction of a "culture of risk" (Nixon, 1992) within the Games - a culture that views pain and injury as part and parcel of competitive sport. The purpose of this paper will be to examine and question the nature of pain and injury as acceptable and expected phenomena in the modern Olympic Games. I hope to argue that the bodily practices and behaviours that have become accepted as normal and required at the elite sport level, include those that promote pain/injury tolerance to such a degree to compromise the health of participants. I also argue that "selective brutalization" of athletes and the "sacrificial nature of sport" (Burstyn, 1999, p. 275), contradict the essence of the Olympic Movement. That is, if the Olympic Movement is about "the enhancement of human development...and a project of human socialization, intercultural exchange, and cultural performance" (Kidd, 1991, p.365), then the reproduction and tolerance of the culture of risk within the Games is the antithesis of, and hazardous to, Olympism.

As Sabo (1989, p.84) writes, "my pain - each individual's pain - reflects an outer world of people, events, and forces. The origins of our pain are rooted outside, not inside, our skins". This idea crystallizes the core of research on the culture of pain for men and women in competitive sport. The processes surrounding pain and injury in sport are social phenomena that are pervasive, serious and dangerous to the health and well-being of many people. More importantly, they occur in an environment that is cloaked in uncritical

and unquestioned acceptance and idealization. Young & White (1995, p. 56) suggest that "sport-related norms prescribing tolerance of pain and playing while injured call into question what our culture requires of athletes who want to succeed in sport". A dilemma for *both* male and female athletes is that the "culture of risk" (Nixon, 1992) teaches athletes to accept risk-taking in sport and to minimize or ignore pain and injuries as much as possible, but it does not protect them from the physically, socially, economically, or emotionally debilitating or disabling consequences of chronic pain and serious injuries (see Dunning, 1986; Kidd, 1987; Klein, 1995; Nixon, 1993; Theberge, 1991; Young, 1993; Young & White, 1995; Young, White & McTeer, 1994 for analysis of the gendered and gendering nature of the culture of risk in sport).

As researchers, we must continually raise questions about the lived contradictions for women and men regarding the supposed healthfulness of competitive sport, and the real experiences of pain and injury in sport. This is particularly relevant in the Olympic context, since the Games represent the epitome of international competition, and exact training and performance standards that are "destructively intense" (Guttmann, 1988, p. 441). According to Guttmann (1988, p. 442).

"Olympic athletes have described workouts that felt like self-inflicted torture...Motivated by the dream of Olympic victory, or simply by fear of disgraceful defeat, men and women force themselves through hours of daily effort that would be disallowed by factory legislation if any modern corporation tried to exact it from its employees".

Although the anecdotes vary from athlete to athlete, from one sport to another, it is quite safe to say that extending the limits of what is physiologically possible is a common experience for many elite athletes. Some may argue that these experiences are part of the rigors of being an Olympian, but Kidd (1991, p. 367) acknowledges the difficulty in "[drawing] the line between healthy self-discipline and pathological behaviour", and further asks: "what is the point beyond which [training and competition are] destructive to long-term well-being...is [this] the sort of physical risk to which we should subject our 'best and brightest'?" We must question why athletes would put themselves through "self-inflicted torture", and accept this as part of their competitive experience.

Given their generally excellent health and "posture of physical invulnerability" (Young, White & McTeer, 1994, p. 185), pain and injury are often understood by athletes as a form of bodily betrayal. They become physical and symbolic cues of character and identity, such that pain tolerance and disregard of bodily limits are often seen as a reflection of moral strength and character development (Dunning, 1986; Hughes & Coakley, 1991; Sabo & Panepinto, 1990; White & Young, 1997). In addition to courage in the face of physical challenges, moral courage is implied in this normative system. As Hughes & Coakley (1991, p. 309) note, "the idea is that athletes never back down from challenges in the form of either physical risk or pressure, and that standing up to challenge involves moral courage". The pervasiveness of this ideology extends into the lives of men and women, and becomes, as sport sociologists often call it, part of their sport ethic (Hughes & Coakley, 1991).

Hughes & Coakley (1991, p. 308) have characterized the acceptance of pain and injury in sport as "positive deviance," which they suggest is "caused by an unqualified acceptance of, and unquestioned commitment to a value system framed by...the sport ethic". Positive deviance refers to a form of overconformity that goes so far in "following commonly accepted rules or standards that it interferes with the well-being of self or others" (Hughes & Coakley, 1991, p. 310). Much of the positive deviance in sport involves an unquestioned and unqualified acceptance of the value system embodied in the sport ethic, defined by Coakley (1998, p. 152) as: "The cluster of beliefs that many people in [competitive] sports have come to use as the dominant criteria for defining what it really means, in their social worlds, to be an athlete; [It] constitutes the core of the high-performance sport culture". Not all athletes overconform to this ethic, but these norms make up the mindset and culture of many athletes in competitive power and performance sports. It is in this framework that athletes learn to expect, accept, minimise and/or ignore pain and injury as a normal part of the game, and even take pride in their pain threshold as proof of their character as athletes and their dedication to the team (Nixon, 1993). As Hughes & Coakley (1991: 316) stress: "...the norms of the sport ethic are positive norms; it is under the condition of uncritical acceptance and extreme overcon-

formity that they are associated with dangerous and destructive behaviour".

This discussion of positive deviance in the sport ethic leads us to the paradox of elite competitive sport. While competitive sport is generally seen by many people to build, enhance, and even improve the body and psyche, creating fuller, more well-rounded individuals, it also creates a body and psyche that is destroyed and/or damaged, and which destroys and damages others (Messner, 1989). This interpretation lays bare a tragic irony in the dominant sport culture — that the powerful athlete, a symbol of strength and health, sacrifices his or her health in pursuit of idealised athleticism (see Curry, 1994; Curry, 1993; Hughes & Coakley, 1991; Sabo & Gordon, 1991; Theberge, 1997; White & Young, 1991; Young, 1993; Young & White, 1995; Young, White 85 McTeer, 1994). Athletes are often held up as symbols of health or vitality, but descriptions of their experiences show how the pursuit of athletic excellence and personal success, entails the development of a disregard for the body (Klein, 1995). Paradoxically, as the body is built up to move through the competitive hierarchies of modern athletics, the body is increasingly worn down. Many athletes are thus embroiled in a larger set of power relations inside and outside of sport that is often exploitative and leads to "physical entropy rather than health" (as cited in Sabo & Gordon, 1995: 12). The behaviours and practices that athletes adopt to tolerate and ignore pain and injury are very much part of the Olympic Games - we need only to glance at headlines and television highlight reels to confirm this fact (see Mulvoy, 1996). What this paper argues is that this uncritical acceptance of the sport ethic, and the reality of physical risk and damage in the pursuit of sporting excellence at the Olympic level is contrary to the philosophy of the Olympism. As the Olympic Charter (1994, p. 10), states: "The goal of Olympism is to place everywhere sport at the service of the harmonious development of man, with a view to encouraging the establishment of a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of human dignity". Disregard for the health of the body is a far cry from "the harmonious development of man" or "the preservation of human dignity".

Some argue that the Games are distanced from the fundamental principles of the Olympic Movement, such as Bannister (1981, p. 140)

who points out that "we must distinguish between the Olympic Games on one hand and the Olympic ideals, Olympism, and the Olympic Movement that promotes these ideals on the other". But, we must also recognize that "Olympism may be conceived as a set of specific goals or aspirations that provides the blueprint for the conduct of the Olympic Games in particular, and for the conduct of sport in general" (Segrave, 1988, p. 151). If the Olympic Movement is truly the blueprint for the Olympic Games, we must be concerned about the lack of critical attention to this particular issue. As the governing body behind the Olympic Movement, according to Guttmann (1988, p. 442), even the IOC "has long since abandoned its efforts to limit the duration of training, and it has never tried to legislate the intensity of workouts". In doing so, the Games continue to communicate the message that Olympic performance is to be about "maximum performance [and] the physical and moral standard of the display of maximum strength" (Takacs, 1992, p. 228). While well intentioned, this message of 'Citius, altius, fortius' is internalized by athletes and participants as unconditional approval for the tolerance of pain and injury in training and in competition. The athletic "super performance" (Takacs, 1992, p. 230) takes precedent over and above the philosophy of Olympism, at the cost of the health and well-being of the athletes. This is contradictory to Olympism, since the Games are envisaged as opportunities for the performance of sport in the goal of enhancing human development (Kidd, 1991). As Zakus (1992, p. 341) states, "the Olympic Movement has created an incompatible dualism for modern sport" where the Games and organizers continue to rationalize the ideals of Olympism, while the reality of international competition glorifies individual triumphs in the arena at any cost. But "to what extent is the glorification of the athlete, at the expense of spiritual and mental development, actually unhealthy" (Bannister, 1981, p. 142)? If those individual triumphs demand practices that destroy the body and spirit, we must understand that "winning at any price cannot be justified for any social interest" (Takacs, 1992, p. 229).

The mass media play a crucial role in the commercial packaging of injury and pain tolerance as heroic and necessary to athletic success on the Olympic stage, and the proliferation of the culture of risk in the Games. Zakus (1992, p. 346) notes that "the Olympic

Games [have become] a commercial enterprise of considerable economic substance [since] the 1960s". The impact of this on the culture of risk results in that "...heroism in sport has been parlayed into a sales gimmick that serves to glorify the free enterprise system" (Segrave & Chu, 1988b, p. 297). As mentioned before, injury and pain tolerance have become cues of character reflecting such things as physical and mental strength, courage, integrity, and composure in the face of adversity (see Loy, 1981). The athlete becomes identified as a hero by spectators, and the Games thus represent perhaps "the only cultural hero system available in today's secular world" (Loy, 1981 as cited in Segrave & Chu, 1981, p.206). While the psychological and sociological reasons, why sport spectators identify emotionally with the athletes they observe, is complex and not well understood, the media, chiefly advertisers, have realized that this process of identification is an important aspect of modern commerce and is significant in attracting audiences (Guttmann, 1988). Thus pain and injury tolerance are capitalized upon by the media as opportunities to capture the attention of viewers, and trickles down to athletes in the form of potential sponsorship and financial support based on audience appeal and identification. Athletes not only rationalize their tolerance of pain and injury as a normal and expected part of their sport involvement, but also come to understand that these practices can be integral to their current or future success dependent upon favourable media exposure. While Guttmann (1988, p. 441) notes that the very fact that "[Olympians] are driven to attempt the superhuman [should be] cause for concern", many spectators and athletes both remain uncritical of the realities of the culture of risk. In response, Bannister (1981, p. 143) argues that "the general public needs a sharp reminder [of] the kind of superhuman effort that is required by athletes to reach the point where they are selected for the Games, let alone to detach themselves from all good athletes who are there and achieve some remarkable feats".

While pain and injury tolerance occur at all levels of competitive sport, the conflict between nationalism and internationalism, a key feature of the Games, fosters an unresolved contradiction in the Olympic Movement in regards to the re/production of the culture of risk. Although the Charter (1994, p. 18) states that "the Games are contests between individuals and teams and not between countries",

clearly both politics and nationalism are deeply embedded in the Games and in the infrastructure of the Olympic Movement itself (Segrave & Chu, 1988b). While Olympism espouses the value of sport in promoting international understanding, peace, and friendship, it fails to recognize its incompatibility with the "the values and policies that guide involvement at the national level" (Heinila, 1985, p. 240). Heinila argues that "when nations compete in international sport events, their operational goals are defined in terms of national interest and materialized in terms of competitive success" (1985, p. 240). This basic contradiction in international sport, the framing of performance by nation-states strictly within the terms of success or failure, has serious consequences to the well-being of athletes. Lenk (1964, p. 208) suggests that "the fanatical urge to be in the forefront...sometimes lead to exaggeration of the importance of peak performance so that health is damaged". While national-international tensions have been apparent since the modern Games (see Segrave, 1988), if not earlier, the ever-increasing visibility and popularity of international Olympic sport has been paralleled by increasing investment in performance production at the cost of the athletes' physical and mental well-being. Furthermore, implicit within this production of performance is the promotion of cultural intolerance. If athletes are solely representatives of their countries and bear all the pressures that that entails, they will most likely overconform to the sport ethic and view their competition as just another obstacle to overcome. Where does this provide the opportunity for intercultural exchange? Where is the mutual respect for cultural and national differences when athletes are damaging their own and others' bodies in the pursuit of international victory?

This paper points to the need for the IOC to resume its efforts in safeguarding the health and well-being of athletes within the culture of risk, since "it is the *symbolic* IOC product of Olympism which is the *raison d'être* for pursuing the Olympic Games" (emphasis in original, Macintosh et al., 1993, p. 375). While the IOC's primary concern may be the survival of the organization, as with most organizations, it must return to situating the athlete and their health to the position of primary importance (Espy, 1988). The IOC must fulfil its obligations to the participants of the Games, since as written in the Olympic Charter (1994, p. 13), its role includes "[taking] meas-

ure the goal of which is to prevent endangering the health of athletes". As cited in Segrave & Chu (1988a, p. 108), "The IOC has unquestionable powers as guide, guardian, and arbiter. It is the supreme body in the Olympic Movement, the rock, the foundation stone". As a transnational organization of great magnitude, the IOC can attempt to influence other national and international sport governing bodies and governments to commit to Olympism in all respects - particularly in regards to the culture of risk (Macintosh et al., 1993). Where this may be most feasible is within the IOC's Medical Commission and the Medical Code of the Commission that in effect constitutes the law by with which athletes must comply. The Medical Code does outline the medical care of athletes (see Olympic Charter, 1994), but what it does not outline is the health of athletes, thus pointing to the need of the development of a 'Health Code' for the Olympic Movement (B. Kidd, personal communication, April 24, 2000). What is needed is a careful definition of what this means and how it can be implemented throughout the Games in direct opposition to the culture of risk. In essence, what is the role of sport medicine in the culture of risk (see Nixon, 1992; Waddington, 1996; Walk, 1997; Young, White & McTeer, 1994), how does it affect the well-being of athletes, and how are these issues represented by an international sport medicine governing body such as the IOC Medical Commission?

The culture of risk in modern competitive sport, particularly the Olympic Games, is antithetical to the Olympic Movement. Acknowledging this, Takacs (1992, p. 231) suggests that "we can support - but not serve - the idea of the Olympics Games best not by forgetting about this contradiction, or by veiling it, but by admitting it and trying to find possible ways of solving this ethical paradox". There is a need for greater scholarly attention to this issue, since the uncritical and unquestioned acceptance of the sport ethic is "...an ideological construction, seductive in its own way, meant to be swallowed whole, seamless and unchallenged and unproblematic. It is 'how it is,' simply...It is perhaps the greatest challenge to resist that which we cannot see" (Rinehart, 1994, p. 153). By making this more visible to athletes, spectators, educators and organizers, we can begin to promote the health and well-being of people over and above athletic success. As Kidd (1991, p. 368) suggests:

We need to challenge everyone to be the "very best we can be", ...but we must do so in a way that prizes the subjectivity of the person and concentrates on the intrinsic processes of self-knowing and self-expression rather than the final athletic results. We should continue to encourage athletes "to seek out fear to dominate it, exhaustion to triumph over it", ...but we have an obligation to educate them about the limits, risks, and choices involved in sport, and to help them make sound decisions about their lives.

By doing so, we are clearly tapping back into the Olympic Movement and its focus on athlete-centered sport in the pursuit of, and at the service of, global peace, harmony and friendship. We may be able to "affect peoples" attitudes towards the practice of sport through their commitment to the values of Olympism" (Parry, 1988, p. 6). In doing so, we may ultimately change the nature of the culture of risk within sport within and beyond the Olympic phenomenon.

Bibliography

1. Alexdrandrakis, A. & Krotee, M. L. (1988). The dialectics of the International Olym pic Committee. International Review for the Sociology of Sport. 23(4), 325-343.
2. Bannister, R. (1981). The Olympic Games: Past, present, and future. In J. Segrave *& D.* Chu (Eds.), Olympism (pp. 140-147). Champaign: Human Kinetics.
3. Burstyn, V. (1999). The rites of men: Manhood, politics, and the culture of sport. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
4. Coakley, J. (1998). Sport in society: Issues and controversies (6th ed., pp. 144-178). Boston: WCB McGraw-Hill.
5. Curry, T.J. (1994). A little pain never hurt anybody: A photo-essay on the nor malization of sport injuries. Sociology of Sport Journal. 11. 195-208.
6. Curry, T.J. (1993). A little pain never hurt anyone: Athletic career socialization and the normalization of sports injury. Symbolic Interaction. 16. 273-90.
7. Dunning, E. (1986). Sport as a male preserve: Notes on the social sources of masculine identity and its transformations. Theory, Culture & Society, 3(1), 79-90.
8. de Coubertin, P. (1988). Why I revived the Olympic Games. In J. Segrave & D. Chu (Eds.), The Olympic Games in transition (pp. 101-106). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
9. Espy, R. (1988). The Olympic Games: Mirror of the world. In J. Segrave & D. Chu (Eds.), The Olympic Games in transition (pp. 407-418). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
10. Foldesi, G. S. (1992). Introduction to Olympism in sport sociology. International Review for the Sociology of Sport. 27(2). 103-105.
11. Guttmann, A. (1988). The modern Olympics: A sociopsychological interpretation. In J. Segrave & D. Chu (Eds.), The Olympic Games in transition (pp. 433-443).
12. Guttmann, A. (1992). The Olympics: A history of the modern Games. Chicago: University of Illinois Press.

13. Heinila, K. (1985). Sport and international understanding - A contradiction in terms? Sociology of Sport Journal, 2. 240-248.
14. Hughes, R. & Coakley, J. (1991). Positive deviance among athletes: The implica tions of the sport ethic. Sociology of Sport Journal. 8. 307-25.
15. International Olympic Committee (IOC) website. (2000). [http://www.olympic.org]
16. Kidd, B. (1987). Sports and masculinity. In M. Kaufman (Ed.), Beyond Patriarchy: Essays by Men on Pleasure, Power, and Change (pp. 250-65). Toronto: Oxford University Press.
17. Kidd, B. (1991). A new orientation to the Olympic Games. Queen's Quarterly. 98(2), 363-374.
18. Klein, A. (1995). Life's too short to die small: Steroid use among male bodybuilders. In D. Sabo & D.F. Gordon (Eds.), Men's Health and Illness: Gender. Power, and The Body (pp. 105-20). London: Sage Publications.
19. Lenk, H. (1964). Values, aims and reality of the modern Olympic Games. In H.O.C. (Eds.), Report of the Fourth Session of the International Olympic Academy, 1964 (2nd ed. 1973, pp. 205-211). Athens: H.O.C.
20. Loy, J. (1981). An emerging theory of sport spectatorship: Implications for the Olympic Games. In J. Segrave & D. Chu (Eds.), Olympism (pp. 262-294). Cham paign, IL: Human Kinetics.
21. Lucas, J. (1988). The genesis of the modern Olympic Games. In J. Segrave & D. Chu (Eds),.The Olympic Games in transition (pp. 89-99). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
22. MacAloon, J. (1981). This great symbol: Pierre de Coubertin and the origins of the modern Olympic Games. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
23. Macintosh, D., Cantelon, H. & McDermott, L. (1993). The IOC and South Africa: A lesson in transnational relations. International Review for the Sociology of Sport. 28(4), 373-95.
24. Messner, M. (1989). When bodies are weapons. In D. Sabo & M. Messner (Eds.), Sex. Violence & Power In Sports (pp. 89-98). California: The Crossing Press.
25. Morgan, W.J. (1981). Olympism and the sporting life: A socio-philosophical cri tique. In J. Segrave & D. Chu (Eds.), Olympism (pp. 333-346). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
26. Mulvoy, M. (Ed.). (1996, July 26). Olympic Preview Issue [Special Issue]. Sports Illustrated.
27. Nixon, H. (1992). A social network analysis of influences on athletes to play with pain and injuries. Journal of Sport & Social Issues. 16(2), 127-35.
28. Nixon, H. (1993). Accepting the risks of pain and injury in sport: Mediated cultural influences on playing hurt. Socioloev of Sport Journal. 10. 183-96.
29. Olympic Charter. (1994). Lausanne: International Olympic Committee.
30. Parry, J. (1988). Olympic education and higher education. British Journal of Physi cal Education. 19(1). 6, 27.
31. Rinehart, R. (1994). Warp speed in Barcelona: Olympism, ideology, and experience. Studies in Symbolic Interaction. 16. 123-59.
32. Sabo, D. (1989). Pigskin, patriarchy and pain. In D. Sabo & M. Messner (Eds.), Sex. Violence & Power In Sports: Rethinking Masculinity (pp. 82-88). California: The Crossing Press.

33. Sabo, D. & Panepinto, J. (1990). Football ritual and the social reproduction of masculinity. In M. Messner & D. Sabo (Eds.), Sport. Men, and The Gender Order: Critical Feminist Perspectives (pp. 115-26). Champaign: Human Kinetics.
34. Sabo, D. & Gordon, D.F. (1995). Rethinking men's health and illness: The relevance of gender studies. In D. Sabo & D.F. Gordon (Eds.), Men's Health and Illness: Gender, Power, and The Body (pp. 1-21). London: Sage Publications.
35. Segrave, J. (1988). Toward a definition of Olympism. In J. Segrave & D. Chu (Eds.), The Olympic Games in transition (pp. 149-161). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
36. Segrave, J. & Chu, D. (1981). Sociology and the Olympic Games. In J. Segrave & D. Chu (Eds.), Olympism (pp. 201-206). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
37. Segrave, J. & Chu, D. (1988a). The modern Olympic Movement. In J. Segrave & D. Chu (Eds.), The Olympic Games in transition (pp. 107-111). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
38. Segrave, J. & Chu, D. (1988b). Issues and problems. In J. Segrave & D. Chu (Eds.), The Olympic Games in transition (pp. 295-301). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
39. Segrave, J. & Chu, D. (1988c). The future of the Games. In J. Segrave & D. Chu (Eds.), The Olympic Games in transition (pp. 387-392). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
40. Takacs, F. (1992). Ethos and Olympism: The ethic principles of Olympism. Inter national Review for the Sociology of Sport, 27(3). 223-231.
41. Theberge, N. (1991). "It's part of the game": Physicality and production of gender in women's hockey. Gender and Society. 11(1). 69-87.
42. Waddington, I. (1996). Development of sports medicine. Sociology of Sport Journal. 13(2), 176-196.
43. Walk, S. R. (1997). Peers in pain: The experience of student athletic trainers. Sociology of Sport Journal. 14. 22-56.
44. White, P. & Young, K. (1997). Masculinity, sport and the injury process: A review of Canadian and international evidence. Avante. 3(21. pp. 1-30.
45. White, P., Young, K. & McTeer, W.G. (1995). Sport, masculinity, and the injured body. In D. Sabo & D.F. Gordon (Eds.), Men's Health and Illness: Gender. Power, and The Body (pp. 158-82). London: Sage Publications.
46. Young, K. (1993). Violence, risk, and liability in male sports culture. Sociology of Sport Journal. 10(4). 373-96.
47. Young, K. & White, P. (1995). Sport, physical danger and injury: The experience of elite women athletes. Journal of Sport and Social Issues, 19(1). 45-61.
48. Young, K., White, P. & McTeer, W.G. (1994). Body talk: Male athletes reflect on sport, injury, and pain. Sociology of Sport Journal, 11. 175-94.
49. Zakus, D. H. (1992). The International Olympic Committee: Tragedy, farce and hypocrisy. Sociology of Sport Journal. 9. 340-353.

PREVALENCE OF DOPING IN SPORTS. DOPING CONTROL IN NORWAY, 1977-1999

by Marianne TJØRNHOM *(NOR)*

Introduction

The word doping is believed to stem from doop, which in Africaans referred to a stimulating liqueur used in religious ceremonies, and from there it found its way into the English dictionary in the late 1800s[24]. Today, the word doping signifies the administration of prohibited substances by athletes in order to artificially enhance their performance. However, the practice of doping is probably older than the term. As far back as the third century B.C., documents show that Greek athletes ingested stimulants to enhance their performance[16]. The use of speed balls, a mixture of cocaine and heroin, is believed to have been common among cyclists in the last century[22].

The present magnitude of the problem and, specifically, the true prevalence of doping in competitive sports are not known because, as in illicit activity, it is difficult to study. The public impression of the prevalence of doping in sports in general, and in certain sports in particular, is mainly based on the attention given to individual cases in the media. Powerful images are projected from high-profile cases, from the accounts of the collapse of the winner of the Olympic marathon in St. Louis in 1904 after intake of strychnine and alcohol[21,26] to the more recent coverage of the Ben Johnson case and the ensuing Dubin inquiry[9]. Unfortunately, the scientific community has little additional information on which to base the description of the prevalence of the doping problem in competition sports. Scientific evidence mainly consists of surveys of the past and present use, with focus on anabolic steroids[6,7,10,15,25,27,32].

Doping Control in sports has a short history, dating back to the 1964 Olympic Games at which cyclists were examined for puncture marks before the start of the competition[1,8]. Not until 1968 was systematic doping control conducted, after the International Olympic Committee (IOC) Medical Commission had been formed the year be-

fore. That year, about 750 urine samples were analysed primarily for stimulants during the Summer and Winter Olympic Games[2]. This was prompted by the amphetamine-related deaths of competitive cyclists during the 1960 Olympic Games[22] and the 1967 Tour de France[11].

Experimental testing for anabolic steroids was done in 1972 and officially started in 1976[2]. That the use of anabolic agents also was common during this period is well-documented from the events that resulted from the introduction of gas chromatography - mass spectrometry for steroid analysis. At the 1983 Pan American Games a number of competitors left the competition after 21 medal winners had tested positive during the first few days, 11 of these were gold medallists. Another example that illustrates widespread use of doping is the former German Democratic Republic, where systematic use of secret precompetition testing enabled athletes to evade international doping tests[3].

Doping Controls were started in Norway in 1977 by the Norwegian Confederation of Sports[1] (NCS), the body governing nearly all sporting activity. The goal of this study was to describe the results from this control activity from the start to 1999. The specific aim was to examine differences in the number of positive samples in the subpopulations tested, as well as the results of changes in test strategy during this period.

Materials and methods

Data were collected by combining three computerised databases and manual records maintained by the NCS, Section of Etichs, Sportsmedicine, and Anti-doping. These databases covered the time periods 1977-88, 1988-92, and 1992-99, respectively, and they were based on different program platforms. Control sessions and individual samples were categorised to a different level of detail in the different databases. Data in the older databases were checked manually against the original doping control records. The databases were merged into one large database, and in this process athletes were grouped into three different categories: NCS members (athletes belonging to clubs in federations under NCS jurisdiction), external athletes (either users of private gyms who did not belong to any sports organisation or athletes in organised sports federations not affiliated

with the NCS), and foreign athletes. Tests of foreign athletes were conducted during international events in Norway or on behalf of other international or national sports federations. The tests conducted during the 1994 Winter Olympic Games were performed under the jurisdiction of the IOC and were not recorded in the NCS databases. Tests were also grouped according to the type of control session: in competition or out of competition, and unannounced tests or tests with advance notice. It should be noted that the policy of the NCS has been to perform out-of-competition testing with no prior warning and with continuous escort coverage from the moment of notification until delivery of the sample, as opposed to the up to 48-hour unescorted warning periods given by some countries.

From 1977 to 1999, a total of 25,087 samples were taken by sampling officers from the NCS. Of these, 21,506 samples (86%) were taken from Norwegian athletes belonging to national federations under NCS jurisdiction (NCS members), 736 (3%) from external Norwegian athletes, and 2,842 (11%) from foreign athletes. In three cases the affiliation of the athlete is unknown.

Doping control in this period was based on urine samples that were analysed in the following IOC-accredited doping control laboratories: The Drug Control Centre, King's College, London; the Institute of Biochemistry, Deutche Sporthochschule, Cologne; the Doping Control Laboratory, Huddinge University Hospital, Huddinge; and the Hormone Laboratory, Section for Doping Analysis, Aker Hospital, Oslo. All positive samples in the database were checked manually against the laboratory reports. Samples were declared positive if they contained any of the substances listed on the IOC list of banned substances that was in effect at any given time. Out-of-competition tests were generally analysed for anabolic agents and masking agents only. Testosterone samples were declared positive if the testosterone - epitestosterone ratio exceeded 6:1 (see Discussion). However, samples taken from the same athletes as follow-up tests in cases of suspicious testosterone results have been omitted from the database. Each testosterone case is therefore only recorded as one positive sample.

Results are presented as the total number of samples, and the percentage of samples taken in any given subcategory of athletes. Comparisons of percentage of positive samples between subgroups

was done using Fisher's exact test. A p value 0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Samples taken from NCS members

The distribution of the 21,506 samples taken from NCS members are shown in Figure 1. From 1977 to 1987, a maximum of 501 samples were taken per year, whereas the yearly sampling frequency increased gradually from 1988 to 1998. From 1998 to 1999 there was a little decrease. Among the NCS members, 4,574 of the samples were taken from female athletes (21%), whereas 16,932 were taken from male athletes (79%). There was no change in the sex distribution during the period.

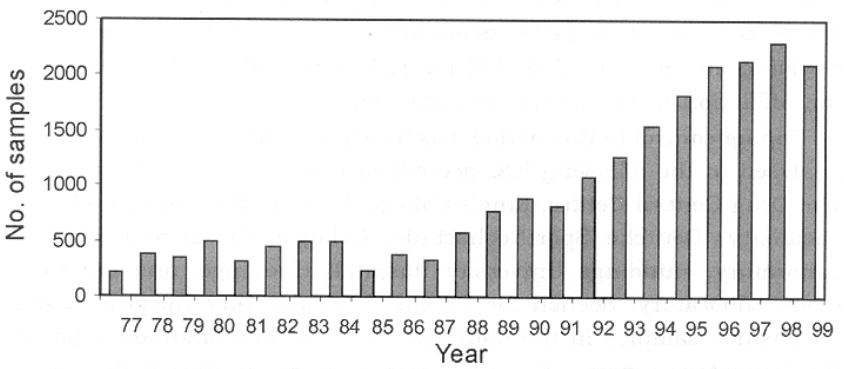


FIG. 1. *Time distribution of number of samples taken from 1977 to 1999 (n=21,506, NCS members only).*

Of the 21,506 samples taken from NCS members, 8,141 were taken in competition (38% of all samples), 7,178 without prior notice (33% of all samples), and 963 with notice (4% of all samples), whereas 13,365 (62% of all samples) were taken out of competition, 12,906 without notice (60% of all samples), and 459 with notice (2% of all samples) (Figure 2). Thus 20,084 samples (93% of all samples from NCS members) were from unannounced tests.

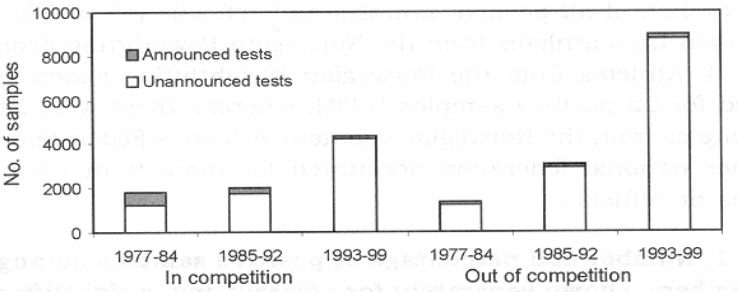


FIG. 2. *Time distribution of testing done out of competition and in competition among NCS members during three time periods: 1977-84, 1985-92, and 1993-99 (n=21,506).*

Positive samples among NCS members

Of the 21,506 samples taken from NCS members, 174 (0.8%) were reported to contain one or more of the banned substances. In addition, 27 (0.1%) sample-taking attempts ended with the athlete refusing to sign the doping control notification form or not reporting for sample taking. Female athletes accounted for only six of the total number of the positive samples and two of the refusals (0.2% of the total number of samples taken from women), whereas men accounted for 168 positive samples and 25 refusals (1.1%; p.0001 vs women). The number of positive samples and refusals increased from 1977-87 (a total of 49 positive samples and refusals) to 1988-99 (a total of 152 positive samples and refusals), whereas the percentage of positive samples and refusals decreased gradually in the latter period (Figure 3).

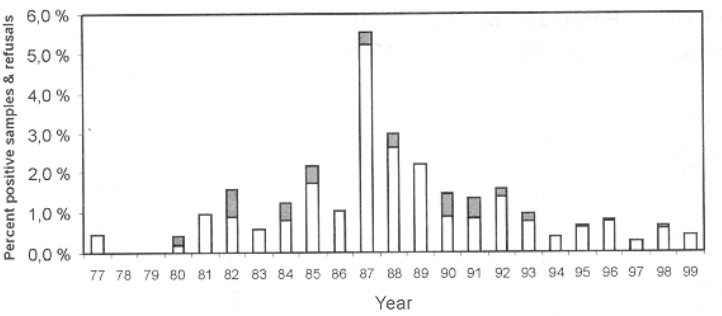


FIG. 3. *Time distribution of the percentage of positive samples (n=174; open bars) and refusals (n=27; grey bars) among NCS members.*

Nearly half of all positive samples and refusals (92 of 201 cases) were taken from athletes from the Norwegian Powerlifting Federation (Table 1). Athletes from the Norwegian Weightlifting Federation accounted for 22 positive samples (11%), whereas there were 21 positive samples from the Norwegian Amateur Athletics Federation (10%). No other national federation accounted for more than six positive samples or refusals.

Table 1. Number and percentage of positive samples among NCS members, shown separately for powerlifting, weightlifting, athletics, and a group of other sports

	No. of positive samples and refusals (%)			No. of samples		
	Men	Women	Both	Men	Women	Both
Powerlifting	88 (2.8)	4 (0.8)	92 (2.5)	3125	507	3632
Weightlifting	22 (1.8)	0	22 (1.7)	1198	69	1267
Athletics	21 (1.0)	0	21 (0.7)	2210	882	3092
Other sports	62 (0.6)	4 (0.1)	66 (0.5)	10,399	3116	13,515
Total	193 (1.1)	8 (0.2)	201 (0.9)	16,932	4574	21,506

Of the 174 positive samples, 43% contained anabolic steroids, 33% testosterone, 15% stimulants, 6% narcotic analgetics, 3% diuretics, and 3% were manipulation attempts (Table 2).

Table 2. Distribution of positive samples among NCS members in different groups of banned substances, showed separately for powerlifting, weightlifting, athletics, and a group of other sports

Type of doping	Powerlifting (n=92)	Weightlifting (n=22)	Athletics (n=21)	Other sports (n=66)	Total (n=201)
Stimulants	9	0	3	14	26
Narcotic analgesics	2	1	0	7	10
Anabolic steroids	50	3	7	15	75
Testosterone	12	12	6	28	58
Diuretics	3	2	0	0	5
Manipulation*	0	0	5	0	5
Refusals	17	4	3	3	27

*The sums may exceed 100% because some samples contained banned substances from more than one group. * All cases were use of probenecide, a masking agent for anabolic steroids.*

Samples taken from external athletes

Doping control teams from the NCS have taken 736 samples (3.0% of the total number of samples) from external athletes. Of these samples, 619 were taken from men (84%), 108 from women (15%), and in nine cases gender was unknown (1%). Body builders and non-organised gym users were the two largest groups with 253 and 417 samples, respectively. The main difference between the groups was that 77% of the samples from body builders were from announced tests, whereas all the samples from gym users were unannounced.

There were 114 positive samples (15% of the total number of samples; 106 men, 8 women) and 33 cases of refusal among the external athletes (4%; all men). The total percentage of positive samples and refusals was 20% (p.0001 vs NCS members), and this was higher among men (22%) than among women (7%, p.0003 vs men). Of these, 78% of the samples were found to contain anabolic steroids, and 32% tested positive for testosterone.

Samples from foreign athletes

A total of 2,842 samples have been taken from foreign athletes, 1,796 from men (63%), 1,045 from women (37%), and one unknown. Of these, 94% were taken in competition, usually in connection with major international events. There were 54 cases of positive samples or refusals (1.9%; p.0001 vs NCS members): 46 cases among men (2.6%) and 8 cases among women (0.8%; p.0008 vs men). In most cases, the samples were declared positive for anabolic steroids or testosterone (74%).

Discussion

The main findings of this study reporting the results from 25,087 urine samples from 1977 to 1999 were that the percentage of positive samples and refusals was 0.9% among NCS members, 20% among external athletes (mainly body builders and non-organised gym users), and 1.9% among foreign athletes; nearly all positive samples were found in men; there were important differences in the number of positives between different sports (bodybuilding, powerlifting, weightlifting, and athletics having the highest number of positive

cases); and there was a gradual reduction in the percentage of positive samples as test frequency increased.

There has been a gradual decline in the percentage of positive samples since 1987. This decline coincides with the increase in the number of samples taken, which during the same period has increased from about 500 per year to over 2,000. The question is, of course, whether the testing program has been an effective deterrent or whether athletes have become better at evading the control procedures. This question cannot be answered conclusively with the present data because some banned substances could not be detected with the laboratory methods available during the period of this study. Also, it is possible that some new drugs may be unlisted now but may be considered banned substances later.

The main problem in doping analysis is to detect exogenous use of substances that normally are produced in the body (e.g., testosterone, growth hormone, and erythropoietin). New production methods have increased the availability of these substances. IGF-1 is another example of a substance that has emerged lately as a doping agent[5,30]. DNA-recombinant human erythropoietin (rhEpo) became available in 1985 and was classified as a doping substance in 1988 by the International Ski Federation in 1988 and two years later by the IOC. This was done despite the fact that no methods had been devised for the unequivocal detection of rhEpo in blood or urine. Homologous blood doping, with reinfusion of previously stored blood, also cannot be detected, whereas Olympic testing for heterologous blood doping was conducted for the first time during the 1994 Winter Games in Lillehammer. It is therefore not surprising that no positive samples have been reported in some of the doping classes in which analytical methods have not existed to detect abuse. However, new methods may soon be available to detect doping with rhEpo and other recombinant human hormones[31].

From time to time athletes in targeted sports complain publicly that they feel stigmatized because of the frequent doping tests they are subjected to on a year-round basis. Other high-profile athletes welcome and even demand frequent unannounced testing because they feel that this helps to keep the playing field level and helps them protect themselves against unwarranted accusations of doping abuse. This study clearly shows that the NCS has performed targeted

testing in some sports throughout most of the period studied. However, when comparing sampling frequency with the percentage of positive samples, three sports stand out: powerlifting, weightlifting, and athletics. These sports have been subjected to frequent testing, especially if compared with the total number of member athletes in each federation. However, all of these sports also have a high percentage of positive samples, seemingly justifying the targeting of these sports in testing. An even more detailed picture would perhaps result if we had data available on subgroups of athletes within some sports (e.g., power events in athletics).

One fact appears not to be controversial. The proportion of positive tests differs greatly between men and women. Although the percentage of positives was high among female bodybuilders, there were very few positive tests among female NCS members. This sex difference means that the proportion of positive samples should be reported separately for men and women.

The prevalence of doping in sports is poorly documented in the literature and relates mostly to steroid use in North America. The prevalence of anabolic steroid use among high school students was estimated by Tanner et al.[25] to 3.8% in the 1980s and 2.8% in the 1990s on the basis of 14 different surveys. Buckley et al.[6] reported in 1988 that 6.6% of senior male college students used or had used anabolic steroids and that a certain amount of underreporting was probable. The largest study to date, a survey of 16,000 Canadian adolescents, showed that 4% had used doping during the previous year, and that the youngest users were 11 to 12 years old[15].

These studies relate to a mixed population of athletes and nonathletes, but Duda[10] reported results from an NGAA study of collegiate athletes that found that 4% of all student-athletes used anabolic steroids. Clement[7] found that 5% of the Canadian international athletes had used or were using anabolic steroids. Yesalis et al.[32] found that 33% of all powerlifters at a national championship admitted using anabolic steroids, and a follow-up interview revealed a 55% incidence rate for these athletes. Tricker et al.[27] indicated that 55% of male bodybuilders and 10% of female bodybuilders at a regional competition were anabolic steroid users.

It is a well known but not well-documented hypothesis that the elite athletes may be the smallest but most visible user group, and that a larger user group exists that is composed of lower-level rec-

reational individuals with other reasons for use, mostly physical appearance. A survey among users of private gyms from the United Kingdom indicated that 39% admitted having taken steroids, with bodybuilders being the subgroup with the largest number of steroid abusers[20]. A similar survey of individuals training in private gyms in California estimated that 15% were or had been steroid users[13]. The present study showed that the rate of positive samples was much higher among body builders and gym users (20%), than among competitive athletes (0.9%). Anabolic steroids and testosterone were the banned substances detected most frequently in these groups. This lends support to the hypothesis that steroid abuse is more prevalent outside organized sports.

The studies discussed above report data from surveys, and a direct comparison with the present results is difficult. In reviewing the literature, it is surprising to find that very few reports have been published despite the fact that several hundred thousand doping tests have been performed in IOC-accredited labs, and none of the reports have a follow-up of more than a few years. Park[19] reported the findings from the 1986 Asian Games at which 3.2% of the 585 samples were found to contain a banned drug, considerably higher than the present results. In a similar report from South Africa from 1983 to 1991, where most of the samples were taken in compétition, 5.9% of the samples were declared positive or three times the number from the present study in the same period[28,29]. Reports from 1981 to 1988 from Sweden[12,14] have shown a similar percentage of positives as in the present study in the same period (1.8%).

It should be noted that not all positive samples resulted in doping infractions. The legal consequences are usually also different between the different doping classes. Inadvertent use of banned substances may result in a positive drug test; however, this may not necessarily lead to a doping infraction. There are examples of cases of inadvertant stimulant or analgesic use that have not resulted in doping infractions. Other examples of positive samples that did not always result in prosecution are early testosterone cases. Testosterone doping leads to an increase in the ratio of testosterone to epitestosterone in urine, and currently a sample will be reported positive if this ratio exceeds 6:1. In cases with moderately elevated testosterone-epitestosterone ratios athletes are usually followed up with future tests, as well as a

review' of previous test results. In addition, methods have been developed to follow up such cases with better specificity[18].

The limitations in detection of doping should be readily accepted, and it is possible that athletes have used the presently undetectable substances such as growth hormone and EPO[4,17]. Also, the fact that the sensitivity of the steroid detection methods have increased and new methods (e.g., testosterone-epitestosterone ratios and follow-up tests for testosterone doping) have been introduced during the time period in question should be kept in mind when interpreting the results. However, the data show that an increase in the number of tests and systematic unannounced in- and out-of-competition testing is associated with a decrease in the percentage of positive samples within the detectable doping classes.

The deterrent effect of intensified unannounced testing and strict legal follow-up with at least 2 years of nonparticipation for those testing positive will hopefully lead to cleaner sport with fewer athletes and nonathletes taking acute and chronic health risks in striving to improve physical performance and appearance. Also, every effort must be made to improve the sensitivity and specificity of the methods of doping analysis.

Note

1. In 1996 the Norwegian Confederation of Sports and the Norwegian Olympic Committee became one organisation named the Norwegian Olympic Committee and Confederation of Sports.

Bibliography

1. Barnes L. Olympic drug testing: improvements without progress. *Phys Sportsmed* 1980;8:21-4.
2. Beckett AH, Cowan DA. Misuse of drugs in sport. *Br J Sports Med* 1979; 12: 185-94.
3. Berendonk B. *Doping-Dokumente. Von der Forschung zum Betrug.* Berlin: Springer-Verlag, 1991.
4. Birkeland KI, Donike M. Lingqvist A. Fagerhol M, Jensen J, Hemmersbach P. Oftebro H, Haug E. Blood sampling in doping control. First experiences from regu lar testing in athletics. *Int J Sports Med* 1997; 18:7-12.
5. Birkeland KI, Hemmersbach P. The future of doping control in athletes. Issues related to blood sampling. Sports *Med* 1999;28:25-33.
6. Buckley WE, Yesalis CE, Friedl KB, Anderson WA, Streit AL, Wright JE. Estimated prevalence of anabolic steroid use among high school seniors. *JAMA* 1988; 260:3441-5.
7. Clement DB. Drug use survey: results and conclusions. *Phys Sportsmed* 1983; 11:64-7.
8. Dirix A. The doping problem at the Tokyo and Mexico City Olympic Games. *J Sports Med Physical Fitness* 1966;6:183-6.

9. Dubin CL. *Commission of inquiry into the use of drugs and banned practice intended to increase athletic performance.* Ottawa, Canadian Government Publishing Centre, 1990.
10. Duda M. NCAA: only 4% of athletes used steroids. *Phys Sportsmed* 1985; 13:30.
11. Hanley DF. Drug and sex testing: regulations for international competition. *Clin Sports Med* 1986;13-7
12. Johansson NI. Doping as a threat against sport and society: the case of Sweden. *Int Rev Soc Sport* 1987;22:84-8.
13. Kersey RD. Anabolic-androgenic steroid use by private health club/gym athletes. *J Strength Cond Res* 1993:7:118-26.
14. Ljungqvist A. Domestic anti-doping programmes and activities. Reports. In: Bellotti P. Benzi 0, Ljungqvist A, eds. *IInd I.A.F. World Symposium on doping in Sport International Athletics Foundation.* Monte Carlo. I.A.F., 1990:163-5.
15. Melia P. Pipe A, Greenberg L. The use of anabolic-androgenic steroids by Canadian students. *Clin J Sport Med* 1996;6:9-14.
16. Mottram DR. Drugs and their use in sport. In: Mottram DR. ed. *Drugs in sport.* Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics. 1988: 1-31.
17. Mottram DR. Banned drugs in sport. Does the International Olympic Committee (IOC) list need updating? *Sports Med* 1999;27:1-10.
18. Oftebro H, Jensen 3, Mowinckel P. Norli HP. Establishing a ketoconazole suppres sion test for verifying testosterone administration in the doping control of athletes. *J Endocrinol Metab* 1994;78:973-7.
19. Park 3. Doping test report of the 10th Asian Games in Seoul. *J Sports Med Physical Fitness* 1991;31:303-17.
20. Perry HM, Wright D, Littlepage BNC. Dying to be big: a review of anabolic steroid use. *BrJ Sports Med* 1992;26:259-61.
21. Pickering R. Comment. *J Biosocial Sci* 1981;Suppl. 7:171-3.
22. Prokop L. The struggle against doping and it's history. *J Sports Med Physical* Fitness 1970;10:45-8.
23. Puffer J. The use of drugs in swimming. *Clin Sports Med* 1986;5:77-89.
24. Ramsamy S: A review of the actions most needed. In: *The social context of doping. The 4th permanent world conference on anti-doping in sport.* London. The Sports Council, 1993:24-6.
25. Tanner SM, Miller DW, Alongi *C.* Anabolic steroid use by adolescents: prevalence, motives and knowledge of risks. *Clin J Sport Med* 1995;5:108-15.
26. Todd T. Anabolic steroids: the gremlins of sport. *J Sport Hist* 1987; 14:87-107.
27. Tricker A, O'Neill MR, Cook D. The incidence of anabolic steroid use among com petitive bodybuilders. *J Drug Educ* 1989; 19:313-25.
28. van der Merwe PJ, Hundt HKL, Müller FO, van Velden DP. Drugs in sport: the first 5 years of testing in South Africa. S *African Med J* 1988;74:161-2.
29. van der Merwe PJ, Kruger HSL. Drugs in sport - results of the past 6 years of dope testing in South Africa. S *African Med J* 1992;82:151-3.
30. Veggeberg S. Beyond steroids *New Scientist* 13 January 1996:28-31.
31. Wide L, Bengtsson *C,* Berglund B, Ekblom B. Detection in blood and urine of recombinant erythropoietin administered to healthy men. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 1995;27:1569-76.
32. Yesalis CE, Herrick RT, Buckley WE, Friedl KB, Brannon D, Wright JE. Self-reported use of anabolic-androgenic steroids by elite power lifters. *Phys Sportsmed* 1988;16:91-100.

PRACTICE-COMMUNITIES AS DELIBERATIVE BODIES

by Heather SHERIDAN *(GBR)*

A paradox of modern men's professional tennis is that as the standard of play improves matches have become less interesting to watch. According to sports journalists and afficionados of the game fast court matches are increasingly dominated by power serving at the expense of the skills, strategy and tactical play traditionally associated with the game. There are two possible ways of resolving the dominance of power-serving in the current game: 1) redefining the specifications of equipment, and 2) altering the rules of the game.

The way in which the power serving issue is resolved is crucial as it will determine the future direction and development of the game. It is not clear, however, whose interests are served by technical and technological innovations in elite male tennis. Although serve-related technology and/or technical rule changes may sometimes serve all or just some of the interests of the players, the game and the governing body, as well as the economic interests of commodity producers such as ball and racket manufacturers, it is unlikely that all their interests can be met simultaneously.

Morgan (1994) believes that for sport to flourish all substantive policy decisions concerning the conduct and reform of sport should be determined by practice-communities. Morgan (1994) draws on Lyotard's (1988) distinction between two kinds of judicial dispute to support his argument. A "différend" is a dispute whereby one of the aggrieved parties becomes a victim because he or she is deprived of the means of presenting their argument. In contrast, a "litige" is a litigation wherein both parties concur on the description of the dispute in addition to the means for solving it. Morgan (1994) argues that the deliberative process of practice-communities should aim to change all "différends" into "litigations" so that the natural force of the superior argument triumphs over the coercive force of political power and social domination. Practice-communities become judicial

bodies or critical tribunals that provide an arena for reaching a rational consensus enabling disputes, as to the appropriate character of and conduct in sporting practices, to be resolved. The aim of this paper is to critically analyse one particular aspect of this conception. As it is used in modern pluralistic democracies ""interests" is one of those concepts that connects descriptive and explanatory statements to normative judgement" (Connolly 1993, p.46). Thus, the aim of this paper is to consider the different concepts of "interests" in order to determine which is the most appropriate to contribute to the resolution of the problem of the dominance of power-serving within the practice-community of elite male tennis.

The structure of the paper is as follows. First, the concept of "interests" is explored. It is argued that identifying the concept of "interests" most suitable to contribute to resolving the dominance of power-serving in the current game will be more helpful if we keep its normative function in mind. Second, a critique which examines more closely some normative concepts of "interests" is developed. It *is* argued that the fairest way in which the problem of the dominance of power-serving in elite male tennis is resolved should depend on the compatibility of the alternatives proposed with the attainment of the internal goods of tennis. Finally a conclusion is drawn. It is agreed with Morgan (1994) that for sport to flourish all substantive policy decisions concerning the conduct and reform of sport, such as the problem of the dominance of power-serving within the practice-community of elite male tennis, should be determined by practice-communities.

I

If a policy is said to be in the interests of a person or group of persons then it is not only being asserted that the person or persons would benefit from it in some way but that this also provides a reason to support the implementation of the policy. "Interest," then, is a central concept in explaining why x or y policy should be supported but there are many conflicting accounts of "interest," some of which include: the interests of a person; what is in a person's interests (Peters 1970); the public interest (Benn 1959-60; Barry 1964; Peters 1970); the interests of the game (Butcher & Schneider

1998); interests as policy preference; utilitarian interests; interests as need fulfilment; and, real interests (Connolly 1993).

Connolly (1993, p.46) explains the importance of seeing that, in a modern liberal democratic society, "interest" is a concept that links "descriptive" and "explanatory" statements with "normative judgement". Where "normative judgement" is concerned, Connolly (1993, p.46), paraphrasing Taylor's (1967) suggested link between "interests" and normative appraisal, explains that

> *although to say "x is in y's "interest"" is not equivalent to saying it is good, it is one of the licenses for making the prima facie judgement that x is good or desirable.*

Another way of seeing the link between "interests" and normative appraisal identified by Connolly (1993), is to notice that although the concept of "interests" may be defined in a variety of ways, it is significant that all of these definitions refer, somewhere in their definition, to the wants, choices, and preferences of individuals. These definitions, then, reflect the widespread acceptance of the principle that people ought to be able to act in any way they choose or want unless overriding considerations intervene (Connolly 1993). Connolly (1993) explains that talk about interests carries over into political discourse the principle that people ought to be able to act in any way they choose or want. In politics the principle is reinforced as the kind of wants that enter into the meaning of "interests" are precisely those held to be somehow significant, enduring, basic or fundamental in politics (Connolly 1993). Connolly (1993) believes the disputes between social scientists about where and how conative states such as wants, needs and preferences, are included in the concept of "interests," reflect disputes about which conative states under what conditions merit the normative endorsement "interests" provides. The main debate centres on the two opposing "descriptive" and "explanatory" theories (Connolly 1993, p.46), briefly outlined below.

"Descriptive" social scientists believe the "proper" meaning of "interests" in political and social life lies in the descriptive conditions or criteria of the application of "interests" (Connolly 1993). But, Connolly (1993) argues that this theory is problematic as one set of descriptive conditions or criteria will influence us to focus on a specific set of conative states created under certain conditions, while

other definitions will redirect our focus toward other conditions. Connolly (1993, p.47) explains that

> *The effect of such definitional proposals is to privilege certain actual or potential conative states for purposes of normative appraisal in politics and oflen to blind us to possible considerations operating outside of those boundaries.*

In other words, those who refer to descriptive statements to formulate policies may not be aware, or perhaps are choosing not to acknowledge, the idea that "interests" shape and determine our normative priorities. Descriptive statements, then, cannot tell us which of any of the proposed technological or technical changes to tennis would "really" be in the best interests of the practice-community of tennis as descriptive statements are distorted in that they are insufficiently grounded in, or connected to, normative judgements.

Connolly (1993) explains why "explanatory theory," in contrast to descriptive statements, produces more definite and detailed normative results. "Explanatory theory" means to tell us what interests citizens have, how the political system variously encourages or discourages some interests; it means to tell us why and how some people fail to recognise some of their interests, and whether, and what the costs might be, if some of these unrecognised interests could be revealed and promoted through political pressure; and lastly, it means to tell us the extent to which some of the demands and pressures currently on the political system do not represent the identifiable interests of citizens but, instead, represent their projection of unachievable dreams and desires onto public arenas. In summary, "explanatory theory"

> *"sets the crucial dimensions through which the phenomena (of interests) can vary" (Taylor 1967, p.47) and through its assessments of the possibilities, costs, and risks of satisfying the interests it identifies, it informs us "how we are to judge of good and bad" (Taylor 1967, p.47), (Connolly 1993, p47).*

Thus, identifying the concept of "interests" most suitable to contribute to resolving the dominance of power-serving in the current game will be more helpful if we keep its normative function in mind. It will help us to understand the extent to which debates about the conditions or criteria of "interests" are a part of the much wider

debate about what the structure and content of modern pluralistic societies should be. The following critique examines more closely some of the normative concepts of "interests" referred to above.

II

Butcher & Schneider (1998, p.9) attempt to defend the position that "fair play" in sport can be understood as "respect for the game" by arguing that sports are practices and practices can have "interests". Thus, "respect for the game" will involve respect for the "interests of the game (or sport) as a practice" (Butcher & Schneider 1998, p.9). At first sight this account of "interests" may be the most appropriate for resolving the problem of the dominance of power-serving in elite male tennis as they seem to be implying that whatever is good for the practice (the game of tennis), is good for the members of the practice, is good for the practice. In other words, their account of "interests" seems to be concerned with the social whole. This is similar to Peters' (1970) account of the "public interest" which is also concerned with the social whole. In his thesis on education Peters (1970) argues that schools must not only consider the "interests" of children and what is in their "interest" but must also consider what is in the wider "public interest". As Butcher & Schneider (1998) do not actually explain what they mean, conceptually, by "interests", we can, perhaps, gain a clearer understanding of what they mean if we examine more closely Peters' (1970) account of the "public interest". Peters (1970) identifies two ideas that are intimated by the concept of the "public interest". On the first interpretation the idea is to pursue the development of policies that do not clearly favour any specific private or individual interest. There could be no proposals based purely in terms of a "sectional interest" (Peters 1970, p. 170). In terms of elite male tennis this would mean, for example, forcing the Players Council (players union) to consider the wider interests of people in the community other than the interests of the professional players whom they represent. On the second interpretation, the idea is to develop policies that are in any person's interest, whatever shape his or her individual pursuit of his or her interests may take, such as ensuring the supply of food, health and transport services. In terms of elite male tennis, this might mean the Players Council would support the development of policies thought to broadly

benefit everyone in the whole community such as the development of an "anti-drugs in tennis" policy.

Thus, if we are to understand Butcher & Schneider's (1998) account of "interests" in terms of Peters' (1970) account of the "public interest" then this raises a problem for their claim that a practice can have "interests". For in terms of the practice of sport it seems more likely that the "interests of the game as a practice" is better understood in terms of "sectional interests". In the context of the practice of tennis, there are different "sectional interests" such as elite male tennis players, amateur players, elite female tennis players, administrators, court officials, medical support personnel such as physiotherapists and nutritionists, spectators, racket manufacturers, the sports media, and so on. But, although all of these groups of "sectional interests" may at one time or another, depending on the particular issue, share the same "interests", there may be many other occasions when their "interests" conflict. For example, it may be in the institutional "interests" of the ITF (the governing body of tennis) and in the "interests" of spectators, if highly ranked players are contracted to play in a minimum number of tournaments each year. First, because of the increase in revenue as tournament organisers can "sell" the "big names" in the draw, and second, spectators will be guaranteed the opportunity to watch the "big names" in action. But, this may not be in the "interests" of some of the higher ranked players, some of whom may be physically and mentally exhausted as it is likely that they are consistently getting to the closing stages of every tournament they play. At the same time, it may not be in the "interests" of spectators who may effectively have paid a premium to watch a sub-standard performance if a player is carrying an injury, or a player may have to "scratch" during a match because of injury, or a player may not be fully committed to winning because they are physically or mentally exhausted.

If we are able to conclude that the "interests of the game as a practice" is best understood as "sectional interests" then we will need to somehow differentiate between these different "sectional interests" in order to determine which of the "sectional interests" we should be guided by to resolve the problem of the dominance of power-serving in elite male tennis. On the one hand, we can be guided by the "sectional interests" of one group. On the other hand, we can try to

reach *an* agreement between all the "sectional interests". But first we need to determine what the "interests of the game as a practice" actually means if it does not simply refer to "sectional interests". In order to do this we need to examine more closely Butcher & Schneider's (1998) understanding of a "practice".

Butcher & Schneider (1998) draw on Maclntyre's (1985) account of "practices" in order to defend their position that "practices can have interests". Maclntyre (1985, p. 187) defines a "practice" as

> *any coherent and complex form of socially established cooperative human activity through which goods internal to that form of activity are realized in the course of trying to achieve those standards of excellence which are appropriate to, and partially definitive of, that form of activity, with the result that human powers to achieve excellence, and human conceptions of the ends and goods involved, are systematically extended.*[1]

Butcher & Schneider (1998) only very briefly refer to the role of institutions[2] in relation to practices in their discussion of the practical implications of viewing "fair play" as "respect for the game" despite the importance of institutions illustrated by Maclntyre's (1985, p. 194) claim that "no practices can survive for any length of time unsustained by institutions". The complex relations between institutions and practices can be illustrated through the example of floodlit play at the US Open. It is in the interests of tennis institutions such as the ITF and the USTA to support night-time scheduling of matches if we think in terms of the increased revenue from sponsors and spectators which can be reinvested in the game so there are better playing facilities and more opportunities to play the game. Moreover, increased media coverage would take the sport to a wider audience which may result in increased participation or even just provide pleasure to "couch potatoes" who can enjoy the spectacle of the excellences of elite tennis. But at the same time, floodlit tennis undermines the flourishing of the practice for playing under floodlights is not in the "interests" of the players. The outcome of matches played at the US Open should depend on the excellences that define tennis such as technical and strategic skills and abilities, speed around the court, hand/eye co-ordination and so on, not on the ability, or inability, to see the ball under floodlights. This example

clearly shows the way in which institutions of tennis both support and undermine the practice.

We are now in a position to draw some conclusions concerning Butcher & Schneider's (1998) claim that a practice can have "interests". From the above brief outline of Maclntyre's (1985) account of a "practice" it is difficult to see how a "practice" can have "interests". For a "practice" appears to be a concept or an abstraction, that enables us to more clearly understand what the "interests" of the individual members of a practice might be. Concepts cannot have "interests". As well as individuals having "interests" we have also seen that institutions can also have "interests". Thus, Maclntyre's concept of a "practice" is a useful theoretical framework that illustrates how the complex relations between the internal goods and the associated virtues needed to attain the internal goods, and where they stand in relation to external goods and institutions, hang together. But, if there were such a thing as the "interests of a practice" then surely it must relate to the internal goods of the game, but not exclusively. This idea is explained below.

We have seen that the "sectional interests" referred to above often conflict with other "sectional interests". We have also seen that these "sectional interests" may variously represent the "interests" of individuals and/or institutions. The problem that remains is whether we ought to be guided by the "sectional interests" of one group or whether we ought to try to reach an agreement between all the "sectional interests" in order to resolve the problem of the dominance of power-serving in elite male tennis. We need to return to Maclntyre's (1985) practice-institution paradigm to resolve this issue.

The ITF, as the governing institutional body of tennis, must bear some responsibility for the way in which the game develops. McNamee (1995, p.69) sums up the two problems facing any institution that tries to preserve a practice and its tradition

> *What criteria are chosen to justify changes that will benefit the practice while at the same time preserving its integrity, and who will decide them?*

In a pluralistic democratic society the moral standing of the policies implemented by the ITF should, following Peters (1970), be the kinds of policies which promote the already established institutionalised moral principles such as justice, equality, freedom and respect

for persons. The difficulty is in knowing whether any of the proposed technological or technical changes to the game will actually, contribute to the kind of good life embodied by the moral principles of justice, equality, freedom and respect for persons. In other words, we need to find a way of determining whether institutional corruption really is corrupt. The above example of floodlit tennis at the US Open highlights the problem. We need to know why many believe it is actually corrupt that the ITF and the USTA seem to have allowed, or perhaps embraced, policies that seem to prioritise the acquisition of external goods like the extra revenue they get from television companies, at the expense of the realisation of the internal goods of the game by the players.

In order to do this we need to develop a normative account of what the fair institution is. We need to contextualise the game of tennis and the different institutions of tennis such as the international governing body of tennis, national governing bodies of tennis, commodity providers such as racket manufacturers, and the media such as television companies and journalists, and so on. This will enable the "interests" of the players, administrators, spectators, and so on, to be taken into account when determining how to resolve the issue of the dominance of power-serving in elite male tennis.

In conclusion, the fairest way in which the problem of the dominance of power-serving in elite male tennis is resolved should depend on the compatibility of the alternatives proposed with the attainment of the internal goods of tennis as "the very game in itself is the core practice and the key arena for the development of ideals of fair-play and its attendant virtues" (Loland & McNamee 1999, p.7). The game of tennis is everything. Without it, the institutions of tennis have no reason to exist. Thus, a preliminary conclusion as to the criteria chosen to justify changes to the practice of tennis is that any future developments and changes ought to be driven and shaped by the internal goods of the game rather than the external goods of institutions. Being guided by the attainment of the internal goods of the game is the way in which an agreement can be reached between all the "sectional interests". But, this is not to say that external goods have no part to play in determining what is in the "interests of the game as a practice". Thus, it is agreed with Morgan (1994), then, that for sport to flourish all substantive policy decisions concerning

the conduct and reform of sport, such as the problem of the dominance of power-serving within the practice-community of elite male tennis, should be determined by practice-communities.

Notes

1. Two further ideas central to Maclntyre's (1985) account of a practice are the internal goods particular to a practice and the virtues necessary to realising the internal goods. Maclntyre (1985, p. 188) explains what he means by internal goods by differentiating them from external goods. His explanation is contextualised in terms of the practice of tennis:
   there are the goods internal to the practice of [tennis] which cannot be had in any way but by playing [tennis] or some other game of that specifIc kind, (Maclntyre 1985, p. 188).
   In other words, the internal goods are inextricably bound up with the practice of tennis. After all, the satisfaction felt from hitting a topspin forehand in tennis can only be experienced by hitting a topspin forehand in tennis. Further, the internal goods of the practice of tennis must be experienced as an insider: *they can only be identified and recognised by the experience of participating in the practice in question. Those who lack the relevant experience are incompetent thereby as judges of internal goods. (Maclntyre 1985, p. 188-9).*
   Maclntyre (1985, p. 188) explains what he means by external goods in the following way
   there are those goods externally and contingently attached to [tennis]-playing and to other practices by the accidents of social circumstance ... such goods as prestige, status and money. There are always alternative ways for achieving such goods, and their achievement is never to be had only by engaging in some particular kind of practice.
   In other words, external goods are not practice specific. For example, earning $100,000 for winning a tennis tournament is not the only way to earn $100,000.
   The second idea central to Maclntyre's (1985, p. 191) account of a practice are the virtues essential to realising the internal goods of a particular practice: *A virtue is an acquired human quality the possession and exercise of which tends to enable us to achieve those goods which are internal to practices and the lack of which effectively prevents us from achieving any such goods.* Maclntyre (1985, p. 191) explains that
   goods can only be achieved by subordinating ourselves within the practice in our relationship to other practitioners. We have to learn to recognize what is due to whom; we have to be prepared to take whatever self-endangering risks are demanded along the way: and we have to listen carefully to what we are told about our own inadequacies and to reply with the same carefulness for the facts. In other words we have to accept as necessary components of any practice with internal goods and standards of excellence the virtues of justice, courage and honesty. For not to accept these ... bars us from achieving the standards of excellence or the goods internal to the practice that it renders the practice pointless except as a device for achieving external goods. In other words, members of the practice of tennis can only gain an appreciation

for the excellences of tennis, and thus attain the internal goods of the practice of tennis, if they pursue those excellences particular to tennis in a way that embodies virtue. For example, an elite male tennis player who cheats to win his match does not embody the virtue of justice. Similarly, if we accept that competitiveness is a virtue of sport, this is not embodied if a player "tanks" or "throws" a match.

2. Maclntyre (1985, p.194) explains
Institutions are characteristically and necessarily concerned with what I have called external goods. They are involved in acquiring money and other material goods; they are structured in terms of power and status, and they distribute money, power and status as rewards. Nor could they do otherwise if they are to sustain not only themselves, but also the practices of which they are the bearers. For no practices can survive for any length of time unsustained by institutions. Indeed so intimate is the relationship of practices to institutions - and consequently of the goods external to the goods internal to the practices in question - that institutions and practices characteristically form a single causal order in which the ideals and the creativity of the practice are always vulnerable to the acquisitiveness of the institution, in which the cooperative care for common goods of the practice is always vulnerable to the competitiveness of the institution. In this context the essential function of the virtues is clear. Without them, without Justice, courage and truthfulness, practices could not resist the corrupting power of institutions.

Bibliography

1. Barry, B.M. (1964) "The Public Interest," in Peters, R.S., op.cit.. pp 167-178.
2. Benn, S.I. (1959-60) "Interests" in Politics", in Peters, R.S., op. cit., pp 167-178.
3. Butcher, R. & Schneider, A. (1998) "Fair Play as Respect for the Game," Journal of the Philosophy of Sport. Vol. XXV, pp 1-22.
4. Connolly, W.E. (1993) The Terms of Political Discourse. (3rd ed), Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
5. Loland, S. & McNamee, M. (1999) "Fair Play and the Ethos of Sports: an eclectic theoretical framework." unpublished paper.
6. Lyotard, J-F. (1988) The Différend: phrases in dispute, Manchester: Manchester University Press.
7. Maclntyre, A. (1985) After Virtue: a study in moral theory. (2nd ed), London.
8. McNamee, M. (1995) "Sporting Practices, Institutions, and Virtues: A Critique and a Restatement," Journal of the Philosophy of Sport. Vol. XXII, pp 61-82.
9. Morgan, W.J. (1994) Leftist Theories of Sport: a critique and reconstruction. Urbana & Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
10. Peters, R.S. (1970) Ethics and Education. (2nd ed), London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd.
11. Taylor, C. (1967) "Neutrality in Political Science," in Connolly, W.E., op. cit.. pp 45-84.

THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND THE CYBORG-ATHLETE: ANY ROOM FOR IMPROVEMENT?

by Andy MIAH *(GRB)*

Introduction

This paper is prompted by the radical emergence of technology that exists in contemporary sport and culture. Of particular interest are the technologies that threaten to alter an already changing concept of the human condition, such as genetic engineering and prosthetics. However, it is fundamental to consider the more subtle technologies, which influence change in sports, such as the equipment used by an athlete and the methods of training that are unmistakably technological. Such subtle technologies, I argue, can provoke a rationale for understanding sport that can allow the application of the more confronting technologies to sports. Thus, sports technologies provide contexts that would seem to make the application of such technologies as genetic engineering and prosthetic enhancements acceptable within sports and so their discussion is both timely and salient for sports persons. In many ways, such technologies are quite different from the kind that described the machinery of the Industrial Revolution. Biotechnology, molecular science, and even nanotechnology pose quite different implications for life on earth than does mechanical engineering. However, in other, more fundamental ways, they are still very similar. The rationality of the Enlightenment period and its 'faith' in science to enable truth by providing maximum efficiency would seem to have remained to this day and even to have heightened as a value of sport and society more generally. Science (mostly realised as technology, for it is the mediator of scientific language) is heralded as the truth out there, the knowledge that humanity has sought so arbitrarily in the past. With science, wisdom could be documented, processed, rationalised, criticised, operationalised, and reduced. However one may describe it, the perceived objectivity of technological application is one that is positive: technology as scientific rigour enables truth

and, whilst perhaps not necessarily good, when used well, it can be enhancing of life.

This paper addresses the question of technological enhancement in sport and asks to what are athletes enhancing their bodies and practices? How far must athletes go to provide the enhancement of performance that is so valued in competitive sport? Moreover, it will be asked whether there is anything problematic about the ways in which such enhancement takes place and what the ends of such interest might be. Of course, the language I employ indicates my conclusion, though I wish to make it explicit. I will argue here that the sustained interest in enhancing performance - through legitimate means or otherwise - is ultimately self-defeating for sport and will, most likely, bring about a restructuring of values in sport, or the radical embrace of human altering technologies. Thus, I will make the main argument that performance-based sport will ultimately become uninteresting and suggest three possible scenarios for the future of sport that may be summarised as follows

1. The re-evaluation of sport
2. The re-description of sport
3. The end of sport

The first entails the realisation of enhancement in sport as ultimately valueless and will see the championing of other values related to sport, such as fair play, sportsmanship, and other such virtues. The second argument will suggest that, in response to performance enhancement, sports can re-describe their activities. Thus, governing bodies might introduce different kinds of technology to compensate for this detrimental emphasis on performance. The third contention will be that sport will seek to legitimise performance enhancing technologies that will allow the continued surpassing of human limits in sport and bring about a new kind of sport that has a different regard for distinctions between legitimate and illegitimate means of enhancement. It argues that the general technologising of sports and the significance of what may be discussed as a *technological teleology* that competitive sports tend to purport is self-defeating. It is argued that the result of such teleology implies circumstances that, *without* the assistance of technology, makes nonsense out of the goals to which achievement-oriented sports aspire. In recognising that sports must demonstrate excellence to sustain the interest of the spectator, and

maintain the commercial viability of sport, the ideas describe the inevitable dependence of achievement-oriented sports upon technology and considers how such dependence may manifest itself. Sport is described as existing on a continuum of technological change, where technology becomes increasingly necessary as it becomes more apparent that the human body cannot sustain limitless, unaided enhancement.

Before outlining these three alternatives, it is necessary to argue why sport must reconsider this interest in performance enhancement; why it is that sport cannot remain predominantly about performance and success. The concept of performance enhancement has had strong associations with elite competition, where the importance of competition and winning is paramount. Whether it is characterised as the "performance principle" (Hoberman, 1992) or 'achievement-oriented sport' (Elias and Dunning, 1986), the cultural, indeed, global edifice that is elite sport undoubtedly places great emphasis upon the ability to excel. Sport philosophy has concerned itself particularly with the problematic matter of drug taking and doping as examples of unacceptable performance enhancement, recognising the ethical issues that their use evokes. From such ideas have emerged arguments about the appropriateness of these methods in the contexts of fair play (Gardner, 1989), paternalism (Brown, 1995), dehumanisation (Hoberman, 1988; Simon, 1984), and social-contracts (Fraleigh, 1984), whilst others have written about the intractable situation that describes performance-enhancing (Eassom, 1995). However, the context of such arguments appear to make an implicit distinction between acceptable and unacceptable methods of enhancement, taking for granted that acceptable methods of performance enhancement cause no concern for sport. The interest of this paper is quite different and wishes to suggest that there are fundamental difficulties with performance enhancement *at all* within sports. I argue this for two reasons: the first outlines a conceptual anomaly in sport that is implicit of its definition and the second has to do with the biological limitations of athletes.

The self-defeating ambition of performance enhancement

A conceptual paradox

The concept of performance enhancement has undergone some rigorous analysis within the philosophy of sport. Its implicit asso-

ciation with technology has rendered authors concluding that performance enhancement has something to do with efficiency. Thus, within sport athletes seek the most efficient means possible within competition. However, there is one caveat in that sport requires that performance enhancement is achieved by *legitimate* means though the distinction between these and unacceptable means is unclear. One might simply cite the rules of sport to distinguish between the two, though this does not always help in terms of justifying the acceptance or rejection of new technologies or methods of performance enhancement in sport. For example, the Fast-skin swimming costume introduced by Speedo in April 2000 caused a great deal of controversy. This new innovation consists of a full body (neck to ankle) suit, the surface of which is modelled on shark-skin, which confers a performance enhancement on an athlete's swimming time. Indeed, it has been documented to provide a 3 percent advantage for an athlete wearing the suit. Whilst one might wish to argue the legitimacy of this device by referring to the rules, the rules are unclear. Whilst the international governing body the Fédération Internationale de Natation Amateur (FINA) has interpreted their rules to accept the suit, there are concerns about whether this is justified. The crucial matter for FINA seems to depend upon whether or not the suit is a device. To summarise, the rules of swimming outline that "no swimmer is permitted to use or wear any device that may aid speed, buoyancy or endurance during a competition" (Daily Mail, 2000). If, indeed, the suit is considered to be a device, then it might not be deemed acceptable. However, if the suit is not regarded as a device, but simply a costume, then there is no reason to ban the technology despite it conferring an advantage. Yet, the reason seems counter-intuitive and does not seem to provide us with a sufficient justification for banning or accepting a technology. Simply because something is or is not a device does not seem necessarily give a rationale for its acceptability. Indeed, it might be more appropriate to conclude its acceptability on the effect of the innovation (whether it enhances performance), rather than whether or not it is regarded as a device. Thus, the ability to distinguish legitimate technology from illegitimate technology is problematic; justifications seem tenuous and poorly considered.

However, there is a further point that can be made by considering Perry's (1988) criterion to determine the acceptability of technologies. Perry argues that a distinction can be made between performance enhancers that appear to reduce "performance inhibitors" and those that enhance, the former being acceptable in sport. Thus, the removal of performance inhibitors would constitute the lessening of those factors that appear to inhibit an athlete and where such inhibition prevents a representative portrayal of the athlete's performance). For example, Perry considers the making of lighter running shoes by technological innovation acceptable in competition because the weight of a running shoe (which 'inhibits' the performance) is "irrelevant to [the] qualitative appraisal of an athlete's running ability." Thus, by making the shoe lighter, the performance attains a more representative and thus, desirable measure of an athlete's running ability by removing the performance inhibiting weight of a shoe. In contrast, Perry would argue something like bionic legs as being an unacceptable method of performance enhancement since they would not remove an inhibitor, but add to a capability. It would seem then that Perry and his notion of athletic relevance helps to determine what are acceptable methods of performance enhancement. In response, I am not convinced by his thesis and wish still to contend that the making of lighter running shoes is also problematic for sports. My point is premised upon Perry's distinction, which is a little unclear and which neglects to articulate and thus, understand what constitutes a sporting performance - as defined by Perry.

In 1989, Hummel and Foster wrote one of the few studies of its time that considered, quite specifically, the application of technology to sport. This analysis of the implications that technology holds for the sport of fishing, recognises that there is some distinguishing characteristic within sport that *prevents* the employment of means that make it "easier". More specifically, the authors explain that, "sport is contrived, self-imposed difficulties in pursuit of some goal", illustrating that efficiency is not the sole criterion of an athlete's ambition when playing sport. Similarly, Suits' (1973) seminal work describing the elements of games and sports argues that sports require that there exist certain obstacles that prevent the use of more efficient means

> *to play a game is to attempt to achieve a specific state of affairs* (pre-lusory goal), *using only means permitted by rules* (lusory means), *where the rules prohibit use of more efficient in favor of less efficient means* (constitutive rules), *and where such rules are accepted just because they make possible such activity* (lusory attitude) *(Suits, 1973: 55).*

From these elements, it seems clear that sport is *not* solely about efficiency and employing technology to remove the elements simply to achieve greater efficiency - as Perry suggests is acceptable - is not appropriate. In the context of fishing, Hummel and Foster argue that a depth-finder, which helps an angler to locate likely areas of fish to increase catch rate, is unacceptable because it makes the skill easier. For such an example, it could be argued that Perry (1989) would not have much difficulty with accepting this kind of technology, since it might not be deemed athletically relevant. Thus, understanding Perry's notion of athletic relevance is problematic. How does one establish which are the aspects of a performance that are athletically relevant? Perhaps if we consider Perry's example of running, it could be argued that, with running, we seek to test the athlete's ability to power his/her legs to run as fast as possible. On such a definition, we might conclude that the structure of the foot is poorly designed for this and that we would allow running shoes to compensate for this human weaknesss that all of us share. Alternatively, one might argue that running is necessarily about testing the entire body of a runner - feet included. Thus, to augment the foot in anyway would be detracting from the test of the activity.

However, this is only one weakness of Perry's argument. Additionally, Perry (1988) fails to recognise that uninhibited performance is not the ambition of athletic performance. Athletes do not strive solely for total efficiency of movement. Rather, their movements are constrained by certain rules that delimit how one may achieve the goal (which Suits describes as the "lusory means"). For example, whilst the goal of boxing may be to knockout the opponent, it is not expected that one fighter may use a sledgehammer to achieve this goal, though this would perhaps be a more efficient device for achieving the prescribed end. Similarly, although the pre-lusory goal of speed cycling may be considered as endeavouring to cover the distance in the shortest time, it is not acceptable that one uses a mo-

torised cycle. These examples may seem crude, though they illustrate the important point that competitive sport strives for efficient performance *only* within the "constitutive rules" (Suits, 1973: 38) that determine the acceptable methods of achieving efficiency (lusory means). Such rules guide the manner in which goals can be achieved by contriving obstacles to make more efficient options inaccessible. Whilst perhaps not describing some essential quality about sport, it seems that the deliberate employment of obstacles (and the subsequent acceptance of regulative and constitutive rules), serves to create the very activity that describes a sport.

Consequently, whilst it may be claimed that technology is necessarily means-end oriented, when placed within the sporting context it is misused when implemented solely for such reasons. As Suits (1973: 54) states, "my overriding goal [in sport] is more complex [than simply efficiency]." Nevertheless, it is not being argued that efficiency is not an integral part of sport. Indeed, it is recognised, quite appropriately, by Hoberman (1988) that efficiency is a central aspect to sport. Rather, it is argued that efficiency within sports is constrained by the specific elements that identifies that activity as a sport. Thus, the function of performance enhancement in sport is something quite paradoxical since athletes attempt to enhance the efficiency of a performance, yet sport inherently requires that the performance is not entirely efficient. Such a conclusion properly suggests that an innovation designed only to make the athlete's performance more efficient, would not be a sufficient condition for its acceptance in a sport, since its effect will not be conducive to the promotion of play and the elements of sport.

Thus, performance enhancement seems contrary to an ideal of sport, which denotes that there is more to sport than simply achieving efficiency. Of course, the rules of running might not deem it unacceptable to use such technology to enhance the foot, and thus, if the response to my conclusion is that athletes seek efficiency within the permissible means, then my response is that it is these permissible means that I seek to justify and understand. Why are some means permissible and others not?

The implications of human limits

My second argument for dismissing the ambition of performance enhancement is based on a largely empirical claim, which argues

that elite athletes are approaching the limits of human capability within sport. Presently, spectators are witnesses to the breaking of world records by the tiniest of margins and athletes use whatever means available to ensure that they have the smallest of edges over competitors. But for how long can this continue? Will the 100m sprint still be interesting if it is not possible to distinguish between competitors? Let us suppose that athletes continue this trend and become even more closely matched in competition. I argue that an interest in sports, which are so heavily laden with a performance-ethic depends upon there being difference between competitors. Of course, the appearance of difference is also a technological impression. With camera technology that can make visible the differences between athletes that are one thousandth of a second, then we might still argue that difference occurs in sport and that they would remain interesting. However, to follow this argument to its logical conclusion is to recognise that athletes would approach parity in performance. Moreover, where the distinction between competitors is of such a small margin, then it would seem very difficult to argue that the distinction between winner and loser is due largely, if at all, to the athlete. Rather, it would seem due more to environmental or chance factors, which do not seem sufficient to attribute glory to the athlete (Bailey, 1980).

Thus, my argument wishes to suggest that the ambition for performance enhancement renders sports uninteresting and in a rather difficult position. As such, I see a number of opportunities for sport to address this difficulty which will comprise the remainder of this paper. Whilst outlining three possible futures for, I will focus on what might be termed the end of sports.

The re-evaluation of sport

In 1978, Allen Guttmann wrote his seminal text *From Ritual to Record,* where he outlined how modern sport was unique in the history of sport for its emphasis on recording and measuring performances. Inextricably tied to the Enlightenment period of rationality that swept the Industrial Age and paralleled significant technological and scientific innovations and discovery, Guttmann considers how sport moved from an interest in the amateuristic ideals of fair play, to the professional, commercial interests of winning at

all costs and being the best. It is my contention that sport must look back on this history if it is to remain interesting. The possibility of there being limitations on the ambition of performance enhancement renders it necessary for sport to reconsider what is valuable about its practices other than the result. Thus, when faced with no other possibility to enhance performance, sports must turn to other values that are integral of it. To a large degree, this might entail the consideration about what is virtuous about sporting performances and athletes. Thus, the role model will become the good sportsman or woman, the player who shows courage, honour, humility, and modesty in his performance, rather than the athlete who is arrogant, reduces the practice of sports to a business, or the team that has the most amount of funding. Whilst such a thesis seems unlikely - indeed, Kevin Keegan, manager of the England football team considered the ideal to be mere pie in the sky (Keegan, cited in BBC, 2000) - where there is no alternative but to embrace other values in sport, the position may seem quite attractive.

The re-description of sports

A number of things can be learnt from the way in which performance enhancement has affected sports previously and what have been the implications of continued enhancement in a sport. For example, javelin throwing in the 1980s saw an alteration to the nature of the skill that was being measured. Concerns arose within the activity since big throwers appeared to be throwing dangerously close to the spectators. As such, governing bodies chose to alter the structure of the javelin to make the skill more technical rather than based upon throwing power. Thus, the more technically proficient competitors began to perform better than the previously more successful "big throwers". Such change in skill requirements rendered competitors no longer in close proximity to the limitations of their abilities, which brought about "a changing of the guard in favour of athletes with a different mix of skills" (Tenner, 1996, p.240). Moreover, the new skills did not necessarily produce performances that exceeded the limitations of the previous ones. Rather, they re-described the skills that were being measured or evaluated with the explicit intention of enabling distinctions between competitors. Another case in point might be the Fast-skin swimming suit as described previously.

Alternatively, one might consider such technologies as tennis racquets and balls, golf clubs and courses, sailing technology, climbing and mountaineering devices. This kind of effect might be a further strategy for compensating for over-enhancement in sport. Indeed, the International Tennis Federation (ITF) recently announced their decision to experiment with larger balls in tennis to reduce the power and dominance of the male serve (ITF, 1999).

Conclusion: The end of sport

Finally, in response to the self-defeating ends of performance enhancement in sport, it is also possible for sports to implement further technological means that would provide the required enhancement of an athlete's performance to sustain extraordinary performances. Doping, prosthetics, and genetic engineering are examples of this kind of strategy and I would argue that the more subtle methods of manipulation as outlined at the outset of this paper, are transitory of these more radical technologies (though perhaps they do not suppose the final strategy in the manipulation of human limits). Thus, the re-description of limits through employing more precise methods of measurement, whilst in keeping with the modern obsession with scientific precision, may be argued as having the effect of de-valuing the extraordinary performance (which in achievement-oriented sport is unacceptable). The distinction between competitors would, eventually, become so minute that it would seem insignificant - world records that are broken by one millionth of a second do not seem at all extraordinary. Consequently, such a method of preserving achievement-oriented sport would not seem convincing. It is more persuasive to consider that such strategies would eventually give way to alternative methods of illusion, where such illusion involves recognising that any method seeking to shift humanity's proximity to its limits is merely shifting the current understanding of human limitations and how they are defined. The notion of limits is thus, one that is constructed and contextual.

Similarly, the re-structuring of sporting experiences through altering the kind of skill that is tested, whilst perhaps beneficial in that sports could realistically manipulate such skills without limitation, may be recognised as simply postponing the inevitable mastery over the *new* skill that an athlete would eventually recover. Thus,

whilst a sport may deter the athlete's mastery over performance by altering a component of the game to make it more difficult, and whilst such changes could take place on a number of occasions, it may be expected that athletes would eventually regain their mastery of the performance to the extent where no further changes to the structure of the sport would be sensible. This point might also refer to the ITF's decision to introduce new tennis balls, as outlined previously. Consequently, it would again be necessary for such sports to seek other means of maintaining the appearance of extraordinary performances within their activities.

It is argued here that the remaining strategy of *limit manipulation* requires sports to enhance the capability of the athlete by using other technological methods. Such innovative processes as prosthetics, robotics, and genetic engineering, are representative of such means, and are significant because they could produce the level of distinction between competitors that the *current* understanding of human limits requires. These methods do not require any alteration to the way in which human limitations are understood. Rather, they provide the means through which it is possible to continue the current comprehension of human limits.

Such strategies for the enhancement of athletes and performances may be considered as quite un-sport-like, even a dystopian image of sport. Indeed, such means describe the possibility of the Frankensteinian sports performer, the drug induced athlete, the monstrosity that is the augmented athlete. Yet, if sports aspire to the ideals of achievement-orientation, then such logic renders these images as positive, perpetuating, and Utopian. Indeed, this is the fundamental premise of Transhuman philosophy - the use of technology to enhance human beings. No longer would the boundaries of performance be constrained to the marginal advancement of the human body. Rather, the technological era of sport permits a substantial advancement and improvement through the sophistication of human-technological integration; the perpetual cyborg in all its many forms. Of course, the traditionalist response to this argument would be to say that such methods of achieving increased performance are unfair, cheating, or unacceptably unnatural. The possibilities of genetically modifying humans is paradigmatic of such concerns, where there is an intuitive sense of loss when faced with the genetic manipulation of human beings (or any

life form). However, it seems that intuitive is as good as it gets, where genetics is concerned. That such technologies would render the human being impoverished of supposedly human characteristics is to misunderstand entirely the implications of such technology, which pose little threat to our concept of humanness -which is already subject to much interpretation and change.

So, it might be wondered in what sense this thesis concludes it to be the end of sports. To explain, the numerous ways in which I have argued the difficulty with performance enhancement suggest that modern, elite sport must change fundamentally if it is to remain performance-focused. As such, it can be argued that on this level alone sport, as it is currently understood will come to an end inasmuch as sports would re-describe the specifications of their activities or re-evaluate performance to bring about a different kind of elite sport. However, if one is of the opinion that sports will remain highly commercial, win oriented and focused on the increased enhancement of performances, then it would seem that this interest will be most accommodated by technological methods of enhancement. Thus, the challenge for technology is to provide forms of performance enhancement that can be construed as legitimate in sport. For example, the possibilities of genetic technology to provide various kinds of enhancements could be a useful means to enhance an athlete's ability. Whilst intuitively, such technology might seem abhorrent, it seems remarkably similar to other kinds of technology that are acceptable in sport. Indeed, in sport presently, genetic difference is not regarded as unacceptable. At best, we see such differences compensated for by such measures as weight divisions in boxing or wrestling. Consequently, there would not seem any necessary reason to treat enhanced genotypes differently. Moreover, such enhancements would be problematic to disqualify from competition if one is to recognise the United Nations' (1997) drafting of the Universal Declaration on Human Rights and the Human Genome, which outlines that it would be unacceptable to discriminate against any individual on the basis of their genetic disposition. Thus, if individuals were enhanced genetically, whether during gestation or later in life, this would seem unacceptable.

Amongst such circumstances, the distinction between the legitimate and the illegitimate becomes irrevocably blurred and borderline

cases become swept into the acceptable. Perhaps, this might connote the re-focusing of anti-doping efforts to a more educative or regulative acceptance of such technology. Alternatively, it might render drug-taking acceptable or legally, impossible to restrict since if the genetically modified are considered legitimate athletes, then it would seem unfair to prevent the unenhanced form utilising further means to level the playing field. Either way, the implications of this future for sport are immense and require a great deal of thought from governing bodies given that the ends of performance are in sight.

Bibliography

1. Bailey, C. (1975). Games, winning and education. *Cambridge Journal of Education,* 5(1), 40-50.
2. British Broadcasting Corporation (2000, April 29) *Foreign Legion,* BBC, London.
3. Bjerklie, D. (1993, January). High-Tech Olympians. *Technology Review,* 96, 22-30.
4. Brown, W.M. (1984) Paternalism, Drugs & the Nature of Sport, Journal of the Philosophy of Sport, XI, 14-22.
5. Daily Mail Reporter (2000, March 17) Shark Man: Swimsuit based on Jaws that could tear the Olympic record book apart, *The Daily Mail,* 16.
6. Eassom, S. EU (1995). Playing Games with Prisoners' Dilemmas, *Journal of the Philosophy of Sport,* XXII, 26-47.
7. Elias, N., & Dunning, E. (1986). Quest for Excitement: Sport and Leisure in the Civilizing Process.
8. Fraleigh, W. P. (1984). Performance Enhancing Drugs in Sport: The Ethical Issue. *Journal of the Philosophy of Sport,* 23-29.
9. Gardner, R. (1989). On Performance-Enhancing Substances and the Unfair Advantage Argument. *Journal of the Philosophy of Sport,* 16, 59-73.
10. Glad, B. (1986). The Technical Scene and the New Javelin. *New Studies in Athletics,* 1(2), 13-16.
11. Guttmann, A. (1978) *From Ritual to Record: The Nature of Modern Sports.* New York: Columbia University Press.
12. Hoberman, J. M. (1988). Sport and the Technological Image of Man. In W. J. Morgan & K. V. Meier (Eds.), *Philosophic Inquiry in Sport* (Vol. 1, pp. 319-327). Illinois: Human Kinetics.
13. Hoberman, J. M. (1992). *Mortal Engines.* Canada: The Free Press.
14. Hummel, R. L., & Foster, G. S. (1986). A Sporting Chance: Relationships Between Technological Change & Concepts of Fair Play in Fishing. *Journal of Leisure Research,* 18(1), 40-52.
15. International Tennis Federation (1999, July 12). ITF AGM Adopts tennis ball rule change. The News Bulletin of the International Tennis Federation. Hypertext document: http://www.itftennis.com/html/new/this week/archive/*1999-07/* 12th/newballrule.html
16. Perry, C. (1988). Blood Doping and Athletic Competition. In W. J. Morgan & K. V. Meier (Eds.), *Philosophic Inquiry in Sport.* Illinois: Human Kinetics.

17. Simon, R. L. (1984). Good competition and drug-enhanced performance. *Journal of the Philosophy of Sport,* XI, 6-13.
18. Suits, B. (1973). The Elements of Sport. In R. G. Osterhoudt (Ed.), *The Philosophy of Sport: A collection of orginial essays.* Illinois: Charles C. Thomas Publishers.
19. Tenner, E. (1996). *Why Things Bite Back: Predicting the Problems of Progress.* London: Fourth Estate.
20. UNESCO. (1997). Universal Declaration on the Human Genome and Human Rights. Hypertext Document: http://www.unesco.org/ibc/genome/projet/index.html [Accessed: May 1999].

THE SPECTATORS OF OLYMPIC GAMES IN THE NEW MILLENNIUM

by David KIPSHIDZE *(GEO)*

"The mystery of love is greater than the mystery of death".

In 1707, Frenchman Don Bernair de Monfokon in his book called "Palaeography of Greece" proposed archaeological researching of Ancient Olympia. The seed, which was thrown by him, matured in 117 years, when English archaeologist Lord Stanhoff began excavation on the bank of Althea. This gave the impulse for the Olympic idea. In 1859, Greek officer Evangelos Zappas organised the Panhellenical games, which took place in Athens and in the presence of more than 20.000 spectators. Greeks competed in running, jumping, gymnastics, and so on. The winners, just like in ancient times, were crowned with a ring of laurel leaf. The Panhellenical Games took place three times -in 1870,75 and 89. By that time, in most countries, sport clubs were opened -gymnastics, athletics, wrestling clubs and unions. Intensively new sports were invented, old ones ended, and renewed at different levels. In 1863, the first football matches took place in England; in 1865 the rules of modern boxing were set out on British islands; in 1868, the bicycle race of Paris-Roin has held in France, in 1876, the English and Scottish invented Water Polo. In one year's, time swimmers, and tennis players began competing (Wimbledon Tournament). In 1879, Canadians invented hockey. In 1881 the International Federation of Gymnastics was founded. In 1882, Dzigaro Kano opened Codocan-first school of dju-do. In 1883 in Switzerland Alps, the sleigh competition took place, same year in Russia, the famous Russian journalist Vladimir Giliarovsky founded "Russian Gymnastics Society". In 1891, figure skaters founded the first Europe championship, and American James Nasmith invented basketball; in 1893, learnt the first skating champions names, in one year chess players started competing...[20].

It was a time of sport revolution! The leaders were England, France, USA and Scandinavian countries. It was not just a coinci-

dence. The capitalism there had already created the means of production, which considerably liberated the people and freed them from physical labour. The sphere of spiritual interests of people quickly extended and the sport was introduced. Alternatively, the Olympic ideal was mature enough. The introduction of the modern Olympic Games, I argue is a natural outcome of these entire events combined. There was a certain need for a highly educated person, a good organiser, with a strong sense of situation, who could direct this powerful chaotic movement into the needed Olympic direction. Due to the historical situation and genius of several people, we have the Olympic Games nowadays.

It could be argued that the values of the OG are reflective of societal values. Furthermore, it could be said that this is a reciprocal relationship in that values of individual, and societies also impact upon the values of the OG.

This can be seen in the shift from an Aristocratic to a more Democratic, professionally oriented OG, as it can be seen in reflected society's changes. Social progress has brought such innovation as the television, and almost immediately the Olympic Games have become involved in wide broadcasting. Society's influences OG, reciprocal relationship. OG have become a commercial enterprise the nature of advertising automatically introduces money and profit into the OG.

> *"The financing of sport, the distribution of sporting opportunities, decision-making about sport-all must be analysed in the full, historical context. There is not economy of sport, no politics of sport, in isolation from political economy"*[1].

As the OG becomes more of a spectacle, it becomes increasingly dependent upon spectators in various ways. Indeed, without spectators, there would not be an OG. As we move into the 3rd millennium, it could be argued that if we are to find out what kind of changes must take place in the OG, it is first necessary, to understand the changing values of individuals in society. For example the ticketing problems in Sydney may not be the result of a new millennium, but it may be indicative of the millennial problems to come for spectators.

Television Rights Holders and Pees - Australia and Usa

USA			Australia		
Year	**City**	**Company**	**Fee $US Millions**	**Company**	**Fee $US Millions**
1960	Rome	SBS	0.4	Aust. TV Pool	Not known
1964	Tokyo	NBC	1.5	Aust. TV Pool	Not known
1968	Mexico City	ABC	4.5	Aust. TV Pool	Not known
1972	Munich	ABC	7.5	Aust. TV Pool	Not known
1976	Montreal	ABC	25	Aust. TV Pool	Not known
1980	Moscow	NBC	87	Channel 7	1.4
1984	Los Angeles	ABC	225	Channel 10	10.6
1988	Seoul	NBC	300	Channel 10	6.8
1992	Barcelona	NBC	401	Channel 7	33.8
1996	Atlanta	NBC	456	Channel 7	30
2000	Sydney	NBC	715	Channel 7	45

Source: Toohey and Warning, 1998.

The organisers of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games are worried about the initial ticketing marketing fiasco, which said tickets to many events were "sold out" before they were and the fear tickets will not be sold due to the loss of interest in the games amongst Australians themselves. According to the Melbourne newspaper "Age", in spite of intensive advertising, the preliminary booking rates are far behind expectations. Another method of distributing "hot" tickets for Games was initiated by a group of enthusiasts called "Olympic Gold" which offer a set of tickets on almost all final Olympic events- 10.000 Australian dollars. When purchasing this set, the ticket owners have the right to membership of the new stadium in Homebush, during a 30-year period and have shares in the company, which built it. As of September 1999 only a third of the tickets have been sold and the price has fallen to 3,500 Australian dollars, though still not attracting any further interest to potential spectators of the Games[21].

It is important to remember that contemporary spectators are consumers and they consider everything they see in terms of a product - judging it by his/her own values, guided by his/her needs, wishes and finally, determining whether he/she can afford this. Being under the influence of environmental change, the mentality of the human being has changed according to the environment.

First of all, the human being is a biological system which is protected by a "self-protection system" in order to preserve the cells of

our body from damaging influences. Preservation of homeostasis is the main goal of the inner regulation systems. Due to the ability to recognise fatigue, our bodies are able to preserve and regenerate. This system results in our knowing such feeling as hunger, tiredness, and fatigue. The release of information to the body must be controlled to stimulate and maintain interest. The impact of the information must excited, be given in regulated time lapses, each successive input must be different from the previous this is known as ***irradiation.*** These are common techniques in today's environment: breaking rhythm of music, art, packaging, use of colour, media presentations and media personalities...

Technological advancement has impacted on the speed at which we receive information changing the rate of information regulation or information control to the body, putting increasing pressure on how we consume information. Thus, we become more selective and speed up the cycle at which we become tired (bored).

> *"If the Olympic Games are not of the world sporting tree they are nothing"*[4].

The motto of Father Didon is more a mirror of today's culture than when he first penned it.

The WC Final is a perfect example of spectator preference for elite, high performance sport.

TV Audience for Major Sport Events

Event	Audience	Broadcast hours
Soccer W C Finals '90	26.7 bn	20,000
1992 Summer OG	16.6 bn	14,493
1992 Winter OG	8 bn	6,500

Source: Toohey and Warning, 1998.

Probably if we try to analyse why a person becomes a viewer of any event, the answer to some questions may be found.

It is no secret that the population of prosperous western countries nowadays feels the permanent lack of adrenaline in blood. The absence of strong emotional expression results in a kind of nightmare and lead to depressions, a high suicide rate and other tragedies. One of the few ways to access the exciting world of any emotion is through sport, and the more passion involved in sport and the more

dangerous sport is, the better. That is why, psychologists predict, that in -XXI century the extreme kinds of sport will have the biggest audience[19].

Well, all we need to do is to satisfy those wishes through the reorganisation of the Olympic Games. But it will destroy the essence of the Movement that we call the Olympic Ideal.

I would argue that the popularisation of the Games in the new millennium could be obtained in different ways. Despite being a product of society, a human being still has the ability to choose - even if that chance is slight.

Furthermore, it is clear that this freedom is defined by the abilities of a man to compare and contrast, think, love, hate...

The development of human society can be compared to a spiral, where each consequent turn represents a specific era of human history. Being developed as a spiral, the human inevitably repeats aspects of itself, representing them in the form and shape thus is reflective of the certain historical era, thus changing the features and shapes of ideas, motivations and urges. We are likely to change much, but something remains unchanged. Humankind is many thousand years old and the features like kindness, bravery, friendship, love, generosity have always been considered its main virtues. At different times, different conditions of society have had their impact on the "living techniques" of a human, causing him/her to accommodate himself to them due to his naturally obtained abilities and skills, which, sometimes are instinctive and unwired-subconscious capabilities.

It seems very difficult to find a distinctive and clear explanation to the fact that humans, being too old for a child, or even a youth, enjoys very much chasing the ball, getting bruises, enjoys small victories and feels upset bitterly because of losses. Physical activity, is part of human essence, vital necessary, and instinctive needs to be the unchangeable feature of a human being and history proves that fact.

Many documents tell us about various sport activities in the Ancient times.

The great role of sport is proved by the fact that even Faraón - sort of God on the earth for the ancient Egyptian people had to show his physical abilities to his people[2,3].

Sport competitions were so remarkable and memorable that they were often held in honour to some noble men during the funerals[8].

Famous ***panem et circenses*** - shows how important sports events were in the Ancient Rome[18].

Ancient Greeks presented the Olympic Games to humankind - action, which was brought to life by the genius of the wisest human tribes, who appreciated the huge spiritual power of Motion. It is hard to evaluate the merit of the ancestors, who created, or it could be more correct to say evoked the human features, very natural to them - the urge to move, physical competitions. Pedagogically organised with a combination of poetry, painting, curing and physical exercises once again proves the biggest role of physical activities in the lives of humans.

Human likes and preferences display the prevailing features of character, the qualities, which are most developed in human - they play the main part in the process of cognition and the formulation of values, criteria, demands and ambitions. Hence, the mechanism of forming the desired values of each individual becomes clear. Everybody knows the expression "the future is built by the youth", and it is hard to argue about that. Undoubtedly, desire and the aspirations of today's children and teenagers shortly, will be realised. Therefore, society must instil from childhood the qualities that will play a positive public role. The love and fidelity to Olympic ideals is one of such qualities. Thus are a role of Olympic Movement as a philosophical way of life, and therefore playing a large role in public life.

Isocrates considered as Greeks those who had a Greek education philosophy of Olympism, is very unlikely to question its benefits or the necessity of the Olympic Games as the event. But we cannot wait until the "Olympic generation" grows - the time to act is now.

Well-known motto- "More important to participate than to win" can be considered as the main direction on a way of a popularisation of the Games nowadays. The Olympic philosophy offers such ideals and values that could compete with the new values that permanently appear in modern society. However, in all societies people have a demand in physical activities, sport competitions and these all could be found in the Olympic Movement. It creates an atmosphere were everybody could feel the beauty and share the spirit of the Games despite his/her abilities.

The idea of transformation of Olympic Games into a certain Holiday of Life uniting in itself not only the festival of sports activity, but displays of all positive features and abilities of the Man, has found the expression in so-called Spartian Games.

What are the basic features of the Spartian system in the context of cultural-sport work? First of all, this system has a clearly expressed humanist orientation. Presenting in the foreground interests, needs, and character of the man and human relations. The Spartian system of culture-sport work focused on use of a complex of means, forms and methods. A new unique model of the Games and competitions -the Spartian Games occupie the central place among them.

Spartian cultural-sports work realise the more and more brightly shown now tendency to search and practical use of the integrative approach to organisation of sports work with various groups of the population[15,17].

It is possible to allocate at least three basic aspects of the integrative approach. The first aspect - sharing, association of sports, art and others spiritual - creative of kinds of activity to create conditions for harmonious, versatile development of the person. Let as remember that in 1976 in the Final report of the first International conference of the ministers and executives responsible for physical training and sports, it was emphasised that "the sports and occupation by physical culture are possible... With advantage for business to combine with a number of other measures, such, as cultural measures, measure on open air and measure on environmental protection" and that "though the sports are a really powerful factor of improvement of quality of life, it gets all its meaning only in a combination to other elements"[10, p8]. The second aspect - aspiration to use various (for a type, model of organisation) sports games and competitions to increase their appeal and availability to persons of various sexes, ages, physical conditions an so on. Alongside traditional events all other games competition' are used wider: is sportly - dynamically, psychotechnical, creative, developing, intellectual games; entertaining games, which allow children to play computer games, by adding to them in the fascinating form physical loading; mobile subject and adventure games; traditional sports games, but modified for the different age groups, the physical condition of the participants. Not only traditional, but also new models of organisa-

tion of competitions are applied, which provide essential updating of their program and systems (for example, in "co-operative games" the achievement not of the separate participants or teams competing with each other, but of all participants incorporated in one team) are taken into account. In several of the countries (Germany, Canada, USA, etc.) the new model of such games is used against competition first of all, and is focused on a unification and co-operation that the division of participants into winners and losers does not provide. The third aspect - the creation of conditions so that the persons with limited physical or intellectual opportunities (invalids) could participate together with others in competitions and most important to compete on an equal basis with them[5,7,9,12-17 etc].

Spartian concept of complex integrative approaches to the organisation of sports work for a number of years is effectively used in practice. Since 1991, Spartian Games have been held annual in Russia. They are included in the Uniform calendar plan of the All-Russia mass physical-sports measures. The participants of Games are not only schoolchildren and students, but also pre-school children, and also adults. Disabled people participate in Games with the persons who have not such restrictions.

Being an activity aiming to show all the positive features and abilities of man, the Spart Games give everybody the opportunity to find what is more interesting for him/her and to be a participant as well as a viewer.

The mystery of love is greater than the mystery of death.

It was said in the *New-York Times*

"Baron viewed sport as an artist, dreamer and teacher".

Only the foundation on the values that touch the souls of people could have long and considerable effect.

Having in mind the lessons of past times and supporting the values, which are common for all people, let us give the Olympic Games a new dimension and new life to make them more attractive and more natural.

The day when the Games reflect demands and wishes of every person they will fill the empty place of the global humans' event.

Bibliography

1. Bruce Kidd. The political Economy of Sport, Ontario 1984. P. 66.
2. Decker W., Sport and Games in Ancient Egypt, New Haven London 1992.
3. Decker W., Sport in der griechischen Antike, munich 1995.
4. Hill R. Christopher. Olympic Politics, Glasgow, 1992, P.239.
5. Kalinkin L. A., Sinelnikov V. A., New forms of physical-health activity and leisure in the primary school/Physical Culture; education, training and exercises, 1996, No 2, p. 58-6.
6. Kuzin V. V., Scientific priorities in Physical Education and Training of children and youth in Sport/Physical Culture: education, training and exercises, 1998, No 2, p. 1-5.
7. Merculov S., Complex lesson after lessons/Physical culture in school. 1994, No 4, p. 60-61.
8. Meuli K., Der griechische Agon, Colone 1986.
9. Poshtareva T. Creativity, identity, (integral approach to the organization of physical education in the system of education in the pre-school age)//Teacher, 1997, No 1, p. 70-74.
10. Report "The role of Physical Education and Sport in the education of youth", The first International Conference of ministers and officials responsible for the devel opment of physical education and sport., Head-office UNESCO 1976, April, Paris.
11. Rodichenko V.S., Stolyarov V.I., Olympic Education and modern tendencies of the development in the field of politics and ideology//Sport, spiritual values, culture. Sport and Olympism in the modern system of education; Center "SpArt" RGAFK, 1998, p. 26-32.
12. Stolyarov V.I., SpArt system of education, organisation of leisure/Projects , pro grammes, tecnologies (Spiritual dimension, sport, culture) No 5, part I, centre "SpArt", RGAFK, Smolensk, Olympic Academy, 1997, p. 9-127.
13. Stolyarov V.I., Spart Games and clubs in leisure, education and training of children and youth., Moscow, RGAFK, 1998.
14. Stolyarov V. L, Spart Games- Humanism, new model of Sport and its integration with art//Sport, spiritual values, culture. No 4, centre "SpArt", RGAFK, 1998, p. 54-279.
15. Stolyarov V.I., Sport and Art: ways of integration//Sport, spiritual values, culture. No 5, centre "SpArt", RGAFK, 1998, p. 101-265.
16. Stolyarov V.I., Olympic Education and SpArt system of education/Sport, spiritual values, culture. No 6, Sport and Olympism in the modem system of education, Moscow, centre "SpArt", RGAFK, 1998, p. 71-233.
17. Stolyarov V.I., Kudravtseva N. V., Sport work with population on the threshold of the 21-st century; challenges and solutions//Sport, spiritual values, culture. No9.
18 .Weeber K.C., panem et circuses, mayen 1995.
19. hyperlink http://www.lk.mipt.ry/issue 14/problem/belife.htm.
20. hyperlink http://www.icsspe.org.
21. hyperlink http://www.SPORTQuest.com.

THE OLYMPIC GAMES AS A SUBJECT OF TEACHING HISTORY IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

by Thomas THIELECKE *(GER)*

1. Introduction

During my studies at the Johannes Gutenberg-University in Mainz I attended the classes of Prof. Müller about "The Development and the Value of Olympic Sports from 1896 to 1972", which focused on Modern Pentathlon, which was revived by Baron Pierre de Coubertin. Much more important than this effort by Coubertin was the resumption of the Olympic Ideas in form of the Olympic Games, which he based on ancient ideals. In Prof. Müller's classes I first had a inside view in the history and the backgrounds of this sports event.

The picture of the Olympic Games is diverse. It has changed enormously since its resumption by Coubertin at the end of the 19th century. Through the presentation of the Olympic Games by the medias in our time, one runs the risk of forgetting the history of the Olympic Games - that it goes back to Greek Antiquity. There are enough possibilities to inform ourselves in magazines, radio and television about the Olympic Games at the time when they take place. Furthermore we can read about this event in special literature. We should not forget that school also offer good possibilities to get to know something about the Olympic Games: its history, its development and its ideas.

The problem I concentrated on concerned in how far teaching classes - teaching history in particular - contributes to the knowledge of "Olympia"? This question should be answered by studying the current curricula and history school books. History classes focuss on the past but contribute by explaning to a better understanding of the present. Similarly the Olympic Games are not only a sports event, as they also have an educational character which one should exploit and which should be a part of the pedagogical duty of school.

2. Olympic Education and Teaching History

The aim of teaching history is to preserve the past and to transmit the important discoveries to the present. Therefore we divide history into different eras in chronological order. One of those important epochs is Greek antiquity which had an effect on European development up to the present time. One should only take a look at the beginning of democracy or the influence of Greek philosophers. The Olympic Games represent only a small segment of ancient Greek times but nevertheless they are a good starting point for Olympic education. It depends on the teacher in how far the subjects (e.g. Greek antiquity) mentioned in the current curricula are transmitted. Adressing "ancient Greek times"- as one thematical unit of the curricula - provides the opportunity to adress the Olympic thoughts as well. Here one has to take into consideration that Olympic thoughts are not included in the normal teaching process. Without any extra time it is a difficult undertaking to include this Olympism into the teaching of classes.

With a comparison of the past and the present the pupils can learn about the history of the Olympic Games and they could also recreate modern Games. By that the pupils would understand the relevance of the past for the present. Without this relevance to present times one runs the risk that they might understand the ancient and modern Games differently as the image of the Games of today has changed a lot. In addition to that the dealing of the modern Olympic Games in history classes can highlight the problems of them and through this the threat to the Olympic Idea[1].

There are also many possibilities to teach Olympic Eduacation in other classes such as in sports, German, politics, religion, foreign languages or art history classes[2].

3. Study of the Current Curricula in Teaching History in Germany

3.1 Importance and Task of the Curricula

The curriculum for every class is one of the most important and state-managed elements of planning. The responsibility for them lies in state managed commissions.

The genesis of a curriculum is a difficult venture because different claims have to be considered[3]. This is one reason why curricula are widely critizised. However justice has to be done to social-political, scientific, and pedagogical demands. The curricala help teachers to find their teaching topics[4] and to avoid taking arbitrary decisions, as they have pedagogical and educational tasks (education and knowledge) to fulfil.

3.2 Choice of the Curricula

The secondary school (Sekundarstufe I) includes the classes five to ten (10 to 16 year old pupils). Normally, the epoches are treated chronologically starting with "Prehistory" in the fifth class and ending with present times in the tenth class.

From the chronological point of view Greek antiquity is embedded between "Prehistory", "Egypt Advanced Culture" and "Roman History", which is a part of the period between the 8th century B.C. until 2nd A.D. Its only possible classes 5 to 7 to adress this subject.

Since the revival of the modern Olympic Games at the end of the 19th century by Coubertin, the Olympic Games have not had the same social-political importance as in ancient times. The Games were abused for example in Berlin 1936, in Munich 1972 as well in the boycotts in the 1980s as a consequence of the Cold War.

I finally studied 39 curricula of secondary schools (Sekundarstufe I) of all German "Bundesländer" (federal states) except of Bremen and the curriculum for the "Hauptschule" in Mecklenburg-Vorpommern.

3.3 *Structures of the Curricula*

A first formal analysis was: There is no unified pattern of the curricula for Haupt-, Realschule and Gymnasium (secondary modern school and grammar school). But they are structured similary and are subdivided into three parts:[5]

1) introduction
2) specified part
3) practical advices and examples.

But the circumference and the degree of details of these three parts vary in each federal state.

3.4 Tasks of Teaching History

The main task of teaching history is to improve the historical awareness in pupils. They should learn that history is a chronological process and a way of better understanding of present times.

Referring to the present can simplify this task. The Olympic Games are a good example because they connect more than 1800 years of history.

3.5 Analysis of the Curricula

3.5.1 Methodology

The following questions are centered to the analysis (cross section)

- Is "Greek antiquity" as a thematical unit mentioned?
- In which class is "Greek antiquity" taught?
- Are the "Olympic Games" suggested as a concrete subject?
- Are the "Olympic Games" the goal or the content (didactical com ponents)?

The concrete naming of the words was decisive for my scientific research.

3.6 Results

It was shown that the theme "Greek antiquity" and the "Olympic Games" as aspects of this complex are not parts of the curricula in every federal state, schooltype, or in different forms of classes as an aspect of teaching.

The table shows that the theme "Olympic Games" is included in the current curricula for "Gymnasium" (grammar school). In contrast to this, it does not seem to be an important issue in the "Hauptschule" (secondary modern school) as it is in "Gymnasium". The questions "why?" and "is there a tendency to cancel this subject?" could only be supposed or searched with a longitudinal section.

It was also found how many hours teaching the "Greek antiquity" are scheduled in the current curricula. Even in this category there was a lack of unity because a range of *6* to 20 hours to teach the subject was found. All in all it was found that even within the current curricula of one federal state there are serious differences. Finally it can be said that there exists neither a nation-wide collection of subjects, nor a consens us about the topics which should be taught at school[6].

Table 1. The "Olympic Games" as an Aspect of Teaching in Forms of Classes and Schooltypes

Bundesland	Schulformen (mit Angabe der Klassenstufe)		
Baden-Württemberg	Hauptschule: 6. Kl.	Realschule: NO	Gymnasium: 7. Kl.
Bayern	Hauptschule: 5. Kl.	Realschule: 7. Kl.	Gymnasium: 6. Kl.
Berlin	Grundschule: 6. Kl.		
Brandenburg	Grundschule: 5. Kl.		
Hamburg	Hauptschule: NO	Realschule: NO	Gymnasium: 6. Kl.
Hessen	Hauptschule: 7. Kl+	Realschule: 7. K1.+	Gymnasium: 7. K1.+
Mecklenburg- Vorpom mern	Realschule: 6. Kl.	Gymnasium: 6. Kl.	
Niedersachsen	Hauptschule: NO	Realschule: NO	Gymnasium: 7. Kl.
Nordrhein-Westfalen	Hauptschule: NO	Realschule: 6. K1.+	Gymnasium: 6. Kl.
Rheinland-Pfalz	Hauptschule: NO	Realschule: 7. Kl.	Gymnasium: 7. Kl.
Saarland	Sekundarsch.: NO	Realschule: 7. Kl.+	Gymnasium: NO
Sachsen	Mittelschule: 6. Kl.	Gymnasium: 6. Kl.	
Sachsen-Anhalt	Sekundärschule: 5. K1.+	Gymnasium: 5. K1.+	
Schleswig-Holstein	Hauptschule: NO	Realschule: NO	Gymnasium: NO
Thüringen	Regelschule: 5. Kl.	Gymnasium: 5. Kl.	

Explanation

NO = The "Olympic Games" as a field of study or any other related aspects of the Olympic Games are not taught.

\+ = The exact kinds of classes could not be identified, because the special current curricula do not specify which class/year the Olympic Games ought to be in. I estimated the year they would be in by the way the subjects were distributed.

4. Study of the Current Textbooks for Teaching History in Germany

4.1 Importance of Textbooks

As it was shown in section 3.1 school and the teachers have an educational task. That means, they have to manage the developement and the critical handling of values and opinions on the side of the pupils. This process mostly takes place in teaching, which depends on the teachers design of the lessons and which is also characterized by the use of different medias. The most important medium for teaching history is the textbook[7]. Because of that, a conscientious approach to the creation of them is very important. This is guaranteed by a constant revision of textbooks.

Usually, textbooks are prepared by collective authors and are required to be official approved by the ministries of education and cultural affairs of each federal state.

4.2 Creating of the Formal Design for the Analysis of the Textbooks for Teaching History

The most important step for the analysis is to create a formal design. Therefore certain criteria have been chosen which are derived from the main question. In this case it is an analysis of the content.

4.2.1 Quantitative Analysis

To find out how much space the presentation of the "Olympic Games" takes up, the amount of the space given is analysed. The following criteria will be considered

a) Proportion: Olympic Games - Greek Antiquity - complete textbook
b) Proportion of the creative posibilities of the authors: text/material (pictures and sources)/questions and instructions

All the parts were measured and put into a percentage proportion.

4.2.2 *Qualitative Analysis*

The objective soberness of the quantitative results were completed through a qualitative presentation. For this part of the analysis the following categories were developed

a) The presentation of the "Olympic Games" introduces the analysis. The central interest of this part of the analysis is the connection between texts, illustrations, and questions. This is followed by a description of the text and additional materials.
b) Taking account of the problems of sports in Greek antiquity. The historical survey shows that even ancient sport was not free of negative influences which we can still find today. Circumstances which, in contemporary times, could have a negative influence, were considered for example the exclusion of women (in ancient times), corruption, political influence and critical statements about sport.
c) An important point from a scientific point of view is the degree of objective correctness. This is the result of the assumption, that the authors are human scientists rather than sports scientists.
d) From the didactive point of view the relation to present times is also of central interest. In how far is it managed?
e) Finally, I analysed whether there are at least subjects which could be used to show Olympic Ideals. The peace-making ideal of sports was, for example, practised in the "Truce of God" in ancient Olym pic Games.

This choice should help to find a good view of the presentations. The objective standard could not be kept.

4.3 *On the Choice of Textbooks*

The choice was based on the catalogue of German textbooks, published by the institut for "Internationale Schulbuchforschung" in Braunschweig (Georg-Eckert-Institut)[8].

Reasons for the choice of the books are as follows

- As many books as possible were chosen to get a huge cross sec tion. By books in several volumes the volumes that treat "Greek Antiquity" (normally Volume I) were chosen.
- Textbooks which are admitted in several federal states were pre ferred.
- The most important criterion: "Olympic Games" as a subject has to be dealt with.

Finally refer to the 21 textbooks. Each textbook was analysed separately.

4.4 *Results of the Analysis of the Textbooks*

4.4.1 Results of the Quantitative Analysis

a) On average the presentation of the subjects is presented on **2,7** pages. That makes on average of 8,5% on the subject "Greek Antquity" and 1,2% on the complete textbook.
b) The presentation is divided into three parts: text **(36,5%)** /mate rial (illustrations and sources) (56%)/instructions **(7,5%).**

4.4.2 *Results of the Qualitative Analysis*

The presentation of the Olympic Games contains the most important facts and aspects. All textbooks describe the course of the Games, to whose glory they were held, the first date and a picture/map of the ancient construction. In addition to that the function of the ancient Olympic Games is often described. The Games strengthened the community spirit of the Greeks who were living in different towns as enemies. This fact is supported by "Isokrates" or "Xenophanes" quotations. Behind this aspect stands the only Olympic Ideal: peace. During the games the "Truce of God" was declared to enable the participation of many athletes and spectators. The ideal of peace is today a fundamental part of the Olympic Education. In the way the

Greeks came together to secure old friendships and to make friends, the modern Olympic Games also serve international understanding and international peace.

Table 2. Part a) of the quantitative analysis

Name des Geschichtsbuchs	Anzahl der Seiten zu den Olympischen Spielen	Anteil der Olympischen Spiele am Kapitel "Griechenland" in %	Anteil der Darstellung am Gesamtwerk in %	Anteil des Kapitels "Griechenland" am Gesamtwerk in %
1. Anno	*3*	13,6	1,3	9,8
2. Begegnungen 5	*2*	9,1	1,1	12,5
3. bsv-Geschichte 1 G	*2,5*	4,6	1,3	27,6
4. Das waren Zeiten	*2*	4,5	0,8	18,5
5. Entdecken und Verstehen	*6*	13,6	2,9	21,2
6. Expedition Geschichte	0,8	2,6	0,8	28,3
7. Geschichte für morgen	4	20	2	10
8. Geschichte kennen und verstehen	*2*	5,7	0,7	12,5
9. Geschichte plus	*2*	4,8	0,7	14,2
10. Geschichte und Gegenwart	3	4,8	1,3	27,5
11. Geschichte und Geschehen C 1/2	5	13,2	1,3	9,7
12. GSE 5	0,5	5,5	0,06	11,1
13. Historia	2	3,1	0,8	25
14. Lebendige Geschichte	2	7,1	1,3	17,8
15. Quer	2	14,3	1,7	11,9
16. Rückspiegel	1	1,6	0,4	24,5
17. Unsere Geschichte	0,75	2,7	0,3	12,5
18. Von ... bis	4	18,2	1	5,4
19. Wege durch die Geschichte	6	10,7	2,9	26,9
20. Wir machen Geschichte	3	5	1,2	24,9
21. Zeitreise	4	13,3	2,1	15,5
Mittelwerte	2,7	8,5	1,2	17,5

Ancient sport had a further importance. It symbolized the agonistical pinciple (competition) which was an important part of ancient Greek life. But not everyone had this opinion which is expressed by a lot of critical voices/opinions. In particular, poets and philosophers saw intelligence behind the strength in sporting competitions which was not good for society in their eyes. Others had the opinion that sport is necessary to improve the fitness of the youth for active military service.. Problems, such as bribery and cheating, are shown in some but not in all studied textbooks. That is a pity because pupils have one less aspect to develop an opinion about the Olympic Games. Another illustrated problem from the modern point of view is the exclusion of women from the Games which was not a problem in antiquity where it was normal because of the understanding of the female role at that time.

As it is demanded in the curricula the textbooks contain the reference to present times but they deal with it in different ways. On the one hand it is maneged with the facts such as "The Ban 394" and 'The Revival 1896 at Athens". In addition to that nearly all books include an instruction for pupils to make a comparison between ancient and modern Olympic Games. There are only differences between the books about how extensive the comparison should be.

Most of the presentations contain at least one objective mistake. The most frequent one is the statement that the first Olympic Games were held in 776 B.C. But today it is proved that the games were held earlier. Altogether the presentations do not promote a bad image to the pupils.

5. Conclusion

The scientific research practiced in this work has shown that the "Olympic Games" belong to the subject of teaching history at school and the curricula demand that it be an aspect of teaching. Special divergences between the types of school are shown. The "Olympic Games" as a subject is demanded in nearly all the federal state grammar schools - as the current curricula tell us - but not in secondary modern schools (Hauptschule).

Otherwise the history textbooks - only 4 were found that did not include the theme - are dealing with the subject. The analysis of

the textbooks has also shown, that Olympic values are only partly recognized in the presentations. But the Olympic values are a very important aspect of the Olympic Games. Without them the Games would be a pure sports spectacle which was not the intention of Coubertin. Coubertin had educational interests and ideas.

Teaching history with the dealing of the Olympic Games and the Olympic Idea behind it can be a part of Olympic Education. In addition to that the dealing in other school-subjects can support the Olympic Education onwards. On the other side Olympic Education can complete the educational task of school in an estimable way.

Notes

l .Cf. Gerhard Munk: Olympia - Olympische Spiele. Ein Unterrichtsmodell für die Sekundarstufe I. In NOK für Deutschland (Hrsg.): Olympische Erziehung in der Schule unter besonderer Berücksichtigung des Fair play - Gedankens, p. 78 f. The author makes suggestions how to treat this topic in teaching history: the relevance to present times and comparison of ancient and modern Games.

2. Cf. Ommo Grupe: Die Olympische Idee ist pädagogisch. In: Norbert Müller/ Man fred Messing (Hrsg.): Auf der Suche nach der Olympischen Idee. Kassel 1996. p. 25. (=Olympische Studien Band 2). Cf. Norbert Müller: Olympismus als Gegenstand schulischer Erziehung. In: Olympisches Feuer. Heft 3 1991. p.52.

3. Cf. Wolfgang Hug: Geschichtsunterricht in der Praxis der Sekundarstufe I. Frank furt/Main 1980 (= Geschichte lehren und lernen. Schriftenreihe für Forschung und Unterricht) p. 11.

4. Cf. Wolfgang Hug: Geschichtsunterricht in der Praxis der Sekundarstufe I. p. 11.

5. Cf. Rudolf Künzli und Stefan Hopmann (Hrsg.): Lehrpläne: Wie sie entwickelt wer den und was von ihnen erwartet wird. Zürich 1998 (=Nationales Forschungspro gramm 33). p. 18.

6. I found the same result as Wolfgang Hug in his research. Cf. Wolfgang Hug: Geschichtsunterricht in der Praxis der Sekundarstufe I. p. 13.

7. Cf. Jörn Rüsen: Das ideale Schulbuch. Überlegungen zum Leitmedium des Geschichtsunterrichts. In: Internationale Schulbuchforschung 14. Frankfurt/Main 1992. p. 237.

8. The catalogue for 1998/99 was used.

9. Cf. Pierre de Coubertin: Olympische Erinnerungen. Autorisierte Uebersetzung von Gertrud John. Berlin 1936. S. 84. Quotation: Coubertin did not just want to revive the Olympic Games as a 4 yearly sporting event. He also wanted to promote pedagogical aspects of sport not just for his country, but also for all mankind.

Bibliography

1. Coubertin, Pierre de: Olympische Erinnerungen. Autorisierte Uebersetzung von
Gertrud John. Berlin 1936.

2. Gruppe, Ommo: Die Olympische Idee ist pädagogisch. In Norbert Müller/Manfred. Messing (Hrsg.): Auf der Suche nach der Olympischen Idee. Facetten der For-

schung von Athen bis Atlanta. Kassel 1996 (= Olympische Studien Band 2). p. 23-38.
3. Hantsche, Irmgard: Geschichte im Schulbuch - das Schulbuch in der Geschichte. In: Aus. Politik und Zeitgeschichte. Heft 39 1987. p. 39-53.
4. Hug, Wolfgang: Geschichtsunterricht in der Praxis der Sekundarstufe I. Berfragungen, Analysen, Perspektiven. Frankfurt/Main 1980 (= Geschichte lehren und lernen. Schriftenreihe für Forschung und Unterricht).
5. Künzli, Rudolf und Hopmann, Stefan (Hrsg.): Lehrpläne: wie sie entwickelt werden und was von ihnen erwartet wird. Zürich 1998 (=Nationales Forschungsprogramm 33).
6. Müller, Norbert: Olympismus als Gegenstand schulischer Erziehung. In: Olympis ches Feuer. Heft 3 1991. p. 49-53.
7. Munk, Gerhard: Olympia - Olympische Spiele Ein Unterrichtsmoclell für die Sekun darstufe I. In: NOK für Deutschland (Hrsg.): Olympische Erziehung in der Schule unter besonderer Berücksichtigung des Fair play - Gedankens. Frankfurt/Main 1992. p. 77-82.
8. Rüsen, Jörn: Das ideale Schulbuch. Überlegungen zum Leitmedium des Geschicht sunterrichts. In: Internationale Schulbuchforschung 14. Frankfurt/Main 1992. p. 237-250.
9. Scholle, Dietrich: Schulbuchanalyse. In: Klaus Bergmann u.a. (Hrsg.): Handbuch der Geschichtsdidaktik. 5. Aufl. Düsseldorf 1997. p. 369-375.
10. Westphalen, Klaus: Lehrplan - Richtlinien - Curriculum. Stuttgart 1985. (=Grundlagentexte Schulpädagogik. Hrsg. von Manfred Jung).
11. Young, David C. The Modem Olympics. A struggle for Revival. Baltimore 1996.

THE MOTIVATIONS OF CHILDREN PARTICIPATING IN COMPETITIVE KARATE

By Nicole-Marie LUITWIELER *(NED)*

Introduction

In 2004 the kumite discipline of karate will be a demonstration sport for the first time at the Olympic Games. This occasion has stimulated a world wide discussion on how karate, as a martial sport/art, can present itself in a positive way at this event and which requirements have to be met to be accepted as an Olympic sport.

According to Binder (1994) the revival of the Olympic Games in the 19th century was conceived as an educational project. The original versions of the Olympic Charter, written by De Coubertin and his International Olympic Committee, listed four general goals of the Olympic Movement

1. To promote the development of the physical and moral qualities that are the basis of sport.
2. To educate young people through sport in a spirit of better un derstanding between each other and of friendship, thereby helping to build a better and more peaceful world.
3. To spread the Olympic principles throughout the world, thereby creating international goodwill.
4. To bring together the athletes of the world every four years in a sports festival, the Olympic Games.

The first two goals can serve as appropriate guidelines for the education of youngsters through sport. In practice it seems as if these goals are often forgotten and other factors such as competition, winning and performance are increasingly more important. For instance, at the 1994 Winter Olympics, associates of figure skater Tonya Harding attacked her rival, Nancy Kerrigan.

Do values like education, friendship and a positive development of certain moral qualities still exist within competitive sport? Or, does winning predominate so much now that the above mentioned

educational goals have become subverted and situations like that involving Tonya

Harding can be considered normal in sports?

Looking at my personal experiences, training karate over a period of fourteen years and teaching/coach ing for approximately six years, I can also point at many phenomena within the karate sport that do not seem to be connected to the educational goals of the Olympic Movement.

For example, during competitive events, some coaches or parents shout things like, "hit him" or "get him on his weak spot" at the young participants. These actions do not seem to stimulate a better understanding between the competitors, let alone develop friendships *(see aim 2).*

Sometimes the emphasis on winning and performance places enormous pressure on very young (and talented) children. This seems to contradict the stated goal for the physical and mental development of youngsters through sport *(see aim 1).*

From this perspective it is important to regularly examine and monitor practices in the education of children and adolescents in sport. The educational goals of the Olympic Movement can be used to safeguard and stimulate the healthy development of young athletes. In addition, the foundation of a professional sport career is usually begun in childhood. Also therefore, it is important to pay special attention to youth sport.

Towards a theoretical framework

Weiss (1995) emphasizes the importance of stimulating a "mastery oriented motivation" in competitive youth sports. This motivational orientation focuses on learning and on personal achievement within sport. Weiss cites different studies that suggest that children participate in sport for primarily intrinsic reasons such as competence, affiliation, fun, etc. rather than extrinsic reasons like winning a prize. Weiss places the so-called mastery oriented motivation in opposition to a performance-outcome oriented motivation. She suggests that a focus on mastery (individual progress) is more important than a focus on performance-outcomes such as winning and performing better than others. Mastery oriented youngsters are likely to have positive perceptions of competence, have an internal locus of control,

derive more enjoyment and pleasure, will choose optimally challenging skills, and, display maximal effort and persistence. Ultimately, they will attain high levels of personal performance achievement. On the other hand, when the emphasis is on performance-outcomes, according to Weiss youngsters are likely to become dependent on external or normative criteria such as peer comparison and evaluation. They are likely to adopt an extrinsic reward system and have performance goals as their preferred motivational orientation. These youngsters are also susceptible to negative perceptions of competence, an external locus of control and negative effect in the form of anxiety and embarrassment. They will choose either easy or difficult tasks and show little effort and low-persistence behaviors.

Weiss assigns a significant role to coaches and parents in the stimulation of a mastery oriented motivation within youth sports. She developed two teaching models based on motivation, competence and self confidence: "a skill development model" and "a psychological method model". The first model shows how these three psychological skills are connected and interact.

The second model makes clear how parents and coaches can intervene and influence the development of these psychological skills in a positive way using observation, specific teaching behaviors and personal reflection. Weiss points out that individual differences among children, because of age and/or developmental level, will influence how children learn these psychological skills but at the same time she says little about these differences and how to cope with them.

Weiss presents the idea that a mastery orientation and a performance-outcome orientation are in total opposition to each other and that any desire to win will eliminate all possible positive outcomes of a mastery orientation. Competitive sports, however, are in the first place based on achievements. Does this mean that the basic principles of competitive sports conflict with the development of a mastery oriented motivation and with all positive outcomes that are connected to sport participation?

According to Van Rossum (1996) motivational orientations (mastery and performance outcomes) often exist side by side and are interwoven instead of being diametrically opposed to each other.

However, the author argues that winning is an essential characteristic of competitive sports and that those who are oriented towards

winning, choose to participate in sport. Although he does say that children will differ in the importance they place on winning. Some children will focus primarily on personal achievements, while others are more oriented towards winning the contest.

Van Rossum points out that American research suggests that boys are much more focused on winning then girls are, while Dutch studies contradict each other in this topic.

The author also indicates that many Dutch trainers of top athletes consider 'the will to win' as one of the most important mental requirements for a top athlete to be successful, regardless of gender.

But, like Weiss (1995), Van Rossum is convinced that too much emphasis on winning means that when children have set backs, their enjoyment in sport participation decreases and eventually they drop out. In addition, since only a few can win, teachers and coaches should emphasize more outcomes than winning. He suggests exploring what attracts children to sport beyond wanting to win.

De Martelaer and De Knop (1998) emphasize the importance of stimulating an intrinsic motivational climate within youth sports. They argue that teachers and coaches should use a child oriented approach. By this they mean that teachers and coaches have to gain knowledge and insight into the meanings that children *themselves* assign to sport participation and how those meanings change. Since children are still growing and developing, teachers and coaches have to put themselves in their shoes. De Martelaer and De Knop (1998) are also convinced that children should not be controlled too much but that they should be assigned a very active role in their own developmental and learning processes within sport. This can be done in part by giving them responsibilities they can handle and by not being overprotective.

Buisman et al. (1998), try to make coaches aware of the importance of stimulating the indepence of youngsters within sport by using the following example. A Dutch television program in 1997 called 'Zembla', described the story of three top judokas who accused their former judo coach of sexual harassment. They showed how their experiences grew out of a total dependence on this trainer. Buisman et al. concluded that just when the young girls should have been encouraged to become independent, the trainer made

them totally dependent on him. Buisman et al. argue that coaches have a specific educational responsibility to the children they train. Children are in a developmental process and therefore they have to be stimulated and not restrained.

Weiss (1995) and Van Rossum (1996), underline the importance of taking a closer look at the sport concerned since not all sports are the same and have similar/different characteristics. For instance, preliminary investigation (Luitwieler, 1999) shows that a traditional Japanese way of teaching karate is very teacher oriented instead of child oriented. Besides, the culture of each sport may mean differences in the emphasis that is placed on winning.

Karate

Karate is originally a Japanese fighting art, used more for personal development than for competition (De Spa, 1984). Over time traditional karate has developed through different training methods. The most important are: kihon (basic training), kata (performance) and kumite (which includes several kumite forms and free fighting). De Spa (1984), describes how traditional karate was introduced into the Western society in the beginning of the 1950s. During this period karate was transformed into Western perceptions of sports and games and developed into a competitive sport. The competitive form of karate consists only of kata and kumite. In this paper only the free fight variant of kumite will be explained. Currently the so-called "shobu-sanbon-system" (three points system) is commonly used. During a free fight game two participants fight by established rules, while being observed by a referee. The first person who scores three full points (ippons) wins. Practically every technique may be used if it is done with control. Exceptions to that rule are: the use of open-hand techniques directly pointed at the eyes and attacks aimed at the crotch and legs. The referee assigns points for showing well-controlled techniques. Both male and female competitors have to wear gloves and a mouth guard, in addition, males must wear protection for the genitals and females wear breast protection. Competitors are classified by age, weight, level and gender. Since karate is originally a Japanese sport, some Eastern rituals such as strict hierarchical manners and rules, are still part of many competitive oriented karate schools.

The extent to which these are used depends on the karate school as well on the teacher. Besides, karate is often seen as a typical sport for men since more men than women practice and teach it and because it is often linked to attributes associated with males.

At this moment many children participate in karate. Thirty four percent of the members of the Dutch Karate Association (KBN) are children (Karate-Do Bond Nederland, annual report 1999).

This association primarily arranges contests including youth games with modified rules. There can be no blows to the head and only controlled techniques may be used in the youth competitions. These contests are also shorter than those of cadets and seniors. Finally, unlike the older competitors, junior participants may continue in a competition even if they lose the first round. They wear the same protection however, as the older competitors do.

Central research question, subquestions and objective

Central research question

As a result of the above mentioned findings, the central question for this study is as follows

"What motivates boys and girls from 10 to 15 years, who compete at a high level in kumite competitions and to what extent do karate teachers use a child oriented approach?"

Age - The minimum age at which a child adopts a motivational orientation is 10 years (Weiss, 1995). When children reach the age of 16 they move on to the cadets. Therefore the age category used in this study ranges from 10 to 15 years.

High level - A "high level" means that these youngsters must have competed in kumite competitions at a national level for at least 2 years.

Motivation - The term "motivation" refers to both the mastery and performance outcome motivational orientations as described by Weiss (1995).

Child oriented approach - Finally, a "child oriented approach" implies that a teacher tries to connect to the world as experienced by children and does everything possible to involve them and to stimulate their development of independence.

Objective

In the line of this research and the central question, the objective of this study is

"To contribute to the education of karate teachers of competitive karate by introducing useful knowledge into training-courses that will stimulate the use of a child oriented approach.

Subquestions

The central question has been divided into several subquestions.

1. *What are the typical characteristics of competitive karate, especially the kumite form? To what extent is this influenced by culture, that is, the introduction of a Japanese sport into the Western society?*
2. *How do children and youngsters who participate within competitive youth sport develop a motivational orientation and what about indi vidual differences because of age, gender and/or developmental level?*
3. *What can be seen as a child oriented approach within competitive youth sport (karate)?*
4. *What motivates boys and girls, who compete within karate (kumite form)?*
   Are they more intrinsically or more extrinsically motivated? How do they experience their own competence within karate? Which feelings do these youngsters experience related to the development of self-confidence?
   How do they experience the way they are treated by their teacher(s)?
   Do they show differences related to their age, gender and/or developmental level?
5. *How do karate teachers look at motivation within youth sport and how do they work with it?*
   To what extent do they stimulate and encourage intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, competence and self confidence?
   Which strategies and methods do they use?
   To what extend do they evaluate their teaching strategies and make adjustments?
   To what extent are they sensitive to the world in which the youth lives and how do they check their perceptions about this world?
   To what extent do they see/make a distinction in gender, age, stage of development and cognition?

6. *To what extent do the evaluations of these teachers correspond with those of their students?*

Both space and time have limited the scope of this paper. For now the subquestions 4 to 6 will be addressed which present the practical aspects of the first three theoretical subquestions.

Design

Subjects

This study involved three different karate clubs. One or two karate teachers and 12 youth members were selected from each club. In total 5 teachers (4 men and 1 woman) and 36 youngsters (18 boys and 18 girls) participated in this study. The teachers selected were those who trained the selected girls and boys.

The age of the youth members ranged from 10 to 15 years. These youngsters were randomly selected by the researcher from a list with the names of all youth members from each karate club.

The youth group was divided into three different age categories, namely; 10-11 years, 12-13 years and 14-15 years. Groups of two boys and two girls were made within each age category for the group interviews.

Instruments

Observations and interviews were used to collect the data. The teachers and youngsters were first observed twice for an hour within each karate club resulting in six observation periods. The purpose of the observations was to obtain information to discuss during the interviews. Every trainer was interviewed individually to minimize socially desirable answers and peer influence.

The topics discussed in the semi-structured interviews were based upon the theoretical frame work. The youngsters were interviewed in small groups (4 children) so they could interact with each other rather than just with an adult. These interviews were also semi-structured and based on the theoretical framework.

Analysis and procedures

The observations and interviews were analyzed. The results that came out were combined and described. Conclusions were made and a discussion took place.

Results, conclusions and discussion

The purpose of this paper was to look at the motivations of children participating in karate and to what extend there trainers use a child oriented approach.

According to the trainers, children and youngsters who participate in kumite competition focus primarily on winning. Indeed many children do show an orientation towards winning, although most of them also point to other factors that are connected with progression. In other words, the perceptions of the trainers are incomplete. Children focus on winning but not to the exclusion of learning other skills and techniques. The trainers by themselves differ in their motivation although none are completely mastery oriented or goal-performance oriented. Although every trainer encourages both orientations, they emphasize one orientation more than the other.

Interestingly, their students mirror the emphases of their trainer. The students of the more win oriented trainer are obviously more focused towards winning than the youngsters who train with the more goal- progression oriented trainers. This seems to suggest that the motivation of the children is influenced by that of their trainer. Secondly, it appears that children who are more focused on goals-progressions are generally better at coping with competition - related disappointments. This raises the question if youngsters with a trainer who is more oriented towards wining get the opportunity to learn these coping skills. The conclusion of both the introduction and the results indicate that winning has to be handled in a responsible manner.

Perhaps it is this win orientation that creates situations like that with Tonya Harding.

Most children feel very positive about their own competence and can describe their strengths and weaknesses. These youngsters believe they can learn the things they want to learn. The observations and interviews with the trainers show that these people give much relevant information and feedback to their pupils about their functioning.

Some children have little confidence when participating in contests while others have a great deal of self confidence. Some trainers think that these differences reflect how long they have been partici-

pating competitively or how many times they have won. This is not necessarily true.

Some trainers do not realize that some children need the trainer's support during contests. These trainers think that the development of self confidence is more a function of time and competitive experience. Another coach wants his students to be as independent as possible whatever their age.

This is at odds with the child oriented approach advocated by De Martelaer and De Knop (1998).

Those trainers who do realize that their students need support during matches admit that sometimes they are unable to do this because there are too many children and too few coaches during tournaments.

These youngsters are clear about the role of the trainers. They have to be kind, have humor, give constructive criticism and may be strict. The children are very positive about their own trainer although those with strict trainers sometimes find that too much of a challenge. They are the ones who also mention less positive characteristics of their trainers. The 'strict' trainers are aware that their students see them in this manner but they see their strictness as the best way to teach values and norms. Still, the question arises about the extent to which a very strict approach is congruent with a child oriented approach.

All of the trainers observe age and/or developmental related differences among their students. For instance, one trainer describes how the children can gradually take on more as they grow older.

Another trainer explains how she uses more games with the younger children because they like the playful aspects of competition; older children are more willing to take the time to learn a skill or move. Most of them also adapt their lessons to these differences. According to some trainers younger children are more focused on winning, whereas for the older youth the tactical aspects of kumite and progressions begin to play an increasingly greater role. Actually the way in which the children describe their own motivational orientation reveal no obvious age or developmental related differences. The differences that occure seem to be more dependent on the motivational approach of their trainer and on the differences that exist between children in general. However, the older youth are more at-

tenuated to the tactical aspects of kumite, whereas the younger children are more focused on specific techniques or practices. Besides, the older youngsters tell more concrete about progression.

Boys and girls train together in every one of the schools involved in this study. Sometimes this happens because the trainer wants it that way, because it is easier to organize, because it is assumed that boys and girls train harder when they practice together, and/or because the trainers see little differences between boys and girls in their practice of karate. Others believe that boys fight in a more aggressive manner than girls. Two trainers believe that boys are afraid to lose to girls and therefore do not want to compete against them. They think that this fear is inherent and that therefore, there is little to be done about it. In general however, these youngsters see almost no gender differences among themselves. There are also no obvious differences in the way boys and girls experience motivation. Besides, it's striking how most of these youngsters prefer mixed groups rather than groups defined by "difference".

Finally, it seems that trainers who use a child oriented approach are more likely to come closer to meeting the experiences and needs of their pupils than those who use a very strict traditional authoritarian approach. Child oriented trainers have more interaction with their pupils during and outside the classes, they can tell more about the feelings and experiences of their pupils en tend to involve their students in a more active way within their own learning procès.

Recommendations

In order to contribute to the education of karate teachers and encourage the use of a child oriented approach, some recommendations can be made which are based on the theory and the results of this study.

In the first instance, teachers and coaches need to place far more attention on the way children and youngsters experience competition. Because not all the children are the same, they have different feelings, possibilities and needs, coaches have to interact with their pupils as individuals.

Secondly, winning should not be the primary goal of competitive sport, but rather the process of learning should be emphasized. Individual goals need to be clearly stated prior to training, so there is

a natural progression for each child through each of the integral steps. This approach will also help children to handle winning and losing as well. It is important to do everything possible to involve these youngsters within their own learning process in order to stimulate the development of independence.

In the third place, because children want to learn something, a certain balance between discipline and teaching is required during the lessons. To focus on discipline alone would hinder the learning process.

Finally, coaches need to be more critical of their own coaching styles and make changes when necessary.

Bibliography

1. Binder, D. (1994). *Bringing the Olympic spirit to life in schools.* Paper written for the 2nd Joint International session for directors of National Olympic Academies, members and staff of National Olympic Committees and International Sports Fed erations, 2-9 June 1994. Athens: I.O.A.
2. Buisman, A.J., De Knop, P. & Theeboom, M. (1998). Kwaliteit van jeugdsport: naar een pedagogisch kader. In: A.J. Buisman and P. De Knop (ed.), *Kwaliteit van Jeugdsport* (p. 29-62). Brüssel: Vubpress.
3. De Martelaer, K. & De Knop, P. (1998). In: J. Steenbergen, A.J. Buisman, P. De Knop & J.M.H. Lucassen (ed.), *Waarden en Normen in de Sport* (p. 183-200). Houten: Bonn Stafleu Van Loghum.
4. De Spa, H. (1984). Karate Do. *De pedagogische paradox.* Thesis, Department of Education, University of Nijmegen.
5. Hendriks, E.R.H.A. & Helsper, H. (1998). *Sportspecifieke letsels vechtsport.* Houten/ Diegem: Bonn Stafleu Van Loghum.
6. Karate-Do Bond Nederland, Annual report 1999.
7. Luitwieler (1999). *An examination of the effects of gender mixed training in karate.* Pre-thesis paper, Department of Education, University of Utrecht.
8. Van Rossum, J. (1996). "Ik wil de eerste zijn..." Empirische kanttekeningen bij het primaat van het willen winnen in sport- en spelactiviteiten. In: A.J. Buisman (ed.), *Jeugdsport en beleid* (p. 109-127). Houten: Bohn Stafleu Van Loghum.
9. Weiss, M. R. (1995). Children in Sport: An Educational Model. In: S.H. Murphy (ed.), Sport *Psychology Interventions* (p. 39-71). Champaign, IL, U.S.A.: Human Kinetics.

THE EDUCATIONAL AND OLYMPIC ASPECTS OF SPORTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN MALTA

by Martha BARTOLO *(MLT)*

The latest review of the national minimum curriculum places sport and Physical Education firmly in the context of education for leisure stating that:

Objective 10

Knowledge/ information

Through the curricular experience, students acquire knowledge in the following areas

- different possibilities for making use of one's free time;
- the implication of one's choices in this respect:
- the educational value of many leisure activities;
- the valid contribution to the community which can be provided through one's engagement in social work during one's free time;
- leisure as an industry;
- possibilities for employment linked to leisure time;
- sport, voluntary organizations, cultural activities and places of cultural interest.

Skills

Through the curricular experience, students shall develop the following skills

- how to evaluate well-known leisure possibilities;
- how to choose well from among a number of possibilities;
- how to plan and make effective and disciplined use of one's free time;
- how to organize group or mass activities.

Attitudes

Through the curricular experience, students develop the following attitudes

- appreciation of the importance of one's free time;
- appreciation of the importance of constructive use of one's free time;
- recognizing that everyone has a right to free time

The above pronouncements apart from emphasizing the importance of sport - related leisure, put the responsibility on schools for the implementation of the curriculum. However, it is felt that despite the apparently secure position of sport in Maltese schools, there appears to be a degree of anxiety about the effectiveness of current sport programs and their status within the curriculum.

From personal experience about school sport, it seems that some organized sport activities have negative results and the educational values inherent in sport particularly team sports, are not adequately covered and consequently lost for ever. These values include fair-play, loyalty, courage, endurance, tolerance, self-esteem and respect of rivals.

Schools may represent the only opportunity for many to participate actively in sport. If one accepts that a definition of curriculum includes all the experience of children for which the school should accept responsibility, then it is clear that sport must be treated as part of the total educational program and its place in the school curriculum is more than justified.

In this regard, an appropriate starting-point might be the introduction of the Olympic Ideal as the concept of the development of those fine physical and moral qualities which are the basis of amateur sport'. This is further re-enforced by the Olympic Charter (1985)

"To educate young people through sport is a spirit of better understanding between each other and of friendship, thereby helping to build a better and more peaceful world".

Such an idea might be used in units of work providing secondary school students with the opportunity to discuss the educational values of sport, through Olympism and the Olympic Games. Some practical suggestions on the topic have been prepared by Paddick (1986) on behalf of the Australian Sports Commission.

According to the United Nations Charter (1985) and the Olympic ideal sport is fun. But is this the perception of the Maltese people, whose only involvement in sport is through exposure to television?

Are we not deluding ourselves in accepting glibly all that is said about the educational values of sport?

A number of studies have focused on various aspects of school sports. In theory, it should be expected that a healthy body promotes mental health, and many studies provide evidence of the validity of this theses. There are, however indications that the emphasis in schools on sports achievements, intensive competitions and winning, contain the potential for a conflict with norms of sportsmanship, fair-play and intrinsic enjoyment of physical expression in sport.

The findings of a study of the local situation are the following

A slight majority of teachers (53%) appeared in the 21-30 years of age bracket. This is considered to be in favour of physical education teaching. Over 86% of Physical Education teachers specialize only in physical Education - they dedicate all their time in physical education in schools. Also P.E. staff have nearly complete control over the planning of the Physical Education programs. Studies and preparations are being done to introduce Physical Education as an examinable subject and it will be a more controlled subject.

When asked to single out the major factor that makes young students' aversion to sport the answers were as follows

- lack of interest 25%
- lack of facilities 10%
- competitive 80%
- not enough sports discipline 8%
- also regarding school facilities some schools are quite well equipped while others have only a yard in the middle of the school.

Teachers were asked whether records are kept of students progress. 95% did actually keep records of their students. Teaches consider basic skills, fitness levels, P.E kit, individual ability, extra-curricular activities, attendance, behavior, participation, team-work, aptitude, enthusiasm, stamina, co-ordination and developing a sense of leadership are important in assessing the student's progress.

When asked about the general attitude of parents about their children's progress in Physical Education the general attitude among parents is that they are not bothered about the progress of their children in Physical Education. They probably give more importance to academic subjects.

Whether students understand the concept of fair-play and sportsmanship, 60% of Physical Education students know what these concepts are and they demonstrate this during the games. 40% replies that students have no idea what fair play and sportsmanship meant. This negative perception seemed to prevail especially in the Cottonera area as some teachers pointed out that there existed a social problem.

Asked about whether students accepted the decisions of the referee or argued against it, 82% replied that the students generally accepted the referee's decision without causing any disruptions. 12% said that they did not accept the referee's decisions while another 6% said that the circumstances changed and they had occasional arguments in the students about the referee's decisions.

Recommendations and conclusions

From the survey there are indications that a lot could be done to give a new dimension to the quality and nature of the physical education programs at secondary level.

It is important to look at several factors, which might inhibit the kinds of quality programs that can challenge and excite young adolescents and place physical education as a less marginal component of their secondary education. This is not something that any teacher can do alone, nor is there any solution to this. It is a complex set of factors that requires long term investment by teachers, heads of schools, educators, administrators and the state, to convince our teaching colleagues and the community, of the potential of physical education in the education of young people. The first aspect to consider is the existing facilities.

Sports need facilities. From the survey it seems that there are facilities available in schools, although some might need upgrading. For new facilities to be built up or old ones upgraded huge sums of money are necessary and the state will only be prepared to invest if increases public use of school facilities contributes to community sport.

With the decentralization of Maltese education and the ensuing allocation and disposal of funds as a direct responsibility of heads of schools, it is of the utmost importance that the latter are fully aware of the benefits and values of Physical Education. Unless

we can clearly show outcomes demonstrating the contribution of physical education in the school curriculum, it is almost certain that physical education in the schools will be eliminated. Sometimes complaints on our lack of facilities and other factors seem to be our main concern.

The development of health-related fitness as part of health education in schools, has a great impact on the role of the P.E. teacher who has much to contribute to the health and health-care of young students. School sports, therefore, should develop attitudes, which encourage the greatest possible appreciation of health and hygiene. According to the survey under review, it appears that while the health benefits of sport are generally understood, other aspects particularly that of hygiene and cleanliness seem to be neglected.

It is interesting to mention that, despite the fact that parents are generally indifferent to P.E. or their children's progress in P.E as deduced from the low percentage of parents who visit the Parents' Day, yet most of the students are equipped with their sports kits and track suits. They realize that different clothing is necessary for participation in activities where you sweat, fall, run and tumble.

Another aspect which emerged from the survey is the high percentage of young physical education teachers. This means that new ideas and concepts can be better generated in the P.E. program. The most important thing that can be done is to ensure that the child gets the right start and to see that the child's participation is fun and enjoyable above everything else. The simple fact is that if children are not receiving some sort of positive rewards from their participation, they will only continue reluctantly and intermittently. The P.E. program should aim at giving participants lots of fun and the opportunity to play and be part of the action. Unfortunately, highly structured school leagues and school teams often make reinforcement (for example, social approval, praise and encouragement) dependent upon successful performance before children have had adequate preparation.

It seems that only in these instances when school teams participate in inter-school competitions, or for Prize-day or Sports Day, does the Head give importance to P.E. and then expect physically impossible miracles to happen. Feelings of inadequacy and failure that some students might have during Sports Day or similar events

must be exchanged with satisfaction of having participated, without necessarily having to win. Sadly enough, in the past, P.E. teachers have often minimized or ignored the critical role of which failure or expectancy of failure plays in shaping a child's behavior in a sport's setting. The child operates on his expectations of success or failure. Activities are dropped or accepted with enthusiasm, depending upon the degree to which the child expects he can attain the goals. The most serious problem encountered in children's sports is undoubtedly the emphasis on competition so prevalent in many secondary schools. Setting limits on the kind and number of children allowed to be involved, means elimination from sport. Elimination is a long-term process. Although it may occur at an early age it can last a life time. By eight or nine years of age many children in our primary schools have already turned off sport. In many cases young children who had opted out of sport, never want to go into sport again. This attitude presents an almost insurmountable challenge to the Secondary school P.E. teacher. In many of our secondary schools, organized sport (team or individual) appears to operate as an extremely efficient screening process for the elimination of children.

The findings of the questionnaire indicate that a major change in emphases is needed in children's sport in order to operate in the children's best interests, with regard to motivation. Very often fear of failure or the psychological stress of disapproval, influences certain children to the extent that they are afraid to participate. Consequently, children's first sports experiences are vitally important. If their initial exposures are positive and enjoyable they become "hooked" for life; on the other hand if these experiences are negative and unenjoyable, they can be turned-off sports for a long time.

The local tendency to attach blame to lack of preparation in schools after a sport defeat in the international arena, is tantamount to de Coubertin's condemnation of French schools after the French humiliation in battle against the Prussians in 1871.

P.E. in the secondary schools has other aims and values, which, it is hoped, would be well understood by administrators and planners. From the survey it emerges that only 60% of the students have an acceptable idea of fair play and good sportsmanship. It is indeed very disturbing that the rest do not have the least notions of these

values, especially as most of these respondents come from a particularly depressed area.

The intrinsic values of sport need to be reinforced by a systematic program of sports education starting in the beginning of the secondary school course. Such a program, based on Olympic ideals, should explore the benefits of sport-for-all and life-time sport as an on-going commitment. An overt interest in sport and recreation by local government has been increasingly evident over these last fifteen years or so, this has also been manifested in the formation of a National Sports Council.

The Sports Council has the following objectives

1. To make the public and government at all levels more conscious on the importance of sport and physical recreation. More money must be channeled into the provision of essential facilities, par ticularly where these can be shared by several sports.
2. To make sure that existing facilities are fully utilized. There are too many sports, fields and buildings, especially in schools, which are used only for part of the day. They could be shared by the community.
3. To include school sports as an essential part of the Sports policy.
4. To encourage bodies of sport to get more people to take part in sport at all levels.

The National Policy for physical education and sports education in schools should incorporate above all

i) that every school child and student irrespective of age, sex or means is given the opportunity to participate in physical activities and sport throughout his or her school life.

ii) the encouragement of active participation in various sports disciplines, emphasizing the educational aspects rather than the competitive element.

iii) that the educationally-administered school sports program is oriented to motivate continued interest in physical activities and sport when school days are over. The school sport program should then underline or aim at

- Creating habits regarding physical activity aimed at stimulating life time participation and making sports culture a way of life.
- Developing attitudes which encourage the greatest possible de gree of health.

- Enhancing the intrinsic values of sport and physical education
- Developing gymnastic, sporting, expressive, artistic and daily movement.
- Aiming at optimal physical development.
- Getting people to adopt correct posture habits.
- Promoting fair play, learning to abide by the rules, learning to accept victory and defeat and encouraging co-operation and tolerance.
- Developing coexistence and team work.
- Using time purposefully, through physical and sports activity.
- Helping to achieve self-confidence and self-control through such programs.

It is obvious that all these recommendations have financial implications besides other considerations like publicity and promotion of these highly-worthwhile objectives, facilities, personnel and the right organisation to implement them.

Promotion

Promotion may consist of a series of publicity programs through the mass media, public relations, as well as sports activities and demonstrations directly aimed at encouraging people to take active part in sports activities.

Quite a lot of publicity is necessary to make the public aware of the great values in participation in sports activities. In addition to the publicity, which may be transmitted through newspapers, radios, television, films, good public relations by various members of staff, including students, parents, teachers, coaches, instructors, administrators and the public in general is essential. On the other hand, coverage by the media can also have negative results by disseminating the ugly aspects of sports to the public and by looking for the sensational. To overcome these dangers UNESCO in a seminar organised in 1971, made recommendations as follows

- a higher level of education and professional training of the sport writer and commentator.
- Sport reporters should resist sensationalism by all means - sport reporters should expose the abuse of so sport whether for diplo matic or any other purpose.

Therefore, for a campaign to encourage more participation with success, it must be continuous, encouraging and honest.

Facilities

It is needless to emphasize that the provision of sports facilities is considered to be an influential factor for the promotion of sport. The maintenance and improvement of existing facilities and the construction of new ones, where theses are lacking, should be given due importance. What is really essential is to have facilities available for general use and where possible located in well defined areas which are accessible to the greater masses of people. These facilities must be kept in good condition and well maintained to make the public even more aware of the importance of sport.

Personnel

Another important factor for the development of sport in the right direction is having people trained to carry out this important function P.E. teachers, sports leaders, instructors, coaches, referees. There is also need for in-service training in physical education and sport, especially for those teachers who have been in the teaching profession for quite some years, or for those teachers who have never specialized as physical educators. It is essential to make them aware of the values in physical education and to bring them up to date on the latest developments in the theory and practice of physical education and sport.

Organisation

The main function of the organization and all the structures attached to it, comprises mainly all activities concerned with organizing sports and physical activities. The organizing committees' main concern is of serving other operational factors like: promotion, personnel and facilities which have already been mentioned before. It is recommended that provisions should not only be made for competitive sport on national and international basis, but special importance should be given to programs in schools. Therefore it should be closely linked with the total educational system for the benefits of sport to be fostered. Programs in the total set-up should even be provided

for persons who have special needs: the physically, mentally and otherwise handicapped. A good organization will surely help to increase sports participation at large.

Conclusion

The physical education profession then has a responsibility to provide knowledge and understanding in this specialized field, to the administrators and the community at large and it also has a duty to bring powerful, persistent pressure to bear so that action is taken.

This means that not only must the entire P.E. curriculum be rethought and revised in terms of time allocation for all subjects, but consideration must then be given to placing physical education on the higher list of priorities, at times when it may be expected to be most effective. It is furthermore the duty of the profession to ensure that all action taken is appropriate and that resources are put to the best use. In fact work is being done to include P.E. as an examinable subject and students can specialize in this subject.

The physical educator's job should be to play a major part, together with the heads of schools and local councils and other interested bodies, in the educational process, with a realization of the need for healthy exercise, providing a wide range of experiences that will be continued in later life.

Just as the whole curriculum, the P.E. curriculum should be conceived as a balanced whole, enhancing the quality of life of all students. Health related fitness lends itself to this philosophy, as does a new approach based on understanding rather than just doing. Competition will always play a part in the P.E. approach, from caring people towards an education of the whole person, in which P.E. has a major role to play. As an educational and culturally oriented organization, a National Sports Council should undoubtedly attach particular importance to the all-round, harmonious and total education of the child. Consequently, it has the envious responsibility of promoting programs that will effect the quality and nature of physical education. Conscious of the concept that sport and physical education is a part of life-long education, and that a sports culture improves the quality of life, a National Sports Council should primarily assess the quality of current practices in school sports. Furthermore, realizing that the school cannot function independently in

its objectives, nor does it have an exclusive obligation in the promotion of sport, a National Sports Council should examine ways and means for after-school, out-of-school or away-from school programs, for school-age youth in order to complement the formal P.E. lessons as an aspect of life-long education. This will guarantee that sports and P.E. will find their rightful place in the school curriculum. In this way, physical educators play their proper role in the preparation of youth for life.

Bibliography

1. Bugeja, M. (1995). The educational aspects of sports in a national policy, with reference to school sports. Bachelor Thesis, University of Malta.
2. Dunn.D. (1995). The London Times, Sports Section.
3. Ministry of Education, Malta (1999). Creating the future together. National Mini mum Curriculum.
4. Olympic Charter (1985). International Olympic Committee. Lausanne, Switzerland.
5. Orlick, T. (1975). Games of Acceptance and Psycho-Social Development. Paper presented at the Conference on Mental Health and Aspects of Sport, Exercise and Recreation. U.S.A.
6. UNESCO Seminar (1971). Development in Physical Education and Sport. Published by the Information Section of the Canadian Commission for UNESCO.

OLYMPIC EDUCATION FOR THE YOUTH OF RUSSIA

by Galina RAGOZINA *(RUS)*

Introduction

At the beginning of the 21st century Olympic Education represents one of the most important directions of the modern Olympic Movement. Due to the intense activities of the International Olympic Academy and those of the National Olympic Academies, the number of which can be estimated at about 100, the new Olympic Tradition has already been formed. It is the tradition of Olympic Education for youth.

The National Olympic Academies of Canada, Germany, USA, Poland, Bulgaria, Australia, New *Zealand,* Brazil and other countries have great experience of this work. Each National Olympic Academy pays more attention to the development of Olympic Education system for school students.

On the one hand, one of the most important tasks of Olympic Education in every state is to unify youth in sport and to form a positive attitude towards sports participation as the defining level of the next generation's health.

On the other hand, children aged between 6 and 17 are studying in secondary schools.

It is at this age when the basic features of their life - style begin to form.

Olympic Education, which must be the foundation of any school education, should act on the conscience of the youth to encourage them to practice sport throughout their life, as a way of achieving fulfillment[2].

1. Olympic Education for secondary school

In my opinion Hellen Brownell describes most clearly the concept of Olympic Education in the following definition:

"Olympic Education is process of bringing the philosophy of Olympism "to life through teaching the Olympic ideals - providing experiences which reinforce cultural and personal identity, tolerance for all , mutual understanding, individual development, and a striving for personal excellence"[3].

By "Olympic Education" as the subject for secondary school aims to attract the youth to the ideals and values of Olympism. This process consists of three main parts.

The first part is the activity, aimed at obtaining systematic knowledge of the Olympic Movement by the students.

The second part considers the activity, aimed at creating tendencies in students to live a healthy style of life, based on ideals and values of Olympism.

And the third one is the activity, aimed at teaching student's skills and abilities to practice Fair Play's principles in their lives.

It is very important that only the inter-relationship of all these parts would makes it possible to educate a man in the spirit of Olympism, as "a philosophy of live, exalting and combining the best qualities of body, will and mind into a balanced whole"[4].

2. The system of Olympic Education for the youth of Russia

The system of Olympic Education for the youth of Russia started to be created in the late 80's. The Russian Administration of Olympic Education with Vladimir Rodichenko as its Head achieved much success in gaining very important results

1. The legal support of the Olympic Education system was given.
2. Programmes for Olympic Education of various groups of school students were prepared and carried out.
3. Various books have been written for students and teachers. One of the best to be considered is "Your Olympic Textbook"[5].
4. Several conferences on Olympic Education are held in Russia every year.
5. The First World Youth Games were held in Moscow in 1998.

Russian scientists cannot claim, however, that the system of Olympic Education of school students in Russia is completely built. They explain that in many ways, but the main of the reason for that

is a absence of the Olympic Education programme which can be put into effect by teachers in all Russian secondary schools.

3. The system of the extracurricular work on Olympic Education

The purpose of my investigation is to formulate a new Olympic Education programme for school students in Russia.

To be able to implement this we intend to do the following

1. To analyse the Olympic Education programmes for students in secondary schools.
2. To prepare and realize a new Olympic Education programme.
3. To study the efficiency of already prepared Olympic programmes in the Russian secondary schools for nowadays.

Now, Russian scientists offer various Olympic Education programmes for students based on their own investigations as well as on their foreign colleagues' experience.

Four programmes are briefly outlined below.

Programme No 1

Olympic Education is the basis of academic programmes in secondary schools. Olympic lessons are compulsory in secondary schools. Within the programme, art and sport contests with Olympic attributes are also regularly held.

A cycle of theoretical Olympic lessons for all students is created. The cycle is adapted to students abilities and ends with an exam.

A considerable amount of work in the dissemination of Fair-Play principles is done within the programme. This work is aimed at developing young men/women 's need to follow Fair Play rules as the basic principle of their lives.

A complicated system of Olympic festivals, holidays, different competitions and contests is being carried out for that purpose.

To fulfil the programme every teacher should have deep knowledge in the field of Olympic Education for students and use every opportunity of school education for disseminating the ideals of Olympism.

Today, there are few such specialists in Russia because of the lack of educational institutions ready to cope with the problem of training teachers in the field of Olympic Education.

That is why I consider this program as the future of Russian Olympic Education.

Only after the system of training specialists in the field of Olympic Education is created will this efficient program be applied in all Russian schools.

Programme No 2

The programme consists of theoretical Olympic lessons from 1 to 16 in number.

The programme is quite popular in many Russian schools because there are textbooks for teachers, which help them in giving such lessons. A few Olympic Champions take an active part in these lessons, which makes them attractive for students.

But, a serious defect of the programme is the lack of practical activity for students. This activity helps students to learn the ideals of Olympism and to follow their own life-style.

Theoretical Olympic lessons may also be an excessive burden for students because they already have too many theoretical lessons at school.

Programme No 3

The programme is prepared as a part of the Project "SpArt" ("Spirituality", "Sport", "Art") introduced by Professor Vladislav Stolarov.

The Project "SpArt" is a programme that heightens the spiritual and cultural potential of sport based on a closer connection between sport and art.

The Project is being carried out as a net of SpArtian Clubs in Russian schools. The main direction of Clubs is the organisation and development of active and creative leisure-time for students by drawing them into different games. First of all, SpArtianity Games, based on a combination of sport and art and oriented towards spiritual, moral and aesthetic values.

Students are supposed to get Olympic knowledge through holding Spartianity Games or in studying the course of Olympism and then use received knowledge in Spartianity competitions and contests.

But, this programme does not indicate who should carry it out and how to train specialists for its fulfillment. Absence of financial support of these Clubs also causes considerable difficulties in spreading them throughout Russian schools.

Programme No 4

This programme is supposed to provide Olympic Education through the interrelation of subjects.

The programme regards school education as an indivisible process aimed at the dissemination of Olympic knowledge. A special methodical system was built for teachers of different subjects.

Promotion of Olympic ideas is the most important in the system. That is why students acquire Olympic knowledge while studying all subjects at school according to their own abilities.

Lack of practical activity is also a serious defect of this programme because the skills and abilities of students to use Olympic knowledge in their life are not being formed.

Having investigated all the existing programmes on Olympic Education for students in Russia the following shortcomings were found

1. A lack of an harmonious combination of theoretical and practical activities for students within each programme.
   A harmonious combination of theoretical and practical activities held by students helps them to learn better ideals of Olympism and to follow their own life-style.
2. The necessity to training specialists in the field of Olympic Edu cation in secondary schools.

Having taken all these advantages and disadvantages into consideration and having studied the experience of Olympic Education in other countries a new programme of Olympic Education for students called **"The System of the Extracurricular Work on Olympic Education"** was created.

This programme on Olympic Education is given to students after academic lessons studying in secondary schools.

This kind of educational activity is carried out after academic lessons in many Russian secondary schools. This helps parents to educate their children so that children could become useful members of our society.

Teachers, school administrators and parents choose the direction in extracurricular work that can help to achieve that purpose more efficiently.

I have proposed to some Saint-Petersburg and Krasnoyarsk schools of Russia to use the programme on Olympic Education as one of the directions in the extracurricular work.

The first step of the system is to create a Small Olympic Committee (SOC) in a secondary school. The school administration, teachers, parents and students of senior classes would have the chance to become members of this kind of Olympic Committee.

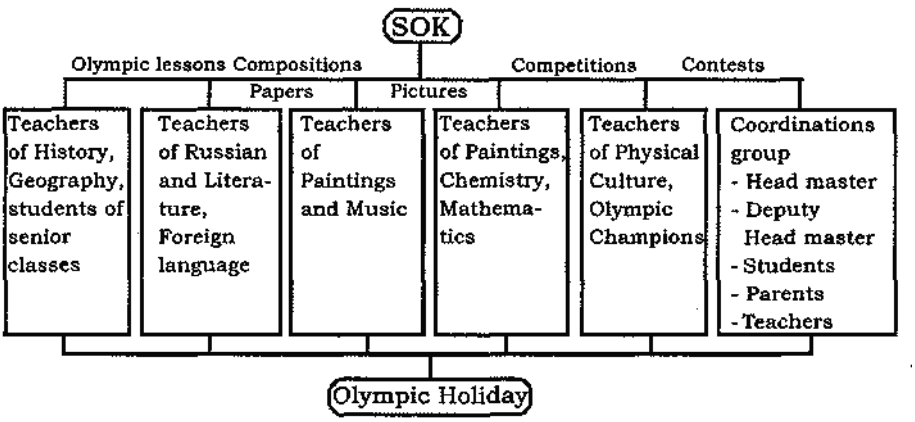
The second step would be to hold the preparatory Seminar on Theory and Practice on Olympic Education for members of the Small Olympic Committee. Many specialists have already been trained for carrying out the programme.

Every member of the Small Olympic Committee assumes the task of organazing an Olympic event in every class. The leaders of the Olympic events would be teachers.

They have to prepare a cycle of Olympic lessons for students and their parents, competitions of pictures and compositions on Olympic subjects and sport contests among school students.

In the system of school competitions and contests all students would be able to put into action their knowledge on Olympic studies.

The structure and main trends in the work of LOC are shown in Figure.



At the end of every cycle of Olympic Education the Small Olympic Committee organizes an Olympic Holiday for all students. It is planned to last for one week and to include various competitions between teams of all classes.

Much attention is paid to Opening and Closing Ceremonies of the Olympic Holiday, the Ceremony of the winners awards and dissemination of Fair-Play principles.

The Olympic Holiday is the most interesting and fascinating event in school for many years for many students and their parents.

Russian students were tested in order to understand their attitudes and aspirations towards the ideals of Olympism and towards living a healthy life before and after carrying out the system of extracurricular work.

A comparison of received answers showed great efficiency of the system of the extracurricular work in Olympic Education of students in dissemination the spirit of Olympic ideals and values.

The System of the Extracurricular Work held on Olympic Education was realized not only in Russian schools but also in some schools of Estonia and Bulgaria where confirmation of its efficiency was also provided.

Conclusion

In conclusion it should be noted that ways of implementing Olympic Education programmes for students in Russia continue. Keeping in mind the words of the Founder of the Modern Olympic Movement Pierre de Coubertin, who considered that the future would belong to the nation which could give education to the youth, scientists should try to do their best to create efficient programmes on Olympic Education for school students[6].

Bibliography

1. John Talbot Powell. Consolidated report: International Olympic Academy. Thirty Sixty Session. 19th June-2th July 1996 p. 206.
2. Norbert Müller. Olympism in the field of education: Think globally -Act locally.
3. Helen Brownlee. Olympic Educational Programs and Activities Tor Schools. Inter national Olympic Academy. 4th Joint International Session for Directors of NOAs, members and staff of NOCs, and Ifs (7-14 May 1998). p. 2.
4. Olympic Charter. Article 2. International Olympic Committee. 3rd September 1997.
5. Coubertin, P. de: Sportiche Erziehung. Stutgart 1928.

IS THERE REALLY AN OLYMPIC EDUCATION?

by Catherine MONNIN *(FRA)*

To answer to this question, I've chosen to develop a questionnaire intended for physical education's teachers in order to try and understand their opinions about Olympic Education.

I. Can we speak of Olympic Education today?

- Olympic Education can help the youth to improve and develop their intellectual and physical abilities.
  So, it can contribute to a better quality of life, understanding the family as a role model and social relaxation and pleasure through sport.
- At the present time there is not an Olympic value among these which is as much sought after as the idea of fair-play.
  In the context of an "Olympic Education" do we not stress the importance of fair-play in sports activities?
  With their sporting activities, but also with critical thought, the pupils might understand some values such as
- **To respect the rules in sporting activities**
- **To develop fair-play, through their behaviour and to develop a broad-minded attitude to other areas of life**

Educating pupils in the principles of fair-play and equal opportunities to participate in sports are two essential elements of "Olympic Education".

Moreover, the idea of peace is an important value of Olympism. In an Olympic Education it would be possible to learn of Olympic internationalism in different ways

- To understand cultural differences between nations and conti nents;
- To know the sports of other nations;
- To know the culture of the countries which organize the Olympic Games;

- To understand international sports meetings as an opportunity for reconciliation between nations.

Moreover, an Olympic Education speaks to every pupil, even to pupils who are socially disadvantaged such as poor housing or handicapped pupils.

The programme of an Olympic Education might be differenciated and laid out according to the ages of the pupils, according to the sporting and Olympic traditions of the basic school programmes, and according to the possibilities to inform the teachers of these school Olympic programmes.

The latter can have a great impact if it takes place in the months leading up to the Olympic week. My brother who is physical education's teacher and me organize some "Olympic weeks" to promote Olympic spirit for the youth in school and these 'Olympic weeks" are a great success.

I.1. Is there Olympic Education in the school programme in France?

In France an Olympic Education plan was created in 1992.

It is the creation of an Olympic kit called "Ecolympique, Albertville 1992".

The government asserted its concern that national education ought to play a part in this event.

The review E.P. publishes some articles about Olympism.

The Prime minister at this time, Lionel Jospin, promoted this kit in order to enable teachers to educate their pupils about the Olympics.

The content of this very rich and varied kit was about the historical aspects of the Olympic Games but also included the dimensions of geography of this region and also its socio-economic dimension.

Created by a team of teachers this kit had three parts

1- To work with pupils and to motivate the class (posters, transpar encies...)
2- To follow the Olympic Games of 1992 (pupils have to complete a table about scores...)
3- To bring to life the Olympics through pictures (video...)

However, this kit "Ecolympique" was not a great success because a lot of teachers did not know it or did not use it.

In France this tool was created by the national education governmemt in order to favour a certain knowledge about Olympism and to instil passion in the pupils about it.

The Olympic Games constitute a tremendous movement to fight against disciminations such as gender race able-bodied and disabled, and to promote the principles such as fair-play, respect honesty, passion expressed in the Olympic Charter.

II. How do teachers perceive Olympic Education?

To know their opinion about this subject a questionnaire was drawn up.

This questionnaire consisted of three parts

- The first part is about teacher's identity and activities.
- The second part is about teacher's Olympic culture.
- The third part is about the practice of Olympic education at school.

Concerning the 163 teachers who completed the questionnaire, 80 were women and 83 men.

The average age is 36 years; the level of study is high: CAPEPS, this is a high standard teaching qualification in France and the average number of spent years teaching is 13.

Teachers come from the city generally work in secondary schools.

They seem not to be interested by different revues about P.E., paradoxally, which are today.

Ancient sporting, they seem, however, let sport from their teaching.

III. Is it really necessary to introduce Olympic Education into the programmes at school?

Firstly, by standing physical education teachers' attitudes to Olympism it can be said that the teachers have a positive attitude towards Olympism, because they agree with the Olympic ideals of Pierre de Coubertin.

In fact, the Olympic idea as Pierre de Coubertin defined it, still finds support amongst the public.

However, if Olympic Education seems to be perceived in a positive light by these teachers, the problem of its application in school still

remains because there is a lack of information and awareness of Olympic Education.

The best way to integrate seems to be within a programme that has clearly defined goals.

The teachers are ready to pass Olympic Education on to their pupils but they need exterior support from for example governmemt, national sport federations, with an explanation of the kit, with a specialised training....

Morever, according to the teachers , the subjects of Physical Education is not the only one which can develop this sort of education; history can transmit the values of Olympic's spirit.

The effective application of "Olympic Education" seems to come up against a lack of training of the P.E.'s teachers in this domain, and also a lack of precise programming.

So, it is by building on the impetus given by the government towards this sort of education that Olympic Education will be able to develop at school.

Effective Olympic Education, greatly approved by physical education teachers could be further developed to allow the teaching of some fundamemtal values such as fair-play and solidarity and to favour the pupil's physical and mental broadmindedness.

Thus, UNESCO International Charter of Physical Education and sport insists on a necessary implication of everyone in order to preserve ethical values.

Such an Education, based on the respect of others, can make sport more human and perhaps has some positive effects in other domains of life.

VOLUNTARY TRAINING SPORTS FOR YOUTH IN LATVIA

by Aiga MARENA *(LAT)*

On April 10-11, 1923 the conference of student unions of the Baltic states took place in Tartu, Estonia, with representatives of Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania participating. The aim of the conference was to solve questions and assignments concerning academic life and to establish contact between the student unions which would eventually promote the culture of these states.

The main aim of the conference was not sport but sport was one of the topics discussed by the committee which included V. Schalien (Finland), H. Treial (Estonia), R. Kalnin (Latvia) and A. Bumrys (Lithuania). Concerning sports, the conference adopted a decision to start organising Olympiads of students of the Baltic states on a regular basic.

Where does the name "SELL Games" come from?

The name of the conference in 1923 was "Baltic Conference". In 1925 in Helsinki the conference was named "Conference of Baltic Student Unions". In 1928 in Riga "SELL conference" was held.

The competitions between the student unions of these 4 states were called "Baltic Games" probably between 1926-1928. The expression "SELL's Olympics" was in use at the beginning of the tradition too. The first Winter Games in 1929 in Riga, Latvia were called "SELL's Winter Olympic". In chess competitions the name "SELL's Chess Olympic" was used from the beginning until the end (1937-1939).

Probably the name "SELL" came from the first letters of the participating states in their mother language: Suomi-Finland in Finnish, Eesti-Estonia in Estonian, Latvija-Latvia in Latvian and Lietuva - Lithuania in Lithuanian.

Participation of Poland in SELL - events

In 1923 Poland was also invited to participate at the conference. But the representatives only got the invitation on April 22 so could not take part it.

At the first regional competitions in 1923 in Tartu, Poland was represented along with Latvia and Estonia but was not invited to participate later. At the conference in 1925 in Helsinki the delegation from Poland was invited as a guest. At the conference in 1930 in Tallinn the question of Poland's participation was officially discussed. Lithuania was strongly against its participation, representing the **following arguments:**

- geographically Poland was not a Baltic state;
- Poland's ambition was to attain a leading position over the other member states in SELL;
- Poland occupied a third of Lithuania and Vilnius in 1920.

Participation of Poland in SELL's activity was not discussed later on after the conference in 1930.

Summary

16 SELL - games, 6 SELL - winter games and 3 SELL - chess Olympic were held during 17 years in Estonia, Finland, Latvia and Lithuania. The period before World War II was the best time for university sports history in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. After the Soviet occupation in 1940 international student events including "Universiades" and World University Championships were closed for the student teams of these 3 states until they regained their independence in 1991.

Chronicle of SELL Games

I	9-11.09	1923	Tallin, Estonia	soccer
	15-16.09	1923	Tartu, Estonia	athletics, tennis
II	29.09-02.10	1923	Riga, Latvia	athletics, soccer
III	2-3.10	1926	Helsinki, Finland	athletics
IV	11-21.09	1929	Kaunas, Lithuania	athletics
V	13-14.09	1930	Tallin, Estonia	athletics, soccer
VI	13-14.09	1931	Riga, Latvia	athletics, soccer
VII	24-25.09	1932	Helsinki, Finland	athletics, tennis
VIII	24-25.09	1933	Kaunas, Lithuania	
IX	22-23.09	1934	Tartu, Estonia	athletics
X	28-29.09	1935	Riga, Latvia	athletics, soccer
XI	27-28.09	1936	Helsinki, Finland	
XII	25-26.09	1937	Kaunas, Lithuania	

XIII	17-18.09	1938	Tartu, Estonia
XIV	in	1939	games were planned to be held on 23-24.09 in Riga, Latvia

Chronicle of SELL - Winter Games

I	2-3.03	1929	Riga, Latvia	c-c skiing, f-skating, ice hockey
II	2-3.03	1931	Helsinki, Finland	c-c skiing, s-skating, f-skating, ice hockey
III	11-13.02	1933	Lithuania	it is unknown whether the games were held or not
IV	16-17.02	1935	Riga, Sigulda, Latvia	
V	28-30.01	1938	Zarasai, Lithuania	
VI	2-3.03	1940	Otepää, Estonia	

Chronicle of SELL - Chess Olympics

I	15-17.03	1937	Riga, Latvia
II	25-27.03	1938	Tartu, Estonia
HI	19-20.02	1939	Helsinki, Finland

On April 21, 1997 the University Sport Federation representatives from four countries - Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania signed the declaration to renew the SELL - Games.

The representatives came to the agreement that every year the games would take place in one of these Baltic countries. The organisers of the games have the right to invite students from the universities of other states as well as to name the sports they want to hold competitions in.

Concerning the meeting on April 21 and 22 in Tartu the representatives of the Baltic countries were of the opinion that the meeting should adopt a common closing document or declaration which would bind the participating student sports federations concerning future perspectives. The program to restore the SELL - Games would include - principles of SELL-Games restoration and future games;

- responsibility of student sport federations of SELL countries to support the games in every possible way;
- the time, place and organising of the next meeting.

On May 8-10, 1998 in Tartu, Estonia. XV SELL - Games were held with more than 800 students from 13 countries participating and representing 56 universities (Estonia - 21 universities, Belarus - 2, Germany - 3, Switzerland - 2, United Kingdom - 2, Austria - 1, Lithuania - 7, Russian Federation - 4, Netherlands - 2, Norway - 1, Finland - 3, Azerbaijan - 1, Latvia - 7, (320 participants)).

Competitions were held in 8 kind of sports: badminton, karate, volleyball, judo, basketball, athletics, orienteering, gymnastics.

During these games the University of Tartu and the Estonian Sports Museum made a proposal to organise a historical conference of student sports.

The sub-themes of the historical conference were the following

- University sports from their beginning until World War II;
- University sports development after 1945;
- University sports after the restoration of independence;
- Contemporary general student sport problems;
- Contemporary situation and future perspectives of university sports of SELL countries.

On May 12-16, 1999 XVI - SELL Games were organised by Lithuania and held in Kaunas. The competitions held represented 10 kinds of sports: track-and-field athletics, basketball, orienteering, sports aerobics, lawn-tennis, swimming, handball, judo, cross-country race, beach volleyball.

XV SELL - Games were held from 6 participating countries representing 29 universities (Estonia - 5, Belarus - 1, Germany - 2, Finland - 1, Lithuania - 15, Latvia - 5, (250 participants)).

In the year 2000 on May 18-21, Latvia is the organiser of the games. This event was organised by the Latvia University of Agriculture, situated in Yelgava, together with the Latvia University Sports Federation.

About 1500 student-athletes are expected to take part in the XVII SELL - Games in Yelgava. The organizers of the games have sent the invitations to 39 universities in 10 countries. The students of Germany, Switzerland, Sweden, Poland, Turkey and other countries are among the invited. The competitions were held in 9 kinds of

sports which are basketball, volleyball, "tug of war", orienteering sports, swimming, track and field athletics, rhythmic group gymnastics, mini-football and aerobics. There were also for handicapped students and people sport where everybody will be able to take part (disabled sports, 1001 night tournament, streetball, arm-wrestling, darts, open competitions on water).

The participants in these games represented 29 universities from 6 countries (Estonia - 4, Germany - 2, Switzerland - 2, Finland - 2, Lithuania - 10, Latvia - 9 (547 participants)).

Table 1. Finland, Estonia, Lithuania and Latvia in renewal SELL-Games

	XV SELL-Games (Estonia)	XVI SELL-Games (Lithuania)	XVII SELL-Games (Latvia)
ESTONIA	21 universities	5	4
FINLAND	3	1	2
LITHUANIA	7	15	10
LATVIA	7	5	9

Conclusions

As we can see, the students from Estonia, Finland, Lithuania and Latvia are very passive to participate in competitions abroad.

Having analyzed the situation of Latvian universities, we can bring out the following points

I. Financial problems

One of the most important problems is lack of financing. Latvian universities don't have money to pay for participation fees, travel costs etc. for their students.

IL Organisational problems

From 28 universities registered in Latvia only 12 have student sport organisations.

If our aim is to help the participation of students from all Latvian universities in our competitions, we must prepare a new young generation of student sport organisations.

III. Motivation problems

Latvian students lack motivation to compete in our student competitions.

There is a serious need to work out a new system

Judging from results in Latvia "Universiades", student representative teams (just below national level teams) include the best athletes from all Latvian universities in every kind of sport to represent Latvia in Europe and in the world.

The chance to participate at such high levels internationally will give more motivation to train and participate in different sport competitions in Latvia.

CONCLUSIONS ON "ANCIENT HISTORY"

For a better understanding of the Modern Olympic Games it is necessary to have profound knowledge on what happened in the past, what rules and standards where established for these games during the ancient times. Therefore the 8th Postgraduate Seminar started with a section about sport activities in ancient times. By visiting the most important archaeological sites in Athens and northern Péloponnèse and by lectures and paper presentations by the participants, we were introduced in the mainstreams of Sport History.

The supervising Professors for this section were

- Professor Wolfgang Decker of the Department of Sports History of the German Sports University of Cologne
- Professor Evangelos Albanides of the Department of Physical Edu cation of the Democritian University of Thrace, specialist for an cient sport history
- Professor Stephen Miller, of the Archaeological Department in Berkeley University-California, and excavator of Nemea.

Sport in prehellenic cultures

Wishing to give us an insight into the origin of ancient athletism, Professor W. Decker gave lectures on the earliest traces of Athletism, according to recent research. Architectural monuments in Egypt such as the pyramids of Saqqara and Giza, the temples at Karnak and the tombs at Beni Hasan and Medinet Habu are decorated with reliefs and wall paintings which depict athletic performances. Among these the most common is wrestling, but boxing, single-stick fencing and archery have also been identified. Archaeologists cannot confirm the impetus of such activities in the Egyptian world, but the fact that their representations are found in buildings of religious significance reveals a connection of athletism to ceremonial manifestations. Worth mentioning is the fact that in the Egyptian society the King Pharao was considered as a exemplar athlete, according to inscriptions which refer to his achievements in archery and running. Apart

from the Egyptian civilization, reference was also made on the Aegean Bronze Age civilization. The Minoan Palaces of Crete have provided us with works of art (mostly wall paintings and pottery), which depict the Minoan athletic activity of bull-leaping. Furthermore, the Aegean example of wrestling, as depicted in the famous "Boxers" wall painting from the prehistoric settlement on Thera island, confirms the performance of wrestling in the Aegean Bronze Age society. Although unfamiliar with such archaeological information, the participants of the seminar had the opportunity to view material which broadened their impression and knowledge of Athletism in Ancient times, and to understand the depth of the roots of ancient Greek athletic festivals, amongst which the Olympic Games possess a special place.

Sport in ancient Greek times

Dealing with the ancient sport history we must be clear about the kind of sources which archaeologists and historians are working with. One of the most important kind of sources are the narrative sources, for example Homer and the Odes of Pindar for the victors of the Olympic Games. Furthermore we gain information from inscriptions and artistic representations of sport activities, such as vase paintings, sculptures, reliefs and mosaics. Any other kind of archaeological remains is also valuable for our knowledge of the past.

Sport activities were an integral part of the ancient Greek education and were aimed to the fulfill the ideal of "kalos k'agathos" i.e. a man with a healthy body and a strong mind (the ideal of "Kalokagathia"). The Greek men used to visit the Gymnasium as a central sports facility. Since the Greek society was based on the agonistic principle of being the best, the competitions were a part of daily life. In the 8th, 7th and 6th centuries B.C. many local competitions with links to sanctuaries were founded, developing into popular athletic festivals. Four of them were the main or Panhellenic Games held at Olympia, in honour of Zeus, at Nemea, also in honour of Zeus, at Isthmia, in honour of Poseidon at Delphi (Pythian games), in honour of Apollo.

Apart from these four Panhellenic games there were also many local games all over the Greek world. Competitive events in ancient Greece were distinguished into the "gymnikos agon" i.e. the naked

athletic competition, the "hippikos agon" i.e. the equestrian events, and the "mousikos agon" i.e. musical competitions.

Sport in the Roman period

The Romans, a pragmatist and utilitarian population considered athletics as a means to gain military efficiency or as a simple entertainment for the crowds and they were unable to realise the Greek educational principles of physical training. To the Romans the games of the Circus (ludi circenses) were more popular than the athletic games in Greece. Gladiatorial ñghts, combats with wild animals, dangerous chariot races were more exciting than the peaceful gymnic events in the Greek Stadion. Spectators of Roman times were more interested in bloody shows than in the perfection of athletic perfomances.

Under the Roman domination (since the beginning of the second century B.C), a new time for the Olympic Games begun. In fact the games, so far restricted only to Greek citizens, were open to everyone considered Greek in terms of Greek education or Roman citizenship.

Visits to archaeological sites

Our group enjoyed very much the inclusion of visits to archaeological sites during the seminar, since it is very important not only to read or hear about the places of ancient sport and religious activities, but also to have the actual experience of being there.

We began with a visit to the Athens Acropolis, with an overview of the most important political and economical events of ancient Greek history. During our visit to the Panathenaikon Stadion, Professor Decker explained its ancient history and its rebuilding for the 1896 Olympic Games. We also visited the temple of Poseidon at Cape Sounion, located on the coastline of the Aegean Sea. During our journey to Olympia we visited the places of Panhellenic and local sport events, such as Isthmia, Nemea, and Epidavros. A visit to the archaeological site of Mycenae and the temple of Epikourios Apollon in Vasses could not have been excluded from the schedule, since these are two of the most important archaeological sites in the Peloponnesian territory. During our stay at the Olympic Academy we visited the archaeological site and the museum of Olympia. Finally,

a whole weekend was dedicated to the visit of the archaeological site of Elis, and the cradle of the Pythian Games, Delphi.

"Nemea 2000": The revival of the ancient Nemean Games

To feel the ancient dust under our feet, we travelled in the beginning of June to participate in the Second Nemead. The Nemean Games were firstly revived in 1996 under the supervision of the archaeologist Professor Stephen Miller. He is the excavator of the stadion of Nemea, a project which started in the mid-1970's. The Nemean games is a good example of a successful combination of archaeology, history and sport in our days. The games are organised to be as authentic as possible by using the "hysplex", which was an ancient starting mechanism, the area of the ancient locker room ("apodyterion ") and the tunnel to the stadion ("krypte"). The games include an Opening Ceremony, a stadion race (100 m run), a long-distance race (7.5 km run) and a Closing Ceremony. One highlight of our visit to Nemea among four victories in the stadion races was the concluding party in the old village of Nemea (and the excellent Nemean wine!)

Critical remarks

From an archaeological point of view, the information provided during the section of ancient sport History were satisfactory as far as the variety of topics, the selection of the Professors and the methods of teaching are concerned. Due to the fact that the majority of the participants do not have an archaeological or historical background, this section is considered necessary for this seminar. It should be mentioned that due to a change in schedule, the topics were not presented in a chronological order. We believe that issues having to do with history and archaeology are much more comprehensible when they are presented in a firm chronological order.

CONCLUSIONS ON «MODERN OLYMPICS"

Pierre de Coubertin

Great debate surrounds the topic of Pierre de Coubertin's interest in the revival of the Olympic Games. Certainly no one person or event can be attributed as the inspiration, but multiple factors led Coubertin to initiate the quest for the revival of the ancient Games.

Coubertin, a product of French aristocracy, held the firm belief that France's loss of the Franco-Prussian War was the result of the physical degeneracy of French men and that mandatory physical activity components for youth would ultimately benefit the French military. His deeply rooted patriotism led him on a crusade for physical activity for males in France.

Coubertin idolized Thomas Arnold's Rugby School in England for its dedication to physical activity for young males. He also believed that the Germans had and advantage over the rest of the world because of their superior physical training of youths. Clearly Coubertin looked to various sporting institutes for information on how to improve French physical education.

In 1894 Coubertin hosted a congress that was intended to discuss the issue of amateurism, but also included the discussion of the revival of the ancient Olympic Games. Here he introduced this idea to a small delegation of men who eventually became the first International Olympic Committee. These men set to the task of organizing the first Olympic Games and settled on Athens, Greece to host. It was after these first Games that Coubertin became the president of the IOC.

Coubertin had multiple inspirations for the revival of the Olympic Games. Philosophers, historians, and physical educators can all be credited for the modern Olympic Games, because if it were not for them, Coubertin would never have had the idea to create the now most popular multi-sport event in the world.

The Summer Olympic Games

The games held between 1896 and 1912 were not high profile or very successful. The problems experienced in this early stage were

varied. The actual organization of the games and the range of sports included in the program were characterized by eurocentric paternalism, in particular amateurism. In Greece in 1896 there were financial issues over the cost of hosting the Games and in Paris, St.Louis and London the Games were consumed by the bigger event at which they were staged - the world exhibitions. It was not until the games in 1912 in Stockholm now recognized as the first organisational success that interest in the Modern Olympic Games grew.

During the period 1920-1952 the organization of the games developed alongside an increasing popularity both in the Olympic programs and in the development of the Olympic Ceremonies. The Olympic Flag - believed to have been designed by Coubertin - and the Athletes Oath were both introduced at the 1920 Antwerp Games. In Paris in 1924 organizers introduced the "Village Olympique" and the Olympic Motto "Citius, Altius, Fortius" was announced for the first time. The Olympic Torch Relay was introduced in Berlin in 1936.

The Summer Games experienced a number of political and financial problems between 1956-1980: The worst incidence in Olympic history blackened the Munich Games 1972 with the killing of 11 Israeli athletes by Palestinian terrorists. The 1980 and 1984 Games were subject to boycotts by the superpowers and the cold war was its peak and Montreal was left with a public debt of over US$1billion dollars.

A new era started between 1984 and 2000 with the incoming president Juan Antonio Samaranch in the Olympic Movement. Los Angeles was the only city to bid for the Olympic Games in 1984 and proved to be a turning point in modern Olympic history and the organization of the games. For the first time advertising opportunities were created for corporations and broadcasters willing to pay millions of dollars for exclusive rights to use the rings - the most recognised symbol in the world today.

Under the leadership of Samaranch the Olympic Games have emerged from what was considered by many to be a near death experience. Today Samaranch is beseiged by corruption and doping issues seen to be the effects of the corporatization of the Games. The growth in the number of athletes and events have contributed to the complexity of organising the Games - are they simply too big today? These issues have in turn highlighted the philosophical gap

between the values of the Olympic Movement and the reality of the Games themselves.

Olympic Boycotts

It is clearly expressed in the Olympic Charter that to, "oppose any political abuse of sport and athletes" *is* one of the main objectives of the International Olympic Committee. However, the Olympic Movement has been closely related with politics since the revival of the Olympic Games in 1896 in Athens. Although these actions were not all - what is known today as **boycotts.**

In the history of the Olympic Games various (political) movements and superpowers chose boycotts as a political tool to influence and protest international actions and opinions. This kind of politiking was a tragedy for many athletes who spent years of their life dedicated to preparing for athletic competition to never compete at an Olympic Game.

Although the first threat of boycott action occurred before the 1936 Berlin Games, the first real boycott took place in the 1956 Melbourne Games. Egypt, Iraq and Lebanon chose not to take part due to the Israeli-led take-over of the Suez canal; Spain and Switzerland also boycotted in protest of the Soviet invasion in Hungary.

The 1980 Moscow and 1984 Los Angeles Games sustained the most significant of all the boycotts held in the history of the Modern Olympic Games. After the Soviet Union's invasion of Afghanistan in December of 1979 the United States lead a number of western countries to protest through boycott the Moscow Games. In the end, 65 nations did not participate. In 1984 the Soviet Union organised a revenge boycott - this time 14 nations stayed away. The last small boycott was held in 1988.

The actual effectiveness of these boycotts remains uncertain. Today governments are using other forms of sanctions such as trade embargoes and more formal modes of diplomacy. The question remains - is it merely coincidental that these boycotts have less political impact with the increase of commercialization and professionalism.

Mass Media

Thanks to the development of new technologies the mass media, in particular broadcasting, has played a crucial role in the dissemi-

nation of the Olympic image. One effect of this is its contribution to the globalization of sport. At the same time, it also contributes to the localization process because the broadcasting of the events can be shaped to fit the peculiarities of the different cultural background of the audience.

We can also identify mass media as one of the main reasons for the commercialization of the Olympics Games. Media is a very powerful marketing tool in the hands of the transnational corporations wishing to keep the share market or to open new ones in developing countries. Selling the exclusive rights to broadcasters at the Olympic Games comes at a cost: their influence in the scheduling of sporting events in order to hit prime time TV audiences and their American-European centered focus.

The Modern Olympic Games, Eurocentrism and Asia

The Olympic Games is the biggest and most successful sporting festival in the world. But from the Asian point of view they are both understood and described historically in terms of *Euro-centrism (Western-centrism).*

Asian countries have participated in the Modern Olympic Games from the early times. The Japanese founder of Judo Jigoro KANO, became the first Asian IOC member early as 1909. Japan participated in the 5th Olympiad in Stockholm in 1912. Since then many Asian countries have taken part in the Olympic Games.

For many of these participants however the major problem in the Olympics, is the lack of games of Asian origin. Even today Judo and Tae-Kwon-Do are the only two events of Asian origin. Judo became one of the official events at the 18th Olympiad in Tokyo 1964. Tae-Kwon-Do was the exhibition game at the 24th Olympiad in Seoul 1988. The remaining majority of sports at the Olympic Games still have an European origin. For example in Atlanta Olympics 1996, there were 26 sports but Judo was the only one sport to have an Asian origin. To date there has only been two Asian host cities of the Olympic Games, Tokyo and Seoul, emphasizing the imbalance between Western and Eastern cultures in the Olympics.

In addition, Judo became different from the traditional style. Judo is a technique of self-defense as well as a method of education through the body, but it has deliberately become competitive by add-

ing a point system and color wear to adapt to European sensibilities. In the process of this "modernization" it has become over-competitive. The emphasis on competition - specifically to win medals will destroy the ideal of Olympics. Now is the time to reconsider including other forms of non-competitive sports such as Qui-Kong and Tai Chi both traditional forms of exercise in China.

It is essential to the future success of the Olympic Games organizers give further consideration to the inclusion of non-Western culture and sports. That it recognize, promote and celebrate the difference between Eastern philosophy and Western philosophy as part of its commitment to international understanding and peace. It is time for the Olympic Movement and the Olympic Games to adapt to the new millennium.

The Olympic Movement, Culture & Education

The Olympic Movement is the ideological foundation stone of the Olympic Games and their organizational body the International Olympic Committee. In the context of the current crisis of image where for many the games have been sold out to the corporate dollar and the IOC is now considered corrupt the values of the Olympic Movement need to be re-emphasized.

In the absence of a fixed ideology Olympic organizers rely on the fact that the symbol of Olympism the Olympic Rings can mean many things to many people. Olympic images of the Games and the athletes, particularly on television and in the newspapers are often heroic and idealized references to fairplay, honorable achievement, internationalism and cultural tolerance. The opening and closing ceremonies present the national character of the host city and also play an integral role in the production of the image of Olympism and the promotion of its ideals. The torch relay's gesture of internationalism is as essential as the inclusion of the local community throughout the host country. Combined these images are crucial pedestals for the IOC, considered today by many to be too distinct from the ideals of Olympism. Their corporate focus on sponsorship and particularly marketing is markedly obvious in the offices in Lausanne.

In contrast Coubertin placed an enormous importance on ceremonies, ritual and cultural events encouraging and persuing their inclusion from the very beginning. This vision was influenced by

what he saw during his travels throughout the United Kingdom (in particular, Much Wenlock in Shropshire) and the United States of America. Flags, choral singers, trumpeters, victory ceremonies filled with colour and splendour are only part of his vision. The inclusion of the pentathlon of the muses - competitions in five areas of the arts - were also influenced by many modern events as well as the cultural competitions held during the Ancient Games in Delphi and Nemea. The quintessential tie that binds the Ancient and Modern Games is in fact in the combination of art and sport.

The philosophical and ideological connection between the Modern and Ancient Games is the essence of Coubertin's pedagogical theories derived from Ancient Greece. The ideals of Kalokagathia remains in the history of intellectual thought and pedagogical theories today. Kalokagathia - encouraged the competitive spirit - exhorting - in the words of Homer to "Always to be best and excel over others". As an educational theory Kalokagathia emphasized an equal importance on athletic and particularly musical education and a healthy competitive spirt. The challenge for the Modern Olympic Games today is to re-capture these values internationally.

IOC Reform

The 110th IOC session took place in Lausanne on December 1999. Following the IOC bribery scandal of the IOC evaluation commission for the 2002 Winter Olympics, it was felt necessary that some reforms should be achieved through this session, which will enable the IOC to regain its solid reputation (public confidence). For this reason the "IOC 2000 Commission was formed by Olympic Movement representatives (IOC, IFs, NOCs) as well as academics and Olympic sponsors. The role of the IOC 2000 Commission was to make recommendations which would be discussed during the 110th session. Some of the major recommendations of the IOC 2000 Commission which were approved by that IOC session are presented below

- The total number of the IOC members was recommended to be 115, comprised of 15 active Olympic athletes, 15 IF presidents, 15 NOCs or Olympic Continental Associations presidents and 70 members elected on an individual basis. The delegated members retain their power by possessing the majority within the session. The IOC executive board claimed a multi-representative session

by opening its doors to athletes, NOCs, and IFs. However, the fact that for each post to be filled the executive board will present one proposal or more to the session, denotes that the decision making power is centralised to the executive board.

- The terms of office for the members are eight years, renewable every eight years. The president will be elected for an eight-year term with the possibility of re-election for a second term of four years. The age limit for all members was set to 70.
- The IOC recognised the need for greater transparency of its financial records and functions. This involves the IOC to disclose the allocations of funds to each individual NOC and IF. Moreover, the source and use of its records should be audited and approved by independent, external auditors. Part of the greater IOC transparency could be also considered the fact that the IOC sessions will be open to the media via closed-circuit television.
- The IOC 2000 Commission believed that visits by the IOC members to the candidate cities are not necessary. It was also considered not necessary for representatives of candidate cities to visit IOC members. Therefore, in the future only the IOC evaluation commission will be visiting the candidate cities.

Other recommendations of the IOC 2000 Commission addressed issues such as the role of the Olympic Solidarity, anti-doping policies and the development of Olympic Education and Culture. During the seminar lectures, however, these issues were not extensively discussed.

Conclusion

The Olympic Games is the biggest sporting event in the world. The Olympic Symbol is the most recognized in the world. But the Olympic Games is not only a sporting competition but a festival of "youth and culture". The challenge for the coming decades is to realign the current image of the Olympics by combining the original Olympic values of humanism, intercultural exchange, and international peace through educational programs. The difficulty for the IOC is in achieving this while maintaining economic and political independence. Change is needed but the question is how does the IOC present the original values of Olympism in the new millennium?

CONCLUSIONS ON "SOCIO-CULTURAL ASPECTS OF THE OLYMPICS"

With the Sydney Olympics fast approaching, we are reminded of the powerful presence of the Olympic Games on the global community. Despite the work of scholars and academics from around the world in the field of Olympic Studies, little critical attention is given to the Olympic phenomenon by the world populace. Although recent scandals, calls for reform, and public discourse have opened avenues for discussion, there are many aspects of the Olympic Games and Movement that still need to be investigated. As it is known, the aim to provide a well rounded education in the pursuit of building character and developing human excellence was at the heart of the Olympic ideal established by de Coubertin at the turn of the 19th century, and explains the three strings of the Olympic Movement today -sport, culture, and education. For de Coubertin, sport was a means and not an ends in the formation of the individual. He believed that sport could be used to articulate religious beliefs, to develop a sense of courage, friendship and respect. Sport could also be used as a tool for social and political progress, for communication, cultural understanding and for the promotion of peace between nations. But the current manifestation of the Games and the Movement are far from the ideal as presented by de Coubertin, and we must question what the difference is between the ideals of Olympism as preached by the International Olympic Committee (IOC), and the reality of the Games. The aim of this paper is to examine the social, political and cultural reality of the Games and their problematic relationship with the ideals of the Olympic Movement and philosophy. While such a broad topic demands greater depth and analysis, this conclusion will only briefly discuss such issues as the use of Olympic ideology and Olympism, racial and ethnic discrimination, doping and doping control as well as the ramifications of the IOC 2000 Reform.

While the Games are easily recognizable and identifiable, the vagueness of the Movement renders it vulnerable to political and social

exploitation. Its ambiguity arises from the broad nature of its universal, humanitarian aspiration which leaves the Movement, and its physical product of the Games, open to different interpretation based on vested interests. The Games become a vehicle that can be manipulated by various groups for the promotion and diffusion of specific ideologies. The Olympic Movement thus becomes weakened in the face of nation-state politics, global economics, marketing and commercialism, and so on. In looking at the relationship between nationalism and internationalism via the Olympics, it becomes clear that the policies and values that guide nation-state involvement in the Games are in direct contradiction with the ideological universality of Olympism. In terms of marketing and commercialism, the packaging of the Olympic Games and Movement as a 'Brand' focuses on the fact that the symbolism and imagery of the Games, the very factors that make the Olympics so attractive and appealing, are also the ways in which these interest groups can transform and utilize the Games for their own purposes. These factors re-emphasize the ease with which the Olympic ideology and philosophy can be manipulated by dominant social groups to transmit explicit and implicit social and political messages.

This control of the Olympics by dominant groups is not reserved solely to the use of the ideology, symbolism and imagery, but can also be seen in the examination of racial and ethnic discrimination within the Games, as well as within the organizational structure of the IOC. One could argue that the Olympics, both the Games and Movement, are a white, Western European construct, and that there is little regard paid to the philosophies and ideologies of the rest of the world, particularly Eastern philosophy. This is another reflection of the incompatibility existing between the idealism of the Movement, stressing inclusivity between cultures, and the reality of the Modern Games. This Eurocentrism is similarly reflected in the organizational dynamics of the IOC, as evidenced by the unequal proportion of European representatives in the general IOC session, and the complete domination of European representatives within the top executive committees and decision-making positions, including marketing, finance and legal. While North Americans have increased their presence within these committees, there is still a tremendous lack of non-European and non-white individuals within these executive po-

sitions. It could be argued that this is a form of systemic discrimination, and yet another example of the problematic relationship between the goals of the Movement and the reality of the Games and its organization.

These issues point towards the fundamental question of whether the IOC can be a highly institutionalized and bureaucratic organization, and still encompass a social and cultural movement? This question is highly relevant when looking at such developments in Olympic history as the IOC 2000 Reform. This reform, organized in response to recent scandals and stories of corruption, can be argued as an attempt by the IOC to bridge the gap between the reality of the Games and the ideology of the Movement. While direct response to the scandals has prompted the IOC to move towards financial transparency and the creation of an ethics commission, insufficient progress has been made towards acknowledging the necessary role of the ideology within the Games and the need to reintroduce the Movement as the primary function of the Games. The emphasis seems to have been on healing the existing problems rather than on preventing possible new ones, and on reconsidering institutional power relations rather on reconsidering the applicability of the Movement's ideals. It can be argued that, in light of such factors, the Olympic phenomena has lost its sense of ideology. Although it began as a socio-cultural movement, it has lost its sense of action, strong commitment and collectivity that any effective social and cultural movement needs to survive and grow.

In conclusion, the use of the ideology, racial and ethnic discrimination as well as the IOC 2000 Reform are just a few of the issues that have been examined when discussing the problematic relationship between the Olympic Movement and the Games. Other issues include gender inequalities, issues of disability, the sociological study of doping and doping control, the instrumentalization of sport, the role of media, athletes' and spectators' rights (e.g. child-athletes' rights), as well as the use and accessibility of technology. Although the contradictory nature of the Games and the Movement demands transformation and change from its current model, the fundamental principles still deserve to be supported and valued. A re-emphasis on education and culture can revitalize and contribute to the re-emergence of the Movement. We must continue to be critical and

take advantage of such opportunities as the International Olympic Academy, to openly question, probe and discuss the development of the Olympics for the greater good of humanity. Clarifying and solidifying the relationship between the idealism of the Movement and the reality of the Games can be our first step in this process.

CONCLUSIONS ON "PHILOSOPHY OF THE OLYMPICS"

The challenge of Olympic education

Professor Bruce Kidd showed us his point of view about the relationship between Olympism and participants' rights and the challenge of Olympic Education. Kidd explained that in one respect the activities we encourage benefit from more popular support than at any other time in history. In contrast, the popular meanings analogous to sport and physical activity and the experiences of participants often differ greatly from what is commonly understood as education and health. Kidd argued that in much of the world sport appears to be more highly valued for its contribution to national and corporate prestige, urban tourism, and the consumption ethic than its intrinsic joys and benefits. Moreover, training and competition in many sports has become a sphere of exploitation and abuse. He argued that in such a climate the educational role of the Olympic Movement ought to be stressed.

Kidd argued that although Olympic Education was necessary for school children and students, the main aim was to educate athletes, coaches, officials, journalists, and members of the IOC, NOCs, IFs and in day to day training, travel and competition. Kidd outlined the characteristics of an Olympic pedagogy of sport that included: fair play and respect for others; health implications; geography and history of sports; social and environmental implications, and; community service. He argued that these ought to be offered through training and competition along with the demand for formal education.

Athletes' rights

Human rights legislation, Professor Bruce Kidd argued, had inspired an increase in the respect for athletes' rights, the acknowledgment that athletes must be provided with the same protection experienced by all citizens, especially concerning freedom from discrimination, team selection, the granting of other benefits, and discipline and punishment. While the development of athletes' rights

has, to a certain extent, been driven by the professionalisation of Olympic sports and an increasing number of anti-doping investigations, he argued that it gains much of its moral and legal force from human rights legislation.

Kidd argued that although social-scientifc research, including that which has been carried out by scholars of sport, have made some progress in the struggles against racism and apartheid, gender inequities and the abuse of athletes' rights, full rights in these areas are only just beginning to be realised. He argued that a strategy for asserting and securing rights could be developed based on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. In effect, clear, concise declarations of rights, communicated in an effective way, can make an important contribution to increasing the awareness of community responsibilities and obligations. Moreover, they can influence the legal understanding of rights as is apparent in the case of children's rights.

Human rights and sports

Professor Bruce Kidd explored the development and potential of human rights initiatives in sports. After a brief outline of the development and status of human rights he focused on the specific issue of human rights in sports in terms of the human rights of athletes and in terms of the more fundamental right to participate in sport and physical activity. He illustrated the theory of human rights in sport by referring to some of the campaigns against racism and gender inequities and by referring to some of the campaigns that fight for athlete's rights. He also considered the significance of the relations between some of the ongoing strategic campaigns for children's and worker's rights to sport and physical activity. Guided by Kidd's own thoughts the discussion following the lecture focused on developing ideas that might contribute further to the inclusion of human rights in sport. Focusing on the role of social scientists one of the suggestions was to educate university students and the general public about the existence of human rights codes such as the Universal Declaration, the International Conventions and the International Charter of Physical Education and Sport. It was also suggested that social scientists could monitor and disseminate the extent of the progress made in human rights in their country and could in-

vestigate the possibilities for intervention provided by the human rights codes.

Existentialism, Spectators, the Aesthetic, and the Moral Imperative

These varied sections have been linked deliberately since they appear to embody a common theme - the articulation of value in sport. During the week John Daly gave an existential interpretation of sporting events. Describing the elite sprinter in the starting blocks or the spectator who experiences the magic of performance vicariously, their commonality lies in the experiencing of a moment that is unique, though even more, a defining moment in an individual's biography. Existential moments are special because they consist of these life-changing events. Conceptually similar, perhaps, is the notion of the aesthetic in sport. Whilst a link was not made explicitly, there seemed to be something constitutive of the existential that was particularly beautiful. To evaluate the performance of an ice-skater or gymnast in terms of this evasive notion of beauty is, of course, quite different from the cynicism surrounding such controversies that arise through drug-taking or doping. However, stepping back from this negativity and re-evaluating what is important in the Olympics, Daly argued, one can see quite clearly how the Games can produce the most profound moments.

These concerns are quite pertinent within a framework of spectators' rights, where the interests of spectators are an integral part of the ideology of Olympism. Within such a framework, it is recognised how the spectator is an integral part of the sporting spectacle, where claims are made on the basis of spectators' expectations from sporting events such as the Olympic Games. It is incumbent upon OCOGs to ensure that the interests of spectators are considered in, for example, the context of transportation, ticketing, and accommodation. Whilst this framework might further complicate the abilities of any organising committee to successfully host the games, it is considered here that such committees should seek to promote the harmonisation of rights policy to strive towards the maintaining of these ideals.

Because of these characteristics, Daly argued that there is a moral imperative in sport to do well, to play fairly, and to respect other

members of the Olympic Movement, including both athletes and spectators. It is the unique character of the Games that motivates this interest to act in a morally commendable way, which *is* not as strong within other sporting championships. Daly's ideas were, in part, presented so as to emphasise value in the Olympic Games, to appeal to these inarticulable qualities within the Games, that are experienced through the participation of athletes, and through the festival and celebration of the Games. At times, this argument seems a little nostalgic, though its appeal has been felt by many at the seminar and, despite the criticisms of the Games, these ideas sought to further establish peoples' commitment to the ideals and practice of the Olympic Movement.

Conclusion: An ethical approach to the Olympic Games and Sport

In the last few years, we have been faced increasingly with contradictory information about sport. In one respect, numerous values and important qualities are attributed to sport and it is to sport that we resort more and more often to seek the necessary solutions to specific ethical problems. Alternatively, however, sport seems to be the source of problems that, in general, arise in the very same fields from which their solutions emanate such as sport and social integration, sport and health, sport and aggressiveness, sport and media, and, sport and technology. The Olympic Movement is at an important crossroads. In a sporting world characterised by the uncritical quest for world championships, *citius, altius, fortius* and commercial success, the values which provide the reason why the Olympic Movement exists are being forgotten. As the Olympic Movement begins its second century the Olympic values associated with social and personal development through sports need to be demonstrated in a more clear and purposeful way than ever before.

5th INTERNATIONAL SESSION
FOR PRESIDENTS OR DIRECTORS OF NOAs AND OFFICIALS OF NOCs

2/6 - 8/6/2000

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

EPHORIA
OF THE INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY

Mr. George MOISSIDIS Vice President of the International Olympic Academy	International Olympic Academy 52, Dimitrios Vikelas Avenue 152 33 Halandri, GREECE
Dr. Kostas GEORGIADIS Dean of the International Olympic Academy	International Olympic Academy 52, Dimitrios Vikelas Avenue 152 33 Halandri, GREECE

LECTURERS

Dr. Nelli ARVANITI	Professor of Physical Education in Secondary Education, Supervisor of the school network for Olympic Education, Manager of the Department of Education & Training "Athens 2004" Organising Committee of Olympic Games "ATHENS 2004" 7, Kifissias Avenue 115 23 Athens, GREECE
Mrs. Janet CAHILL	Olympic Project Manager, University of Technology, Sydney B.O. Box 123 Broadway NSW 2007 AUSTRALIA
Prof. Dr. Marius FRANCISCO	President of the National Olympic Committee of Benin President of the National Olympic Academy of Benin 03 B.P. 2767-Cotonou, REPUBLIC OF BENIN

Prof. Valery KUZIN	Chairman of the Council of Presidents of Regional Olympic Academies of Russia c/o Russian Olympic Committee Luzhnetsakaya Nab. 8 119871 Moscow RUSSIA
Prof. Hai REN	Director of Centre for Olympic Studies, Beijing University of Physical Education Beijing, CHINA
Prof. Angela SCHNEIDER	Assistant Dean/Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Western Ontario, Member of Executive Committee of International Center for Olympic Studies and Olympic Silver Medal Rowing 1984 The University of Western Ontario Faculty of Health Sciences London, Ontario, NGA 5CI CANADA
Prof. Dr. Mundala O. TETE	Director of the National Olympic Academy of Democratic Republic of Congo, 10, rue Dima Commune de Kinshasa B.P. 3186-Kinshasa-Gombe DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO
Prof. Dr. Thomas YIANNAKIS	Professor at the Department of Physical Education and Sport Science, National and Capodistrian University of Athens 41, Ethnikis Antistaseos 172 37 Dafne, Athens GREECE

PARTICIPANTS

ARGENTINA

Mr. Juan Carlos URIBURU President of the N.O.A.	N.O.C. of ARGENTINA Juncal 1662 Buenos Aires C.P. 1062

ALGERIA

Mr. Mustapha BOUGHADOU N.O.A. President	N.O.C. of ALGERIA Case postale 10 Dely Ibrahim 16320 Alger

ARMENIA

Mr. Vahram ARAKELIAN President of the N.O.A.	N.O.A. of ARMENIA Aleck Manukian 11 Yerevan 375070
Mr. Harytyun BABAYAN Department Manager of Armenian N.O.A.	19a Belinski Yerevan
Mr. Lyova SAMVELYAN Vice-Président of the N.O.A.	Vardanants St. 15, apt 39 375010 Yerevan

AUSTRIA

Mrs. Karin ECKERSTORFER Vice-President of the N.O.A.	Robert-Stolz Str. 3 4020 Linz

BELGIUM

Dr. Marc MAES Directeur du C.N.O. Directeur de 1' A.N.O.	Comité Olympique et Interfederal Belge Avenue de Bouchout 9 1020 Bruxelles

BENIN

Mr. V. Julien MINAVOA Director of the N.O.A.	N.O.C. of BENIN 03 BP 2767 Cotonou

BOLIVIA

Mr. Jorge ESPAÑA ORTIZ President of the N.O.A.	N.O.A. of BOLIVIA Mexico Street # 1744, La Paz

BRAZIL

Dr. Eduardo Henrique DE ROSE
Vice President of the N.O.A.

95 Felipe Becker
Porto Alegre RS 91330-250

BRUNEI DARUSSALAM

Mr. Talib HJ BERUDIN
Secretary General of the N.O.C.

c/o Brunei Darussalam
National Olympic Council
P.O. Box 2008 Bandar Seri
Begawan
Brunei Darussalam BS 8674

BULGARIA

Prof. Svetoslav IVANOV
Rector of National Sports
Academy
Studentsky grad - Sofía

Slatina bl. 43 - Г
Sofia

BURUNDI

M. Jean Paul BIHUTE
President de l' A.N.O.

N.O.C. of Burundi
B.P. 6247
Bujumbura

CAMBODIA

Mr. Meas SARIN
Secretary General of the N.O.C.

P.O. Box 101
Phnom Penh

CANADA

Dr. Gene SUTTON Director
of the N.O.C. Chair -
N.O.A. **CENTRAL AFRICA REP.**

1243 Powerline Rd.E
Box 67 Copetown
Ontario LOR IJO

Dr. Theophile TOUBA
President de l' A.N.O.

N.O.C of Central Africa
Boîte Postale 1541 - Bangui

M. Jacob GBETI
President du C.N.O.

N.O.C. of Central Africa
Boîte Postale 1541 - Bangui

CHILE

Mr. Cristian GOMEZ
Director of N.O.C.

Vicuna Mackewna 40,
Santiago

CHINESE TAIPEI

Ms. Min-Yin KAO N.O.C.
& N.O.A. Staff

N.O.C. of Chinese Taipei
3F, No. 20 Chu-Lun St.
Taipei, 104

COLOMBIA

Mr. Alberto LOZANO SIMONELLI
Vice President of the N.O.A.

N.O.C. of Colombia
Apartado Aéreo 5093
Avenida 68 No. 55-65
Santafé de Bogota, D.C.

CONGO

M. Auguste NKOUNKOU
Directeur de l' A.N.O.C.

B.P. 13022
Brazzaville

CUBA

Mrs. Juana Migdalia GONALEZ
President of the N.O.A.

Calle 13, No. 601, esq. a "C"
Vedado, Ciudad de la Habana,
C.P. - 10 400

CZECH REPUBLIC

Mrs. Zuzana HUBICKOVA
Official of N.O.C.

Mr. Antonin RYCHTECKY
Member of the N.O.A.

Nad Klikovkou 18
150 00 Prague 5
Brechtova 828 149
00 Prague 4

DENMARK

Ms. Lone JAKOBSEN

N.O.A. of Denmark
Barthsogade lo, 2.tv.
8200 Arhus N

DJIBOUTI

M. Houssein Ali SAID
Directeur de cours

c/o Comité Olympique
Djiboutien P.O. Box 2506

DOMINICA

Mr. Joseph ISAAC
Director of the N.O.A.

N.O.C. of Dominica
P.O. Box 138
47 Cork street, Roseau

ECUADOR

Mr. Carlos MANZUR President of the N.O.A.	Colon 526 y Boyaca

EL SALVADOR

Mr. Bernardo LOPEZ DAVIDSON Director of the N.O.A.	4a. Calle Pte. Y 47 Av. Sur

ESTONIA

PhD Assoc. Prof. Tonis MATSIN Member of the N.O.A.	Jaama Str. 183-25 50605 Tartu

FINLAND

Mrs. Anja JARVINEN President of the N.O.A.	N.O.C. of Finland Radiokatu 20 00240 Helsinki
Mr. Jari KANERVA Member of the N.O.A.	N.O.C. of Finland Radiocatu 20 00240 Helsinki

GEORGIA

Prof. Avtandil TSIBADZE President of the N.O.A.	65, David Agmashenebeli Avenue 380002 Tbilisi
Mr. Kakhaber BERIDZE Head of Georgian N.O.C. Press Center	65, David Agmashenebeli Avenue 380002 Tbilisi

GERMANY

Mr. Robert MARXEN Chairman of the N.O.A.	Wasseraecker 10 67705 Trippstadt
Mr. Claus KRETSCHMER Member of the N.O.A.	Breite S. 47 14199 Berlin

GHANA

Mrs. Belinda PRINCE-AGBODJAN	Ghana Education Service Box M148 Accra

GREAT BRITAIN	
Mrs. Lynne EVANS Trustee of the British Olympic Foundation	17 Henley Rise Shepton Mallet BA4 4AW
GREECE	
Ms. Ioanna DOUKA Teacher of Physical Education/ Olympic Education Program	Liviis 20 157 71 Ilissia Athens
Ms. Evi LIOUBI Mr.	Asklipiou & Dimosthenous Spata Attikis
Alekos MAKRIS Mr.	Kremou 180 176 75 Athens
Iraklis KELLIS	Thrakis 12 152 32 Halandri Athens
GUATEMALA	
Dr. Fernando BELTRANENA Director of the N.O.A.	Palacio de Pos Deportes 24 Calle 9-35 Zona 5
Mr. Sergio Arnoldo CAMARGO MURALLES	9a Av. 2-79, Zona 17 Residenciales Lourdes
EQUATORIAL GUINEA	
Mr. Pedro-Mabale FUGA AFANG Secretary General of the N.O.A.	B.P. 896 Malabo
HUNGARY	
Prof. Istvan KERTESZ Member of the N.O.A.	Ond vezér u. 36/C. III. 12. 1144 Budapest, HUNGARY
INDIA	
Dr. Jitendra SINGH NARUKA Director and Co-ordinator (N.O.A.)/Vice Chancellor	LNIPE (Deemed University} Shaktinagar Gwalior- 474002 (MP).
Mr. Benjamin PRAKASH Executive NFP	LNIPE (Deemed University) Shaktinagar Gwalior- 474002 (MP)

IRAN

Mr. Fatollah MOSAYEBI Director of the N.O.A.	N.O.C. of Iran No.44 - 12th Alley Gandhi Str. Tehran 15178
Mr. Hamid Agha ALINEJAD Member of the N.O.A.	N.O.C. of Iran No.44 - 12th Alley Gandhi Str. Tehran 15178

ITALY

Prof. Igor LANZO NI Director of Olympic Schools Projects for N.O.A. Director of Olympic Studies Center	Via Pecorama nr. 7/20 16011 Arenzano, Genova

JAPAN

Ms. Keiko WADA Director of the N.O.A.	17-8 Sakura 2-chome Setagaya-Ku Tokyo 156-0053

KENYA

Mr. Tom O'OMUOMBO Secretary General of N.O.C. of Kenya	N.O.C. of Kenya P.O.Box 46888 Garden Plaza, 11th Floor Moi Avenue Nairobi
Mr. Francis K. PAUL N.O.C. Assistant to the Secretary General	N.O.C. of Kenya P.O.Box 46888 Garden Plaza, 11th Floor Moi Avenue Nairobi

KOREA

Mr. Hyun-Seup BAEK Director General of the N.O.A.	N.O.C. of Korea P.O. Box 1106 # 88 Dryun-Dong, Songpa-Ku Seoul

Mrs. Hae Hee LEE Member of the N.O.C.	Suh-ho Apartment 105-1204 Songchun- Dong Choniu, Chonbuk
LATVIA	
Prof. Nils GRASSIS Member of the N.O.A.	Maskavas 222A - 21 Riga
Mr. Aldis SKUTANS Member of the N.O.C.	Jaunatnes 2-1 Dangaupils Liksne W5456
LITHUANIA	
Mr. Povilas Petras KAROBLIS President of the N.O.A.	6-6 Pylimo Street 2600 Vilnius
MADAGASCAR	
Mr. J. Serge RAMIANDRASOA Secretary General of the N.O.C.	B.P. 4188 Tananarive
MEXICO	
Mr. Carlos HERNANDEZ SCHAFLER President of the N.O.A.	Av. Desierto de los Leones 5139-3 01700 D.F.
MONGOLIA	
Mr. Baasanhuu GANSUKH Secretary General of the N.O.A.	N.O.C. of Mongolia Baga Toiruu 55 210648 Ulaanbaatar
MOZAMBIQUE	
Mr. Abel MATSINHE N.O.A. President	Rua Mateus Sansao Mutemba, 397 P.O. Box 1404, Maputo
Mr. Jorge NICOLS Member of the N.O.A.	Rua Mateus Sansao Mutemba, 397 P.O. Box 1404, Maputo
NEPAL	
Mr. Kishor Bahadur SINGH Member of the N.O.C.	P.O. Box 114 55, Maharajgung Ring Road, Kathmandu

NETHERLANDS

Ms. Jose JANSEN Project Manager Olympic Movement N.O.C.*NSF	N.O.C. of Netherlands P.O. Box 302 6800 AH Arnhem
Ms. Fabienne VAN LEEUWEN Project Manager Olympic Movement N.O.C.*NSF	N.O.C. of Netherlands P.O. Box 302 6800 AH Arnhem

NIGER

Mr. Issaka IDE President of the N.O.A.	B.P. 114 Niamey

NIGERIA

Mr. Uvieghara V. ONOGAGAMUE Director of Sports/Member of the N.O.C.	N.O.C. of Nigeria P.O. Box 3156 Lagos
Dr. Okhakume IKHIOYA President of the N.O.A.	National Institute for Sports P.O. Box 145 Lagos

NORWAY

Ms. Kristin WALSTAD Internet Editor, N.O.C.	NIF, Service boks 1 Ullevaal Stadion Oslo N-0840

PARAGUAY

Mr. Alfredo COELLO MACHAIN Member of the N.O.A.	COMITE OLÍMPICO PARAGUAYO José Marti 5352 Casilla postal 1420 Asuncion

PHILIPPINES

Mr. Mario TANCHANCO Member of the N.O.C.	131 Harvard St. Provident Village Marikina City
Mr. Sultan Jamalul KIRAM Member of the N.O.C.	Lot. 6 Bik. 47 Maharlika Village Taguig, Metro Manila

PORTUGAL

Dr. Anibal JUSTINIANO Dean of the N.O.A.	Travessa da Memoria No. 36 - 1300 - 403, Lisboa

PUERTO RICO

Mr. Rafael LIND N.O.A. Member	Cond. Galeria I Apt. 1003 Duc. Hostos A-201 San Juan P.R. 00918

ROMANIA

Mr. Radu ABABEI Director of Bacau Branch of the R.O.A.	Bacau Str. Cornisa Bistritei Bl.13. Sc. D. Ap. 14
Mr. Mircea CARABAT Technical Expert, N.O.C. of Romania	2 Alunisului Street Apt.7 Bucharest

RUSSIA

Mrs. Natalia MELNIKOVA First Vice President of the Central Olympic Academy	105122, Moscow Izmaylovskiy proezd House 13, Flat 168
Mr. Denis KRUZHKOV Executive Secretary of the Regional Olympic Academy of the South Russia	65, House 40, Sovetskaya Street Krasnodar 350063

SAINT LUCIA

Mr. Alfred EMMANUEL Chairman of the N.O.A.	P.O. Box 195 Castries

ST. KITTS & NEVIS

Mr. Elvis NEWTON	St. Kits and Nevis Olympic Association P.O. 953 Church Street Basseterre/ St. Kitts

SAO TOME & PRINCIPE

Mme. Maria de Lourdes COELHO President de l' A.N.O.	Palacio da Juventude-Salas 9 e 10 Quinta de Santo Antonio Caixa postal 630

SEYCHELLES

Mr. Ulric MATHIOT Secretary General of the N.O.A.	St. Louis P.O. Box 843 Victoria

SINGAPORE

Dr. Sock Miang TEO-KOH Principal / Director of the N.O.A.	School of Physical Education NIE/NTU 469 Bukit Timah Road S 259756

SLOVAKIA

Mrs. Zdenka LETENAYOVA Secretary of the N.O.A.	Grosslingova 40 81109 Bratislava

SLOVENIA

Dr. Rajko SUGMAN Director of the N.O.A.	N.O.C. of SLOVENIA Celovska 25 1000 Ljubljana

SPAIN

Judge Mr. Conrado DURANTEZ N.O.A. President	Comité Olimpico Español C/Arequipa-13-Madrid 28043

SUDAN

Mr. Abdel Rahman KHALID Director of the N.O.A. Deputy Secretary of the N.O.C.	N.O.C. of Sudan P.O. Box 1938 Baladia Street Khartoum
Mr. Amin ABDELAZIZ Member of the N.O.C.	N.O.C. of Sudan P.O. Box 1938 Baladia Street, Khartoum
Mr. Sief El Din MERGANI Deputy Treasure of N.O.C.	N.O.C. of Sudan P.O. Box 1938 Baladia Street Khartoum

SWAZILAND

Mr. Fred Mc FADDEN Vice President of the N.O.C.	P.O. Box 835 Mbabane

Ms. Beauty SHONGWE Assistant to the Director of the N.O.A.	P.O. Box 835 Mbabane
SWEDEN	
Ms. Elisabeth VESTLUND Member of the N.O.A.	Valhallsv. 76 C 262 61 Angelholn
TOGO	
M. Bouraima AMADOU	Avenue des Nimes Rue Duisburg Lomé
TRINIDAD & TOBAGO	
Mr. Brian LEWIS Executive Member of the N.O.C.	12 Panka Street St. James Trinidad.W.I.
TUNISIA	
M. Abdellaziz OUESLATI Secrétaire Général du C.N.O.	Centre Culturel et Sportif de la jeunesse, Avenue Othman Ibn Affane, (El Menzah 6) 1004 Tunis
Prof. Kamel BENZERTI Directeur de 1' A.N.O.	Centre Culturel et Sportif de la jeunesse, Avenue Othman Ibn Affane, (El Menzah 6) 1004 Tunis
TURKEY	
Mrs. Hafize OZLEM Administrative Director of the N.O.C.	N.O.C. of Turkey Olimpiyatevi/Olympic House 34740 Ataköy, Istanbul
UKRAINE	
Dr. Prof. Maria BULATOVA President of the N.O.A.	l Fizkulury Street Kyiv
URUGUAY	
Mr. Aquiles De CESARE Member of the N.O.A.	N.O.C. of Uruguay Canelones 1044 Montevideo

YEMEN

Mr. Abdul Hameed Mohameed Hassan AL-SAIDI Member of the N.O.C.	N.O.C of Yemen P.O. Box 2701 Sana'a

YUGOSLAVIA

Prof. Stefan ILIC Director of the N.O.A.	Kadinjacka 46 11136 Belgrade

STAFF

Mr. George FRAGOULIS Superintendent	INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY 270 65 Ancient Olympia GREECE

SECRETARIAT

Ms. Catherine VOSKOPOULOU	INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY 52, Dimitrios Vikelas Avenue 152 33 Halandri, Athens GREECE
Mr. Christos SKALIARAKIS	INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY 52, Dimitrios Vikelas Avenue 152 33 Halandri, Athens GREECE
Ms. Stella SKALIARAKI	INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY 52, Dimitrios Vikelas Avenue 152 33 Halandri, Athens GREECE

LIBRARY

Mr. Themis LAINIS Librarian	INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY 52, Dimitrios Vikelas Avenue 152 33 Halandri, Athens GREECE
Mrs. Efstratia FAKIOLA	Platia Metaxa 9-11 27 100 Pyrgos GREECE
Ms. Efthymia GRIKOGLOU	Kritis 39 122 43 Egaleo, Athens GREECE

TECHNICAL DEPARTMENT

Mr. Byron AMELIDIS	114, Lavriou str. 142 35 Athens, GREECE
Mr. Pavlos SKALIARAKIS	34, Haritos str. 135 62 Agioi Anargyroi Athens, GREECE

ASSISTANT STAFF

Ms. Anastassia BALELI	58, Travladoni str. 157 71 Ano Ilissia Athens, GREECE
Mr. George FERGADIS	7, Kontopoulou str. 153 42 Agia Paraskevi Athens, GREECE
Ms. Maria KALAMPOKI	29-31, lokastis str. 157 72 N. Zografou Athens, GREECE
Ms. Tina KATOUFA	5, Sporadon str. 152 31 Halandri Athens, GREECE

Ms. Efi KITSOPANIDOU
11, Tsakasianou str.
111 41 Ano
Patissia
Athens, GREECE

Ms. Alexandra PAVELI
12, Aeroporou Papanastassiou str.
115 27 Goudi
Athens, GREECE

Ms. Maria PILATI
125, Damareos str.
116 33 Pangrati
Athens, GREECE

OLYMPIC EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN AUSTRALIA ON THE OCCASION OF THE SYDNEY OLYMPIC GAMES

by Janet CAHILL *(AUS)*

Introduction

Sydney is a remarkable city as Australia is a great Country. "Remarkable" and "great" made even more so by the changes that have taken place over the past decade.

The past decade has seen Sydney work hard towards securing the opportunity of hosting the 2000 Summer Olympic Games. The joy of success was shared in spirit through Sydney and across Australia at the win. It may take 5 hours to travel from Sydney in the east to Perth in the west, and more than ten to fly from Cape York in the north to Tasmania in the south, but as a nation, Australia rallied together... and continues to do so... in the spirit of the Olympic Games.

The past decade has also witnessed technological change that is sometimes difficult to fathom. It could not have been predicted four years ago at the Atlanta Games just how this change would affect, how the Sydney Games will be delivered, how they will be staged, and marketed, and how technology would influence Olympic Education about the Games.

On 15th September 2000, in three months time, Sydney will host the Summer Games of the XXVII Olympiad. It can be argued that during this Olympiad, a greater level of education has been delivered, wider research has been undertaken, and a greater university involvement has occurred in support of the Olympic Movement than at any other time in history.

This paper will outline the diversity of Olympic Education Programs that have sprouted in Australia on the occasion of the Sydney Olympic Games.

1993: Sydney won the bid to host the Summer Games of the XXVII Olympiad in September 2000 seven years hence

The Australian Olympic Committee (AOC) is the National Olympic Committee (NOC) for Australia. It has fostered Olympic Education in Australia through annual National Olympic Academies, the first being conducted in 1985, and Oceanic countries have always been invited to attend these Academies. From the 1980s, Olympic Education has been carried out by the AOC and State Olympic Councils who educate and introduce young people to the Olympic Games.

As an extension of the AOC's programmes, the State Olympic Councils also promote Olympism to the community through a variety of education initiatives including State Olympic Academies and the annual Pierre de Coubertin Awards.

These Australian Olympic Academies, conducted at both state and national levels annually, provide education about the Olympic Movement. *National Academies are* conducted by the AOC and aim to give an in-depth insight into various aspects about the Olympics. *State Sessions are* conducted by the State Olympic Councils and provide a basic introduction to the Olympic Movement.

Pierre de Coubertin Awards

Established in 1993, these awards recognise senior secondary students (Years 10/11/12) seeking to enhance their potential through sport. Emphasis is on participation and sportsmanship rather than simply rewarding elite athletes. These awards hope to develop sportsmanship and citizenship, and increase public awareness of school sport and the Olympic Movement. This program fits within the *Olympic 2000 National Education Programs "Olympic 2000 Schools Strategy"* described later in this paper.

Network of Friendship Program

This program commenced in New South Wales in 1994 and links schools across the world to facilitate an international exchange between schools in educational, sporting and cultural activities whilst furthering an awareness of the Olympic Movement. This program also fits within the *Olympic 2000 National Education Programs "Olympic 2000 Schools Strategy"* described later in this paper.

1994: An Australian University Responds: A new subject in the School of Leisure, Sport and Tourism at the University of Technology, Sydney: "Analysis of the Olympic Games"

Dr Kristine Toohey had written her PhD. At Perm State University under the supervision of the eminent Olympic scholar Dr. John Lucas. Already recognised in Australia as an authority on the Olympic Games, Dr. Toohey and her colleague, Associate Professor A.J. Veal designed *"Analysis of the Olympic Games"*[1] as a subject to be delivered to UTS students at undergraduate and postgraduate levels in response to Sydney's successful bid to host the 2000 Summer Games. The subject was first taught in the Autumn semester of 1994 and has been ongoing since that time.

On successful completion of this subject, students have a knowledge and understanding of

- the legacy of the Ancient Olympic Games;
- the origins of the modern Olympic Games;
- the place of the modern Olympic Games in the development of sport, culture and tourism; and
- be able to understand and apply analytical techniques for the political, cultural and economic analyses of the modern Olympic Games; and political, social and economic analyses of hallmark events.

Ongoing research for this course by Dr. Toohey and Associate Professor Veal has resulted in the publication of their book in 2000 *"The Olympic Games: a social science perspective"*.

1995: The Olympic Education Kit

The AOC has supported various education initiatives in association with the New South Wales Department of Education and Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (SOCOG).

One such initiative is the ***Olympic Education Kit*** a teacher resource that was distributed to all schools across Australia in 1995. Covering topics such as Olympic history, symbols and ceremonies it takes a close look at the 1956 Games in Melbourne and the Sydney 2000 Games.

1996: A *Centre for Olympic Studies* was established at the University of South Australia and focuses on core-disciplinary research and consultancy services in a broad range of areas relevant to the 2000 Games. The Director of this Centre is the respected Olympic scholar and Sports Historian, Professor John Daly. A Memorandum of Agreement was signed with the AOC in 1999. Further information about this Centre can be obtained from visiting the website http://www.library.unisa.edu.au/vl/olympic/olymwelc.htm.

1996: A *Centre for Olympic Studies* was established at the University of New South Wales on 21 May 1996, and Sports Historian, Dr Richard Cashman was appointed Director. A Memorandum of Agreement was signed with the AOC in September 1999.

The idea to form this Centre had its genesis in the bid success of 1993. "There was a seminar organised by the Dean of Commerce in July 1995 with top UCLA academics who had been involved with the 1984 Games. The forum investigated university involvement in the Olympics" (Dr Richard Cashman, 23 March 2000).

The Centre has developed significantly and now offers two undergraduate courses, is supervising two PhD students and is involved with the National Olympic Academies, run by the AOC.

One subject: *Staging the Games: The Olympics, The Event and its Impact* focuses on the Games since 1984 and raises issues relating to winning an Olympic Bid and staging a Games. Topics cover architecture, community and social issues, athletic training and support, Australian identity, environment, language, media, politics, security, sponsorship, tourism and also considers the wider impact of the Games on a city and country.

The AOC advise that a third Centre for Olympic Studies has been established in Australia at the University of Queensland, and an MOU signed with that institution in 2000.

1998: UTS set up an Olympic Games working committee in 1994 to address links that the university might develop with the Olympic Games Movement. In May 1998, UTS appointed an Olympic Games Project Manager to capitalise on the opportunities for the university arising from Sydney staging the Sydney 2000 Olympic and Paralympic Games.

Given the extent of UTS involvement in these Games, the UTS Olympic website: http://www.olympic.uts.edu.au provides a compre-

hensive summary of activities. However, some of the projects arising from UTS involvement that provide direct and valuable links to Olympic Education are as follows

Sydney Olympic Broadcasting Organisation (SOBO) Training Program. Engineering Students are training as "Commentary Systems Operators" and will earn credit toward the subject, *Professional Service Projects.* On completion of this training, students will be targeted as potential recruits to work on the host broadcast program of the Olympic Games.

Technology Specialists. UTS Students are receiving course credits through their involvement in the Technology Volunteer Program, performing specialist roles based on their Computer Science/Information Technology (IT) skills.

The Subject ***Volunteer Recruitment for Major Events*** is offered to Students enrolled in the UTS School of Management and has been specially designed to incorporate the interviewing process of the 50,000 volunteers required by SOCOG for the Sydney 2000 Games.

In addition, a number of students from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences have been involved in a variety of projects including

- Receiving a course credit through their involvement with writing the copy for the last print edition of SOCOG's corporate magazine ***"Sydney Spirit".***
- Being part of SOCOGs ***Olympian Biographies - Info 2000 Pro ject*** preparing short biographies on some 30,000 Athletes who will potentially be involved in the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games.
- ***The Athletes Village Newspaper.*** Providing suitably skilled vol unteers to be involved in running a daily newspaper for the 10,200 athletes in the Sydney 2000 Athletes Village. The Athletes Village Newspaper is a free daily newspaper for athletes and officials in the Olympic Village at Sydney Olympic Park. Experience received in this role links directly with the subjects studied.

The above examples have provided opportunities for Olympic Education to reach a wider audience of students through a variety of courses as their interest in, and knowledge of, the Olympic Games is heightened through their academic involvement with the Sydney Games.

1999: *The Olympic 2000 National Education Program is implemented by SOCOG.*

As a result of the successful involvement since 1992 of school students in the Sydney Bid to host the Olympic Games, the following three major organisations contributed to the design of the *Olympic 2000 Schools Strategy*

1. the NSW Department of Education and Training School Sport Unit
2. the Australian Olympic Committee (AOC), and
3. the Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (SOCOG)

This strategy aims to

> *"Provide all school students with the opportunity to be involved with the year 2000 Olympic Games through ongoing education programs and special strategies which further the Olympic ideals whilst developing a range of understanding, skills and effective learning" (Olympic 2000 Schools Strategy Overview).*

Further, Susan Crawford, Manager, National Education Campaign at the Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games describes the Olympic 2000 National Education Program as the thrust of Olympic Education (for schoolchildren) in Australia (Susan Crawford, 18 May 2000). The Olympic Charter states "The Olympic 2000 National Education Program encourages the youth of Australia to understand and embrace the spirt of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. It aims to build in all young Australians a sense of ownership and an enthusiasm for the Games" (source: *"The Olympic 2000 National Olympic Education Program"}.*

The 2000 *National Olympic Education Program,* has targetted more than 3.1 million school children who have been educated about the Sydney Games and the Olympic ideals through

- ***O-News*** the Olympic student newspaper distributed free to every School child with contributions by Australian Olympians such as Susie ONeill, Mathew Dunn, Liz Weekes, Ian Thorpe and Grant Hackett.
- ***Aspire*** is the set of Australian Olympic Team values that are promoted to schools through a flexible and interactive package of learning materials including a resource kit featuring interactive CD Rom technology, posters and video. This material encourages teachers and students to incorporate the spirit of the Olympic Games into the classroom. The Kits are distributed nationally to

every school and *Aspire* stands for Attitude, Sportsmanship, Pride, Individual responsibility, Respect and Express (e.g. an opinion). One copy of aspire was distributed to each school in Australia in 1999.

- ***"Kids"*** internet pages found on the SOCOG site, this provides fun, interactive leisure and learning activities and establishes in teractions with "O-News".

The 2000 *National Education Program* has also introduced a number of enhancement programs such as the *Share the spirit art program* and the *Olympic welcome program.* Further information about these programs and the 2000 *National Education Program* can be found on the SOCOG website.

1999: The NSW Department of Education, the AOC & SOCOG implement the "Olympic 2000 Schools Strategy"

Olympic Education has also been implemented at a state level, and following are some examples carried out in the state of New South Wales.

- **Pierre de Coubertin Awards:** Established in 1993 and described above.
- **Network of Friendship Program:** Established in 1994 and de scribed above.
- **The Aussie Frog Challenge Program:** From 1999 this has been utilised by school teachers to promote the Olympic spirit and ideals by implementing teaching/learning activities across Key Learning Areas. This is primarily for raising awareness and in terest in the Sydney Olympic Games.

1999: Learning in Sydney a legacy for Athens 2004. A Master of Management in Sport Management Degree is introduced at University of Technology, Sydney

As the sport industry is growing rapidly, so has the demand for professionally trained sports managers.

"The expectation is that these individuals will be able to effectively conduct the business of sport in the current dynamic, volatile envi-

ronment and provide clearly articulated visions and pathways for the industry's future development. ...The Olympic Games are no exception to this demand... essential for the staffing of OCOGs and also the IOC" (Toohey and Gargalianos, 1999).

As a result, a program, originating in the Physical Education Department of the Democritos University of Thrace, Greece, by Dr Dimitris Gargalianos was proposed to UTS in late 1998, and successfully implemented in June 1999.

The program is an adaptation of the current Master of Management in Sport Management degree offered at UTS. The course *is* specifically designed to provide a sound education in sport management and practical experience in the organisation of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games through work placement with the SOCOG. The course is designed to provide management education together with practical experience of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games through work placement at SOCOG. Graduates will return to Greece with skills and experience which will qualify them to contribute in a significant way to the organisation of the Athens 2004 Games.

This program, which is supported by the International Olympic Committee (IOC), and through scholarships from the Greek Ministry of Culture, is a "world first" in using a current Olympic host city organising committee to train staff of a future Olympic host city.

The Master of Sport Management program is provided by the School of Leisure, Sport and Tourism at UTS. Staff from the University of Thrace, in Greece, are also collaborating with UTS in delivering this specially adapted version of the course.

"The tripartite venture advances the Olympic Movements agenda. It has the potential to provide a continuous and official link between the tertiary sector and the Olympic Movement" (Toohey and Gargalianos, 1999).

The Athens 2004 Organising Committee of Olympic Games (ATHOC) will have a number of well educated and experienced people to assist with the organisation of those Games.

UTS has advanced the level of Olympic Education and is "perhaps the first in a chain of Universities which will provide similar education to future Organising Committees of Olympic Games" (Toohey and Gargalianos, 1999).

1999: Sydney 2000: Olympic Education and Academic Activities

This is a joint program by the Universität Autónoma de Barcelona (UAB); University of New South Wales (UNSW) and University of Technology, Sydney (UTS).

"Olympic Education is meant to be a deliberate approach to people of all ages and nationalities with the aim of promoting and enhancing the Olympic universal ideals of peace, mutual understanding, solidarity and fair play, working towards the constant development of human excellence without discriminations and exclusions" (Sydney 2000: Olympic Education and Academic Activities, 1999).

Under the initiative of the Universität Autónoma de Barcelona (UAB), and specifically Professor M. Miguel de Moragas Spa and Ms Beatriz Garcia Garcia, this site was developed to collate all known Olympic Education and activities in Australia.

The Olympic Education described thus far in this paper, gives some idea of the variety and extent that Olympic Education has grown in Australia as a result of Sydney staging the Olympic Games this year. However, the multitude of Olympic Education and activities offered through tertiary institutions around Australia as shown on this website is quite extraordinary.

The following are just some of the major projects undertaken at Australian Universities

Centre for Olympic Studies, (COS) UNSW

In addition to other examples discussed previously, this COS is compiling a *Directory of Olympic Research*. This database is being built to provide an electronic and hard copy of an Australian Olympic Studies Directory. This information will be accessed by title, theme and author and will assist researchers of the Olympic Games.

Centre for Olympic Studies, (COS) University of South Australia (UniSA)

This COS offers a *Virtual Library* covering a wide range of topics including the Olympic Oath, Rings and Torch; Australia and the Olympics and Bibliographies. This is another informative tool for researchers of the Olympic Games.

The Australian Technology Network (ATN)

The ATN is a powerful network of five leading Australian universities which covers all mainland states. Its members are

- Curtin University of Technology (Curtin) in Western Australia
- Queensland University of Technology (QUT) in Queensland
- RMIT University (RMIT) in Victoria
- University of South Australia (UniSA) in South Australia
- University of Technology, Sydney (UTS) in New South Wales

In 1999 a ***"Guide to Olympic-related Expertise in ATN Universities"*** *was* published by this group to showcase the diversity of expertise available within these five universities. The positive response to this publication resulted in a revised edition for 2000, together with the publication being listed on the Internet with sort/search facilities. This is available at: http://www.atn.edu.au. This directory has been an information tool for researchers, and media alike.

The University of Technology, Sydney (UTS)

In addition to the examples described previously, UTS has developed various projects including

- *The UTS 2000 Lecture Series* monthly debates and presentations on Olympic related matters to educate and inform the university community, Olympic stakeholders and the general public;
- *The UTS Olympic Scholars* two elite athletes who represent the culture of the University received scholarships in 1999 and 2000.
- *UTS Directory of Olympic Publications* containing more than 54 publications on Olympic topics written by UTS staff, includes a comprehensive *Bibliography on the Olympic Games* by A Burkhardt, K Toohey and A J Veal.
- *UTS Olympic Website:* showcasing the various Olympic projects and activities in which UTS has involved staff and students. Avail able at: http://www.olympic.uts.edu.au.

University of Sydney

An Olympic resource Kit was launched in 1998 which was intended for journalists and other interested members of the community. It profiles 22 researchers and nine athletes from Sydney University.

2OOO: The *"AOC Anti-Doping Program"* was introduced in Australia in 2000 by the Australian Olympic Committee. This program targets

14 to 17 year olds who may be just starting their sporting careers. It is essentially a drug awareness and education program to educate these people about the dangers and consequences of taking performance enhancing drugs. Travelling around Australia, this program has reached thousands of young people in the first 5 months of operation.

Conclusion

Given the variety and multitude of content in Australian Olympic Education described herein, it must be asked whether Olympic Education will continue to grow post the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games?

Interest may diminish in studying the Olympic Games initially, but the longer term provides a good challenge especially for an institutions such as the Centres for Olympic Studies.

"It is expected that there will be a lot of research interest in the Sydney Games after 2000 and various issues relating to the documentation of those Games" (Dr Richard Cashman, 23 March 2000).

It is hoped that the spirit shared across Australia this year will ensure that the Olympic Games are talked about, and taught, for generations to come.

The expertise and knowledge gathered in Australia on the occasion of the Sydney Games will not disappear with the flame when it is extinguished on 1 October 2000. It will remain, and hopefully grow towards an Australian legacy of Olympic Education.

Appendix: Acronyms

AOC	Australian Olympic Committee
ATN	The Australian Technology Network
COS	Centre for Olympic Studies
IT	Information Technology
NOC	National Olympic Committee
OCOG	Organising Committee for the Olympic Games
SOBO	Sydney Olympic Broadcasting Organisation
SOCOG	Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games
UAB	Universität Autónoma de Barcelona
UNSW	University of New South Wales
UTS	University of Technology, Sydney

Note

1. This author took that course in 1994, and attended the NSW Olympic Academy, instigating and influencing further Olympic studies and research.

Bibliography

1. *"Olympic 2000 Schools Strategy"* available at: http://www.dse.nsw.edu.au, accessed March 2000.
2. *"Sydney 2000: Olympic Education and Academic Activities"*, available at: http://www.blues.uab.es/olympic.studies/educationsydney.html, accessed March 2000.
3. *"The Olympic 2000 National Olympic Education Program"* Available at: http://www.olympics.com/eng/kids, accessed May 2000.
4. *"Westpac and the Olympic Games: Leaving a Legacy"* available at: http://www.westpac.com.au/olympic, accessed March 2000.
5. ATN Guide to Olympic-related Expertise in ATN Universities, available at: http://www.atn.edu.au, accessed February 2000.
6. Australian Olympic Committee (AOC) "Australian Olympic Team Values: Aspire".
7. Australian Olympic Committee (AOC) Media Release: "Anti-Doping Program", 8 December 1999.
8. Australian Olympic Committee website, available at: http://www.aoc.com.au, accessed February 2000.
9. Centre of Olympic Studies, University of New South Wales, available at: http://www.arts.unsw.edu.au/olympics, accessed February 2000.
10. Dr Richard Cashman, Director, Centre for Olympic Studies, UNSW, in various email correspondence March 2000.
11. Susan Crawford, Education Manager, Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (SOCOG) in e-mail correspondence, 18 May 2000.
12. Toohey, K., and Gargalianos, D. "Olympic Education and Sport Management", in the Conference Proceedings of the "Olympics in the Next Millennium" International Conference, Centre for Olympic Studies, UNSW, Sydney, September 1999.
13. University of New South Wales Handbook 2000, available at: http://www.publications.unsw.edu.au, accessed March 2000.
14. University of Technology, Sydney, Olympic Website available at: http://www.olympic.uts.edu.au, accessed March 2000.

THE OLYMPIC ATHLETE

by Thomas GIANNAKIS *(GRE)*

The Olympic athlete, who was known for his wit and physical strength, competed in local or Panhellenic sacred games, in ancient times, for the purpose of winning the prize.

In Mycenean times we first find the world "αθλητήρ"[1] which has been preserved in later Greek and was also adopted by all modern European languages. It is derived for the verb "αθλώ"[2] or "αθλεύω"[3] meaning to compete for a prize, to fight, to struggle, to vie.

They say, as mythology informs us, that competitors were first called "αγωνιστής"[4] and that it was only at the time of king Aethlios of Elis that their name was changed to athlete.[5]

The fact that the name αγωνιστής was the first to be used in the history of athletics is confirmed by the Olympic Hymns, according to which physical exercise and competition dated back to a remote past. The god Hermes was the god of contest par excellence, the θεός"[6] and the goddess Athena was shown to "train" athletes, whilst practising sport herself.[7]

Practically all the gods, demigods and the deified mortals and heroes of Greek mythology, were athletes who established and protected contests and sports institutions,[8] Olympic champions[9] known in the religious conscience of the people for their great "athletic feats".[10] The god of gods and men, Zeus, was a thrower; from mount Olymp shrouded in clouds he would cast his thunder on the perjurers. He was an Olympic victor in wrestling, while Apollo was a runner, boxer, archer, discus thrower etc.[11] The god Hermes, was the god of physical exercise and the patron of athletes, sports institutions and contests.[12]

Poseidon of Artemision[13] was a javelin thrower, the goddess Athena a teacher of chariot racing, etc. The demigods were winners in the contests and later became trainers, like Prometheus, Heracles, Theseus and others.

The agonized efforts of the ancient Greeks were properly recognized and promoted by the priesthood, leading to the deification of contest in the figure of a god.[14]

In Minoan times, the athlete was placed under the protection of the goddess of contest. In Mycenaean Greece, athletes belonged to the aristocracy and had to stand out for their physical and mental faculties and physical feats,[15] for "there is no greater glory for a man as long as he lives than to be known for the deeds of his arms and legs".[16]

At first, athletes stood out for their build and strength which had possibly been significantly improved by physical labour and it was on that criterion alone that they took part in the games.[17]

Athletes were chosen on the basis of their endurance against hardship or their feats in the context of their farming and pastoral life.[18] To be born with superior physical qualities was certainly an advantage, but also gods' gift to man whose duty it was to develop it.[19] With the help of these qualitites and moral stamina men should be able to withstand the trials of contest and life in general.[20]

In addition to the parents who were of course proud of their athletic son, the deme and the priesthood also encouraged young people to practise sport, reminding them that the first athletes, sponsors and patrons of the games, were the gods themselves and the heroes, their role models in fact. There are even some athletes and Olympic champions who became gods in the religious conscience, of people because of their moral attitude and their sports achievements.[21]

The ancient Greeks used the term Gymnastics to denote any physical activity, including exercises, games, contests and dances. Philostratos describes the training process for our benefit and underlines the athletes' origins

"As part of their training, some athletes had to lift heavy weights which was not always easy, others raced against horses and hare, others would bend and straighten back again thick iron plates, or pull ploughs or carts, yoked with strong oxen, carry bulls on their shoulders, whilst others, finally, were even able to defeat lions. As we know this is what the likes of Polymestor and Glaukos and Amesinas and Polydamas from Skotousea would do. As for Tisandros, the boxer from Naxos in Sicily who swam around the capes along the

coast, his arms' natural strength would carry him for into the open sea and in this way he could train his arms and his whole body.

They bathed in rivers and their sources and slept on the ground, on skins or on matrasses made of grass they would pick in the fields. Their diet consisted of barley cakes and unleavened all-bran bread and the meat of bovines, bulls, goat and deer".[22]

The Olympic winner Polydamas from Thessalia, found himself in the court of Darius where he demonstrated his strength by bending thick pieces of iron and defeating lions. Milon of Croton, 6 times Olympic winner in wrestling, lifted a 4-year old bull to his shoulders and carried it around the sanctuary of Olympia; Amesinas from Cyrene, a shepherd, is said to have trained in Olympia together with a bull which he had brought from home for that purpose.[23] Polymnestor from Miletus, was an Olympic winner in the stadium race. In his youth he had been a goatherd, who ran faster than a hare.[24]

Philostratos reports that the young shepherd Agathion, who was admired by Herodes Atticus, when asked what his opinion was regarding sport, replied "I am sorry that there are no longer lions in Greece that I could beat".[25]

They say that Milon of Croton, the Olympic winner visited the shepherd Titormos in Etolia and when he saw how he tamed bulls he was amazed. They tried to lift a big stone, which Milon could not move. Then Titormos lifted it and threw it at some distance. Full of admiration, Milon exclaimed "O Zeus, have you given birth to another Heracles?]"[26] This saying that was much used in antiquity has survived to this day. We find Titormos in Olympia, competing in the Olympic Games.

Tisandros, Olympic winner in boxing, was a native of Naxos in Sicily (a colony of Naxos) as we have indicated. His boxing skills were known throughout the then known world, carrying Naxos fame to later generations.[27]

The boy Glaukos from Karystos, an Olympic winner in boys boxing, was helping his father with farming. They were ploughing a field when, at some point in time, the plough could not work because the share had become displaced. Young Glaukos bent down and hitting the share hard with his first, he stuck it in again. His father saw what happened or his trainer Tisias learned about it and Glaukos was thus taken to Olympia where he competed in boys boxing

and was twice proclaimed an Olympic winner.[28] After that, he scored 2 victories at the Pythian, 8 at the Nemean and 8 at the Isthmian Games. Philostratos reminisces about the old glory of athletes and Gymnastics, comparing it to his own times"

"Today's athletes are by far inferior to the older ones, because who can seriously affirm that lions no longer have their natural strength and that dogs, horses and bulls lack the physical abilities they used to have ..., according to the laws of nature, all have the same properties they had before. When speaking about athletes, therefore, and the remarkable skills they used to have, it *is* certainly not the fault of nature if they no longer have them now, since there are of course still many young men around us, full of vitality, beauty and intelligence - all these being natural qualities. Now, if these natural qualities cannot be improved upon, making it appear as though nature had lost its strength, this is due to the fact that we do not apply proper gymnastics rules during exercise and that we do not try to create gymnastics in a systematic and consistent manner."[29]

Lucian and Philostratos in their work both stress, in a significant way, the athlete's condition and strenuous training which can easily be determined by the requirements laid down for the Olympic Games. Olympic victory at the noblest of contests was a dream come true "Would you like to win in Olympia? Me too, by gods, because it's a wonderful thing ...: "But before you start, you should reflect on what you'll have to go through and on the consequences. You will have to prepare, eat what you are told, refrain from partaking of certain food, be frugal, train in warm and cold weather alike, not drink cold water or wine whenever you feel like it, in other words hand yourself over to your trainer, as the sick man places himself in his doctor's hands."[30]

In fact, the obligation for athletes to arrive, 30 days earlier, in ancient Elis, the first Olympic village in the world history of the Olympic Games, was intended to allow the Elean judges to verify the quality and morality of athletes.[31] The Eleans selected the athletes "if you meet all the requirements specified by Olympia and have done nothing wrong or vile, you can go and compete, but if you have not trained as instructed, then be on your way"[32] meaning that they were disqualified.

Athletes had to have a harmonious body,[33] with the help of exercise, diet, etc since they would be exposed to the eyes of all Greeks[34] during the five days of the Olympic Games, just like the statues and busts made by sculptors.[35]

Lucian described the athletes as follows: "our athletes are red, coloured by the sun and virile, with a strong, warm manly character; they are neither shrunk, nor bony, nor too fat, but truly fit, with a harmonious body since they get rid of all superfluous flesh with their sweat."[36]

A harmonious body alone was not enough. Athletes had to get rid of all their meanness and aggression with the help of exercise and enhance their virtues.[37] This was the famous "Kalokagathia" which ancient athletes sought to achieve.

Epilogue

The words athlete, athletics, gymnastics reflect the essence of things, they are ancient Greek words that have not only survived in modern Greek life, but have been adopted by all the languages of he world. This phenomenon is one of the most precious legacies of the ancient Greek world, as confirmed by Victor Hugo: "the whole civilized world shares one common fatherland, Greece, Olympia".

The words athlete, athletics, prize (αθλητής, αθλητισμός, έπαθλον) are derived, as we have indicated, from the words αέθλιον, άθλον, άθλος. The first means strenuous effort and the word άθλος, the prize. It is no accident that this dual connection expresses the struggle and moral reward, the two elements of civilization's human progress.

Although related to athletic activity, these words are threatened by the wider commercialization of sport today. Unfortunately, another word has been lost in our modern world, a word which in antiquity was the very purpose of the athletic process: virtue.

It is indeed true that words reveal the form as well as the substance of things![38]

Notes

1. Homer Odyssey, IX 164, Greek inscription 969, Herodotus 2.160 5.22 Isocrates 17c, Plutarch Them. 25: horses, Pindar N. 5.90 10.95. The word αγωνιστής means: fighter, contestant, advocate, lawyer, discussant: Plato, Phaedrus, 269d, Theaetetus, 164c, Cf. Thucydides 3.37.
2. Herodotus 1.67 7.212, Plutarch, Demetr. 5.
3. Iliad IV 389, XXVIII 274, Plato, Laws 873 E.
4. Agony: the contest emulation ("αγών δια πάσης αγωνίησ έχων") Herodotus, 2,91,
   Euripides, Hecuba 314, Trojan Women 1003, cf. Pindar P. 5.150 and also Hip pocrates, Art. 787, Plato, Meno 94B, Laws 765c.
5. Aethlios: "competitors derive their name from Aethlios" or from the word αέθλιον, prize.
6. Orphic Hymn 28, 2-5 and Eusebius, Eccl. History 5.1.
7. Orphic Yymn 32,7: Athena.
8. Philostratos, Gymn. 16 cf § 3.
9. Paus. V7,10.
10. Phil. Gymn. 45.
11. Paus. V 7,10, Archer: Homeric Hymn 3.126, 131, 183, discus thrower: Apollodorus, 1.17.
12. Paus. V 26 2-3.
13. 151 61: index no, Nat. Arch. Museum, catalog of casts, Athens 1974, p. 67.
14. Paus. V. 26, 2-3 cf. Thomas Giannakis, Sacred Panhellenic Games, Athens 1998, p. 10.
15. Homer, Iliad X 443: "ρητήρ εμεναι μύθων πρηκτήρα τε έργων".
16. Odyssey, IX. 147.
17. Phil. Gymn. 1,2.
18. Phil. Gymn. 1,2 11, 13, 43, Aelian Varia Historia, 12, 22, Schol. Pind. 0.9.150.
19. Paus. VI 16,9.
20. Homeric Hymn 2,225.
21. Phil. Gymn. 18.
22. Lucian, Gymn. 10.
23. Phil. Gymn. 43 cf. § 2.
24. Eusebius, 80th Olympiad, cf. Phil. Gymn. 43.
25. Phil. Gymn. 13, cf. Eusebius, 46th Olympiad.
26. Phil. Lives of the Sophists.
27. Aelian, Historia Varia 12,22.
28. Paus. VI 13,8.
29. Cf. for more details Paus. VI 10,1 and Phil. Gymn. 1 and 20.
30. Epictetus, Encheiridion, chapter 29.
31. Phil. Life of Apollonius of Tyana, book V, chapter 43. Cf. also Phil. Gymn. 25.
32. Apol. ibid.
33. Phil. Gymn. 25, cf. Plato, Timaeus 44b, Galen, 1.333.
34. Phil. Eikones B', Arrachion § 2.
35. Phil. Gymn. 25.
36. Lucian, Gymnasia, Solon § 25.
37. Ibid § 22, cf. Paus. V21 and Phil. Gymn. 25.
38. P. Valavanis, "Prizes, athletes ..... Athens 1996, p. 9.

OLYMPIC EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES OF THE CENTRAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY AND REGIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMIES IN RUSSIA

by Prof. Dr. Valéry KUZIN *(RUS)*

First of all let me sincerely thank the International Olympic Academy for the kind invitation to take part in this extremely important session and make a contribution here. I consider this invitation to be a good sign of the very close cooperation established between the International Olympic Academy and the Russian Olympic Committee.

I am also satisfied with the topic of my lecture which was proposed me by the International Olympic Academy. It gives me the opportunity to share with you the experience which was accumulated in the field of Olympic Education included into the unique system elaborated in the largest country of the world by territory, namely the system of the Regional Olympic Academies of Russia.

1. System of Regional Olympic Academies in Russia

Article 31 of the Olympic Charter states: "National Olympic Committees... concern themselves with the establishment and activities of National Olympic Academies...".

The National Olympic Academy of the former Soviet Union was founded on February 18, 1987, approximately four years before its disintegration. The USSR Olympic Academy functioned mostly on the basis of the largest higher educational institution on physical education and sports in our country (and maybe in the world) which is called now the Russian State Academy of Physical Culture.

A year or two later, the Olympic Academies in the union republics of the former Soviet Union, namely Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia and Kazakhstan, were founded. The necessity to found the similar Olympic institution was also discussed in the Russian Federation, the largest republic - member of the former Soviet Union. However, the necessity to create one academy in such a big republic as Russia was strongly doubted. Taking into account that there were more

than two dozens of sports faculties and colleges and more than forty sports departments in the universities and pedagogical institutes the foundation of the All-Russian Olympic Academy would result in the creation of another bureaucratic structure over the great scientific and teaching potential of the republic.

That is why Professor Vladimir Rodichenko working in the State Committee of the Russian Federation for Physical Culture and Sports suggested an absolutely different idea to the Chairman of that Committee and member of the IOC Mr. Vitaly Smirnov and his proposal was accepted.

The Order of the State Committee of the Russian Federation for Physical Culture and Sports "On the Establishment of the Regional Olympic Academies" dated June 8, 1989, stated that the rectors of the higher educational institutions were charged to establish the Regional Olympic Academies. And in some months the first seven academies were created. Today the total number of the Olympic Academies in Russia is 12 including the Central Olympic Academy into which the former Soviet Olympic Academy was transformed after the disintegration. I have the honour to be elected its President.

Thus I would like to repeat that there is no one National Olympic Academy in Russia, but this fact did not lessen our possibilities.

On the contrary, it makes them stronger because instead of one academy 12 academies fulfill the functions stated in their Statutes, namely

- the explanation and promotion of values, aims, tasks and prin ciples of Olympism,
- promotion of Olympic Education in the regions,
- coordination of researches into the Olympic Movement.

You may see the location of the Regional Olympic Academies of Russia on this map

Central Olympic Academy is located in Moscow, Regional Olympic Academy of North-West of Russia - in St.Petersburg, Regional Olympic Academy of the West of Russia - in Smolensk, Regional Olympic Academy of the Volga Region - in Volgograd, Regional Olympic Academy of the South of Russia - in Krasnodar, Regional Olympic Academy of the Urals - in Chelyabinsk, Regional Olympic Academy of Siberia - in Omsk, Regional Olympic Academy of the Far East - in Khabarovsk,

Regional Olympic Academy of Veliky Luky - in Veliky Luky,
Regional Olympic Academy of Voronezh - in Voronezh,
Moscow Regional Olympic Academy - in the suburbs of Moscow,
in the small town of Malachovka,
Regional Olympic Academy of Kama Region - in the city of Chaykovsky.

Rectors of sports higher educational institutions on the basis of which the Regional Olympic Academies were founded were elected Presidents of almost all Academies. And each Academy is a collective member of the Russian Olympic Committee.

However, as there was no a united national academy it was very important to organize the coordination of activities of the Regional Academies. That is why a Council of Presidents of Regional Olympic Academies was established and attached to the Russian Olympic Committee and I have the honour to be elected its Chairman. The Department of Olympic Education of the Russian Olympic Committee also coordinates the activities of the Academies. The Olympic Academies act in accordance with their own plans but there is a joint Coordination Plan including the main events held by the Regional Olympic Committee in cooperation with the Russian Olympic Committee. This annual plan is approved by the Executive Committee of the Russian Olympic Committee.

Now proceeding to the topic of the lecture, namely the Olympic Educational Programmes, I would like to note that one of the main parts of the Coordination Plan includes the regional events devoted to Olympic Education.

2. Organizational and Programme Basis of Olympic Education System in Russia

I would like to describe general features of Olympic Education in our country so that one can better understand the contribution of the Regional Olympic Academies into this field of education.

The Russian Olympic Committee initiated the creation of the system of Olympic Education in Russia. Beginning from the year of 1992 it has been looking for the allies in the Ministry of Education and, at last, on March 5, 1994, a joint Order of the Ministry of Education and the Russian Olympic Committee called "On the Organization of the Studies of Olympic Movement and Olympic Games" was signed. Thus the organizational basis was laid down.

In 1996 the Ministry of Education included the theoretical part "Basis of the Olympic Knowledge" into the programme of physical education of schoolchildren of the 8th forms. This theoretical part was worked out by the experts of the Russian Olympic Committee, Central Olympic Academy and Regional Olympic Academy of the Urals and the Ministry of Education.

The programme includes 7 parts, the names of which are no doubt quite clear for the audience.

1. How the world sports festival was born?
2. Centennial anniversary of the Olympic competitions.
3. The Olympic Games on ice and snow.
4. The Olympic principles, traditions and rules.
5. How the Olympic Games are held?
6. Movement truly common for all mankind.
7. Sports as the world wants it to be.

But, of course, the most important stage of the Russian system establishment should have been the publishing of the textbook containing Olympic knowledge optimum for 10 or 12 school hours.

I am fully satisfied that I am able to show you three editions of the book "Your Olympic Textbook" published by today. Its total edition is 120 thousand copies. It is not sufficient for the country with 60 thousand schools. But the Russian Olympic Committees keeps on looking for money for the publication of new editions.

Beginning from 1997 half of the examination question-papers at the exams on physical education in the 9th and 11th forms contain questions on Olympic knowledge basis.

Finally, the Russian Olympic Committee has developed and realized a number of measures aimed at the stimulation and promotion of Olympic Education. One of the important measures is the All-Russian contest "Olympic Education in Russia" which serves as one of the catalysts of the Olympic Education development in Russia. Two contests of this kind were held for the last four years. In order to show the scale of the contests I would like to mention that thousands of schools and dozens of thousands of schoolchildren, - real experts on the Olympic Movement, Olympism, and Olympic Games - take part in the first (local) round of the contest. The best of them were awarded a trip to Olympia as a prize.

However, the described system which has been working for four school years already, could never be effectively realized without the participation of the Regional Olympic Academies.

3. Contribution of the Regional Olympic Academies into the Organization, Programmes and Contents of Olympic Education

At first, let me tell you in brief about the main trends of activities in the field of Olympic Education of the Regional Olympic Academies and higher physical education institutions on the basis of which they are created.

(As you understand, sometimes it is difficult to divide the activities of a public organization and a state educational institution as it is described in the main chapter of the Coordination Plan "Regional Events in the Field of Olympic Education)

- to execute the functions of the organizational and methodical cen ter of Olympic Education in the region;
- to organize and implement the regional programmes of Olympic Education;
- organization of scientific conferences on Olympic Education and Olympism, to publish teaching aids and scientific books;
- to hold seminars and advanced training courses for the deputy directors of schools and schoolteachers together with the local administration bodies of physical education, sports and education;
- development and inclusion of special studies on Olympism into the curricula of the sports higher educational institutions where students master methods of teaching Olympic knowledge at schools;
- organization of the regional rounds of the Ail-Russian contest "Olympic Education in Russia".

It is advisable to describe each of these items using the examples from the activities of the individual Olympic Academies. Let us come back to the map.

I shall start with the Central Olympic Academy. First of all, since 1998 in accordance with decision of the Council of Presidents of Regional Olympic Academies the Central Olympic Academy has become a joint information and methodological center for the Regional Olympic Academies of Russia. The Academy closely cooperates with

the Department of Olympic Education of the Russian Olympic Committee in this field. Three representatives of the Central Olympic Committee and the Russian State Academy of Physical Culture were among the authors of the first textbook "Your Olympic Textbook".

The creation of the five serial film "From the history of the Olympic Games" plays an important role in the activities of the Central Olympic Academy. The films "Hellenic Games" and "Renaissance" were highly appreciated by the experts of the Russian Olympic Committee and participants in the International Olympic Academy session in 1996. The third film "Olympic Russia" is going to be released soon.

In order to support the teaching of students of the State Academy the training aids on the history of the Olympic Movement were published. It is widely used by students both during the studies and teaching practice.

The joint actions of the Central Olympic Academy and Historical and Sports Museum of the Russian State Academy contribute heavily into the development of Olympic Education. Thousands of exhibits are displayed in the Museum, many of them are unique. The archives and display of the Museum considerably promote the mastering of Olympic knowledge.

The activities of the Regional Olympic Academy of North-West of Russia in the field of Olympic Education covers, in addition to St.Petersburg, the Republics of Karelia and Komi, as well as the regions of Murmansk, Arkhangelsk, Vologda, Kaliningrad, Pskov and Novgorod.

The structure of the Academy includes some commissions engaged in the problems of Olympic Education. Its activities involve

- participation in the promotion of the Olympic Education programme of schoolchildren in St. Petersburg together with the Committee of Education of St. Petersburg Administration;
- scientific and methodological guidance of the Olympic Education programme promotion in the region;
- contests on Olympic Education among the schools of the city as well as the contests on the knowledge of Olympism among children;
- "round tables" on the problem "Children and Olympic Movement";

- participation in the work of the summer sports and health camps for children and inclusion of Olympic Education into their activi ties;
- development and publication of the training aids on the Olympic problems and Olympic Education for youth;
- inclusion of methods of Olympic Education into the curricula of the departments of pedagogy of educational institutions.

Using the textbook "Giving Olympic Lessons at School" published by the Academy, each school choses its own model of Olympic Education .

The Regional Olympic Academy of Voronezh contributed into the development of Olympic Education by holding of the sports festivals called "Young Olympionik" and "Olympionik" in the kindergartens and schools respectively.

Six regions (regions of Volgograd, Samara, Nizhny Novgorod, Ulyanovsk, Saratov and Republic of Chuvashia) are under the jurisdiction of the Regional Olympic Academy of the Volga Region created on the basis of the Volgograd State Academy of Physical Education.

I think that one may consider the creation of the Department of Olympic Education which conducts its activities both during the studies and in out-of-studies hours to be the joint unique achievement of both Academies which has no analogues in the world. The Department became the educational and methodological center of Olympic Education in the Volga region.

The programme and training aids on Olympic Education developed at the Department include lectures, seminars and practical training, as well as consolidation of knowledge during the teaching practice at school.

Besides, the Department of Olympic Education promoted researches in the field of Olympism in most regions and republics of the Volga region.

Another striking example of the contribution made by the Regional Academies into Olympic Education is the long-term cooperation between the Regional Academy of West of Russia and School No 39 of the city of Smolensk. The peculiar experience of this school consists in the interdisciplinary ties of most school subjects from history to mathematics involving into Olympic Education on the basis of the SpArt movement which means sports plus spirituality plus art.

The Regional Olympic Academy of the Urals created on the basis of the Urals State Academy of Physical Education gives much consideration to the exchange of experience of Olympic Education. In particular, the scientific conference of young scientists and students named "Olympic Education and Olympic Sports: their history, condition and prospects in the Urals region" was held.

The affiliates of the Regional Olympic Academy of the Urals take an active part in the promotion of Olympic Education. For example, in 1997 the scientific conference "Physical Education and Olympic Education" was held in the Republic of Bashkortostan.

The Regional Olympic Academy of Siberia involves 13 regions - 4 republics, 2 territories, 7 regions as well as 6 autonomous districts.

One of the important tasks of the Regional Olympic Academy of Siberia is the development of Olympic Education including three main items

- to promote the system of knowledge about the Olympic Movement;
- to form a need in Olympic Education;
- to develop abilities and skills corresponding to the Olympic ideal.

The curricula including a special course of studies "Olympic Move ment" were developed in the Regional Olympic Academy of Siberia and the section "Teaching methods of Olympic Education" was included into it. This special course of studies is implemented through the Si berian Association of Physical Education uniting more than 30 physi cal culture educational institutions of different types located in Sibe ria. It gives the graduates of the physical culture educational institu tions an opportunity to teach Olympic Education at school in future.

Finally, the Regional Olympic Academy of the Far East created on the basis of the Khabarovsk State Institute of Physical Education has found its own way in the studying, promotion and further development of humanistic values, principles and ideals of the Olympic Movement in the Far East of Russia. In spite of all this, the geographical location, ethnographic and demographical peculiarities, economic and cultural development of the Far East are taken into consideration.

Implementing the programme of Olympic Education the Regional Olympic Academy of the Far East constantly holds the exhibitions of books and periodicals devoted to the problems of the Olympic Movement.

One of the achievements of the Academy is the annual holding of the original contest "Harmony" for the promotion of the healthy way of life, ideals of Olympism, development of the humanistic sphere of life in the Far East of Russia.

4. Not only Olympic Education

Of course, the activities of the Regional Olympic Academies of Russia does not involve only Olympic Education. Their task is to organize and coordinate the scientific researches in the regions and prepare the leading scientists to the Ail-Russian Conference "Olympic Movement and Social Processes". It was easy to expect this trend of activities when the Academies were founded.

The third trend of activities turned out to be a surprise. It includes the coordination and organization of the system of regional sports competitions. I am pleased to give you two most striking examples.

Apart from Olympic Education the Regional Olympic Academy of South of Russia assumed the peacemaking function of organizing the Games of the Peoples of the Northern Caucasus which have been held from 1994 till 1998 under the patronage of the Russian Olympic Committee.

The Regional Olympic Academy of Siberia in cooperation with the regional administrations, sports committees, administration bodies of education, sports and health formed the bases of the universal system of sports events involving people of almost all ages in the region of Siberia. Among them are the traditional multisports competitions such as International Sibiriada for Children, Parasibiriada, Spartakiades of the Peoples of Siberia, women's sports and art festivals "Siberiana" and "Rossiana", festivals of the national sports "Northern Lights" and "Center of Asia" as well as the competitions in individual sports.

***

In conclusion let me note that the Russian experience of creation and coordination of the Regional Olympic Academies instead of one National Olympic Academy turned out to be the most effective exactly in Olympic Education because it is more closely connected to 89 territories-members of the Russian Federation. I am certain that our experience can be useful to many multinational countries and federal states.

OLYMPIC EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN CHINA. HISTORY, ANALYSIS, METHODOLOGY AND EVALUATION

by Hai REN *(CHN)*

I. Introduction

What is Olympic Education? The question may have various answers. To my understanding, Olympic Education is a process for people to acquire Olympism. Olympism is, according to the Olympic Charter, "a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy found in effort, the educational value of good example and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles"[1].

Based on this idea, Olympic Education may be regarded as

- To comprehensively understanding the educational and cultural values of sport. Sport at present is a term that is misunderstood by many people both inside and outside sport circle. Olympic Education is to make it clear that sport is ended neither in itself nor profits, instead its ultimate goal is to promote harmonious development of human beings with balanced physical and mental qualities;
- To spread sport ethics in order to cultivate sportsmanship among its participants;
- To set up role model of Olympic athletes for youngsters.

Looking at others may help one's own endeavor. What has been done in China may provide some reference for rest members of the Olympic family, especially those developing countries.

The China's Olympic involvement can be traced back as early as 1920s when Mr. Wang Zhenting, a high rank diplomat and sport leader, was selected as the first Chinese IOC member in 1922. However for the following several decades the Olympic affairs had hardly got any serious consideration simply because the nation was engaged

to other more urgent tasks in order to survive under the threat of the foreign powers and later, the conflict with the IOC kept China out of the Olympic family. As the lasting controversy was finally solved in 1979 and China returned to the Olympic family, the concept of Olympic Movement quickly took its root in the most populous nation in the world. A great amount of TV hours, pages and pages of newspapers, magazines are used to cover the items related to Olympics; Each Olympic Day on June 23 has witnessed a large crowd of runners, wearing the T-shirts with the Olympic rings; A sizeable bicycle tournament attended by a million of cyclists, is annually organized under the name of the IOC president who sponsored the event; The Olympic Games are watched by millions of viewers; Olympic champions, not only those home stars, but also those talents of the rest of the world are frequently talked over dinner tables in many Chinese families.

It was in such favorable social context Olympic Education programs emerged as a new field in Chinese sport education from the beginning of 1990s and has increasingly drawn more attention.

II. Patterns for Olympic Education

Olympic Education in China can be divided mainly into two categories, the formal and informal programs. The former, with students as their main target group, is carried out in school settings, while the latter, mainly for the general public, is conducted outside of the school system.

1. Olympic Education in primary and secondary schools

The main target group for Olympic Education is youngsters who are attending the primary and secondary schools, where Olympic education is an integrative part of physical education programs. According the state regulation, physical education is a compulsory subject from the first grade in primary schools up to the senior high schools. So a student, as a rule, attends the PE classes for 12 yeas upon his/her graduation from senior high school. Normally two or three PE classes a week. Although some schools, especially in the rural areas, may have certain difficulties to keep the PE classes in the normal status, great majority of students do regularly attend the required classes.

In these PE programs not only skills of Olympic sports are taught but also certain amount of time is located for classroom teaching in case that bad weather conditions will not allow outdoor activities. The knowledge about Olympic Movement is usually taught on such occasions. Two textbooks, *The Olympic Story* for primary schools and *The Olympic Knowledge* for secondary ones, were turned out in 1993, which provide teachers with proper materials to quench the young people's thirst for Olympics. In addition, a monthly journal, *The Journal of Physical Education in China,* mainly for the primary and secondary school PE teachers, set up a special column to carry some articles on the Olympics, for instance, one can read a series articles to introduce the Olympic Movement in issues of 1994.

It is a custom for all Chinese schools to hold their own school games twice a year, which are attended by the majority of students. Those games provide an excellent occasion for Olympic Education because the games are organized based on the Olympic model and with athletics as their main items. What is unique and helpful to cultivate students' sportsmanship on such occasions certain special sport ethical award are usually given to honor those teams or players behaved with good virtues and in this way to emphasize Olympic spirit and humanism values of sport, instead of the sport performance.

There are totally 169 million children and youngsters are studying in the 866000 ordinary primary and secondary schools in China. The total sum of PE hours is 9-11% of the entire teaching hours of all subjects in primary and secondary schools. So basic Olympic ideas have reached a vast youth population in their early studying years.

2. Olympic Education in high physical educational institutions

Another essential social group that Olympic Education has to cover is the PE major students in the high physical educational institutions because we cannot expect a proper Olympic Education for our children and teenagers if these future PE teachers and sport specialists lack the appropriate knowledge on the Olympic Movement and misunderstand Olympism.

Since 1993 Olympic subjects have been gradually included in the curriculum of Chinese high physical educational institutions of both

independent ones and the affiliated to teachers universities as a part of training the specialized personals in physical education and sport areas. At most such institutions the course *Olympic Movement* is a compulsory or elective subject, offered at the undergraduate level with 36 teaching hours. To provide the students with valid reading materials a textbook, *Olympic Movement,* was worked out by a group of Chinese scholars, that was the first textbook on Olympic subject for university students in this country and the IOC president was delight to honor the book with preamble. The book consists of four parts, starting with description of the historical development of the Olympic Movement, and followed with its structural elements and their functions, then goes to analyze the interactions between the Olympic Movement with the society and finally reviewed the evolutional track of the Olympic Movement in China. To have the book easier understood the IOC's Olympic Charter (Chinese translation) was signed as a reference reading material.

To meet the demand of advanced Olympic studies some institutions like the Beijing University of Physical Education have the Master's and Doctoral programs on Olympic studies. These programs are newly designed and now available for those students who are interested in further investigating the Olympic Movement and international sport. The Master's programs and Doctoral programs are usually requiring three years respectively.

Teaching the Olympic subject in universities requires qualified teaching staffs capable of teaching a broad scope of Olympic knowledge and possessing proper instruction skills, which needs special attention. In 1994 a nation wide workshop for Olympic Movement teachers was held in the Beijing University of Physical Education by the university and the Chinese National Olympic Committee. About 80 teachers got together and carefully studied the contents of the newly published textbook *Olympic Movement* and discussed the teaching methods appropriate to the newly introduced subject.

The Olympic Movement is rich and colorful so correspondingly its teaching methods should be diversified, besides formal classroom lectures, several other approaches like audio and video materials such as slides, films and video tapes are used in order to let students get more "real" image about the Olympic Movement. In addition, to help students get better results in their learning the National Sport

Museum is often used as the second classroom. This museum was set up in 1989 with abundant collections. Its fifth exhibition hall is specially designed to exhibit the Olympics. What students see there is a vivid Olympic history and the unique thing there is that the museum has a lot of precious real items to display the history of China's involvement with the Olympics from 1932 up to the date, which certainly make the Western originated Olympics much closer, just like a old friend, to Chinese young people.

Olympic educational programs for PE major students are constantly updated due to their close relationship to Olympic research individuals and institutions. For instance, the Olympic Research Centre in the Beijing University of Physical Education has carried out a series of research projects, organized seminars and invited experts to give speeches on Olympic culture, current Olympic problems, social and economic impacts of hosting the Olympic Games, proceeded Olympic reform etc.. Among the invited speakers were J. Riodan (UK), J. Hargreaves (UK), R. Jones (UK), J. Andrews (UK), B. Barney (CAN) and the IOC member Mr. Zhengliang He. Obviously the students benefit a lot from various resources from different directions. Clearly, the PE institutions are playing leading role in Olympic Education in China.

3. *Olympic Education programs of Chinese National Olympic Committee (CNOC)*

Collaborating with PE institutions, sport research institutes and the governmental sport administrative agency - the National Sport Bureau, the CNOC hold various workshops, seminars and symposia, with explicit educational purposes. Among them the most important one is the anti-doping seminars for athletes, coaches and trainers. In recent years as Chinese society transformed from the former planning economy system to the marketing oriented one, the sport performances are increasingly connected to profit making and some athletes started trying to reach high performances by unfair means-as a result, drug abuse has become a serious problem, which definitely opposite to Olympism. From the meddle of the 1990s a series of short time period anti-drug educational programs for athletes and the concerned persons have been carried out, some pamphlets published and experts being invited to give lectures, highlighting health damages and moral defects by drug taking.

Workshop to sport administrative staffs are occasionally held, for instance, an Olympic research seminar was held in May 1998 by the secretariat of the CNOC and the Liaison Division of the National Sport Bureau, to let the administrative staffs aware of the unique characteristics of the Olympic Movement.

The Olympic Day run is another activity organized by the CNOC with educational concern. Each year around the June 23rd, the day to celebrate the IOC's birth, a sizeable mass Olympic distance run appears as a showcase of Olympism to popularize the idea that the Olympic Movement does not focus merely on the best sport performance but also in promoting mass sport participation.

In addition, the IOA has various excellent educational programs that provide China with good opportunities to educate its own sport youth and experts. The CNOC send two qualified youngsters each year to attend the IOA's International youth program and Chinese young scholars participated, thanks to the IOA's kindness, the International Post Graduate Seminar since 1995. These young fellows learned a great deal through well-organized programs right at the heart of Olympics birthplace and acted as seeds to spread the Olympic values among their Chinese peers when they returned home. Some of them have already become key figures in Olympic Education in China now.

4. *Olympic Education in non school settings*

Olympic Education should not be carried out only in school settings and limited to sport related persons as above mentioned, it has to spread over the entire society and goes directly to the general public. But due to the great diversity of the general public their Olympic Education should be conducted in informal ways, mainly through the channels of mass media. The vast amount of readers and audiences are exposed to the basic Olympic ideas in various "non-educational" ways. In other words, the Olympic values are disseminated when people entertained themselves by reading newspapers, listening to radio and watching TV programs.

Recent years some regular columns headed with Olympic titles more frequently appeared in various media forms, the programs like the *Five Rings Talk Show* and *International Sport Review* at the Central Television Station have already become the most welcomed programs. A newly emerged tool-Internet, recently has strengthened

education through mass media. Though compared to the entire 1.2 billion population of China the number of the Internet users is still limited, only about 10 million for the time being. But considering just three years ago the number was less than 140 thousands, we cannot underestimate its great potential. Now there are more than 150 thousands domestic websites and those most well known renew the information related to Olympic Movement daily. At present the website of the Beijing 2008 Olympics Bidding Committee is getting popular with its abundant Olympic messages.

Books are the important resources to those having no access to the Internet. In recent years as public interest in the Olympics rose significantly, more publishers came to the area and printed out quite a lot of books on the Olympic themes ranged from the recreational to the serious academic. Among them the People's Sport Press, an old special publisher exclusively for sport works, and the Olympic Press, a publishing house established in 1989, contributed a great deal. The books published are not only those written by Chinese writers but also the translations of foreign works in other languages, like the IOC's Olympic Charter, The International Olympic Committee One Hundred Years, Coubertin's The Olympic Idea and so on. That provides excellent reading materials to casual readers as well as serious learners.

III. Promoting factors to Olympic Education in China

Looking back to the historical process of Olympic Education in China, we can see that Olympic Education mainly started from the beginning of 1990s and before that time there were hardly anything that might properly referred as Olympic Education. There are some reasons which may explain why Olympic Education initiated at such time.

The basic reason is the strong social and economic trend that led the country to integrate into the international community. This same trend also drives the Chinese sport system to join the world sport framework in which the Olympic organizations playing an essential part. So Olympic Education and studies came forth into view is a natural result of China's joining the international community. The following three specific factors facilitated the Chinese Olympic Education :

First, the unsatisfactory performance of the Chinese sport team at the 1988 Seoul Olympics in comparison to their excellent achievement four years earlier in Los Angeles stimulated a serious debate on the sport policy to international sports, including participation in the Olympic Games.

Second, Beijing hosted the 11th Asian Games in 1990, which was a first time for China to organize such a large international sport meeting similar to the Olympic Games. Its success aroused China's ambitious hope to host the Olympic Games and invoked a nationwide attention to the perspective of international sport, including the Olympics.

Third, encouraged by the success of the 11th Asian Games, Beijing decided to bid for the 2000 Olympics in 1991, which was the first time for China to make such a try and stimulated an unprecedented public interest in the Olympic affairs. A questionnaire survey indicated 98.7% of residents in Beijing supporting the city's bidding. During a period of two - year- bidding a series of campaigns were launched to polarizing Olympic knowledge. Although the bidding itself was fruitless, it did lead Chinese know better about the Olympic Movement, Olympism as well as the Olympic Games. Figure 1 shows the ratios between research papers and the introductive articles related to Olympic subjects, indicating the comprehension of Olympics went to deeper.

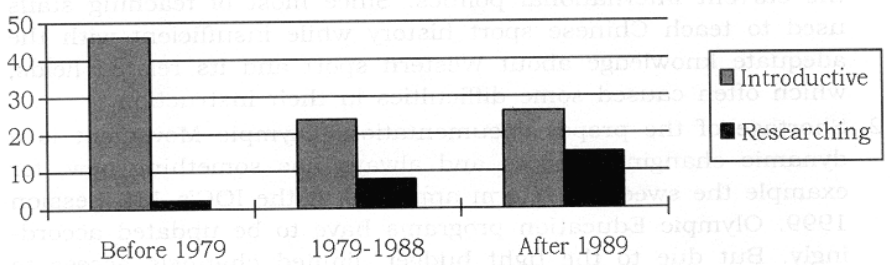


Figure 1. *Comparison of research papers and introductive articles*

Moreover, with more attention given to the Olympic Movement there were the broader and deeper knowledge of Olympic Movement being explored and some issues like Olympic philosophies, organizational structures, operational mechanism and Olympic problems

had been touched. That marked the start for more rational and comprehensive inquiry on the Olympic Movement as the table 1 shows.

Table 1. Content change of Olympic studies in China in different time

Time	Studying Contents
1984	Professionalization, Women and sport
1989	Olympic ideals, Olympic studies, Olympic Movement and economy, Olympics and Education, Women and sport, Professionalization.
1992	Olympic philosophy, Olympics and society, Olympics and culture, Olympic issues (commercialization, professionalization and political interference etc).

IV. Problems of Olympic Education in China

No doubt, Olympic Education in China has made a great progress and more development can be expected but it also faces many problems that demand even more efforts to solve them. The following items listed are the major ones

1. Teaching forces are still weak. Teaching the Olympic subjects re quires a quite broad scope of knowledge, from ancient history to the current international politics. Since most of teaching staffs used to teach Chinese sport history while insufficient with the adequate knowledge about Western sport and its related fields, which often caused some difficulties in their instruction.
2. Shortage of the proper documentation. Olympic Movement is a dynamic changing process and always has something new, for example the sweeping reform approved at the IOC's 110 Session 1999. Olympic Education programs have to be updated accord ingly. But due to the tight budget, limited channels access to relevant recourses and other confined factors it is always a prob lem to keep the Olympic Education with the developmental proc ess of the Olympic Movement. The rapid spreading of Internet in recent years did alleviate a great deal of the situation of lacking documentation and some useful information could be reached through the websites of the IOC, IOA and other organizations, however, to get more systematic resources is still a big problem.

3. Overwhelming academic emphasis shadowed the PE in schools to which Olympic Education attached. It is the Chinese tradition for parents to try their best to provide their children with good edu cation. The fact that only a very small amount of high school graduates, about 4-5% of them in 1980s and 10% two years ago, had the lucky chance to enter universities, consequently the com petition in the university entrance examination is tense. Students have to bear, even from their primary school stage, the extreme pressures from the academic subjects studies such as mathemat ics, physics, chemistry etc, while their PE programs being belittled and somehow suffered. Under such circumstances Olympic Edu cation suffered as well. Now as the Chinese universities enlarged the size of recruitment since last year and the ratio for high school graduates entering universities increased to 15%. The pressure is still there.
4. Mass media overemphasis on the sport performance. It is true that mass media is playing an indispensable role in Olympic Education of the general public. But mass media also attempt to mislead the public and direct their Olympic attention to athletic performances while neglect the ethic and social values of the Olympism. With mass media getting more commercialized in China in recent years, this defect became more striking.

The living models of Olympic athletes have to be enforced. One extraordinary thing that Olympism is trying is to set up Olympic athletes as living example for boys and girls. Because sport stars, especially those Olympians, are always admired even worshiped by millions of youngsters over the world. The image of Olympic athletes has enormous educational power to their admirers. In China we do have good role models of former Olympians like Yaping Deng and Ni Li, the Olympic gold medallists of table tennis and gymnastics, who were not only successful in their athletic career, not only in the their careers after quitted from the sport arena, but also demonstrated excellent personalities that are exactly Olympism intended to cultivate. However there are also many other athletes whose behaviors are quite incompatible to the expected role model and they need to educate themselves first to understand the real meaning of the Olympic Movement.

V. Future trend of Olympic Education in China

Having developed for more than one hundred years, the Olympic Movement has become a main stream in the contemporary international sport world. The Olympic Movement is not merely a set of highly standardized sport competition, it is also a synthetic cultural complex including various patterns of education, philosophy, morality and behavior, which may be different, even conflicting with the regional and national cultures due to its western origin. To obtain the best result Olympic Education has to find its various national models that harmoniously combined the national traditional culture and the Olympism. As the Report by the IOC 2000 Commission to the 110th IOC Session suggests

> *The need for intercultural education has never been greater than in today's globalizing world. At the same time, global interconnection is associated with increasing not decreasing cultural diversity. Olympic Education must in the future become more multicultural as well as intercultural.*
>
> *In the Olympic Movement, valuing "universality" should never mean demanding standardized modernization or cultural homogenization, much less Europeanization or Westernization. Proper Olympic Education seeks to explore and to celebrate cultural diversity in the Olympic Movement.*[2]

As globalization goes deeper how to carefully safeguard the tradition of one's own sport culture at the same time to absorb the sport culture outside has become a big challenge. To combine Olympism with the basic forms of Chinese education in order to get best result is the task that the Chinese sport educators have to deal with in the future.

Notes

1. IOC, Olympic Charter, 1997.
2. Report by the IOC 2000 Commission to the 110th IOC Session.

Bibliography

1. Liu Xiowu ed. Complete Works of Olympic Games, Beijing, People's Sport Press, 1988.

2. Zhang Caizheng ed. Ponderation over Olympic Strategy, Beijing, Olympic Press, 1993.
3. Ren Hai ed. Olympic Movement, Beijing, People's Sport Press, 1993.
4. Xie Yalon & Ren Hai eds. Olympic Research, Beijing, Press of Beijing Univ. of PE. 1994.
5. Tao Xiping ed. Olympic Story, Beijing, Olympic Press, 1993.
6. Tao Xiping ed. Olympic Knowledge, Beijing, Olympic Press, 1993.
7. Liu Changyou ed. Flickering Holy Flame, Press of Northeast Normal University, 1993.
8. Xiong Duying, Introduction to Olympic Movement, Journal of Physical Education in China, 1-6, 1994.
9. He Zhengliang, Hundred Years of the Olympic Movement, Journal of Sport Science. 3. 1997.
10. Sun Baoli, Modern Olympic Movement and Chinese Sport, Journal of Sport Sci ence, 4. 1994.
11. Ren Hai, Olympic Movement at the Joint Point of Two Centuries, Journal of Sport History & Literature, 6. 1996.
12. IOC, Olympic Charter, 1999.
13. Linag Lijuan, He Zhengliang and the Olympism, Beijing, Olympic Press, 2000.

OLYMPIC EDUCATION IN AFRICA

by Marius FRANCISCO *(BEN)*

Summary

I - To tackle this subject we felt it would be advisable

1. *to identify the challenge that Olympism represents for Africa in the 3d millennium. It is indeed important to promote and consolidate Olympism in Africa and its beneficial impact for sport;*
2. *this ambition, however, is unfortunately curbed by the shortage of resources in Africa and, above all, by the other calamities which torment this continent: famine and malnutrition, poverty and des titution, endemic diseases, AIDS, civil war and major deficiencies in the field of education.*

II - Traditional sport and Olympism

The question one could ask is whether Olympism in Africa is moving on virgin ground? This is why a look at the philosophical foundations of traditional sport is highly meaningful since it would provide useful insight on the status of sport in African tradition.

III - Olympic Education in Africa

As regards Olympic Education in Africa, it would seem that its progress only started after repeated appeals on the part of the Olympic Movement's authorities and, in particular, after a directive of the International Olympic Committee.

This directive has encouraged the establishment of a number of National Olympic Academies and I really hope that this trend will continue.

Olympic Education programmes in Africa are of course based on the fundamental objectives of Olympism, as laid down by Pierre de Coubertin himself.

Of course, any successful programme must take into account each country's specificities, the mentality of its people and the inclinations of its society.

We *can only deplore the delay that can be noted in the establishment of the necessary structures (National Olympic Academies, Centres of Olympic Studies) and it is therefore necessary to increase the awareness of National Olympic Committees and to appeal to their governing bodies to show more daring and create their own National Olympic Academy.*

1. Introduction: Olympism in Africa

1.1. Olympism, a major challenge of our times

To begin with, please allow me, Ladies and Gentlemen, to thank President Filaretos for his kind invitation which gives me the opportunity to visit again this wonderful place of which I have so many memories and which always fills me with awe. I also thank him for the opportunity to exchange thoughts with you on a subject which fascinates me and which represents for me one of the major challenges facing Africa is in the 3d millennium: "Olympic Education in Africa".

1.2. Obstacles to the development of Olympism

Africa, do I need to remind you, is a developing country where resources, already scarce in richer continents, are very rare indeed.

Challenges are many and varied. They relate to all possible aspects, sometimes the most unimaginable. Hunger and malnutrition, poverty and destitution, endemic diseases, AIDS, serious deficiencies in the field of education, civil war to quote just a few.

Against all odds, sport is developing, however, and Olympism is gaining ground. How could it be otherwise? The body, this reservoir of human energy has retained its full value here and elsewhere and is therefore entitled to the same care and concern, even though the serious shortage of resources represents an obstacle which it is difficult to overcome.

2. The philosophical basis of traditional sport

Sport existed before the African continent's first contacts with Western civilization, as an important activity linked to production, the pursuit of good health and, above all, let us not forget it, as a factor of moral rectitude, through its bond with traditional divinities. This conception of sport, although it is not practised in a systematic

way, is nevertheless very much present throughout the different stages of life. Sport permeates man's life, expressing a way of living, a philosophy of existence. This is why Olympic philosophy for the African people is what was missing in modern sport to prevent it from becoming a separate activity, unrelated to man's global vision of his present and his future. We should thank Pierre de Coubertin for having united "again, by the bonds of a lawful marriage, former divorcees: the muscle and the mind" who are not and have never been strangers and certainly not enemies.

Let me tell you, that the "harmonious development of man" the "goal of Olympism", according to the Olympic Charter, "the value of good example" and the "respect for universal fundamental ethical principles" through sport, are concepts which may not formulated, but are certainly experienced in the traditional practice of sport in Africa. Traditional sport is not a pastime or an amusement, but a means to educate the body and the mind.

3. Olympic Education in Africa

3.1. An appeal to Olympism

We should pay tribute to the leadership of the Olympic Movement, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) in particular, for having heeded the admonitions of Baron de Coubertin who was convinced that the Olympic Games, his major achievement, could not be separated from Olympism. Together with his peers, he erected the frame of Olympism, an ongoing project which after about 100 years of growth, is still unwrinkled. In the various Olympic Congresses, the statutory sessions of the International Olympic Committee, the Association of National Olympic Committees (ANOC) and the Association of National Olympic Committees of Africa (ANOCA), these institutions are constantly reiterating their appeal to give to Olympism the place that is within the Olympic Movement. Commissions have been set up, at different levels, which will be working hard for the promotion of Olympism.

This whole process has found consecration in the creation of the International Olympic Academy (IOA) in the summer of 1961, thus realizing one of Baron Pierre de Coubertin's dearest wishes. The birth of the International Olympic Academy marked the start of a true crusade for the promotion of Olympism. Its participants, dissemi-

nated throughout the world, are sowing the precious seeds they have picked here in Olympia. Africa has had its share and enthusiastic pioneers have started to work with greater or smaller success. Among these pioneers, who are many, I cannot omit to mention two great proponents of the cause of Olympism in Africa, Colonel Zerguini, Algerian member of the International Olympic Committee and Mr. Mohammed M'zali, Tunisian member of the International Olympic Committee, author of one of the first books that I happened to read, "Olympism today", published in 1984 by the Editions Jeune Afrique. Finally, an IOC directive should be issued to encourage the creation of National Academies.

3.2. The promotion of Olympism in Africa

3.2.1. The case of BENIN

Benin is one of the first African countries who implemented the International Olympic Committee's directive encouraging the establishment of National Olympic Academies.

On 30 October 1985, during his official visit to our country, President Samaranch, made us the honour to inaugurate our National Olympic Academy. We owe our Academy's interesting development to the brilliant interventions of Mr. Conrado Durantez during that first session. He was able to inspire several people to study the history of the ancient games, people who belong to our list of lecturers today. Eversince, sessions are being held regularly, aiming at different target groups: training sports educators, teachers, journalists, sports administrators of national federations, officials of the Ministry of Youth and Sports, etc. One or two lectures on Olympism are also included on the programme of the sports courses funded by Olympic Solidarity.

There is, however, a lot that still has to be done and often those who have been trained leave the position they occupied from which they could work for the promotion of Olympism, a position which had in fact been taken into consideration when they were selected for the training course.

What saddens us today is that although we were able to obtain from our country's government, through patient efforts, its agreement in principle for the introduction of Olympism as a school course

since 1984, the necessary human and material resources did not follow and this shortage has seriously hampered this major project. Our Academy is running, but not at full speed as we would have wished.

3.2.2. *The case of other African countries*

On our initiative and with the help of the IOC's International Cooperation Department, a regional French-speaking seminar on the creation of National Olympic Academies was held at Cotonou on 2-4 December 1997. It was attended by participants from Burkina-Faso, the Ivory Coast, Guinea, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Togo and Benin. Out of the seven countries present at the seminar and which did not yet have their own National Olympic Academy, five have established an NOA: the Ivory Coast, Mali, Niger, Senegal and Togo. The great advantage of this seminar was that it gave participants information about antiquity and modern times on one hand, as well as a model of a legal instrument, on the other, that would help them in the task of creating National Olympic Academies. It might also be necessary to increase the awareness of National Olympic Committees about the challenge that an NOA represents. They should be encouraged to show more daring when tackling this issue. The literature which National Olympic Committees receive from the International Olympic Committee and the International Olympic Academy is a valuable and useful source that can improve their knowledge of Olympism. With the help of this documentation and by developing a synergy with educationists from other disciplines, they will be able to mobilize the necessary human resources for the effective operation of National Olympic Academies. It is of course true that this is an enormous task. But by planning their interventions, by providing information and training to trainees, they will find the way to success. Moreover, the NOC will of course have to elaborate a development policy for its NOA focusing, in particular, on the definition and identification of target groups, based on the country's specificities and make optimum use of available resources.

In 1998, we received good news from the Portuguese-speaking region of Africa. Under the impetus of Mr. Conrado Durantez, Angola, Mozambique, Sao Tome e Principe and Equatorial Guinea joined the list of African National Olympic Academies.

In total, 23 African countries now have their own National Olympic Academy. To the list of countries already mentioned, we should add South Africa, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Congo, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Egypt (the oldest NOA-1981), Kenya, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Tunisia and Uganda.

4. Olympic Education in Africa

4.1. Lack of knowledge about Olympic reality

The whole world is fascinated by the Olympic Games. Athletes and non athletes, administrators and spectators, all attach special importance to this quadrennial festival of world youth. The development of communications, audiovisual techniques in particular, have given a universal dimension to this celebration, unknown to other events.

Beyond the magnificent spectacle, however, very few people are concerned about the real significance of the Games. The enriching of the Olympic Games by means of cultural events, as Pierre de Coubertin had wished, would bring to this celebration an additional dimension that would strengthen its emotional impact. People speak with admiration about Olympic champions, but the awareness ends there for most people. The lessons and symbols which the Games carry are hardly ever deciphered.

4.2. Pedagogical contents of the programme

This is why in Benin we felt that the Olympic Games are the best vehicle for promoting Olympic Education.

The idea is to start from the recent Olympic Games and gradually reveal the great meaning of Olympism. Once you have captured their attention can then go back to the history of the ancient Games in order to trace their origin and then the history of modern Olympism, from Coubertin's time to this day. This approach will include a number of sequences, depending on the age, the background and especially the response of the audience. You should not let certain age groups take you by surprise. Certain people might have learned a lot from suitable reading material, or instructive documentaries.

The ideas of Pierre de Coubertin, his history, his struggles for the creation of the IOC, the revival of the Olympic Games, his teachings, will of course occupy a central place in the education process.

The structures of the Olympic Movement and all its present problems will be presented and discussed.

4.3. *The fundamental objectives*

Olympic Education should be based on some important characteristics as summarized by Professor Norbert Müller, inspired by Coubertin's statements

- the idea of the harmonious development of the individual: Olympic Education means the simultaneous development of the body and the mind;
- the idea of human improvement through excellence, excellence in the sports field, in parallel to scientific and artistic achievements: sporting feats allow the individual to transcend himself, to refuse to accept mediocre results, to optimize all his faculties.
- The voluntary compliance with ethical principles, during the spo rts activity, such as fair-play, equality of opportunities and the will to respect one's commitments: freely accepted discipline sha pes man into the social being he should become.
- The ideal of peace and understanding among people which makes it necessary, even for small things, to practice respect and toler ance: understanding for the cultural differences of other nations and continents, contacts between men facilitated by sports com petitions, becoming acquainted with the culture of the host coun tries of the Olympic Games can promote a rich dialogue conducive to peace in the world. Indeed, Coubertin believed that "every four years, the revived Olympic Games should give to the youth of the world an opportunity for a happy and fraternal encounter, which will gradually erase the ignorance about each other's concerns in which people live, an ignorance that feeds hatred, accumulates misunderstandings and precipitates events in the barbaric sense of a merciless combat."
- To encourage emancipation in and through sport, the idea being of turning it into a school of responsibility. To become emanci pated whilst keeping up with one's time, sensitive to its concerns, living truly and fundamentally the life of a free social man. These are some basic conceptions that should be integrated in our teaching to allow all men to reach the substance of Olympism which is often hidden by the use of words that seem appropriate.

4.4. The *pedagogical outline of Olympic Education*

This outline cannot be easily defined in Africa, since this continent carries the double heritage of its own traditions and those brought by the West which have been transmitted. Confronted with these two traditions the question is which one should it embrace?

This conflict which sociologists have been emphasizing for a long time, should not make us lose our sense of direction. We should contribute, in our own way, as the Olympic Movement calls us to do, to the evolution of the world. Just as the Olympic Games are ready to take in the African disciplines, provided they comply with the conditions of the Olympic Charter, the educational values of Africa can promote progress here and there, in line with the specificities of our society. More precisely, Coubertin's humanism can blend, as it does more often than one would think, with some of our traditional African values.

Indeed, for Coubertin Olympism is "a state of mind. It can accommodate the most diverse formulas and no race or epoch can claim its exclusive monopoly".

Looking at Coubertin's philosophy in the face of modern reality, we will find convergences. And this is precisely what makes it strong and timeless. Whatever the culture to which it refers, such convergences will create the objective conditions for its appropriation.

5. Appeal for the development of National Olympic Academies

At the end of this paper, which was in fact a short plea to encourage people and, more particularly, my African brothers and sisters to respond to the challenge of promoting National Olympic Academies, in spite of the difficulties or obstacles they may meet on the way, I would like to send an urgent invitation to NOCs which have not yet done so, to begin the process of building their own National Olympic Academy. It is only the first step that is difficult. With a little enthusiasm and hard work success will be waiting at the end of the road. And once Olympism has taken root, it will improve relations between sports partners and spread this improvement to society as a whole. There is nothing to lose and much to gain.

Proposed subjects for the discussion groups

Creation of National Olympic Academies

- Definition of Olympic Education
- Objectives, requirement and operation of a National Olympic Academy

Relations between National Olympic Academies, National Olympic Committees and State educational institutions.

Bibliography

1. Mémoires Olympiques, Pierre de Coubertin, Published by the IOC 1975.
2. Olympisme aujourd'hui, Mohamed M'ZALI, Edition Jeune Afrique 1984.
3. L'enfant noir, Cámara Laye, Edition Plon 1954.
4. La Pensée Africaine, Alasane N'DAW, Edition Nea Dakar 1983.
5. Contribution de l'Olympisme à la réhabilitation des valeurs humaines, Professor Herdinand Henri Vignon Sènou, Winner of the 3d National President Samaranch Prize 1988 (unpublished).
6. Civilisation ou Barbarie, Cheikh Anta Diop, Edition Présence Africaine 1981.
7. Histoire Générale de l'Afrique, Afrique Ancienne Tome II, Published under the direction of UNESCO.
8. Newsletter of the International Pierre de Coubertin Committee 1/99.
9. Pierre de Coubertin et les Arts, Lausanne - Switzerland, 4th International NOC - IF Joint Session, 7-14 May 1998.
10. L'Actualité de la Pensée du Baron de Coubertin, Marius Francisco, Edition CNO - Bénin 1985.
11. Introduction à la Philosophie Olympique, Marius Francisco, Edition CNO - Benin 1987.
12. L'Esprit Olympique et son influence sur la Culture Africaine: Identité, Minorités, Moeurs, Racisme, Marius Francisco (IOA Session 1992).
13. Olympia, Conrado Durantez.

THE ACTIVITIES OF THE NATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY OF CONGO[1] FOR THE SPREADING OF OLYMPISM

by Mundala O. TETE *(COD)*

Introduction

Honourable Members of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), distinguished Officials of National Olympic Committees (NOCs), dear colleagues Presidents and Directors of National Olympic Academies (NOAs), Ladies and Gentlemen.

To begin with, it is a great pleasure for me to bring you summer greetings from my fellow citizens of the Democratic Republic of Congo.

I also take this opportunity to appreciate the fruitful cooperation, which exists between the International Olympic Academy (IOA), the International Olympic Academy Participant Association (IOAPA), and our National Olympic Academy.

The National Olympic Academy of the Democratic Republic of the Congo is also honoured for being invited to deliver a lecture at this very prestigious institution.

To each and all of you, who have come to participate in the 5th International Session for Officials of National Olympic Committees and Directors or Presidents of National Olympic Academies, we wish you a wonderful stay in the sacred land of Olympia and a happy return journey home.

My today's lecture is entitled: **"The activities of the National Olympic Academy of Congo for the spreading of Olympism".** I have divided the latter in four parts. In the first part, I provide you with some background information to the concept of Olympic Education from ancient through modern times.

The second part deals with the role of both the International Olympic Academy and National Olympic Academies in the teaching and dissemination of Olympism as the philosophy underlying the Olympic Movement of the modern era.

The third part relates to the activities of our Academy in the spreading of Olympism. And finally, the fourth part deals with my lecture conclusions.

Olympic Education from ancient through modern times

We are all aware that the concept of Olympic Education is not new. Looking back at the history of Ancient Greece, we learn that although there were different ways of preparing young people for their future role in the Greek society, basic education was aimed at producing a "Kalos Kagathos"[2] that is a Greek citizen who was physically, morally, and intellectually balanced.

To achieve this important aim, it was the State's duty to see that young men are submitted to daily physical exercises. In addition, they (young men and not women) had "to be in a position to read the laws and the poetry in order to draw examples and be taught from narration of heroic events and the deeds of the heroes."

Such a concept of education was fully supported by philosophers such as Plato, Aristotle and poets, physicians, magistrates, legislators, trainers, coaches, and all the Greek people of those days.

The beneficial influence of daily physical exercises on the body and mind as well as on other virtues of human characters lead Greek States to compete in the building up of gymnasia and palaestra which also became sources of inspiration for artists and arena where Greek people could debate and listen to sophists such as Hippias.

Participation in the Ancient Olympic Games held at Olympia and in other Panhellenic games, namely the Pythian, Nemean, and Isthmian Games[3], gave a golden opportunity to the young Greeks trained in gymnasia and palaestra to show not only how physically they had developed but also the virtues of excellence, humility, honesty, tolerance, understanding, fair-play, respectfulness, they have acquired trough their training.

Indeed, the extinction of Olympic Games by the Roman Emperor Theodosius the Great in 395 A.D.[4] brought also an end to the best educational system ever conceived in Antiquity.

About fifteen centuries after extinction of the Olympic Games, distinguished peoples such as the Greek poet Panagiotis Soutsos,

the Statesman Ioanni Coletti, and the Benefactor Evangelis Zappas, Englishmen Robert Dover and Doctor William P. Brookes, and the Frenchman Baron Pierre de Coubertin who was the last in the series, tried to revive the Ancient Olympic spirit by organising the Olympic Games.

Unlike other revivers of the games, however, de Coubertin had among other merits, that of making these available to all countries around the world[5]. In addition, De Coubertin had a dream of setting up an institution - rather an intellectual centre which would have as its main purpose the teaching and the dissemination of his philosophy of Olympism.

Such an idea was discussed[6] as early as April 1927 with eminent scholars and personalities such as Jean Ketséas (then permanent representative of the International Olympic Committee for Greece), Professor Ioannis Chrysafis (Jean Ketséas old athletics coach), Mr. Argyres, the then Minister of National Education, and Dr. Carl Diem (then Rector of the Cologne Institute of Sports).

Referring to ancient times, de Coubertin wanted to use sport and physical activities as a way of meeting the challenge of educating young people for a better life - a life of excellence, joy, tolerance, fair-play, humility, and international understanding.

Although de Coubertin[7] did not live to see his dream to become true, with co-ordinated efforts by Jean Ketséas, the International Olympic Committee, and the Hellenic Olympic Committee, the International Olympic Academy was finally created to fulfil de Coubertin's will.

Role of the International Olympic Academy and National Olympic Academies in the teaching and dissemination of Olympism

The aims of the International Olympic Academy as laid down by its regulations are "to create in Olympia an international centre which will be entrusted with the preservation and promotion of the Olympic spirit, the study and implementation of the educational and social principles set forth by the Ancient Greeks and the revivers of the modern Olympic Movement on the initiative of Baron de Coubertin."

The International Olympic Academy uses a great variety of approaches to fulfil its aims. The most classical ones are seminars,

conferences, lectures, and discussion during which different groups exchange their views and make recommendations on topics and issues dealt with.

As part of his teaching strategies, the International Olympic Academy produces under the IOC sponsorship, the "blue book" series publications or Reports which I consider to encompass some of the most valuable information and analysis on the Olympic Movement past and present.

With the setting up of the International post-graduate seminar on Olympic Studies since 1993, I am convinced that the International Olympic Academy has acquired a new dimension in the teaching and dissemination of Olympism. Having myself participated in this course, I found it very interesting both from its contents and methodology.

In regard to the contents of the postgraduate course, the latter has been structured in such a way that it provides participants with the needed solid background in the historical foundations of Ancient and Olympic Movements[8].

In addition, through scholarly analysis of burning issues facing the Olympic Movement such as gigantism, commercialisation of the Olympic Games, doping, amateurism vs. professionalism, corruption, and sport violence, among others, participants are well prepared by professional and university professors to make a critical and constructive analysis of the Olympic Movement.

From the methodological viewpoint, besides seminars which are held by specialists drawn from various scientific fields, the use of the project teaching approach or method enhances learning of Olympism and the Olympic Movement in that participants are provided with the opportunity to carry research and present a paper in their area of interest.

The sightseeing programme of historical sites which has been associated with the international post-graduate seminar on Olympic Studies is another efficient way of learning about Olympism and the Olympic Movement through monuments, and other archaeological objects and discoveries.

The International Olympic Academy does not fulfil its tasks only through the transmission of cognitive learning. The International Olympic Academy stands as one of those unique places around the

world where peoples of different languages and cultural backgrounds gather for many days to eat, dance, speak to each other, and play together in the name of the Olympic principles of peace and international understanding. This, I think is one of the best ways of living Olympism in behavioural terms.

In its efforts to disseminate Olympism, the International Olympic Committee has encouraged National Olympic Committees to establish local institutions, namely - National Olympic Academies. To date, about 106 National Olympic Academies have been established.

Like the International Olympic Academy, local Academies use a great variety of methods to teach and disseminate Olympism among the youth and adults. The basic ones are conferences, lectures, seminars, and discussion groups.

In some countries, these teaching strategies are supplemented by radio and television programmes, film projection, sightseeing, art exhibition, poetry and literature contests, research undertakings and publications, among others.

There are countries which adopt, among other models, a "mini-IOA" model, an "itinerary -Academy" model, a "youth camp" model, or an "Olympic journey" model to convey the Olympic message to a given targeted group.

It is beyond the scope of this paper to make an exhaustive description and analysis on how National Olympic Academies go about fulfilling their tasks. What we shall know, however, is that running a National Olympic Academy is costly. It requires a lot of financial, material, as well as human resources, which every country cannot afford.

What is needed, I think, is an overall development plan of all National Olympic Academies which would enable the latter to efficiently play the role for which they have been entrusted with.

The National Olympic Academy of Congo and the spreading of Olympism

Despite lack of an overall plan for establishing National Olympic Academies, our National Olympic Committee[9] took the important decision of setting up our Academy in November 1994, year during which the centenary of the Modern Olympic Movement was celebrated.

The event was highlighted by an important ceremony during which the thirteen members of the National Olympic Academy Executive Board[10] were sworn in. The ceremony was attended by government officials, the UNESCO representative, sport officials, trainers, coaches, and athletes, and the public in general.

In accordance with the National Olympic Academy mission of contributing in the diffusion of Olympism at the national level, our Academy was called upon by the National Olympic Committee to use the "Olympic Forum" formula to carry its task. The latter consisted of "holding monthly discussion on a chosen topic or issue relating to either sport, physical education, and the Olympic Movement or any combination of them".

Following the "Olympic Forum" formula, the Academy was able to schedule four lectures between November and December 1994 entitled as follow

- **"The future of physical and traditional activities in Zaire"**[11] (Le devenir des activités physiques et traditionnelles au Zaire*)*
- **"Training technical staff in Zaire: A case study of football"** (La formation des cadres techniques au *Zaire:* le cas du football)
- **"Talent detection and their development plan"** (La détection des talents et planification de leur évolution)
- **"Importance of sport for all** " (L' importance du Sport pour Tous)

The above mentioned lectures were to be delivered indistinctly to all groups, using French as the lingua franca, and the ex-cathedra teaching method as a way of transmitting the Olympic message.

Following participation of the National Olympic Academy Director at the third International postgraduate course held here in Olympia in 1995, a new approach was conceived to the Olympic Education programme and teaching method.

Instead of choosing any topic to teach Olympism, we gave priority to the basic studies of the historical foundations of the Olympic Movement past and present **as a sine qua non** before dealing with special issues.

Before embarking on such a programme, however, we carried out a survey of a randomised sample of eighty sport officials and executives, coaches, trainers, and athletes in order to measure their cognitive level about Olympism and the Olympic Movement.

In doing so, we asked questions such as - what do you know about the year 776 B.C.? What does the concept of "Kalos kagathos" mean to you? Who was Baron Pierre de Coubertin and how does he relate to Modern Olympic Movement? Name at least three persons who have presided over the International Olympic Committee since 1896 as well as their nationality? What are the Olympic Movement symbols and what are their meanings?

Analysis of collected data showed us that 91% of the sample surveyed (including members of the National Olympic Committee) had only an approximate knowledge of Olympism and the Olympic Movement.

These results led the National Olympic Academy Executive Board to take the decision of writing a series of basic lectures which would give basic information on some important aspects of the Olympic Movement past and present.

The lecture had to be delivered to targeted groups and on special occasions such as the Olympic Day, the Youth Day, and the Olympic Solidarity technical courses. The following basic lectures were written[11] as part of the new approach in the diffusion of Olympism in the country

- **"The role of the National Olympic Academy of Zaire in the diffusion of Olympic Education"** (La diffusion de l' Education Olympique: quel rôle pour l' Académie Nationale Olympique du Congo?)
- **"Olympic Games of Antic Greece: birth, organisation and ex tinction".** (Les jeux olympiques de 1' Antiquité grecque: genèse, organisation et extinction)
- **"Women and the Olympic Movement: history, outcomes, and perspectives"** (La femme et le Mouvement Olympique: historique, bilan et perspectives)
- **"The Olympic Charter as the managing instrument for the Modem Olympic Movement"** (La Charte Olympique en tant qu' instrument de gestion du Mouvement Olympique Moderne)
- **"Some distinctive symbols of the Modern Olympic Movement"** (Les signes distinctifs du Mouvement Olympique Moderne)
- **"Trainers, spectators, sport officials, and athletes' de calogues"** (Les decalogues des spectateurs, entraineurs, des offi ciels et des athlètes)

- **"Olympic Solidarity and sport development in the Congo"** (La Solidarité Olympique et le développement du sport congolais)
- **Sport violence: what therapeutic?"** (La violence dans le sport: quelle thérapeutique?

In addition to basic lectures, the Academy regularly participates in radio and television sport programmes to discuss issues relating to the Games and the historical development of the Olympic Movement.

Besides lecturing, our Academy has also an important task of briefing and advising participants to the International Olympic Academy sessions. Their personal "Olympic" experience and encounters with other participants at Olympia and elsewhere has always provided an opportunity to learn more about Olympism and the Olympic Movement.

Despite environmental constraints, all activities undertaken by our Academy have been very much appreciated by various local and professional groups, most of whom have encouraged us to provide them with more lectures, seminars, conferences, and publications on various aspects of the Olympic Movement.

Our Academy is also pleased to have been invited on many an occasion to participate in other National Olympic Academies' sessions. Unfortunately, we haven't been able to do so, mainly because of lack of sponsorship. We hope that the IOA in conjunction with the International Olympic Committee will make the necessary arrangements to facilitate contact between National Olympic Academies.

Our Academy will indeed continue to do the best it can to contribute to the spreading of Olympism through its Olympic Education programme but as we said earlier, only an overall development plan of National Olympic Academies can help in achieving more satisfactory results.

Conclusion

If I have to draw a conclusion of my lecture, I am bound to say that the future of our movement depends very much on the kind of Olympic Education young people as well as adults are exposed to. So let all of us (sport officials and executives, trainers, coaches, athletes, sport decision-makers, and the public in general) be serious

about it because there is no greater evil than lack of Olympic Education .

The International Olympic Academy and all National Olympic Academies shall be in the words of the late Otto Szymiczek *"invaluable investments for the construction of a better and more peaceful world as we step into the third millennium"* (emphasis is from the author).

Suggested questions

- How should the overall development of National Olympic Acade mies be carried out and by whom?
- What should be the best mechanisms of co-operation between National Olympic Academies in the "South" and those in the "North"?
- How to introduce a chair of Olympism at the University?
- Is it possible to conceive a programme of Olympic Education that is adapted to an African setting?

What do you think is the best method of teaching Olympic Education ?

Notes

1. The Democratic Republic of the Congo
2. Education for a "Kalos Kagathos" was differently conceived by Greek States ac cording to the environment, nature, and the attitude of the two dominating races, namely the Dorians, and the Ionians. The Dorians were trained to endure hard ship; they were inflexible, rough and warriors and used to plain living, whereas the Ionians were trained to be wild, refined with flexible body and mind.
3. The Games were respectively held in Delphi, Nemea and Corinth.
4. After being converted to Christianism, Theodosius the Great deceded to extinguish the Games because he considered them as a pagan festival.
5. From thirteen countries who participated in the games of the first Olympiad of the modem era in Athens in 1896, there were 197 nations during the games of the XXVI Olympiad in Atlanta in 1996.
6. It was here in Ancient Olympia that de Coubertin who was on a visit to see the erection of a stele by the Greek Government in his honour revealed his intention of establishing an intellectual centre to support his work.
7. Baron Pierre de Coubertin died in Switzerland on 2nd September 1937. A few months before he passed away, he wrote a letter to the German government stress ing the need to establish an Olympic Study Centre.
8. The postgraduate course duration is forty-five days ; it is divided in four parts: ancient history, modem history, anthropology and sociology, and philosophy.
9. The National Olympic Committee was created in 1968.

10. The National Olympic Academy Executive Board is composed of University profes sors, sport officials, trainers, coaches and school teachers.
11. Former name of the country between 1965 and 17th May 1997.

Bibliography

1. Battle H. Charles. "Réflexion sur les Jeux Olympiques du centenaire à Atlanta," in Rapport de l'Académie Internationale Olympique, Trente-Septième Session, Suis se, Lausanne: Comité International Olympique, 1997, pp. 163-168.
2. Comité International Olympic. Charte Olympique. Suisse, Lausanne, 1997.
3. Diem Carl. "The Olympic idea", in International Olympic Academy Report, Second Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, 1962, pp. 89-110.
4. Duerkop Diana. "The task and wide aims of a National Olympic Academy", in International Olympic Academy Report, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Oly mpic Committee, May 1992, pp. 99-105.
5. Filaretos Nikos. "Introductory lecture on the International Olympic Academy and its activities", in International Olympic Academy Report, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, May 1992, pp. 13-18.
6. Filaretos Nikos. "The educational requirements of Olympism, its present philoso phical dimension and commercialisation in sport", in International Olympic Acad emy Report, Thirty-Second Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, 1992, pp. 44-48.
7. Georgiadis Kostas. "Idées de Pierre de Coubertin sur la renaissance des Jeux Olympiques modernes", in Rapport de l'Académie Internationale Olympique, Trente -Huitième Session, Suisse, Lausanne: Comité International Olympique, 1998, pp. 45-58.
8. Jobling Ian. "An Olympic journey", in International Olympic Academy Report, Thirty-Six Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, 1996, pp. 83-99.
9. Landry Fernand. "Olympic Education and international understanding: challenge or cultural hegemony?" in the International Olympic Academy Report, Twenty-Fifth Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, 1985, pp. 139-155.
10. Mohamed Zerguini. "Olympic Education as a contributing factor to international understanding", in International Olympic Academy Report, Twenty-Fifth Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, 1985, pp. 125-138.
11. Nikolaou W. Lambis. "The Olympic spirit in Ancient Greece and in modern inter national society", in International Olympic Academy Report, Twenty-Fifth Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, 1985, pp.45-53.
12. Paleólogos Cleantis. "Birth, establishment, and development of Olympic Games" in International Olympic Academy Report, Third Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, 1962, pp. 131-137.
13. Paleólogos Cleantis. "Historic course and extinction of Olympic Games", in Inter national Olympic Academy Report, Second Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: Inter national Olympic Committee, 1962, 137-144.

14. Paleólogos Cleantis. "Preparation for Olympic Games in Ancient Greece", in Inter national Olympic Academy Report, Tenth Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: Inter national Olympic Committee, 1970, pp. 71-82.
15. Parry Jim. "Olympic Education programmes and ways of promotion through NOCs, NOAs, and IFs", in International Olympic Academy Report, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, May 1992, pp. 66-77.
16. Powell T. John. 'The Contribution of the International Olympic Academy to Inter national Understanding", in International Olympic Academy Report, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, pp. 89-99.
17. Serpieris. "Thirty six years of International Olympic Academy: Aims and contribu tion to the Olympic Movement" In International Olympic Academy Report, Thirty-Six Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, 1996, pp. 35-40.
18. Szymiczek Otto. "The mission and the educational programme of the National Olympic Academies", in International Olympic Academy Report, Twenty-Fifth Ses sion, 1985, pp. 244-253.
19. Szymiczek Otto. "The Olympic philosophy in Antiquity and in our time", in Inter national Olympic Report, Twelfth Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, 1972, pp. 44-54.
20. Vialar Paul. "L'homme et son œuvre", in International Olympic Academy Report, Second Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee, 1962, pp. 72-88.
21. Yalouris Nikos. "L'ancienne Elis: berceau des Jeux Olympiques", in Rapport de l'Académie Internationale Olympique, Trente-Septième Session, Suisse, Lausanne: Comité International Olympique, 1997, pp. 45-57.
22. Yalouris Nikos. "Youth in the Olympic Games of Antiquity", in International Olym pic Academy Report, Twenty-Seventh Session, Switzerland, Lausanne: Internatio nal Olympic Committee, 1987, pp. 36-43.
23. Young David. "A new history of Modern Olympic revival (Zappas, Vikelas, Couber tin)", in the International Olympic Academy Report, Switzerland, Lausanne: the International Olympic Committee, May 1992, pp. 25-33.

OLYMPIC EDUCATION: A CANADIAN PERSPECTIVE

by Angela SCHNEIDER *(CAN)*

De Coubertin's vision for sport must, and should, remain as vital today, when we enter the next millennium, as it was a century ago. The Olympic family has gone astray in the pursuit of this ideal and we have fallen short of the vision. Yet the vision itself retains all the vitality and truth necessary to guide us toward reform.

The Olympic Movement has a unique position within global sport and also within global society. The IOC, therefore is looked to as the guardian of the ideals of modern sport globally. The obligations that such a position imposes are enormous, this role has, and still does, present opportunities for leadership within the international community.

The two most serious moral crises facing the IOC and the Olympic Movement (bid cities scandals and doping scandals) have the potential to destroy that vision entirely. One problem is at the guardian level and one is at the athlete level. These forms of problems do not occur in isolation. The primary moral agents, however, are the IOC members and the Olympic athletes. They need to work together closely. All those who love and follow sport, all those who still believe in the vision, for themselves and for their children, are watching and waiting in hope of real change.

Reform of an institution as crucial and special as the IOC, and change in the Olympic Movement, are not a simple matter of applying an existing model or formula to generate "right" answers. Rather, what is essential is a process for reaching justifiable recommendations and fair decisions.

The process requires openness to external review and criticism, and a willingness to hear a diverse array of voices. It requires careful balance between the actions required to protect the Olympic Games as a great festival and those required to nurture Olympism as a Movement.

There has already been a large contribution to the IOC reform process from many experts. However, there is an enormous amount of expertise that remains untapped by the IOC and the Olympic Movement. Many are willing to share their expertise and eager to express their ideas about an organization and institution that means a great deal to them. Many believe that the focus for reform must be on ethics, an ethics derived from athlete-centredness and Olympic ideals.

In one capacity, the IOC is a business; it owns the Games and the rings and it needs to manage that business with prudence and due diligence. But that management can never be the complete story, because members of the IOC are guardians of a public trust. Olympism is a set of ideals - a way of life. While the IOC can never own those ideals, they can certainly nurture, protect and promote them. In doing so they will encourage the Olympic way of life. The guardianship of the Olympic Movement and the Olympic Games has been intrusted to the IOC. That guardianship is an ample task with unparalleled potential.

Tinkering with structures, changing organizational architecture, and developing new agencies can only be a part of the answer. A genuine cultural and ethical shift must occur in governance. Within the IOC, there must be a movement away from exclusiveness and control, and towards openness and accountability. Within sport, there must be a transition from a destructive lust to win at all costs to a constructive desire to enjoy the process of competing and testing oneself fairly against others who are also doing the same. Athletes and coaches, and all who love and support them, must remember that one cannot win without competition, a competition without fairness is not a competition, and a win without fairness is no victory at all. And those outside the Olympic Movement, the critics, must change too - from a position of harping negatively to engaging in a constructive and substantial dialogue for change. Herein lies our greatest hope.

This paper was designed to help enable Olympic Educators assist the IOC to reaffirm its founding principles and thereby reassert if leadership role. The dangers of failure to implement timely and significant reform to the IOC, are great. There will be a loss of momentum in sports development especially in poorer countries; loss of

leadership in sports development; corruption of sport through a continuation of drug use; and an increased politicization of sport as governments attempt fill the leadership vacuum created by the loss of IOC leadership.

This paper was written in a spirit of collaboration and support for the goals and aspirations of the Olympic Movement and Olympic Educators. The goal of Olympic Educators should be to enable the Olympic Movement to live up to its promise to make the world a better place through sport. If justice and sport are to exist side by side, it will be through the practical enactment of Olympism's highest ideals.

The Values and Ethics Base of the Olympic Movement

Background

From their inception, the Olympic Games and the Olympic Movement have been intended as vehicles for social change. Pierre de Coubertin's grand vision was that sport could contribute to the personal and moral development of young people and that a great international sporting festival could bring the world together in peace and celebration. In its one hundred and five year history, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) has promoted sport, expanded participation and provided outstanding international competition. The ideals and aspirations of the Olympic Movement still resonate and the IOC, through the Olympic Charter, still expresses these noble sentiments.

Given the current circumstances, many believe the IOC has failed to live up to its ideals. The recent scandals concerning bribery and the on-going tragedy of the use of illicit drugs seem to indicate the movement has lost its way and forgotten its purpose. The purpose of this paper is to encourage Olympic Educators to help the IOC to lead the Olympic Movement back in the right direction, in keeping with the values underpinning the founding principles of the Olympic Charter. The emphasis on ethics and values suggested in this paper is an important step supports of the Olympic Movement may wish to take towards helping the IOC restore systemic integrity and regain world respect.

Athletes commit tremendous time and energy to the pursuit of the Olympic dream. For most athletes that commitment and dedi-

cation is motivated, not by the desire for external rewards or pay, but simply by a love of sport for its own sake. Athletes pursue excellence. They push themselves beyond their limits; they try, and when they fail, they try again. It is this kind of heroic dedication and the suspense of seeing who prevails in the Olympic contests that draws and holds the spectators. The world watches as its greatest athletes push the human body and spirit to pursue human excellence. People are drawn to this great Olympic Movement because of the athletes and the Olympic values they live and embody.

Olympic athletes affirm an oath at the start of every Olympic Games. The Oath says

"I promise that we shall take part in these Olympic Games, respecting and abiding by the rules which govern them, in the true spirit of sportsmanship, for the glory of sport and the honour of our teams".

The athletes' pledge is to go beyond merely following the rules of sport, to strive for something higher - true "sportsmanship" (for men and women alike) - for in this lies honour.

Codes of conduct and rules governing conduct indicate the barest minimum below which one cannot fall, and for which one can be penalized. We should not need a rule for athletes that says, "Do not cheat, "nor should we need a rule for IOC members that says, "Do not take bribes". Unfortunately, we live in a less than perfect world. There is thus the practical requirement that we have both rules and methods of enforcing them so that we can remove those people who seek to pervert sport, or the Olympic Movement, for their own selfish ends. In this paper, the logical consequences of taking Olympic values and ethics seriously are explored.

We are really after something more in Olympic Education initiatives. The good sport lives by a code of honour. This code of honour expresses a set of ideals worth striving for, not just a set of rules only to be obeyed only to avoid a penalty. The Olympic Movement is a public trust. It is a trust established to promote the ideals of Olympism. How well the guardians of the Olympic Movement discharge their responsibility to the public they serve will be measured by how well they live up to Olympic ideals.

There is also a self-interested motivation for the IOC to protect Olympism, for it is Olympism that gives the Olympic Games their special status. Most sports have world championships and the public

views those world championships in order to see excellent sport. But the Olympic Games are not just multi-sport world championships. When asked, the world public identifies Olympic values of excellence, dedication, fair play and international peace as key ingredients of the Olympic Games. The Olympic Games command the sponsorship they do because the public supports the Games. The Olympic rings connote a higher set of ethics and values and this is what the public support is based on. If the Olympic Movement loses support, if the public comes to see Olympic values mocked by the practices of the gatekeepers, then the sponsorship value of the Olympic Games will diminish. Preservation of Olympic ideals is therefore not just the right thing to do, but it is also the best way of preserving the financial success of the Games.

Olympic Education should point toward the practical outcome of living the Olympic ideals. These Olympic ideals find their expression in the Fundamental Principles in the Olympic Charter.

The Fundamental Principles of Olympism

The Fundamental Principles of Olympism are a mixture of ideals, statements of historical fact and claims to authority. The ideals, in Principles 2, 3, 6, and 8 are as follows

Principle 2

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

Principle 3

The goal of Olympism is to place everywhere sport at the service of the harmonious development of man[1], with a view to encouraging the establishment of a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of human dignity. To this effect the Olympic Movement engages, alone or in cooperation with other organizations, and within the limits of its means, in actions which promote peace.

Principle 6

The goal of the Olympic Movement is to contribute to building a peaceful and better world by educating youth through sport practised without discrimination of any kind and in the Olympic spirit, which requires mutual understanding with a spirit of friendship, solidarity and fair play.

Principle 8

Sport is a human right. Every individual must have the possibility of practising sport in accordance with his or her needs.

The Essential Values in the Fundamental Principles

We can reduce those principles to some simple value words. In the Olympic Ideal, the person is

> Well-rounded
> Developing
> Striving

He or she exhibits

> Leadership
> Ethics
> Fair Play

Treats others with

> Dignity
> Respect
> Friendship

In a community which is at

> Peace and where
> Sport is a right.

These are indeed lofty ideals. They constitute the basis of what should be the "Honour Code" of the Olympic Movement. They leave much unsaid, but, if applied, they would point the way forward to reforming the IOC to make it worthy of its goals, its founders, the athletes who contribute so much, and the public it ultimately serves. An analysis of some of these ideals suggests the steps for putting the values into practice. By way of example, the notion of "respect" can be analyzed.

The Special Notion of "Respect"

Putting values into practice means moving from slogans and buzzwords to concrete actions. That means understanding the ideals and transforming them into enforceable practice. It is worth identifying the critical notion of respect. Respect for persons requires taking their interests and needs seriously and being prepared to think from their point of view. Respect is inclusive and values the contributions of all participants, including those who offer constructive criticism.

Respect for persons means that the practice of Olympic Sport will allow participants to grow as athletes and as people. Respect requires that athletes' rights to fair treatment, due process and privacy are exhibited in the setting and enforcement of rules.

Respect for sport is the foundation of fair play and respectful treatment of other athletes. Having respect for the game means fair competition, as all participants strive for excellent sport and the well-played game. Respect for other athletes means seeing them as co-questers for good sport, rather than as enemies to be vanquished.

Respect for the Olympic Movement means honouring its values and traditions. It means making the best decisions possible in pursuing the Movement's interests. Stewardship of the Olympic Movement requires protecting Olympic values and being responsible for monitoring and evaluating how well they are put into practice. Unfortunately, divergent values frequently come into competition, a decision to commit resources to one value will necessarily drain those resources from others. Reconciling these tensions, striking the right balance, is the ultimate challenge for the guardians of the Olympic Movement.

Olympic Tensions

Since its beginning, the Olympic Movement has embodied important tensions. Tensions exist between participation (or sport for all) and sporting excellence; the pursuit of peace and national teams in competition; friendship and rivalry; Olympism as a Movement and the Olympic Games as a festival; and, finally, between amateur and commercial values. One essential role of the steward is to negotiate and balance those competing values.

Olympism is a set of values embodied in the Olympic Movement, which is a movement for social change. The Olympic Games and Olympic rings are commercial properties owned by the IOC. The IOC stands in a management role to the Olympic Games and the Olympic rings, but they are stewards of the Olympic Movement. There is a tension between the actions required to protect *a* commercial property and those required to nurture a movement.

The balance of competing values requires judgement, reason, a careful understanding of the competition and a willingness to make defensible choices. It is here that the role of accountability is crucial. In any decision, there are likely to be winners and losers - those who benefit and those who do not. Accountability ensures that all parties to a decision can see why and how the decision was made.

The Culture of Accountability

Accountability is exhibited in more than just structures and formal processes. Democratic accountability is found in the requirement that decision-makers account for their decisions at the ballot box. Formal accountability is found in structures of reporting and responsibility. But a culture of accountability goes beyond that. In a public trust, the culture of accountability requires that decisions are made and communicated with specific reference to the values and interests of the trust itself. The IOC is accountable, when its decisions are demonstrably in the best interests of the Olympic Movement.

The concept of accountability is closely tied to the idea of stakeholders. A stakeholder is any group or individual who has a legitimate interest in the outcome of a decision. Accountability to stakeholders requires an understanding of stakeholder interests and a willingness to explain decisions.

Athletes are the primary stakeholders in the Olympic Movement and Games. Without athletes there would be no Games and no Movement. Sponsors have important interests, as do national governments and sport-governing bodies, all of which are clearly stakeholders. But beyond these, all those who love and follow sport, all those who dream of excellence for themselves and their children, all those who feel that sport can teach important lessons of character and integrity, all of these people are stakeholders too.

The IOC is accountable when it is prepared to show openly why a decision is made to award the Games to one city rather than another; or, when it explains the commitment of more resources to one programme rather than to another; and how its decisions best furthers the objectives of the Olympic Movement.

The culture of accountability requires openness. The Olympic Movement belongs to the people of the world. We, the people, are its owners. As Olympic Educators, we are stakeholders in this social movement, people can know their interests are being handled well only if they can scrutinize the activities of the movement and its stewards. As guardians of the Olympic Movement, the IOC must be answerable to their public. As Olympic Educators, we must openly evaluate and constructively support the movement and its guardians.

Note

1. For much of its history "man" for the IOC has meant "men" rather than "men and women" or "humankind". De Coubertin initially forbade women athletes. Great strides have been made to improve the women's programme at the Olympic Games, but much remains to be done to right the wrong of discrimination against women in the IOC itself.

PEDAGOGICAL, METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH AND EVALUATION OF THE "OLYMPIC EDUCATION" PROGRAMME

by Nelly ARVANITI *(GRE)*

The basic feature of today's socio-economic conditions within which we are asked to create the school of the future, is of course technological change and the redistribution of production.

In view of these social and cultural changes which European but also other countries around the world are witnessing, we would say that our modern world is influenced by the following parameters which also have an impact on education

- new forms of employment
- growing environmental awareness
- emergence of new democratic states
- growing intercultural needs
- cultural and economic globalization
- violence phenomena
- use of drugs by young people for fun
- new forms of communication
- a strongly internationalized youth culture

In the face of this reality, in a multinational and multicultural society that has become a melting pot in which moral values melt and working conditions, the quality of life, cultural goods become alienated, modern school needs to raise issues related to social, moral and humanitarian values, building a different perception of the world, based on acceptance, understanding and cooperation, within the context of cultural diversity.

Almost all European countries want educational programmes to play a part in the handling of social phenomena and problems and to include important topical issues such as health, the environment, the social behaviour of young people.

As a result, issues related to health and the environment, questions related to the promotion of a country's historic and cultural values,

alongside universal moral and social principles, should be part of the modern school curriculum in every country.

In Greece, these last ten years, an important number of primary and secondary schools, under the auspices of the International Olympic Academy have dealt with the various aspects of Olympic and sports education. The Olympic Ideals, the Olympic Philosophy and the Olympic Movement have been studied and explored by schoolchildren all over the country. The purpose of these Olympic programmes is to provide knowledge and information about the Olympic Games, develop a critical attitude and awareness as regards the problems of the Olympic Movement and cultivate a positive approach and attitude towards the Olympic Ideals.

Their implementation contributes to the attainment of basic (Olympic and educational objectives) such as

- understanding the spirit of the ancient and modern Games
- awareness of Olympic Ideals among schoolchildren
- promotion of the positive and educational aspects of the Olympic Games (fair play, fraternity between people) and critical approach to negative effects (violence, foul language, anabolics)
- the parallel development of the body and the mind, as a basic condition of human life
- promoting the contribution of fair-play for personal values and goals related to the organization of the Olympic Games by our country
- educating children about the preparation and staging of the 2004 Olympics
- training of students - volunteers for the Olympic Games
- "creating" fans of sports which are not widely known in Greece
- cooperation between Greek schools abroad and the local school community
- promotion of the Greek culture at the level of world society

Moreover, the following educational objectives can also be achieved through these programmes

- promotion of investigative learning
- systematization of knowledge
- promotion of cooperation
- strengthening of collective work
- promotion of the inter-disciplinary inter-departmental approach
- development of skills - abilities

Based on the experience which has resulted from the International Olympic Committee's initiative to implement Olympic Education programmes, since school year 1998-99, such programmes are being systematically carried out in primary schools for the purpose of providing social education to children, in accordance with the timeless values of Olympism.

The Pedagogical Institute of Greece (Ministry of Education) which is responsible for the introduction of educational programmes in schools, through special pilot educational projects (SPEP), has put together a programme called "Introduction to Olympic and Sports Education".

The institution responsible for the implementation of this programme was the Olympic and Sports Education Institute. It involved 34 primary schools, randomly selected from among those that expressed interest. The "teaching staff included physical educators and primary education teachers. The 6th grade, the children of about 11 years old, was chosen for this application. As we know that the roots of man's future attitude and behaviour are to be found in childhood, it is at this young age that we should develop in the individual an awareness about social behaviour issues, through appropriate educational programmes, so as to develop his social conscience and allow him to become involved, later, in an active and critical way, in matters of concern to him and the community as a whole.

All the members of the Pedagogical Institute's scientific committee that was responsible for the planning and implementation of the Olympic Education programme, were strongly convinced that this programme should not be just another course on the school's curriculum to be taught and evaluated in a conventional way.

The concepts, ideas and values of Olympism should be disseminated through all the courses of the school curriculum, along the "project" model, with the aim of developing small studies because, according to educationist Matsagouras "the desirable values and attitudes should not be developed through a dry dogmatic approach and the proposal of living role models, but through a logical analysis and dialectic confrontation of views that will lead the child to the expected result" (Matsagouras 1998 p. 87).

Regarding teaching strategies, Delicostantis notes that "for the teaching of knowledge and social and cognitive skills, values and attitudes it is the team cooperation method that will be chosen, that is based on the new education principles, emphasizing the importance of student motivation and the investigative approach to learning and promoting, as the school's primary goal, the child's democratization and socialization into an autonomous and fulfilled personality, in accordance with the general views that the enlightenment has bequeathed to our contemporary times" (Delicostantis, 1995).

In the context of the teaching method that is based on the "project" model, an interdependence will develop between the members of the team, direct personal contact, individual and collective responsibility, decentralization of authority.

Today, a large number of educationists, Greek and foreign, has opted for the team approach which most students prefer. In our country, however, it is practised only by a very small number of teachers (Matsagouras 1987, p. 15-16).

An essential condition for the successful implementation of educational programmes is of course the active participation and involvement in such programmes of suitably trained and qualified educational staff and teachers because the quality of the education offered does not rely only on the availability of teaching material and methodological strategies and approaches, but on the role of educational staff, teachers in particular, who are asked each time to link theory with practice.

As a result, for the planning of the Olympic Education programme, the conscience-raising, information and training of all the educationists that would be "teaching" the Olympic courses, appeared as an imperative need, because the ordinary educationist, unless he keeps up with educational developments, will not be able to contribute to the attainment of the goals and objectives pursued by any educational innovation, however good it may be and help it to reach its final destination, i.e. school practice (Gousis, 1999).

The educationist should be able to receive the messages of the environment and, through the appropriate teaching, communication and collaborative behaviour, to establish contact with the educationists, students, parents and institutions of the local community who are involved in the education process.

To this end, the Pedagogical Institute organized an introductory training seminar, in January 1999, for the educationists who would be in charge of the Olympic Education programme.

The objectives and goals of this programme, its contents, the teaching methods and its evaluation, were presented during the seminar.

The programme was launched right after the training course and ended with the closing of the school year, in June 1999. Members of the scientific planning committee provided guidance and feedback to the teachers during implementation.

As the activity of schools was studied, it became clear that: Teachers and pupils devoted more time that the one teaching hour provided, acting as multipliers of the Olympic Idea, within the school, family and wider social environment (School network, 1998-99).

Education, as a social institution, has to be open to the multiple forms of cooperation between teachers, students and parents, for the purpose of furthering a greater awareness of education's public character, its content, the contribution of the state and the citizen, interaction and feedback (KEMETE, 1998).

Pupils embraced the programme, showing real enthusiasm for their participation in something "different" from the ordinary courses.

They worked together, in a friendly climate, supporting and encouraging one another. They participated in team activities and cooperated effectively with other groups.

The students became actively involved in the teaching process. They were strongly motivated and participated in class activities, setting goals and time frames for their attainment. They expressed and supported their personal views freely, they completed the tasks assigned to them, using self-evaluation skills and responding to the comments and observations of the teachers during the evaluation and feedback breaks.

This whole educational process marked the beginning of a constructive debate. The educationist acted as a researcher, a team coordinator, supporting and encouraging students who in turn responded with enthusiasm, leading to close interaction, so important for the teaching process.

The development of multiple activities (artistic, athletic, research, literary, etc.) allowed students to demonstrate their talents and special skills.

A sports conscience was also developed, as shown by the participation of children in many curricular and extra-curricular sports activities.

The implementation of the programme also made it possible to identify and encourage the interests and capabilities of "weaker" students (Arvaniti, 1999).

The other schoolchildren also showed a lot of interest for the programme, participating in many of its activities.

There was a cooperation between the teachers involved in the programme and educationists from other disciplines and I should mention in this respect that the Olympic Education programme, in the teachers' view has upgraded the role of physical educators in the school (School network, 1998-9).

Concerning the "project" teaching method by means of which students studied Olympic Education subjects, the teachers concluded that this method, which moves along a completely different direction than the unproductive memorizing of facts and dates, liberate the children from the classroom feeling, introduce new ways of treating and assessing subjects and operate in the form of exploratory learning, not just for the pupils, but for the teachers as well.

As part of the Olympic Education programme, students organized and took part in activities and events with an Olympic or sports content, with enthusiasm and sensitivity; let me mention, quite indicatively

- visits to museums (Acropolis, Olympia, Delphi)
- visits to stadia (Olympic, Panathenean, Olympia, Epidaurus)
- visits to cultural centres, libraries, TV and radio stations
- organization of lectures, painting exhibitions
- participation in essay, poetry, literature, photography contests
- publication of a school sports newspaper
- organization of track and field events, games, dances
- organization of book fairs
- creation of a library
- organization of Olympic Day events
- handicrafts (engravings, pottery, medals, models of stadia and an cient temples, commemorative diplomas, etc)

In addition, the students focusing on specific Olympic subjects, were able to present outstanding research projects.

Let me mention indicatively

- the ancient Olympic Games and their revival
- an album on the Olympic Games
- guided tour in Ancient Olympia
- political expediencies at the modern Olympics
- women's sport
- cycle -colour - history - message
- the black hours of the Olympic Games - violence in the stadia
- violence in the stadia and sports education
- sports for the disabled
- racism - sport

At the end of the Olympic Education programme, all participating schools at local level, staged various cultural and sports events, to which were invited students and teachers from other schools, parents and representatives of the local community.

In June 1999, a one-day meeting on Olympic Education was organized in Athens for the purpose of presenting and disseminating the results of the programmes, with the participation of Ministry of Education officials and representatives of the Pedagogical Institute, presidents of relevant institutions, representatives of educational organizations, teachers, students and parents. The programme was evaluated by the evaluation team and the teachers involved and the need to continue with such programmes was emphasized.

In accordance with the recommendations formulated by educationists at that meeting

- the integration of Olympic Education in the school curriculum should be generalized but not compulsory and rely on a feedback system
- educationists and students who took part in this programme, should be used during the organization and celebration of the 2004 Olympics
- the programme should be extended to secondary school.
- participting schools should take part in the Cultural Olympiad
- the experience of participating educationists should be capitalized on during future programmes and these educationists should be used as multipliers
- an Olympic and sports museum for children should be created, including a library with the appropriate educational material.

Moreover, the students' works were exhibited in special areas and they were very happy for this opportunity to present samples of their work.

The total sample of this programme consisted of 785 children of whom 392 were boys (49,9%) and 393 girls (50,1%).

The experimental group, i.e. the children who joined this pilot programme consisted of 736 pupils, 367 boys (40,9%) and 369 girls (50,1%); the control group was composed of 49 children, 25 boys (51,0%) and 24 girls (49,0%).

Of the 736 pupils of the experimental group, 77 (10,5%) were born in other countries, outside Greece.

The evaluation of this programme was based on

- the monthly work sheets completed by the teachers at the end of each month on the activities of the children, the difficulties and obstacles encountered;
- the teachers' report on the overall assessment of their work;
- the quarterly progress reports of the programme's scientific com mittee;
- information collected during the interviews and field observations by the members of the scientific committee who followed the school;
- the completed questionnaires for the initial and final assessment of participating children.

The period during which the programme was implemented is not long enough to allow us to speak about a real change in the children's attitude and behaviour but its impact on the pupils, as shown above, was certainly a positive one, proving that such a programme can have a very beneficial effort on the socialization and social education of youth, offering knowledge, skills and education against a cultural and national background.

The positive results that were the outcome of this programme, encouraged the Greek Ministry of Education to introduce an Olympic Education programme in more primary schools, as a sequel to this first experiment.

Because, to quote Helen Glykatzi-Arhweiler "Maybe, only education as conceived by the ancient Greeks, will one day be able to educate organizers, coaches, athletes and the public so that the

Olympic Games can again become what they should never cease to be: a soul-lifting festival of the body, in a pacified world".

So, since January 2000, the Olympic Education programme has been introduced in about 350 primary schools, throughout the country, for the 4th, 5th and 6th grade, i.e. children 9, 10 and 11 years old.

Our teaching hour per week of the school's programme is devoted to the implementation of the programme.

About 45,000 schoolchildren participate in the programme, together with 140 physical education teachers, suitably trained in the contents and teaching methods of Olympic Education, with abundant teaching and educational material.

The programme will be completed in June 2000.

The evaluation of the programme has been entrusted to the Economic University of Athens (Statistics Department) in cooperation with the Ministry of Education.

The programme is coordinated by the Ministry of Education and supervised by a team of educationists - volunteers who implemented the pilot Olympic Education programme of the Pedagogical Institute.

The organization of the Olympic Games is a major event of course. However, ways need to be found to ensure that this event will have a positive impact on the country's education system.

Greece is taking over a major responsibility with the organization and celebration of the Games in 2004.

This historic opportunity should not be lost, but used in the best possible way with all of us sharing part of this responsibility.

The promotion of the timeless values of Olympism among the young should create Greek citizens able to enhance modern Greek tradition in today's world society.

With the help of such programmes, pupils will become familiar with all these aspects.

It is believed that the Olympic Education programmes should be institutionalized and become an integral part of the school curriculum since, to quote the reviver of the Olympic Games, Pierre de Coubertin "the future of our civilization today does not rely on political or economic factors but depend exclusively, on the direction that will be given to education".

The "Athens 2004" Organizing Committee wants not only to stage perfect Games but also to make all Greeks aware of the values of Olympism, the Olympic Movement and the social impact of sport in general.

In cooperation with the Ministry of Education, the International Olympic Academy, the Pedagogical Institute, the Olympic and Sports Education Foundation, "Fair-Play" and the Greek Pierre de Coubertin Foundation, it has already developed a comprehensive four-year programme (2000-2004) for the introduction of Olympic Education in primary and secondary schools, on the one hand and university departments on the other.

The purpose of this whole effort will be

- to allow the young to get to know the ancient and modern Olympic Games and to analyze their differences and similarities, from a social, political and economic viewpoint,
- to be personally responsible for the propagation of the Olympic and sporting idea,
- to formulate precise and well documented proposals, so that the Olympiad of 2004 can become a historic milestone for the redefi nition of the meaning of Olympism.

"Athens 2004" has already commissioned the drafting and publication of suitable teaching material for primary and secondary schools, aimed at teachers and pupils, which should be ready at the beginning of the school year 2000-2001.

All these efforts will be adequately supported by the educational site: Olympic Education and Training which is expected to be ready in the appropriate form and with a sufficient number of information by September 2000.

It is believed that the experience and know-how which have resulted from the programmes already implemented, will make it possible to determine, as precisely as possible, the course that needs to be followed for the successful implementation of Olympic Education programmes until 2004 and beyond since, according to the great visionary Pierre de Coubertin, "Olympism is a philosophy of life, blending sport with culture and education, which contributes to building a peaceful society".

Bibliography

1. Arvaniti, N., Kellis, E., Makris, A., *Olympic and sports éducation.* Tricala Congress, 2000.
2. Gousis, P., *The school before the new educational challenges.* Lecture at training seminar. Athens, 1999.
3. Delikostantis C., *The Human Rights.*Thessaloniki, Kyriakidis, 1995.
4. Network of Olympic and sports education schools. Unpublished studies by teach ers, school year 1998-99.
5. KEMETE, *Curricula and Comprehensive Colleges. Studies -Research.* OLME Centre for Studies and Documentation, Athens, 1998.
6. Matsagouras, E., *Team-centered teaching and learning.* Athens, Grigoris, 1987
7. Matsagouras E., *Teaching strategies,* Athens, 1998.
8. Geros, Th. *Critical Pedagogics,* Thessaloniki, Kyriakidis 1998.
9. Giannacopoulos, C., *The living school.* Athens 1949.
10. Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Europe *Interdiscipli nary teaching and learning in secondary schools* (Greek edition) Athens 1998.
11. Georgiadis, K., *Worldwide Olympic Education. A vision of the IOA.* (The article is currently being pre-published).
12. Danasis-Afentakis, A.K., *Introduction to pedagogics.* T.T.1-3 Athens, 1992-1995.
13. Eliadis, N., The new reality created by rapid social and technological changes and new demands for the school and educational system. Scientific Yearbook of the Pedagogical Institute, Athens 1996.
14. Mattheou, D., et al. *Institutionalized further education models.* Scientific and Edu cational Review. Pedagogical Institute, Athens 1999.
15. OLME, *The problem of drugs and the role of educationists. Proceedings of meeting.* Federation of Secondary Education Teachers (OLME) Athens 1993.
16. Solomon, I., *Internal evaluation and planning of the teaching process at school.* Pedagogical Institute, Athens 1992.
17. Filaretos, N., *Introduction on Olympism through the Work of the International Olym pic Academy,* in: Report of the Third Session, Lausanne 1994, pp. 56-62.

SHORT PAPERS

THE OLYMPIC EDUCATION PROCESS IN ARMENIA

by Vahran ARAKELIAN and Harutyun BABAYAN *(ARM)*

The Olympic Education as a necessary component in people education system has been formed from the foundation of Olympic Games and found its better manifestation in the States, Nations and People, which have participated earlier in the Olympic Games or have been theirs spectators.

Armenia and Armenian people also belong to these Nations and States; an ancient people who adopted the Christianity the first in the world (in 301), who created its own letters in 406, who has a unique architecture, art and sport, a nation who has given names to the world such as: Mesrop Mashtote, Agatangelhos, Movses Khorenatci, Anania Shirakatci, Grigor Narekatci, David Anhaght (Unconquerable). The ancient and contemporary Olympic Games champion-kings Trdat and Varazdat the Arshakuni, Hrant Shainian, Albert Azarian, Vladimir Yengibarian and others.

By the most trustworthy sources evidence, the annals of the participation of Armenian sportsmen in Old Greek Olympic Games, begins from the third century when Trdat the Arshakuni became the Olympic champion in the field of wrestling.

The process of Olympic Education formed its effective stage only from 1994: after becoming a sovereign member of IOA.

During the six years of its foundation, and participating the annual sessions of IOA, the Arm NOA has gathered some important experience for him.

From 1994 till 2000, at the IOA sessions have taken part 18 officials of Arm NOC and Arm NOA and 10 young participants, and have read 1 lecture and 8 reports.

In 1998, by the efforts of Arm NOC, in the open-air museum of IOA, was erected the marble bust of the 291st santique Olympic Games champion-Varazdat the Arshakuni.

Both the officials and young participants of IOA sessions returning to Armenia give some accountability reports at the executive committee sessions and undertake obligations of Olympic Education in Armenia.

In 1998 Arm NOA changed its works radically; it has worked up his new Charter which is confirmed at the Arm NOC executive committee session, and also worked out its annual plans.

According to the Charter, two vice-presidents, 4 presidents of committees and a scientific secretary are elected.

In spite of the financial and social difficulties of our Republic, parallel to the practical works, the Arm NOA could organize the works of a documentary film, related to the Olympic Education, which is periodically showed on different channels of National TV. The film is in Armenian and in English languages, and it also contains historical, social, political and educational matters of the Olympism.

The exaltation events of the Olympic champions are smartly celebrated in our Republic.

In Artashat are erected the statues of the Old Olympic Games champions Trdat and Varazdat the Arshakuni. The process of creating the busts of New Olympic Games champions is already begun, and later they will be founded in the foyer of the Armenian State Institute of Physical Education.

The historical fund of Olympic champions and participants' museum enlarges day by day.

Many scientific and cultural works are done; in 1999, for the first time in the Republic, professor M. Ispidan defended a thesis on "Olympism". Two books written by the materials from that thesis, we have presented to the IOA library, and the third one we' ll give this time.

Not returning to the Olympic Education and to other works in Armenia, which are reported about for many times during the years from this tribune, we want You and especially the IOA, to assure that acquainting ourselves with the works and experiences of our colleagues from different countries, listening to their valuable lectures, we become wiser, and returning to Armenia, organize the Olympic Movement process by the newest methods and modes.

THE AUSTRIAN OLYMPIC ACADEMY. PAST AND FUTURE PROGRAMMES ON OLYMPIC EDUCATION

by Karin ECKERSTORFER *(AUT)*

The following examples show the academy's attempt to promote educational projects/themes over the last three years.

1. Olympic Days in Schools

Since 1992 Olympic Days have been successfully established in Austrian schools. The concept of most of them shows subject-related topics illustrating the significance of Olympism in every field of education .

The range of activities covers huge projects involving the entire school to single themes.

Our Academy motivated a great number of teachers and pupils offering good teaching material about the Atlanta and Nagano Games knowing that a world event is a fantastic vehicle to transport all sorts of Olympic themes.

2. Senza Confini-Klagenfurt's Bid for the 2006 Winter Games

As soon as Austria decided to let Klagenfurt be the country's representative for the 2006 Games the Austrian Olympic Academy was full of ideas to contribute to the event. What a chance to demonstrate Olympism in one's own country! Memories of Lillehammer arose. The head of the Klagenfurt organizing committee, Dieter Kalt, explained the special quality of the triple-bid

"This could be a chapter for the IOC history. A history, which proves one of the oldest principles of Olympism: three different cultures and its peoples living peacefully together in a place, which was once a battlefield. Olympism is not only on the paper, but lived by the people".

The concept of an educational approach covered some basic questions

a) How can friendship and understanding be encouraged?
b) Which activities help to translate the idea of "Senza confini= with out borders" into public policy?
c) How can we get the whole population into the process?

By developing a useful teaching material the pupils should learn to critically deal with the positive and negative components of Olympism and find an answer to the question "Which are the real values of Olympism today?" Needless to say that the academy's efforts were neglected as Austria lost in the European competition.

The president of the OOC Wallner commented: "It was not yet the time for Games without borders".

3. "Sport in unserer Zeit"; texts for a better understanding of Olympism

The Austrian Olympic Academy and the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs published a series of texts. They reflect the academy's activities and offer educational material for the classroom, both in English and French.

So far 11 books have been published and especially used by school emphasizing in sport. At present throughout Austria attempts are being made to offer physical education and sports topics within school leaving exams. With the introduction of the elective subject "Theory of Sports and Exercise Culture" themes on Olympism are included and offer a more intensive dealing with sport and supporting subjects: history, psychology.

4. Special Olympics: 2nd International Summer Games, Vienna 1998

More than 1000 mentally and physically handicapped athletes from 11 nations participated in the Vienna event. According to the oath, it's not the winning, but the taking part that is important.

The Games in Vienna were perfectly organized. Furthermore the 2000 International Winter Games took place in Lungau/Salzburg.

5. Toni Innauer - Austria's Fair-play Ambassador

At the 1996 Conference of the European Council for sport, tolerance and fair-play in Amsterdam the board suggested to nominate a fair-play ambassador in each country. This person should transport Olympic ideas to the athletes, to the public.

Austria is proud to greet Toni Innauer, a remarkable personality as athlete, trainer, coach as the representative of Austria.

"I'm ok, you are ok!" His message runs like this

"My duty as an ambassador is to work out the deeper meaning of tolerance and fair-play within sports structures in Austria. It's the athletes' intention to add to a better understanding for the phenomena of sport, and to put sport in our country on a higher level. Sport should serve as a model for society." The Austrian Olympic Academy welcomes Innauer as a most qualified ambassador.

6. Seminars of the OOA

The annual seminar of the academy focuses on different topics

1997 Women and Sport
Fairplay
1998 Olympic idea - still up to date?
Olympic projects 2006 - Senza Confini
1999 Olympic Education at School
What counts is success?
1999 planned: Olympic Days at various locations in Austria

7. Olympia Award 2001

Since 1991 the NOC of Austria gives an award for scientific work referring to the Olympic Charter.

Students of the Institutes of Sports Science are invited to combine one aspect of the topic "Olympic Games - Olympism" with aspects of their dissertation. A jury decides upon the winner.

8. Educational Material

Our academy developed a brochure for primary school to understand the Olympic Games in Atlanta. Based on didactical and methodological principles teachers and pupils enjoyed to work with it alike.

Having been successful encouraged our work-group to develop another material- this time for the 10-to 14-years old. The Games in Nagano reached the houses of many Austria schools and offered a new dimension by using the Internet.

This time we plan to use the Australian version of the CD-Rom "Aspire" and adapt it for Austrian schools. A translation together with an accompanying booklet introduces to the interesting programme.

9. Seminar for European National Olympic Committees 2001, Austria

Planned to be held in Vienna.

THE VOLUNTEERS, OLYMPIC AMBASSADORS, ... A FORGOTTEN GROUP?

by Marc MAES *(BEL)*

The moment that million of fans, equipped with tambours and trumpets, support their idols' sport deeds, experience joy or disappointment while flowing like a true human flood in the sports arena, identify themselves with actions that remind of war... workers in the shadow prepare the reception, others mop the changing rooms, the doctors wait to heal the consequences that the different artificial substances may cause, people at the ticket office count the return of sold tickets, the security guards keep an eye on the mass sometimes overflowing with emotion, the sound experts and technicians send their signals through airwaves, the canteen people and their assistants wash the last glasses,... In a nutshell, there are certain volunteers without whom the sport event could not take place.

One volunteer for seven athletes

This introduction does nothing else but describe a part of the numerous sport activities and other activities linked to sport, which during the sport seasons are repeated million times, in different levels and in different ways. The events, the sport celebrations do not constitute anything else but the tip of a giant iceberg of the sport organised world, which involves 2.000.000 persons in our country every day.

In order to allow this universe to continue revolving, more than 200.000 volunteers dedicate themselves body and soul. They are the true and vital principle of sport and constitute a chain of engaged and enthusiastic people. These workers of the base are at least as important as those who produce the rain and the fair weather at the top of the pyramid. The workers of the shadow, therefore are the real VIPs. We equally think of those who repair the nets, decorate the halls, make the measurements of the young people's long jumps in any kind of weather, do the taxi drivers at the weekend for the

very young kids and juniors, or even participate in never-ending reunions. They are numerous these reunions in our country. And of course, they do not give the right to any reward.

The volunteer Olympic Ambassador

In the majority of the countries, the Olympic Education is only transmitted by the educational system and the National Olympic Academies. However, we estimate that this vast group of volunteers could do an excellent job on this plan. In reality, the vast majority among them is in close contact with the young people, it actually accompanies them on the way that leads to the adult age.

They are very well placed to transmit the Olympic thought to young people in the most natural way. However, the problem is that a big number of volunteers do not realise the potential of values that the sport can offer from an Olympic perspective. This is why the Olympic formation of volunteers is imperative. It is hence important for the National Olympic Academies to conceive and proceed to the formation of special programmes aimed at volunteers.

Billions

Concluding the results of studies conducted in other countries, we can affirm without hesitation that the volume of the work provided by 200.000 volunteers on an annual basis can be estimated up to almost fifteen billion francs. In order to find this, we are based on the way of calculation that has been equally applied to studies abroad, and in which we have considered that one volunteer sacrifices on average three hours per week in the service of sport.

A huge amount that is invested annually is volunteerism in a cultural activity, which acquires more and more importance and which we call sport. If we compare this amount to the one that the public government invests on sport, we can't give up the impression that the exercise of sport isn't considered as an important activity. The world of sport is equally more and more often solicited to redress certain distortions or social deformations. For example, it is enough to think of the integration, the formation of relations, the fight against violence and vandalism, the physical condition... Paradoxical developments in numerous cases if we examine under the magnifying

glass the current evolutions in and around sport. Evolutions that cannot escape the volunteer's eye anymore.

More and more often, the volunteer is confronted with factors that come as threats to sport, such as the doctrine of vendetta, extreme commercialisation, fraud and corruption, doping, violence in and around sport, aggravated nationalism and chauvinism, cheap médiatisation, profit out of exaggerated money, discrimination... These negative aspects, these factors that threaten sport -but which are not sport-specific- harm considerably the sport ideal, an ideal supported in this world by an uncountable number of volunteers that are deeply involved in the formation and education of young athletes. This huge mass of sport idealists that, for many years have dedicated themselves to the development of the sport event, and sport communication, feel more and more deceived, left in the margin. Even though wrongly, partly at least. We cannot certainly generalise this penetration of negative factors that come to blur the norm.

Regression

Based on the evolutions stated abroad -no study has taken place in Belgium yet- we notice a certain tendency of reduction in the number of volunteers. This phenomenon isn't probably specific to sport: it apparently becomes more and more difficult in other domains of the society to find persons that are willing to invest a part of their free time and get involved voluntarily in one or another organisation.

The analyses of this change of behaviour show that in reality, there is a relationship with the progression of individualism and cocooning, but above all with a lack of recognition. A recognition that, for the great majority of volunteers, should not be interpreted by the indemnities, the reimbursement of expenses or anything else of that sort, but by the fact that we accept them as part of the group. Acknowledge that their contribution, no matter how small it may be, is important.

Respect

Respect could be the key word. An attitude of crucial importance in every relation at work, either voluntary or not, either lucrative or not. The club celebrations, the afternoons with cooked pasta, the

club excursions and dinners can be a consolation for those who protest, and the same happens with the club T-shirts, sweatshirts and other "grey flannels".

However, the most important thing is to know how to 'listen' to your colleagues: to show an interest for their point of view may stimulate and increase their motivation. The celebrations officially are there to show the recognition for all the years of their involvement,... it is nothing else but a normal expression of gratitude towards the volunteers, a gratitude stemming from the meeting of human aspirations. Because it's at this level that everything is played. An important driving force for the voluntary work is a small part of personal realisation. Meaning, to be able to overcome banality, everyday routine. These efforts are appreciated of course -although many volunteers do not view that as needed- but what they ask for, above all, is certain recognition. Many are the clubs that offer their valuable efforts at the level of recruitment and mainly at the support of volunteers. Perhaps the government should encourage and reward these clubs.

Re-education

An evident compensation is a course of re-education for the volunteers working in the clubs. The opportunity to participate in an educative course means, in reality, a veritable knowledge for many volunteers. And the same goes for the regular work circuit or the opportunities of re-education along with the recognition, which are more appreciated than all kinds of incentives. Apart from these opportunities of formation, it is equally imposing to elaborate on a channel of information specific for the volunteers. Many initiatives concerning this aspect have already been developed, but the majority of them hasn't hit the aim or hasn't been perceived in a nice language. We clearly touch here upon the new jargon with which every person concerned with sport is confronted... both professionalisation and supervision of quality.

Professionalisation

In their spheres of activity, the numerous volunteers consider the progress of professionalisation to be a threat. Scandinavia, which is considered to be the cradle of sport volunteerism, has reacted mainly

with a modified way to the sport executives' efforts towards professionalisation via the formation programmes of the Olympic Academies. In our country too, sport federations needed sometime of adaptation in order to accept collaborators with professional education under their wings. Probably, it's only a normal phenomenon: every change has always been seen as coming to disturb the existing quietness and therefore it's a threat. Rubingh and Westerbeek, the hollandaise authors talk about a traditional and professional orientation when recalling the development of thinking in management and organisation that take place in a sport association. In the associations with traditional orientation, they view the direction as belonging to the members. In the professional environment, they estimate that the direction is separated between members and the ones above them. The direction evaluates the solutions that are proposed by the management. The essential points for the directions are quality, effectiveness and efficiency. Very rational and "cold" concepts that make volunteers' hair stand on end.

The search for quality that is under way in the sport world has been received with ambiguous emotions from the volunteers. "Too theoretical" say some of them, "too pedantic" say others. Others sigh: "we are taken seriously at last".

Organisation

Personally, I think that it is necessary to put in a state of readiness an organisation susceptible to record the volunteers' needs and expectations. On this base, initiatives should be taken to motivate the volunteers in order to continue their implication in sport.

The education and the examples of occupation can play a very important role in the ultimate choice of a volunteer job. Moreover, if we make them discover the enthralling thinking of the Olympic Movement and if we prepare a well-structured education for them, they will be more inclined to continue their voluntary work and also be able to accomplish their mission in a more human and wider perspective.

When we find ourselves again fully enjoying the one or the other sport celebration, it would be worth sparing a thought to the innumerable collaborators that have rendered this expression of joy possible. Without this so often forgotten group of enthusiasts, the organised sport would stop existing.

THE BRAZILIAN OLYMPIC ACADEMY. A LONG-RANGE PROJECT THAT STARTED IN 1989

by Eduardo Henrique DE ROSE
and Lamartine Pereira DA COSTA *(BRA)*

The project to create the Brazilian Olympic Academy started in 1989, when the Brazilian Olympic Committee (COB) carried out the first studies on this topic. After that, a concept was developed, based on some international models, mainly from England and Germany. It was very clear, at this time, that the difference among the existing National Olympic Academies (NOAs) was much more related to the kind of programs they run rather than to the organization structure they had, which seems not to influence their activities.

The COB decided then to start a long-term project for the foundation of our National Olympic Academy (NOA), looking toward establishing a "master mind group" and also providing the development of the Statutes and assimilates this new functional structure.

Another fact that caught the attention of Prof. Lamartine Pereira da Costa, the person behind this planning, was that the more productive NOAs not only developed outstanding educational programs and promoted Olympic Ideals, but also had an excellent group of academicians and scientists backing their projects and researching this particular topic. For this reason, it was decided to start with a group of people that would be able to conduct in the future not only the pedagogical part of the work, but also to produce research on this area in accordance with the best international standards.

To prepare this "board of trustees", the COB choose to participate fully in the program offered by the International Olympic Academy (IOA) after the year 1992. The participants of the different session were selected mainly from the best Brazilian graduate students in the area of Physical Education, fluent also in English and Spanish, and having a close relationship with Olympic Movement. It was also a clear precondition for participation a late involvement with the future Academy, promoting the Olympic Ideals.

Today, six years after the start of this project, 18 Brazilian students have participated in the Young Session and in the Graduate Seminars, and two professors from our Universities are among the experts invited to teach in these activities. From this group, four members are completing their Ph.D. programs by the year 2000, when we will have, including Prof. da Costa and myself, 6 Ph.D. dedicated to the BOA, besides 8 other students that will complete soon their Master Degree programs.

Another important step of this long range planning happened last year, when the "1st Forum of Olympic Studies" was staged in Rio de Janeiro, sponsored by the COB, and organized by the University Gama Filho. Forty experts in the Olympic Movement attended this Forum, among them participants from Argentina, Uruguay, Cuba and Portugal. The scientific papers presented in this Forum were published in a book entitled "Olympism Olympic Movement and Olympic Games", presenting the Brazilian and Latin American perspectives in this field.

The Brazilian Olympic Academy was finally created on 3 March 1998, by an act of Dr. Carlos Arthur Nuzman, President of the Brazilian Olympic Committee, and Prof. Lamartine Pereira da Costa was appointed to coordinate its activities, assisted by myself and other experts in the area of Olympism.

The activities of the BOA in the next few years will include the continuation of full participation in the programs offered by the IOA in Greece, an increase in research by our graduate and post-graduate programs oriented to Olympism and Olympic Movement, and the use of Internet to promote programs for Education in Olympism, establishing a "virtual NOA", oriented to the Ibero-American Region and African Portuguese Speaking countries, in accordance to our cultural and historical background. It is also being planned to introduce the topic of Olympism in the "Brazilian Congress of History of Sports" that brings together, every year, more than 500 experts in the area.

To conclude I want to express our thanks to Mr. Conrado Durantez, President of the Ibero-American Olympic Academies, for this incentive to the establishment of the Brazilian Olympic Academy, and also the assistance of Mr. Nikos Filaretos and Mr. Kostas Georgiadis, from the IOA, which were fundamental for our consolidation as a National Academy and for spreading the philosophy of Olympism

among the Universities of our country. May I close this presentation extending to each one of the Olympic Academies present here the gratitude of the Brazilians for the permanent exchange of experiences and outstanding examples in the promotion and propaganda of the philosophy of Olympism, a rich process that contributes towards our continuous development.

THE CHINESE TAIPEI OLYMPIC ACADEMY

by Min-Yin KAO *(TRE)*

1. Background Information

In August 1977, Prof. Ming-hsinTang, the then Chief of the International Section of the Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee, and now Secretary General of the Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee (CTOC), attended the Second Educationalists Session of the International Olympic Academy (IOA), and made a brilliant presentation entitled "the Application of Olympic Principles in the Education of Taiwan". During the Session, from what he learned, discussed and experienced, Prof. Tang came to a point that the Olympic ideals and philosophy could be incorporated into one's every-day life, not limited to that of only athletes, and demonstrated to all that this philosophy was practical, current and relevant. He decided upon returning home to make a proposal to his parent unit-the Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee, to set up a National Olympic Academy similar to the IOA in nature with a view to bringing the Olympic ideals closer to the youth in the country.

Prof. Tang's proposal to found a National Academy was greeted unanimously by the CTOC at its Executive Board Meeting in October 1977. For the approval of establishment of the CTOA and acquiring financial support, the CTOC further forwarded this proposal to the Physical Education Department of the Ministry of Education, the competent authority responsible for sports nationwide. Only too pleased with this new idea, Dr Tsai Ming-Chung, the then Director of the said Department, who was also a participant of the 9th IOA Youth Session held in August of 1969, thoroughly approved to create the National Olympic Academy. The Chinese Taipei Olympic Academy (CTOA) thus initially took shape in 1977. From January 29 to February 3, 1978, Prof. Tang's dream was finally realized when the first Session of the CTOA was held in Sun-Moon Like Teachers Club, Taichung County, Taiwan, and honored with the presence of the late

Dr. Nik Nissiotis, President of the IOA and his congratulatory speech at the opening ceremony.

2. Aims

According to its Statute enacted in line with the related provisions of the Olympic Charter, which state to the effect that the NOCs see to the creation of institutions devoting themselves to Olympic Education, particularly concern themselves with the establishment and activities of the National Olympic Academies. The aims of the Chinese Taipei Olympic Academy are

- To organize the annual session of the National Olympic Academy;
- To conduct Olympic related social events, symposia, speeches and recreational camps;
- To select from among the participants of the NOA sessions dele gates to the IOA Youth Sessions;
- To publish Olympic Journal Olympic related articles and trans lations.

3. Sessions of the CTOA

Aware of the limited time available for my presentation, I just take this opportunity to introduce to you the status of the CTOA's Session since organizing the session is one of the major tasks of the CTOA

a. General

The Chinese Taipei Olympic Academy has a reputation as one of the best organised and earliest established NOAs in the world. Its Session is held on a yearly basis and in a different area. Since its establishment in 1977, the CTOA has held a total of 22 sessions, each session enrolling about 120 participants. Statistically, there *were* 2,640 participants who took part in the sessions over the past 23 years. As a general rule, the staff members of the Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee and former CTOA participants have rendered valuable assistance in organization of each session, such as recruiting participants, arrangement of session's venue, invitation to lecturers from home and abroad, translation/interpretation of foreign lecturers' speeches, etc. Under the leadership of Academy's President and Dean assumed concurrently by President and Secretary General

of the CTOC respectively. To enable the greater number of athlete students to take part, the session is usually held during the school's winter or summer vacations.

b. Participants

In addition to athlete students above mentioned, the participants of the sessions come from throughout the country, including administrative officials of National Sport Associations, teachers (mostly of physical education) from primary, and high schools and colleges/universities. All of them should be duly recommended by their association or school.

With a view to providing a unique opportunity for the exchange of ideas, the CTOA had once invited participants from the United States and other Asian countries to take part in our sessions, but this practice has been stopped in deference to IOA's instruction since 1990.

c. Opening Ceremony and Reception

Each session lasts about one week, during which the main theme discussed is always that on the agenda of the ensuring IOA Session.

The opening ceremony is presided over the President of the CTOA, present in which are dignitaries from sport and public authorities, followed by a reception held in honor of all participants, lecturers, honored guests and, on occasion, former participants who after the reception are invited to take part in a reunion meeting to exchange views and experience regarding how they have applied Olympism to their daily work or remain as volunteers to help the sessions proceed.

d. Lecturers

Over the past more than 20 years, many of internationally renowned lecturers were invited to the sessions, particularly those from the IOA like, just name a few, the Late Dr. Nikolaos Nissiotis, the former President, Dr. Nikos Filaretos, incumbent President, the late Dr. Otto Szymiczek, the former Dean and incumbent Dean of the IOA Dr. Kostas Georgiadis. In addition, there were about 50 other foreign lecturers from the USA, former USSR, Canada, Great Britain, Kuwait, Switzerland, Thailand, Korea, Spain, Bulgaria, Germany, Singapore, and so on.

The lectures, from both home and abroad, have contributed a great deal to participants' understanding of not only the philosophy

and history of ancient and modern Olympics, but also those international sport issues a stake. They have encouraged our participants to become ever more aware that sports are valuable instrument for international understanding and cooperation. It is also part of the regular features that delegates who have attended the IOA sessions should make a report to the gathering on their experience and inspiration acquired in Olympia, an activity in which all participants are very interested, and stimulates them to take part in a test conducted by the CTOC to select 3-4 participants, based on merits, sports background, high qualities of character, English command, etc., as delegates to the Youth Session of the International Olympic Academy in Olympia to be held the following year.

e. Programs and Activities

The programs and activities of the CTOA's sessions, mostly patterned after those of the IOA, are varied from one year another, but the regular ones are lectures, reports, group discussions divided into Chinese and English speaking groups, sports competitions, movie showing, literature and arts exhibition, debates and at the end of the session, social activities organized by participants themselves for the purpose of promoting mutual understanding and friendship among the participants.

4. Conclusion

It is difficult to describe the atmosphere at the session of the National Olympic Academy. Despite the fact than the participants come from different schools and localities throughout the country with different backgrounds in education, profession, religion, sex, and age, the individual barriers were quickly overcomed, and the bond that linked all the participants made it easy to have a conversation with each other. They soon become friends thanks to study together of Olympic knowledge group discussions, debates, social evenings, etc.

There is no doubt that participating in National Olympic Academy Session is an unforgettable experience which leads to a better understanding of the Olympic Movement.

THE HISTORY OF THE DANISH NATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY

by Lone Jacobsen (DEN)

The Danish National Olympic Academy (DOA) was established in 1986 by the Danish Olympic Committee.

In 1993 the Danish Sports Confederation and the Danish Olympic Committee merged into one organisation: the National Olympic Committee and Sports Confederation of Denmark (DIF) which is domiciled at the "House of Sport" at Brondby, near Copenhagen.

Structure

The DOA is directed by the members of the DOA who are appointed by the DIF's Executive Board. In 1999 a structural change was carried through; today the members of the DOA represent different groups and/or interests, such as

- sports journalists
- IOAPA (the International Olympic Academy Participants Association), which I represent
- athletes
- youth sport under DIF
- the Danish sports history group
- sports federations
  - institutions of higher education

In addition, the IOC member in Denmark and the President of the DOA are members, We meet 4-6 times a year.

Purpose and targets

- Disseminate knowledge of Olympism in Denmark
- Organise an annual Olympic session
- Ensure Danish participation in the IOA sessions in Olympia
- Follow the development of the Olympic Movement

- Inform /brief the athletes participating in the Olympic Games and IOA participants
- Organise discussions on current sports political topics

Activities during the last $1^1/_2$ year

- Olympic sessions in March 2000 and September 1999
- Discussion evenings.
- Briefing of Danish IOA participants
- Translation and production of Olympic Posters (Germany)
- Development and production of educational material for secondary schools and high schools
- Translation and production of education material for primary schools (Germany, Greece and Australia)
- Organisation of an IOAPA conference in Copenhagen in June 2000 with financial support from DIF (unfortunately the conference was not held due to insufficient registration)
- Organisation of a children's art competition
- Participation in National Olympic Academy Sessions in Kalmar, Sweden, and Lillehammer, Norway
- Cooperation with the sports facilities at universities in Denmark
- Organisation of an Olympic course for sports teachers in 2001 at the IOA

Visions for the next two years

- Continue the serious work outlined above
- Focus on communication with people who are interested in these fields
- Become more visible in Denmark - for example using the Internet
- Focus on how we can "use" the IOA participants better example: involve them in a viable project after their return from the IOA
- Produce more educational programmes for primary and secondary schools
- Produce educational programmes for sports clubs
- Arrange Olympic weekends for youngsters
  - Show that Olympus is an important part of our daily life, show that it is a functional philosophy - not mysterious.

Focus on two projects

1. Educational material for primary schools.

We have produced 125 pages of educational material for Danish schools aiming at pupils aged 6-15 years of age. We have "borrowed" some ideas from Australia, Germany and Greece (We thank them very much for their generosity and co-operation) and we have produced material especially for Denmark. The schools can either download the material from the Internet or they can buy hard copies from DIF. Those wishing hard copies only pay the casts of producing the materials.

2. How to "use" former IOAPA participants (IOAPA members)

After Danish IOA participants return from Olympia they want to use their experience in order to make a difference. We have not until now utilised their experience and enthusiasm to the best of our ability although IOAPA members are part of our Academy. We want to integrate these young people into our future work by asking them to conduct some workshops the year after their return from the IOA. We would also like to include them in educational programmes for schools and in arranging Olympic weekends for youngsters to name just a few projects. We want to turn them into ambassadors of Olympism - working in the field and turning the philosophy into reality.

THE ACTIVITIES OF NATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY OF ESTONIA IN 1989-2000

by Tõnis MATSIN *(EST)*[1]

Foundation of the NOA of Estonia

A burst of national enthusiasm carried the crowds of people who gathered on the square of the Town Hall in Tallinn to greet the winners of Seul Olympic Games in 1988. Spontaneously rose the idea to restore the Estonian Olympic Committee, founded in 1923, and to participate in Olympic Games under the blue, black and white flag. In response, on January 14, 1989 the Estonian Olympic Congress took place. The main decision of the Congress was to continue the activity of EOC. Among other tasks EOC decided to found the Estonian Olympic Academy (EOA).

The foundation meeting of the EOA took place on April 18, 1989 in the white Hall of Museum of Tartu University of History. It was considered the main purposes of the EOA to be

- promotion of the Olympic idea for including Olympism into the general culture concept;
- conducting of research and scientific events to ensure the pro motion of Olympism and to support the development of the Olym pic Movement in Estonia;
- conducting of research to foster the training of Olympic athletes, arrangement of financing these studies;
- organization of contests for researchers;
- managing of the continuous education courses for Olympic coa ches and athletes.

A principal change in the activity of the EOA in the promotion of Olympism took place in 1996. On the initiative of the commission of young participants this activity was focused on three projects

1) Olympic Games in school
2) Olympic Education
3) Fair-Play contest.

Impact of the EOA on the Olympic preparation of athletes

On April 25, 1992 the Scientific Council of the EOA arranged the discussion "Analysis of the training of Estonian participants in Winter Games 1992" focused on the problems of training methodology. A serious analysis was made by the coach of female cross-country skiers M. Alaver and mostly thanks to him the event was successful. The same event took place after the Barcelona Games on Oct. 31, 1992. Discussions on the training of Olympic athletes were held after Winter Olympic Games in Lillehammer, Nagano and in Atlanta, thus these regulary organized events have set up a tradition.

Young participants

In 1992 the EOA sent its first representative to the Session of Young Participants of the I.O.A. In order to select the representative, an essey contest was announced, won by Toomas Remmelkoor. In 1994 Estonia was represented by M. Kull, 1995 by Reele Remmelkoor, 1997 by K. Leinus and K. Voolaid, 1998 by M. Juursoo and K. Krass, 1999 by U. Sarapuu and J. Vetik. K. Leinus was also invited as coordinator of group discussion to the Session of 1996.

Publications

The main and official publication of the EOA is the Acta Academiae Olympiquae Estoniae (AAOE). The aim of this annual issue is to promote the philosophy of Olympism and the scientific foundation for the Olympic Movement.

AAOE is referred to in the international database of sport sciences Sportdata. T. Matsin, PhD is the editor of AAOE from the first volume, published, 1993. In 1997-1999 five video films were made on the topic of Olympic Education. Highly valued is the contribution of the Estonian TV, as well as of the Estonian Sports Museum. Altogether over ten booklets on scientific issues, Olympic history, Olympism, Fair-Play, Youth Sport and Olympic Games at school are published.

Olympic history

The history commission of the EOA works in collaboration with the Estonian Sports Museum and the Estonian Society of the Sports

History. The functions and activities of these three bodies cannot be differentiated because the active persons are the same. The collaboration has yielded the following events

- Exhibition "Estonians on the Olympic Games" (1992)
- Exhibition "Ex-libri of Estonian Athletes" (1997)
- Exhibition "NOC of Estonia - 75 years" (1998)
- Scientific conference and exhibition dedicated to 100 years from the First Olympic Games in Athens (1996)
- Annual Meeting of the EOA dedicated to the 75 years of the NOC of Estonia (1998)
- Exhibition "Olympia - the city where Olympic Games were bom".

International collaboration

One way to create "a fund of valuable ideas" is to investigate the experience accumulated in other countries. In order to know the related work arrangements and experience, in 1989-1997 the president of the EOA visited National Olympic Academies of Latvia, Lithuania, Germany, Poland and Denmark. Good contacts were established with the NOA of Finland. Highly valued has been the participation in the Joint International Seminar for Directors of NOAs and Members and Staff of NOCs and International Sport Federations. Participants were A. Viru (1994), M.Kull (1998), and R. Remmelkoor (1999).

Olympic Education

In 1994 T. Remmelkoor published an overview on the problems of Olympic Education. He concluded: "*... our sports leaders should understand that our Olympic athletes have various missions. The spectators all over the world value not only the sports or technical results but ethical, intellectual and cultural fitness as well. Then our national image at the Olympic Games is up to many factors. My concrete proposal is to organize a course of Olympism for the Estonian delegation before its departure".* Olympic Education was in the program of the annual meeting of the EOA in 1997 as well, when the discussion was aimed at the education of both university and school students. In cooperation with the Ministry of Education of Estonia EOA had achieved in 2000 breakthrough and acception of the subject Olympism into curricula of high school. We have prepared textbook Sport Stories and workbook Sport for 4th to 6th grades.

Olympic Games in school

In order to extend the Olympic Movement and the spirit of Olympism to school students, several events have been organized. Among them one of the most influential is the School Olympics. A good example of this event was provided by the mini-Olympic Games organized in Silver Springs Elementary School, Canada.

On May 9-11, 1996 the Olympic Games in School were organized in the Patküla Elementary School of Torva. The program included the essay contest on Olympic topics, drawing contest, contest of making an Olympic mascot, the Olympic afternoon and sports program. An interesting experiment was made in the Peedu Elementary School in 1998 by the school principal K. Kütt. She organized the School Olympic Games for the 7- to 11-year-old children. The program was comlex including both sports events and art and essay contests. In May 1999 the Olympic Games in School were held in the Science Gymnasium of Nõo. The main organizer was the school headmaster J. Järveoja.

Project: Olympic Education in Estonia

From 1998 new subject, Olympism can be taken as an elective at the University of Tartu. Teaching of this subject is the task of the younger generation who have participated in the I.O.A. Sessions for Young Participants and are now active persons in the EOA. Informal Discussion Club activity under the leadership of EOA had started in 2000. First meeting to discuss general problems of Sport and Culture was realised with the participation on leading sport and culture respresentatives of Estonia.

The I.O.A. provided for the EOA the opportunity to conduct in Ancient Olympia a Seminar on Olympic Education. The event was arranged by the Commission of the Olympic Education of the EOA and financially supported by the EOC. Lectures were delivered by the President of the I.O.A. N. Filaretos, Dean of the I.O.A. K. Georgiadis, professor N. Müller and professor M. Messing.

In order to promote the Olympic Education, the project of EOA foresees to fulfill the following tasks 1) appraisal of the Olympic Education and foundation of a center

for the Olympic Education in Estonia;

2) finding possibilities for members of the EOA for advanced education in areas of the Olympic Movement, Olympic history and Olympic philosophy;
3) developing collaboration with the I.O.A in order to know the world experience in Olympic Education and adjusting them in the Estonian context.

Conclusion

The Estonian Olympic Academy was founded at hard times. Nevertheless it established its functions and was successful in its activities. Further development of the EOA was ensured by finding young active persons ready to dedicate themselves to Olympism and the Olympic Education. For the functioning of the EOA is important that the University of Tartu agreed to provide it with premises.

Note

1. Report was accomplished based mainly on the materials of article:
Viru A., Kull M., Matsin T., Remmelkoor R 10 years of the National Olympic Academy of Estonia. Acta Academiae Olympiquae Estoniae, v. 7, Tartu 1999, p. 4-34.

OLYMPIC EDUCATION IN FINLAND

by Anja JÄRVINEN *(FIN)*

The Finnish Olympic Academy was founded in December 1987 to propagate the ideas, goals and knowledge of the Olympic Movement in pur country. The development of our OA has taken place slowly and it took many years to find in which way to spread and to promote Olympism and which are the real target groups for Olympic Education.

National sessions

We started our work with national sessions which are educational events for grown up people. The Olympic Movement has always been highly respected by our State: it is seen as a channel for promoting international co-operation and friendship. "The Olympic Movement and Education" was the main topic of the first national session in 1987 in Finlandia House in Helsinki. There were a lot of foreign lectures. The second session was also in the south of Finland.

In 1989 the NOA decided to start provincial sessions in order to spread the ideals of Olympism to different parts of Finland. We have been in the south and north, in the east and west of Finland.

The participants have been representatives of the Ministry of Education, the Finnish Olympic Committee, nearby municipalities, sports organisations and clubs, schools as well as cultural associations, business life and media.

In 1997 we had our session here in Olympia. It was a great success with 27 very active participants. The whole atmosphere and the surroundings of IOA are so unique and inspiring.

Last October we had our 12th session in the Finnish Sports Institute in Vierumaki. The main topic was "The ethical value of sport".

Olympic Education

Since 1995 the Olympic Academy has had the Olympic Education Project, targeted at elementary and secondary schools, as its main form of activity. The principles of education at our schools share the

objectives of the Olympic Movement: to raise our young to become mentally and physically balanced, co-operative, tolerant and peace-abiding citizens who apply the rules of fair play in their daily lives. Olympism gives splendid tools for this work to parents, teachers and coaches of children and teenagers. Human development is not measured in terms of efficiency and results only. Close human relations, diverse hobby interests, school work and physical activity are equally important in the development of mature and complete personality. In order to help educators in this work the Olympic Academy has prepared a package of teaching material. The purpose of Olympic Education Project is learning across all curriculum areas and to let children learn the meaning of fair-play, community spirit and tolerance and their practical applications in everyday life personally - by themselves and by their own actions, supported by their teachers, parents and coaches. Children love learning. They have curiosity, energy, honesty and boundless enthusiasm to discover new environments.

In the field of sport children can learn effectively by watching each other and by imitating their elders. That is a wonderful platform to share the spirit of peace, the values of fair-play and respect for others and the joy of sport.

By now over 40.000 pupils from over 200 elementary and secondary schools have been involved in this project. The activities of the Finnish Olympic Academy are creating positive attitude towards the Olympic Movement. This is nicely attested by this message sent in response to our school project: "The Olympic idea is still alive and actual where our children grow and learn. Together with the Olympic Academy we can promote the sound message of the Olympic Movement to find meaning and happiness in our daily lives".

New materials for Olympic Education

Our working group is currently preparing new material, enjoying the benevolence of the Ministry of Education. During this spring and at the beginning of the autumn we will hold briefings for teachers all over the country and introduce new teaching material relating to the Sydney Olympic Games. Now we have educational projects and materials for the age groups of 4-6 years, 7-12 years, 13-16 years and 17-19 years.

This material contains la lot of information for the teachers about the history and development of the Olympic Movement and the philosophical basis of Olympism, basic elements of Olympic ethics: fair-play, tolerance, friendship, non-discrimination, respect for others, equality, justice.

A lot of different kinds of activities and exercises for students.

CD-rom contains Ancient Olympic Games, Modem Olympic Games, Olympic Games in Helsinki 1952, Finnish Olympic héros **Material for Sydney Olympic Games**

- Facts about Australia: history, geography, climate, fauna, culture
- Facts about Sydney, the hostess city of the Olympic Games 2000.
- Stories about Australian athletes: Kathy Freeman, Kieren Perkins etc.
- Mascots
- Stories about Finnish Olympic héros
- Facts about the Finnish athletes who will take part in the Olympic Games
- Tips for different subjects

Teaching material will also be in Internet

Curriculum links: health and physical education, human society and its environment, art, history, geography, handicrafts, mathematic, music, languages, food

Methods

Different kind of methods: - lectures - practise, discussing -. making questions, singing, dancing, drawing, playing, writing

Realization

- Project - week(s)
- Olympic week: Olympic Games at school with ceremonies and competitions
- Olympic Day
- School Olympics with another school. Haaga secondary school from Helsinki will travel to Tartu at the end of May and they will have School Olympic Games with Torvandi school.

The sports events: boot throw, relay race, test of strength by pulling a stick crosswise, pushball, the last man run, standing triple jump with hand-held weights

The art contest: contest of making the team mascot, drawing contest, essay and poetry contest, the fair-play contest.

Evaluation

- at school by Olympic Quiz
- questionnaries to the teachers

If we want our programmes and activities to succeed, they must be supported at all levels by the Olympic Movement. Teachers today are faced with never ending influx of new ideas and programmes to fit into a crowded timetable. We need teachers' commitment to Olympic Education Programme and they need all kind of support we can give.

When we reflect on the basic principles of Olympism and the power of the message to widen direction for everyday life, it is clear that through involvement in Olympic Education programmes and activities, our students can develop their skills for life, increase their learning experiences and gain an understanding of those universal Olympic values which contribute to build a peaceful and better world.

Finnish Olympic Academy Strategy

1. Objective

The objective of the Finnish Olympic Academy is to promote the fundamental principles of Olympism, i.e. fair-play, tolerance, and togetherness.

2. Goals

The goal is to spread the knowledge of the Olympic Movement and Olympism.

The Olympic Movement

- Ancient Olympic Games
- Modern Olympic Games.

Olympism

- fair-play - respect for rules and other people;
- levelling off of social differences;
- creation of international understanding and a peaceful society;
- life style based on the joy of effort, and on the educational value of role models;
- respect for moral principles;
- abolition of intolerance;
- mutual understanding and friendship;
- solidarity;
- respect for nature and the environment.

3. *Target Groups*

- kindergartens;
- primary schools;
- secondary schools;
- colleges;
— universities;
- sports clubs;
- teachers;
- instructors;
- coaches;
- media.

4. *Measures*

- annual plan of activities and budget;
- production of Olympic Education material;
- media conferences;
- annual national session by the Finnish Olympic Academy;
- participation in international co-operation, e.g. International and Nordic Olympic Academies;
- promotion of the Finnish Olympic Academy activities with the target groups;

5. *Marketing And Communication*

– brochure on the Finnish Olympic Academy;
- correspondence/media releases;
- media conferences;
- sessions by the Finnish and the International Olympic Academies;

– publications:
– reports;
– videos;
– radio, television
– Internet;
– CD-rom.

6. Resources
– funds;
– human resources.

7. *Co-Operation Partners*
– Finnish Olympic Committee;
– Finnish Ministry of Education;
– National Board of Education;
– National Olympic Committees (NOCs);
– International Olympic Committee (IOC);
– International Olympic Academy (IOA);
– National Olympic Academies;
– National Coaching Centres;
– Sports Institutes;
– Kindergartens;
– Schools;
– Universities;
– The Finnish Sports Federation (SLU);
– Youth Sports Programme Nuori Suomi;
– National Federations (NFs).

8. Follow-Up
– implementation of the strategy shall be reviewed once in an Olympiad

9. *Further Measures*
– to be decided upon on the basis of results from the follow-up.

OLYMPISM - FUTURE SCHOOL SUBJECT

by Avtandil TSIBADZE *(GEO)*

Including "Olympism" within the state secondary educational life as a school subject is actually a requirement of the time. This issue was seriously focused recently on the educational theory and practice of Georgia.

Implementation of teaching "Olympism" in Georgia was basically reasoned and accelerated in Georgia by the following circumstances

1. Historically Georgian sport movement was developing and improv ing through close relationship with the sport athletic movement of other countries and especially old Hellenic ones.
2. The theme of Olympic Games was very familiar for the mid cen tury Georgian statesmen. The topic became especially popular since middle of the last century subject to the establishment of Georgian press, which covered both theory and practical issues of Olympism.
3. Since 1952 Georgian sport movement experiences a kind of Olym pisation outlined in successful performance of Georgian repre sentatives in the Olympic sports. It's noteworthy that since 1952 a total of 179 Olympians obtained 31 gold, 23 silver and 41 bronze medals which means that every other participant is Olympic medallist. Among the countries of former soviet republics, Georgia ranks 5th with the total number of acquired medals.
4. For the present time we've already prepared three fundamental textbooks for teaching "Olympism" as a subject at the secondary schools of Georgia. The books are entitled: "Olympism", "Olympic Georgia" and "Olympic Encyclopaedia". All the three textbooks are basically satisfying necessary requirements for teaching "Olym pism" at schools.
5. Georgian Ministry of education is really creating every condition for entering "Olympism" as an official school subject.
6. In our opinion teaching of "Olympism" requires further integra tion. In this process, the Olympic Committee as well as National

Olympic Academy should take leading role. "Olympism" has become a common mankind subject, its teaching program should be worked out, subject to the general rule and enriched with the local data.

OLYMPIC EDUCATION.
ACTIVITIES IN THE RECENT YEARS

by Robert MARXEN *(GER)*

For almost 25 years the NOC of Germany has been active promoting Olympismus. Our efforts have always been based on the fundamental principles of the Olympic Charter, which explicitly demands and formulates the translation of the principles into education in schools and universities

The main principles within our concept, derived from the Olympic Charter, are as follows

- Unity of mind and body
- Performance
- Fairly
- Mutual respect
- The idea of peace

The main target groups have been and still are as follows

- University Students (especially students of physical education and sport science)
- University teachers and professors
- Teachers of all subjects and types of schools
- Pupils of all types of schools
- Young athletes
- Young scholars

Special efforts have been put into various activities in the recent years

- A nation-wide essay competition (1984)
- A nation-wide drawing contest (1988)
- Teaching material for primary schools since 1988 every four / two years
- In-service courses for teachers on regional levels
- In-service courses for teachers on a nation wide level in Olympia (every two years) Seminars for university students in Olympia (every two years)

Awards for theses, dealing with questions of Olympism
Arranging an NOA day during the yearly final of the national schools' competition "Jugent trainiert für Olympia" A set of posters "100 years of Olympic Movement", containing 8 posters, showing different aspects and stages of the Olympic Movement in 1996.

Teaching Material, developed for "Sydney 2000"

The set of posters has been adjusted; 10 posters will be sent to various institutions, universities, sports federations and schools;
CD-Rom: Examples of projects combining and integrating Olympic related topics in various subjects for the upper forms. Booklet for primary Education
Providing teaching material via internet through the NOC home-page

- Primary Education (6-12 years)
- Secondary Education (13-16 years)
- Secondary Education (17-19 years)

THE FOUNDATION AND ACTIVITY OF THE HUNGARIAN OLYMPIC ACADEMY

by Istaván KERTÉSZ *(HUN)*

The Olympic traditions have always been very strong in Hungary and Olympism has been able to express the desire for freedom of the Hungarian people. The Prince Primate of Hungary László Szalkai, wrote about the Ancient Olympic Games when he was a student at the end of the 15th century. When the Hungarian social-political Reform movement began in the 19th century, the main leaders of the modernization emphasized the importance of physical education, and they considered the memory of the Ancient Olympic Games as a toll to arouse national consciousness. Before the Hungarian revolution against the Austrian Habsburgs broke out in 1848, the famous Hungarian poet, Daniel Berzsenyi, proposed the regular organization of Olympic Games in Hungary requesting that István Széchenyi, who was the initiator of the reform movement, take the leadership of the Games. In the second half of the 19th century when the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy was established, the Olympic Movement fought for the idea of the independent Hungarian state. In 1895, the Hungarian Olympic Committee was founded and one-year later Hungary took part with its own team in the Athenian Olympic Games, where Ferenc Kemény, the member of the IOC, was very active in the jury. After Hungary, formed its first Olympic team (separate from Austria), the independent Hungarian state was also established in 1918. In the Summer Olympic Games, Hungary had many victories, and this fact often compensated for the sufferings of our people as a result of Nazism and communism. As earlier, the Olympic Idea helped the development of the independent Hungarian State, so in 1895 the establishment of the Hungarian Olympic Academy was able to support the coming of a new political era. The Hungarian people, looking for self-respect after Soviet oppression, was keenly interested in Olympism again and wanted to express itself as part of the free world by the insistence of Olympic Ideas.

While in 1895 the Hungarian Olympic Committee was founded as the fifth in the sequence of the national Olympic committees, in 1985 the Hungarian Olympic Academy was established only as the 26th in the line of the national Olympic Academies. At the forming of the HOA, we received an important support from J.A. Samaranch, the President of the IOC, as well as Mr. Otto Szymiczec, the first dean of the IOA, who was born in Hungary, and the Greek Mr. Nissiotis and Mr. Kleanthis Paleologos.

According to the decisions of the HOC, on 10th October, 1985, the work of the HOA was prepared by a group led by Prof. Kutassi. The Council of the HOA was founded on 23rd October, 1985, which is now the Memorial Day of the Hungarian revolution against the Soviet oppression in 1956. So the establishment of the HOA symbolized peculiarly the thought of freedom and revival. On the basis of the decision of the HOC, purpose and tasks of the HOA are summarized in the following six points which were created at the founding session on 23rd November, 1985 as follows

1. With our special means and under supervision of the HOC we shall participate in the development of universal and Hungarian Olympism, holding, cultivating and propagating the Olympic Idea.
2. The activity of the IOA as well as that of the national Olympic Academies will be monitored, cooperating with them.
3. Universal and Hungarian Olympism, its connections with econom ics, politics and general culture shall be scientifically researched. Complying with the basic principles and efforts of the IOC and HOC, with the systematic exploration and propagation of the his tory and theory of sport, the impact of Olympism on the Hun garian youth, the physical education and sport movement shall be demonstrated as well as Hungarian activity in the framework of universal Olympism shall be documented.
4. As a central point of our activity, we wish to contribute to the use of the Olympic Idea as an educational means, promoting a uniform conception within the main-sided educational system of Olympism.
5. We will offer and provide some possibilities for voluntary study for sport leaders, sport experts, athletes and for those who are interested in the Olympic Movement.

6. Using our up-to-date base of documentation, information and publication, to be established gradually, we shall popularize the Olympic Movement even beyond the educational forms.

The HOA *is* 15 years old this year. We have been very active during the one and half decades of our history. We researched the history of the Hungarian Olympic Movement, the historical reality of the Marathon race, the history of the Ancient Olympic Games, etc. We published the best scientific success in Hungarian and English. The Council of the HOA organized University Extension course for those who were interested in Olympism and an international scientific congress, "100 years of Olympism in the aspects of Sciences" in 1994. In the frame of our activities, to popularize Olympism, an Olympic Summer University course was organized in August 1987, in which 25 Hungarian and 22 experts from 18 different countries and 4 continents participated. After the first two years, the HOA began to organize meetings in different cities in Hungary. It was decided that an itinerary congressional system would be constructed. During these congresses, HOA's intention was to make as many Olympic friends as possible join the operational work in order to share with them the latest Olympic related scientific findings. As a consequence of the itinerary congresses that were organized in different parts of Hungary, many Olympic Circles were founded.

Based on the Cooperation Agreement between the HOC and the Hungarian University of Physical Education in the university curriculum and educational program, the Olympic Idea has been emphasized to a greater extent than previously. Olympic summer camps have been organized for students to extend their knowledge of Olympism for

- Elementary school students from 1991
- High school students from 1990
- College and University students from 1989.

During the previous years, approximately 900 students had the opportunity to learn in depth about the idea of Olympism not only from Hungary but from Austria, Slovakia and Romania too. By the initiation of a school in Budapest, named for Ferene Mezó, who won the Olympic championship title of the category of epic in 1928, the meetings of the elementary schools named after Olympic champions and athletes have become regular.

In our many-sided activities the above mentioned elements are the most important points together with the international connections. Our cooperation with the IOA and the national Olympic Academies of neighbouring countries is successful. We can be proud of the fact that the friendly contacts among the Hungarian, Slovakian, Austrian, Slovenian, German, Romanian and Czech Olympic Academies are particularly useful with respect to the strengthening of the mutual understanding among these countries.

NOA OF I.R. IRAN: ACTIVITIES OF 1999

by Fotollah MOSAYEBI and Hamid A. ALINEJAD *(IRI)*

The NOA of IR. Iran was established in April 1995 with the aim of dissemination of Olympism in the country through Olympic Education mainly for the youth. The NOA has been trying to introduce the youth to the philosophy of Games, Olympic Ceremonies, Baron Pierre de Coubertin's ideas and the cultural -artistic aspects of the Olympic Games. Through the Olympic Education Programmes youth are also introduced to the history of their own country's sport and national athletes. We believe that making known to the new generation the thought existing behind the Games will change the face of the Games from a mere competition to a cultural phenomenon.

The NOA of IR. Iran's main activities in the year 1999 can be summerized as follows

1. Olympic Education for the primary school athlete participating in National School competitions.
2. Olympic Education Programme for the Nahavand (a city west of Iran) Sport Talent Development Centre.
3. First Olympic Education Programme for the University students. (University of Qom).
4. Publication of brochure for children on Olympic information in simple language.
5. Dispatch of 7 persons in different IOA sessions.
6. Organizing 7 Days with the Olympic (Olympic Week) programme, within which a seminar on fair-play was held, sport and environ ment activities lunched and Olympic Day Run organized.

THE JAPAN OLYMPIC ACADEMY

by Keiko WADA *(JPN)*

Establishment of the JOA

The Japan Olympic Academy was established in 1978.

According to Mr. Kubota, the first JOA president, six persons who had been deeply inspired through the participation in the IOA session, worked enthusiastically to establish the Academy in cooperation with the JOC.

Late Dr. Otto Szymiczek, who was then dean of the IOA, served as a special advisor to the JOA and obviously he had a great influence on the development of our Academy. According to the records, he visited Japan to attend the 10th anniversary of our Academy and delivered a commemorative speech.

The total number of participants from Japan to the IOA sessions up until Year 2000 has reached 136. Many of them are active members who contribute greatly to the promotion of the Olympic Movement in Japan through various activities.

JOA Activities

JOA Sessions

One of the most important activities of the JOA is to hold JOA sessions every year. Most prominent people from various fields at home and overseas, including not only researchers specializing in the Olympics, athletes, sports journalists, sports marketing specialists, but also philosophers and politicians are invited as speakers. From overseas, we invited Professor Arnold Flath, University of Oregon, Dr. Szymiczek whom I mentioned earlier, Prof. Chen Hong Lieh representing the Taipei Olympic Academy. More recently, Mr. Juan Samaranch, Ms. Anita Defranz, Mr. Marc Hodler, Mr. Zhenliang He, and Dr. Otto Schantz, Professor of Strasbourg University.

Choosing most update and important issues of the day as a theme of a session, we have fruitful discussions, which are often cited in major journals and newspapers.

JOA Times

Another important work is publication of our organ "JOA Times". Last December, we published the 2nd issue. The feature article of the 1998 issue was a study on 'One School One Country Program'. On this theme, I would like to mention in more detail later.

The feature article of the 1999 was the IOC Reforms, the most argued issue of last year. Mr. Chiharu Igaya, President of the JOA not only serves as IOC Executive Board but also a member of the Ethics Committee and the IOC 2000. An interview with this silver medalist in the 1956 Olympic Winter Games and Executive Board of the IOC was of great interest to the readers. In this issue, we introduced survey results conducted with the JOA members on the IOC Reforms and the future JOA activities as well.

JOA Annual Meeting

Like other established organizations, we hold annual meetings in May. At the meeting we adopt resolutions. The Mission Statement of the JOA was approved during the 1999 Annual Meeting. Let me talk about our efforts about the point 2 later.

Olympic Education and the JOA

Study on "One School One Country Program"

In 1998 the Winter Olympic Games were held in Nagano, Japan. In 1996, the "One School One Country Program" was started as part of the school program in the city. Students in Nagano, mainly elementary school children, learned the history, culture, and life of their partner country participating in the Nagano Olympics and Paralympics.

A study group within the JOA conducted an extensive survey to clarify the effectiveness of the "One School One Country Program" from the viewpoint of the understanding of Olympism (sense of friendship and peace, balanced qualities of body and mind, etc.). The results of the study were published in the 1998 JOA Times.

From the survey it was obvious that the Program allowed the children in Nagano to have better understanding of the Olympism.

The study results first published in the JOA Times were further completed and presented at the IOA session last year and also at the "Olympics in the Next Millennium" held in Sydney sponsored by the Centre for Olympic Studies of the University of New South Wales.

The study group consisting of mainly the JOA members plan to study and analyze the Olympic Education texts from all over the world. Eventually they want to publish a Japanese version of a text for elementary school children containing such subjects as the Olympic ideals and history, doping problems, and cross-cultural understanding.

If any of you here have sample copies of such text, I would like very much to receive a copy.

JOA Efforts towards the Ministry of Education

At the 19th JOA Session, Professor Kado reported about the Olympic Education in Japan from a historical viewpoint. He reported that the word 'Olympics' had been cited extensively, after the war up until 1982 in the textbooks such as physical education, social studies, and history. Since then, however, there have been less citations about the Olympics in spite of the popularity and people's high awareness of the Olympic Games.

Considering the importance of the educational meaning of the Olympics as stated in the JOA Mission Statement, JOA supported by the JOC decided to make a petition to the Ministry of Education so that Olympic Education will be positioned justifiably in the educational system for youth in Japan. It was a long and difficult task, but our efforts combined with the efforts made by the Japanese Society of Physical Education and contributors of the text books were successful in that more emphasis on the Olympic Education - its history and role as a very effective means to promote international friendship and the world peace, doping problems and fair-play, etc. - is to be put. We are satisfied that the Ministry of Education showed more recognition of the values of the Olympic Education. This outcome certainly encourages us to make further efforts in what we have been doing.

Future Activities

While we believe continued efforts of what we have been doing are very important, we must be attentive of the future direction of our activities at the same time.

The issue I would like to present here is use of the internet as an important communication means among the members, especially those living outside Tokyo. A study group within the JOA, headed by myself, is now working to establish a mailing list of the members for easier and more economical communications. We also try to make a JOA web site which should play a role to achieve our shared goal of promoting the Olympic Movement. At present, we have just started and need as much information as possible. May I ask you here again to give me whatever information you have concerning the Academy web site or your own communications using the internet.

I mentioned earlier that the late dean Mr. Szymiczek visited us in 1987. We are very pleased to extend our heartfelt welcome to Mr. Kostas Georgiadis to the JOA Session this year. We decided to hold the 23rd Session in Osaka for the first time in our 22-year history, taking advantage of his visit to Osaka as an invited lecturer at the International Conference for the 20th Anniversary of the Japanese Society of Sport Education in November. It will certainly become another important milestone for the JOA to have him with us and discuss issues of our mutual interest.

I sincerely hope the ties among the NOAs and with the IOA will be further strengthened so the ideal of the Olympism in the true sense will be proliferated in the world. For this purpose, I would be glad to make every effort as a director of the JOA.

THE SLOVAK OLYMPIC ACADEMY

by Zdenka LETENAYOVA *(SVK)*

Main mission of Olympic Games, that were born again from thousand years' dust of oblivion, thanks to Pierre de Coubertin, was more and more set aside and regretfully it is set aside till nowadays. Olympic Games had not been the goal for Coubertin but the mean for reforming of education of young people through the sport. It is very difficult to find a new and unconventional form at the field of which has become prevalent by revolution in information communication, commercialization but also itself crisis of Olympic Movement. It is necessary to realize that Olympic Education, /or upbringing to Olympic ideas?/ has to be understood nowadays like lifelong educational process with respecting of distinctiveness of cultured environment. It seems like some representatives of national and international Olympic Movement would have forgotten especially this basic imperative in the philosophy of modern Olympic ideas where Games should not be the goal but the mean of education of harmonic person in the process of creation of universal worldwide culture. Such a role is taken over in the present time by National Olympic Academies like guarantors of educational, scientific, informational, promoting and since the last period also artistic activities in Olympic Movement. Their success or failure in the great extent depends on the support of separate National Olympic Committees. I do believe that our country has created good condition for our Academy to fulfilling its mission.

Slovak Olympic Academy was founded in the year 1993. The Academy has been the fully-fledged member of the Slovak Olympic Committee since it's rising. Members of the Academy are on the other hand e.g. a member of the International Olympic Committee professor V. Èernušák, some members of the Slovak Olympic Committee and the deputy chairman of the Olympic Committee for Olympic activities is a member of our Executive Committee. That is why it is possible the fast exchanging of information between our subjects. The Academy has today 140 members of various occupations and

age, from students up to university professors, for twenty years old members to pensioners. But it is not possible to see any differences during sittings. We are one big family who is looking forward to common meeting. Our unifying element is the principle of keeping the codex of philosophy of Olympic ideas.

/You can see the variability of our work on our Plan of the work for the year 2000./

I would like to bring your attention to three actions, which we are trying to prepare regularly or we are trying to insert them permanently into our plan. The first of them is the knowledge competition for several years and its popularity is growing "in geometrical sequence". Teams with three members compete in this competition firstly at regional level and winners in the nationwide round. More than 160 schools entered for the competition this year. It means that approximately 500 children will compete. We put actually into the range of questions, on the base of co-operation with the Slovak Olympic Committee, in supporting of advertising of the Olympic Games 2000 in Sydney also knowledge questions related to Australian continent/fauna, ñora, general history and also Olympic history aimed to the Olympic Games in 1954 in Melbourne and the process of preparation of Olympic Games 2000/. We organize similar competition for university students in two years cycles. We have used for preparation of competitors also Internet web page of the Slovak Olympic Committee for the first time this year. The Slovak Olympic Academy is enabled to introduce regularly its activities on this page.

Tours around Olympic cities and places organized every year are very popular among our members.

The third, the youngest area in our activities is promotion of art. We realize connection between the art and the sport and its irreplaceable task in Olympic culture. That is the reason why we had invited the activity of Cultural Commission of the International Olympic Committee last year /it is the Commission for cultural and Olympic Education in the present time/ and we prepared, with active support of the Slovak National Committee, a national part of international fine art competition "art and sport 2000". We are encouraged with the interest of the public, media and artistic community too and we would like to continue in this activity, and in spreading our activities also to othet types of artistic activities.

Dear friends, I believe *that* our meeting in Olympia this year will deepen our mutual acquaintance, because only continuous improvement of work of our academies on the base of enrichment in experiences of other partners is the step toward creation of universal worldwide culture, where thoughts of philosophy of Olympic ideas and its games will find their primary goal.

ANALYZING DETAILED STUDY ON THE ACTIVITIES OF THE YEMEN OLYMPIC ACADEMY

by Abdul Hammeed Hassan AL-SAIDI *(YEM)*

Introduction

The Yemen Olympic Committee is a newly established committee in regard to the International Olympic family worldwide. It has gained its recognition and affiliation from the International Olympic Committee on 2nd October 1981. Such recognition and affiliation encouraged the Yemen Olympic Committee towards the formation of national technical organization which undertook the task of supervision of all the sports events of the sports related to the Olympic program as well as the other sport events which are not recognized as Olympic events.

The aim of the national technical organization was for pushing and developing of the games related to Olympic program technically and the support of the Olympic Movement in the Republic of Yemen in accordance to the principles, idealism and objectives of the Olympic organizations.

Since the achievement of such recognition, the Yemen Olympic Committee has participated actively in the summer and new Olympic events as follows

1. The Olympic Games in 1984 which was held in Los Angeles
2. The Olympic Games in 1988 which was held in Seoul
3. The Olympic Games in 1992 which was held in Barcelona
4. The Olympic Games in 1996 which was held in Atlanta

Furthermore, the Yemen Olympic Committee is now preparing for the participation in the Olympic Games which will be organized in Australia from 15th September-1st October, 2000.

The activities in the aspects of Olympic Education

During the past period and since the formation of the Yemen Olympic Committee and since gaining its membership and affiliation

to the IOC, it has played a great role in the spread nationwide of the idealism of the Olympic Movement through the organization of sport activities. In addition, to the involvement in broadening the Olympic Idealism in the educational program for sports in schools, districts and in the universities, military association and cultural, social and sport clubs and unions for general sport. The major activities are indicated hereunder

1. The Yemen Olympic Committee has established specifically a National Olympic Center as a core for a cultural organization with the aim to implement and to teach the principles in the social field with the relation of the various sport games. The center also accommodates the national teams of internal sport games for preparation of their sport participation. It is also considered as a national center for circulating and spreading the Olympic ideals and principles. We hope also in the near future through a scheme prepared by the National Olympic Committee, that it is tuned to occupy facilities and means of qualification proposed for the youth and sport leaders.
2. Assisting in training the officials in the field of sports by organizing training courses for them and ensuring that these courses contribute tremendously in spreading the major principles of the Olympic Idealism.
3. Enhancing and developing the level of the outstanding sport performances in addition to the organization of activities related to Sport for All.
4. The implementation of cultural programs which are very well linked to the International Olympic Movement.
5. Coordination and cooperation with the concerned government and non-government authorities and organizations for their active involvement towards the development and promotion of sport program at all levels.
6. Developing and enhancing all the programs concerning Olympic and non-Olympic related sport activities by organizing certain competitions and activities conducted in schools, popular areas, the provinces and refugees camps during the celebrations of our national occasions.
7. Developing and enhancing promising athletes • through the organization of educational programs and providing them all the

necessities of qualifications and preparations such as lodging, boarding, transportation and national trainers and foreign experts to sculpt their technical abilities.

8. The supervision and organization of the Olympic Day Run and the World Day Run in the provinces of the Republic being con ducted as an annual tradition.
9. The supervision of international courses which are organized in cooperation with the Olympic Solidarity and the international federations and the relevant national federations in the field of administration, refereeing and coaching.
10. The supervision of the local and internal courses which are or ganized by the national federations in the field of administration, refereeing, coaching and sport medicine.
11. The contribution in seminars and festivals which are organized by the national federations under the auspices and coordination of the Yemen Olympic Committee.
12. The Yemen Olympic Committee also plays a vital role in the spread of woman sports conducted at the national level by en couraging the organization of women sport activities, taking into consideration that the programs related to health and fitness are capable of decreasing the effects resulting from the luck of sport activity among women. Furthermore, the Yemen Olympic Com mittee has considered carefully the importance and the impact of the establishment of Olympic Centers for women. The Yemen Olympic Committee also adopts the motivation of sports in five provinces and five schools in every city. The Yemen Olympic Committee also encourages the participation of women teachers in the courses related to women activities.

Conclusion

This study focusing on the activities of the Yemen Olympic Committee is being submitted for the participants who are concerned with all the affairs of the National Olympic Committees worldwide to reveal and broden the Olympic idealism. Calling for fraternity, cooperation and the acquaintance of the youth all over the world without religious and racial discrimination. These are the major objectives of the Yemen Olympic Committee in its international Olympic activities.

OLYMPIC EDUCATION IN THE "SCHOOL OLYMPIC GAMES OF THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA"

by Stefan ILIC *(YUG)*

Last year, with the opportunity of the 5th Session of 1999, I presented a short paper entitled "OLYMPIC EDUCATION IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA". I will present it once more in the end of this brief report. With it I had presented a video, "Olympic Games in the Kindergarten".

Today's presentation will demonstrate to you the application of Olympic Education in certain final school competitions. These games are organized every four years and they are called "School Olympic Games of the Republic of Serbia". The ceremonies and the Olympic symbols are absolutely respected. In this occasion, schoolchildren learn and experience all that is in the programme of the Olympic Education.

Up to this day we have organized School Olympic Games four times in Serbia and five in Voivodina. Right now, the School Olympic Games are being held in the host-city of Zrenjanin.

At the end of this presentation you will watch the opening ceremony of the School Olympic Games as well as some of the events of the first day of the Games.

COMMUNICATION PRESENTED BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE N.O.A. OF BURUNDI

by Jean Paul BIHUTE *(BDI)*

To begin with we would like to express our warm thanks to the International Olympic Academy for organizing this Session.

This fortunate initiative gives us the chance to approach reality even more and to confront several problems that affect the establishment of peace in our States, in order to suggest rapid and effective solutions for the future.

In fact, the African Continent is currently going through one of the biggest crisis in its history. The region of Big Lakes illustrates perfectly our anxiety, since a large part of the younger generation is trained in combats and fratricidal wars.

That is the case of Rwanda, Burundi, DRC, Congo, Ethiopia and Eritrea, but without forgetting the Angolan tragedy and the Somalian drama.

Nowadays, thousands of children become orphans without neither shelter nor assistance because of wars and illnesses like AIDS. And that is not the worst of it; poverty and unemployment are increasing at an alarming rate, the rate of schooling in this region is one among the lower in the world and human rights are menaced more than in anywhere else.

Furthermore, the colonial conquest and the slave trade have weakened the continent in certain fields. These new phenomena have - among other things - changed the way of life and people's behaviour; the unity between the States was wavered in favour of the home country (France). Nevertheless, we recognize that the colonization has also make remarkable progress in several domains, like for instance in health, in education, in the introduction of new cultures and in the construction of roads and buildings. It has also contributed to the eradication of certain practices of religious character and of certain magic such as "the human sacrifice" observed during some ceremonies and national celebrations.

Without wishing to lay the blame on the ones or the others, we present hereunder an explanatory table concerning the evolution and the consequences of the aforementioned crisis.

Explanatory table of the sociopolitical situation in the region of Big Lakes from the colonization days to nowadays

Situations observed	Immediate consequences	Short-term and long-term consequences
Slavery	- Population in exile and massacres. - People emigrating from the coast to the continent's inland.	- Tension between local ethnic groups and groups coming from elsewhere in favour of colonial powers - Revolt against the existing power.
New boundaries between countries.	Dislocation of kingdoms.	- First anti-white tensions. - Territorial claims on behalf of certain customary leaders.
- Introduction of the colonial administration. - Reject of local traditions.	- Weakening of customary power. - Loss of cultural identity.	- Creation of two classes: the natives and the developed.
- Education based on the ideology of the ruling class.	The privileged persons come to power.	- Inter-ethnic hatred of political character.
- Exploitation of mining areas and other soils favourable to breeding and agriculture.	- Land expropriation. - Populations moving towards other regions.	- Land disputes. - Conflicts of socio-economic character.
Situations observed	Immediate consequences	Short-term and long-term consequences
- Political ideologies applied by leaders. - Economic globalization.	- The worship of personality. - Economic power controlled by the minority.	- Adoption of middle-class values on behalf of a population's social branch. - Majority's pauperization.

Situations observed	Immediate consequences	Short-term and long-term consequences
Wars and epidemics of all kinds.	Genocide, crimes against humanity.	- Ethnic balkanization. - High rate of orphans and war victims. - Population's pauperization. - Interruption of socio-economic activities.
Establishment of Associations of human rights and education for peace.	Slow and fragile support of populations for the cause of peace.	?

However, after having noted that sports and culture have played an important role in countries on war like Burundi, in particular

- In the struggle against ethnic balkanization that has been already established in the capital;
- As a factor of national reconciliation through sports and cultural expression;
- As an instrument of social integration destined for refugees and other victims brought about by wars and illnesses like AIDS.

The National Olympic Committee suggests that a real reform in education should be put into effect in all countries in conflict. As, due to the actual crisis, our children are much more in need of courses that have to do with solidarity, mutual assistance, respect for humans; in short, the teaching of Olympism and Fair-Play, that is sports and culture should be incorporated into the Educational System of our States.

In this context, we are going to conceive a project relevant to the creation of a Regional Center of Olympic Education and Sports in Bujumbura.

In case this project is realized, it will have as an objective - among other things - the following

- The teaching of Olympic Education and Sports at a national and regional level;
- The participation in activities of social integration and pacification through Olympic Education, Sports and Culture;

- The realization and participation in activities of formation provided through Sports and Olympic Education.

As far as this last point is concerned, the NOC of Burundi contributes to a project relevant to the staff of ordinary children through Sports and Agripastoral activities where the numbers in this domain are alarming! There are more than 60,000 orphans of war, 45,000 orphans of AIDS and in total more than 10,000 ordinary children in our country that are in search of a reimbursement.

We should also encourage Sports and Cultural activities in this region in order to struggle against expulsion and to allow populations to meet each other more often so as to re-build the lost social cohesion.

We appeal once again to the assistance of IOC & IOA, of International Federations, of UNESCO, of UNDP and of UNICEF to financially support this sort of activities in all the States on war.

We are ready to collaborate with different partners that are working on the staff of the region's younger generation, in order to develop with them the projects in the field of education through sports and culture.

Finally, we appeal to every participant's help in order to support the idea of a project relevant to the organization of sports and cultural events in the countries of Big Lakes every 2 years, under the auspices of IOC and UNESCO.

And we conclude our communication cherishing hopes for the future.

OLYMPIC EDUCATION IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

by Paraskevi Lioubi *(GRE)*

Olympic Education in our country has a long history. Topics relative to the ancient and the modern Olympic Games are part of the schoolbooks of primary school pupils since many years ago. Going through the school books of language, of *"Εμείς και ο Κόσμος"* (Our World), history, and religion that are taught in Greek primary schools today, we noted that the history of the Olympic Games and the Olympic Spirit are often mentioned.

We shall now state our data, briefly analyzing each one.

We will start with the book "Our World" of the 3rd grade. In the chapter "Ancient Greeks are our ancestors", two pictures about the civilization of ancient Greece have the Games as a subject. Starting from these pictures, the children and their teacher discuss the Olympic Games and compare then and now. Through this comparison, children are introduced to the meaning of historic time and cultural evolution, as the teachers' manual states.

In the history book of the 4th grade we found the sonet of Lorentzos Mavilis "Kallipateira". In it, the children have the chance to revisit several things related to the ancient Olympic Games. In this poem the heroine lays claim to the Olympic victories of her father, her brothers and her nephew, in order to justify her daring, for that time, action.

In this chapter there are verses of the 14th *Olympionikis* of Pindarus, that narrate the victory of young Asochipos in Olympia.

In the same book, in the chapter "The Battle of Marathon", there is mention to the history of the marathon race and its establishment, since 1896, as an official Olympic event.

In the language book of the 4th grade we found the text "Chariot Race in Ancient Olympia". This text does not only introduce the children to this ancient sport, but also gives them a mental picture of the ground of Olympia, the Altis.

The children have encountered the sacred Altis before, in the language book of the 3rd grade, where there is a text specifically entitled "Sacred Altis". There is mention to the wars between the people of Ilia and Arkadia, for the ascendancy of the area, in a pre-Olympic time.

With the help of the text about the ancient chariot race, the pupils learn how important the owner of the horses was, and about his reward in case of victory. The vocabulary of the text is rich, with words like νύσσα (whip), τέθριππα (four-horse chariots), άρμα (chariot), ηνίοχος (charioteer) and more. It can be the beginning for an extensive study of the Olympic Games in Antiquity.

In "Our World" of the 4th grade, specifically in the chapter "Greek Nature and Works of Civilization" we can see pictures of the Panathinaikon Stadium and a mention to the first Olympic Games, as well as pictures of the Olympic Stadium with reference to the modern Games.

In the language book of the 6th grade, there are verses of a poem by Takis Doxas *"Το Φως της Ολυμπίας"* (The Light of Olympia), that is recited during the lightning ceremony of the sacred flame in Olympia. Its subject is the humanitarian message of the Olympic Games, which is made clear to the children through examining the meaning and the aesthetics of the poem.

In the history book of the 6th grade, in the chapter "Growth and Change in Greece" there is a text referring to the revival of the Olympic Games, to Pierre de Coubertin, to the success of the Greek team and the victory of Spyros Louis.

We see the Olympic Principles in texts found in the book of religious studies *"Με τον Χριστό στον Αγώνα"*. In the chapter "Games in the Schoolyard and the Classroom", the aim is for children to learn that playing is a form of game that has set rules, to realize the need and the value of participating in a game, and to understand that every game can offer the satisfaction of playing.

In the chapter "Together we Compete" there is mention to the meaning of team spirit and proper athletic behavior. In the chapter "The Joy of Winning" the relation between athletic and spiritual struggle is shown. The concepts of victory, defeat, persistence, effort and labor are cited.

In the same book there is a chapter about the Stadium of Peace and Friendship. The concepts of peace and companionship are emphasized in it.

The issue of health is encountered in the books "Our World" of the 3rd and 4th grade. In the 3rd grade we attempt, as it is mentioned in the teachers' manual, to show the children that cleanliness, physical exercise and other good habits guarantee our health.

In the 4th grade we try to show the pupils how important activity is for the well being of our bodies and to make them understand, yet more, the significance of physical exercise for our health. We attempt to get the pupils used to certain ways of healthful behavior in their everyday lives, and especially in anything that has to do with nature, team playing and mental health.

Our suggestion is to combine all the material related to Olympism and its principles with life experiences of the pupils in the schoolyard or the playing field. For example, after learning about "games in the schoolyard and the classroom", it would be great for the children to go out to the schoolyard and play. The combination of theory with practice can only have a positive impact in the intellectual, emotional and social development of the pupil.

To conclude, I would like to remember with you the words of Ploutarchos:

"Synopsizing I tell you this - and my word sounds like an omen from a God not my own suggestion- that One is first and middle and last in all these things the most important: careful upbringing and education in accordance with the law"

PRESENTATION OF A CULTURAL ACTIVITY OF AN OLYMPIC EDUCATION PROGRAM

by Iraklis KELLIS *(GRE)*

In the academic year 1998-1999 the 6th elementary public school of Halandri applied the Olympic Education program. In the framework of this program, a ceremony was organised in the end of the school year. In the musical and dancing part of the ceremony 101 students participated. 84 of them were students of the 5th and 6th grade and 17 were High school students who had graduated from the school.

The aim of this ceremony was to provide to the students the opportunity to revive the cultural and ceremonial part of a modern Olympiad, and through the employment of hobby-rollers to liaison a favorite hobby with educational procedures.

The aims of the program were

a. Research
   - Multi-discipline subject approach (historical, theological, geo graphical) through journeys-references to the most important moments of Greek history (the Revolution of 1821, the 1940 war, modern history) up to the present day and further into the future, up to the 2004 Olympics, with the Marbled king as the relay-runner.

b. Moral-Social-Pedagogical
   - Adaptation of novel behavior rules, communication, communal and equal participation, decision making, character-role selec tion, roles interchange, finding and validation of the most ex pressing movements in the formations of students, choreogra phies, understanding of the Olympic spirit and its timeless value, development of positive thinking, perception and atti tudes towards athletics and Olympics.

c. Kinetic-Expressional
   - Improvement of body motion ability through the use of rollers, body balance and space perception, speed control, exercise of legs and physical condition in general.

- Creation of individual expression, movement and display of emotions, through the theatrical play and the dramatization through creativity of children
- Addition to the students entertainment, adaptation of hobbies (rollers) in the educational procedures aiming in a continuous exercise-hobby and the display of talent.

As soon as the main subject of the ceremony was defined, students begun collecting information based on the legend of the Marbled King, thus acquiring a global view of the time and place of the origins of our journey in time. After discussions and exchange of ideas, a set of themes were defined so as to produce a complete ceremony.

We concluded that the ceremony should include the following themes

1. Presentation of the legend and the main characters (narration, kinetic- choreographical presentation)
2. Twinhead eagle (narration, kinetic-choreographical presentation)
3. Angel of our Lord - Orthodox religion (narration, kinetic- choreo graphical presentation of the religional elements of the Greek his tory)
4. The last battle - Ealo I polis (=Constantinople has fallen) (narra tion, kinetic- choreographical presentation of the fall of Constan tinople and the end of the Byzantine era).
5. Sweet Polis (narration, kinetic-choreographical tribute to Constan tinopole and the glorious cities of the Greek histories).
6. Relay Runner of Culture and History (the main character of the legend carries us through a choreography to later glorious eras in years 1821, 1940).
7. Meeting the present - traveling to the *future* (a new emperor Con stantine- relay runner meets us today and asks us to join the ancient world with the modern, that of the future, the eternal one and reminds us that Athens of 2004 awaits us), (Poem, ki netic- choreographical presentation).

The ceremony included students from different classes, so in order to avoid problems in the normal school operation, students from each class formed working groups that prepared a theme each. The students worked not only for their improvement in motion on rollers and the acquisition of the rhythm of music, but also for the expres-

sion of the overall image. Working in full harmony they let their imagination guide their bodies in motions expressing joy, sorrow, power, death, festivity, battle scenes, symbols of the Holly.

An important aid for the final outcome was videos of skaters and numerous visits to the ice skating arena of the town. The preparation of the ceremony took place from February up to April during the Physical Education classes (10 minutes in each class-hour) and all weekends of these months (two hours per weekend). In May the final overall rehearsals took place for he final bonding of themes and the synchronisation of motion.

Comments - Remarks

The innovative introduction of a leisure time hobby (hobby-rollers) in conjunction with the actions which were realised in the framework of Olympic and Athletic Education motivated all the students to participate and offer voluntary work even outside school time table and the eagerness to produce the best possible ceremony.

Through all the many hours of effort and creative occupation many novel virtues emerged: respect for the fellow student, effort recognition, talent, creativity, and continuous effort for the final recognition, voluntary participation.

The huge success of the ceremony and the admiration and satisfaction of the parents was the invaluable award for the efforts of the students and convinced them that the important issue is participation and collaboration.

The use of rollers was beneficiary for the lessons of Physical Education. During the period of the creation of the ceremony and the realisation of the Olympic and Athletic Education, students performed as a tremendous source of ideas, emotions, movements and expressions, elements which are innovative and resourcefull for the children themselves but also for the teacher and the educational purpose. In a very short time from the beginning of this effort and with comparison with previous academic years, a serious of memorable responds from students occurred such as

- Increment of the participation percentage of students in all the subjects of Physical Training.
- Reduction of competition and rejection of the weak (in sports) students

- Reduction of the non-participation occurances of non-talented students.
- Increment in the participation of students in out-of-school athletic activities (basketball and volleyball tournaments, track and field events. The participation ranged from 82%-100%, which was sig nificantly larger than the figures of the previous year, which was 60%-70%).

The proposed work method, the introduction of innovative motion activities (hobbies) facilitates the mission of teacher, provides a pleasant working environment for the students, helps participation and interest, unites the different elements of athletic and cultural day, underlines the role of Physical Education, broadens the minds of students in relation to athletic and cultural education, connects literature, poetry, mythology, history with personal motion-expression, guides the children in expressing emotions and to understand our civilization.

The programs of Physical Education with the richness of their activities broadens the students minds, helps them to cooperate, to express themselves, to play, to laugh, to create, to critisize, to dream, to travel from the past to the present and the future, and to show them the values and virtues of the Olympic spirit.

NATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY OF CENTRAL AFRICA: FOUNDATION, PROFILE, ACTIVITIES AND PROSPECTS

by Théophile TOUBA *(CAF)*

I. Foundation

The National Olympic Academy of Central Africa, independent body of the Central African Olympic and Sports Committee, came into existence on 18th December 1993, under the name: "National Olympic Commission", thanks to the efforts of Mr. Jacob Gbeti, President of the C.A.O.S.C.

Nevertheless, being anxious to conform to the structures of the I.O.C. and, above all, to those of the I.O.A., the President of the C.A.O.S.C. changed the National Olympic Commission into a National Olympic Academy on 18th February 1994, and it was assigned the task to popularise the athletic spirit and the Olympic Ideals.

II. The Activities of the N.O.A.C.A.

Since its foundation, the young National Olympic Academy of Central Africa has devoted its efforts to the achievement of the goals that had been ascribed to it.

Consequently, in May 1994, it organised a composition writing and drawing contest on the subject: "The Olympic Games".

This contest, open to both pupils of primary and secondary education and students of higher education, gave us the opportunity to assess level of knowledge of these target-groups on the Olympic Games in general. The particularly positive results of this contest were a source of useful information for us, as 65% of the contestants had a precise idea of what the Olympic Games are or which events are officially included in the Games. That was due to the magic surrounding the images of the Olympic Games transmitted through national television, which was replacing the international TV stations.

Thus encouraged, we decided to check the knowledge the pupils and students of secondary and higher education were supposed to possess on the athletic spirit and the Olympic Ideals.

To this end, a campaign was organised in February 1996, involving all high schools in the Central African Republic and aimed at increasing public awareness and, most of all, popularising the athletic spirit and the Olympic Ideals by means of a questionnaire with open-ended questions, used as a pedagogical tool.

In 1996 and 1997, our country was confronted with two very big military and socio-political crises, which seriously threatened our nation's unity and our social cohesion. On those occasions, the old demons of splitting up showed their face again, as tribal and regionalist feelings had re-emerged. The Central Africans were, consequently, divided in "savannah-people", "forest-people" and "river-people" on the one hand, and in "northerners" and "southerners" on the other.

Faced with such a danger and in order to prevent the total destruction of our country, the National Olympic Academy of Central Africa, thanks to the Olympic Solidarity, organised, in 1998 and in 2000, two big campaigns, aimed at increasing public awareness on all issues concerning "sports and peace" and "Olympism and peace."

Those campaigns were so successful that we were solicited by the various populations to hold them twice a year (which, unfortunately, can't be done, due to the lack of means).

In May 1998, our National Olympic Academy held its first National Session for Presidents and Secretary-Generals of the 18 Sports Federations brought together under our National Olympic Committee.

Our interest with regard to this first session, whose subject was "Olympism", was to pass information to those in charge of the management of the Olympic Movement in Central Africa, in order to help them form a clear concept of the international Olympic Movement, become sufficiently steeped in the Olympic Ideals, get an idea of the profiles of the persons in charge, e.t.c.

Nine participants, ranking amongst the most important managers of the Olympic Movement in Central Africa and the N.O.A.C.A., were selected to organise activities for that session, which involved 36 persons and lasted three days.

The success of that first session led to the organisation of the second National Session, held specifically for the National Technical Managers and Coaches of the 19 Federations brought together under the C.A.O.S.C.

The subject remained the same, but it was reformulated, so that the stress would fall on the Olympic ethics and morals as well as on the athletic spirit.

The choice of these new targets was dictated by the alarming recurrence of acts of violence in sports-grounds, the disputes over referee decisions and, in one word, by the absence of any kind of athletic spirit, although coaches and technical managers, who train athletes, ought to do their best to teach them respect for the principles of fair-play.

III. The Profile of the National Olympic Academy of Central Africa

To provide it with the necessary boost for the fulfilment of its mission, the N.O.A.C.A. was given the following reliable structure and responsible composition

- A President (a University Professor).
- A Vice-president (an Assistant Professor), in charge of the Popu larisation of the Olympic Ideals in the University environment.
- A Technical Manager (a Professor of Sports and Physical Educa tion), in charge of the organisation of conferences.
- A Head of Mission (a School Inspector in primary education).
- A Representative of the Popularisation of the Olympic Ideals in schools and Teacher Training Centres for teachers of Physical Education (a teacher of Physical Education in secondary educa tion).
- A Representative of the Popularisation of the Olympic Ideals in non-formal environments (a Consultant on sports and cultural matters).

Being thus organised, the N.O.A.C.A. is operating in a way which allows it to be effective in the fulfilment of its mission, since every member is expected to submit a report on his/her activities every three months. The combined result of all such reports is then turned into the N.O.A.C.A.'s programme of action.

IV. Prospects

For the year 2001, the N.O.A.C.A. is planning, on condition that it is provided with the necessary means by the Olympic Solidarity, to organise a big session of a more technical nature on: "Different Strategies for Introducing Olympism in the Educational System (Schools) of Central Africa". It's a difficult task, for the accomplishment of which we are going to solicit the contribution of the I.O.A. on matters of expertise, given that the implementation of the results of the work done in workshops is not going to be an easy task, as Olympism is not one of the school subjects to which the government gives priority.

To conclude, we would say that, though young, the N.O.A.C.C.A. has had a positive contribution in the restoration of peace in our country and the improvement of athletic conduct. If the N.O.A.C.C.A. has managed to successfully accomplish its mission, this is due to the President of our N.O.C., who has never ceased to provide us with his support through his counsel and positive actions.

CREATION AND PROMOTION OF THE OLYMPIC ACADEMIES

by Conrado DURANTEZ *(ESP)*

The International Olympic Academy has been a permanent need as well as a target for the modern Olympic Movement. The concept goes back to Pierre de Coubertin, as a key element to safeguard and defend peace, education and the formative values considered to be key elements of the Olympic Practice. The Academy was established in June the 16th, 1961 at the opening constitutional Session in Olympia. Twenty nine years later, on June the 16th, 1990, the Olympic Academy institution was established in accordance with the Olympic Charter, following the International Olympic Committee Session which was held in Tokyo. Rule 31 which is modified and enlarged, underlines in point 2-1 of same, that the fundamental mission of the National Olympic Committees, is to defend the main principles of Olympism within the country, as well as their diffusion in the physical and sport programmes, promoting the creation of institutions devoted to the Olympic education, specifying that *They will promote most of all, the creation and activities of the National Olympic Academies.*

Taking in full consideration the imperative mandate of the Olympic Charter, it is necessary to envisage it as a special opportunity with respect to the crisis faced by the modern Olympic Movement during last year and now it is more necessary than ever to teach and disseminate the real values help by the Olympic Movement, which have in a way been forgotten, following the shock produced by some communication agencies, disseminating negative news most of which are non- sense.

The prevention and fight against the source of doping in sport has the most efficient solution in the propagation of ethical principles of competition, ignored under progressive pressure of marketing, where everything is possible as long as we turn victorious. The executives, the coaches, and the journalists must be duly informed

and instructed on the principles and rules of the Olympic Philosophy, specific and principal tasks of the Olympic Academy.

Today, it is more than ever urgent to promote and encourage the tasks of the National Olympic Academies. The National Olympic Academy, as a NOCs body, has to monitor the true direction and essence of sport, as sport without the spirit of the fair competition is no longer a sport, and if Sport did not serve men a way for their individual and social improvement, sport would be useless.

In accordance to what has been exposed, we may concretize the importance of the Olympic Academy Institution and an improvement in its functioning through the following points

1. The Olympic Charter in its actual version recognizes the Olympic Academy as the only specific body for the diffusion of Olympic Ideals, at world level, which is the International Olympic Academy (rule 2-14) at national level, when it is about the launching and creation of the National Olympic Academies in the National Olym pic Committees (rule 31-2-1), therefore, we should underline that due to the reference of the Charter to the support of the Institu tions that defend and spread the Olympic principles, only con cretizes one as officially recognized, supported and defended, which is the Olympic Academy.
2. Due to the recent critical circumstances within the Olympic Move ment, it is now more urgent than ever to strengthen and promote the National Olympic Academies, and the best way to do it is through the aid from Olympic Solidarity granted annually to the National Olympic Committees for the programming of their activities and courses, and was addressed to the creation of National Olympic Academies in the countries where they may not exist (over 100), or the activities of these, if they are already functioning.
3. The NOCs who wish to create an Olympic Academy could be ad vised by an expert appointed by Olympic Solidarity who, by trav elling to the country, would inform the NOC members.
   Likewise, for official courses of the NOAs, it is convenient to have the participation of an expert financed by Olympic Solidarity and who would cooperate with the speakers from the countries. The features of the expert are to be or to have been a sports competitor, as well as to have a satisfactory university level of education.
   The fundamental condition for an adequate management is to

speak the same language, as whereas in a sports training technical course, the body position may supply the words precision, this does not apply when dealing with cultural or philosophical concepts, where if the communication is not in the same language, many ideas are unexplained or eliminated. The lack of identity forbids a fluid interchange and a direct dialogue.

4. The impulse of NOCs through cultural and linguistic blocks has a positive example in the Iberoamerican Association of Olympic Academies, created in Madrid in 1990, which comprised just five NOAs (Argentina, Spain, Portugal, Ecuador and Peru). The Asso ciation, in its twelve years of activity and with the support of Olympic Solidarity, has promoted the impulsion and creation of 15 Olympic Academies within its area, and today 26 of them work on a regular basis. They are apart from Spain and Portugal, those of Angola, Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Cost Rica, Cuba, Chili, Ecuador, Salvador, Guatemala, Equatorial Guinea, Honduras, Mexico, Mozambique, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Puerto Rico, Dominican Republic, Sao Tomé, Uruguay and Venezuela.

   The biannual congresses of this Association have led it to have all its affiliated academies be really operational and in the VIII Congress to be held between the 8th and the 15th in June, in Huelva, Spain, they will study and investigate about the origins of Olympism in all the area of the Association. Within the line of promotion and impulsion of the NOA through a same language, the experience as a consequence of the programmation of a seminar in Benin, Africa, between the 1st and the 8th of December 1997, supported by the Department of International Cooperation from the International Olympic Committee, 25 representatives from 9 French speaking countries of West Africa (Togo, Mali, Niger, Benin, Ivory Coast, Burkina Faso, Mauritania, Equatorial Guinea, and Senegal) received information relative to the objects of the Olympic Academy, the way to constitute it and the functioning media, having as a result of this seminar various academies as that of Niger and of Senegal among others.

5. The good functioning of the NOA makes easier the task of the International Olympic Academy, with headquarters in Olympia,

Greece, which is supported by the Greek Olympic Committee and the International Olympic Committee at world level. It would be convenient if in each one the NOCs Continental Associations existed a Commission for the Olympic Academy with a representative in charge of encouraging the creation of the NOAs in the countries where they do not exist, acting in collaboration with the guidelines of the International Olympic Academy and the Cultural Commission of the International Olympic Committee which comprises the Commission for the Olympic Academy and the Olympic Education.

Olympism is a philosophy of life based on human ideals. The crisis of the ideals made the first Olympic Games in the History perish. On the threshold of XXI century, Olympism is still threatened with another serious crisis, of which one of the most dangerous factors is the increase of the excessive marketing from the Games, and against its negative pressure, the International Olympic Committee and the NOA have to make a balance facing the eternal enemies of sport. This is why it is worth to comply with the mandate of the Olympic Charter, within each country, as it protects and promotes the National Olympic Academies.

A REVIEW OF OLYMPIC EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN CANADA

by Dr. Gene SUTTON *(CAN)*

The purpose of this presentation is to share with you an overview of the Olympic educational programs and activities of the Canadian Olympic Association for the past year. The goal of these programs and activities is to inform and inspire Canadians from coast to coast on Olympism, the Olympic Movement and the core values of the Canadian Olympic Association. The current focus is on young people but programs are not limited to educating only youth.

The educational programs and activities of the Canadian Olympic Association are divided into eight main areas

a. Schools
b. Camps
c. Games
d. Congress
e. Arts and Culture
f. Leadership
g. Partnerships
h. Marketing and Promotion

In Canada, schools are the most efficient way to reach young people. Our Olympic Resource Kit is updated for each Olympic Games. The current update "Canada at he Games in 2000" will be distributed to every elementary school in Canada this summer and will be utilized in school programs commencing September, 2000.

Our newest school program "2000 Canadian Olympic Challenge" will be launched at the same time as the Olympic and Paralympic Games in Sydney. The Challenge program encourages students to share in the spirit of the Games and to begin the journey to become a "Canadian Olympic School". The 4-step program concentrates on the Olympic values. For example, Step One introduces students to the Olympic values as presented in the community and by Olympians. In Step 2 called "Capturing the Olympic Spirit", students must demonstrate a personal understanding of Olympic values. Gold, silver or bronze certificates are presented to schools who complete 1, 2 or more of the steps. Schools who wish a bigger challenge may complete seven (7) activities which reflect the Olympic values and

earn the right to fly the Canadian Olympic flag for one year at their school. More information on the Olympic Resource Kit and the Challenge are available on the COA Website - www.coa.ca

Summer camps offer an extension to the school program, presenting an opportunity to reinforce the message for students who have participated in school Olympic programs. Camp Olympic programs also present the potential to reach older youth as the school programs concentrate on children 12 years and younger. Future plans include developing an Olympic flag program for camps.

Although Olympic educational programs in Canada are not limited to the time period of or information about the Olympic Games, we recognize that the Games are the "hook" and the magic which attracts youth to the Olympic Movement. The Canadian Olympic Association strongly supports the participation of Canadian youth in the youth camps organized by the host societies of the Olympic Games. We recently selected 8 young people from across Canada from hundreds of applications to attend the Sydney Youth Camp in September, 2000. A special education program directly connected to the Sydney Summer Olympics is the Ryde-Canada 2000 School Program. Canada has selected Marquarie University in the City of Ryde, Australia for the site of Canada Olympic Place. Members of the mission and medical staff, parents and other supporters of the Canadian Olympic Team will be housed here. The Ryde-Canada 2000 School program is a school program designed uniquely for the area children. Objectives include the promotion of international understanding and friendship between Ryde and Canadian students and provision of the opportunity to share the Olympic spirit through a cultural exchange.

Also in the area of Olympic Games, some Canadian schools are involved in the Adopt-an-Athlete program. Many schools are also planning on-site Olympic activities during the same time as the Sydney Games. Canada continues to foster our relationship with Australian school children from Samuel Gilbert school who made the large Canadian flag which has travelled to Nagano and next to Sydney with Canadian Olympic athletes. The giant flag is also borrowed by groups in Canada hosting sport competitions and Olympic activities. Students at Ryerson school in Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada are the very proud keepers of the flag when it requires storage.

The Annual Congress of the Canadian Olympic Association is hosted in major cities across Canada. The Congress programs facilitate community involvement over a 3-4 day period as planning, organizing and hosting this large event is carried out by local volunteers. The Athletes Council (of approximately 50 Olympians) spent one day participating in local community and school programs during the Congress.

Another mechanism for achieving the goals of Olympic Education is through the medium of the arts and culture. Thousands of Canadian children participate in activities such as the VISA Art Challenge, the IOC Sport and Art Contest and the World's Children's Art Competition 2001.

A variety of formats for Olympic Academies present many opportunities to develop leadership - an important component in Canada's Olympic Education program. Youth Academies for students aged 15 to 18 years are held annually in 9 of Canada's 13 provinces and territories. Our goal is to host an annual youth Academy in each province and territory. We are reviewing the format for our National Academy for adult participants and part of this review includes studying the feasibility of developing Regional Academies. The Canadian Olympic Association continues to fully support Canadian participation to the advanced, graduate and youth sessions of the International Olympic Academy.

A recent expansion of our Olympic Education programs is the developing of partnerships with organizations which share the Olympic values. Partnerships with organizations such as the Department of Justice, the Department of Health and Foreign Affairs Canada increase the opportunities to impact and to assist with sharing the costs of promoting the Olympic values. Partnerships have also been developed between the Canadian Olympic Association and Child Abuse Survivor Movement Project, Canadian Paralympic Committee, Canadian Nurses Association, National Capital Commission and the Canadian Special Olympics.

In the area of marketing and promotion the Canadian Olympic Association is continually seeking partnerships with sponsors that can further promote our COA Education goals.

Thank you for the opportunity to share with you the highlights from the past year of Olympic Education programs in Canada. Please seek me out at the conclusion of this afternoon's presentation if you have any questions or require more information.

THE MAIN ACTIVITIES OF THE CENTRAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY OF RUSSIA

by Natalya MELNIKOVA *(RUS)*

Since 1998, the Central Olympic Academy (COA) in accordance with a decision of the Council of Presidents of Regional Olympic Academies has become a joint information and methodological center for the Regional Olympic Academies of Russia. The COA closely co-operates with the Department of the Olympic Education of the Russian Olympic Committee in this field. Three representatives of the COA and the Russian State Academy of Physical Education were among the authors of the first edition of textbook "Your Olympic Textbook".

The creation of the 5 serial films "From the history of the Olympic Games" plays an important role in the activities of the COA. The films "Hellenic Games" and "Renaissance" were highly appreciated by the experts of the Russian Olympic Committee and participants of the International Olympic Academy Sessions in 1996. The 3rd film "Olympic Russia" is going to be released soon.

In order to support the teaching of students of the State Academy the training aids on the history of the Olympic Movement were published. It is widely used by students both during the studies and teaching practice.

The joint actions of the C.O.A and historical and sports museum. of the Russian State Academy contribute heavily to the development of Olympic Education. Thousands of exhibits were displayed in the museum, many of them are unique. The archives and display of the museum considerably promote the mastering of Olympic knowledge.

The Academy sports base: 14 specialized sports halls, indoor athletic arena, 3 shooting halls, indoor skating ring for ice sports, swimming pool with 3 pools, the stadium with football field and track and field activities, 13 tennis courts.

Within 80 years of the Academy existence 46 thousand highly skilled specialists in physical education and sport graduated from

it. Since 1947 till present time 3500 foreign specialists from 115 countries were trained. Among the graduates there are about 5000 honored masters of sports, Olympic, World, and European Champions.

The Academy Olympic Champions and great athletes: Lev Yashin, Vladimir Kuzin, Peter Bolotnikov, Valéry Brumel, Irina Rodnina, Valéry Kharlamov, Vlamidir Kuts, Paul Bure, Anna Kumikova, Sergej Federov.

The scientific schools of the Academy: V.V. Gorinevsky (scientific and pedagogical control in the physical education and sport), M.F. Ivanitsky (dynamic anatomy and sports morphology), I.M. Sarkizov-Serazini (sport medicine, medical and sport massage), N.A. Bernshtein (sports biomechanics), P.A. Rudic (sport psychology), A.D. Novikov (the theory of physical education).

Today there are more than 400 teachers at the Academy, 80 doctors of science and professors, 4 members and corresponding members of Russian Academy of Education, 7 Honored Scientists, 38 Honored workers in Physical Education, 17 Honored coaches and 46 Honored Masters of Sport among them. Everybody knows B.A. Stenin, D.A. Tieshier, V.M. Igumenov, A.S. Medvedev.

There are several faculties at the Academy

1 - faculty of sport games
2 - faculty of single combat and applied kinds of sports
3 - faculty of cyclic kinds of sports and physical activity
4 - faculty of complex forms of physical activity
5 - humanitarian faculty
6 - faculty for training Masters in physical education
7 - faculty of an individual professional education
8 - faculty of the preliminary education
9 - the correspondence faculty
10 - faculty for the preliminary training of foreign students

There is the system of continuous education at the Academy

- Post-graduate department
- Doctoral studying department
- The Institute for advanced qualification and staff retraining

THE ACTIVITIES OF THE SOUTH RUSSIAN OLYMPIC ACADEMY

by Denis KROUJKOV *(RUS)*

The South Russian Olympic Academy (SROA) was founded almost 11 years ago, on June 8th, 1989, in the Krasnodar State Institute (nowadays the Kuban State Academy) of Physical Education. This voluntary public organization is guided by in the activity with the Olympic Charter and state normative documents.

Originally academy integrated 13 territories of Russian Federation, but now under its jurisdiction there are 10 locales, among which seven North Caucasus republics (Adigea, Dagestan, Ingushetia, Kabardino-Balkariya, Kalmykia, Karachaevo- Cherkessia, North Ossetia), Krasnodar and Stavropol Regions and Rostov area.

As is recorded in the Charter, the main purposes of the SROA are learning, distribution, explanation and propagation of humanist values, ideals and principles of the Olympic Movement among the population of locale, assistance to implementation of moral and physical perfecting of the person in a name of a strengthening of peace and friendship between the peoples of multinational Caucasus, a non-admission of political, racial, religious and other discrimination.

Alongside with propagation of Olympism ideas, SROA puts before itself the following tasks

1) to promote development of physical culture, sports and the Olym pic Movement in the South of Russia to execute practical opera tions in dilating sport communications between peoples of locale, revival both development of international and national kinds of sports;
2) to introduce a research work in learning different aspects of physi cal culture, sports and the Olympic Movement, including the me thodical and consulting help, reviewing and expert estimation of thesis, scientific articles etc.;
3) to participate in activity of the ROC, Central and regional Olympic academies to strengthen links with International Olympic Com-

mittee (IOC), International Olympic Academy (IOA), and other national and foreign Olympic organizations.

SROA participates in organization and realization of various sport competitions. Highly estimating a humanist potential of sports and Olympism, in 1992 the members of the SROA Executive Board and Olympic champions of the region (23 persons) have addressed to the conflicting peoples of North Caucasus with call-up to stop their battles for the time of the XXV Olympic Games in Barcelona. The reference has received a broad resonance and high estimation of the IOC President J.A.Samaranch.

Deciding a problem of development not only conventional, but also national kinds of sports, SROA has passed a long way from organizing the local competitions on national kinds of sports (1989-1992) up to the Spartakiad of the South Russian Cities (1993), which was transformed to Games of the North Caucasus Peoples (1994-1998). These complex competitions received the ROC recognition, and five years pass under its patronage. They to the full meet the requirements of the Olympic Charter and correspond to the Olympic Spirit, as almost all North Caucasus republics routed the sport delegations on Games to Nalchik (twice), Maikop and Stavropol. We become the witnesses that the Olympic idea embodied in honest and open competitions pursuant to principles of cooperation and friendship, became the basis of conciliation and affiliation of the North Caucasus peoples on sporting arenas. The games have gained peacemaking value, as are conducted under the motto: "Peace to you, Caucasus!", and in all villages in the mountains the lines from "The Ode to Sport" by Pierre de Coubertin were sounded. The people studied to perceive and to respect one another, consolidating there by interethnic communications. And it is possible, as an athlete is not only participant of competitions, but also a carrier of national culture trying to show from the best party to open itself as the person. The IOC President J.A. Samaranch and the ROC President V.G. Smirnov repeatedly marked the huge role of Games of the North Caucasus Peoples.

The similar attitude to sports in locale is mirrored and in participation of the sportsmen of the South of Russia in the Olympic Games (1952-1996). During this period 199 athletes from the North Caucasus sport schools have shared in Games, and won to the national

teams of the USSR, the CIS and Russia 54 gold, 37 silver and 40 bronze medals. After actuation in the program of the Olympic Games a trampoline jumping the sportsmen of locale have received chance even better to exhibit themselves, as the Krasnodar school of this kind of sport recognized by the best in Russia.

The South Russian Olympic Academy consolidates its own international sport communications. This year SROA organized the North Caucasus Olympiad, which took place in the town of Anapa near the Black Sea.

Under a banner of the Olympism the regional stage of the Russian Bicycle- Race Championship is carried out. It is held under the motto "Friendship of the North Caucasus Peoples", and passes annually in September-October on the territory of Adigea Republic, and is also organized by the South Russian Olympic Academy.

SROA also carries out annual competitions on five kinds of sports for the veterans, regional University Games, and "SPART" tournaments for high educational establishments, and secondary schools (8-11 classes). Also one can mark the reflection of the Paralympic Movement ideas in annually spent competitions for children with loosed health merits or physically disabled people. Since 1990, SROA tried to carry out at least two conventional scientific conferences on the Olympic Movement at the ail-Russian and regional level: one for the scientists in the field of physical culture and sports (are carried out in miscellaneous cities of location), and the other - for the young researchers. By results of the second conference, the special commission executes selection of the participants for Olympic scientific session of the young researchers and students of Russia.

By the employees of Academy is developed and is given to the students the special knowledge on the Modem Aspects of the International Olympic Movement.

Since 1993, under the guideline of the ROC, the academy awakely participates in organization and realization of the South Russian regional competition of the Olympic Movement experts among pupils of secondary schools. The representatives from 7 territories participate in competition, and the winners are routed on the All- Russia tour in Moscow.

SROA supervises an Olympic direction in a research work spent in KSAPE which are Institutes and Universities of locale. Only in

the last two years three researchers got their scientific defended their Ph.D. in the Olympic Sphere, and a certain number of student's outlet qualifying activities for their Bachelor's Degrees.

The academy delegates permanently participate in the Olympic Balls of the champions, recommend the representatives for the All competition "Sport Elite of the Year" practically on all nominations. Annually, since 1990, students and the post-graduate students of Krasnodar participate in Olympic scientific sessions for the young scientists and students of Russia, and eight times they entered competitions and were awarded with valuable prizes, were twice directed for the ROC score on the sessions in Olympia (Greece), and once, on the IOC prompt, to Lausanne (Switzerland) to make research in archives of a Olympic Museum.

SROA supports close scientific communications with Olympic Academies and National Olympic Committees of 49 foreign countries. Its members sometimes participate in activity of international conferences.

As a conclusion it would be desirable to mark that the South Russian Olympic Academy came through its first decade, and this difficult test was overcome successfully. After the USSR disintegration the SROA Executive Board found internal forces to not admit such processes in the local and to keep spirit of brotherhood in the multinational South. The affiliation of all peoples of Caucasus under the Olympic Idea will strengthen during the future All-Caucasus Games which are in the long-term projects of the SROA.

ACTIVITIES THAT CAN BE INCLUDED IN A PROGRAMME OF OLYMPIC AND SPORTS EDUCATION

by Alexandros MAKRIS *(GRE)*

During the previous school year (1998-1999), the 14th Primary School of Kallithea participated in an experimental program entitled "Introduction to Olympic and Sports Education". This program was carried out through the Pedagogical Institute, in the 6th grade of thirty selected primary schools throughout the country.

The intention of this innovative program was to give the pupils, by means of the Olympic ideals, a unique outlook on life, combining sports with civilization, art and education, aiming to develop the physical, intellectual and mental qualities of the pupils within a balanced entity.

The program was formed so that it would provide the pupils with knowledge and, on the other hand, help them gain experience, emphasizing the values they will obtain, by way of the multiple activities required for its completion.

The teaching method of the program was the team-cooperative method of "projects". It is a pupil-oriented and not a teacher-oriented approach, in which teachers and pupils participate on even terms.

During the first stage of implementation of the program, the pupils were informed and sensitized about the issue. Then they were separated in teams, in accordance with the team-cooperative method. For the composition of the teams the pupils filled out a special questionnaire (Moreno's sociogram). Each team took over, and accomplished specific actions, according to a timetable. By assigning diverse activities to the pupils, I tried to contribute to the development of their sports awareness and education, to introduce them to new ways of thinking, so that they could face critically the facts that were presented to them. On this way I helped the pupils to broaden their mental as well as their artistic abilities. They managed to combine learning with the joy of creation, they went through the doors

of their school and developed activities in society in its whole. They acquired experience, they worked with care and contentment and they constructed original constructions out of everyday materials. During the program, our school has been involved in the following activities

- **A press conference with the Minister of Sports**
  The visit took place in Zappeion Hall, in the conference room of the Ministry of Press. The point of our visit was for the pupils to get information about the sports facilities, the base work and the organization of the 2004 Olympic Games that will take place in our country. The pupils worked like journalists. They had prepared themselves for the press conference made their own questions, and the minister gave answers to all of their inquiries. Daily press and private television networks covered the press conference, which was also presented in a sports broadcast.
- **A press conference with the Mayor of Kallithea**
  The visit took place in the meeting room of the Town Hall. The Mayor was pleased to welcome the pupils and answered their questions about the athletic and cultural programs that have been undertaken by the Town, as well as about the sports facilities that will be built in the area for the Olympic Games of 2004.
- **A visit to the Sports Museum**
  The pupils got to see a rich and rare collection of photographs, medals, cups, diplomas, and sports outfits from 1896 up to this day.
- **A visit to Panathinean Stadium**
  The pupils got to know the all-marble stadium where the first modern Olympics took place. A group of pupils made a report about the history of the Panathinean Stadium and the important sports meeting that it has hosted.
- **Creation of the school sports library**
  We contacted sports and culture institutions and let them know about the program that was taking place in our school. We were given books about the Olympic Games and sports in general. On this way we created a sports library where all the pupils can get information about sports issues.
- **Issuing of a school sports newspaper.**
  The pupils decided to issue a sports newspaper, featuring subjects

about the Olympic Games, the local school games and the progress of the program. The newspaper sensitized the rest of the pupils in the school and their parents, so that the pupils decided to produce a second issue.

- **A contest of essay writing, poetry, drawing, photography about the Olympic Games**

  The contest took place on school grounds. Using their imagination they created original artwork out of everyday materials such as An Olympic Flame out of rice, athletes out of beans and lentils, Olympic circles with tissue paper, other artwork out of clay, glass and copper, a model of the Panathinean Stadium made of Styrofoam, paintings on canvas, and more. They wrote their own poems, set them to music and sang them at the closing event. They wrote essays and worked on photography, creating the 6th grade's photo yearbook.
- **Visit to an art exposition entitled "Olympic Games - Athens 2004".**
- **Participation of the pupils in basketball and track and field sports events.**

  In the last two months of the program, the pupils worked on their project, under the topic "Historical Recollection of the Olympic Games". After having dealt with this subject for several months and with all the relevant stimuli they had received over the previous months, the initiative of choosing the topic belonged to the members of the team who were also responsible for collecting information about it. They exchanged opinions and set the time span for the project to be from the beginning of April to the end of May, with a few breaks for learning and additional feedback, with periodic discussions in class about the progress made, possible obstacles, new sources of information disclosed and more. After this procedure was over, each team presented its project in class.

  At the end of the program we had an athletic and cultural event, owing inspired by the Olympic Games. The president of the Foundation for Olympic and Sports Education, the Mayor of Kallithea, the school counselor and the Head of the Primary Education Authority, pupils and parents were present. The schedule included:

- Exhibition of sports posters and photography about the Olympic Games
- Exhibiton of the pupils' artwork
- Exhibition of sports books
- Theater performance
- Reperesentation of ancient Olympic Games sports
- Lightning of the Olympic flame
- Olympic Cyrcles (dance with wreaths)
- Choir
- Traditional dances.

The difference in the behavior of the pupils by the end of the program was obvious. Their sensitivity in sports ans applying its rules and philosophy is obvious in the way they play, in their relation to each other and in everything they do. They were sensitized and influenced on all subjects such as doping, fair play, hooliganism, racism, they developed a critical eye and decided to reject from their lives all that is negative.

They developed an athletic conscience by participating in sports clubs and excelling in school games, thus declaring their interest on sports.

An essential advantage of the program was its structure ("project" method) that enabled the educationist to work with a new way of treating subjects. The evolvement of the program demands full occupation with the topics chosen by the teams and, for the educationist, constant support, encouragement and motivating, offering ideas and other stimuli. But in the end, the result and the joy of creation rewards and animates the teacher to do more projects of this type.

Knowing that Olympism is a way of living based on respect for human dignity, fundamental values, the joy of effort and participation, mutual understanding and the educational role of good examples, we believe that the Olympic Education must be an integral part of the upbringing we will be offering to the generations to come.

SHORT TALK FROM THE REPRESENTATIVE OF NEPAL

by Kishor Bahdur SINGHA *(NEP)*

It is an honour and a pleasure for myself to address this gathering, as a member of the Nepal Olympic Committee (NOC). I would like to extend my friendly greeting from the athletes and sports lovers of the Himalayan Kingdom of Nepal.

I would like to express my congratulations and gratitude to the International Olympic Academy, and in particular to Hellenic Olympic Committee who have staged this fifth International Session, on these premises in Ancient Olympia for Presidents or Directors of the National Olympic Academy, and for the Officials of the National Olympic Committee.

I would like to take this opportunity, by telling you a little about the development of sports in Nepal.

The sports development era in Nepal began at the turn of fifties with the establishment of the National Associations of different Games with the introduction of four disciplines like: badminton, athletics, table tennis and football; by Nepalese students who had learnt about, "sports" from India. Now, we have nearly forty different active and inactive Sports Associations of various Games.

Nepal established its Olympic Committee in 1962; the International Olympic Committee officially recognised this body in 1963. Nepal first took part in the Olympic Games of 1964 held in Tokyo, where we participated in boxing and Marathon. Since then we have been regular participants in the Olympic Games, contributing whith what we can towards the "De Coubertin spirit"[1].

As our National Olympic Committee was unable to function independently as an autonomous Organisation, the NOC Nepal election was formally conducted on 8th October 1998 and have an elected Executive Body to carry out all the activities of our Committee independently. Last year in the month of September with the enormous efforts of our NOC our Nation successfully staged the 8th SAF Games with the participation of 1069 athletes representing seven South Asian nations: Bangladesh, Bhutan, Maldives, Pakistan, India, Sri Lanka and

our nation Nepal. 12 different sports namely Athletics, Boxing, Football, Kabaddi, Karate, Shooting, Swimming, Table tennis, Taekwondo, Volleyball, Weightlifting and Wrestling were included in the Games. We are also glad to state that our Nation is also a pioneer host of this very important Games of the South Asian sub continent in 1984. As last year our NOC was fully busy concentrating in the mentioned Games, the proposed Olympic Academy could not initiate. Our NOC is trying its level best to initiate acquiring land with a new building structure.

We have had the opportunity to organise other sports activities through the solidarity funds, to promote Olympic education, to develop technical skills for coaches and athletes: training and administrating courses for sports; administration sending members of the committee abroad to understand the international efforts toward the promotion of Olympism. Besides various other activities our NOC conducted technical training Courses in Athletics, Solidarity Courses for Coaches for Boxing, Gymnastic, Taekwondo. This year too, we would be doing several courses in Swimming, Volleyball, Wrestling, Session on Women, Environment and Sports and Drugs.

Another aim of the Committee has been to try and promote the participation of Women in Sports. In a country like Nepal women do not get the opportunity to participate in Sports due to socioeconomic reasons. This has not been an easy task, as girls are socially discouraged in sports activities. So, the women need to be encouraged in recreational and competitive sports activities.

As one of the developing Countries of South Asia with limited resources we are doing our level best to promote Sports in Nepal. Sports is being encouraged in the urban context, in schools usually among those people from lower-middle to upper socioeconomic status. Hopefully in the future the country will be able to cover the vast socioeconomic disparities, with sports being one of the main factors in encouraging social unity. The ultimate aim of our Committee is to provide opportunity for the sport for all as well as to develop competitive athletes.

Note

The most important thing in the Olympic Games is "not to win but to take part, just as the most important thing in life is not the victory but the struggle".

DUTCH OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

by José JANSEN and Fabienne van LEEUWEN *(NED)*

The Dutch Movement is a part of our NOC*NSF (National Olympic Committee * National Sport Federation): a close collaboration between elite sport NOC*NSF and other NOC*NSF departments in the NOC* NSF office, located on the National Sports Center Papendal: Training, sports and meetings, all in one center "The pride of the Dutch sports world" *HRH Prince Willem Alexander*

Objectives of the Dutch Olympic Movement

The dissemination of Standards and Values

- NOC*NSF Olympic Movement's house is build on three theme's to work at
  1. Standards and Values
  2. Youth and Education
  3. History and Culture

How do we achieve our objectives?

Educational Resources

Learning packages
Mobile Olympic Academy
- Visits of elite sportsmen- and woman to schools
- Visits of ex-participants in the International Olympic Academy

National Olympic Academy
- Meeting of future sports executives
- Send delegation to International Olympic Academy

Events at primary Schools

Drawing and essay-writing competition

- Participation by 350 primary schools

- Children's perception of sport
- Winners will take part in an international drawing competition organized by the International Olympic Committee

National Olympic Day

- Organized by the municipalities
- Sports festival for the residents of the municipalities
- Making acquaintance with the Olympic traditions

Olympic Day Run

- In honor of the foundation of the Modern Olympic Movement on 23 June
- Worldwide organization by the International Olympic Committee
- Youth running event

Olympic summer week / UNICEF Run

- Collaboration with UNICEF
- Sponsored run to raise funds for UNICEF projects

Ambitions for 2000 and beyond...

*NOC*NSF Ambassadorial campaign*

"Use the spirit of the Olympics to render social abuses less self-explanatory"

- Target group 12-18 years of age
  Elite sportsmen and women will disseminate the message It's their return to the society.

The Message

- Show respect for yourself and for others.
- Don't just stand there, do something.

For example our TV-clip with Rintje Ritsma, winner of the silver medal for skating / Nagano, Japan
Message: "Respect your body"
Mark Huizinga
Winner of the bronze medal, judo to 86 kg / Atlanta, USA
Message: "Respect the other"
Marcel Wouda
4th place at the Olympic Games / Atlanta, USA

Message: "Respect your environment"
Confronting social abuses: health damaging/violence/destruction

- Ranging from close by and recognizable to
- Further away and almost abstract

Strategy: no "anti" campaign, but...

- Respect your body
- Respect yourself & others
- Respect your environment

Tone of voice

- Motivational
- Firm and believable
- Positive, figurehead role of sportsmen and women

Other means of communications that bring the theme to life

- Toolkit for schools
- The Wagon, travelling support for the theme
- The Muscledome at major events for the young
- Crossover festival "muscles and music"
- Pro Wear

LAUNCHING OF AN ACADEMY IN A SMALL STATE COUNTRY

by Ulric MATHIOT *(SEY)*

On behalf of the Seychelles Olympic Committee, I would like first of all to acknowledge and at the same time congratulate the International Olympic Academy for its continuous effort in providing opportunities for the ambassadors of Olympism to meet and work together in order to further propagate the Olympic Education throughout the world.

Amongst other reasons, that the National Olympic Academy of Seychelles were looking forward to participate in this particular session, was that we have since last year launched our institution (Olympic Academy) recognized by our sport Ministry.

The National Olympic Academy of Seychelles was officially launched on 25th June 1999 by the Minister for local Government and Sports, in the presence of the Minister for Education, SNOC President, members of Sports Federations and Associations, Head teachers, teachers and school children.

As could be acknowledged by the personalities present, at this launching ceremony, the Academy is targeting the very young: As expressed by both Mr. Filaretos and H.E. Mr. Samaranch in the thirty-eight session for young participants in 1998 and I quote "In today's world, filled with so many pitfalls for young people, our task is a heavy one and our responsibilities tremendous" - Mr. Filaretos. "The Olympic Movement is an educational movement focused on the youth of the entire world, this youth of today, who will take over in the future and who will have the task of promoting Olympic Ideal, whose principal values are tolerance, solidarity, respects for other and fraternity between nations. These are in fact the motto of our Academy.

So far we have been able to establish a very good rapport with our youth by being able to organize the following educational event

They are:

- An Annual Public Speaking Competition.
- An Annual Inter-School Quiz Competition.
- An Annual Poem Competition.
- An Annual Day Sports for all Events - Olympic Day.
- Annual Working Session with the representatives of the Federa tions/Associations and P.E. Teachers.

My time does not permit me to elaborate more on this program and on our newly inaugurated institution; but my wish as the General Secretary of the National Olympic Academy of Seychelles is to meet with as much officials from other National Academies here present today and exchange views on how they are doing, so that I could bring back home concrete ideas on how to further enhance our own educational program.

Secondly, we would be much appreciated if the Academy could consider of including amongst the topics of discussion in this 5th Working Session "How we could further enhance the development of Academies in small country state".

We sincerely think that with better support of our educational program, our development would be more transparent, and thus creating an ideal world for our youth.

OLYMPISM IN ITALY

by Igor LANZONI *(ITA)*

First of all I would like to address, on behalf of my National Olympic Academy and of the National Olympic Committee (C.O.M.I.) the President, the Dean of the I.O.A. and all the participants.

The informative letter that I will present today is about the latest projects, from 1998 up to this day, that our country has adopted in order to spread Olympism, which allowed for important and quick changes in the Italian sports culture.

The Center of Olympic and Sports Studies, that was established in the city of Genoa, in order to promote the Olympic Games that the city of Turin will host in 2006, has initiated several activities based on Olympic Education, in different levels of school and in the Universities.

Since 1998, each year we had three pilot programs in different regions of Italy for the promotion of Olympism. These are

1. The Olympic Travelling Car
2. The celebration of the Olympic Day
3. The week of Sports for Everyone (Special Olympics).

Moreover, since 1998, the Italian Olympic Academy has estab lished the prize for Fair-Play that, until this day, has been won by high level athletes, both Italian and foreigners.

In 1998 the annual session of the Olympic Academy was open to several universities as well as to the military Academies, unlike previous editions that were exclusively for students of physical education. This innovation resulted in a larger number of participants, and, off course, wider distribution of the Olympic message.

Another innovation was to organize the annual sessions of the N.O.A. in different Italian cities involved in cultural and athletic functions. Since 1999, researches, studies and university theses about the Olympic Games have known an incredible growth, thanks to the cooperation between the University of Florence, the University of Genoa and the Italian Center for Olympic Studies.

In the end of 1999 we officially inaugurated in Genoa the Olympic and Sports Museum, under the administration of the National Olympic Academy and the Italian Committee Pierre de Coubertin. After its opening it started to organize, every week of the school year, special Olympic Education programs for the primary and secondary schools.

This is the synopsis of our latest works, and of course we still have to try much more to accomplish our project and be ready for the winter Olympic Games of 2006.

In my opinion this is a goal to pursue, for the rebirth of our National Olympic Academy and of the National Olympic Committee that have gone through a very difficult and complicated period, in order to find again the energy of the glorious past and convey even more intensely the essence of Olympism.

I would like to stress that we are open to every form of contribution to advance together in making the Olympic universe accessible and comprehensible.

CONCLUSIONS

FRENCH SPEAKING DISCUSSION GROUP 1

Definition of Olympic Education

Olympic Education is the act of accomplishing an educational process, mainly through the spreading of Olympic Philosophy, vehicle of the Olympic values and the ideal of Olympism, as these were praised, quoted and identified by Baron Pierre de Coubertin. More specifically, this kind of education should stress, among other things, the humanist virtues of the pursuit of excellence, humility, peace and, most of all, respect of the Olympic ethics, through sports and games.

Identifying the best method for teaching Olympic Education

It's better to bring together and combine many different methods, depending on the specific needs. These methods should relate the Participants to the implementation of Olympic Education and lead to the most pertinent answers with regard to this expectation. In short, the most effective methods would be the ones to adapt better, not only to the specific pedagogical situations, but also to the target groups, on which these methods are liable to be applied.

We should turn, as much as possible, to the most tried and tested scientific methods, which by nature will most probably prove the most effective ones pedagogically.

Ways in which Olympic Education could promote multicultural education

Given the latent disapproval facing it, the Olympic Movement would profit a lot, if its vision were multicultural rather than monocultural.

Olympic Education should avoid all negative and restrictive elements, caused by a one-sided action, which does not take into account the cultural aspects of other civilizations.

The Games are a privileged area and a powerful tool for Olympic Education, and consequently, for culture, to express themselves. The Media should actively contribute to the achievement of this noble objective.

Finally, the promotion of culture, as a natural and necessary result of Olympic Education, should also see to it, that everybody has access to the Olympic Games. Every Olympic effort should be directed towards the pursuit of new and renewing forms of organisation and solidarity, which would allow greater participation on the part of the countries lacking the necessary, relevant means for doing so.

Anyway, all efforts should be made with the greatest possible determination, so that the Olympic truce doesn't end up being a utopia.

Objectives, demands and function of an Olympic Academy

The objectives, demands and function of a N.O.A. should, in general terms and to a rather large extent, coincide with those defined by the I.O.A. This means that the Academies should be the natural extension of and the means of probing into the I.O.A.'s actions, on a regional and a national level.

In view of the current major crisis in sport and Olympism as well as of the dangers, representing a menace bigger, more imminent and more real than ever before, one crucial demand should be the defense of Olympic ethics, whose moral authority and credibility have already been greatly damaged. The role of the I.O.A. and the N.O.A.s consists in taking on such responsibilities. The Olympic institutions should take up the role of supervisor, in matters of prevention of any deviations as to the major principle of Olympism.

The Participants have sufficiently and for long dwelled upon this aspect of things as well as upon the demand for sharing one's own experiences and know how, treasured up by every official of the Olympic Movement. The credibility of the Olympic authorities, regardless of rank, should, first of all, base its effect on the function of exchanging and disseminating information, which should consti-

tute a major part of the Olympic Movement. The I.O.A. would enhance its credibility, if it circulated, as much as possible, and exploited the conclusions, drawn from its sessions, which need to be made known to the entire Olympic family.

In the same spirit, the Participants did not forget to stress the specific demands, as to the necessary funding for achieving the set objectives and for specifying the missions, pertaining to the National Olympic Academies.

To these general objectives, demands and functions should also correspond additional factors, which would take into account the peculiarities the national character of each Academy entails.

The best co-operation mechanisms between north and south N.O.A.s

First of all, there is a need for constant communication, based on every means offered by communication systems, starting from the classical auxiliary systems, such as the telephone or the fax, and ending with the most recent ones, like Internet sites. This is a first mechanism, which has to exist, prior to anything else.

The diversity of the levels of cooperation should be able to benefit from the cooperation, the support and the prompting of the I.O.A., which should establish the general framework of this type of partnership .

It is also necessary to take care of the mechanism for the establishment of cooperation relations between two or more Academies, through possible twinnings, which have already yielded results, with regard to the countries that have taken up this specific opportunity.

There is also the possibility to resort to the Olympic Solidarity mechanism.

The Participants have noted the inclination and availability of many countries of the North to assist the countries of the South in matters of cooperation, underlying the number of things that can be successfully accomplished within this context.

Possibility of creating a Chair of Olympism in some Universities

The creation of a Chair of Olympism in some Universities should be an ideal, constant pursuit. The creation of such a Chair may anyway be the result both of special circumstances, relating to favorable conditions, with a more or less positive outcome, and, certainly, of a more laborious and more or less long preparation process.

In any case, it should be the ultimate outcome of a long maturation process by means of actions which, at the start, can be successive and isolated, conveying the ideals of the Olympic Movement and contributing to their spreading as well as to their development.

This University Chair may take on a multi-faceted character, allowing more than one ways of implementation: it can be a fixed Chair within a specific University (following Spain's example) or have a mobile form (with a "full time for an expert" kind of mission)...

Our main concern should be the introduction and securing - where and when possible - of a minimum amount of teaching on Olympism, as an important and decisive means of the influence Olympic Education may have on schools and Universities.

The Participants came up with a list of common points on the treated subjects and have particularly emphasized the central goal and guiding light of the present, which is no other than the Olympic ethics, subject to challenges and major risks in modern sports.

FRENCH SPEAKING DISCUSSION GROUP 2

The Olympic Education

The education is defined as

- The Procedure of acquiring the values and the models included.
- The Vehicle of multicultural values for mutual acceptance of the others considering their diversity in view of the creation of a better world.
- The multidimensional effort of classifying by cultural and ethic, in order to approach the Man according to his social position and own rhythm until the nowadays-wold will rise better.

What is according to your opinion, the best method of teaching Olympic Education ?

A Method is the technique of approaching the individual in order to transmit the knowledge or the message in view of making the formation real. After successive discussions many methods arose, those are:

The Sports Method considering Sports as a supportive training because it promotes the contact of the athletes with the tasks that they have to perform in Olympic Games.

The Instrumental Method which shows the real size through essential images and presents the real face of athletic games revealing the Olympic message.

The Active and most attractive Method for public aims:

(Tutors, students, sports clubs, the media and other associations). The reviews, the periodic editions, the documentation are all recommended as supplementary material.

The introduction of these methods should also integrate the contacts of the performers toward the competitions, the seminars and other manifestations (cultural and sportive) taking into consideration the sportive environment (managers, athletes, players, supporters).

The conferences, the literary and artistic concourses, are also integrated among the different strategies of the Olympic Education.

In what way can the Olympic programs promote the Olympic values such as Participation, Friendship, Excellence, Peace?

That happens during the elaboration of the Olympic programs, taking into consideration the national situation of the international environment which should obey to the values contained in the Olympic Chart.

How is the implantation of the NOA made? By whom?

The implantation of the NOA couldn't be the same as that of the NOC with the qualified personalities and competent who have actually shown a proof of their capacities:

Tutors, researchers, sport practitioners, who are available in a motivating environment on the condition that the means of equipment and financiáis are sufficient.

How could Olympic Education promote global understanding?

The promotion of a profound comprehension by the Olympic Education is a procedure that should integrate its dynamism in a cultural dimension and which would receive the acceptance of the others by itself.

President: Prof. Théophile TOUBA (RSA)

Vice-President: Prof. Kamel BENZARTI (TUN)

Reporter: Mr. Auguste NKOUNKOU (CGO)

Members Mr. Marius FRANCISCO (BEN), Ms Maria De Lourdes COELHO (STP), Mr. Jean Paul BIHTE (BDI), Mr. Jacob GBETI (RSA), Ms Juana Migdalia GONZALES (CUB), Mr. Igor LANZONI (ITA).

Recommendations

Among the 198 known NOC by IOC we note that only the 106 NOA are inscribed at the repertory of the International Olympic Academy.

In order to let NOA complete with ease their missions of: - Imparting the Olympic knowledge

- Propagating the Olympic ideal
- Qualifying the personnel involved
- Acquisition of the Teaching Material and Equipment

In order to assure a solid and regular financial state for their function, the Participants of the 5th International Session for Presidents and Directors of the NOA and the Frame of NOC

Recommend:

the introduction of the accounts of every NOC at the Olympic Solidarity (IOC) in a Special Budgeting Line for the function of NOA.

ENGLISH SPEAKING DISCUSSION GROUP 1

Definition of Olympic Education

- Olympic Education is the dynamic process that addresses social, mental, cultural, ethical and physical development.
- Sport is at the core of this Education therefore it is about mental and physical development-hence Kalos Kagathos-balance between mind and body.

The best method of teaching Olympic Education

- Though active **participation**-for example in Sports, National Games, learning activities and modern technology such as the Internet (where available), school programs, excursions, confer ences, cultural and art displays.
- By **experience**-for example bringing people together at Academies from all over the word to live, share and experience multicultural exchange.

Olympic Education promoting Multi-Cultural Education

- Through experience of learning, living, sharing with other people from around the world at Academies which allows for an exchange of ideas on culture, sport and Olympic issues.
- NOAs to invite other NOAs to participate in their National Sessions and activities.
- National/International Sporting Federation to invite countries to participate in their sporting conferences.

Objectives, Exigencies, and Function of National Olympic Academies

Objectives: promote Olympic education within the nation to as many people as possible.

Exigencies: Financial and academic support is required from the NOC, government and other stakeholders (e.g.Universities, government, private sector and sponsors)
Function: Promote Academic events and the Olympics whilst breaking down social and cultural barriers through this Education.

Mechanisms for co-operation between NOAs in Northern and Southern Hemispheres.

- Collaborate by inviting each other to their National Academies events. Distribute and share materials produced for the benefit of all Academies.
- Distribute and share materials produced for the benefit of all Academies.
- The more advanced NOAs to help develop others -not through funding- but through the provision of materials and sending their participants to attend Academies elsewhere in the world.

Introducing a Chair of Olympism at Universities

- Invite university executive and Ministry of Education to attend an NOA or IOA session to obtain support from the highest level within the University.
- Include a position on the NOA board for a university repre sentative to maintain the link with universities.

In **Conclusion,** our groups recommend

- As a recommendation for Olympic Solidarity, attendance at the IOA and a solid Olympic Education is strongly encouraged for NOC members to undertake their positions.
- A percentage of funding that NOCs receive from the IOC should be allocated exclusively to Olympic Education.
- Support be allocated to the IOA to enable it to function year round.
- That one delegate from each NOA receives accreditation to attend each Olympic Games as part of the official national delegation.

ENGLISH SPEAKING DISCUSSION GROUP 2

The group discussed in detail all questions posed, and the result has been noted in bullet from and attached for future reference. Due to the new ideals of the Olympic Theme: Higher, Stronger, Faster, Shorter (courtesy of Robert Marxen) the group wishes to explore in more depth questions 2 and 5. The Group's response to all questions is also available.

Definition of Olympic Education

Quote from Prof. O'Tete presentation to the Session, was used for reference 'The virtues of excellence, humility, honesty, tolerance, understanding, fair-play, respectfulness (they have acquired through their training)"

- HISTORY: From the ancient Games through to the Modern Games and the future. The ideals of de Coubertin, and the Olympic Char ter.
- Olympic Games is a focus point but only a small part of whole concept.
- Dissemination of the standards and values of humanity into sport and youth.
- Olympians have proved, in the past, to be the least educated in Olympism.
- Education should be available to all ages, so that grandparents can learn and in doing so, pass on the knowledge to children.
- Global education opportunity, knowledge and application is uni versal.
- Development of the mind and of sport.
  To do and to think, multicultural being a theme throughout education.

Definition: The philosophies of the Olympic Ideal which leads to the constant effort to develop sports excellence when combined the methodology of Olympism as a way of life, creates in all humans a balance of sound body, with mind and spirit.

- **In short: Kalokagathia.**

What do you think is best method of teaching Olympic Education ?

- Practical application / By example.
- Non-restrictive: Education is not only knowledge/ Seize the mo ment.
- Ownership by those in position of educating (Teachers/Trainers).
- Embracing all social levels by using Media: Television, Radio, In ternet, e-mails. Interactive between education, practical and theo retical.
- Ethics: Ideals beyond theory into life: Health, Sport.
- Using the variety of models of National Olympic Academies to reach all cultures and social levels.

How could Olympic Education promote multi-cultural education ?

- Exchange of different programmes throughout all cultures.
  Using sport, art, music, dance, youth camps.
- Build the theme of Olympism into all curricula.
- Use Olympism as a tool to breach the gap created by cultures wishing to maintain their own identity. Whilst respecting the cul tural differences. Olympic Education can help to tear down the barriers between nations.
- Creative Examples.
  Olympic Village as an example of a multi-cultural society. The IOA to re-introduce the social aspect of the Seminars/ Sessions to promote the cultural differences whilst respecting the values and virtues of OLYMPISM. The Olympic Truce vision.

Which are the objectives, needs and functions of a National Olympic Academy ?

Please see page 14 of IOA Book presented to all delegates at this session. The Group felt this was indeed the definitive text in answer to the question raised, however the group went on to identify the following **Objectives**

- Well educated leadership.

- Relationship and co-operation between the IOA, NOAs and the NOCs is of paramount importance.
- Collaboration with schools at all levels from Primary, Secondary, High School, University and beyond.

Needs

- Challenge for all existing NOA's to find funding/finance for pro grammes and development.

Functions

- Through the NOA create programmes to teach the teachers/train ers in all subjects, non-respective to sport.
- Partnerships with government and non-governmental agencies.
- The planning, monitoring and evaluating programmes.

What should be the best mechanisms of co-operation between National Olympic Academies in developed and developing countries?

- The Group felt that the question should only be answered in the form indicated: **What should be the best mechanisms of co-op eration between National Olympic Academies?**
- The Group felt that all NOAs are developing at different levels and at different rates, but each has something to learn from an other.
- The Group recommends that the IOA take leadership to create a formal exchange program between all NOAs and NOCs. Using a formal exchange program to introduce a concept in which existing NOAs adopt a new country/NOC to develop an Academy.
- With the use of Olympic Solidarity to encourage the foundation of new NOAs, suggesting that specific funds within the Olympic Solidarity Grants be utilized for such projects.
- Identify the NOCs without formal Academies:
  The Group suggests post-graduate research into why ?
  Some countries will have recognized Olympic Education Programs and question the "need" for an Academy.
- Use all models of Academies to find the one best suited to the country and the culture.
- Seek a mandate from the IOC itself to set-up Continental and Regional Olympic Academies that will encourage the foundation of National Olympic Academies. Example of Europe establishing

(1997 & 1999) a meeting of the directors and members of the Northern European NOAs. We have seen here this week informal meetings of the NOA's of Africa, and also of the Asian Countries - a first step!

- Sponsorship and exchange programs in the form of material, books equipment, to distribute to all member countries.

How to introduce a chair of Olympism at the University ?

- By Example, through existing "Chairs" already established.
- The Group's concern of the autonomy of Universities and therefore felt that the initiative must come from interested personnel .
- That the Chair should be non specific to sport, and that Olympism should be cross-subject, non-restrictive.
- It is felt an established Chair should be working with NOCs and NOAs, in an environment of endorsement, not control.

These are the principals that were discussed and formulated, but the group felt that it did not have the knowledge or expertise to form a conclusive answer to this question.

ENGLISH SPEAKING DISCUSSION GROUP 3

Definition of Olympic Education

- Methodology for people to acquire "Olympism"
- Charter - philosophy of life, exalting & combining in a balanced whole, the qualities of body, will & mind
- Harmonious development of body, mind & spirit, blending sport, culture & education
- A way of life based on the joy found in effort
- Embracing fundamental ethical principles & fair play
- Knowledge of all ideas related to Olympism & the spiritual values acquired from its practice
- Human improvement through striving for excellence
- Emancipation in and through sport
- Promotion of world peace, understanding, friendship, respect & tolerance

Methods of Teaching Olympic Education

- Culture specific
- Can be taught from many disciplines & perspectives
- Every stage of school curriculum
- Diversified & adaptable to different infrastructures, facilities
- Physical environment as well as classroom
- Utilize the arts, music & literature
- Part of sport & physical education instruction

Promotion Multi- or Intra-cultural Education through Olympic Education

- "Olympic" encompasses "internationality"
- Promote "intra-cultural" education
- Olympic Games (rotating)
  - congregation of different races, religions, and genders
  - host country exhibits cultural heritage to the world
- IOA sessions (40 years) what we do right now

- NOA can promote & foster inter-cultural exchange (e.g. Japan's 1 school, 1 county initiative)

Objectives/Function of National Olympic Academies

- Promotion of values, goals & principals of Olympism in their own country
- Introduce youth to spirit & history of ancient & modern Olympic Games
- Encouragement of building peaceful society
- Help youth understanding friendship, fair play, respect & dignity
- Liaize with IOA for central/core information/support
- Organize regional Olympic Academies

Mechanisms of co-operation between North & South NOAs

1. Establish exchange programmes between north & south NOAs (e.g. conferences, seminars, symposia on Olympism & sport science);
2. Organize regular joint sessions among NOAs for young participants, educators, officials & institutions indirectly related with Olympism;
3. Exchange of educational visits & experiences by various NOA groups/institutions;
4. Exchange of researchers on Olympic Subjects between Academies.
5. Exchange of new knowledge & Olympic documents amongst northern & southern NOAs;
6. Joint implementation of Cultural and Sport programmes linked to the Olympic Movement;
7. Assistance in Training of Officials by NOAs in South and North; and
8. Provision of educational materials, teaching aids, training kits, equipment 85 camping opportunities among the NOAs in the South and North.

How to Introduce a Chair at the University

- Not an easy task - bureaucratic processes
- Series of initiatives to start the processes

- Emphasize importance of Olympic studies to faculty and admi nistrators
- Propose at least one course on Olympism
- Search for sponsors, grants
- Implement pilot in University system-focus on research & con sulting
- Organize student-athlete committee-incorporate intramural *& ac tivities*
- Identify faculty members willing to integrate section on Olympism in their courses
- Establish model that appeals to the university population
- Create network of institutions with responsibilities or interests
- Introduce University Chair to NOAs
- Try different faculties & departments (humanities, etc).

ENGLISH SPEAKING DISCUSSION GROUP 4

Definition of Olympic Education:

Our group defines Olympic Education as a balance of physical and mental state of the individual as well as the performance in groups.

It is meant to be an educational process where everybody runs through - based on Coubertin's ideas.

According to the definition of the Olympic Education in Finland we agree:

'The principles of education at our schools share the objectives of the Olympic Movement: to raise our young to become mentally and physically balanced, cooperative, tolerant and peace-abiding citi zens who apply the rules of fairplay in their daily lives .....human develpoment is not measured in terms of efficiency and results only. ....the purpose of Olympic Education Project is learning across all curriculum areas and to let children learn the meaning of fairplay, community spirit and tolerance ...in everyday life personally."

What do you think is the best method of teaching Olympic Education?

The result of our discussion is that there is no best method but a variety of strategies inside and outside school.

To start with the NOAs should recruit messengers who transmit the ideas.

This can be done

a) at schools by implementing Olympic Education in the curricula and syllabus to offer subject-related projects: games and sport being used as efficient tools for the students/teachers

b) by lectures/seminars/information at the Teachers' Training Colleges and Institutes of Sports Science for future teachers, jour nalists, sports directors ... and implementation of Olympic Education in their curricula

c) at public events including the communities, athletes, clubs, spectators in order to deal with Olympic Education within the local networks

d) utilizing Olympic Games as a vehicle to demonstrate Olympic ideals (opening ceremony, Olympic oath, carrying the Olympic torch, etc.)

In which way the Olympic programs could promote the Olympic values?

We think that a variety of activities could promote the Olympic values.

They should focus on different target groups (students, teachers, referees, spectators, ...) and be evaluated by using efficient tools.

Some examples

- pre-information on Olympism before championships
- cups for "Fairplay"
- Olympic Day Runs with the participation of the whole community
- artistic contests at schools on Olympic Games

How should the overall development of NOAs be carried out and by whom?

Based on general guidelines of the IOA the responsibility of developing the national NOA is shifted to each country.

With the help of a monitoring system and the experience of other NOAs the national structure grows.

Our group suggests an annual meeting of NOAs, working out one major theme for a year's program and evaluate its results.

How could Olympic Education promote global understanding?

Our group recommends exchange programs between NOAs supervised by the IOA and giving a report to the IOA.

These programs will strengthen global understanding through understanding each other's culture, education being part of a country's culture.

As Pierre de Coubertin once said: "If you want to understand another country, you have to get to know it first."

Discuss a topic related to Olympic Education which you are interested in:

"Funding"

Discussing this topic our group points out a few aspects.

NOAs should work out their annual educational programs, receive the IOA's approval and the program will financially be supported through the NOC.

The executive board of the NOA should consist of members of the NOA and the NOC to define one's goals as well as to get the necessary support.

Furthermore we encourage NOAs to start fund-raising.

ENGLISH SPEAKING DISCUSSION GROUP 5

Definition of the Olympic Education

We came to the conclusion that the Olympic Education is a multilevel educational process, which is a part of general education with the different targets of population, in order to teach the Olympic Values through sport.

What do you think is the best method of teaching the Olympic Education?

In our opinion, the best method of teaching the Olympic Education depends on the target population to which the message is being delivered. Therefore there are several methods that comply with that statement:

- integration of the Olympism in other subjects like history, litera ture, social sciences, etc. (inter-discipline ties);
- inclusion as a separated subject in the school curricula (for ex ample for children it should be the theoretical part (lessons), and active part - different games, contests, communication with the top-level sportsmen, who are a model in the society);
- the use of mass-media;
- seminars and fora with lectures.

In which way the Olympic programs could promote the Olympic Values?

We defined several programs which allow promotion of the Olympic Values:

- preparation of delegations for the Olympic Games should be used to promote the Olympic Values to athletes, coaches, officials, staff and also sport fans;
- preparation of other delegations for Regional Games during the Olympic cycle;

- the use of the IOC program "Celebrate Humanity" which is deliv ered through TV and could be used for theme discussions at school;
- the other programs of the IOC Commissions like the one from the IOC Cultural commission (through art, literature, photogra phy, contests); programs of the IOC Commission for Environment (through the International Environment Protection Council), and the women in sport programs, etc.;
- Olympic Solidarity technical courses.

How should the overall development of National Olympic Academies be carried out and by whom?

We should abide the Olympic Charter that National Olympic Academies should be promoted and be on the responsibility of the National Olympic Committees. However, in some countries where the National Olympic Academies have been promoted by Governmental Bodies and (or) State Institutions it should be also given support by the National Olympic Committees.

How could the Olympic Education promote global understanding?

The Olympic Education could be promoted

- through the global language of sport ;
- through friendship, solidarity, respect, tolerance, recognition of the value of winning and the recognition of the effort to partici pate;

The compliance of the former values will promote the ultimate concept of global understanding which is peace.

The chosen topic: Sport for All

Some ideas about Sport for All came through the discussion:

- without Sport for All we don't have elite sport;
- Sport for All is mass participation in sport;
- Through Sport for All the level of living could be raised;
- Through Sport for All health is promoted to everybody;
- Sport for All is family sport, sport for handicapped and sport for all ages;

People practicing sport get the feeling of true liberation;
Sport for All fits the definition of the aims of Olympic Education achieving physical and mental fitness and permitting recreation for everybody;
Olympism is the true Sport for All;
The Olympism Day Run is a very important contribution of the NOCs for Sport for All programs in their countries.

ENGLISH SPEAKING DISCUSSION GROUP 6

Definition of Olympic Education

Olympic Education is defined as a process of educating and developing the individual according to the philosophy, principles, values and ideals of Olympism. Olympic Education is the means by which Olympism is disseminated, instilled and promoted. Through Olympic Education, the individual acquires a philosophy of life and a set of values that should guide him/her in daily living in such a way that he/she becomes a positive contributing number of his/her family, community, country and ultimately, the world.

Best method of teaching Olympic Education

The group's consensus is that there is no "best method" per se for the teaching of Olympic Education, but "best practice" that best suits the unique cultural, language and religious context of each society or nation. The focus and determination of "best practice" should be guided by

a) purpose of teaching (i.e. aims & objectives)
b) whom to teach (i.e. target groups)
c) what to teach (i.e. curriculum/con tent)
d) how to teach (methods/pedagogy)

Although there is no one best method, formal and informal methods are proposed as possible examples that can be used to teach Olympic Education **Formal methods**

- Education system & Institutions
- Part of PE curriculum; Olympic clubs; Olympic newsletters; part of PE teacher education curriculum; libraries
- Olympic institutions
- IOA sessions; NOA sessions; NOAs Olympic Education kits; work shops, seminars

Informal methods

- Role models

- Parents; teachers; coaches; athletes; special athletes; NOC/NOA members
- Media, multi-media and IT
- All forms of media; CD-Roms; Internet; computer games
- Interactions & exchanges between people within and outside a nation

Ways through which Olympic programs could promote the Olympic values

Although there are many ways to promote Olympic values, the group believes that one of most effective principle is to facilitate ACTIVE/ACTION learning by doing. The academic curriculum of Olympic Education should be the foundation basis given to all individuals and then supported by active/action type learning activities (incorporating physical activities, sports, art, dance, poetry etc.) that are purposefully designed to teach Olympic values like fair-play, sportsmanship, friendship; giving of one's best effort ect. These learning activities (could be either under the formal or informal methods listed in Question 8) should be carefully designed so that they are gender, cultural and age appropriate for the target groups being reached.

a) How should the overall development of NOAs be carried out?

One proposal for developing NOAs is that an NOA should put together an **ACTION PLAN** (e.g. 4-years or 5-years Action Plan) to chart the vision and direction of the academy so that short & long-term planning, budgeting, action strategies and implementation plans & phrases can be more purposefully guided. This development can be further aided by collaboration with IOA and other more established and active NOAs.

b) Who should carry out the development of the NOA?

Although there was no unanimous agreement, the consensus was that NOAs should enjoy a degree of autonomy from the NOCs but have a close, positive working relationship with the NOCs and work together to further the cause of Olympism. It was felt that volunteers who are committed to the cause of Olympism and willing to give off

their time should be identified and trained (e.g. send as participants to IOA sessions) and be included by a NOA to help in the development of the Academy. Examples of these volunteers included past IOA participants, Academies, teachers, coaches, athletes, parents, officials of national sport governing bodies and NOC members.

How could Olympic Education promote global understanding?

All its most ideal level, the promotion and acquisition of Olympism through Olympic education, should result in diverse peoples of the world coming together to share a common identity and having a universal citizenship that shares a universal philosophy, language and value system that guides behavior and daily living. Olympic Education (if taught properly and include active opportunities for practical application) can cut across, and through, are, gender, culture, religion and language and teaches individuals and nations to use the "Olympic lens" to understand and respect the rich diversity that exists in the shared vision, global understanding would then be achieved.

Olympic Education must thus include curriculum materials that teach tolerance, respect for others, appreciation of diversity and differences and include opportunities for applying these values in multicultural exchanges and interactions among peoples of the world.

Topic related to Olympic Education

After much discussion, the group decided upon the topic of "multiculturalism" and the Olympic Movement". It was evident that much of the tensions of the world have resulted because of a lack of understanding and tolerance for differences among races and nations. Olympic Education should thus act as a vehicle for teaching people multi-cultural understanding, tolerance, fair-play and appreciation of differences (e.g. races, religion and people with special needs) and act as a unifying agent of peoples of the world. It was further suggested that there should be continual communication and exchanges of ideas, teaching and resource materials between a NOA with other NOAs and between IOA and NOAs.

CONTENTS

Ephoria of the International Olympic Academy 3
Hellenic Olympic Committee..... 4
I.O.C. Commission for the International Olympic Academy and Olympic Education 5
Prologue 7

8th INTERNATIONAL POSTGRADUATE SEMINAR ON OLYMPIC STUDIES

List of Participants

Athletic Activity in Phoenicia
by *Sophia VAKIRTZI* (GRE) 19

Studies in Sports During the Roman Imperial Age. Represen tations of Athletic Subjects and their Contexts
by *Anke BOHNE, M.A.* (GER)..... 26

A Brief Resume of the Decline of Ancient Olympic Games: From Greek "Olympic Games" to Roman "Ludi Circenses"
by Federico *GALLO* (ITA)..... 31

Organizing the Ancient Olympics
by *Naif SA' ADA* (JOR)..... 44

The Olympic Games and the Olympic Movement in Moldova: Past, Present and Future
by *Cornelia POVAR* (MDA)..... 46

China Sports Museum - A Showcase Displaying Chinese Sports Tradition and Olympic Culture
by *Jun Wang* (CHN) 53

Not just a Fashion Statement: Bathing Suits, Uniforms, and Sportswear in the Early Olympic Games
by *Amanda SCHWEINBENZ* (CAN) 60

Some Aspects of the Types of the Olympic Villages during the last two Decades
by *Paraskevi SALEPI* (GRE) 72

Avery Brundage and the 1936 Olympic Games
by *Thomas KAPTAIN* (DEN)..... 79

The Beginning of Olympic Movement in Estonia
by *Kalle Voolaid* (EST)..... 89

The Historical Study of the Olympic Games and the Olympic Movement in Japan
by *Minoru MATSUNAMI* (JPN) 96

An Analysis of the Organisational Environment of the Organi sing Committees for the Olympic Games (OCOGs)-The Case of Sydney 2000-OCOG (SOCOG)
by *Maximos MALFAS* (GRE) 107

Sport Policy and the NOC in Taiwan
by *Hung-Yu LIU* (TRE)..... 125

The Olympic Games, "What It Means to the Organizing Com mittee, Athletes, Sponsors, and General Public?"
by *Somkid PITHONG* (THA)..... 135

Hungarian Olympic Athletes in the Mirror of an Empirical Study
by *Orsolya PINTÉR* (HUN)..... 144

The International Development of Sport and the International Olympic Committee: Toward Sport Globalization
by *Angel Maria GIL PAREJO* (ESP) 155

The Olympic Art Competitions and Modern Art
by *Debra GOOD* (AUS) 162

Opportunities and Constraints to Promote the Sydney Olympic Arts Festivals
by *Beatriz GARCIA* (ESP) 173

Olympic Solidarity and Sport Globalisation Process
by *Mansour AL-TAUQI* (OMA)..... 187

Olympic Bidding - The IOC Evaluation Commission Report
by *Silvan KELLER* (SWI) 204

Modernisation Theory, Hegemony Theory, Modern Sport and Olympic Games
by *Mahfoud AMARA* (ALG) 218

What it takes to be a "Real" Olympian: Examining Pain and Injury and the Olympic Movement
by *Parissa SAFAI* (CAN) 230

Prevalence of Doping in Sports. Doping Control in Norway, 1977-1999
by Marianne *TJ0RNHOM* (NOR) 241

Practice-Communities as deliberative bodies
by *Heather SHERIDAN (GBR)* 253

The Olympic Games and the Cyborg-athlete: Any Room for Improvement?
by *Andy MIAH (GRB)* 264

The Spectators of Olympic Games in the New Millennium
by *David KIPSHIDZE* (GEO) 278

The Olympic Games as a Subject of Teaching History in Sec ondary School
by *Thomas THIELECKE* (GER) 287

The Motivations of Children Participating in Competitive Karate
by *Nicole-Marie LUITWIELER* (NED) 298

The Educational and Olympic Aspects of Sports in Secondary Schools in Malta
by *Martha BARTOLO* (MLT) 310

Olympic Education for the Youth of Russia
by *Galina RAGOZINA* (RUS) 321

Is there really an Olympic Education?
by *Catherine MONNIN* (FRA) 328

Voluntary Training Sports for Youth in Latvia
by *Aiga MARENA* (LAT) 332

Conclusions on "Ancient History" 338

Conclusions on "Modern Olympics..... 342
Conclusions on "Socio-Cultural aspects of the Olympics"..... 349
Conclusions on "Philosophy of the Olympics"..... 353

5th INTERNATIONAL SESSION FOR PRESIDENTS OR DIRECTORS OF NOAs AND OFFICIALS OF NOCs

List of Participants

Olympic Education Programs in Australia on the Occasion of the Sydney Olympic Games
by *Janet CAHILL* (AUS) 375

The Olympic Athlete
by *Thomas GIANNAKIS* (GRE)..... 387

Olympic Educational Programmes of the Central Olympic Aca demy and Regional Olympic Academies in Russia
by *Prof. Dr. Valery KUZIN* (RUS) 393

Olympic Education Programmes in China: History, Analysis, Methodology and Evaluation
by *Hai REN* (CHN) 402

Olympic Education in Africa
by *Marius FRANCISCO* (BEN)..... 414

The Activities of the National Olympic Academy of Congo for the Spreading of Olympism
by *Mundala O. TETE* (COD) 423

Olympic Education: A Canadian Perspective
by *Angela SCHNEIDER* (CAN)..... 434

Pedagogical, Methodological Approach and Evaluation of the "Olympic Education" Programme
by *Nelly ARVANITI* (GRE) 443

Short Papers

The Olympic Education Process in Armenia
by *Vahran ARAKELIAN* and *Harutyun BABAYAN* (ARM) 454

The Austrian Olympic Academy. Past and Future Programmes on Olympic Education
by *Kann ECKERSTORFER* (AUT)..... 456

The Volunteers, Olympic Ambassadors, ... A Forgotten Group?
by *Marc MAES* (BEL) 460

The Brazilian Olympic Academy. A Long-range Project that Started in 1989
by *Eduardo Henrique DE ROSE* and *Lamartine Pereira DA COSTA* (BRA) 465

The Chinese Taipei Olympic Academy
by *Min-Yin KAO* (TRE) 468

The History of the Danish National Olympic Academy
by Lone Jacobsen (DEN) 472

The Activities of National Olympic Academy of Estonia in 1989-2000
by *Tõnis MATSIN* (EST) 475

Olympic Education in Finland
by *Anja JÄRVINEN* (FIN)..... 480

Olympism - Future School Subject
by *Avtandil TSIBADZE* (GEO) 486

Olympic Education. Activities in the Recent Years
by *Robert MARKEN* (GER) 488

The Foundation and Activity of the Hungarian Olympic Academy
by *Istaván KERTÉSZ* (HUN)..... 490

NOA of I.R. Iran: Activities of 1999
by *Fotollah MOSAYEBI* and *Hamid A. ALINEJAD* (IRI)..... 494

The Japan Olympic Academy
by *Keiko WADA* (JPN)..... 495

Slovak Olympic Academy
by *Zdenka LETENAYOVA* (SVK)..... 499

Analyzing detailed Study on the Activities of the Yemen Olympic Academy
by *Abdul Hammeed Hassan AL-SAIDI* (YEM) 502

Olympic Education in the "School Olympic Games of the Re bublic of Serbia"
by *Stefan ILIC* (YUG) 505

Communication presented by the President of the N.O.A. of Burundi
by *Jean Paul BIHUTE* (BDI) 506

Olympic Education in Primary Schools
by *Paraskevi Lioubi* (GRE) 510

Presentation of a Cultural Activity of an Olympic Education Program
by *Iraklis KELLIS* (GRE)..... 513

National Olympic Academy of Central Africa: Foundation, Pro file, Activities and Prospects
by *Théophile TOUBA* (CAF)..... 517

Creation and Promotion of the Olympic Academies
by *Conrado DURANTEZ* (ESP)..... 521

A Review of Olympic Education Programs in Canada
by *Dr. Gene SUTTON* (CAN) 525

The Main Activities of the Central Olympic Academy of Russia
by *Natalya MELNIKOVA* (RUS) 528

The Activities of the South Russian Olympic Academy
by *Denis KROUJKOV* (RUS) 530

Activities that can be Included in a Programme of Olympic and Sports Education
by *Alexandros MAKRIS* (GRE)..... 534

Short Talk from the Representative of Nepal
by *Kishor Bahdur SINGHA* (NEP)..... 538

Dutch Olympic Movement
by *José JANSEN and Fabienne van LEEUWEN* (NED)..... 540

Launching of an Academy in a Small State Country
by *Ulric MATHIOT* (SEY)..... 543

Olympism in Italy
by *Igor LANZONI* (ITA)..... 545

Conclusions

French speaking group 1 547
French speaking group 2 551
English speaking group 1 554
English speaking group 2 556
English speaking group 3 560
English speaking group 4 563
English speaking group 5 566
English speaking group 6 569

ΕΚΔΟΤΙΚΗ ΠΑΡΑΓΩΓΗ
ΕΠΤΑΛΟΦΟΣ ΑΒΕΕ
ΑΡΔΗΤΤΟΥ 12-16 -116 36 • ΑΘΗΝΑ
ΤΗΛ.: 9217513 - 9214820 • FAX: 9237033
e-mail: eptalofos@ath.forthnet.gr

Athens 2001

ISBN: 960-8144-33-7
ISSN: 1108-6831