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INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY

SPECIAL SUBJECT:

**THE OLYMPIC AND PARALYMPIC GAMES
OF ATHENS 2004**

ANCIENT OLYMPIA

**EPHORIA
OF THE INTERNATIONAL
OLYMPIC ACADEMY
(2005)**

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Foreword

The 13th International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students was held in Ancient Olympia from 14th May to 14th June 2005. The Postgraduate Seminar has been organised by the IOA since 1993 with great success since there are a lot of applications for participation in the Seminar and the comments on its organisation are complimentary. The special subject of this year's Seminar was: "The Olympic and Paralympic Games of Athens 2004".

Thirty-nine students, twenty women and nineteen men, from thirty different countries participated in the Seminar. In particular and at the level of continents, twenty-one participants came from Europe, eleven from Asia, four from America and three from Africa. They all presented their papers and, within the framework of the collaboration between the IOA and the Loughborough University, 10 of them participated with success in the examination programme, so as to obtain 30 credits of the Master's Programme in the respective University.

University professors from all over the world taught at the Seminar and supervised the students' papers. At the first unit regarding the Ancient Olympic Games lectures were given by professors Nigel Crowther from Canada and Heather Reid from USA, while at the second unit on Modern Olympic Games lectures were presented by professors Karl Lennartz from Germany and Kostas Georgiadis, the IOA Dean. As far as the third unit is concerned, professors Manfred Messing and Klaus Heinemann, both from Germany presented lectures on the social and cultural aspects of the Modern Olympic

Games, while at the fourth unit regarding the ethical and philosophical aspects of the Olympic Games professors Mike McNamee from United Kingdom and Alberto Reppold from Brazil taught. As guest professor of the Seminar professor Roi Panagiotopoulou from Greece was invited. Professors Jim Parry, Ian Henry and Eleni Theodoraki represented the Loughborough University in the lectures and the examination programme.

The students were guided in the Panathenaikon Stadion, the museum as well as the archaeological place of Acropolis and the National Archaeological Museum. Then, they reached Isthmia and Epidauros where they were guided in the archaeological sites and museums, while the next day they had the opportunity to visit Acronafplia, Mycenae and Nemea. In Nemea prof. Stephen Miller from Berkeley University showed around the students to the archaeological site, describing and explaining thoroughly the excavations and restoration procedures. During all the guided visits, the professors gave lectures. The students also visited the archaeological site and the museums in Ancient Olympia and on their way back to Athens at the end of the Seminar they visited Delphi.

After 13 years, the Postgraduate Seminar has been established as one of the most important educational activities of the IOA. A few hundreds of students from all over the world have already been educated by the IOA and nowadays most of them teach as professors in different universities. We have already invited several of them as supervising professors of the Seminar and in the future we intend to invite even more, so as they can transmit their knowledge to the next generations. In addition, due to the fact that the IOA has always been trying to ensure the equal representation of both sexes in its Sessions, a lot of women with a promising academic career have already participated in the Postgraduate Seminar.

As a conclusion, we would like to express our thanks to the Universities, the National Olympic Academies and the professors who recommended students for the Postgraduate Seminar, for their collaboration and contribution to the Seminar and the effectiveness of IOA's work.

Assoc. Prof. Kostas Georgiadis

IOA Honorary Dean

STUDENTS' PAPERS

MAGIC IN ANCIENT GREEK SPORT

Ms Maria KARALI (GRE)

For ancient Greeks tracing the unknown was a psychological necessity. From literary sources and a few archaeological finds we manage to have a general aspect of this side of their personal lives. Despite all these, though, we should be extremely cautious, as a possibility of erroneous reading of ancient testimonies always lurks, if someone takes contemporary superstitions in consideration.¹

Knowing that eternal, excelsior and invisible forces, which dominate the world, exist outside the human being, ancient Greeks considered that they had the force to shape their own order of things and to give solutions and answers to their distresses.

Given this ideology and aiming at the acquisition of an athletic victory in antiquity and a pecuniary reward, it becomes easily comprehensible that athletes, as all others, served themselves with such methods, which coincided with a wealth of superstitions. Oracles, the explanation of dreams, spells and magic were developed to the highest degree for these reasons.

According to the myth, Eubatos from Kyrene trusted so much the answer from an oracle, which promised him his victory as a sprinter, that in 408 B.C. he carried at once all alone his statue to Olympia, which was unique in history of ancient sport.²

¹ S.R.F. Price, *Αρχαιολογία και Τέχνες* (Archaeology and the Arts) 78, 2001, 11.

² W. Decker, *Sport in der Griechischen Antike*, 153.

About Magic

Witchcraft as a professional practice in the ancient Athenian Agora, that is to say the civic and commercial center located northwest of the Acropolis, should not surprise us. By Lucian's time, a Greek writer who lived in the 2nd c A.D., we have evidence that a witch near the Kerameikos, the cemetery out the walls of the city of Athens, would bring back lost lovers with her spells for a drachma and a loaf of bread.¹

James Frazer defining magic in his monumental labor "The Golden Bough- A Study in Magic and Religion" (1890), declares that there are two fundamental principles on which magic bases. The first one is that a result resembles its cause (*Similia similibus curantur*) and it is called "Law of Similarity". The second one is that things which once were in contact still have an influence on each other, even after they cease being in contact. This is called the "Law of Contact or Contagion".

Specifically, someone can ground the crowning of the winners of the Olympic Games with garlands of olive leaves on the Contagiona Magic, which is based on the "Law of Contact or Contagion". As far as the athlete has any contact with this evergreen plant he can take the power of being eternal.² On these fundamental principles, which compose Sympathetic Magic, is based the technique of lead curse tablets and of certain lead figurines whose ancient name, if there ever was one, has apparently not survived and whose closest equivalents are African voodoo dolls.

Many researchers have shown a lot of interest in the lead curse tablets. What exactly are they? They are little inscribed sheets of lead "destined to produce the exact opposite result to the desire of those,

¹ A. Lentakis, *Αρχαιολογία και Τέχνες* (Archaeology and the Arts) 20, 1986, 17.

² A. Lentakis, *Αρχαιολογία και Τέχνες* (Archaeology and the Arts) 20, 1986, 17-18.

whose names have been written on the sheets”. (see picture 1 and 3). Their first use is considered around the first half of the 5th c B.C. They can be found in all Greek and Latin speaking world of Mediterranean up to 5th or even 6th c.A.D.¹ They have been called “κατάδεσμοι” in ancient Greek by the ancient Greek word “καταδέω” and “defixiones” in Latin from the verb “defigere”.² Both mean “to bind somebody” and are expressing exactly their intention of their creator: the “magic binding” with which the maker tried to bind, and as a result to harm a person of his choice.

At their texts someone can find personalities of all social positions: craftsmen, street vendors, traders, athletes, orators and of course public servants. According to the above, Faraone, one of many researchers of the lead curse tablets, separated the lead tablets into four basic categories: a. commercial, b. magisterial, c. erotic, d. against athletes or public figures.³

Making a lead curse lead tablet followed a precise ritual, from which the lead curse tablet tapped its strength. The magic papyri of Hellenistic Egypt, which contain instructions in making lead curse tablets, are quite enlightening as to the exact procedure.

The custom was to take a thin sheet of lead and to scratch on it the names of one’s enemies. Lead is a resistant metal, easy to use and cheap. It is possible that it was recognized as a magical material, related to god Cronos.⁴ Then one rolled the tablet up and often pierced it with a nail, in order to seal the ritual. The curse was written either by the wizard or, not so often, by the exact same person, who desired the damage. They generally follow the same general pattern.⁵ The name of

¹ Koursoumis S., Corpus 1, 1999, 25.

² www.scad.ox.ac.uk.

³ Koursoumis S., Corpus 1, 1999, 24-26.

⁴ Koursoumis S., Corpus 1, 1999, 27.

⁵ Jordan D.R., *Hesperia* 54, 1985, 211.

the one who put a curse on another was not mentioned. This shows a fear that the curse would carry the victimizer along existed.

The utterance of the text, as far as its pattern and meaning are concerned, confirms the magical character of the tablet. The writing appears either from right to left or the other way around. The names which are indicated frequently are written backwards, reflecting this way the alteration of the condition in which the victims were going to be. A lot of magical words and appellatives, without definite syntactic form or specific meaning, are used singly or in a repeat order, for instance Borphor's syllables.

In order to understand all of the above, I present now the text of one lead curse tablet against a wrestler named Eutyechian, found in the excavations of the Athenian Agora over the years: (see picture 1)

“Borphorbabarthorbabarthorbabarthorbabae, mighty Bety, I hand over to you Eutyechian, who is going to wrestle with Secundus, that you may chill Eutyechian and his purposes and his power, his strength, his wrestling, and in your dark air also those with him. Bind in the unilluminated aion of oblivion and chill and destroy also the wrestling of Eutyechian, wrestler. If with regard to Secundus you chill him and do not allow Eutyechian to wrestle, in order that he may fall and disgrace himself, Morzoune Alcheine Perpertharona Iaia, I hand over to you Eutyechian. Mighty Typhon, Kolchoicheilops, let Eutyechian's name and breath, impulse, charm, knowledge, reckoning, knowledge grow cold. Let him be deaf, dumb, mindless, harmless, and not fighting against anyone”.¹

The ritual of making lead curse tablets also contains inscribed magical drawings and symbols inside, around or from both sides of the text. As a result, in the case of a lead curse tablet against four athletes who were about to participate in games, one can find

¹ Jordan D.R., *Hesperia* 54, 1985, 211.

sketches of them (see picture 2). Under their heads, near their necks are written their names in the accusative (KPONIΩNA, CEΛEYKON, EΠIΔHNAION, MAPKIΩNA). Let two more lead curse tablets to be referred here as they were found with organic remains (human hair, wool fibers, plaster and mud), (see picture 3), a fact which impresses the archaeologists.¹

If the ancient could, they placed the scroll into a grave or deposited it near a grave as possible. The grave had to be chosen with care: it should be the grave of a person who had died before his proper time. The spirits of the untimely dead were believed to have to wait in their graves until their span of mortal life had completed itself before they could go to their final rest. Admittedly, this belief is articulated by ancient authorities of a period much later than the classical, but in every period of antiquity when we have been able to estimate the ages of the dead who have curse tablets in their graves those ages have proved to be young. Presumably the ghost could see through the rolled-up lead and read the names written inside, for it was important that he should focus on this person his own feeling of outrage at his unnaturally early death.² In addition, based on the archaeological facts some researchers discuss an unwritten rule of throwing lead tablets in wells that have not been used.³

We ought to indicate the existence of a different kind of lead curse tablets. These are the one which have borrowed their name from the African voodoo dolls. These are not rolled up and pierced with nails, but cut and folded into the shape of boxes, each with a lead figurine inside; of these, some have their hands bound behind their backs. Over

¹ Koursoumis S., Corpus 1, 1999, 25-27.

² D.R. Jordan, Πρακτικά 12ου Διεθνούς Συνεδρίου Κλασικής Αρχαιολογίας (Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on Classical Archaeology), Vol. Δ', 1983 [1988], 274,273.

³ Koursoumis S., Corpus 1, 1999, 28.

here the doll represents the intended victim and what should happen to him. He is bound for torture and sealed in his coffin for subsequent interments.¹ We are not in possession of such voodoo dolls against athletes, though their existence is quite certain. (See picture 4).

The use of the nail and the corrodibility of the lead create problems in unrolling and reading the tablets. Often the surface is eaten away and with it the shallow inscription, and sometimes the tablet is fragmented in the unrolling. In order to read the texts the tablets must be carefully unfolded. Given their usually brittle condition, this process can only be successfully performed in the laboratory. The results of this examination are produced in drawings, on which the readings and subsequent translations of the tablets are based.²

About Prophecy

We are fortunate to possess a considerable treatise on oneiromancy, namely the explanation of the dreams, the “Onirocriticon” of Artemidorus of Daldis in Asia Minor, which also essentially supports this labour. It has survived since the 2nd century of the Christian era, unlike other sources that have been lost and it is divided into five books.³ Artemidorus’ method is one used centuries earlier by the first Greek medical writers and adopted by Aristotle, the ancient Greek philosopher, and his school the collection and classification of masses of factual data as a necessary preliminary to formulate explanatory hypotheses about dreams.

¹ D.R. Jordan, Πρακτικά 12ου Διεθνούς Συνεδρίου Κλασικής Αρχαιολογίας (Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on Classical Archaeology), Vol. Δ΄, 1983 [1988], 273-4.

² www.scad.ox.ac.uk.

³ S.R.F. Price, Αρχαιολογία και Τέχνες (Archaeology and the Arts) 78, 2001, 8.

As a guide in oneiromancy “Onirocriticon” contains, as well, athletic subjects of dreams which quite methodically correspond to reality. The interpretations which are given here are either quite the exact opposite to the subjects of the dreams or more specific ones. There are plenty more examples, in which the sportsman is either the one who dreams or his profession is the subject of the dream. Generally, what does not escape our attention is the fact that every product of our imagination, depending on the profession of the one who dreams, his gender, the local customs of his homeland, his physical state etc demands different explanation. This individuality is related to every athlete, no matter the event he is competing in.

“Onirocriticon” is quite important since it includes dreams of athletes or others unconnected with athletics, whose dreams’ subject though was: Olympic Games, races and moments of everyday life of the ones who had the dreams. Interpretations vary from one person to another and dreams were being interpreted by Artemidorus only when the mortal who had the dream remembered it completely. In addition, we gain information about the proceedings of the games, for example the separation of men from boys at the beginning of the Games, and even about the specific role of some institutions related to them, such as the Stewards of the Games.

It should be pointed out how much athletes attached the proper importance to the interpretation of their dreams, as dreams often warned them of their future course in sports, despite the easiness of misinterpreting a dream.

Let’s now see some examples. A typical one gives us the varied interpretations that Artemidorus places on a dream that one has lost the sight of both his eyes. While explaining the dream he says the following related to the athletes: “For athletes who practise the heavy events, which are boxing, wrestling, and the pankration, this dream foretells defeat, but to runners it promises victory. I know of a sprinter

who was about to compete in the Imperial Games celebrated in Italy for the first time by the Roman Emperor Antoninus, who lived in the 2nd c.A.D., in honour of his father Hadrian. He dreamed that he had become blind, and then he won the race; the leader in the race, like a blind man, cannot see his rivals”.

Another, which has a completely different significance for athletes, from that which it has for all others, is a dream that one has been turned into bronze. To everyone else it foretells death, but for an athlete it means victory, because victors were allowed to erect bronze statues of themselves. A completely different interpretation follows the next example: A pankratiast, that is to say a man who participated in pankration, went to Olympia with the intention of entering for the wrestling as well as the pankration. He dreamed that both his hands had been turned to gold. This might well have seemed an augury of a double victory, but in the event he won neither crown, “for he was doomed to find his hands as slow and useless as if they had really been made of gold.”

Our author uses another anecdote about a prominent athlete to illustrate a general statement: “That light in dreams is preferable to darkness, except for those who wish to remain unobserved, you might deduce from this example. Not long before competing at Rome, the pankratiast Menippus of Magnesia dreamed that night came on in the middle of his contest. Not only was he hopelessly defeated in the Games at Rome, but as the result of a blow his hand was shattered”¹

In conclusion, we might say that at the sight of this part of ancient Greek civilization, and particularly of ancient Greek sport, the signs of magic, of fear for the unknown, of superstition and envy are quite obvious. Everybody of course recognises the love of the exquisite and the superior even in such a mistaken form. The growth and exhibition

¹ H.A. Harris, *Sport in Greece*, Rome 1972, 244-261.

of this kind of love has to go through passions and instincts so that through knowing and defeating this side of civilization end up to the creation of the perfect society.¹

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“Βωρφορβαβαρφορβαβαρφορβαβαρβορβαβαιη κραταιε
Βεπτu, παραδίδωμί σοι Ευτυχιαν[τ]ον <τα>ο<ν> μέλλοντα
παλαίιν
Σεκούνδω, ίνα καταψύξης Ευτυχιανον κα[ι] την
γνώμ[ην] κα[ι] τ[η]ν δύναμιν, την ισχύν, την πάλην,
και ις τον ζοφώδη σου αέρα και τους συν αυτω. Δης [ις]
τον της λήθης αφώτιστον αιωνα και καταψ[υ]ξης
και απολέση[ς] και την πάλην Ευτυχιανου πα-
λαιστου. Εάν προς Σεκουνδον καταψύξης και μ[η] αφη]ς
[Ευ]τυχια[ο]ν παλαισαι, ίνα εκπέση και ασχημο[νή-]
[σ]η, Μ[ορζ]ουνη Αλχεινη Πεπερθαρωνα Ιαια, π[αρα-]
δ[ίδω]μί σοι Ευτυχιανόν. Κραταιε Τυφω[ν Κολ-]
[χ]λο[ι]χειλωψ, ψυγήτω Ευτυχιανος π[αλαι-]
στής. Ως ταυτα τα ονόματα ψύχεται, ο[ύτως ψυ-]
γήτω Ευτυχιανου το [ό]ν[ομα και η ψυχή, η οργή, η ε-]
πιπ[ομπή, η επιστ]ήμ[η,] ο λογισμός, η ε[πιστήμη. Έστω κωφός,]
άλαλο[ς, ά]νους, ακέραιος, μήτε παλαίω[ν μηδενί.]”

HISTORY OF THE CONCEPT OF EKECHEIRIA

Mr Filip OSTROWSKI (POL)

„...oh sport, you are peace...”

Ode to sport

Pierre de Coubertin

This thesis is an attempt to backtrack the history of the ancient ideal of the *Olympic Truce*.¹ There are numerous controversies surrounding the circumstances in which this, one of the longest-lasting truce treaties, was made. Moreover, the problem of recognising the treaty and eventually the reasons for breaking it are of interest for this analysis. The thesis includes elements of tracing echoes of the *pax olimpica* in the revival of Olympic Movement at the turning of 19th and 20th century, especially in the ideas of its founder count Pierre de Coubertin. Subsequently, the obstacles the movement had to face in the clash with the harsh reality of the 20 century will be mentioned. The theme of this analysis touches the realm of sport and politics co-existing, and the primary aim of the thesis is to present the continuity and relations between the history of the ideal of *ekecheiria* in ancient Greece and the general history of the 20th century. An additional stimulus to analyse the subject matter is the necessity to complete the popular and growing

¹ I use the term *Olympic Truce* in the same meaning as *ekecheiria* and *pax olimpica*.

university discipline of peace studies. This problem seems to be gaining popularity particularly among students of humanities who can draw from the rich experience of the Olympic Movement.

Ekecheiria in ancient Greece

There are a number of objective obstacles hindering the analysis of the history of the pact which ensured the safety and rapid development of athletic contests held in Olympia in honour of Zeus. Being a mixture of historically verifiable facts and mythological stories, the information available is either contradictory or scarce, which is characteristic of any research done on ancient times. Scientists around the world have for a long time been preoccupied with finding the historical truth about those fascinating days. Nevertheless, the fact of primary importance here seems to be that a variety of publications on ancient Greece present it as a permanent battlefield where constant wars were being waged between numerous city-states. A never-ending state of war was a serious threat to the development of the region; therefore, an idea of a truce bringing a stop to cruelty and destruction must have seemed an alluring alternative.

In his lecture presented during the International Olympic Academy Session in 1965¹ Cleanthis Palaeologos attempted to find the truth behind the motives of establishing *pax olimpica*. Through analysis of works by Pausanias and Plutarch, Palaeologos suggested the possible whys and wherefores of signing the pact known as *ekecheiria* in 884 BC. The chief initiator, according to him, was Iphitos, the king of Elis – a polis controlling Olympia. Ensuring safety and stability of the games was a prerequisite of sustaining the remarkable revenues deriving from holding the Olympic Games and feeding Iphitos's

¹ Cleanthis Palaeologos, *The Institution of the Truce in the Ancient Olympic Games*, The IOA Session for Young Participants, 1965.

treasure. Additionally, the very fact of being the organiser of the festival renowned in the whole Greek world awarded him respect among other kings and subjects. A similar set of values must have driven Cleosthenes, the ruler of neighbouring Pisa, whose material profits from the games were also remarkable. From their point of view the ceasefire was merely a means offering a chance for political and economical development of their polis. The third signatory of the treaty was Lycurgos, the king of Sparta. With a peculiar system of educating their people¹, Sparta based its development on waging numerous wars and conquering other lands. Being a superb strategist and an expert in military art Lycurgos was well aware of the fact that the truce in Elis offered him a chance to concentrate his military efforts elsewhere. Therefore, these were military calculations that brought Sparta to join the treaty. Please note, however, that in the case of all these three rulers various motivations co-existed, and only the primary ones have been indicated here.

If discussing the reasons why the three rulers signed the truce on the Olympic discus² one cannot disregard the approach put forward by Athanasios Kalapaxis, who acknowledging the political, economic and military motivations to stop fights between the polises, simultaneously pointed at the religious motivations as being the most prominent for introducing and retaining *pax olimpica*.³ After all, the Olympic Games were a holiday to honour Zeus and the need to respect the mystery and enable every believer to participate in it by neglecting military conflicts was a primary one. Similar practices are present in other

¹ Based on the program of harsh athletic and military exercises for boys since 7 years old. The goal of this system was to train the strong army to obtain the supremacy in the region.

² According to Pausanias, the treaty was signed on the discus.

³ Athanasios Kalpaxis, *Olympia- The Olympic Games of Antiquity*, The IOA Session for Young Participants, 1995.

contemporary religious systems. The Muslim Ramadan or Jewish Jom Kipur can be set as examples of today's holidays during which the followers of these religions should refrain from using violence. It is worth remembering that the faith in Gods of Olympus was an all-pervading phenomenon in Hellas, and even the greatest rulers feared their anger. This factor seems to have been playing a support role in sustaining the Olympic treaty of sacred peace, and the fact that in the war-swept reality of the ancient Peloponnese it was joined by Greek kings remains interesting.

The problems arising during attempts to discover the reasons underlying the origins and motives of signing *pax olimpica* reappear with an attempt to understand the rules on which it was based. Although agreeing about the minute details still remains a bone of contention among researchers, the general conclusions seem indisputable. It is widely believed that *pax olimpica* was announced by the organiser of the games for the period covering the contest in honour of Zeus itself as well as the time prior to and after the event allowing the participants (athletes and viewers) to travel safely to Olympia and then back to their dwellings.¹ The information was spread around Greece by King of Elis messengers, known as spondophoroi, marking the time when the polis started to be regarded as a neutral and disinterested state where no violence was allowed. Moreover, a ban on carrying weapons was introduced for individuals in the direct vicinity of the holy Altis. Real sanctions imposed on those disobeying the orders were an additional important factor enforcing the ban. A substantial array of sanctions included condemnation by gods, exclusion from the games or a fine to be deposited in an appropriate temple. All these significantly added to the development of the Olympic Games. Political security meant

¹ Depending on the researcher, the *Olympic Truce* could last for 1, 3 or even 10 months.

acquiring the mandate of the Greek world for this contest. Up to that moment these games had rather been known as a local event striving to stand out among other games organised elsewhere in honour of other gods. It was the breakthrough on the road to make the Olympic Games a pan-Hellenic contest. The first recorded games of such nature are believed to have been held in 776 BC. Since then the prestige of the games was systematically increased as they were constantly reorganised by prolonging them up to several days, adding new disciplines, making the whole event particularly solemn and by organising an outstandingly widespread promotional campaign all over Greece.¹

As any magnificent idea, this one has also had its ups, like the very fact of the existence of *pax olimpica*, and downs when politics or human imperfections neglect the treaty. Therefore, tracing the ancient ideal of *ekecheiria* it is worth indicating the moments when the ideals were breached. The firmness of the treaty among the very founders should be a starting point for further divagations. The prestige and profits deriving from the right to organise the games were so big that the neighbouring and flourishing city of Pisa decided to assume control over the games at the expense of Elis. The eighth games of 748 BC as a result of an act of violence were held by the ruler of Pisa. Eventually, however, they were not regarded as valid and the winners were not included in the official list of the Olympic winners. A similar situation reoccurred in 644 BC when Pisa again organised the 34th games, and again the rightful organisers used their authority to announce them invalid. To complete the list of invalid games those organised in 364 BC, when Olympia was taken over by Arcadia, must be mentioned. All the turbulence derived from distribution of power and influences existing in those times in Peloponnese. Although directly it did not violate the

¹ Jan Alfred Szczepański, *Od Olimpii do olimpiad*, Wydawnictwo Literackie Kraków, 1980.

period of the sacred truce, obtaining the right to organise the games by means of power foretold the bad times. Despite numerous problems including the war of the united Greek forces with Persia the neutral character of Elis for the time of the Olympic Games was successfully maintained. The first time when the rule was breached was in 420 BC when Spartan troops seized the city of Lepreos in Elis. Sparta was then fined 2000 m'nas which was not paid leading to the exclusion of Spartans from the Olympic Games. The situation did not change until the II Peloponnesian war entered its decisive stage. The status quo in Greece was finally changed by the Spartan victory over Athens in the sea battle of the Aigospotamoi River in 405 BC. First on political grounds and then by means of military force the winners started to demand lifting the ban excluding their citizens from the Olympic Games. The rivalry resulted in Spartans taking over from Elis the right to organise the festivity of Zeus in Olympia, which meant allowing the citizens of Lacedemon to participate in the games. Politics took over the games for good.

This was the precedence which can be regarded as a symbolic one on the road to the downfall of the ancient Olympic contest in honour of Zeus. Being involved in endless wars Greeks were never again able to deny violence for the time of the holiday of peace. The moral decay in Hellenic cities-states also visible in neglecting other ideals underlying the Olympic Games was continuing.¹ Despite attempts to restore the greatness of the games, the course of events predicted the downfall of the Hellenic civilisation already making room for the civilisation of Rome. Along with the dynamic development of the Roman Empire, the ideals of the Games were also drifting away from the Olympia towards Colosseum.²

¹ I mean the increasing number of individual cheating among athletes.

² Comparison used by Józef Lipiec when writing about the problem of subjective and objective aspects of sport, *Filozofia olimpizmu*, Warszawa, 1999.

The revival of the idea of ekecheiria in modern times.

The Olympic Games formally ceased to exist in 393 AD when Flavius Theodosius issued an edict forbidding any pagan religions and introducing severe punishment for any forms of practicing them, which also included contests in honour of Zeus. It is worth mentioning, however, that the games held in Olympia until that moment had been a far cry from a great pan-Hellenic festivity from a few centuries earlier. The breaching of *pax olimpica* in 420 BC marked a symbolic turning point on the way to their downfall, and the decision from the Christian Roman Emperor merely confirmed legally the end of what remained of the Games. All aspects of glorious activities of Ancient Greeks, including the idea of truce during the Olympic Games were destroyed and long forgotten. Following the traces of *ekecheiria* poses the biggest problems. It seems dead and buried in the ruins of Ancient Greece.

The history does not restart until the 19th century. It seems that these were the times when Ancient Greece again became a subject of wide interest resulting in numerous archaeological expeditions with the one by professor Ernst Curtius of Germany being of primary importance for the subject discussed here. Its result was the excavation of Ancient Olympia.¹ At approximately the same time, the Olympic spirit was starting to reappear in people's minds. So it did in Pierre de Coubertin's mind. The basic element of the reviving philosophy was the fresh idea of peace among nations being a continuation of the ancient *ekecheiria* put in words to suit the needs of modern times.²

¹ The results of the expedition were described by Ernst Curtius and Friedrich Adler in the monograph entitled *Olympia. Die Ergebnisse der von dem Deutschen Reich veranstalteten Ausgrabung*, 1897.

² Being a good observer of the surrounding reality, de Coubertin was able to translate the whole bit of Ancient Olympic Idea into modern meaning.

According to Dietrich Quanz¹ the special likeness de Coubertin cherished for the idea of peace does not derive merely from his detailed studies of the history of Ancient Greece. He may have had a chance to read philosophical works on peace on Earth in the course of his education, but his interest was boosted by the appearance of the real pacifist movement during the 19th century. Publishing the anti-war novel by countess Bertha von Suttner in 1889 titled "Lay Down Your Arms" was a symbolic starting point of the movement. The intellectual atmosphere of fin de siècle fed the imagination and made the idea of international peace popular and Paris was its centre. It was then when, in his twenties, Pierre de Coubertin had a chance to observe the scientific and cultural heritage of the nations of the world during the World Expo in Paris. The International Peace Congress during which intellectuals called for the world peace through getting to know other nations, was organised at the same time. After centuries of being forgotten *ekecheiria* finally found again its point of supporting. Finding himself in the very centre of two great ideas crossing: the ancient divine peace and modern pacifism, de Coubertin could launch his Olympic project.²

The basis of the project was supposed to be the role sport could play in the life of societies, which was laid out by de Coubertin in a number of speeches and publications. Here, the positive aspect of sport should be presented. In his lecture given at Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) in 1891, de Coubertin presented sport as a means for building communication and, consequently, understanding between the nations of the world.³ The symbolic name

¹ Dietrich R. Quanz, *The Formative Power of the IOC's Founding: The Birth of a New Peace Movement*, 34th IOA Session for Young Participants, 1994.

² More about the mutual relations between Olympism and pacifism in Dietrich R. Quanz, *Civic Pacifism and Sport-Based Internationalism: Framework for the Founding of the IOC*, *Olympika: The International Journal of Olympic Studies*, Volume II, 1993

³ *Ibidem*,

of the ambassadors of peace given to sportsmen dates back to the ancient reverence ancient athletes had. Only the greatest citizens of polis were allowed to take part in the contests, and the flawless athlete, who embodied the ancient ideal of *kalos kai agathos*¹, was an excellent example to follow by spectators. The same ideal of being physically and morally impeccable was to be achieved by modern sportsmen in de Coubertin's idea. Following the fair-play rules, the competing idol-athletes were supposed to set an example for the whole international community, and the universal Olympic Games could be a chance to teach the ideals of respect for the opponent and tolerance for the differences. The influence a sportsman exerts on the spectator highlights the educational role of sport, which was frequently emphasised by de Coubertin himself. Such understanding of the role of sport gave rise to the peaceful connotations of the modern Olympics. The organisation responsible for implementing these ideals is the International Olympic Committee – a non-political body established on 23rd June 1894 in Paris. Following the strong voices of pacifism characteristic of the end of 19th century, the IOC was meant to be an international organisation embracing representatives of nations. The practical realisation of this rule can be proved by the fact that among the first National Olympic Committees there were Czech and Hungarian ones, although these were not independent states at the time.² The importance of the ideal of peace for the IOC, right from the very beginnings of the existence of this organisation, is reflected in parts of the constitution of the Olympic Movement – the Olympic Charter, of which certain elements have remained unchanged until

¹ It suggests a harmony of physical and moral excellence, where *kalos* refers to the beauty of body and *agathos* refers to moral goodness.

² It is worth mentioning that not all nations fighting for their independence were among the founders of IOC. The absence of Polish representatives is of special meaning for me.

today. These are art. 3. and art. 6 from the Fundamentals of the Charter¹, as well as, the peaceful motivation for the official Olympic symbols, where five joined circles represent “the union of the five continents and the meeting of athletes from throughout the world”.² An attempt to draw a direct parallel between the formal bases of the ancient idea of *pax olimpica* and the modern constitution of the Olympic Movement seems rather difficult. The Olympic Charter is by no means a political, military or economic treaty, therefore, it does not possess any such mandate from the external world. There is no religion enforcing the Charta or standing on guard of the IOC either. The vision of the world based on the Olympic ideals suggested by the IOC was also too optimistic. Very soon it appeared that in the clash with the harsh reality of conflicting political interests of the world superpowers, a group of inexperienced creators of the Olympic Movement was bound to fail on many occasions.

The most significant failure of the IOC in the 20th century is believed not to have organised certain Games. Due to the First World War the 6th Games of 1916 did not take place in Berlin. In general terms war brought about serious consequences for the Olympic Movement. During the IOC session in Lausanne in 1919 it was agreed not to invite Germany – the country responsible for the outbreak of war, to participate in the next Olympic Games. Moreover, the situation in Soviet Russia, led the IOC members to take a preventive action of not inviting the country either. By this time Lausanne, Switzerland had been appointed the seat of the Olympic movement as, being deeply disappointed with the majority of European states’ involvement in the war, de Coubertin wished the seat to be in a neutral country. In a

¹ Full text of Olympic Charter on http://multimedia.olympic.org/pdf/en_report_122.pdf.

² Olympic Charter, Chapter 1, 8.

way, Switzerland can be regarded as a contemporary Elis. Immediately prior to the First World War another significant event took place. The fundamentals of the IOC's operation were changed during the Olympic Congress in Paris in June 1914. The concept of nationality was replaced by the concept of citizenship and state in the mechanisms underlying the rules of participation in the Olympic Games, which was a clear indication of politics taking over the Olympic ideals. The weakness of the Olympic Movement was even more revealed by failing to organise two subsequent Games in Tokyo and Helsinki in 1940 and 1944 respectively, due to the ongoing World War 2. Once again the IOC proved helpless in the contest with accelerating history. A number of other Games unveiled problems of a different kind. In Berlin 1936, the Olympic symbols and ideals were abused by Nazi propaganda to suit Hitler's political goals. The bipolar structure of the post-1945 world resulted in two Games being boycotted. These were the games in Moscow (1980) boycotted by the USA, and in Los Angeles (1984) where athletes from the Soviet Union and other satellite states did not participate. To obtain a full scope of problems facing the IOC we have to mention the policy of apartheid leading to the boycott of the 1976 Games by some African countries or the emergence of international terrorism putting the organisation of the Games in Munich in 1972 at risk. Nowadays, specially preventing from terrorist attack becomes the most important task for every Organising Committee. Security costs are among main ones in the Olympic Games budgets and countries which are consider as being supportive for international terrorism are even discouraged from participating in the games.

All the defeats mentioned above seem to derive from the primary assumption of the Olympic movement being apolitical. The idea of peace through sport on many occasions overlaps with internal and external policies applied by certain countries. Powerful states do not tolerate any organisation interfering unrightfully in their internal affairs. Therefore, having analysed historic events, chief members of the

IOC set to find ways of strengthening the mandate for their activities. A possible solution could be the religious mandate. However in times of freedom of conscience and faith no religious order can be regarded as universal, nor is it powerful enough to protect the general peace the way Zeus's order protected the ancient Olympic festivity. Furthermore, one cannot ignore the fact that the ancient Olympic Games embraced the Greek world contrary to modern games in the reality of the 21st century global village. The religious directive governing the games being an impossible solution, the only alternative the IOC seems to be left with is the political mandate. Despite numerous critical voices, the only widely renowned institution, fulfilling the criteria of neutrality of a majority of countries in the world is the UN. From this point of view, tightening the co-operation between the IOC and the UN seems a reasonable solution. According to Fekrou Kidane¹, the first person to observe this necessity was Juan Antonio Samaranch who, having been elected President of the IOC, started to promote Olympic ideals in close co-operation with the UN. In 1993 the UN General Assembly issued a resolution about 1994 being the International Year of Sport and the Olympic Ideal. Taking advantage of the favourable circumstances, the IOC called for a 7-day ceasefire prior to and after the Lillehammer Olympic Games. An intensive diplomatic action taken on behalf of the IOC and UN resulted in a 1-day truce during the conflict in Bosnia. To demonstrate solidarity with the victims of the conflict who were not able to participate in the Games, a group of delegates of the IOC paid a visit to Sarajevo – the host of 1984 Winter Olympic Games. This is the moment of a symbolic revival of the ancient ideal of *ekecheiria*. A real military conflict was ceased for a moment in the name of the Olympic idea. This unprecedented

¹ Fekrou Kidane, *Sport and Politics. Diplomacy of an Olympic Truce*, http://www.play-the-game.org/articles/kidane/sport_and_politic.html

event proved the Olympic strive for peace not meaningless and hopeless. Later on, the IOC has continued to call for the truce during the Olympic Games, which has been always been supported by the international community within the UN in the form of declarations and resolutions. One of the most prominent of such documents was the UN Millennium Declaration issued by heads of 150 states in New York in 2000. The Declaration included a paragraph calling for everyone to recognise the *Olympic Truce* and to support the IOC in their struggle for world peace.¹ Encouraged by these successes, the members of the Greek Olympic Committee initiated the process of having this rule institutionalised. As a result, the IOC has created the International Truce Foundation, whose main part is the *Olympic Truce* Centre seated in Athens, Lausanne and Olympia. All these activities feed the hope that the ancient idea of *ekecheiria* is back for good.

Conclusions

Despite the indisputable success of institutionalising the ideal of the *pax olympica* in the 20th century, one cannot forget that on a global scale, the diplomatic achievements of the IOC are only small steps towards the common objective. It seems to be the nature of the world that social changes occur significantly faster than legal, scientific or political ones aimed at describing them. The contemporary world is now facing problems of a global character. The world conflicts have also changed, which means that nowadays it is not enough to convince the national terrorist groups to respect *pax olimpica* merely by means of a political appeal. Therefore, it is necessary to broaden the network of organisations pursuing a common goal, and to organise actions on a much broader scale. Utilising symbols commonly recognisable

¹ Full text of Millennium Declaration on <http://www.un.org/millennium/declaration/ares552e.htm>

around the world might prove profitable. Criticising the commercial character the Olympic Games have come to acquire, it is important to acknowledge that this phenomenon has helped to promote the Olympic symbols. The Olympic flag or the Olympic torch are among most recognised symbols all over the globe. According to William Brahms, *ekecheiria* can be successfully promoted by utilising the peaceful symbols of the Olympic movement more.¹ With history running in circles we must not let the once revived idea of *pax olimpica* perish as it was the case in Ancient Greece. Taking on challenges facing the movement for world peace we must constantly remember about our Greek ancestors' experiences.

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THE TRADITIONS OF AGON MIRRORED BY TEXTS OF HOMER AND HESIOD

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Agon, the Greek word meaning “contest” or “competition”, is a lexeme bearing a more specific connotation in English as “the conflict between the chief characters in a literary work” (influence of ancient drama traditions), besides it has also several derivatives, for instance “agony”, especially “death agony” associated with more somber things like suffering and pain. The word “agony” is also a widely used medical term, with the original meaning of the Greek word being “the body’s struggle for life”.

But is it right to use the medical term “agony” when speaking about the Hellenic spirit of contest? Here, I would like to point out that it is the shadow of death over human life, efforts to comprehend the interaction of life, death and eternity that allow us to understand better the importance of competition in the life of an ancient Greek, evolving of contest traditions into the Olympic tradition and ideals of competition, which even today are so important for the Western model of thinking.

I would like to remind also the etymology and semantics of the Greek word *agon*, as this linguistic level reveals in some degree the meaning of *agon* in the life of the ancient Greeks. The noun *agon* is derived from the verb “ago”, which carries a wide range of connotations related to such verbs as “to lead”, “to continue”, “to evaluate”, “to respect”,

“to create” and even “to celebrate”. The basic meaning of the noun *agon* is “gathering, meeting”, while the meaning “contest” is only derived and secondary and pertains to all spheres of life, including hard work.

But, returning to the common roots of agony and *agon*, I must speak also about the specific features of the ancient Greek world-view and mythology. Unlike the later Christian tradition, the Pagan beliefs had not solved the issue of death. The victory over death, promise of the eternal life is central to the Christian religion. Although the ancient Greeks believed in the immortality of a soul, unlike in Christianity where the true life has been promised after death, the souls of the ancient Greeks were doomed to a tacit, shadowy and miserable existence in the underworld. In the Greek genesis, Thanatos (god of death) is the grandson of Chaos, while in the hierarchy of the Greek gods he has a quite separate place – he is hated both by the mortals and gods: “*whomever of men he has once seized he holds fast: and he is hateful even to the deathless gods.*” (Th. 765. – 766.)

Achilles, the quick and godlike runner, who won the greatest share in eternity that was possible for a Greek, later did not feel any satisfaction from this in the underworld, and Odysseus, when he descended into the underworld to learn the future, admitted that he would rather be a servant to a poor man on the Earth than a king among shadows of the deceased:

“I would rather be a paid servant in a poor man’s house and be above ground than king of kings among the dead.” (Od., XI, 488. – 491.)

To escape the deadly embrace of Thanatos, a man must struggle for his survival in the first place. This is the first and foremost level of existence – the *agon* for survival. The ancient Greeks perceived struggle as characteristic of the world of gods. Describing the genesis of gods, Hesiod mentions at least three episodes where the immortals compete for the highest of stakes. And these stakes are even higher

than a man's struggle for survival, as gods' immortality either elevates them to the splendor of Olympus or throws them down into the dark abyss of Tartarus, which is as deep under the earth as the sky is high above the earth:

"..It is a great gulf, and if once a man were within the gates, he would not reach the floor until a whole year had reached its end, but cruel blast upon blast would carry him this way and that. And this marvel is awful even to the deathless gods." (Th. 739. – 744)

But, just as men on the earth are always short of resources and living-space, the Olympus, the home of gods, is also too small for all the immortals, and *agon* becomes the decisive method for the division of space. The Greek mythology describes several confrontations of gods. Sons are waging war against their fathers (Olympians against Titans) and then defend the conquered territory against their uncles – the Giants. The spirit of contest does not die also among the Olympians. These wars and battles have been described both by Homer and Hesiod. In the genesis described in "Theogony", struggle and contest play essential roles. The first scene of gods' confrontation in Hesiod's work is the duel between Zeus and his father Chronos in which Zeus takes the upper hand by cunning and cheating. If we take these scenes literally, they may look like an unfair play, but, metaphorically, it shows that reliance only on physical strength and oneself is insufficient, that a truly victorious hero needs also cunning, and luck and a divine sanction. The most conspicuous scene of *agon* in Hesiod's work is the war between two generations of gods which lasts for ten years with changing success. The Olympian gods and Titans fight the war just like humans.

The battle with Titans is a struggle for survival, but the next episode, described by Hesiod, is an *agon* not for survival but for the luxurious life on the Olympus. Zeus, the absolute ruler of gods and men, had to fight with Typhon, Gaea's youngest son, who coveted Zeus' throne. According to Hesiod, this battle was followed by a period of peace on

the Olympus, although other texts suggest that the Olympian peace was threatened on many occasions also after this confrontation. Every once in while, mortals attempted to challenge gods, and it is only logical that these confrontations and contests ended dramatically for the daring humans. Arachnis was turned into a spider and Marsius was brutally skinned by Apollo. About mortals eager to challenge the immortals mentions Homer as well:

“I should not like to shoot against the mighty dead, such as Herakles, or Eurytos the Cechalian- men who could shoot against the gods themselves. This in fact was how Eurytos came prematurely by his end, for Apollo was angry with him and killed him because he challenged him as an archer.” (Od., VIII, 223. – 228.)

The most dynamic scene where mortals are fighting with gods is Gigantomachia – the war between the Olympians and Giants, which is probably the only example in Greek mythology showing a contest for immortality, as Giants had the chance to win it, although they lost their struggle ultimately.

The above mythic situations show the struggle of gods against their predecessors, the gods of previous generations, but the spirit of *agon* is alive also in the realm of Olympus. In Homer’s epics it is manifested both as an indirect competition when gods hiding from each other or wanting to prevail over each other, help their favorites and give misleading advice to the favorites of their rivals. The duel between Achilles and Hector, which turns out to be fatal for the latter, is provoked by Athena, inciting Hector, the Trojan hero, to confrontation.

When the duel starts, Hector, of course, is fighting alone, while Achilles is supported by Athena, who hands Achilles the spear he has unluckily dropped.

However, the rivalry of gods does not manifest only through the actions of their favorites, the gods themselves also confront each

other in the battlefield. Thus, Athena defeats Ares, and Hera batters Artemis.

The rivalry among gods is incited by Eris, the goddess of strife. But in the works of Hesiod we can see the changes in conception of this goddess. If in “Theogony” she incites war, then in the poem “Days and Works” Hesiod writes:

“So, after all, there was not one kind of Strife alone, but all over the earth there are two. As for the one, a man would praise her when he came to understand her; but the other is blameworthy: and they are wholly different in nature. For one fosters evil war and battle, being cruel: [15] her no man loves; but perforce, through the will of the deathless gods, men pay harsh Strife her honor due. But the other is the elder daughter of dark Night, and the son of Cronos who sits above and dwells in the aether, set her in the roots of the earth: and she is far kinder to men. [20] She stirs up even the shiftless to toil; for a man grows eager to work when he considers his neighbor, a rich man who hastens to plough and plant and put his house in good order; and neighbor vies with his neighbor as he hurries after wealth. This Strife is wholesome for men.” (WD 11. – 24.)

In the seemingly contradictory accounts of the ancient poets we can observe the formation and stabilization of the agonal ideas. The immortal gods themselves show example to humans, although the behavior of Homer’s strikingly anthropomorphic gods may sometimes seem strange and even comic, for instance, when goddesses call each other names.

Nevertheless, it is the struggle and the desire for victory that makes mortals godlike, and reveals one more essential dimension of the *agon*.

Victory and being the first among ones’ peers is what makes the fragile human life more valuable and substantial, the fame

and admiration a man can gain during his lifetime are the only counterweights to the imminent shadow of death awaiting him. Competition not only allows an individual to excel among his peers, it also benefits the whole society as the best individuals determined in the process of *agon* would also make the life of the society better. However, the later history of the Greek democracy shows that those who excel with their cunning and wit can easily become manipulators, as it was the case, for instance, in the sophist tradition.

Although the spirit of *agon* manifests itself most clearly in the games of athletes, and it was in the process of competition among the many ancient games that the Olympic Games' rise to prominence took place, in everyday life *agon* in legal procedures and politics played a much more important role. This leads to a question – why did athleticism become the symbol of *agon*? This was determined by the ancient Greeks' ideas about the beautiful and the good, rooted in the material, physically perceptible world. According to the Greek views, the eternal can be perceived only in the finite, i.e., a human being or a thing, in which eternity manifests as a physically ideal form. That is why athleticism played the central role in the multiform tradition of *agon*, as the Greeks believed that beauty has been revealed to the fullest in a human body, and that the beautiful is at the same time also good and upright. The physical beauty of a human being is also a reflection of the divine and a kind of a substitute for eternity.

That *agon* is closely related to man's efforts to escape the shadow of death is demonstrated also by Homer's texts, which are full of quintessential spirit of *agon*.

In both Homer's epics, *agon* functions in all senses of the word, with the most important being "contest as a battle" and "contest as a game". In Patroclus' funeral we find the very origins of the Greek Olympic Games, which started as a commemorative event honoring the fallen hero and which asserted in many ways the idea that death

on the battlefield is a value, that through such a death eternal memory and glory can be won and that the immortality of the name is the only kind of eternity available to a man. Heroes in Homer's epics are eager for fame, which can mainly be won in the battlefield, but the games of athletes are also shown as an important part of heroes' lives. Book XXIII in Iliad describes a vivid scene of competition in which Greek heroes commemorating Patroclus and confirming their readiness to follow in his footsteps in the battlefield, compete in eight events – chariot racing, fist-fighting, wrestling, running, fencing, discus-throwing, archery and javelin-throwing. It can be said that a kind of small scale Olympic Games are being played out within the framework of Patroclus' funeral ceremony. These games still have not lost their close links to warcraft, as some of the events are of military practical nature, and the fist-fighting match between Aiantus and Diomedes had to be interrupted in order to prevent them from killing each other. The prizes awarded in these games were mainly of a practical nature, which shows that the status of the athlete has just started to develop. Instead of the eternal glory the participants of the competition were awarded with such prizes as female slaves, pottery, cattle and iron.

However, the presence of immortal gods is inevitable, and they also compete with each other through the heroes. In running competition, Athena helps Odysseus, the archery contest is won by Merion who promises Apollo a sacrifice, while his rival forgets to offer his sacrifice to the god. It is hardly a fair play, as athletes use not only help from gods but also various ruses and even rather base tricks. Thus, in the wrestling competition, Odysseus kicks his rival in the knee and wins the match. The atmosphere among the audience is also full of passion and some of them are even ready to make bets about the outcome of the competitions, so here Homer perhaps has described for the first time in history the origins of bookmakers' business. However, the fist-fighting match between Aiantus and Diomedes is the most peculiar, as there the real fighting has not turned into a game yet, and heroes go

over the top, ready to kill each other. Just like this *agon* of game reflects some aspects of the *agon* of war, the *agon* of war also shows elements of a game. The duel between Achilles and Hector is organized as a series of sports events in which both heroes demonstrate their sword-wielding and javelin-throwing skills and compete even in running, as they circle the city of Troy for four times before they meet in the decisive confrontation. Here, Achilles proves that he is an unrivalled runner.

In their works, Homer and Hesiod have revealed the characteristic features of the ancient Greek perception which became the precondition for the development of the Olympic tradition. The reader will find in their epic poetry the principles of the existence of the world, gods and men, leading the logical development of the spirit of game and contest to the self sufficient fulfillment in the Olympic Games allowing men to feel the touch of eternity.

Therefore, the personifications of *agon* in the classical period of the ancient Greek culture assume features of both Nike, the goddess of victory, and Eros, the ever surviving son of Chaos, keeper of the source of life.

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- Homer. Homeri opera in five volumes. Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1920. ABBREVIATIONS
DW. – Hesiod. Days and Works.
Od. – Homer. Odyssee.
Th. – Hesiod. Theogony.

CROSS-BORDER TEACHING OF OLYMPIC EDUCATION AS A SUBJECT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION TEACHER TRAINING IN THE NETHERLANDS AND GERMANY

Ms Christiane VÖLZ (GER)

Background information

The organization of physical education teacher training is quite different in the Netherlands as compared to Germany. In the Netherlands PE teachers are trained at special academies for teacher training (hoogeschools), whereas in Germany PE teacher training is organized at the university level. However, due to the so called EU-Bologna-declaration the university level will also become compulsory for teacher training in the Netherlands which means teacher training will be upgraded at a university level in the near future. Teacher training courses are organized in both countries at least for six semesters or three years of studies, for upper grades in secondary schools it is eight semesters (4 years) of studies. Primary school in the Netherlands starts at the age of 4 until the age of 12 whereas in Germany it only starts at the age of 6 up to 10. PE can be taken as a special subject of studies among others in Germany also for primary school teachers but not in the Netherlands where PE is a smaller part of the general studies to become a primary school teacher.

If we further compare PE teacher studies in both countries from the point of Olympic studies, the many differences which exist in

formal terms and in the structure of studies are less visible. In both countries Olympic studies are not a compulsory item at all. If the topic of Olympism is covered in PE teacher training courses at German universities, it is almost limited to sport history. However, due to the longitudinal studies of Joachim Rühl, who monitored the subject of sport history in German PE teacher training for more than the last 20 years, there is a constant decline in lectures on sport history in which Olympic studies have become less and less a minor part of it.

In the Netherlands sport history is lacking in many PE teacher courses as are other components of Olympic studies.

The history of the Olympic Games movement is lacking in PE teacher training in both countries. If the table of contents of the training courses is checked in pedagogy and education cross-borderly, the item of Olympic education is missing completely in the Dutch PE teacher training curriculum – likewise it is the case in PE teacher training courses in Germany. Only at some universities like Augsburg, Cologne, Essen and Mainz which means in total less than 10% of all German universities where PE teacher training is organized, courses in Olympic education are offered to the students as a part of the PE teacher training.

However, in 2002 when 5 different German cities bid for the national NOC elections to become the German candidate as a host city for the 2012 Olympics, the topic of Olympic education was more recognised and became the focus in the bid book of the city of Düsseldorf. The so called “White Book of Olympic Education” (Düsseldorf Rhein-Ruhr 2012 GmbH, 2002) lined out an educational, cultural and social programme for a so called “decade of Olympic education” at schools and in sport clubs. A further step in promoting Olympic education in the Netherlands and Germany was brought up by the EU-Year 2004, with the Education through Sport campaign. Both campaign focused the topic of Olympic education on values and virtues in sports and physical activities.

The background of our German-Dutch cross-border project in Olympic education is closely linked with both of these activities in 2002 and 2004. The second Dutch-German Symposium of PE, co-organized by the Willibald Gebhardt Research Institute (WGI, Essen, Germany) in 2003 focused on the topic Olympic education designed in the 'White Book'. An international research study on Olympic education as a part of PE teaching across Europe which involved more than 12 EU-countries was designed and agreed by the different European partner institutions in October 2003. The application for funding was sent to the EU-office in Brussels as a proposal for one international project of the European Year 2004 on Education through Sport.

The Dutch-German symposium on Olympic education was very successful and brought together also the departments of Olympic education in the Dutch and German National Olympic Committees. But the EU-application failed. Therefore our institute (WGI) started our cross-border project on Olympic education in last autumn 2004 with support of the EUREGIO Rhein Waal, which is a cross-border region in the north of Germany and the Netherlands, the European Academy of Sports, based at Velen and with the support of our Ministry of Sports in North Rhine-Westphalia (MSWKS), the PE department of the State Curriculum Institute (LfS), the State Sport Federation of North Rhine-Westphalia (LSB NRW) and the Dutch PE Teacher organization (KVLO).

Objectives of the project

Important objectives of the projects were proposed by a working group and later agreed by a steering group. Both groups are represented by German and Dutch scientists, teachers and representatives of the institutions who sponsor and support the project. Major targets of the projects are:

- To pass knowledge about the Olympic movement in general (criteria of ancient and modern times, phases of development in modern times, ceremonies, symbols, technical development, boycotts, “cold war politics” etc.) and about national items in particular (participation, hosting games, national sport profiles, outstanding athletes, cross-cultural contests in the Games etc.). In addition, knowledge about the IOC Charter and the ambiguous assessments of the appearance of the Olympic Games in public life should be given.
- To pass the educational purpose of the IOC Charter and to highlight the development and structure of different international and national teaching approaches in Olympic education with a representative collection of writings including methods of instruction as examples.
- Finally, to document both for teaching at schools and for coaching in sport clubs a complete practical teaching guide for each setting (school and sport club) which provides a range of given examples for single hours or units of teaching and coaching up to a whole course of teaching / coaching at school / sport clubs, including a variety of “Olympic events” (e.g. contests, ceremonies, Olympic weeks/week-ends etc.) in one school subject (PE) and interdisciplinary (at least in two subjects) as well as in single kinds of sports and as a special triathlon, pentathlon of a variety of physical activities (sport club).

Structure of the module system

According to the purposes to familiarize teachers and coaches with the Olympic idea, to pass basic knowledge about the international Olympic movement in the Dutch and German context to them, and to help them to learn about and to apply different approaches of Olympic education in teaching at school and coaching in sport clubs,

the working group designed a tripartite module system for cross-border teaching of Olympic Education:

Module 1:

- Module 1 (M1) documents a range of teaching units which give a brief introduction to the history of the Olympic Games reviewed from a Dutch and German national perspective and compares the two national developments in the context of international items (e.g. beginning of the national Olympic movement, participation and boycott items, hosting the Games 1928, 1936, 1972; cold war politics and the so called “German question”). Criteria of the ancient and modern Olympic Games from an ethical-moral background (e.g. fair play) are documented as well as the IOC Charter with its paragraphs of fundamental principles, about ceremonies, symbols, etc. Convergencies and divergencies (e.g. in the context of summer and winter games; participation in and boycotts of Olympic Games) in many respects (range of sports, national contests within the Olympics e.g. skating, cycling, hockey etc.) highlight and compare the two national heritages of the Olympic movements in the Netherlands and Germany. In addition, alternative assessments of the Olympic Games (e.g. from the origins of de Coubertin to the post-modern critics of Jennings) give as examples some insight what different perspectives of the Olympic Games exist today.

Module 2:

- Module 2 (M 2) documents a range of teaching units, which give full insight in matters of Olympic education. The educational purposes of the IOC Charter (fundamental principles) are highlighted as a common cross-border pedagogical demand for Olympic education programmes. With a historical background

of social-moral reasoning in PE and youth sport coaching four major concepts of teaching approaches in Olympic education are documented with a selection of basic writings about the respective concepts for teaching Olympic education. Furthermore, information is available about teaching of special items like fair play, mutual understanding, joy in effort etc.

Module 3:

- Module 3 (M 3) provides two parts of teaching material for Olympic education units at school and in sport clubs. Each part documents a set of examples given as work sheets, frames of hours, preparation outlines for lessons / sessions, including teachers “and coaches” reports how to conduct items of Olympic education in a range of different “Olympic events” inside and outside schools and sport clubs.

Module 1 and 2 may be characterised as two practical text books of the Olympic movement and of Olympic education whereas module 3 is a teacher and a coach guide how to prepare and conduct with given examples practical lessons and incentives in Olympic education. There will be two versions of the whole package, one in German language and one in Dutch including some English papers in both versions for more detailed studies for (under-)graduate students.

Implementation policy

Currently, the working group is still preparing the three modules. After the 2005 summer holiday break four evaluation sessions will start with selected PE teachers and coaches who serve as experts to evaluate the package of the reading and teaching material for further implementation at local schools and sport clubs. Two sessions will

be organized across the border in Germany and in the Netherlands: Two sessions in total will be attended by PE teachers who serve as consultants of PE in their local school districts, another two sessions will be attended by experienced instructors of sport coaches in the regional sport federations. The outcome of these four evaluation meetings with experienced teachers and coaches will lead to revise structure and content of the three modules before a final version of the whole package will be published and disseminated to local schools and sport clubs.

Module 2: Olympic education

In order to give a better insight of the project under construction module 2 will be used as an example. The module on Olympic education is structured in four parts:

- 2.1: Olympic education: Pro and Contra
- 2.2: Historical background of Olympic education in the Netherlands and in Germany
- 2.3: Concepts of Olympic education
- 2.4: Approaches of Olympic education in Sport clubs

Module 2.1: Olympic education: Pro and contra

The starting-point of our second module was the question: What importance do the Olympic games have for Olympic education?

When in 1992 the city of Berlin bided for hosting the Olympic Games 2000, public opinion was split about sense and non-sense of the Olympic Games. And there are still a lot of people who have in mind the Coca-Cola Games in Atlanta 1996 and think of doping, commerce, corruption and media when talking about Olympic Games (cf. Timmers & de Knop, 2000; Willimczik, 2002). As regards these aspects it is understandable that quite a few teachers, coaches,

headmasters and education politicians are sceptical about the term “Olympic” and thus do not want to have something like Olympic education in their schools and sport clubs. But, as is shown in Module 1, the term “Olympic education” does neither refer to the training for participation at Olympic games nor to the knowledge about Olympic games. The fundamental principles of the Olympic Charter basically aim at personal, and especially social and moral values, which are strived for within the framework of an Olympic education.

Obviously, there is a certain tension between the Olympic idea (the fundamental principles) and the reality of the Olympic Games. This ambivalence is seen by Dutch people (cf. Timmers & de Knop, 2000) as well as by German teachers for physical education (cf. Willimczik, 2002). In the Dutch study which was implemented on behalf of the NOC*NSF 3.500 people in the age of 15 - 65 were surveyed. Among other questions they had to give their opinion about the top five of the most important motives why athletes take part in Olympic Games. “Money” and “Improvement of the athlete’s image” were found on 2nd and 4th range. “Giving a good example” and “sound mind in a healthy body” was estimated as 1st respectively 3rd motive (cf. Timmers & de Knop, 2000). A similar ambivalence between the fundamental principles and the reality of the games is seen by German teachers for physical education. Their answers to the question about the aims of Olympic education were “value education”, “fair play”, “communication between peoples”, “respect” and “competition”. Apart from these positive answers about 60% of these teachers referred to the gigantism of the Olympic Games and their distance to the Olympic ideals (cf. Willimczik, 2000).

The criticism on the Olympic Games and their gigantism is one aspect which is often named with view to the term “Olympic”; the distance of the reality of the games between the positive Olympic ideals is another. These ideals have their own pedagogical quality which is at first independent from the contradiction. Thinking of

Pierre de Coubertin and his idea of Olympism we can say: The pedagogical aims were first, the games came later.

To demonstrate this ambivalence and to point out the pedagogical implication of the Olympic movement after Coubertin, for this project we chose a text written by Naul (2002), which briefly shows the different positions.

The second part of module 2 refers to the historical background of Olympic education in Germany and the Netherlands.

Module 2.2: Historical background of Olympic education in the Netherlands and in Germany

In Germany, first signs of an Olympic education at school can be found since the 1980s. The National Olympic Committee for Germany (NOK) started to publish booklets about Olympic education at school in 1988 (see the last brochures 1997, 2000, 2001). Recently, Michael Krüger (2003) pointed out that there is no written context in literature to Olympic education in German sport pedagogy and the sport didactics of the 1970s and 1980s. Discussions about the inclusion, the use of Olympic education in physical education at school began in the 1990s. Ommo Grupe was the one who initially thought about a revival of the pedagogical potential of sports and thus supported the idea of an Olympic education (see below).

In module 2.3 different approaches of Olympic education in Germany are offered.

Module 2.3: Concepts of Olympic education

Generally, the constitutional foundation of Olympic education is the Olympic Charter. The Charter is world-wide the central base for the pedagogic approach of Olympism. But this approach is more dominant in the English-speaking regions of the world (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, USA) (Naul, 2004a) and thus not discussed in this paper.

A second important foundation is often taken into account when tasks and targets of Olympic education are determined: the writings of Pierre de Coubertin and his “*Pedagogie sportive*” (1928). This foundation is most popular in Germany. It was laid down by philosophers, pedagogists and sociologists like Lenk (1964) and Müller (1975) who interpreted the classical writings of Pierre de Coubertin. Carl Diem also promoted Olympic education by analysing and interpreting the role of the games and sport for moral values and social virtues as a means of a contribution to a balanced body and soul (cf. Diem, 1967).

Since the early 1990s, Ommo Grupe has become the most important sport pedagogue who promotes Olympic pedagogy. According to Grupe (1997, 2000, 2001) there are basically five principles of Olympic pedagogy:

1. “the principle of unity of body and soul, aimed at harmonious learning and holistic education;
2. the aim of individual self-fulfilment: “working for sporting ability” and “path to a better self”;
3. the ideal of amateurism as “training of virtue by means of worldly asceticism” with the aim of becoming immune to greed and materialism;
4. the ethical rules and principles of honesty and fairness; and
5. the task of promoting mutual respect between people and nations, with the peacemaking idea of the principles of sporting performance and competition” (cf. Naul, 2004a, p. 25).

Norbert Müller (1998) added a sixth principle:

6. “The promotion of emancipatory developments in and through sport (...) [which include; C. V.] the acceptance of all different forms of physical activities and competitive sport” (p. 393).

With view to Olympic education in Germany there are four major approaches of teaching.

- (1) The most popular approach is a “knowledge-oriented approach” where information about ancient and modern Olympic Games is given.
- (2) The second approach is practical oriented. It is called the “experimental approach” where school Olympic festivals and sport days stood in the foreground.
- (3) The third approach is named the “physical striving approach”. Here the individual development through physical competition with others is seen as most important. This approach is connected to Geßmann (2002) in whose opinion “individual sporting perfection is the basis for the individual through concentrated and systematic exercise and training” (p. 16).
- (4) The fourth approach comes from Canada and is almost unknown in Germany. In this “lifeworld-oriented approach” Olympic education is integrated with learning activities in all aspects of school curricula, including physical education (for more details see Binder, 2000).

Each approach of teaching Olympic education is linked with special Olympic principles and ideals. The lifeworld-oriented approach probably seems to be the most appropriate one for current demands in physical education classes (Naul, 2004a). However, with view to modern Olympic Games and modern society an integrated concept is needed which combines the educational tasks with modern manifestations in society (Naul, 2003).

Naul (2002, 2003, 2004a) developed an integrated concept. This concept is also based on the two foundations mentioned above (“Fundamental Principles” of the Olympic Charter and the “historical-pedagogical foundation” as a revival of the idea of Pierre

de Coubertin), but also integrates a third foundation: current lifestyles and social environment.

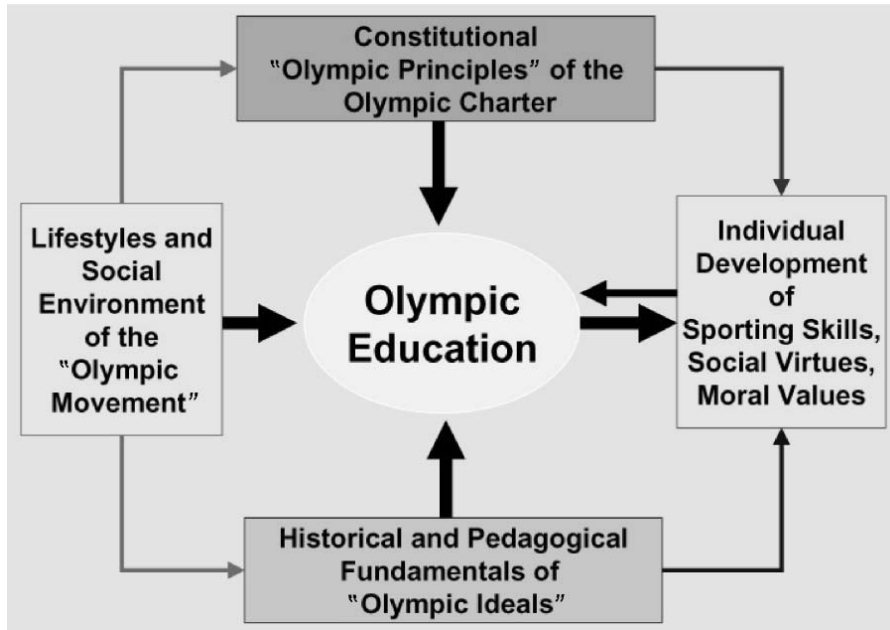


Fig.1: Integrated concept of Olympic education (Naul, 2002)

These three foundations build up the frame defining aims and targets of Olympic education. “The integrated concept of Olympic Education picks up the special educational tasks of the single teaching approaches. The main purpose of the integrated concept is: individual development of sports skills, social virtues and moral values = ‘olympic living’” (Naul, 2004a, p. 28f.).

According to Naul (2004a) the integrated concept of Olympic education “should encourage individual physical performance by means of achieving, improving and competing and should develop positive value judgements from this” (p. 29). In sport activities young

people should experience ethical principles and should gain knowledge about moral aspects for an ethical and moral behaviour in sport.

For our project we decided to start with extracts of texts by Pierre de Coubertin. After this historical introduction Grupe (1997), Naul (2004b) and Geßmann (2002) will give an overview of the foundations and concepts of Olympic education. For additional reading there will be an appendix with texts by Binder (2004) and Müller (2004).

Module 2.4 Approaches of Olympic education for Sport clubs

In Germany and also in the Netherlands there is no real concept for Olympic education at sport clubs yet. The only approach is done by Grabs (2004), but will be changed in course of the project and is thus neglected here. In the Netherlands, on the other hand, there are quite a lot of good examples for practice (e. g. Fair Play and Respect in Soccer). They are practice-oriented examples of how to work in sport clubs and in schools.

Conclusion

The cross-border project of Olympic education in the Netherlands and in Germany has not been finished yet. Not all the materials are done and even the taken texts need some revision. From the present point of view we can say that the works that already exist in the Netherlands are much more practice-oriented, whereas those from Germany deliver a conceptual, theoretical base. Both aspects together give a useful foundation for a successful teacher training as preparation for Olympic education at school and in sport clubs, and we hope for a successful implementation in the future.

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THE OLYMPIC CEREMONIES PROJECT AS A MEANS OF OLYMPIC EDUCATION – A CASE STUDY OF A HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTE¹⁻²

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Introduction

In 1999, following my participation in the 39th Session for Young Participants of the International Olympic Academy, I was taken by the spirit of improving my knowledge regarding Olympic Studies and thus, fostering Olympism through a project of Olympic Education.

Many opportunities came along and since 2000, many studies and projects have been developed with the intention of achieving the goals. The idea to this case study in particular arose from that experience.

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This article aims at presenting one of these ventures as a potential Olympic Education tool. It refers to an initiative called Olympic Ceremonies Project, which has been carried out at the Faculdade Cenecista de Osorio – a graduation college in Osorio - Brasil, since 2001.

The method applied in this case study was chosen so that the college experience in Osorio could be reported and consequently an adequate focus on the Olympic Education concerning teachers' development could be built.

According to Simons (1980) and Stake (1995), the research object in a case study is often a program, an entity, a person, or a group of people. Each object is likely to be intricately connected to political, social, historical, and personal issues, providing wide ranging possibilities for questions and adding complexity to the case study. The researcher investigates the object of the case study in depth using a variety of data gathering methods to produce evidence that leads to understanding of the case and answers the research questions.

Thus far, the research question for the Osorio case is how Olympic Ceremonies help to promote values proposed by Olympism. Behind this interrogation lies the proposition of getting close to Olympism purposes and teachers' development as a means to illuminate the development of Olympic Education at schools and in some other educational organization groups.

Again in reference to Simons (1980) and Stake (1995), after defining the research question, the case study is conducted to evaluate and analyze the data collected and make the final remarks in view of knowledge building needs. Moreover, a theoretical review in the themes concerned to the case study is also productive, especially by comparing the practice reported with related theories.

In order to follow the case study procedures, this review initially approaches current theoretical understanding on **Olympism, Teachers' Development and Olympic Ceremonies**.

The first part addresses Olympism while a system of values as well as an ideological frame that is at service of human being development. I hereby introduce the educational view of Pierre de Coubertin, its modern contextualization and one of the principal means to promote it: **Olympic Education**.

As for the second part, it will approach Teachers' Development. I seek to give emphasis to teachers' role as change-promoting agents and as developers of the new generation's character and spirit. Another concern present in this second part is related to putting into evidence some approximation of this process to Olympism propositions.

In the third part of this work, the definitions and argumentation related to the Olympic Ceremonies' role are presented, mainly from Pierre Coubertin's conception. Following comes the fourth part into which I try to give details of my own practical experience in Olympic Education associated to Teachers' Development. The empirical data presented here are the outcome of the **Olympic Ceremonies Project** that has already been pinpointed above.

Olympism – Olympic Education as a project for human being development

From 1894 on, Baron Pierre de Coubertin sought to highlight sports matters in their sociocultural dimensions as well as means for human being development (Chalip, 1991; Müller, 2004). However, it was the idea he had of renewing the Olympic Games that has developed itself more intensely and has brought in more results worldwide. Thus, all over the world the Olympism, the Olympic Movement and the Olympic Games were born.

The modern Olympic Movement has been seeking to reach its primary goal for more than a century now, i.e., to put sports to the service human beings' harmonious development.

In Pierre de Coubertin: *Olympism Selected Writings* (IOC, 2000), the reader realizes that the term Olympism refers to pedagogical and philosophical dimensions of the so-called Olympic Movement. This idea of Olympism is identified in the Olympic Charter (IOC, 2003, p. 9): “a philosophy of life, exalting and combining the qualities of body, will and mind in a balanced whole”.

In addition to these individual values, Coubertin also identified in the Olympic ideals, a dialectical form of education in the sense of an attempt to decrease social disparity.

According to the Principle number 1 of the Olympic Charter: “[...] Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a lifestyle based on the joy of effort, the educational value of good example and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles” (IOC, 2003, p. 9).

Girginov & Parry (2005) definition of Olympism is:

The Olympism is a complex process which is based on several key principles. Its fundamental principle, in simple value words, see the person as well-rounded, developing and striving. He or she exhibits leadership, ethics and fair play and treats others with dignity, respect and friendship in a community which is at peace and where sport is a right.

Consequently, Olympism also brings along the objective of contributing to the human being development, promoting international understanding and teaching the concept of freedom, thus creating conditions for social coexistence.

Benzerti (2000, p. 459), makes the following comment on the Olympic Charter:

The Olympic philosophy therefore has a deeply educational and pacific content. It seeks to establish warm and international

relations and wants to create world of understanding, cooperation, general joy in life[...] and Olympiads are supposed to represent a strong unifying bond between people, fostering friendships and paving the way to universal peace.

Parry (1998, p. 159) suggests that the status of Olympism as a social, political, and educational ideology necessarily appeals to a philosophical anthropology which he refers to as: “an idealized conception of the human being towards which the ideology strives in its attempted social reproduction of the individual”. He also suggests that the philosophical anthropology of Olympism promotes the ideals of:

- individual all round harmonious human development;
- towards excellence and achievement;
- through effort in competitive sporting activity;
- under conditions of mutual respect, fairness, justice and equality;
- with a view to creating lasting personal human relationships of friendship;
- international relationships of peace, toleration and understanding;
- and cultural alliances with the arts.

Nowadays the Olympic Movement has pursued a coherent universal representation of itself, i.e., a concept of Olympism that identifies a range of values to which each nation can sincerely commit itself (Girginow & Parry, 2005).

It is important to highlight that although the values stated by Coubertin have been present at the “Olympic History” for more than 3000 years, it is necessary to question their meaning today. It is important to be aware of issues related to corruption, doping, children labor, informal economy, commercialism, violence and early professionalization which, among other things, undervalue the modern sports movement.

Parry (1998) points out that the sports movement as a world event, is undergoing a profound crisis, and that it is also changing. Hence the problem consists in avoiding confusion between both dimensions allowing the ideological dimension to veil reality.

There are many political and social difficulties that the Olympism intends to confront, especially through Schools and Colleges. This idea is consonant with the principle number 1 of the Olympic Charter which states that one of the major objectives of Olympism is to educate youth through sports.

However, Olympism, in addition to governmental programmes, also needs that teachers, institutions and people in general act upon them. It follows from this interpretation that sports shall not mean much unless it links Education, Teaching and, surely, the potential learning provided by the sports spectacle to a project of human being development.

Olympic Education is based on this idea, promoting the Olympism via Olympic Movement to reach the goal of an ideal human being.

Thus, the relevance of an Olympic Education still stands in the need of a theory of Olympic pedagogy, if the Olympic conception of the human being (its philosophical anthropology) is accepted. This is a theme also found in Parry & Girginov (2005) when they say that the task of Olympic Education is to see how the values of sports and Olympism can be promoted in practice.

This need referred by the authors above may be understood through the preparation of those who will develop initiatives regarding the aim of promoting Olympism. Therefore, I propose that the process of Teacher Development should play a determining role, especially for the approximation of its objectives with the ones of Olympism.

Teachers' Development – *preparing the Olympism “Promoters”*

Every society undergoes a period of significant and intense transformation when the questioning, especially of the science paradigm, leads us to reconsider the educational system as a whole.

In this context, College Education is seen as an essential component, looking at the new challenges we face.

According to Behrens (1999) the end of the Twentieth Century was characterized by the advent of the knowledge society, of the information revolution, and of the demand for knowledge production.

Right into the Twentieth-first Century it is possible to realize that little or almost nothing has changed in relation to the last century regarding Teachers' Development. Although the technological processes point to radical changes, they are still **timid** in Education.

However, this process of change must be a strong distinction of the society of this century. The university, consequently, has already been questioned regarding its social role and its performance concerning professional education, especially teachers who will be working in this new society.

Many times, a lack of more proximity between what is theoretically proposed and the practical context is evident. The pedagogical processes need to promote relationships between the learner and the produced knowledge in well defined cultural contexts in a systematized way. It is necessary to give meaning to them and, at the same time, provide the most adequate development of their societies, cultures and talents.

In this sense, Rogoff (1993), states that knowledge is not just logical knowledge, thinking demands the meaning of things from human action. The human activity is not only social because the human being relates with other living beings. This statement is taken to a biggest proportion when it is realized that society is not reduced to the total number of individual comprised in it.

It is important to recall Lev Vigotski who based his work on the idea that improvement is inseparable from the social processes which are progressively internalized.

The cultural factor distinguishes itself at the moment we participate of goals which are common to everyone and of instruments which allow us to reach them, as well as when we are almost always united by value systems which are passed on from one another among members of the same generation and/or through generations.

The roles which are played by both, the social and the individual worlds are mutual and inseparable. Human beings participate in social activities along with their contemporaries and they learn from their ancestors.

Mosquera & Stobäus (1984) point out that Education is always somewhat present in the sense of improving human beings' lives. Hence, after the end of a century so marked by turmoil and violence, as well as by economic and scientific progress – the latter unequally divided – it is crucial that we pay attention to the reasons and means of Education.

Today we have been trying to apply concepts of an outdated perception of the world to a reality which cannot be understood through old concepts any longer. The perspective of change in the perception of the world has moved from the mechanistic concept of Descartes and Newton to a holistic and ecological perception, a new perception of reality, a shift in our thinking, realization, and values.

However, more human values such as brotherhood, cooperation, community union and sharing of goods and information still sound strange, outdated or meaningless in this universe characterized by a utilitarian and pragmatic market, as well as with a competitive understanding and behavior.

It is necessary to think about an education which contributes for the comprehensive development of human beings. A holistic education which contributes to the development of a happy citizen

and, consequently, of a society which is more human, where everyone can live with dignity and in harmony.

In order to achieve that, it is urgent and necessary to reconsider, especially, Teachers' Development. Giroux (1997), points out that this process must develop agents of transformation, who have the knowledge and the necessary abilities to break off this limited and fragmented pedagogical practice we follow.

Our society and our teachers need to redefine the values they believe in, the objective for which they work and the type of mankind they want to develop. The idea is that the Teachers' Development is a process which passes through ideological choices according to the type of society we want.

Contextualizing this discussion, I highlight the fact that the Brazilian university has suffered the reflexes of this process from its genesis, and some changes occurred due to economical factors and political circumstances.

From that moment up to now, restructuring plans have been implemented and, at the end of the second millennium, the enforcement of the **Lei de Diretrizes e Bases da Educação Nacional** (a law concerning the basis and guidelines for National Education) established in 1996 profound changes in the structure of the university curriculum.

From that moment on, one can realized that not only the learners will undergo changes, but also the teaching staff will have to be prepared to play the fundamental role of articulator and mediator between the knowledge already elaborated and the knowledge to be produced (Behrens, 1999).

Therefore, the role of a university professor is not only to develop professionals for the market, but also to develop citizens replenished with ethical values who, having technical competence, are active in their social context, committed to the building of a society which is more inclusive.

Before the multiple challenges of the future, Teachers' Development and Education come up as indispensable trumps to humankind regarding the building of peace, freedom and social justice ideals. In these arguments I find the main relationship between the Teachers' Development and the propositions of Olympism for the development of an Olympic Education as presented below.

The Olympic Ceremonies Project – *a proposal for an Olympic Education*

As I have mentioned before, my participation in the 39th Session for Young participants of International Olympic Academy was decisive for the idealization and development of an Olympic Education Project.

How it happened, though?

My first concerns were: How to make a difference? How to develop a project related to the Olympic theme without going towards tournaments, matches and other similar events?

In Brazil this is very difficult, especially because there is a lack of an 'Olympic culture'. It is still more difficult in the academic environment where I work. College institutions are increasingly directing their proposals to the interests of the professional market. However, as it was discussed before, the development of a professional must go beyond it.

Inside this context, and according to very personal characteristics, I directed my ideas to a more cultural and festive side.

Since the Olympic Movement started moving forward from the first edition of the Modern Olympic Games in Athens, Baron of Coubertin strove to have the Games always celebrated with the looks and the essence of a party.

That is probably why Coubertin nourished with special attention and care the Olympic symbols and ceremonies that are present until

today at the Games.

The Olympic symbols and ceremonies seemed to me a strong appeal for the development of an Olympic Education. Currently, billions of people watch the Opening Ceremonies of the Olympic Games. This might be an important 'vehicle' for promoting the Olympic Movement, more than the competition themselves.

The Osorio College Case Study – *theory vs practice*

The ceremonies herein mentioned and which are the object of study of this paper, are characterized by a festive or even funeral solemn gathering of people, as an occasion of a happening or solemnity. According to Durántez (1975), ceremony is understood as the set of regulated and solemn actions which accompany human activities of great transcendence.

This meaning of ceremony distinguishes the Olympic Games in both, its opening and its closing. These rituals illustrate the Olympic values, one of the elements which make the Games an outstanding sports celebration.

I presume that the Olympic Games distinguish themselves from other competitions due to its millenary cultural background of ceremonies and rituals. Both celebrations, of sports and culture, are a showcase for world peace and make the ceremony a ritual in the universal sense which symbolizes the integration of body and mind.

Segrave (1988) discloses that Coubertin believed that the get together of artists and writers in Olympia did not happen by chance, and he sought to instill the Olympic Games with the same balance, the same *eurythmia* (just proportion) between body and mind. This suggestion is also shared by DaCosta (2002) in his study on the Olympic eurhythmics in which Coubertin is revealed by the continuing search of a balanced whole for sport practices.

It is my interpretation that Coubertin did not innovate, but adapted; he did not theorize, but applied. Olympism for him must have been a sports, cultural and educational movement.

Amongst these features I highlight the expressions cultural and educational as the ones which best justify the creation of the project which I describe herein.

Starting in 2001, the “Olympic Ceremonies Project” is based on sociocultural manifestations which are part of the Olympic Games History and Olympism.

As part of the official calendar of the College of Osório, the events of the project have been taking place for three years each semester with the direct organization of students of the Recreation and Leisure Studies of the 3rd semester of the Physical Education Course.

At first, the idea was to develop the project only for Physical Education students. However, the increasing curiosity and interest of the academic community about the events which took place, opened room for the development of an interdisciplinary proposal. The growth of the events was inevitable. Professors and students from other courses were integrated to the project.

The theme of the Olympic Games is developed through a representation of the Games history (Ancient and Modern Ages), Myths and Greek heroes, as well as the Olympic ideals.

Other aspects which were highlighted in the events which comprise the project are the global historical context and the culture of the countries which organize the several editions of the Games.

Based on the propositions of Godoy (2002), the programme of each event seeks to fulfill the following objectives:

- Providing knowledge around the following themes:
 - a) History and tradition;
 - b) Symbols and Ceremonies;

- c) Olympic Sports;
- d) Olympic Athletes;
- e) Heroes and Olympic Myths.
- Stimulating reflexion about the attitudes and values related to the Olympic Education, which are presented around the following themes:
 - a) Cultural Identity;
 - b) Cooperation and Self-Fulfillment;
 - c) Moral discernment and Fair Play;
 - d) Motivation for the practice of physical activities.

During the preparation and arrangement of each event discussions, production and application of knowledge regarding the elements mentioned above are stimulated. The practice of the events organization allow the participants of the project with the possibility of living and internalizing the values extolled by Olympism.

I point out the main outcomes of the 7 editions of the “Olympic Ceremonies Project”:

- Participation of students and professors of the Physical Education, Languages, History, Pedagogy, Mathematics, and Geography Courses.
- Estimated number of actors and extras (professors and students): 500 people;
- Estimated audience: 4.000 people;
- The Project is totally financed by College of Osório (the 3 first editions were financed by students and the community in general);
- Official recognition for the commitment to promoting and producing academic works on Olympism (Olympic Studies Centre and Olympic Museum, 2002);
- Official recognition for the organization of events on Olympic Ceremonies (City Council, 2003).

Despite all positive outcomes mentioned above, it is necessary to point out that there are still limitations regarding the broadening and deepening of discussions about Olympism. In this case, I believe that the ideal would be to include in the Physical Education curriculum, a course on Olympic Studies.

Final Remarks

As it is possible to conclude, the Olympic philosophy should be based not only on an excellent sports programming, but over all, on the use of sports as a factor of improvement of the human being and their culture. This philosophical approach, according to DaCosta (2002), may be understood as a process not as a set of conceptions.

The Olympic Education Proposal presented herein stems from the inclusion of issues containing historical and cultural questions related to the Olympic Ceremonies in under graduate courses, as depicted by the case reported and analyzed.

However, it is essential that parallel to the proposed activities, a scientific and cultural environment may also emerge bringing major reflexes to education and the promotion of the Olympic philosophy as a process and a practice as well.

In this sense, the participation of several and diverse courses seems to contribute to the approach of different aspects of the Olympic Movement, allowing the organization of an interdisciplinary educational project.

Thus, the Development of Teachers is strategic for the development of the Olympic Education through its cultural, historical, and pedagogical live experiences, making it possible as a significant contribution for the Human Beings' Development.

The description of the Osorio case otherwise demonstrated that the celebration of Olympic festivities seems to be a potentially enriching

alternative for the development of learning and development of future professionals of the Physical Education area. Therefore, it is intended the creation of conditions for those future professionals to awake in people (future students), attitudes and values praised by Olympism, adjusted to everyone's reality, stimulating the practice of citizenship in every social life level.

As a conclusion to this paper it may be proposed that Olympic Education in Higher Education should continue to promote the main goals of Olympism, as well as emphasizing the need for teachers:

- To promote the development of the values and moral qualities;
- To educate youth for a better world.

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WILLI DAUME, THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND THE JOINT GERMAN OLYMPIC TEAM

Mr Jan C. RODE (GER)

Introduction

Willi Daume alongside Carl Diem can be considered as one of the biggest Olympians and advocates for the Olympic Idea in Germany. Daume himself was the most important sport official in the second part of the 20th century, which is well documented by his numerous and diversified activities. In addition to his presidency of the German Sport Alliance (GSA) between 1950 and 1970 Daume also chaired the National Olympic Committee (NOC, 1961 to 1991) and headed several commissions of the International Olympic Committee (IOC). Moreover he became the first German vice-president of the IOC from 1972 to 1976 and sprung to public mind as the organiser of the 1972 Olympic Games in Munich, Germany.

This paper will briefly describe the determinants of the German Olympic history. It is not intended to re-tell the inter-german olympic history with new primary sources, but to focus the attention on the construction of Daume's impact and motifs during this time period. Daume early made his mark in the NOC and established himself as a competent negotiator towards the Federal Government. The second part of this essay will show which constraints Daume's actions were exposed to. According to his sport-ethic appreciation everyone was allowed to take part on the international sporting level, including

the Eastern bloc and the other German state, the German Democratic Republic (GDR). On the other hand Daume recognized himself and the sporting organisations as loyal to the state. The government's official policy of anti-communism and the alleged sole claim for the exclusive representation of Germany on the international level made it necessary for Daume to manoeuvre between loyalty and ethos. Daume's mindset was furthermore under compulsion by the public opinion and the IOC's president Avery Brundage, who celebrated the joint Olympic team as a victory of sport over politics. In this threefold area of conflict Daume not only had to develop his arguments, but he also had to allegorize and to realise them. The third part of this essay tries to reveal whether the German question helped him or not to promote his status in the IOC. In this context it is important to ask if Daume was considered as an early advocate for *Ostpolitik* or as a Cold Warrior.

German Aspects in the Olympic sport

The German Olympic movement quickly became important in post-war Germany. The just elected government tried to come to terms on the international level, for instance by using and exploiting personal relations of IOC member Karl Ritter von Halt to other Olympic functionaries. On the other hand, the sport officials used their international and domestic contacts to shake off lasting strains of the Third Reich and to enhance their position and legitimacy in West Germany.¹ The founding act of the NOC on September, 24th 1949 in Bonn gives a good example: The magazine *Rasensport*² wrote that the sport festivities to be held in Bonn are predominantly used for the manifestation of the new government, but that the foundation

¹ Tobias Blasius: *Olympische Bewegung, Kalter Krieg und Deutschlandpolitik 1949-1972*. Frankfurt / M. u.a. 2001. 313.

² I.e. *Lawn Sport*

of the NOC can be seen as the real highlight of celebrations.¹ Daume himself stressed the political luminance of the foundation: For him it was part of the very creation of the FRG and he assumed that the sportive representation of the new state on an international level would come in handy for the government.²

But the establishment of an East German NOC on April, 22nd 1950 directly challenged West Germany's claim of sole representation for the entire country, even in the area of sport. During the 45th IOC-Session in Vienna in May 1951 both NOCs claimed for approval, but only the excellent personal relations of the West Germans towards the IOC executive board helped them to gain exclusive recognition.³ East Germany's demand was dismissed and the IOC explained, that only one NOC per country could be accepted. But a year before the IOC already had accepted the NOC of the Saarland.⁴ The acknowledgement of the East German NOC would then have been more than just logical. Anyhow, the IOC ordered both NOCs to come to terms over taking part in the next Olympic Games. Daume was now involved in every upcoming negotiation with the East Germans.⁵ On May, 22nd 1951 both parties agreed in Lausanne to establish a joint team under the guidance of West Germany. But several months later the GDR

¹ Der Rasensport: „Bonn – Manifestation des Sportgedankens. NOK wird gegründet“ (19.9.49), in: DHB-Archive, 4.9.

² Interview Franz Nitsch – Willi Daume (o.J.) Stadtsportbund Dortmund. 69.

³ Winfried Joch: Kontinuität und Wandel, Elend und Würde – Karl Ritter von Halt (1891 bis 1964), in: Andreas Luh / Edgar Beckers (Hg.): Umbruch und Kontinuitäten im Sport – Reflexionen im Umfeld der Sportgeschichte. Festschrift für Horst Ueberhorst. Bochum 1991. 442-456. here: 449.

⁴ Part of Germany under French administration.

⁵ See also: Minutes of the meeting of GSA and NOC on May, 27th 1951 in Bad Cannstatt, in: Private Archive Pabst.

officials withdrew their signature and gave in to the political pressure from above.¹

The western sport representatives managed to defend their advantage thanks to personal friendships and delaying strategies until the disunion of the joint team during the IOC session in October 1965 in Madrid. The IOC decisions of Vienna and Lausanne were the main criteria for years in the German question.² Since 1955 the GDR was tied to the status of a temporary member. Already in 1962 Daume wrote to FRG's foreign minister Schröder, that the GDR had the right to full recognition in the IOC. Only "*several stunts, delaying tactics and other things helped us to prevent the GDR from enhancing their prestige.*"³

Daume's olympic career began in 1956, when he succeeded Duke Adolf Friedrich of Mecklenburg as IOC member. NOC president von Halt favoured Daume for the succession at first, but after talking to State Secretary Hallstein, Halt decided to support Prince George of Hanover. Hallstein had hinted at Halt, that the prince's reputation in the IOC would be bigger than Daume's and that this could mean, "*perhaps evoking give-and-take for the more important political questions.*"⁴ Halt's attitude may have been of a tactical nature, because previously in 1953

1 Karlheinz Gieseler: Vom Klassenkampf zum Freundschaftsspiel – Ein Essay als deutsch-deutsche Bilanz, in: Andreas Luh / Edgar Beckers (Hg.): Umbruch und Kontinuitäten im Sport – Reflexionen im Umfeld der Sportgeschichte. Festschrift für Horst Ueberhorst. Bochum 1991. 458-469. here: 464.

2 Ulrich Pabst: Sport – Medium der Politik? Der Neuaufbau des Sports in Deutschland nach dem 2. Weltkrieg und die innerdeutschen Sportbeziehungen bis 1961. Berlin 1980. 185.

³ Author's translation. Willi Daume to Foreign Minister Schröder (February, 19th 1962), in: Private Archive Pabst.

⁴ Author's translation. Record about the conference on January, 17th 1956 in the Foreign Office concerning the compilation of a joint Olympic team (Müller-Horn), in: PA AA Referat 604 / Band 633.

he had praised Daume's manners and foreign language competences in a letter to Brundage.¹ On the other hand, Hallstein's argument reveals that good governmental relations towards the IOC were considered as opportune and helpful to enhance West Germany's regard in the international arena. Nevertheless, von Halt still backed Daume, who was later appointed.²

Daume's ethical thoughts on sport

It is not easy to outline Daume's ethic thoughts on sport. However, several constants can be detected. It was very important for him to construct sport as free from political influences³, on the other hand he described sport as loyal to the state.⁴ Moreover, Daume intended to win over intellectuals and artists⁵ and he wanted to frame a mental brisk sport.⁶ Beyond these thoughts Daume sought to guide the sporting organisations back into the mainstream of society by coordinating sport's concerns with other groups and institutions.

¹ Arnd Krüger: Deutschland und die oly Bewegung (1945-1980), in: Horst Ueberhorst: Geschichte der Leibesübungen 3/2. Berlin u.a. 1981. Footnote 113.

² Tobias Blasius: Olympische Bewegung, Kalter Krieg und Deutschlandpolitik 1949-1972. Frankfurt / M. u.a. 2001. 162.

³ See also: WD to the members of the NOC (October, 15th 1962), in: Private Archive Pabst.

⁴ Minutes about the joint session of GSA and NOC on May 27th, 1951 in Bad Cannstatt, in: Private Archive Pabst. 7.

⁵ The Spanish philosopher Ortega y Gasset was the keynote speaker on the annual GSA assembly in 1955.

⁶ For instance by staging international scientific congresses on sport. See also: Willi Daume: Vorwort und Begrüßung, in: DSB (Hg.): Internationaler Sportkongress Stuttgart 1951. (Bd.2 der Schriftenreihe des DSB). Frankfurt / M 1952. 3. Interview mit Willi Daume (December, 1st 1993).

Daume and his colleagues had difficulties in dealing with the second German state on an Olympic and a national level. For him it was beyond any discussion that everybody had the right to take part in international sport: *“Although we remember the abusing of sport for political reasons from our own experiences during the Nazi time we anyhow consider free and sportive connections to all nations all over the world, including the Eastern bloc, as an indispensable demand.”*¹ Considering the GDR, this meant to promote local connections between clubs as well as the joint Olympic team: *“If we really do want to have the reunification we need as many meetings with our brothers and sisters as possible. The inter-German sport is the most eminent tool for such meetings.”*² On the other hand Daume was well aware, that the eastern officials often had no interest in agreements and therefore tried to impose their communist ideology on sport at all costs. The western sport was literally stuck in a difficult situation. Socialising with the East Germans was important but there was the risk of political violation or exertion of influence by the political well-trained eastern officials.³

Daume was no fantasist that deliberately faded out reality. Already in 1954 he described the Olympic Spirit as an ideal that finds itself in conflict with reality.⁴

Towards the end of his career he became more precise and stated that he was aware of the limits of the Olympic Spirit throughout.⁵

1 Author's translation. President's record on the annual GSA assembly 1958 in Hamburg. 1-15. Offprint.10.

2 Author's translation. Willi Daume: Der gesamtdeutsche Sportverkehr, in: DSB-Archiv, 04/01/04. O.J. (1957). 1.

3 See also: Transcript on the 18th session of the GSA chair on September, 18th to 19th 1954 in Dortmund, in: DSB-Archiv, 4.2.1, File Folder 319. 8.

4 Willi Daume: Auf dem Wege zur olympischen Wirklichkeit. Report on the 2nd meeting of the German Olympic Society on October 2nd, 1954. 11.

5 Interview with Willi Daume (December, 1st 1993.) 9.

Daume came to a prudish conclusion on his efforts in the Cold War: *“The optics of sport was the one that was possible back then. Not more or less.”*¹

Daume had the ability to see the two sides of a story and to live on with the resulting contradictions. Not for nothing contemporaries described him as a talented tactician who could use flowers’ or a club to carry out conflicts.² According to my personal evaluation Daume is an almost die-hard “optimistic realist”. He knew that most of the Olympic problems were unsolvable. Nevertheless, he referred to the Olympic Spirit as a model in dealing with conflicts, even if these could not be solved. Daume followed Erich Fromm when he considered the path as the actual goal of achievement.³

Between Autonomy and Conformation – Sport and Politics

After the more or less sketchy thoughts in the previous chapter the motifs of the government in their behaviour towards the sport officials are now tried to be clarified by giving several examples. This procedure will also help to make clear which opportunities accrued for Daume and his fellows.

Chancellor Adenauer’s politics of reunification and integration into the western political system are still controversially discussed today. Critics claim that Adenauer was a firm opponent of the reunification and therefore promoted the western integration. Others think that

¹ NOK (Hrsg.): A documentation of the NOC’s general assembly on December, 12th 1992 in Stuttgart. Speech of the retiring president Prof. Dr. h.c. Willi Daume. o.O. u. o.J. 7-15. 9.

² Hans-Herbert Schoedel: “Willi Daume”, in: *Olympisches Feuer* (No. 6, 1959). 16-18. 17.

³ Ommo Grupe: Willi Daume: Olympische Überzeugungen – der Sport, die Spiele, in: BISP / DOI (Hg.): Willi Daume. *Olympische Dimensionen*. Bonn 2004. 25-37. 30ff.

only Adenauer's severe stance in dismissing all East German offers helped to gain reunification at last in 1989.¹ Further accounts are more precise and state that Adenauer wanted to achieve reunification by a policy of strength. When the contest between the two German states became more obvious Adenauer's willingness to reverse the western integration dropped.² The West still feared Communism and therefore could not imagine parity or neutral solutions for the German Question. As a result, the claim for reunification lost intensity during the 1950s in the West and degenerated into an element of political oratory.³

Because of his olympic ties the west german sport soon had to arrange negotiations with the East and thereby western politicians considered sport as subversive and suspicious. Foreign minister Heinrich von Brentano took a firm position in the view of the possibility of the recognition of the GDR via negotiations between sport officials or the presentation of the east german flag at sport events. Brentano wrote on November, 6th 1959 to the Home Secretary: *"There exists a severe threat towards our policy of not recognizing the GDR. This policy will loose its power of persuasion if the ban on showing the east german flag will be washed out by exceptions which will stand out in public."*⁴

During a meeting on January 6th, 1956 in the Foreign Office Daume had to deal with the lack of understanding of three State Secretaries. Hallstein almost upset announced that the IOC's decision to acclaim the GDR as a provisory member in 1955 must be reversed, because

¹ Edgar Wolfrum: Die Geschichte der Bundesrepublik Deutschland anhand von Biographien, in: Zeitschrift für Geschichtswissenschaft 46 (1998), 40-54. 48.

² Dominik Geppert: Die Ära Adenauer. Darmstadt 2002. 37.

³ Christoph Kleßmann: Die doppelte Staatsgründung. Deutsche Geschichte 1945-1955. Bonn 1982. 299.

⁴ Author's translation. Foreign Minister von Brentano to Home Secretary Schröder on November, 6th 1959, in: PA AA 700/Nr.82.

two German states in the sphere of sport were not acceptable to him. The politicians did not want to accept the agreement between the two NOCs to play the anthem of the winning athlete's origin during the next Games, too. Daume replied that the decision was made on behalf of IOC president Brundage. To calm the politicians further down he explained that no east german victory was expected during the 1956 Winter Games. But both Hallstein and Bleek pointed out, that neither the government nor the Foreign Ministry would be satisfied with this arrangement. Bleek became even more explicit: *"The government could be forced to withdraw the financial support to prevent from being identified with the unsustainable decisions made by the IOC and the two NOCs."* Minister Brentano supported Bleek's declaration *"with special emphasis."* Daume acted very diplomatic and showed comprehension for his counterparts, but countered the political threat: Not taking part in the Olympic Games would mean a propaganda victory for the GDR and can therefore not be discussed.¹

Even more discussions were evoked by the question about the flag for the joint Olympic team. The GDR had introduced its very own flag on October 1st 1959. At the end of October the West German cabinet decided to take actions against the flag only by police, which was equipollent in not outlawing the banner.² But soon sport slid into the focus of the politicians. Sport was considered as one of the big exceptions from the October agreement in the cabinet. In November 1959 officials from both NOCs had agreed on a new, neutral flag for the joint team.³ The current flag in black-red-gold should be

¹ Author's translation. Memorandum on a conference in the Foreign Office concerning the assembly of a joint team for the Winter Games 1956 (January, 6th 1956) (Müller-Horn), in: PA AA Referat 604 / Band 633.

² Hartmut Weber (Hg.): Die Kabinettsprotokolle der Bundesregierung Band 12 (1959). Bearbeitet von Josef Henke und Uta Rössel. München 2002. 354ff.

³ FAZ: "Nur teilweise Einigung bei Ost-West-Sportgespräch" (November, 20th 1959), in: PA AA 700/Nr.83.

enhanced by the five Olympic rings. The GDR intended to affront the West German government and wanted to force open their primacy on the level of sport. On November 25th 1959 Daume and Halt were ordered to explain their decisions to Chancellor Adenauer. Adenauer clarified his dismissal of a joint team and announced its end. Unfortunately, Daume's warnings against a deliberate self-isolation of the West German sport went off unheard¹, because the government started pondering several thoughts on how to prevent the neutral flag.² But on December, 6th 1959 the German sport Associations decided to accept the IOC's demand for the neutral flag despite the political pressure: *"Companionship is an indispensable element of sport. The West German sport seeks fellowship to all the people of the world, especially to the gymnasts and athletes in the Eastern part of Germany. It is equivalent to the autonomy of the West German sport to put ahead the spirit of the joint team after careful considerations."*³ In the logic of Daume this meant to opt for the lesser evil.⁴

Both government and Foreign Office still did not appreciate Daume's decision, but astonishingly did not want to take actions against the decision in public, how internal records reveal.⁵ In February 1961 all ministries concerned with questions regarding East Germany held a meeting and announced *"the government does not approve West*

¹ Hartmut Weber (Hg.): Die Kabinettsprotokolle der Bundesregierung Band 12 (1959). Bearbeitet von Josef Henke und Uta Rössel. München 2002. 396.

² Chronicle on the application of the Olympic Rings to the flag of the FRG (November, 27th 1959) (Dr. Raab), in: PA AA 700/Nr.82.

³ Author's translation. Resolution of the German Sport Associations (December, 6th 1959), in: Private Archive Pabst.

⁴ Abstract of a speech held by the GSA president Willi Daume concerning the flag on the occasion of the NOC annual meeting on December, 6th 1959 in Hanover, in: Spiegel-Archive. 10.

⁵ Chronicle on the session on January, 12th 1960, of the Foreign Board of the Bundesrat (Dr. Raab on January, 14th 1960), in: PA AA 700/Nr.83.

German teams to take part in sport competitions while showing the East German flag. This position was repeatedly explained to the GSA. Indeed, the government has no possibilities in forcing the GSA to fulfil the government's demands."¹ The discussion surrounding the flag showed that Daume and other officials actually had a certain scope and that they could develop self-contained positions, which were accepted.

But Daume acted entirely differently during the procedures hedging the Ice Hockey World Championships 1961 in Switzerland. Foreign Minister Brentano repeatedly challenged the participation of West German teams when the GDR flag was about to be shown abroad. In an interlocution on March, 8th 1961 Daume tried to leave all opportunities open and surprisingly agreed with Brentano. But Daume added ancillary that West German teams simply will loose sight of the GDR flag abroad. He also asked for more political support in a question he deemed as highly political.²

The situation got more confusing when the West German team did not compete with the GDR. A few days later GSA secretary general, Guido von Mengden, noticed strikingly: *"The latest news: Daume meets Brentano – Daume and Brentano are of one opinion – Daume travels to Geneva to solve problems – gives in public the impression that politics and sport worked hand in hand."*³ Later Daume had to defend himself against claims that he personally ordered the team to leave the scene. He excused the decision of the West German Ice Skating Association with hinting that sport cannot be exerted in a vacuum,

¹ Short Minutes on a session of all units in the Foreign Office concerned with East Germany on February, 28th 1961, in: PA AA Referat 700 / Band 87.

² Accounting records on an interlocution between Foreign Minister von Brentano and Willi Daume on March, 8th 1961 (Duckwitz), in: PA AA 700/ Nr.82.

³ Guido von Mengden in a letter to Willi Daume on March, 14th 1961, in: Private Archive Pabst.

but has to follow certain civic demands. Paying tribute to the East German flag simply was not possible.¹

Daume's resignation became evident in 1963: "*Sport has nothing to do with politics, but politics have gripped sport firmly by the collar.*"² In conclusion it is important to notice that the West German sport leadership among Daume intensely consulted the government prior to every decision of importance.

The president's favourite toy – The joint Olympic team and the IOC's interest

In addition to the government the IOC and its president Brundage also exerted influence on Daume in the German question. The team application went through as Brundage's work, and he willingly took the public's praise.

Daume and others soon hurried to fulfil their old friend's wishes. Their behaviour also helped to disintegrate anti-German feelings and left the door open for the looked-for participation in the 1952 games in Helsinki. On the other hand, the western government who resented inter-German commonness on all levels critically eyed sport. But Daume managed to leave open his possibilities. "*We aspire to establish a common committee in the future. But we are not ready to tell when the premises are right to do so. But we should make an effort to fulfil the IOC's wish, which is in principle also our own.*"³ Even as early as 1951 the West German sport showed a distinct solidary attitude towards the IOC.

¹ Minutes on the meeting of the central associations on June, 3rd 1961 in Garmisch-Partenkirchen, in: Private Archive Pabst. 3.

² Willi Daume: Sport und Politik. Extracts of a paper held by Willi Daume on March, 27th 1963 in front of sport journalists, in: DSB-Archive 04/01/07. 8.

³ Author's translation. Protokoll über die gemeinsame Vollsitzung des DSB und NOK am 27.5.51 im Kursaal zu Bad Cannstatt, in: Private Archive Pabst.7.

This meant in practice that Daume tried to create the impression among the politicians that he very much wanted to act differently if he could only do so. Sport did show certain sympathy for the political circumstances, but was not prepared to abandon the Olympic Games due to political reasons. Daume outlined possible reactions: *“That would evoke the direct opposite. Our foreign friends would not understand such behaviour.”* But if the government had its own reasons to ask the sport to act in a certain way legal foundations have to be laid first. Sport could not and would not act in opposition to the state, but was simply not in a position to solve problems of political origin according to Daume.¹

Against his own expectations Daume seemed to stick to the joint team, even if the team was only joint in theory, but not in practice. In 1961 Daume still spoke out in public for the team: *“There is no alternative to the joint team on the Olympic level.”*² Daume’s behaviour only raised critics, even among his closest co-workers³, but he still adulated IOC-Chancellor Otto Mayer and president Brundage: In sticking to the joint team the West NOC *“shows a high degree of regard for the Olympic Idea.”*⁴

¹ Author’s translation. Willi Daume in a letter to Peco Bauwens, Willi Weyer, Walter Wülfing (21.2.63), in: Private Archive Pabst.

² Author’s translation. Protokoll über die Tagung der Spitzenverbände am 3.6.61, 14 Uhr im Rathausaal von Garmisch-Partenkirchen, in: Private Archive Pabst.

³ Guido von Mengden in a letter to Willi Daume (19.4.62), in: Private Archive Pabst.

⁴ Author’s translation. Willi Daume in a letter to IOC president Brundage (Chicago) and IOC chancellor Otto Mayer (Lausanne) (May, 16th 1962) in: sid Zeitungsschausschnittsammlung WD 1. 3.

Cold Warrior or early exponent of Ostpolitik?

Daume intended not to offend his negotiating partners in politics or IOC, but envy guarded his autonomy. The few examples already lead to the impression, that Daume only then made a decision when he could no longer elude. His personal scope shifted between not abusing IOC rules and showing loyalty towards the state that was also sport's main financier.

The German Question almost certainly limited Daume's career perspectives in the IOC. Although Daume tried the best to fulfil the marked out demands he failed in 1965, when the team was dissolved. But with a "return to normality" on the international stage the former athlete and now art lover Daume devoted his time to things which might have brought more joy to him than negotiating with professional politicians for hours: Organising the 1972 Games, fighting against doping or promoting the fair-play thought. In succession Daume became vice-president of the IOC (1972-1976) and stood a good chance to fill in the top position himself later.

Daume always then appeared as a "Cold Warrior" when East German political tactics or personal denigration became predominant. Communist ideology was a constant annoyance to him, which he fought energetically.¹ Therewith Daume stood on the general political line of the government and also found himself in the trend of the general social development. But Daume's anti-communist attitude determined his behaviour only to a certain extend: During a radio

¹ See: BPA-Bulletin: "Lügen der politischen Sportführung der Zone. Der Präsi des DSB zum gesamtdeutschen Sportverkehr" (October, 17th 1959, Nr. 193, S.1961-1962), in: Public Relation Office of the Government – Personendokumentation Daume (BPA-DOK), March, 21st 1953 to July, 23rd 1980.

interview Daume in 1961 pondered the possibility of a Rapacki plan¹ in sport. Daume was well aware that the popularity of such a plan would be limited especially in politics. But he was always disposed to talk to the East Germans if certain rules were taken into account and if political tactics did not abuse the talks. *"We cannot attack the political powers who fight for freedom and reunification from behind."*²

Asked if he considered himself as a forerunner for Chancellor Brandt's Ostpolitik Daume answered that sport was not politics' forerunner, *"but sport was an example which was considered by the politicians."*³ But there is no denying the fact that both sport and Daume exerted the function of a catalyst, notably in dealing with the minutes.

So Daume was neither a "Cold Warrior" nor an exponent of Ostpolitik. At this stage I would like to come back to the concept of Daume as an "optimistic realist". Daume speaks out best for himself to clarify his motives: *"I clung to the joint team, because I thought it would be a stimulus to aspire reunification one day. We managed to keep the team for 20 years and faced numerous difficulties. But you do not abandon your position that easily if you do not want to feel as a loser in the end."*⁴

¹ The Rapacki plan was issued by the Polish Foreign Minister Adam Rapacki. Rapacki proposed on October, 2nd 1957 nuclear arms abolition in Germany, Poland and Czechoslovakia. The western powers refused the offer.

² Author's translation. Willi Daume, president of GSA and NOC (RIAS II, May, 28th 1961 /1200hrs/He/frö/s), in: Public Relation Office of the Government – Personendokumentation Daume (BPA-DOK), March, 21st 1953 to July, 23rd 1980

³ Journalised and revised version of the second and third interview session with Willi Daume on April, 22nd 1994.

⁴ Author's translation. Interview with Prof. Dr. Willi Daume (March, 10th to 11th 1994) for the research project Willi Daume and the Olympic Games 1972 in Munich. 5.

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THE IDEA OF SPORTS AS A MEANS IN DEVELOPMENT AID: OLYMPIC PERSPECTIVES

Ms Solveig STRAUME (NOR)

For several years, sport has been used and considered to be an important vehicle in development aid work. In this paper I will, as the title indicates, give an account of the idea of using sports as a means in development aid, present the Olympic Movements development aid programmes, and eventually discuss how this type of aid can be understood and defended.

I think it's important to stress what I consider to be the difference between sports-development aid and sports as a means in development aid. Sports-development aid's goal is the development and diffusion of sports itself, whereas sports as a means in development aid is the role sport plays in development of a society as a whole. However, in several incidents we will see that these perspectives are highly related and can occur simultaneously.

Using Sport in Development Aid Work

Sport development aid has been recognised in several international mediums, and there is a general agreement, as UN general secretary, Kofi Annan said, addressed to the leaders at the round table in Salt Lake City in 2002:

“Sport can play an important role in improving the lives of individuals, not only individuals, I might add, but whole

communities. I am convinced that the time is right to build on that understanding, to encourage governments, development agencies and communities to think how sport can be included more systematically in the plans to help children, particularly those living in the midst of poverty, disease and conflict.”¹

There are several models shown throughout history that have been the foundation for using sports as a vehicle in development aid work. Different periods have their characteristic way of development, also when it comes to sport. I will give attention to three models that I consider to be central, and intend to show that political-ideological-, elite-focused- and ‘sport for all’ models have all been used.

Even though these various development programs models are related to each other and can occur simultaneously, I still choose to speak of them separately, as they all have their own distinctive character.

Political-ideological models

One of the first initiatives we can read about, and probably the most explicit example regarding sports development aid for political-ideological reasons, is the aid given from the Soviet Union to their neighbouring states between the wars, and particularly after the Second World War. Originally this contact came as a result of the Soviet Union being the sole communist state in the world, and had a desire to expand their borders and their ideology.² In a time of Cold

¹ UNICEF, (2004) *Sport, Recreation and Play*, Adobe Acrobat Document found on the internet at http://www.unicef.org.uk/publications/pdf/5571_SPORT_EN.pdf, [downloaded, 03 May 2005, at 6.30pm].

² Riordan, J., (1991) *Sport, politics and communism*, Manchester university press, Manchester and New York.

War and a division of the East and West, it was highly important for the Soviet Union to keep a good relationship to, and co-operate with the countries where this was possible. Sport was used in this co-operation since it obviously was considered 'apolitical'. *"It is an immense social force helping to establish and promote international contacts between national sports associations of countries with different political systems."*¹ But the Soviet Union was well aware that sports were highly relevant in the spread of their political ideology, and their neighbouring states that eventually became communist, was just another piece in a political game.

As the imperial powers withdrew from their colonies in Africa in the 1960's, the Soviet eyes looked their way. The aim was to spread *"the political and economic influence of the Soviet Union in a manner consonant with its role as a world power, to diminish or eliminate Western control and influence, and to promote the strategic-military and political goals of the USSR"*.² To achieve these goals goodwill and admiration of Soviet' broad successes had to be accomplished by the African states and statesmen. It was in this context *"that the USSR's sports relations with Africa have their importance for the Soviet state."*³

Elite-focused models

The Soviet Union sports aid to the development countries helped the sporting elites in particularly. Talented athletes were sent abroad to train and were followed up by the best coaches at the best facilities.

¹ Ibid., p. 132.

² Hazan. B.A., (1987) Sport as an Instrument of Political Expansion: The Soviet Union in Africa, in: Baker, W.J., Mangan, J.A., (ed.) (1987) *Sport in Africa, Essays in Social History*, Africana publishing company, New York – London, p. 253.

³ Ibid., p. 253.

*"This sport assistance takes the form of sending coaches and instructors abroad, building sports amenities, training foreign sports administrators, arranging tours and displays by communist athletes, and holding sports friendships weeks that often have an unabashedly political character."*¹

As from the Soviet Union, there are several other examples of countries giving aid to the development countries through elite coaching. West-Germany, USA, Sweden and Great Britain are all countries that supported other countries in developing their athletes, also after the independence of Africa.²

'Sport for all' models

The idea of 'sport for all' originated in the Council of Europe as early as 1966. As one of its long term objectives, physical activity should be added to the agenda as a means to deal with the frequent occurrence of diseases caused by lack of movement due to urbanisation, industrialisation, automation and the like. What distinguished this approach from the traditional one towards sport was the word "for all". 'Sport for all' was concerned with the role of sports in society, and to the Council of Europe, this meant that sports should be available to as many people as possible.³

¹ Riordan, J., (1991), p. 133.

² Baker, W.J, (1987) Political games: The Meaning of International Sport for Independent Africa, in: Baker, W.J., Mangan, J.A., (ed.) (1987) *Sport in Africa, Essays in Social History*, Africana publishing company, New York – London, p. 274.

³ Committee for Out-of School Education and Cultural Development (1971) *European Co-operation for the development of Sport For All*, Planning the Future, Council of Europe.

The Council of Europe listed different types of sports participation that should all be integrated in the 'sport for all' concept. These types consisted of: top level sports for elite sportsmen (representational level), participation in organised sports on a regular basis (club level), recreational sport for personal pleasure and health sport mainly for medical reasons or for fitness purposes.¹ *"The idea of sport for all is socio-cultural oriented, and its existence and development depends upon the economical, cultural and social development as well as the political and educational systems of a particular society."*²

'Sport for all' programs have recently been established to a high extent. The aim is to reach out to as many people as possible, and wrapped in the sports-package there is a focus on health, education, democracy and work amongst disadvantaged groups like children, women and disabled.³

The Olympic Movement in Development Aid Work

The Olympic Movements' first initiative to sports development aid came as early as 1923. Pierre de Coubertin decided to try to promote modern competitive sports in the developing countries by creating an "African Games". Together with Angelo Bolanaki, an Egyptian member of the IOC, Coubertin planned the first games to be held in Algiers in 1925.

The Olympic ideal was "to gather the youth of the world", and since the African continent had been inferior in the Olympics, to learn the

¹ Tenga, S.T.M., (1994) *The Norwegian sport for all project in Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania 1984-90*, Norges Idrettshøgskole, Oslo.

² Ibid., p. 8.

³ Norges Idrettsforbund, (2002) *Søknad til Direktoratet for Utviklingshjelp (Norad) for 2003, flerårig planutkast*.

modern sports was seen as a great way through for them to compete against the European and American athletes that were dominant in the games. As a Frenchman of his time, Coubertin believed that there was a “civilizing mission” to be accomplished in Africa. Sport was going to be a part of this mission, and as Coubertin was anxious to involve the African continent in the Olympic movement he stated that it was “*the final battle....in sport’s conquest of the world.*”¹

A committee was appointed to investigate ways to bring modern sport into Africa, and they came up with two different games that should be held every second year, one set for the indigenous and the other for the European residents.

At the Paris Olympiad in 1924, Coubertin made an appeal to the participant countries to each “*make a donation, however modest, to an undertaking of sporting and humanitarian solidarity.*”² An ‘African sport’ bank account was opened and money was granted, but still financial and organisational challenges forced Coubertin and Bolanaki to postpone the games to be held in Alexandria, Egypt in 1929. The Egyptian government worked hard to prepare everything possible for the games, and new stadiums and facilities were built and ready to be used. Again, only two weeks before the games were to start they were cancelled. The colonial powers of Britain and France had opposed and concluded that such a large gathering of black Africans “*seemed both too expensive, and potentially explosive.*”³

This is one example of the colonial powers working hard to keep Africa out of the good league of international sports. Despite their

¹ Guttman, A., (1994) *Games and empires: modern sport and cultural imperialism*, Columbia University Press, New York, p. 124.

² Kidanè, F., (2001) *The Olympic Movement in Developing Countries*, ICHPER-SD, July 2001, p. 18.

³ Baker, W.J., (1987), p. 274.

effort to spread modern sports as a part of their imperialism, the desire to keep the dominance, control and have a say in who should be included was penetrating.

Several athletic meets were held in Africa throughout the years. The East African Games, for instance, was arranged by the British in 1934, and similar games happened on the continent. However, “*organised sport in Africa was circumscribed by political considerations*”¹, and the colonial powers urged to keep the control.

In 1960, the *Jeux de l’Amitié* was held in Madagascar. These games of friendship were organised by the French government for the French speaking countries in Africa. The games expanded to include also the English speaking countries in 1965, and they were held in Brazzaville, Congo, under the name *African Games*. Eventually, the idea from the 1920’s was set alive.²

African athletes were almost invisible in the Olympic Games in the first half of the nineteenth century, and this reflects how the political history of Africa has advanced. As the colonial powers held their clamp around the continent, the African participation was limited to a great extent. The first African Olympic victor was a white South-African who won the 100 meters gold medal in London in 1908. Despite good results from the ones who actually attended, the participation continued to be scarce and only athletes from South-Africa, Egypt and some countries in North-Africa represented the continent, usually under the colonial flag.

The first black African to win an Olympic gold medal was Adebé Bikila of Ethiopia who ran barefooted and won the marathon in Rome in 1960. In the 1960 Olympics, about a hundred African athletes

¹ Ibid., p. 275.

² Ibid.

participated, and this symbolised more than anything Africa's progress that came along with their emancipation from the colonial powers.¹

Olympic Solidarity

*"In 1961, at the fifty-ninth IOC session, the Soviet Olympic Committee proposed a resolution to help developing amateur sport in Africa, Asia and Latin-America. The resolution called for the consolidation of the Olympic committees of the developing countries, for the training of leading cadres and coaches, and for the provision of material aid for developing sport. All this was to be done by the national Olympic committees and the sports organisations of the countries with well-developed sports facilities and provisions."*²

The International Olympic Committee decided only to adopt a recommendation of what the Soviet Olympic Committee suggested, and founded an Olympic Aid Fund which was smaller than what the Soviet Union and the socialist countries pictured. The Soviet Union answered by intensifying their own development aid, whereas the socialist countries put pressure on the IOC to embrace the original Olympic Solidarity program.

In 1973 the Olympic Solidarity program was established, and a special commission was put in charge to implement it. The idea of the Olympic Solidarity project was as the Soviet Olympic Committee suggested distributing financial and technical aid to the National Olympic Committees of Third World nations, and especially to those who needed it the most.

¹ Ibid.

² Hazan, B.A., (1987), p. 253.

Income should come from television rights and sponsorships of the Olympic Games. However, it was not until the Los Angeles Games in 1984 that the television rights for the broadcasting of the Olympics were increased, and the Olympic Solidarity budgets were established on a regular basis.

Still the Olympic Solidarity program continues to work in the third world countries, and their objectives are much the same as from the beginning; to promote the Olympic fundamental principles and to co-operate with and assist the NOCs in their work with athletes, teams, facilities, training of sport administrators etc.¹ Although initiated by the Soviet Union, it's important to emphasize that the Olympic Solidarity program is entirely an IOC program, utilizing IOC funds.²

Among the partners that the IOC co-operates with are several programs under the UN. Together with these instances the Olympic Movement works to fight poverty, rebuilding refugees' lives, bring sport to rural communities and to use sports in the work for social rehabilitation.³

As we clearly see, the Olympic Movement includes both the elite- and the 'sport for all' models in their development programs, but as the Movement wants to spread the Olympic ideals, one can argue that the political-ideological model is also included.

Discussion

One of the main arguments for using sports as a tool in development aid is sports' distinctive character. Sports' international language is

¹ International Olympic Committee, (2004) *Olympic Charter*, Adobe Acrobat Document found on the internet at http://multimedia.olympic.org/pdf/en_report_122.pdf, [downloaded, 04 May 2005, at 2.00pm].

² Hazan, B.A., (1987).

³ http://www.olympic.org/uk/organisation/missions/humanitarian/index_uk.asp, [downloaded, 04 May 2005, at 2.30pm]

often mentioned in this context, and it refers to the way sport can be played and understood amongst people in all countries in the world, regardless of the language spoken and cultural connection. In this respect, it is argued, sport can be a positive factor when it comes to greater challenges in society that are connected to health, democracy, education and equality of all.¹ Sport development organisations argues that sport is a great medium to build community structures, to teach children fair play and co-operation, to create consciousness of their own and their peers' bodies, to teach them to respect the rules and to relate to adults. "*Sport provides young people with enjoyable physical activities and first-rate social environments with caring adults. Sport also enables them to train their skills and personal qualities.*"² Through sport, young people who live in poverty can learn to achieve their goals through determined efforts in the company with others. That way, sport is believed to have a role to play in striving for a better future, as regards to working your way out of poverty.

Through playing, children in conflict areas can enter a world away from their regular everyday life in the communities, and despite differences in race, religious conviction, ethnicity, gender and family relations, be nothing but children having fun together.

Sport development aid organisations are also working in the area of HIV/AIDS. With the epidemic having risen to the enormous, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa is it argued that sport development aid can play an important role in the enlightenment of young people to live with and fight the disease.³

¹ Hognestad, H., (2005) *Football is survival here*, Norges Idrettshøgskole, Oslo.

² The Football Association of Norway, (2004) *Football and International Development Work*, Oslo, p. 64.

³ Ibid.

Undoubtedly sports have certain aspects that are well worth bringing on to the world. Many people are engaged in well functioning development programs that besides giving one a unique experience, gives one the possibilities to help people in need. To build conscience about ones own body, health, cooperation with others and focusing on play in conflict areas where children are forced to grow up quickly are all important aspects that should not be underrated. Still, there are important, critical questions to be asked about this type of development aid. As history has shown, sports have been introduced and implemented in societies that the western world has considered needing. Is it right to continue introducing the western organisational structure to countries that we see as underdeveloped? How can a country be underdeveloped when it comes to sport in the first place, when all cultures and countries have their own traditional games? Shouldn't we, in the 21st century with all its focus on being tolerant and unprejudiced, embrace the diversity of traditional physical cultures and introduce them internationally?

Is sport just another way of acquiring control, like the Soviet Union tried to do as soon as the colonial powers withdrew from Africa?

It has been argued that sports development aid is only another imperialistic trick to influence a partner that is seemingly easy to convince. To be economically superior and thereby make a country dependent on you can also be a form of imperialism. As the German professor Harald Dubberke states:

“Do they offer their help only for reasons of humanity? Sometimes a country starts with the offer of sports aid to establish a certain form of cultural cooperation which then serves as a first step for economic relationships..... In many cases sports is the entrance for general political partnership. But the receiving country has to realize this intention. By all means I share the opinion of Leopold SENGHOR from Senegal who said that the cultural

cooperation can be imperialistic and dangerous and another type of colonialism.”¹

If we view this development aid along with imperialism we can in many cases find similarities. Many development programs have been implemented in societies where the physical culture has been in a strong position, but perhaps not as structured as in the western society. This structure orientation can be connected with the mentality of effectiveness that characterizes the western world, and may not be as easy transferable to different societies. And maybe it's better for all of us to stick to the way we're used to. Maybe the Norwegian structure doesn't work that well in Chad. Maybe it's a bit over the top to introduce handball as the new 'must-do-sport' in Botswana, or is that something that needs to be done? Why? Whose development is it? Do we help because **we** want to expand or do we want the ones we're helping to develop? Develop into what? To be more like us?

The Olympic Charter states that “*the practice of sport is a human right*”², and I must admit I'm tempted to ask: *is it?* Aren't human rights after all the primary needs? Can sport be included amongst these? On a Mexican stadium during the Football World Cup in 1986, the words “*No queremos goles, queremos frijoles*” (*we do not want goals, we want beans*)³ was painted on a wall. Somehow this illustrates much of what sports development aids' biggest challenge is. When people are

¹ Dubberke, H., (1986) Critical Remarks Regarding Sports Aid for Developing Countries, in: Mangan, J.A., Small, R.B., (ed.) *Sport, Culture and Society, International historical and sociological perspectives*, E.&F.N. Spon, London, New York, p. 243.

² Olympic Charter, Fundamental principles, § 4, p. 9.

³ Vinther, P., (2000) *No money – no sport*, Adobe Acrobat Document found on the internet at <http://www.play-the-game.org/magazine/pdf-00/26-playthegame.pdf>, [downloaded, 05 May 2005, at 10.30am].

hungry, they need food, and all of a sudden spending money on sports development aid seems less important. Despite the Olympic Charter that states that sport is a human right, sport is after all a secondary need. Clean water, food and the fight against corrupt governments have to be the first priority in the development countries.

But as we have seen, sport can be used in accomplishing higher goals. Sport as a method can, because of its widely understood language serve as a tool of which we should be careful to undermine the importance. As the Nigerian Director of the Executive Office of the President of the IOC, Fékrou Kidané states in his paper; *“For us Africans, for example, our priority of priorities still remains our economic and social developments. It is happy coincidence, nevertheless, that sport can play a role in this process.”*¹

Whatever we might think about sport and the importance of it being implemented in a culture or society, it's important to remember that the ones that receive the aid must be in charge of where it's used. When implementing a development program one must, no matter what the programs goals are, not forget that successful aid is the one that after a while can stand on its own two feet. Whether this aid consists of introducing new sport codes or the practice of traditional games might not even be the most important issue here. The central aspect is that the ones being helped define where the aid is needed. If this means introducing new sport codes, then so be it! The focus must be on letting people make their own decisions. A donor country has means and knowledge. The receiving country must consider whether these are means and knowledge they want to acquire. That way, the relationship between donor and receiver can be equal, and the development organisations can avoid being labelled imperialistic.

¹ Kidanè, F., (2001) p. 21.

The Olympic Movement as an institution of high importance in the world society has a great responsibility in this respect.

The development aid work of the IOC should therefore not only lead to an expansion of the IOC per se, but should contribute to improved terms of living for the people at the receiving end. If these improvements are coming through development of the NOCs and elite to participate in the Olympics, then great! If not, I'm tempted to quote Professor of Economy at the University of Paris-Sorbonne, Wladimir Andreff: "*First and foremost, governments must have the political and economic will to follow the motto 'sport for all' instead of concentrating exclusively on the elite and the fleeting glory of Olympic success.*"¹

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¹ Vinther, P., (2000) p. 26

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COUBERTIN AND AARHUS SPORTS CENTRE ANNO 1920

Ms Marianne STOLBERG MØLGAARD (DEN)

Introduction

In the summer 2003, I participated in the 43rd youth session of the International Olympic Academy. Here I came to know about Baron Pierre de Coubertin's philosophy of life: Olympism. During the stay there, we visited the ancient Olympic stadium in Olympia. This was where I became interested in the parallels between Coubertin's ideals for modern Olympia and the praxis of today. After a field-trip to Atletion¹ in connection with the subject "Cultural Analysis", where Niels Kayser Nielsen, senior lecturer at Aarhus University, Department of History, told about the creation of Aarhus Sports Centre, I had the idea for this thesis. Now I had the opportunity to draw parallels between Baron Pierre de Coubertin's ideal guidelines for the modern Olympia and the praxis of Aarhus Sports Centre.

Presenting the problem

How does the praxis of Aarhus Sports Centre correspond to the ideal guidelines presented by Baron Pierre de Coubertin for modern

¹ Atletion is a collective denomination for Aarhus Sports Centre, the Team Denmark Centre, Marselisborg Sports Centre and the Arena.

Olympia within the dichotomies: ideal/praxis, aesthetics/ function and nature/culture?

Method

When I started out on this thesis, I thoroughly considered whether my sources about and by Pierre de Coubertin were primary or secondary. Hence in October 2003, I chose to go to the Olympic Museum in Lausanne, at which the belonging library contains all the released works by Coubertin. After having been through their stock, I found out that the book I had borrowed in Denmark was the best material in English to be found. His original manuscripts are in French. The most important texts are translated to English in the book "Olympism – selected writings".

To find primary sources about the preparations and the building of Aarhus Sports Centre, I went to the Business Archive in Aarhus. Here I read notes by the city council from 1916-1918, I read Aarhus Stiftstidende (the local newspaper) from 1918, and looked in the archive of the city head gardener and architects' descriptions of Aarhus Sports Centre in their periodical "Arkitekten".

I have chosen Aarhus Sports Centre as my case since Aarhus Sports Centre was constructed as a modern stadium in 1918-1920. Aarhus Sports Centre was never used for the Olympics. Neither were the buildings built in order to have the Olympics in Aarhus or Denmark.

Still I have chosen Aarhus Sports Centre, since the architect Axel Høgh-Hansen have clearly been influenced by the Olympic guidelines concerning at the same time the aesthetics and functionality of a stadium.

Before the actual analysis, I will give short presentations of the ideal "Olympia" and praxis at "Aarhus Sports Centre". I have chosen this in order to give the reader an opportunity to follow the following

analysis. In order to clarify my analysis, I have chosen to divide it between the following dichotomies: ideal/praxis, aesthetics/function and nature/culture. In the aesthetics/function dichotomy, I have written a paragraph about territories and division of spaces in a modern stadium. This is inspired by John Bale's article about the spatially divided modern stadium. Furthermore, I have chosen to use Michel Foucault's works about the generalized prison as well as his works concerning discipline and regulation.

Guidelines for “a modern Olympia”

In 1909, Baron Pierre de Coubertin¹ described the guidelines for future constructions of Olympia. This included everything from selection of a host city to how the arenas should be positioned in relation to each other and to the rest of the Olympic city. Furthermore, Coubertin did much to describe how the architecture of the buildings should correspond to the beauty/aesthetics of the surrounding nature at the same time as Olympia being multifunctional, both sportwise and recreationally. Olympia should have a “religious atmosphere” to give the individual an opportunity to make a pilgrimage. The wish of Coubertin was for Olympism to be close to a religion.

“We have used the term “religious” in another way. Olympia did not deserve that adjective solely because it had temples, altars, and priests. The city drew its holiness from the feeling of patriotic piety that imbued the place, that saturated its atmosphere and

¹ Baron Pierre de Coubertin was originally an educationalist. At some point, he became interested in “education through sports”, and after that he travelled to Great Britain several times to study the development in sports. Thus he was one of the pioneers in modern sports. After having visited the classical Olympic stadium in the early 1890s, he began to work at a reintroduction of the Olympics. The first modern Olympics were held in Athens, Greece in 1896.

enveloped its monuments. Any Olympia worthy of the name and of its goals must give the same impression. A sort of seriousness, not necessarily austere, but one that allows for joy, must surround it so that, in the silence between competitions, it draws visitors as a place of pilgrimage...” [Coubertin, 1996, written in October 1909]

By using sculptures, paintings and other decorating arts, the architects should create these opportunities. In his descriptions, Coubertin made it very clear that any landscape will inspire to different architectural plans. This he saw as very positive since it took part in creating an interaction between nature and man, which he found essential. The general principles regardless of where Olympia should be built were:

1. Olympia should be a melting-pot of beauty and many possible applications. Coubertin had the idea from ancient Egypt and India.¹
2. “Great space” Modern Olympia could not suffer from lack of space, which was the case with the ancient classical Olympic stadium. On the other hand, it could not be the opposite either, giving room to too many people. It had to keep its dense atmosphere
3. It could not be situated next to a casino or the like
4. The organizers should be careful with using gardening arts. It should be in between “the English Garden”² and “the French

¹ Later the Greeks and Romans used the same idea about multi-functional arenas [Coubertin, 1996, p. 257].

² The English Garden: Evolved around 1720 and was a planned landscape all the way to the buildings; it is not a freely grown piece of nature but a planned landscape; avenues were not made, but trees were planted individually and different sorts were produced which were well-suited for solitary plants [source: Gyldendals Leksikon, fyn-ila, 1978 p. 286]

- Renaissance Garden”¹ There could not be too many straight walks, which reminded Coubertin of a churchyard² or a hospital. He added that this could probably not be avoided completely, since
5. Olympia should be easily accessible
 6. Looking at Olympia should mark the double nature-athletic and artisan
 7. The organization of the city should attempt at a clear fitting in with the surrounding landscape and use this
 8. The sports ground and “Court of Honour” should be situated in the middle of the city, while hotels and restaurants should be on the edge
 9. The area should also include space for horse racing, cycling and rowing.

Aarhus Sports Centre

The creation

To build Aarhus Sports Centre was decided at a city council meeting 28 February 1916. At this meeting the city council consented that the “Executive committee for Aarhus Sports Centre and Stadium” represented by the Director of Aarhus United and Chairman of AGF, Frederik Lausen, could use the areas of Aarhus Municipality at “Friheden” for building a modern stadium. The discussions along the way concerning previous council meetings about the establishment of a modern stadium were

¹ French Renaissance Garden: The style reached its peak around 1650. Trees and bushes cut in shapes were characteristic for this style. The ground was divided into geometrical shapes: the goal was to achieve perspectives. Walks and canals were laid out ruler-straight. Versailles in France is a typical example of the French Renaissance Garden. [source: Gyldendals Leksikon, fyn-ila, 1978 p. 286]

² [Coubertin, 1996, p. 258]

- whether it was financially responsible for the city
- whether it would influence nature too much, if SIKA¹ was given the 30 ha by “Friheden” that they applied for
- and whether all sports clubs were united in this project in order to avoid a later demand for another stadium.

The solution was that the city gave the included sports clubs and clubs of the executive committee the right of use for Aarhus Sports Centre for 60 years. The municipality still owned the land and should only after 5 years be in charge of the operation and associated costs.

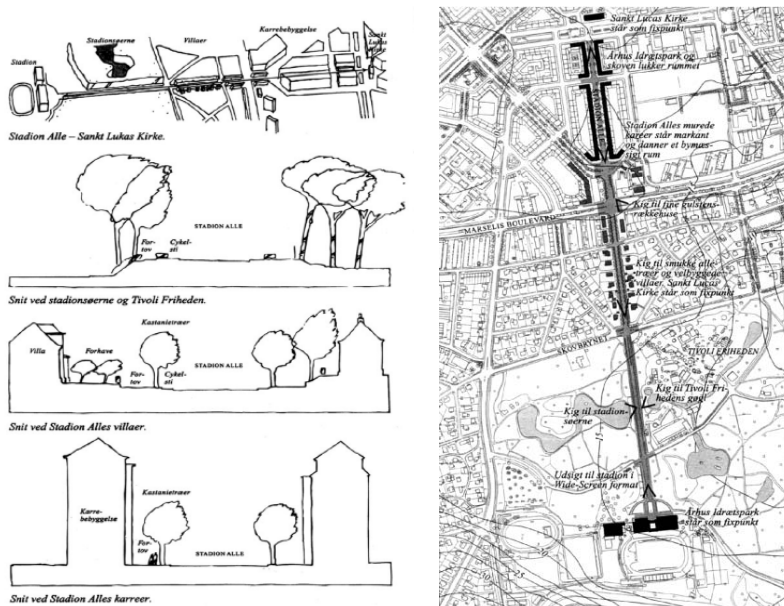
Before the project was accepted, Frederik Lausen had arranged a study trip for those of the city council which he thought were enthusiastic about the case. They went to the modern stadiums in Stockholm, Malmö and Copenhagen. After the study trip, Frederik Lausen achieved the support and goodwill from the city council that he wished for. The city council wanted to point out a place which gave the opportunity to do all kinds of sports. Hence in the long run, the city council could include other spaces in the city, which were laid out as practicing areas, for housing. The city was in constant growth and the lack of housing in the city increased. Consequently it was suitable if the sports could use a space outside the city. Preferably near the boundary to Viby. But the architect of the stadium did not agree with this:

“The best suited space for the stadium was immediately given as south of the city. Therefore I suggested, after dealing with Director Lausen, a space on the fringe of Marselisborg Forest with Observatoriemarken as a background. I do believe that anyone seeing the stadium will admit that it is even very beautifully situated, and maybe there is not even a stadium more

¹ SIKA are the co-operative sports clubs in Aarhus.

beautifully situated than Aarhus Stadium surrounded by forest and hills.” [A. Høgh-Hansen, 1920, p. 141]

It was not only of aesthetical reasons that Høgh-Hansen pointed out “Friheden”, as that part of Marselisborg Forest was called, to be the perfect spot. It was also due to “the space not being suitable for housing” [Coubertin, 1996 p. 145]. That the ground could not be used for housing, to Høgh-Hansen meant that the area would not in the near future be taken away from the sports people. Furthermore, there was adequate space for exercising fields, display fields, cycling ring and racing track.



*Plan of the stadium buildings,
Aarhus Sports Centre 1920*



*The horizontal plan was issued in Høgh-Hansen's article
in "Architekten" (The architect), 1920*

Analysis

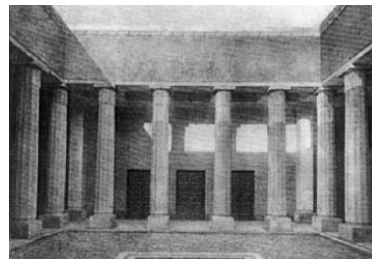
Ideal/praxis

The positioning of Aarhus Sports Centre on the outskirts of Aarhus¹ in Marselisborg Forest as well as the fact that Høgh-Hansen took into consideration the surrounding nature, is fully in correspondance with the guidelines of Coubertin. Høgh-Hansen aimed at making the stadium building in harmony with the forest. Therefore he also planned the course of Stadion Allé (Stadium Avenue), which is a straight line from the bell-tower of St. Lukas Church² representing the

¹ In 1920, Aarhus Sports Centre was on the outskirts of the city.

² St. Lukas Church was not finished until the early 1920s. The fact that Høgh-Hansen had still taken the bell-tower into his planning was due to him being on an evaluation board to select the winner of the arranged architectural competition. Høgh-Hansen made the winner of the competition sketch the bell-tower to fit with the plans Høgh-Hansen made for Stadion Allé [Vagtholm, 1980].

city and all the way to Aarhus Sports Centre, which is at the end of the avenue, to express recreation and the opportunity for peace and quiet [Høgh-Hansen, 1920]. Høgh-Hansen had tried to create some optimum frameworks for sports that were thought of as being multi-functional, although one of the covered courts was reserved for tennis. In the intermediate building were found common-rooms, fencing hall, royal hall etc. This meant that there could be several sports activities at the same time. The centre of Høgh-Hansen's project was the courtyard¹. "The big white pillars and the small water basin have given an atmosphere of sublime peace, which is ideally expected from a front yard of the "holy temple" of sports." [Jette Vagtholm, 1980]. One of the subjects that were very important to Coubertin was that the stadium area should enhance the opportunity for memorizing and creating new hope for the future. In front of the façade, Høgh-Hansen placed some statues. He hoped that it would become an open-air museum to honour the sports personalities and ideals of previous times. Some of the statues were Danish sports personalities of previous times, while others showed the ideal Greek sports-people of ancient Greece. All together, the outer frames of the Sports Centre fit into Coubertin's guidelines.

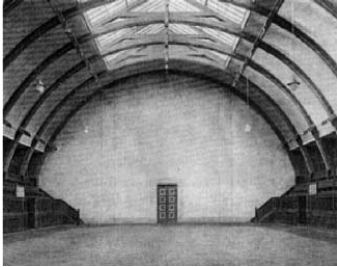


Aesthetics/function

The arrangement of the Stadium on the other hand, was a compromise between aesthetics and function. Høgh-Hansen had made sure that the light in the covered courts would not disturb the activities. The lights were placed at the sides of the ceiling, and some of the roof was transparent to give light from above.

¹ The courtyard is also called the peristyle or the front yard [Nielsen, 2003].

The main entrance was the previously mentioned peristyle between two courts.



Even though the floor of the court on the right-hand side of the peristyle had some hidden bushings for a boxing ring, the courts were not multi-functional. The court to the left of the peristyle was mainly reserved for tennis. On special occasions it was used for gymnastic displays. Both courts had stands along the sides, and under these were the changing rooms with showers and toilets for the different clubs. The peristyle gave access to both courts as well as the intermediate building, which contained a fencing hall and another common-room.

The outside areas were more multi-functional, they could hold several activities. The best example is that underneath the display field was a drain, which was open during the summer and closed during the winter. This meant that it was possible to play football and handball on the field during the summer, and the athletes could train on the running tracks around the display field. During the winter the drains were closed, and therefore the area was covered in water. The water froze and hence served as a skating rink during the wintertime. This was an approximation to the Olympic guidelines since the forces of the surroundings were utilized.

Territories

When looking at the horizontal plan of the Sports Centre area, it is definitely correct to talk about a division into territories. This division takes place at several levels.

First and foremost, the Sports Centre was a “sports territory”. The area was and is limited by roads and forestation. Here you were allowed to do sports – to be recreational. [Bale, 1993] This territory

was a parallel to the daily lives of the citizens of Aarhus, of which many worked in “limited spaces”¹ [Bale, 1993].

The dividing framework between audience and athlete, or put more neutral, the division that characterised the modern stadium was very clear in Aarhus Sports Centre. In both covered courts as well as at the display field² there was not only a line to separate the athletes from the audience. With his arrangement of the stands, which had their own entrance from the peristyle, Høgh-Hansen had made yet another partition. By the display field, Høgh-Hansen had chosen to build covered stands at the finishing line, which were facing north and hence towards the Southern side of the stadium building. The parts of the stands, which were not parallel with the finishing line, were not covered. These explicit divisions could be seen as sort of a social control, which could, according to Foucault, participate in giving discipline. The divisions helped to control the users.

By dividing into sports territories as well as audience/athlete territories, the area was controlled through a kind of power. A manifestation of power (bio-power) which could be divided in two:

1. Physical disciplining of the athletes
2. Surveillance to regulate the people

This bio-power is amongst Foucault’s power analysis, which he uses for identifying power rituals as well as the position of this power within the social sphere [Andersen and Kaspersen, 2001].

One of the other levels of the division was that the different clubs had their own changing rooms. In this way, the individual club had

¹ Cf. Foucault’s term “great confinement” concerning prison surveillance that had spread to society. My translation of “great confinement” became “limited spaces”.

² I will not comment on the racing track, since this was not built in 1920. Just like the exercising fields, this was not laid out until during the 1920s.

a territory in the common sports surroundings. These territories also ruled in the covered courts, since these could only be used for specific sports. Only tennis could be played on the tennis court. The tennis court was a part of the demarcation of another social boundary, since it was only the bourgeoisie and nobility who played tennis at that time.

The peristyle functioned as a common gathering place for the audience to go into different courts. This was due to the peristyle being the only place with access to all courts via four large staircases, which led to the stand “booths”. I call them “booths” because the stands were divided into sections and had seat numbers. Only in very few places, did the audience have direct access to the court from the “booths”. According to Bale, this social geography was part of mirroring the social divisions of the city. The division or isolation, as Bale called it, he saw as being against the conduct of man.

Nature/culture

Nevertheless, Aarhus Sports Centre was thought of as a cultural space for the citizens, regardless of rank. It was thought of as a place where the young men of the city could do something reasonable¹ in their spare-time. The recreational sports area took part in bridging the Marselisborg Forest and the citizens of Aarhus. Since from the stands by the display field, it was possible to enjoy both the Marselisborg Forest and experience different sports at the same time, Aarhus Sports Centre made up the framework of a meeting between culture and nature.

In England, the industrial development and the entry of capitalism meant that sports in general were referred to specific spaces, normally outside the city.

¹ Comment from the city council meeting 16 May 1918.

The positioning of a sports centre and stadium for sports displays on the outskirts of Aarhus, was a Danish example of this development (pictures on p. 6).

The big culture/nature clash created by the modern stadium was that the audience and the athletes were divided. The audiences' opportunities to make a difference were limited because they had been powerfully divided from what was taking place. [Bale, 1993]

If the ideas of Coubertin are compared to the dichotomy culture/nature it will be clear that Coubertin very much tries to connect these two by taking both views of his guidelines into consideration. By creating an Olympia, which uses the beauty of the surrounding nature as a point of departure, he did not let the architect create freely a cultural forum where man's utmost natural and aesthetic bodies could unfold at the expense of the beauty of the surrounding nature. A clear dividing line between nature and culture became clear in his indication of the division of the social life (restaurants, casinos, hotels etc.) and the "Court of Honour".

To a very large extent, Aarhus Sports Centre fitted the description of Olympia made by Coubertin. Aarhus Sports Centre was situated in a forest with no other buildings near by. Høgh-Hansen's design of the stadium buildings and the square in front is between the styles of the French Renaissance Garden and the English Garden, just as Coubertin prescribed it. The French Renaissance Garden is expressed by the course of Stadion Allé as well as by Høgh-Hansen's beginning of an open-air museum. In the plans of the course of Stadion Allé, a roundabout with an obelisk has been sketched to function as a point de vue. This was not realized though. [Spure Nielsen, 2003]

In perspective

In continuation of this thesis, it could be interesting to study how the rebuilding and extension of Aarhus Sports Centre are in harmony

with the guidelines of Coubertin, and in connection with this to study the relevancy of Coubertin's guidelines and ideas almost a hundred years after they were written. Are they of importance and consequence for the athletes and audiences in 2005?

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OLYMPISM – MORAL IMPLEMENTATION THROUGH PHYSICAL AND SPORTS EDUCATION

Mr Mulyana (INA)

1. Introduction

This article aims at presenting one of these ventures as a potential Olympic Education tool. It refers to an initiative called Olympism Moral Implementation through Physical and Sports Education, which has been carried out at the Department of Physical and Sports Education – State Jakarta of University – Indonesia, since 2003.

The method applied in this case study was chosen so that the elementary School in Jakarta could be reported and consequently an adequate focus on the Olympism blending sport with culture and education concerning teachers moral implementation through physical and sports in school.

In order to follow the case study procedures, this review initially approaches current theoretical understanding on **Rationale, Moral value, Moral Values Contained in Fair Play, and Investing Moral through Physical and Sports Education.**

2. Rationale

According to its historical records in 776 BC, the soul development had started in Olympism, Greece. However, the process of its journey faced a lot of obstacles among which is the ban issued by the Emperor

Theodosius in 393 BC. Later on, the existing spirit was rebuilt into a more modern sport competition, first announced in 1894. Nevertheless, the idea of holding the sport event did not emerge until the following three and a half years later when Athens, Greece was determined to be the host of the first modern Olympics in 1896.

In 2004, Athens regained its trust as the host of the event which is completely different from its first. The most visible difference is on its mission which makes this sport event a business and entertainment oriented world event.

In its development organizing Olympics does not only relate to sports but also to big business. All parties are involved in the business which is the city which organizes it, the sponsors, and the athletes or audiences.

A German economist, Holger Preuss, studied the correlation between the Olympics and business since Munchen Olympics in 1972 up to the Athens Olympics. The Olympics implementation in 1984 in Los Angeles is one of the new phases in the history of Olympics judging from its business aspects because it turned out that the Olympics had become a major success business for the committee at that time. In the previous Olympics, the country which hosted the event had always an extremely expensive cost in its budget. However the implementation of Olympics in Los Angeles in 1984 had given plenty of profits to the Olympic Committee of the United States of America because they had succeeded in covering the event through the sponsor participants, ticket sales, TV licenses and all types of souvenirs sales which are now known as merchandising.

The load of this material value can be seen in the Olympics in Los Angeles in 1984. This additional value does not only have material characteristics but it also has the ability to increase the image of a city, country or nation according to Professor Preuss, an economist: *“Olympics implementation can help increase a city or country image,*

as we can see clearly in the Sydney Olympics. It means, there are more people who want to visit or have a vacation in this city. There will also be more businessmen who are thinking of opening their branch offices or establishing factories in this area.”

It is this phenomenon that has changed the Olympics image which was once focusing on sports competitions with values within it and now focuses on business and entertainment. Will the sports mission in growing moral value through fair play remain when ties orientation has started to shift to material value in a form of business and entertainment? In business, all activities are conducted to get material benefit especially financial benefit, thus, the Olympics is aimed at all activities that can gain financial benefit. If the activities are still in merchandising domain which relates to the Olympics, then they will not be a problem. However when commercialization acts as the audience's satisfaction element, in which sports is an entertainment business, apprehensively the basic nature of sports which is sportive as a moral value that needs to be justified will fade. In contrast with Pierre de Coubertain's objectives in reconstructing the Olympics which is giving the strength and the opportunity to do sports, to compose freedom and life; giving the possibility to fulfill education role which is an obligation in modern world, and to cherish the athletes individually. Pierre's ideas then develop into a more concrete philosophy in the following Olympics Charter:

- a. To improve the development of moral and physical quality which are the basis of sports.
- b. To educate the youth generation through sports in the spirits of better understanding and friendship toward others so it may help construct a safer and more peaceful world.
- c. To spread the principles of Olympics to the whole world so it will create international peace.
- d. To unite the athletes all over the world in a big sport event once every four years.

Based on those objectives, we can see that the principles of Olympics basically have moral, education and international peace objectives. Although in reality, the Olympics tend to be a merry party filled with entertainment party and business, the basic principles of the early objectives may not vanish.

There are several things that need to be focused on that is a business oriented Olympics. Whether the values of Olympics will vanish in the name of business and entertainment, if the Olympics have really turned from its early objectives. Although the basic principles contained in the Olympics philosophy is to grow and combine the balance between the power of emotion and mind. The combination between sports with culture and education is expected to be a fun thing, to have great moral values and grow the attitude of respect and cherish on each other as the basis of ethics in living as a member of a nation and state. It goes along with the Olympics objectives which focusses on creating peace through sports which can grow harmony and the attitude of valuing men's dignity.

Things that need to be concerned is that this profit oriented motive will affect the athletes so that their motivation in joining the Olympics is only for the profit whether it is for the state interests which is getting a prestige by gaining medallions and individual interests which is getting benefits from gifts available for each individual. Therefore, the Olympics are no longer viewed as able to create peace through sports.

It is true that the sports activities in the Olympics are competitive sports. In its concept, competition focuses on winning the championship and achieving records. The goal is to win the championship by performing the athlete's skills, techniques and power which will give them pride and rewards. When all athletes have this motivation, the Olympics arena can be an arena where power will compete and it may cause war because the athletes are competing to win at all cost. The law of the strength will win and the weak will be suppressed

may reemerge, therefore it is possible that the Olympics will become a battle field. Can you image that this thing will happen in the near future?

To avoid such incidents, an attitude of maintaining the Olympics philosophy needs to be implemented on athletes and nations. The efforts that need to be done are giving awareness that the gained prestige is a reward that comes from an elegant and fair competition. The competition itself is interpreted as a term to compare a performance which is valued by several elements; they are opportunity equality, the organization orderliness which is judge from its rules and punishments, spiritual aspect, symbolic (prestige) or material value. It is based on this competition concept that the first Olympics were held. The early objective of the Olympics is to have a competition event by performing skill demonstration in sports of all nations so that there will be togetherness which is politics and racial interest free. Thus, this event is truly a moment in achieving prestige for a nation which is deputized by its athletes.

3. Moral Value

Value is a crucial base in giving direction to life. The course changes of a value will affect the human behavior, thus it also affects of whatever the behaviors may cause. Value can also be interpreted as life conceptions in the mind of most people which relate to the things they value most in their lives. Value is a concept with a vast scope which is alive in the mind of each individual. Those concepts are weaved and forming a system which is a value system. The value system formed from the community agreement and understanding will bring culture or ethnicity into this world. The value believed by the people was born from someone's perception toward an object which he believes as a value. Someone who believes in those values will have the attitude suited to the values. Attitude is a view that

guides someone's behavior. Therefore, someone's behavior in his daily life is determined by his attitude.

Moral values in sport games reflected from the athletes through their behaviors in the sports games activities. The positive behavior in sports is fair play. Fair play behavior is reflected from the attitude of honesty by obeying the rules. According to the Sport Charter and Code of Ethics, fair play is:

...more than playing by the rules. Fair play unites with the concept of friendship and respect toward others and playing the games in true spirits. Fair play is elucidated as not only a behavior show. It unites with the problems that concern with the avoidance of deception, pretence, doping, violence (either physically or verbally), exploitation, taking chances, over-commercialization.

This definition elaborates of how someone plays as well as how he acts and reacts toward others either during games or at other times which still relate to the competition. Fair play behavior is focusing on the inner attitude which forms a conviction contains moral consideration which is reflected in the athletes' behaviors. Fair play concept can be operated as follow:

- a. There is a sincere will so that the opponent will get the same opportunity as himself. Related with it, the sportsman will:
 - Refuse to conduct, wherever possible, in order to gain benefits from a situation which may damage the opponent.
 - Refuse a situation which relates to the material or physical aspects such as competition equipments, when they can be fixed or reduced, because of the non complete equipment which will affect the final results of the game.
 - Try to reduce the impulse of conducting unfair acts towards his opponent.

- b. There is a thorough consideration in considering the ways of getting an opportunity. The sportsman will:
- Refuse to use any ways although they against the unclear rules so benefit himself.
 - Deliberately not use the benefits gained from the tight rules application.
 - Obey and accept the jury decisions although it clearly damages himself.
 - Show continuously an attitude of helping the referee and jury willingly in specific things and try wisely so that the referee or jury are willingly to change their wrong decisions although it damages himself.

The concept is a behavior that must be visible in the athletes who have the attitude gained from moral values.

4. Moral Values Contained in Fair Play

In reality fair play behavior is loaded with moral values. Those moral values are loyalty, wisdom, honor, truth, respects, hospitality, integrity, justice, cooperative, and assignments. Of all those moral values, they can be summarized into four values; they are (a) justice, (b) honesty, (c) responsibility, and (d) peace.

A very universal justice exists in every aspect in the form of distributive, procedure, retributive, and compensation. Distributive justice is integrated in sports events especially competitive sports. It is a kind of justice that covers the distribution of roles burdens and benefits related to the result of togetherness in a game in a form of a team consisting of players, coaches and officers. Each role is clearly defined in a moment to achieve success. This type of justice can be clearly seen in a team sports game like volleyball, basket ball, football, etc. Procedural justice is a type of justice related to the perception

of regulation procedure. Sports game is always accompanied by rules. There is no sports game that does not have rules especially those in the competitive sports. In competitive sports, the clarity of regulation procedure takes an extremely fair agreement so that it can be accepted by all doers. Therefore, the regulation can be applied fairly in determining the result of the game. Justice that covers a fair perception related to punishments is included in the retributive justice. The punishment toward violations has to be suitable with the degree of the violation. The attitude that grows to judge justice in this situation must also emerge in the sports game and be understood by everybody. The next type of justice is compensation justice which is justice that concerns beneficial or kindness perception gained by the victim in the previous time.

Honesty is an attitude which believes in a commitment given by other parties or in this situation is the opponent. Commitment in sports is to show or demonstrate technique and tactics excess and to use physical excess fairly without any illegal help and any engineers like doping. Honesty in sports is an obligatory capital that must be owned by each player.

Responsibility is an attitude of dare taking all risks towards an action. Responsibility is the most important in sports. An athlete who competes internationally is not only responsible for his game performance or his team. He must also have to be responsible morally to the whole nation. This moral responsibility is an honor responsibility that is reflected in the player's attitude and behavior in the game.

The next moral value is a moral value which is loaded with messages and hopes of all nations nowadays, that is peace. Peace is a concept of not doing anything that may cause mistreatment or cruel behavior that may cause physical or non physical victims. There is not a single game in sports that has the instruction of hurting the opponent which is a mistreatment element in order to benefits the

player's acts. Athletes must also have this type of behavior either in national or international events.

Thus, there are a lot of moral messages in sports that can grow elegant characteristics of a nation. The most effective facility in forming values is through education.

5. Investing Moral through Physical and Sports Education

Based on the above discussion, education is assumed to have positive influence toward the process of moral values growth. Education is a plan, aware and directed efforts in forming human personality. Personality is human's dynamic condition in thinking, feeling, acting and behaving. Growing moral values is actually a process of value changes which will affect the formation of the ability to think, feel, act and behave whether they want to or not. Education is conducted through teaching and learning process which is planned and structurally aimed at forming someone's maturity of thinking in everyday lives which is related to moral. There are plenty of interrelated factors in the success of teaching and learning process, one of them comes from the students themselves which is moral.

Education in this paper is approached from physical and sports factors. Physical and sports education is an integrated part of education system in Indonesia. The purpose of physical and sports education in Indonesia is to form physical ability and skills, physical growth, intelligence, and characters construction. The purpose of physical education in Indonesia is the same as the purpose of education in United States among which is a good physical educational program contributes itself to self concept development and gives assistance in getting social skills.

As elaborated above, the purpose of this paper is to give ideas contributions to maintain early objectives of Olympics, they are: to improve the development of moral and physical quality which is the

basis of sports, to educate the youth generation through sports in the spirits of better understanding and friendship towards others to make a safer and peaceful world, to spread the principles of Olympics, which will not fade by time and the development of technology and increase its quality, in the world to create an international peace, and unite athletes all over the world in a major sports event once every four years. Therefore, the task of the member country is to maintain those values in their athletes sent to the Olympics event.

What kind of concept can be put in physical education so that moral values can be implemented consciously in learning activity?

In Indonesia, the purpose of education is based on a competence of each field of study. The curriculum used is a competence based one. Competence is a combination of knowledge, skill, value and attitude reflected in the way people think and act. In this case, competence is interpreted as knowledge, skill and ability mastered by someone who has become a part of himself, so that he can do cognitive, affective and psychomotor behavior at his best.

Domains contained in competence concept are:

- a. Knowledge that is awareness in cognitive
- b. Understanding which is cognitive and affective depth owned by an individual
- c. Ability is something owned by an individual to conduct a task or work assigned to him.
- d. Value is a behavior standard which is believed and psychologically has united into an individual.
- e. Attitude is emotion (happy – unhappy, likes – dislikes) or reaction toward external stimuli.
- f. Interest is someone's tendency to do something.

Based on the above competence, competence based curriculum is interpreted as a curriculum that directs the students to develop their

knowledge, understanding, ability, values, attitude, and interest so that they can do something with skills, properly and successfully that comes with full responsibilities. Competence is an indicator that refers to a deed that can be observed and acts as a concept which covers the aspect of knowledge, skill, value, attitude and the phases of implementation.

Thus, how do we implement moral values in real and comprehensive physical education learning process to be a well versed or skill? The dilemma faced in physical education learning process is whether we give moral value theory in the learning process or not. All these years, physical education learning process in school is oriented in the practice of mastering the techniques of games of all types of sports. Giving theory concerning physical education is more on the regulations of the games but it has not touched the moral value in concrete. Physical education learning process has always be viewed as movement learning process, so that it causes the students not to have the attitude or it cannot adequately grow the attitude in concrete. Such modeling learning process may grow the expected attitude and behavior but it is hard and time consuming because the attitude grows naturally and depends on the students' own perceptions, therefore it is difficult to grow moral values in sports.

To cope with the problems, integrated can be used as learning process approach. This integrated concept focuses on the student's natural characteristics in the learning process and their development process of thinking, reasoning, and learning. It is stressed by de Vries and Crowford (1986:9), "*The integrated curriculum concept focuses mainly on the nature of the child as a learner and the processes involved in the development of thinking and learning.*" The subjects' integration is the curriculum program implementation which is not limited only on some parts of certain science. The students are given the freedom to explore and develop themselves into a varied diversity level. It is suitable with the students' daily lives which is a natural integration

of all types of knowledge which they learn in and outside of the classroom. Therefore, when the teacher has succeeded in creating daily situation and condition, which is the condition of the children's lives, as an integration of all types of knowledge into the classroom, we can say that the teacher has conducted integration into his teaching.

According to Fogarty, there are ten ways in combining curriculum judging from all perspectives. They are as follow:

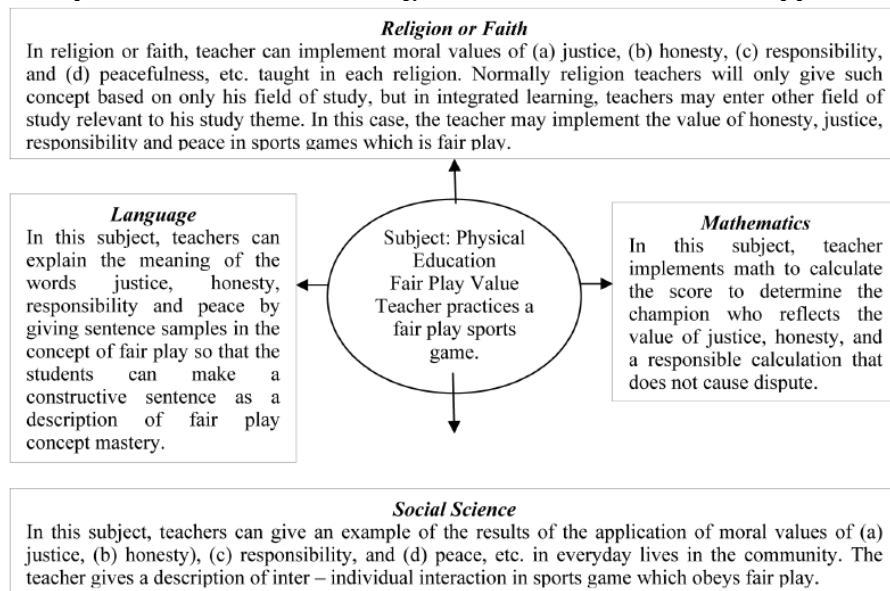
- 1) *Fragmented*, it only focuses on one field of study and it is develop separately.
- 2) *Connected*, the lesson is elaborated in one field of study, focuses on the subtitles and the relationship inter-topics and concepts.
- 3) *Nested*, learning one topic or new lesson unit through all types of dimensions and combining certain skill developments through field of study such as the skill to think, socialize and specific ability in content mastery.
- 4) *Sequenced*, arranging (orderly) the material of each subject based on the same topics and themes by connecting and expanding the concept within.
- 5) *Shared*, planning, connecting and arranging the same or overlapping concept or ideas in the field of study.
- 6) *Webbed*, using thematic approach. Having a vast theme which covers is arranged in the field of study network.
- 7) *Threaded*, a big idea of looking at the entire concept of the skill of thinking, socializing, double intelligence, technology and learning through all kinds of fields of study.
- 8) *Integrated*, inter-discipline approach by using basic elements of each overlapping field of study in a form of authentic model
- 9) *Immersed*, field of study has become a part of the student's ability perspective which has been developed and the students will absorb all lessons' contents and make them as a part of their experiences.

- 10) *Networked*, learning process covers all types of subjects through the thoughts of experts and make an internal relationships based on the experiences in a relevant field.

The model of social interaction stresses on a cooperative behavior which combines learning concept with community concepts. Cooperative behavior does not only encourage the growth of social ability, but it also encourages the growth of intellectual ability because an activity with such behavior often involves students in solving a problem. The students started to recognize the norms in the community and try to solve their problems based on those norms, so that a feeling of respect will grow and they will start to recognize the ethics in sports games (Joyce & Weil, 1986).

Behavior model is developed based on someone's responses and feedback to fix him. Those which are included in this model are a thorough learning, self control, skill practice and concept development, as well as assertive practice (Joyce & Weil, 1986). Assertive practice can improve social and intellectual competence. The practices may be in a form of social integration, analyzing communication tasks, and social communication. This theory is developed in the following model.

Behaviors in everyday lives are a reflection of learning outcomes. The expected behavior that can give a contribution to the Olympics is a behavior that reflects universal moral values. This behavior needs to be given formally in education in order to implement moral values needed by the athletes and officials with different backgrounds whether it is race, state ideology and interests. Learning process model that can gives contribution toward moral values and sports is the following model.

Example: Combination Learning Model based on Thematic Approach.

In the future, moral values and characteristics construction in every individual of all types of races and state ideology can be given through education whether it is education of schools, environments and family so that the values and objectives of the Olympics made by Pierre de Coubertin remains and long-lasting from the changes paradigm of today Olympics which is initiated by the Olympics Committee of United States of America by putting commercial and business aspects as a way to gain profit in which the athletes are the entertainment objects. Olympics is a tool which united all kinds of problems that existed in every country, therefore its values and philosophical objectives and history must be maintained by having a commitment from every state.

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REINVENTING THE NATION: IRISH OLYMPISM, NATIONAL IDENTITY AND THE POPULAR PRESS, 1922-32

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Political Background

The process of nation-building is one that is often contested and is rarely based on the delivery of an ideological template to a willing populace. Indeed, the situation in Ireland was little different to comparative situations elsewhere in the world.¹ It is apparent, whether the example is eighteenth century Britain or the independent post-Soviet states, that the Irish experience of state building was by no means unique or less complex than a host of other historical examples.² The freedom that was offered by the Anglo-Irish Treaty did not deliver the Ireland that had been dreamt of by revolutionary Sinn Fein, the insurgents of 1916 or those who had rebelled in 1798. Following the publication of its terms granting a limited degree of sovereignty, Sinn Fein and the IRA, the political and military sections of the nationalist movement, fragmented into opposing factions. A

¹ I am greatly indebted to my supervisor, Professor Mike Cronin for supplying me with his article 'Sport and nation building in the Irish Free State, 1922-29' ahead of publication.

² For examples see Linda Colley, *Britons: Forging the Nation, 1707-1837* (Yale, 1994) and Mark Beissinger, *Nationalist Mobilisation and the Collapse of the Soviet State* (Cambridge, 2002).

drawn-out yet predictable slide into civil war followed, reflecting not only issues of principle, but in many cases, personal and factional divisions that had developed during the War of Independence.¹ The pro-Treatyite government, backed by popular and clerical opinion, and more importantly, greater financial and military resources, prevailed against the 'irregular' IRA after a short and vicious conflict.² The vanquished but unrepentant anti-Treatyites declared a ceasefire but refused to accept the legitimacy of the Irish Free State, resolving to await a better opportunity to overthrow the treaty settlement. The poisonous legacy of this conflict would continue to polarise Irish politics throughout the next two decades.

Introduction

Nationalism is very much like a rugby ball, it doesn't work until someone picks up the ball and runs with it.

D.G. Boyce

In May 1922, the two bodies that formerly had agreed to divide athletics along political and confessional lines, the Gaelic Athletic Association (GAA) and the Irish Amateur Athletic Association (IAAA), surrendered their respective interests and supported the establishment of the National Athletics and Cycling Association (NACA).³ In the words of Vincent Comerford, 'the ink was scarcely dry on the Anglo-Irish Treaty before moves were afoot to establish a single athletics body'.⁴ Since securing recognition on the international

¹ J.J. Lee, *Ireland 1912-85: Politics and Society* (Cambridge, 1989), p. 68.

² For an overview of the Irish Civil War see Michael Hopkinson, *Green against Green: The Irish Civil War* (Dublin, 1998).

³ R.V. Comerford, *Ireland: Reinventing the Nation* (London, 2003), p. 231.

⁴ *Ibid.*

scene was such a major preoccupation of the Free State government, it seems plausible to argue that the alacrity in which the decision was made can only have been a response to strong political pressure. Recognised by the International Amateur Athletics Federation (IAAF) as the controlling body for Irish athletics, the NACA could now send the first Irish team, that is, one that represented the entire island, to the Olympic Games in Paris in 1924.

However, not only was the Irish Free State accepted into the Olympic movement, its attendance at the Games was seen as a seminal moment in international recognition for the Free State. According to Comerford, Irish participation in 1924 Olympic Games was the ‘sporting equivalent to Irish admission to the League of Nations’.¹ Although the Irish team did not win any sporting medals that year, Jack B. Yeats won a silver medal for painting and Oliver St John Gogarty won a bronze medal in poetry for his ode to the Tailteann Games. The first Free State expedition to the Olympic Games had evoked an array of relevant articles and photographs in the popular press but with the glaring omission of a triumphant Irish athlete from the Olympic podium, the Paris Games did not produce the same popular media embrace as Amsterdam or Los Angeles.

Amsterdam 1928

By contrast, the popular press sensed that the ‘racial virility’ of the Irish nation was on trial at the 1928 Olympic Games. The spread of crude social Darwinism was making nations increasingly sensitive about their sporting prowess.² It seemed imperative for the Irish Olympians to perform admirably in Amsterdam in order to illustrate the vitality of the Irish race. The aspirations of the new Irish

¹ Ibid., p. 232.

² Richard Holt, *Sport and the British* (Oxford, 1989), p. 274.

nation, couched in the dominant values of Darwinism, patriotism, and national expectation, transcended the parameters of mere athletic performance. The team spokesman, clearly recognising the significance of the occasion, told the crowd on their departure, that 'we will do our best; we will be ranged against the pick of the world's best in each event at the Olympiad. But what matter if we lose? We shall have taken our place among the nations at the Games.'¹

The *Irish Statesman*, usually loath to discuss low culture in any depth, also attempted to place the embarkation of the Irish Olympic team into perspective.

They are not bent on any pioneering adventure, surrounded by unthinkable dangers, like our Atlantic flier. Nor are they, like our national representatives bound for Geneva or London – to the League of Nations or the Imperial Congress – going to deliberate on questions of world policy. But nevertheless, they are just as truly going to represent Ireland. They are not likely to perform any feat of special valour, nor to do anything to entitle them on their return to be received as national heroes, but, playing the game and doing their best, as we know they will, they will have deserved well of their country...they are doing their country a service by competing at the Games. They show to the world that in sport, as in politics and literature and the arts, Ireland is taking her place among the nations.²

Mike Cronin has intimated that to be 'considered a nation is to possess the symbolism of a national flag, membership of the United Nations, a national airline and an Olympic Gold'.³ Indeed, it was generally conceived in the national press that although the Irish team was relatively weak, there was a genuine belief that Pat O'Callaghan

¹ Ibid.

² *Irish Statesman*, 28 July 1928.

³ Mike Cronin, *Sport and Nationalism in Ireland: Gaelic Games, Soccer, and Irish Identity since 1884* (Dublin, 1999), p. 62.

could ensure that this final criterion in nationhood was fulfilled by winning the Free State's first Olympic medal in the hammer event. O' Callaghan was an accomplished athlete with an impressive competitive record in race meetings across Ireland and entered the Olympiad as Ireland's only realistic medal prospect. His sporting prowess was celebrated in the columns of the *Cork Weekly Examiner* by Ireland's most famous sporting journalist, P.O. Mehigan (Carbery) who described him as the 'young Hercules – a gift from the gods'.¹

Interestingly, Pat O' Callaghan's participation in the Olympic hammer event was seen in the popular press as a powerful source of continuity in Irish popular culture. Throughout the early years of the modern Olympic Games, Irish-born competitors had forged a strong tradition in Olympic sport, especially in athletics. The emigration initiated by the Famine continued through the latter years of the nineteenth century and ensured that Irish Olympic successes were somewhat unique. The plight of emigration had drained the country to an unnatural degree of young men in their sporting prime and consequently, Irish successes were not always achieved in the emerald green singlet. Nevertheless, the remarkable achievements of Irish-born participants in the Olympic Games had helped foster the myth that the Irish were the virtuoso in the weight throwing and jumping events.

Indeed, references to the proud athletic tradition of the past were particularly evident in the pages of the dedicated sporting newspaper, *Sport*. The columnist, clearly engulfed in the furore of the occasion, reported that 'Irish thoughts will be with our little band who have been sent to keep our olden renown before the world'.² Even the President of the Executive Council, William Cosgrave, remarked

¹ *Cork Weekly Examiner*, 11 August 1928.

² *Sport*, 28 July 1928.

that 'he was proud of such a fine body of Irishmen, and was certain that win or lose; they would prove a credit to their country. He knew that they would, one and all; maintain the traditions of their country for fine sportsmanship'.¹ At the end of an enlightening editorial, the correspondent in *Sport* could jubilantly pronounce that the young Cork athlete was 'proof of our hopes for the recovery of Irish supremacy in the hammer and the other weights'.²

On 5 August 1928, Dr Pat O'Callaghan did indeed become one of the first national heroes in the period after independence by winning the Free State its first Olympic gold medal as an independent nation. This victory, at only the second Olympic Games following independence, instantly placed the Irish Free State on the world stage in a way that others events or actions could not³. Recognising that national prestige and identity had been achieved through his success at this major international sporting event, Ireland's gold medallist expressed his joy at the win, 'not for the victory itself, but because the world has been shown that Ireland has a flag, that Ireland has a national anthem, in fact, that we have a nationality'.⁴

The significance of O'Callaghan's triumph for the expression of Irish national identity also featured explicitly in much of the accompanying press comment. Even *Sport*, which concentrated predominantly on the sporting connotations of the feat, did not disregard the nationalistic symbolism of the tricolour swaying victoriously on the Olympic flagpole.

¹ *Irish Times*, 24 July 1928.

² *Sport*, 28 July 1928.

³ Cronin, *Sport and Nationalism in Ireland*, p. 63

⁴ Patrick O' Sullivan, 'Ireland and the Olympic Games', *History Ireland*, vol. 6, no. 1, Spring 1998, pp. 40-46; cited in Diarmaid Ferriter, *The Transformation of Ireland* (London, 2004), p. 354.

There is one memorable triumph to record – Ireland has raised its first winning flag as a distinct nation, and the pride of this has fallen to Pat O’Callaghan of Kanturk...the victory of O’Callaghan in the hammer is so apt and thrilling that one is so attempted to rhapsodise over it...congratulations would be superfluous.¹

The correspondent in the *Offaly Independent* reiterated this sentiment, with a stimulating editorial on 11 August 1928. Betraying a complete lack of a sense of proportions and a detachment from the ideological divisions within the country, the columnist remarked that:

Dr O’ Callaghan in the hammer throwing competition, by which he had the Irish flag hoisted for the first time in the history of the games, the people of all Ireland, north and south, are as proud as his native Kanturk. When ‘Good Old Ireland’ resounded in Amsterdam at our champion’s splendid performance, no boundary was recognized. We are now in a position to take our place as a separate nation in international events.²

Indeed, the views of the *Offaly Independent* perfectly capture the ideological motives behind the Cumann na nGaedheal government’s embrace of sport and culture: national unity and prestige abroad.

In contrast, the *Irish Times* sought to assess the victorious performance of O’Callaghan in Amsterdam against that of the superiorly prepared American team who continued to be the dominant nation. In a revealing article, the *Irish Times* celebrated the victory of O’Callaghan and commended the successes of athletes from the British Empire. However, the *Irish Times* adopted the Victorian moral tone when examining the athletic successes of the American team, who they felt facilitated the commercialization of sport, by encouraging an orthodoxy that winning was more important than

1 *Sport*, 12 August 1928.

2 *Offaly Independent*, 11 August 1928.

taking part. While begrudgingly acknowledging the success of the American Olympians, the sports correspondent in the *Irish Times* was sufficiently unsporting to point out that the American athletes were 'trained like prize-fighters or race horses' and that their success was a testament to tedious training schedules which 'makes a business out of their sport'¹. The newspaper delivered its *coup de grace* by concluding that it would have been preferable to report on athletes who competed for 'the fun of the thing' and admitted that it preferred 'the British way, of which Dr O'Callaghan's win is a striking vindication'.²

Whatever the emphases in the editorial, it is important to observe that these comments are particularly interesting because they proffer a disparate interpretation of the Irish success than that of other popular newspapers.³ The Victorian philosophy of competitive sport was altogether more subtle emphasising the value of victory much less than the utility of failure. The downgrading the mere 'winning' of games in favour of simply 'taking part' lay in the impetus this gave to widespread participation and also a device for encouraging a 'healthy as opposed to a Hobbesian competitiveness'.⁴ Here, the *Irish Times* portray Pat O'Callaghan as the gentleman amateur in the tradition of the British Empire, not as a physical embodiment of newly independent Irish Free State. Indeed, it seemed very convenient for the British to contextualise Irish athletic success in the Olympic Games as part of wider British tradition while simultaneously writing off the flaws of Free State athletics in the Tailteann Games⁵ as quintessentially Irish.⁶

¹ *Irish Times*, 1 July 1928

² Ibid.

³ I am grateful to Professor Mike Cronin for this information.

⁴ Holt, *Sport and the British*, pp. 96-98.

⁵ The Irish Olympic Games, celebrated in 1924, 1928 and 1932.

⁶ David M. Doyle, *Healing the Nation? The Resurrection of Aonach Tailteann and the Poisonous Legacy of the Irish Civil War* (Unpublished MA Thesis, UCD 2004).

Los Angeles 1932

On the 3 July 1932, the Irish Olympic team set sail for the promised-land, reminiscent of the boats that had carried successive generations of Irish emigrants to the cities of America, yet embodying the hopes and expectations of a nation still creaking under the weight of its civil war and colonial past. Elected president of the Irish Olympic Council in 1931, Eoin O'Duffy had been successful in obtaining a grant of £1000 from the Irish government to enter a modest team of four athletes and four boxers in the Los Angeles Olympic Games¹. Despite this unified facade, Irish athletics continued to be mired in disputation. In 1925, Ulster athletics fragmented into opposing factions and the clubs who refused to remain affiliated to the NACA were prevented from participating in international competition². Although the dissident clubs did seek recognition from the Amateur Athletic Association in Britain (AAA), they continued to be constrained by the fact that the NACA were internationally recognised as the regulating body for athletics in the whole of Ireland. It even seemed difficult to find a safe national anthem that wouldn't ignite political agitation at some athletic meetings. In 1929, there was an altercation when Trinity College invited the Governor General, James Mac Neill to attend a college sports event³. The university proposed that a rendition of *God save the King* would be more suitable for the occasion than the *Soldier's Song*. Although Trinity eventually conceded the choice of playing either anthem, Mac Neill having previously insisted that he should be greeted with the Irish national anthem, declined the invitation on the recommendation of the Irish Government.

¹ Pádraig Griffin, *The Politics of Irish Athletics, 1850-1950* (Leitrim, 1990).

² *Ibid.*, pp. 78-80.

³ Ferriter, *Transformation of Ireland*, p. 354.

Indeed, the long running dispute between the NACA and its athletic nemesis, the British Amateur Athletic Association (AAA) featured quite spectacularly in the moments preceding the 1932 Olympic Games. Here, the Irish Olympic delegation was successful in repelling a calculating endeavour by the AAA, to compel the Irish team to surrender its national principles at the opening ceremony.

I discovered at the last moment that the USA athletics authorities had arranged that the Irish athletes should march behind a banner inscribed 'The Irish Free State' representing, of course, twenty-six counties. I protested and threatened to withdraw the Irish competitors from the Games. I hurriedly got them together, and it should never be forgotten that without a moment's hesitation they declared 'we refuse to compete as representatives of a truncated Ireland'. I asked for permission to announce on the loud speakers this unanimous decision to the assembled 100,000 people of Irish descent.¹

Confronted by an intimidating adversary in the persona of Eoin O'Duffy, and the likelihood of an extremely embarrassing international incident, the Olympic officials wilted, handing the President of the NACA a previously prepared banner inscribed 'Ireland'.² The proud Irish athletes now paraded around the magnificent new stadium to the fabric of the tricolour and the cheers of the enthusiastic crowds.

More significantly, the national flag was raised twice in victory with Bob Tisdall winning the gold medal in the 400 metres hurdles and Pat O' Callaghan successfully retaining his Olympic title in the hammer event. According to Tisdall, 'there was pandemonium in stadium. Speech was impossible for nearly five minutes, and the few who did not appear to be Irish were shouting, if not for the significance of the

¹ I am grateful to Dr Fearghal McGarry, Queen's University, Belfast, for providing me with extracts from his forthcoming biography of Eoin O'Duffy.

² Ibid.

achievement, then at the manner of its doing. It was indeed a great day for Ireland'¹. In contrast, Eoin O'Duffy reflected upon the insecurity of cultural nationalism in the early years of the Irish state. He regarded this, the most successful day in the history of Irish athletics, as a vindication as much as a sporting triumph. The civil war had an extremely negative effect on international attitudes to the new Irish state: its course and character seemed to conform to all the stereotypes concerning Irish propensity for disorder, confusion, argument and violence². According to athletic Mussolini himself, this remarkable performance in Los Angeles 'dispelled any false impressions which propagandists may have made against the character of our race' and provided 'an answer to the vilifications that have been levelled against us in the past'.³

The achievements of the victorious Irish athletes were also widely celebrated in the Irish popular press with rousing headlines such as 'the pick of the world's athletes beaten' and 'our flags fly high in California'⁴. However, the function of sport in promoting and articulating national identity and loyalty was particularly discernible in the reception organised for the victorious Irish athletes. When the Irish team returned to Dublin, the city took to the streets in a passionate and spontaneous celebration of welcome. It mattered little to the crowd of an estimated quarter of a million people that Pat O'Callaghan was a doctor from Cork or that Bob Tisdall was born in Sri Lanka. The birthplaces of the athletes were of little importance to the boisterous Irish crowd. Political animosities and irreconcilable

¹ See Robert Tisdall, *The Young Athlete*; Cited in Griffin, *Politics of Irish Athletics*, p. 112.

² Michael Hopkinson, *Green against Green: The Irish civil war* (Dublin, 1988), p. 276.

³ Information kindly provided by Dr. Fearghal McGarry.

⁴ Griffin, *Politics of Irish Athletics*, p. 112.

personal differences were temporarily forgotten in what was a spectacular display of national revelry. It seems plausible to argue that it was the nationality - not the origins of the competitors - that mattered to the Irish people.

The Olympic entourage then made its way to the Gresham Hotel where the team was formally thanked by the newly elected President of the Executive Council, Eamon de Valera, for the distinction and celebrity they had brought to the country. The team was also honoured at the celebratory banquet by the leader of the opposition, W.T. Cosgrave and by others of political, cultural and sporting distinction who all felt it incumbent upon them to attend and celebrate in this historic national occasion. Telegrams of congratulations were also sent from Lord Craigavon, the Prime Minister of Northern Ireland, Count John McCormack and the Papal Nuncio¹. In many ways, the remarkable achievement in Los Angeles provoked the most impulsive display of genuine national unity since independence.²

Conclusion

In conclusion, the Olympic Games provide a wonderful example of inherent political concerns within the Irish Free State that ultimately stimulated sporting ideologues. The modern Olympic Games, as Richard Holt has observed, institutionalized 'the nation' in athletics from the outset. Although it has been perceived that the Olympic Games originally aimed to foster a religion of patriotism by directing the new power of national identity into constructive and peaceful channels, the real nature of Olympic sport was swiftly distorted and throughout the early twentieth century 'a nascent athletic nationalism

¹ Ibid., p. 113.

² I am greatly indebted to Dr. Fearghal McGarry for this information.

was already undermining the Olympic ideal¹. True, international sport may have been seen ambivalently as an agent of international peace in a world moving inexorably towards war, but it should also be noted that it was throughout this inter-war period, that international sport became unmistakably 'an expression of national struggle, and sportsmen representing their nation or their state, primary expressions of their imagined communities'². It is doubtful that any other event in the first decade of independence had such international significance, as did Irish participation in the Olympic Games. The Free State did not enter the world of international politics until the 1930s, and its national football team struggled to gain recognition from FIFA due to disputes over the partition of Ireland. The importance of sport to Irish 'cultural unity and national identity lay not only within the game as it was played but in the sporting occasion as a national spectacle³. Sport as physical activity and collective ritual became part of the language of nationalism, as spectator and participator shared equally in the concepts of leadership, heroism and physical strength, all within a national sporting context.⁴

¹ Holt, *Sport and the British*, p. 274; J.J. MacAloon, *This Great Symbol: Pierre de Coubertin and the origins of the modern Olympic Games* (Chicago, 1981), pp. 258-9.

² Ibid., p. 275; Eric Hobsbawm, *Nations and Nationalism since 1780* (Cambridge, 1992), p. 143.

³ Elaine Sisson, *Pearse's Patriots: St Enda's and the cult of boyhood* (Cork, 2003), p. 119.

⁴ Ibid.

SPORT PSYCHOLOGY IN THAILAND: INTRODUCTION, RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Ms Wimonmas PRACHAKUL (THA)

I. Introduction

For more than 30 years Thailand has developed and practiced sport psychology. In fact, basic sport psychology, without adherence to modern written techniques, has been practiced for even longer, ever since Thailand has had sporting competitions. For example, Muay Thai (Thai boxing) has had traditional routines and rituals before its competitions including those of paying respect to trainers, paying respect to the gods of Muay Thai, special worship to discourage your opponent or self talk with the Hanuman pattern. Due to all these traditional methods of training and competing, the participants gain confidence and concentration; this is a basic tranche of Sport Psychology. All in all, sport psychology has been performed in Thailand for long time on the superstitious side of competition.

Until Thailand undertook the first research into sport psychology in 1974 and subsequently wrote the first sport psychological advice in 1984, there had been no previous documented research or advice. This first documentation was undertaken and produced by the Physical Research Centre. In 1986 the subjects of Sports Psychology was added to the subject of Physical Education into their curriculum which is when the physical educators started to research and apply to their sport. However some physical educator's interest was limited.

Sport psychology first became popular in 1988 after Thailand didn't achieve much success in the 23rd Olympic Games. As a result, a meeting was convened to define the causes of any underachievement and better define the methods for achieving future success. Those in attendance, including the scholars, coaches, administrators, media and staff indicated the most significant factor which wasn't present in Thai competition was mental toughness. As a consequence, the sport psychology society of Thailand was established in 1991.

The major purpose of the Sport Psychology Society of Thailand (SPST) was to contribute to the discipline and training aspects of the sport psychology including research, update the content and invite experts from abroad to present lectures and to contribute research papers for experience in this area. Moreover, SPST was the centre for service sport psychology for that time; it also published the Journal of Sport Psychology.

The first time that dedicated sport psychologists were involved in preparing the Thai national team was in 1993 for the 18 th SEA games in Singapore, supported by The Sport Authority of Thailand. Also in that year, Thailand had its first sport psychology seminar for lecturers of Physical Education at colleges all around Thailand. One year later, Thailand invited expert sport psychologist Professor Muareen R. Wess from Oregon University to a second sport psychology seminar for lecturers of Physical Education. The purpose of this second seminar was to allow the participants to apply sport psychology techniques to enable better performance in Thai athletes.

In 1995, Sport Psychology was taught at the master degree level for the first time. Then, in 1999, Thailand introduced a doctoral degree course of sport psychology at Burapha University. Meanwhile sport psychologists had more requests from all of levels of athletes. The result was that the Thailand Applied Sport Psychology Association (TASPA) was established in 2000.

The major purpose of TASPAs was to apply sport psychology techniques to the athletes, including during training sessions and competitions. The TASPAs introduced specific fields to improve all the aspects of athletes' wellbeing in sport and life. Moreover, they started monthly journals to spread the methodology of how to achieve higher performance and to give up-to-date news and ideas. Also, they organized a number of seminars, including a seminar called "Applied Sport Psychology: Trends for the 21 Century".

Currently in Thailand there are two associations of Sport psychology, the Sport Psychology Society of Thailand and the Thailand Applied Sport Psychology Association. All of levels of sport science and physical education are required to study sport psychology. Moreover, Thailand has master degrees and doctoral degrees of sport psychology. The Sport Authority of Thailand support and promote dedicated sport psychologists in co-operation with professors and doctoral students from universities which is a successful formula in many sports. In addition, Thailand has sent sport psychologists to train abroad. Although Thailand has developed its sport psychology programmes after other countries, there is a strong commitment to continuing development and improvement.

II. Research

Overview of research in 30 years

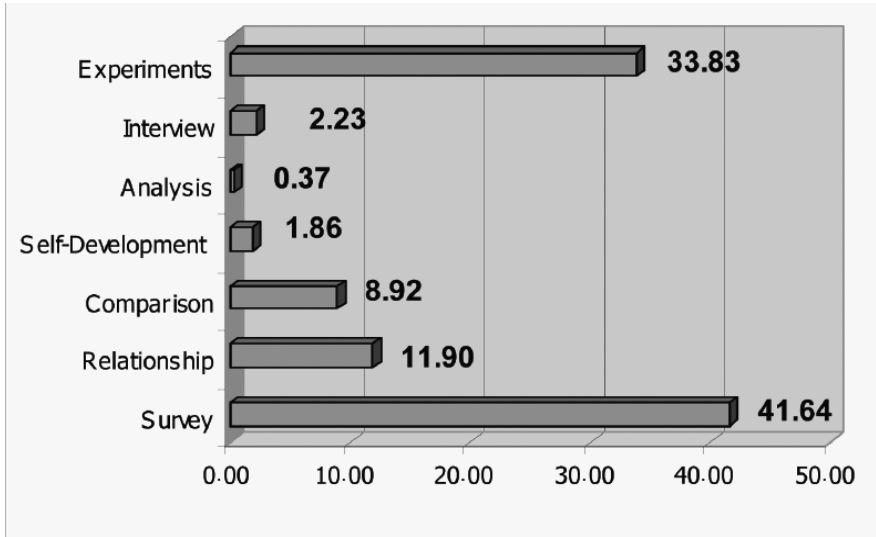
Thailand has undertaken a number of sport psychology research projects. The first such project was completed in 1975. Since then research, in the field of sports psychology has doubled in each 10 year span since then. The following is a short synopsis of the 30 years of research projects. The research projects have been divided into 3 phases: 1975-1984, 1985-1994, and 1995-2004.

In the first 10 years (1975-1984), most of the research involved motor learning. Most research focused on surveying the relationship

between the effect of playing sport on things such as socialisation, the personality of leaders, correlation between the brain and sporting performance and the factors pertaining to the selection of athletes. Some of the research experimented with specific techniques such as meditation and feedback.

Ten years later, the trend of research focused on experiments that wanted to answer the question “How to be excellent”. This involved many experiments using techniques such as imagery, role models, progressive muscle relaxation (PMR), meditation, goal setting and anxiety management. In addition, there were many in-depth research experiments specifically about imagery, including many of the procedures of this technique such as imagery for learn new skills, imagery for relaxation, imagery for build up self-confidence etc.. This research was conducted in many of sports, such as volleyball, football, tennis, table-tennis and others. Although the trend of research was toward experiments, there were also many research surveys such as personality, aggression and motivation. The most important research in this phase was a research survey regarding techniques athletes use. All this research combined resulted in sport psychology becoming an important key of success.

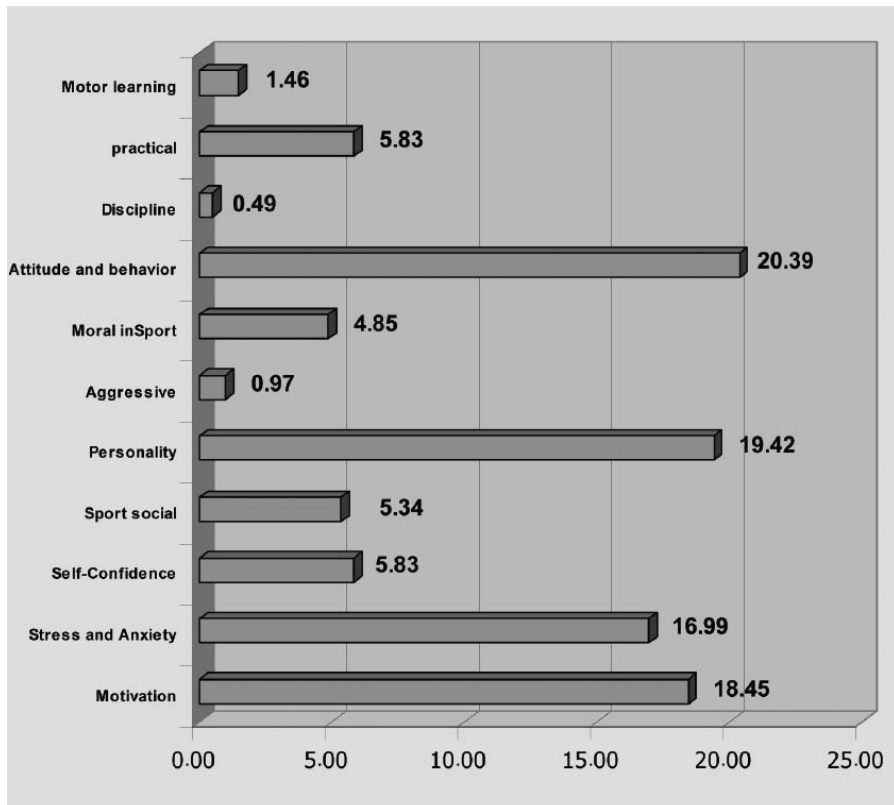
In the last 10 years, motivation research and exercise psychology research have become popular in Thailand, taking over from survey research. The research of motivation includes survey and relation factors such as achievement and motivation, adaptation and motivation and it also includes motivation research experiments. The research of exercise psychology includes survey and experiment research. However, the experimental research of sport psychology is still popular and increasingly the methods such as self-talk and persuasion. In addition, increasingly qualitative research is being used by athletes to manage their anxiety.

*Classification of Research*Table 1. The researchers' methods of sport psychology research during 30 years in Thailand.

According to statistics by W. Prachakul gathered in 2005, the researchers' most popular method of sport psychology research during the last 30 years in Thailand was the survey (41.64 percent), such as achievement motivation, personality, attitude, behavior and other. The second most popular method was experiments (33.83 percent), such as the effect of self-talk skill training on self confidence, the effect of imagery on the badminton serve. The next method was assessing the relationship between different factors (11.93 percent), such as achievement motivation and exercise behavior. The next method was comparison (8.92 percent), such as cooperation motivation in each Thai national team. The interview method had 2.23 percent. The self developmental research method (developing one's own research questionnaires) had 1.86 percent. The least used method was analysis (0.37), such as the analysis of the laws in football.

However, classifying the sport psychology research by method is a little too simplistic because one research has many purposes, such as survey, comparison and development of new research questionnaires. Thus, this research has been classified by the major method of research.

Table 2. The researchers' topic of sport psychology research during 30 years in Thailand

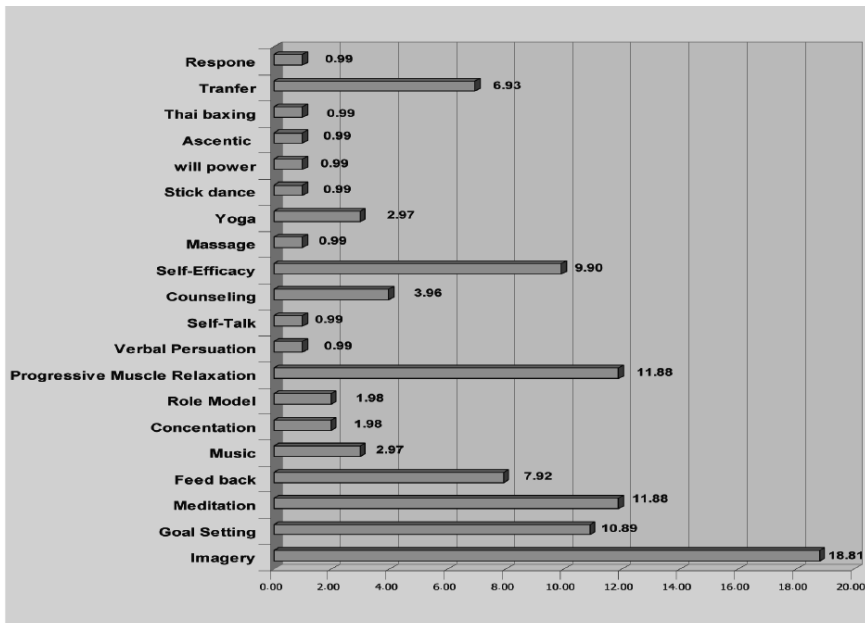


According to statistics by W. Prachakul assembled in 2005, the most popular topics of sport psychology research during the last 30 years in Thailand start with attitude and behavior (20.39 percent). The second most popular topic is the personality of athletes (19.42 percent). The

third most popular topic is motivation (18.45 percent). Next are stress and anxiety (16.99 percent) followed by practical implementation and self-confidence (5.83 percent) and then sport socialisation (5.34 percent). Finally, the least popular topics are moral in sport (4.85 percent), then discipline in sport (0.49 percent) and aggression in sport (0.97 percent)

The topics chosen for research in Thailand do not reflect every area of sport psychology research. Those subjects not covered include self-efficacy, thought pattern, commitment, burn out, group dynamic and many others. Another area which has not been developed to date is the effect of Thai culture on Thai athletes (national esteem may affect self-confidence, thought patterns etc.). In the future it will become increasingly important to consider the culture of Thailand to fit with Thai athlete's goals and objectives.

Table 3. The researchers' psychological skill training of sport psychology research during the last 30 years in Thailand



According to statistics by W. Prachakul gathered in 2005, the researchers' psychological skill training (PST) of sport psychology research during the last 30 years in Thailand, the most PST was imagery (18.81 percent). The second PST was meditation and Muscle relaxation (11.88 percent). Next PST was goal setting (10.89 percent). Next PST was self-efficacy (9.90 percent). Next PST was feedback (7.92 percent). Next PST was learning transference (6.93 percent). Next PST was sport counseling (3.96 percent). Next PST was yoga and music therapy (2.97 percent). Next PST was concentration and role model (1.98 percent). The least PST use for researchers were response time, Thai boxing, ascetic pattern, will power, stick dance, massage, self-talk and verbal persuasion (0.99 percent)

An overview of PST in sport psychology research in Thailand shows us that most researcher's use PST to improve their sport skills; they do not use PST to improve their mind. An example of this is the meditation technique to develop accuracy of shooting a basketball. A hypothesis of Thai research is that meditation technique can decrease stress and improve concentration, which will then allow the player more accuracy in their shooting. So, sport psychology research in Thailand should develop PST for enhance mental toughness.

Content analysis of stress and anxiety research

Sport psychology research in the last 30 years has had 35 research projects in stress and anxiety topic. Most of them were survey studies (24 titles) including relation factors, comparing factors and stress/anxiety management. Apart from survey research there were experiment studies (9 titles). The subjects included many levels of athletes from youth athletes, national team to high school and university teams. The detail of the stress and anxiety research were:-

Survey research

Subject	Questionnaire Stress level	
1. Triathlon	CSAI-2	low SC high
	SCAT	middle
2. Female basketbal (Under 20 yrs)	CSAI-2	SA low CA middle SC middle
3. Judo (University team)	CASI-2	middle
	STAI	middle
4. Football	CSAI-2	SA difference between CA difference position SC No difference
5. Chang Mai University team	Stress Questionnaire	middle
6. Chang Mai University team	CSAI-2	middle
	SCAT	SA low CA middle SC middle
7. Handicap athletes	CSAI-2	middle
8. University team 16th	CSAI-2	middle
9. Cu team	STAI	difference between athletes in and out of project
10. Supanburi sport school	CSAI-2	SA middle CA middle SC middle
11. Athletics	CASI-2	high
	SCAI	middle
12. University team 17th	SCAT	accuracy sport were highness
	STAI	Athletics was high

13. Team and individual	GCT	difference
Fighting sport	SCAI	dif. Classify and final
14. Athletics	SCAI	middle
	STAI	low
15. Having menstruation	STAI	difference
16. Soft ball	SCAI	difference
	STAI	difference
17. High school athletes	STAI	middle
	SCAI	middle
18. Boxing	Stress	middle and low
	Involuntary	
CSAI-2 = The Competition State Anxiety Inventory		
SCAI = Sport Competition Anxiety Test		
STAI = The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory		
GCT = General Trait Scale		
SA = Somatic Anxiety,	CA = Cognitive	SC = Self-confidence
Relation researches	Anxiety,	

The relationship between factors of stress and anxiety followed:-

Negative relation

Cognitive anxiety and somatic anxiety – self confidence

Trait anxiety and state anxiety – shoot an arrow performance and Boxing

Positive relation

State anxiety – perspective of success

No relation

The level of anxiety – shoot a gun and responsibility of training

Trait anxiety – task and ego orientation

Stress and Anxiety management

All of the researches of these topics were collected by instruction interviews and questionnaires in training and competition. The conclusion followed:

1. Middle level athletes use behavior confronts to stress problems including fixing the problems and decreasing emotion.
2. Youth athletes of Supanburi sport school adapted various methods of stress and anxiety management in order of the most frequently used, including adjusting oneself, accepting the problem, rationalization and solving problems.
3. The techniques of stress management of the Thai national team included the relaxation technique (mind and body were the most popular techniques), psychological skill training, social support, strategy in sport, recreation activities, superstitious beliefs and legal artificial stimulants such as caffeine, vitamins and nicotine. Moreover, all the techniques are the same as international team use. Although the athletes use the same techniques between the training and competition phase but in competition they use these methods more intensely than during the training phase.
4. The techniques of stress management of the youth team were different between the training and competition phase. In the training phase the techniques they used were recreational activities such as listening to music or watching movies, psychological skill training such as imagery meditation and self talk, social support from family, friends or coaches, strategy in sport such as analysing the opponent's game or changing strategy, relaxation such as massage stretching or sleeping, legal artificial stimulant use such as nicotine, caffeine and superstitious beliefs. In competition the technique they used included psychological skill training, social support, relaxation techniques (mind and body), superstitious beliefs, recreation activities, strategy in sport, and legal artificial stimulant use.

III. The practical of sport psychology

In Thailand, most sport psychologists operate under the general guidance and umbrella of the Sport Authority of Thailand for training and counseling national team. In addition, the number of sport psychologist depends on the amount of competition and the duration of training. However, some sport psychologist work by themselves, having direct contact with elite sports and elite athletes. These sports perceive sport psychology as important for them, for example the weight lifting association have sport psychologist working with them on an on –going basis. However, the number of sports and athletes to which this applies is minimal.

Although sport psychologists have become more popular for elite sports and non-elite sports, still only a few teams and athletes have their own sport psychologists. All the coaches, athletes, and administration know that they want more sport psychologists to help however their perception is that it is not necessary to have one. Moreover, some associations use the wrong people work as sport psychologist which compound initial training and competition errors. Recently, it was estimated that only 50 percent of the coaches and administration requested special services from sport psychologists in the country. The sport of weight lifting, shooting, golf, badminton, tennis, athletics, gymnastics, wind surfing, boxing, soccer and sapak –trakraw have sport psychology as part of their planned preparation for competition. Hopefully, there will be more cooperation between the sport psychologist and coaches in the future.

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EDUCATIONAL STRATEGY FOR THE PROMOTION OF OLYMPISM

Ms Ellen Ching-Er LIN (TPE)

Introduction

The paper tried to combine the concepts of Olympism, Ecological psychology, and sport psychology. The ideals and principles of Olympism are rooted in physical activities and competitive sports. Education is the process of influencing people. Physical education teachers play a role as change agents. Physical education teacher is the designer of physical education curriculum. So, it is very important to understand how to combine the concepts of Olympism, Ecological psychology, and sport psychology.

What is Olympism?

Olympism is a philosophy. The philosophy of Olympism is as follows: self-respect, self-discipline, fair play, courage, and respect for ones' opponents. There is a unique factor which distinguishes Olympism from the other philosophies. Its ideals and principles are rooted in physical activities and competitive sports (Gigliello, 1981). The goal of Olympism is to emphasize on the moral, spiritual, and physical values achieved by physical activities (Szymiczek, 1987). The International Olympic Academy (IOA) was one of de Coubertin's dreams. People who came from overseas could discuss sport and Olympic ideals with scholars of physical activities and sport in a permanent place (Gigliello, 1981).

What is physical education?

Education is the process of influencing people. In the concrete, it is a training process by instruction and study. Not only does it include the acquisition of a series of experiences, but also the adaptation and adjustment of learning processes. Education is a “doing” phenomenon particularly in the field of physical education, which is also a phase of the total educational process. The definition of physical education is as follows:

“Physical education is an educational process that has as its aim the improvement of human performance and enhancement of human development through the medium of physical activities selected to realize this outcome.” (Wuest and Bucher, 1991, p 9)

Physical education is not only concerned with the physical fitness outcomes and the acquisition of motor skills for health and well-being, but it also improves positive attitudes of personality through participation in many kinds of physical activities.

International year of sport and physical education

The resolution of the United Nations General Assembly proclaimed the year 2005 as the International Year of Sport and Physical Education. As the lead agency for sports-related activities within the United Nations, the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) plays a key role in convening Governments to advance the objective of competitive sport and physical education and to improve the general knowledge of the benefits of sport as a means to promote education in particular (United Nations, 2005a).

General of United Nations Secretary - Kofi Annan indicated:

“People in every nation love sport. Its values – fitness, fair play, teamwork, the pursuit of excellence – are universal. It can be

a powerful force for good in the lives of people devastated by war or poverty – especially children. The International Year of Sport and Physical Education is a reminder to Governments, international organizations and community groups everywhere to draw on the promise of sport to promote human rights, development and peace.” (United Nations, 2005b)

Also, Adolf Ogi who is Special Adviser to the United Nations Secretary - General on Sport for Development and Peace expressed:

“The regular practice of sport offers invaluable lessons essential for life in our societies. Tolerance, cooperation, integration are necessary to succeed in both; sport and everyday life. The fundamental values of sport are consistent with the principles of the United Nations Charter. Sport is all-inclusive, knows no barriers and is easily accessible. Together with Governments, Civil society and the United Nations system, the world of sport will help us demonstrate the value and power of sport to improve education, health, development and to reach lasting peace.” (United Nations, 2005b)

Annan also showed:

“Sport is a universal language that can bring people together, no matter what their origin, background, religious beliefs or economic status (United Nations, 2005a)

Due to the above opinions, physical activities and sports are the same kind of international language. Sometimes, it is not the most important objective to win the championship. The key point is to join in the physical activities. In fact, the process is more important than the result.

PE Teacher as change agent

One of the most important purposes of physical education curriculum during the school period must be the introduction of people to understand sports and physical education through out physical activities. This is not only from the point of view of movement skills, but also the need to enjoy physical activities and competitive sports by the design of the physical education curriculum. And the key person of designer just is the teacher who teaches physical education. So we call teacher as change agent.

According to the opinion of “affordance” of ecological psychology, Gibson (1979) believes that the setting of environment will guide human’s behavior. Competition and cooperation are two conditions in the physical activities. There is only one winner in the competitive situation. Sometime, maybe we will have the “sport star” in the competition situation. However, cooperation means to finish certain tasks with each other. For team work, people always can get more scores in the cooperation situation. Therefore, physical education teacher who designs the cooperation condition will be better than competition situation.

Strategies by way of physical education class

There are two strategy levels to promote Olympism in the physical education class. These are the cognition level and the behavior level. The first stage is the cognition level, where the idea of Olympism is introduced. On the second level, students participate in many kinds of physical activities, which are designed by PE teacher. By way of the cooperation processes behavior is improved.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF SPORT AND OLYMPIC MOVEMENT IN THE PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA (PRC)

Mr Tien-Chin TAN (TPE)

Introduction

Since Mao Zedong proclaimed the foundation of the People's Republic of China (PRC) on 1 October 1949, the policy-making of Communist China was not only dependent on the ideology of the elite, but also the international relations, especially the pressure from the Superpower countries, such as the US and the USSR (Cumings 1983: 6). Hence, for the PRC, the relation between the Chinese sports and the Olympic Movement is very possible to be affected by both of the international structure and the Chinese political elites which could possibly influence the way the Chinese government responded to the Olympic Movement and the meaning of the Olympic Movement the PRC transformed.

Basically, this study is a heart of big study of the changing relationship between China and the international sport community, and theoretical literature I am using to help analyze that relationship is derived from the globalisation literatures. The key research questions in this paper are as follows: (1) To what extent the Chinese government has a choice in its relationship with sport globalisation; (2) To what extent can it manage its interaction with sport globalisation; (3) To what extent is it really pushed by some unstoppable tide of sport and

economic globalisation. Hence, these big research questions will come out of this analysis.

The central arguments of this paper are thus fourfold. It starts by looking at the pre Mao Zedong (1949-1965), which sought to woo with the Soviet Union against the capitalists. Secondly, it offers the illustration of the post Mao Zedong (1966-1976), which initiated the Cultural Revolution and subsequently isolated PRC to the outside world. Thirdly, it portrays the era of Deng Xiaoping (1977-1992), which practiced the 'open door policy' in order to develop the relationship with the world capitalism. Finally, the attention is devoted to the period of Jiang Zemin (1993-2004), which was able to participate in the World Trade Organisation (WTO) and thus to integrate with the World economic system.

1. The pre Mao Zedong (1949-1965)

When the PRC was founded in 1949, the former Soviet Union was a model in virtually every field because it was the first powerful communist state in the world. Thus, Mao Zedong put forth the policy of "leaning to one side," cooperating with the socialist countries against the imperialists (Dong, 2003: 35; Ness and Raichur, 1983: 83). Since PRC adopted the policy of "leaning to one side," The Soviet influence in Chinese sport was almost everywhere (Hwang, 2002: 121; Dong, 2003: 14). Nevertheless, obsequious copying was not abandoned until 1958, when the relationship between the USSR and China began to deteriorate, especially after Soviet experts withdrew from China in 1960 (Dong, 2003: 36). In order to break through the block of diplomacy from the United States and its allies, China attempted to win international recognition through the success of elite sports. Therefore, the initiative of Olympic Movement in PRC has been full of political and diplomatic meaning, which can be seen from the cases of the issue of 'two Chinas' in the Olympics and the Games of the Newly Emerging Forces (GANEFO I).

China's involvement in the Olympic Movement can be traced back to the 1920s when Mr. WANG Zhenting, a high ranking diplomat and sports leader under the government ROC was selected as the first Chinese IOC member in 1922 (Ren, 2002: 7). At the same time, China's National Amateur Athletic Federation (CNAAF) was recognized by the IOC as the Chinese Olympic Committee. In 1949, most of the Chinese Olympic Committee members fled to Taiwan with the ROC government¹, maintained contact with the IOC and claimed jurisdiction over Olympic affairs both in the mainland and Taiwan. However, ROC's claim was challenged by the PRC, since the CNAFF was still based in Nanjing and it was recognized and renamed in October 1949 as All-China Sports Federation (ACSF) which claimed its jurisdiction over all Chinese Olympic activities. However, both federations were affiliated with the corresponding international federations, which in turn sought recognition from the IOC (Hwang, 2002: 155; Fan and Xiong, 2003: 320).

In fact, reminded by the ambassador of the former Soviet Union, China started participating in the Olympic Games in 1952 and regarded it not a sporting issue but a political matter because it was another manifestation of the cold war (Fan and Xiong, 2003: 320-321). Due to the political and diplomatic purposes, the PRC started contact with the IOC in February 1952 and ACSF sent a message to the IOC expressing its wish to participate in the 1952 Helsinki Olympics. After much internal debate, the IOC adopted a proposal permitting both committees to participate in the 1952 Helsinki Olympics, which led

¹ During that time, there were 26 members in Chinese Olympic Committee and 19 of them fled to Taiwan with the ROC government. There were also three Chinese IOC members, Mr. WANG Zhenting (王正廷) living in Hong Kong, KONG Xiang Xi (孔祥熙) residing in U.S. and Dong Shouyi (董守義) staying in mainland China. The former two of them were representing Taiwan with the ROC government (Hill, 1996: 44).

Taiwan to withdraw from these Games and offered PRC's athletes a good opportunity, for the first time, to participate in the Olympics (Hwang, 2002: 155).

In 1954, the IOC finally made a decision to recognise two separate NOCs: Beijing-China and Taiwan-China (Fan and Xiong, 2003: 323-324; Hwang, 2002: 156; Ren, 2002: 8; Hill, 1996: 45); therefore, the issue of 'two China' was created. However, Beijing not only refused to accept the IOC solution but also continually requested that Taiwan's membership should be annulled. Avery Brundage, then the president of IOC, rejected the request of Beijing and argued: 'Sport has nothing to do with politics' (Espy, 1979: 104-105). Disappointed by the IOC's decision with the 'two Chinas' issue, the PRC withdrew from membership of the IOC (Fan and Xiong, 2003: 326; Espy, 1979: 63; Hill, 1996: 46) and nine other international sporting organisations in protest the 'two China' policy in 1958 (Hwang, 2002: 156; Fan and Xiong, 2003: 326; Dong, 2003: 15). In addition, following the PRC split with the Soviet Union during the 1960s, Constantin Andrianov, the Soviet IOC member, apparently stopped pressuring the IOC to expel Taiwan (Fan and Xiong, 2003: 332; Espy, 1979: 109). Lacking the support from the Soviet Union, PRC attempted to seek new friends among the countries of the Third World. The opportunity came in 1962 during the Asian Games (Fan and Xiong, 2003: 327).

In 1962 President Sukarno of Indonesia took advantage of hosting the 4th Asian games as a means to strengthen his own position among the newly emerging forces of Asia, Africa and Latin America that were 'struggling against capitalism and trying to create a new world order'. For Sukarno, Communist China was a useful ally in this endeavour (Fan and Xiong, 2003: 327). Hence, persuaded by the PRC insisting on its one China policy, Sukarno government blocked Taiwan from joining the 4th Asian Games. Due to Sukarno's political action, the IOC and the international federations immediately stated that they

would not recognize the 4th Games, as they could not tolerate a sports movement whose aim was political (Fan and Xiong, 2003: 328). However, prompted by diplomatic and political ambitions, the PRC fully supported Sukarno government to organize a new games called Games of the Newly Emerging Forces (GANEFO) in which the Chinese government would give the Indonesians an US\$18 million gift for the games and pay the transportation costs of all the delegations at GANEFO (Fan and Xiong, 2003: 329). Hence, the PRC stated in October 1962 that GANEFO would help develop sport in Asia and Africa and combat the 'forces of imperialism and sports organisations manipulated by imperialist countries' (Fan and Xiong, 2003: 330).

But, it raised some questions about the beneficial result of diplomacy through sports. Did China substantially benefit from the policy of sports diplomacy? Did it truly break through the block of diplomacy from America and its alliances? Was it successful to challenge the authority of IOC by supporting the Games of the Newly Emerging Forces (GANEFO)? And they will be discussed in more detail in the post Mao Zedong.

2. The post Mao Zedong (1966-1976)

Mao Zedong initiated the 'Cultural Revolution' (1966-1976) to prevent the Chinese Revolution from degenerating in the same way that Mao believed the Soviet revolution had done, such as Khrushchev's alleged appeasement of America and De-Stalinization (Hwang, 2002: 135; Cumings, 1983: 7). In addition, Mao attempted to re-establish the ideological purity of Communism threatened by revisionists and capitalists, and to recreate unpolluted Mao Zedong thought (Fan and Xiong, 2003: 333; Macfarquhar 1997: 2; Dong, 2003: 75; Ness and Raichur, 1983: 81). In fact, the outcome was a chaotic and violent political upheaval (Fan and Xiong, 2003: 333) and according to Anne McEwen (1987: 61-2) the year 1976 saw China's national economy in a desperate situation.

In the Cultural Revolution, sports were discontinued twice – 1966-1969 and 1974-1976 (Hwang, 2002: 143) affected by the Red Guard movement and the ‘Gang of Four’ separately. During the period 1966-1969, sport development was damaged and sports officials suffered both mentally and physically due to competitive games were condemned by Mao (Chang, 1993: 494, as quoted in Hwang, 2002: 136). To seek to end China’s diplomatic isolation, sports were supported and restored by Zhou Enlai in 1971 (Hwang, 2002: 143; Fan, 2001: 158). Within the campaign to ‘Criticize Lin Biao, criticize Confucius’, the ‘Gang of Four’ took over the sports system which set sports back again.

Affected by leftists during the early Cultural Revolution, the strategy of PRC, by uniting Third World and supporting GANEFO to challenge the Olympic movement, were disrupted, but its latent hazard involving in potential boycott of Olympic Movement from African countries was seized with deep concern by the IOC. The policies of sports diplomacy were not sustained and renovated by Zhou Enlai until the early 1970s due to terminating China’s diplomatic isolation. Through the ‘ping-pong diplomacy’, China did not only take up China’s seat on the Security Council in the UN and pave a way for President Nixon to visit Beijing but improve diplomatic relations with Non-Communist Countries, helping China rejoin Olympic Movement used to refrain Taiwan from international diplomacy. But how did it happen to achieve the victory of diplomacy by sports during the Chinese chaotic years? Did the triumph help PRC overcome the ‘two China’ issues?

Since the PRC viewed itself as the champion for the Third World in the 1960s, Chinese government had contributed lots of foreign aid to developing countries, including Indonesian and Cambodia which held GANEFO I and the Asian GANEFO separately. Like GANEFO itself, the Asian GANEFO was designed as an alternative Games and

was strategically timed to take place at the same time as the Olympic sanctioned Asian Games (Espy, 1979: 109). If African countries due to the case of South Africa practicing apartheid turned down Olympic Movement and took part in GANEFO, it would force the superpowers and their satellites to take action commensurate with their interests in Africa in which the potential for destruction of the Olympic movement was very great indeed (Espy, 1979: 110). Although GANEFO perished finally, it had posed a real threat to the Olympic Movement (Espy, 1979: 110) and the PRC, partly, had achieved its initiative for challenging the authority of the IOC.

This diplomatic isolation began to change when PRC started 'Ping Pong Diplomacy' (Hwang, 2002: 156) in which Mao agreed with Premier Zhou Enlai's suggestion to send the Chinese table tennis team to Japan in March-April 1971 with the famous slogan 'Friendship First, Competition Second' (Wu, 1999: 238, as quoted in Hwang, 2002: 156; Fan and Xiong, 2003: 334-335). At these championships the Chinese invited the American delegation to a series of exhibition matches in China. These matches set the stage for the round of negotiations between the PRC and United States, culminating in the visit of President Nixon the following year (Espy, 1979: 147; Dong, 2003: 86-87; Cheng, 1976: 160). The improvement of Sino-US bilateral relationship not only helped PRC acquire a seat of the Security Council in UN but also led Sino-Japan to establish full diplomatic relations in 1973.

Actually, the carefully calculated initiatives of the 'Ping Pong Diplomacy', step-by-step rapprochement by the Chinese with the world sport and the world at large, (Espy, 1979: 147) were not including only in U.S. and Japan but in the whole world except the USSR. Benefited from the 'Ping Pong Diplomacy', China could rejoin the Olympic movement with the "friendship's assistance" of other countries, such as Japan, Zambia, Iran and Canada... and undermine Taiwan's international diplomacy through sports.

With the proposition of Japan and Iran, just prior to the Olympic Congress in October 1973, the Asian Games Federation voted to admit the PRC to the Tehran Asian Games and to expel Taiwan (Hill, 1996: 47; Espy, 1979: 149). After that, the fever of friendships with PRC had been enlarged to the Olympic Congress by the delegates of Japan and Zambia who were in favor of including China in the IOC in which both countries claimed that 'it is a shame that a country with one-fourth of the world's population is excluded from the world of sports' (Espy, 1979: 149).

Again, based on friendships, more federations recognized the PRC. In April 1975, the PRC made a formal application to rejoin the IOC (Hwang, 2002: 156). Its condition of entry was that Taiwan must be expelled from the IOC and the ACSF must be affirmed to be the sole sports organisation representing the whole China. Although the IOC was naturally reluctant to admit that a sporting decision should be governed by political arguments in which the PRC became a member of the UN while Taiwan was not (Hwang, 2002: 157; Espy, 1979: 151; Hill, 1996: 48), it still had to face the pressure from more and more countries desiring to have friendships with PRC.

In short, during the Cultural Revolution China, dexterously and amply, took advantages from the non-political image of sports to defy the authority of IOC dominated by the West countries at first, then to win friendships from non-communist countries to raise its global influence, particularly in the UN, and rejoin Olympic movement again later. Although China did achieve greatly in the policies of sports diplomacy, it did not help solve the controversy of the 'two China' issues until Deng Xiaoping practiced the open-door policy and brought up the slogan of 'One Country, Two System's. And they will be discussed in the era of Deng Xiaoping.

3. The era of Deng Xiaoping (1977-1992)

After 1978, under Deng Xiaoping, the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) began with a 'opening to the outside' (duiwai kaifang) policy known as the 'open door' policy which implied not only an economic involvement with the capitalist world – through trade, investment and technology transfer – but also an opening to ideas and cultural forms originating in the West (Knight, 2003: 318; Ness and Raichur, 1983: 85). To pave the way for the open door policy, Sino-American formal relationship was established in early 1978 (Cumings, 1983: 7; Hill, 1996: 35). And Deng Xiaoping, during visiting the United States in 1979, stated the policy of "one country, two systems" to release the tension between Taiwan and China, and between China and America as well (Jia, 2002: 120-1). However, the policies of economic reform and opening up were not wholly implemented until Deng's south China remarks in 1992.

Following the radical process of China's modernization, Chinese sports development entered a new era (Hwang, 2002: 139; Dong, 2003: 97-100) in which the sports systems were gradually decentralized, rationalized and commercialized. But, affected by the desire for Olympic success in which Deng Xiaoping claimed 'Promoting sport for the nation's pride' (Hwang, 2002:147), the Chinese government invested about 80-85 percent of the national sports budget in the elite sports (Wu, 1999: 310-2) for achieving Olympic glory.

Inspired by the Deng's the doctrine of 'One country, two system', Communist China changed its attitude to allow Taiwan joining the Olympic Movement under the condition of using the name of territory of being part of PRC (Wu, 1999: 252-256). In June 1979, the IOC executive committee meeting in Puerto Rico confirmed China's Olympic committee's title as the 'Chinese Olympic Committee' and recommended that Taiwan should stay in the IOC as the Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee' with a different national anthem and flag

(Hwang, 2002: 159), which was accepted at the Nagoya meeting of the IOC (Hill, 1996: xiv, 52-3; Xinhua Yuebao, December 1979: 111, as quoted in Hwang, 2002: 159; Ren, 2002:8).

Due to Taiwan losing the UN's seat, disrupting the normal relationship with the US and facing the new IOC President, Juan Antonio Samaranch favoring the PRC (Hill, 1996: 51), Taiwan was forced to change its name to the 'Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee' and adopt a new flag and emblem in April 1981 (Hwang, 2002: 159; Hill, 1996: 53). Since then, PRC successfully established the "Olympic Model". According to Wu Shaozu (1999: 252-3) and Ren Hai (2002: 8), it was also, in a sense, the first symbol for the "One country, two systems" policy, and it, once again, embodied significantly the political function of sport after the 'Ping Pong Diplomacy'.

After solving the 'Two Chinas' Issue, the PRC returned to the Los Angeles Olympic Games in August 1984 which was the first time the PRC took part in the Olympics after the 1952 Olympic Games in Helsinki (Hwang, 2002: 154; Dong, 2003: 32). At this Olympics, PRC came fourth. According to Fan Hong (2001: 159), Ren Hai (2002: 10), and Dong Jinxia (2003: 2003: 16), this sports victory provoked an intense nationalism and patriotism among the Chinese and vitalized Chinese ambition to become a world sporting power. But in the 1988 Olympic Games, Chinese athletes' poor performance led the sport minister, Li Menghua to be removed from his position (Dong, 2003: 149) and caused dramatic adjustment in the future National Games. The National Sport Commission announce that the results of the 1992 Olympic Games would be incorporated into the scoring system of the 1993 National Games (Dong, 2003: 122) in which performance was and is an exclusive prerequisite and criterion for budget and bonus allocation (Dong, 2003: 148). Benefited from the new policy, the PRC won 16 Olympic gold medals and came fourth in the medal count at the Barcelona Games in 1992.

Actually, the Olympic-orientation policy produced quite positive results in terms of the China's performances at the Olympic Games as the table 1~3 shows. And the Olympic Movement in the PRC during the era of Deng had gradually been transformed its original meaning and moved toward Chinese patriotism and commercialism as argued by Fan Hong (1998: 156-60). And the bid of 2000 Olympic Games would be good examples.

To distract attention from the 1989 Tiananmen incident, the 1990 Asian Games in Beijing, being the first time for China to organise a large international sport meeting similar to the Olympic Games (Ren, 2002: 10), was well prepared (Brownell, 1990: 295). Actually, the success of hosting 1990 Asian Games not only aspired China to but also set a footstone for the 2000 Olympic Bids. The key actor behind the screen for 2000 Olympic Bids was Deng Xiaoping (Du, 2004: 62) who envisaged the use of the Beijing facilities of the Asian Games for the Olympic Games in which China could widely open up to the outside world (Theodoraki, 2004: 205; Du, 2004: 62). The reasons for China to bid the 2000 Olympics could be numerous but the core parts would be promoting Chinese nationalism and benefiting the huge domestic and international market (Du, 2004: 62). Actually, hosting an Olympic Games is viewed as a way of projecting an image of a city and a country to a global audience and advertising them to an increasingly accessible world market, especially after the demise of the Cold War and the revolution in global telecommunications (Brownell, 1995: 313).

Although the bidding itself was fruitless, it did inform the Chinese about the Olympic Movement, Olympism and the Olympic Games (Ren, 2002:10). Due to desiring to embrace the Olympic movement, in some extent, for arousing national identity and facilitating economic development, China never gave up to host the Olympics and it did win a bid for the 2008 Olympic Games, which will be discussed in the era of Jiang Zemin.

4. The era of Jiang Zemin (1993-2004)

After Jiang Zemin held concurrently the top three posts in Party, military, and state apparatus in March 1993 (Fewsmith, 1997: 510), Zhu Rongji was appointed to cope with these growing economic problems (Zheng, 1999: 1168; Fewsmith, 1997: 511). According to Joseph Fewsmith (1997: 512), indeed, Zhu's approach to economic reform and political control appears modeled after that of Park Chung-hee or Lee Kuan Yew, favoring strong state control combined with marketized economy (Fewsmith, 1997: 512; Zheng, 1999: 1168). Actually, since opening to the outside world, China's real growth during 1978-97 was at an annual rate of 9.8% (Zheng, 1999: 1157). But affected by the Asian economic crisis in 1997, China moved to more forcefully integrate its own economy with the global economy (Knight, 2003: 326). In fact, Chinese leaders, such as Jiang Zemin, Zhu Rongji and Wen Jiabao (Former Chinese Vice-Premier), all appreciate that entry into the WTO will not only provide new momentum for China's economic reforms and opening to the external world but also help them overcome the resistance to reform from vested interests (Cheng, 2003:262; Knight, 2003: 327-8).

Following the acceptance of a market economy, Chinese sport increased its involvement in international sport, especially in the Olympic movement, much deeper than before. In order to take advantage of participation in the Olympic movement having huge commercial potential behind and to keep away from its Olympic spirit – freedom, democracy and fair play (Fan, 1998: 162) to imperil CCP's political legitimacy, Chinese government has to manage its engagement with the Western movement. But the question is 'How did Chinese government benefit from this goldmine and be intact of CCP's political power at the same time?' Before answering the question, we should clarify these questions below. What is the Chinese government's strategy for preparing the Olympics? How did

government response to the doping scandal of Chinese athletes? And what kind of purpose for Beijing government to bid and host Olympic Games? To understand the questions above, this section will focus on several topics below, such as the increasing importance of Olympic success, China's anti-doping issues and hosting the Olympic Games.

Why are Olympic gold medals so important for the PRC? The major reasons should be the political statement and national pride. Wu Shaozu, Sports Minister from 1989 to 2000, claimed: 'Athletes have shouldered heavy responsibilities. They are our political ambassadors' (Fan and Xiong, 2003: 335). And 'The highest goal of Chinese sport is success in the Olympic Games. We must concentrate our resources on it. To raise the flag at the Olympics is our major responsibility' (Fan, 1998: 159).

To achieve Olympic success, Chinese government issued two Olympic glory projects, 'The Olympic Glory' project (1994-2000) and 'The Olympic Glory' project (2001-2010), to set a guideline for concentrating their resources to win the Olympic glory. Not surprisingly, guiding by the two projects in which Chinese government at least invested 70% elite sport budget (Chen, 2004: 78) and supplemented the rest of resource by the sport commercial incomes (Wu, 1999: 582-3; Jones, 1999: 5), the PRC gradually achieved its goal to be one of the world's sports powers since its Olympic gold medal rank is rising from the fourth at Atlanta in 1996 to the second at Athens in 2004.

In addition, to make up the shortage of the sport budget, in June 1993, the NSC held a conference entitled, 'The Urgent Promotion and Development of Sports Business', to call for the urgent promotion and development of sports commercial markets (Fan, 1997: 350). After that, the benefits of sponsorship have been recognized and almost every sport team, so far, in provincial and national level are sponsored by the big companies, such as Adidas, Mizuno, Nike, Philip Morris, British American Tobacco, Coca-Cola and Ericsson (Hwang, 2002: 150; Fan, 1997: 346).

In short, after 1993, Chinese government is adopting western approaches, western sport and western commercialism to promote its ideology of patriotism, collectivism and socialism with Chinese characteristics (Hwang, 2002: 167; Wu, 1999: 580-1) and raise its national pride as well. And it seems likely that Chinese leaders are still trying to strengthen their ideological control over the people by reinterpreting the meaning of the Olympic glory. However, the Chinese anti-doping issues in which the reputation of sport superpower was based on the drug abuse shadowed the Olympic glory.

Affected by sport commercialism and the medal-oriented sports policy (Dong, 2003: 17), the drug abuse was recurring and spreading from domestic to international and from top elite athletes to young, inexperienced athletes in the 1990s (Dong, 2003: 145), which gradually evolved into a complicated political and international event. Under the huge pressure from the outside world, Chinese government was forced to take several measures to response the pressure, including setting out tough penalties, issuing the Sports Law to fight against drug abuse, proclaiming against the drug abuse by top political leaders. After 2004 Olympic Games in Athens, China has gradually diluted its stigma of drug abuse because of all 150 urine tests carried out on Chinese athletes in Athens, none was positive. And David Howman, director general of the World Anti-Doping agency, has said he is convinced the Chinese government has done everything in its power to stop it (Wollaston, 2004).

Basically, the problems of drug abuse were taken seriously by the Chinese government after evolving into a political and international issue. But the question is for what reason that the stigma could be diluted so quickly after 1999. One of the reasons should be related to the bid for and the host of the 2008 Olympic Games.

The reasons for hosting the Olympic Games, from the perspective of the PRC's political elites, were full of political motivations. As President

Jiang Zemin stated: 'The bid was made to further China's domestic stability and economic prosperity. The quest for the Olympics was to raise national morale and strengthen the cohesion of the Chinese people both in the mainland and overseas' (Dong, 2003: 122). To serve the political needs, it was not surprised that China attempted to bid once again for the 2008 Olympics in September 1993 (COC: 2004a). Beijing's second endeavour in bidding for the Olympics had a sweet result in which China won the right to host the 2008 Olympic Games announced on 13th July 2000 (Ren, 2002:11; COC: 2004b). To show its determination to host the Beijing Olympics, Chinese government issued a central document to proclaim that to hold the greatest Olympic Games is the collective mission for CCP, government and citizens (Chen, 2004: 78). Hence, The slogans for the Beijing Olympic organisers are, as they declared, to host a "Green Olympics", a "Hi-tech Olympics" and the "People's Olympics" (COC: 2004b; Ren, 2002: 11). And the Beijing city government said over the next five years it would spend a total of nearly \$22 billion in improving related environment and facilities (Costello, 2001: 35; Theodoraki, 2004: 206) which had attracted international companies coming from US, European and Australian to go for it (French News Agency 2001, Theodoraki, 2004: 206).

In short, since accepting the market economy, Chinese government attempted to deal with the political and economic issues in a separate way. In other words, China seems to adopt the approach of political socialism and economic capitalism to face the challenge from the outside world. When it comes to economic capitalism, sport commercialism is regarded as a good way to support elite sport system for the Olympic glory. But when it comes to political socialism, the Olympic success for both participating and hosting Olympics is regarded as a political statement in which socialism is better than capitalism. Hence, the Olympic movement in the era of Jiang Zemin seems to have transformed its meaning into commercialism and nationalism at the same time.

Conclusion

From the Chinese sport historical context, the preliminary conclusions of this paper are thus threefold. Firstly, it seems to emphasize the close relationship between the broader social-economic-political circumstances in China. And the impact they have both is internally on domestic sport policy and externally on international sport policy. The sport is deeply affected by broad government policy in other areas. Secondly, the relation between Chinese sports and the Olympic Movement was conflictual in the era of the Cultural Revolution and was much more participative after Deng's era because the attitudes and values of the elites of Chinese Communist Party (CCP) toward competitive sports were changed. Thirdly, the meaning of the Olympic Movement was transformed into nationalism and commercialism because of the 'open door policy'. Hence, it is not hard to image that the PRC would take the advantage of the 2008 Beijing Games that is possibly a political game for raising Chinese nationalism and a commercial game for benefiting the huge domestic and international market because it, after all, would not simply be a sporting issue, but a political and economic matter.

Table 1. Summary of China's Participation in the Olympic Games since 1952

Year	No.	Venue	Partici- pants	Events Competed	Medals Won	The Rank
1952 July 29-Aug. 7	15th	Helsinki (Finland)	40	Swimming	0	
1984 July 28-Aug. 12	23rd	Los Angeles (US)	304 (224 Ath- letes)	Archery, Athletics, Basketball, Canoeing, Cycling, Fencing, Gymnastics, Handball, Judo, Rowing, Shooting, Swimming, Tennis, Volleyball, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Yachting. (17)	15 Golds 8 Silvers 9 Bronzes	4
1988 Sep. 17-Oct. 2	24th	Seoul (South Korea)	445 (298 Ath- letes)	Archery, Athletics, Basketball, Boxing, Canoeing, Cycling, Fencing, Gym- nastics, Handball, Judo, Modern Pen- tathlon, Rowing, Shooting, Soccer, Swimming, Table Tennis, Tennis, Volleyball, Weight- lifting, Wrestling, Yachting, Badmin- ton (Demonstra- tion), Women's Judo (Demonstra- tion). (23)	5 Golds 11 Silvers 12 Bronzes	11

1992 July 25-Aug. 9	25th	Barcelona (Spain)	380 (250 Ath- letes)	Archery, Athletics, Badminton, Basketball, Boxing, Canoeing, Cycling, Fencing, Gymnastics, Judo, Modern Pentathlon, Rowing, Shooting, Swimming, Table Tennis, Tennis, Volleyball, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Yachting (20)	16 Golds 22 Silvers 16 Bronzes	4
1996 Aug.	26th	Atlanta (US)	495 (310 Ath- letes)	Archery, Athletics, Badminton, Basketball, Boxing, Canoeing, Cycling, Fencing, Football, Gymnastics, Handball, Judo, Rowing, Shooting, Softball, Swimming, Table Tennis, Tennis, Volleyball, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Yachting (22)	16 Golds 22 Silvers 12 Bronzes	4

2000 Sept. 15- Oct. 1	27th	Sydney (Australia)	452 (284 Ath- letes)	Archery, Athlet- ics, Badminton, Basketball, Boxing, Canoeing, Cycling, Field Hockey, Fencing, Football, Gymnastics, Hand- ball, Judo, Rowing, Shooting, Softball, Swimming, Table Tennis, Tennis, Volleyball, Wres- tling, Weightlifting, Yachting (23)	28 Golds 16 Silvers 15 Bronzes	3
2004 Aug. 14-Aug. 29	28th	Athens (Greece)	637 (407)	Aquatics, Archery, Athletics, Bad- minton, Baseball, Basketball, Boxing, Canoe, Cycling, Field Hockey, Fencing, Foot- ball, Gymnastics, Handball, Judo, Modern Pen- tathlon, Rowing, Shooting, Softball, Table Tennis, Tae Kwon Do, Tennis, Triathlon, Vol- ley-ball, Wrestling, Weight-lifting, Equestrian (28)	32 Golds 17 Silvers 14 Bronzes	2

As adapted from Hai Ren (2002), China and the Olympic Movement, Center d'Estudis Olímpics (UAB), International Chair in Olympism (IOC-UAB)

Table 2. Summary of China's Participation in the Winter Olympic Games since 1980

Year	No.	Venue	Partici- pants	Medals Won	The Rank
1980 Feb 13-24	13rd	Lake Pacid (US)	(28 Athletes)	0	
1984 Feb 8-19	14th	Sarajevo (Yugoslavia)	(37 Athletes)	0	
1988 Feb 13-28	15th	Calgary (Canada)	(20 Athletes)		
1992 Feb 8-23	16th	Albertville (France)	(34 Athletes)	3 Silvers	15
1994	17th	Lillehammer (Norway)	(27 Athletes)	1 Silver 2 Bronzes	19
1998 Feb 7-22	18th	Nagano (Japan)		6 Silvers 2 Bronzes	16
2002 Feb 9-25	19th	Salt Lake City (US)	(72 Athletes)	2 Golds 2 Silvers 4 Bronzes	13
2006 Feb 10-26	20th	Turin (Italy)			

Table 3. Summary of China's Participation in the Paralympic Summer Games since 1984

Year	No.	Venue	Medals Won	The Rank
1984 June 16-30 July 22-Aug. 1	7th	Stoke Mandeville (UK) New York (US)	2 Golds 12 Silvers 8 Bronzes	23
1988 Oct. 15-24	8th	Seoul (South Korea)	17 Golds 17 Silvers 9 Bronzes	14
1992 Sep 3-14	9th	Barcelona (Spain)	11 Golds 7 Silvers 7 Bronzes	12
1996 Aug.16-25	10th	Atlanta (US)	16 Golds 13 Silvers 10 Bronzes	9
2000 Oct. 18-29	11th	Sydney (Australia)	34 Golds 22 Silvers 17 Bronzes	6
2004 Sep. 17-28	12th	Athens (Greece)	63 Golds 46 Silvers 32 Bronzes	1

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OLYMPIC EDUCATION IN JAPAN – AN APPROACH AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TSUKUBA¹

Mr Toshiyuki OKEYA (JPN)

Introduction

What is the purpose of Olympic Movement? It is to spread the Olympic idea, Olympism, among global societies. Another question is also submitted to us here: what is Olympism? What is the core of the Olympic Movement? The new Olympic Charter enforced from September 2004 says “Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind” (p. 9). And its goal is “to place sport at the service of the harmonious development of man, with a view to promoting a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of human dignity” (*ibid.*). That is to say, the Olympic Movement is a cultural and educational movement which seeks to materialize and realize highly harmonious and peaceful societies with sport or physical activity as a base. Part of the movement

¹ I thank Dr. S.Shimizu, whose special lecture and theses on Coubertin and his Olympism helped me to arrange my understanding of Olympism. I also thank the staff of the Olympic Movement Laboratory at the University of Tsukuba, especially Assistant Professor S.Sanada and Assistant Professor H.Saga, who are the leaders. Daily discussion with them over the Olympics and Olympism always gave me important stimulation. Prof. Dr. A.Niehaus kindly corrected my English and gave me some comments; any mistakes are, of course, my responsibility.

is the Olympic Games, which is a very influential means of spreading Olympism throughout the world. Through the festivals we can feel the spirituality of Olympism the world over with help of media (TV, internet etc.). Yet, this view is generally not common, at least in Japan.

This paper reports a new attempt of the Olympic Movement in Japan, the Olympic Education at the University of Tsukuba, and then examines the effectiveness of the Olympic Movement in Japan.

1. The Olympic Movement in Japan

Before introducing the new approach, let us examine an historical account of the Olympic Movement in Japan. Two reports concerning the history give us much information: 'Histories of the Olympic Movement in Japan' (1) and (2).¹ According to these sources, the Olympic Movement in Japan up to early 1990's can be summed up as follows: 1) to promote sports' development (institutions, facilities etc.) expecting top athletes to achieve great success in the world championships or the Olympic Games; 2) to distinguish professional from amateur athletes very strictly. Concerning the last point we may find strong influence from A.Brundage, IOC President up to 1972. Although the people concerned did know the word, Olympism, it seems that essential parts of this philosophy were misunderstood or overlooked. Yet, another possibility is that Olympism was confused with Amateurism. In any case, it is true that sports in Japan have been developed by the movement for better or worse, therefore we cannot deny them absolutely. It is, however, also true that the Japanese Olympic Movement had not continued to emphasize its cultural and educational aspect consistently.

¹ The Historical Research Section of Japanese Society of Physical Education (ed.): *Japanese Journal of the History of Physical Education*, 9, 1992, pp. 45-62, and 10, 1993, pp. 63-92 [written in Japanese].

Actual practice of such the Olympic Movement was carried out when the Olympic Games were held in Japan: 1964 in Tokyo, 1972 in Sapporo and 1998 in Nagano. Indeed, Olympic Education was carried out at each time; these were, however, in the consequence of preparation for the Games. In short, consistent Olympic Education didn't exist in Japan. We can say that practical research on Olympism in Japan has just started in recent years.

It is mainly the role of the Japan Olympic Academy (JOA) to seek a greater understanding of Olympism and try to realize it in Japan. According to the proceedings of the 25th anniversary session of JOA¹, the activities of JOA up to now are summed up as following three points (p. 71):

- 1) JOA has promoted many young people's participation in the IOA sessions to increase supporters of the Olympic Movement.
- 2) JOA has continued to ask the question whether the Olympic Movement is necessary to Japanese society during each JOA sessions.
- 3) JOA has addressed the challenge of spreading the Olympic Movement.
- 4) It may be argued that the JOA's activities as shown above still remain local, and so greater efforts to appeal to the entire society and public must be undertaken.

Here we should consider what to do in practice in order to accomplish the goal of spreading Olympism. I believe that education is a possible and efficient method of spreading those values. History tells us that it is impossible that a drastic change in a society happens

¹ JOA and Olympic Movement Office in University of Tsukuba (ed.): *The Olympic Movement in Asia. Proceedings of the 25th Anniversary Session of the Japan Olympic Academy*, 2004 [written in Japanese and English].

suddenly. Let us consider the French Revolution, for instance. People tend to pay attention to the fact that monarchy was overthrown and a new political system, republic, was established. However, according to Tocqueville¹ and Furet² whose socio-historical researches on the French Revolution cover not only the revolutionary era but also the era before, i.e. eighteenth century, it can be understood that various changes, especially concerning economical and social aspects initiated this revolution. Such changes must have altered the people's views or attitude toward the world. The establishment of republic can be considered as a result of such various changes. It must have played a great role that these social and cultural changes showed the people alternatives other than monarchy. That is to say, it is the change of the individuals' mind or way of thinking which has potential to change societies. Through examination the importance of education is recognized: education is able to lead to and to support social changes.

With this in mind we have great expectations for the Olympic Education at the University of Tsukuba, since it can be anticipated that the participating students will become those who understand Olympism and will support the Olympic Movement through the education. It should be also added that the origin of the University of Tsukuba was a training school for teachers and this tradition still survives: many students eventually become teachers. Therefore, this approach I argue can be effective in spreading Olympism in Japan.

¹ Tocqueville, Alexis de: *Etat social politique de la France avant et depuis 1789* [Political Social Situation of the France before and since 1789], Japanese tran. by G.Ii, Tokyo: Kôdansha, 1997.

² Furet, François: *Penser la Revolution française* [Consider the French Revolution], Japanese tran. by S.Ôtsu, Tokyo: Iwanami Shoten, 1989.

2. The Olympic Education at the University of Tsukuba

Let us consider the definition of Olympic Education. We find various answers, but in my view Dr. Ren's definition is the most appropriate: 'it is a process for people to acquire Olympism.'¹ Indeed, Olympism contains universal values, but its entire figure is quite vague. We, therefore, need special training to acquire it.

Since 2003 the new approach of Olympic Education has been practiced at the University of Tsukuba. At the planning stage there were no perceptions whatsoever of any principles of Olympic Education or Olympism. The reasons to create this project can be summarized in the following four points.²

First, it was misgiving that most universities in Japan tended to take a stronger stance in prioritizing specialized occupational education from the undergraduate level prompted by the simplification of standards for the university establishment in 1991.

Secondly was the anticipation that liberal arts education, which was on the verge of being expelled from university education, could be reinstated and revitalized, stimulated by the attraction of the Olympic Games, in which we could discover adequate teaching materials for true liberal arts.

Third, the return of the Olympic Games to Greece offered a unique opportunity for the comprehension of the essence of the Olympics.

Finally, it was anticipated that a study program dealing with the Olympics served as a new leisure program, through which one could acquire the key to enhance one's leisure life and, in turn, life itself.

The aim was, in sum, to reinforce students' intelligence through Olympic studies. However, due to the surroundings reaction we

¹ *The Olympic Movement in Asia*, p. 73.

² *ibid.*, pp. 82-83.

have now a clearer idea of the potential and direction of the future program. In the 2004 term, the program was much more characterized by Olympism. To give a broader understanding of the Olympics the program not only paid attention to a brief introduction of the Olympic Games and inside stories, but also installed opportunities to learn about the ancient Olympics and the ideals espoused by Coubertin as well as lectures that conveyed the existence and nature of cultural and artistic programs. Anticipation was not only an understanding of Olympism and its importance but that the participating students would have opportunities to reflect on the Olympics and feel human loftiness which manifested itself not only in the Olympic Games and but among a number of persons concerned the Olympics (e.g. organizing people, journalists etc.). The details of the program are reported below.

This new attempt established a course on Olympic studies at the university. The class time is 75 minutes with a different lecture appeared each time. The lecturers for the most part were full-time sports science faculty members at the University of Tsukuba selected by self-recommendation or by others and among them are medal-winning professors such as Mr. S.Katô (gymnastics) and Mrs. M.Homma (synchronized swimming). In addition, the presidents of JOC, JOA, and Mizuno, which is a famous sporting goods maker in Japan, an official JOC photographer, and others were invited from outside of the university. The lectures by the persons concerning the Olympics enabled the participants to feel its reality much easier.

This course is a general course, which is categorized as a liberal arts course rather than a specialized course, open to all the students, not only to the students who major in physical education or sport science. In the 2003 term, a questionnaire handed out in the introductory lecture showed that 40% of the participants were students majoring in physical education or sport science, many of whom wanted to participate in the Olympic Games as athletes or were hoping for future employment

as coaches or trainers with many opportunities for involvement in the Olympics, i.e. media, sporting goods producers etc. The students represented all eighteen departments of the university. Concerning the proportion of the participating students in the 2004 term, although I have no detailed statistics now, it seemed similar to the 2003 term.

The other characteristic point is that we have tied up with a newspaper company: *Sankei Shimbun*, which produces a national paper (circulation: 2 million) thanks to Mr. S. Sano, the editor of the sports department of *Sankei Shimbun* and a member of JOA. It is probably unprecedented for lectures at one university and, moreover, of one specific course to be reported in a series of articles by a newspaper over the period of a year. Besides, while the articles in the 2003 term¹ were produced by the writers- they also participated in the course- from *Sankei Shimbun*, they had entrusted the Olympic Movement Laboratory at the University of Tsukuba² with writing the articles, though edited by *Sankei Shimbun*, for the 2004 series. As a member of the Olympic Movement Laboratory, I would like to emphasize that through the work to make the articles including meetings on the lectures and the Olympic Movement held once a week the staff, who are not only postgraduate but undergraduate students, came to understand the importance of the Olympic Movement much deeper and notice how we should appeal to the Japanese public throughout the interaction among the lecturers and the participants, which were very prolific and effective activities for the Olympic Movement in Japan.

¹ We can read the articles in the 2003 term on this site: <http://www.sapcc.tsukuba.ac.jp/olympic/03leclist.html> [trans. into English by Mrs. Gotô].

² A research centre of the University of Tsukuba, established in order for professors and students easily to approach the Olympics and to acquire deep understanding of Olympism; its substantial activities started in 2004. All the activities are basically voluntary; for the laboratory doesn't function as a research room for graduate research.

Throughout the course the participants gained both basic knowledge of the Olympics and a positive interest in the Olympics. They also had the opportunity to consider the Olympics, its surroundings and its social effects many times. The results and the effects of the course were desirable for us. And it confirmed that the Olympics was something like a treasure box which includes a lot of teaching materials for history, ethics, political geography, economics etc. In sum, the Olympic Education enables people to acquire harmonious development (mentioned in the next chapter) as well as basic knowledge of the Olympics, physical education and sport science; Olympic Education is thus adequate for the present liberal arts education.

3. The Olympic Movement as Cultural Imperialism?

We should, however, consider whether or not it is problematic to promote the Olympic Movement. More than twenty years has gone since Eichberg claimed that the modern Olympics were essentially an Occidental centrism movement.¹ Although we have to deliberate whether Eichberg's argument has validity now, it can be said that Asians should refrain from promoting the Olympic Movement without any consideration. That is to say, it is necessary that we examine the significance of the Olympic Movement and its goal in Japan, moreover in Asia. Otherwise, we cannot avoid critiques such as the Olympic Movement is to spread the Olympic sports. The examination, however, should not cause reckless obeying the Occident, nor, on the contrary, narrow-minded nationalism. Then, how should we understand Olympism and promote the Olympic Movement? In the following part I will examine this question and show my view.

¹ Cf. Eichberg, Henning: 'Olympic Sport – Neocolonization and Alternatives,' in: *The International Review for Sociology of Sport*, 19-1, 1984, pp. 97-105.

The most important point is to understand that Olympism is an educational philosophy, although it seems to represent universal morality or ethics.¹ And it should be noticed that Olympism designed by Coubertin does not directly lead to a social movement to spread sports all over the world, but, naturally, aims at introducing sports into education. Coubertin was an educational reformer who sufficiently noticed that education is able to construct societies in practice.

Modern pedagogy has tended to divide education into three parts: intellectual training, moral training, and physical training; Olympism as educational philosophy is the antithesis against the tendency of overemphasizing knowledge. It aims at developing a synthetic intelligence, uniting the 'divided' three parts.² From this point of view, the controversy on Cultural Imperialism in sport which focuses mainly on a scramble for hegemony between modern sports and so-called traditional sports may be considered as a debate adhering to one aspect of the phenomenon. If the principle of developing man by utilizing physical activities is observed, the goal of Olympism will be accomplished either by modern sports and traditional sports. If the ideal of the Olympic Movement can be realized only by modern sports, it cannot help avoiding a critique that the Olympic Movement is a kind of Marxism which has nothing but seeking its own utopia.

When we take a look at a global stage, it can be noticed that the Olympic Movement has another but very important role to promote

¹ The view to consider Olympism as educational philosophy is insisted by Dr. S. Shimizu, ex-professor, University of Kôbe, whom I agree with.

² Cf. Coubertin, Pierre de: *Olympism: Selected Writings*, ed. by N. Mueller, Lausanne: IOC, 2000, pp. 547-8: "Olympism refuses to make physical education a purely physiological thing, and to make each type of sport an independent, separate exercise. It refuses to catalogue the knowledge of the mind and to classify it into mutually isolated categories"; it also says, "Olympism is a destroyer of dividing walls."

the communication among the pluralistic world at present.

Let us consider the ancient Olympics. It was originally the festival of the Greeks worshipping Zeus. All participants and spectators were Greeks at first. The games, however, met dramatic change in the Hellenistic and Roman time. It has been reported that many athletes from Egypt or Asia Minor, i.e. non-Greek people, could participate and achieved great fame in the ancient Olympics.¹ Undoubtedly the ancient Olympics were no longer the festival only for the Greeks; such facts suggest that the common culture of the Olympics took root at least in the east Mediterranean world. Of course, we should not forget other great festivals (Nemea, Isthmia, Pythia); they also still fascinated many people. Yet, the ancient Olympics seem very outstanding, judging from the existence of the festivals named '*Isolympios*', equally the Olympics and of other 'Olympic' games in Asia Minor.² Therefore, it can be said that the ancient Olympics remained as a common culture on the global scale. The ancient Olympics fascinated the people so much that their imitations were established. Perhaps the summary is that the people could communicate with each other throughout a common culture of the Olympics.³

Similarly the modern Olympics have their roots as a common cultural property on a global scale. The existence of a common culture which can be realized by experience seems efficient to enable societies to act in harmony with each other, which is an urgent need at present.

¹ Sakurai, Mariko and Hashiba, Yuzuru (ed.): *Kodai Orimpikku* [The Ancient Olympics], Tokyo: Iwanami Shoten, 2004, pp. 180ff. [written in Japanese].

² *ibid.* pp. 187-8. It should be added that games named '*isopythian*' and autochthon 'Pythian' games also existed, and that by the Roman time more than three hundred Greek contests were held all over the Mediterranean. This showed a deep-root of Greek games at that time.

³ For instance, many organizations (*collegia*) of athletes, orations and markets at Olympia can be mentioned.

As somewhere Tomlinson mentioned¹, globalization is essentially the production throughout the dialectic between the global and the local. If the matters which enable people to realize the global circumstances (e.g. wars, environmental problems etc.) are presented, and, moreover, if it can be realized by experience that the circumstances on the global scale are related with individuals' lives, one's practice on the local scale can be influenced by the global affairs. What I would like to suggest here is that the Olympics as one of the common culture on global scale can be efficiently utilized in education (e.g. cultural studies, historical education, ethic etc.) by extracting cultural, historical and social subjects, aiming to enable individuals to understand one another. In other words, the Olympics can be bridges connecting each individual.

The Olympic Movement, thus, has a lot of possibilities which can resolve the present problems; therefore, it can be said that to promote the Olympic Movement in Japan will lead to prolific results, especially in education.

4. Conclusion

This paper reported the general view of the history of the Olympic Movement in Japan up to the 1990's and the Olympic Education at the University of Tsukuba; the validity to promote the Olympic Movement in Japan was also examined. Through the examination we confirmed that the Olympic Movement is still an important movement for Japanese society because of its educational effects.

In order to avoid causing any misunderstanding I would like to stress that I have no will to deny or ignore the existence and the splendors of the Olympic Games, as it is undoubted that the Olympic Games are the centripetal force of the Olympics. The very existence of

¹ Cf. Tomlinson, John: *Globalization and Culture*, Cambridge: Polity Press, 1999.

the attractive Games is the prerequisite of this paper. The Games are necessary to show the Olympic visible values.

It can be, however, expected by promoting Olympic Education that the Olympics as well as Japanese sports would develop in desirable way; for the Olympic Education mentioned in a this paper aims at harmonious human development, but, at the same time, this education cultivates one's mind and attitude toward the Olympics. If more and more people consider the Olympics as their global common culture and irreplaceable property, the responsibility of the persons actually concerned of the Olympics would become much greater. That is to say, we have a possibility to protect the Olympics against any corruption by increasing people who acquire Olympism, despite its delaying effects. Was Rome built in a day? Steady progress requires much time.

OLYMPISM SPORT AND EDUCATION POLICY GOVERNANCE: A ZIMBABWEAN PERSPECTIVE

Mr Oliver KANHUKAMWE (ZIM)

Introduction

Olympism is a bridge that links the five continents together. Olympism's life is to humankind just as humankind's life is to oxygen. Above all, Olympism needs a network of relationships with sport, education and culture just to mention some of the close friends. It is a struggle for friendship and against enmity. Sport is the heart of Olympism and education is its nourishment, while policy governance guarantees their sustainability. Consequently, Olympism should be a friend to all and an enemy to none in order to fulfil its eternal pursuits and goals.

Notwithstanding the humanitarian character of Olympism, its survival is not without threats, taking cognisance of the environment of policy governance. The administrative approaches of the board or management team is critical to achieving the right goals in the right way. Policy governance can either make or break the destiny of Olympism, sport and education.

This paper explores the conceptual significance of Olympism, sport and education policy governance with special reference to Zimbabwe. Though, the main aspects of this paper are treated separately, they are indeed intertwined. Finally, conclusions and recommendations are given for consideration and stimulation of international Olympic academic discourse.

Olympism

Ancient Greece provided the genesis of Olympism with the evolution of the Hellenic games at Olympia, Delphi, Isthmia and Nemea. The integration of mind, body and soul was the foundation of the Greek conception of life that was enthusiastically adopted by Baron Pierre de Coubertin, the founder of the Modern Games (Segrave, 1988).

The roots of the Olympic Spirit can be found in the Greek civilisation. In Ancient Greece, sport was part of man's overall education which cultivated in a balanced and harmonious way his intellectual, mental and physical faculties <http://www.ioa.org>.

According to the Olympic Charter (1994), Olympism is an overall philosophy of life exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education. Olympism sets to create a way of life based in the joy found in effort, the education values of good example and a respect for universal fundamental ethical principles.

The goal of Olympism is to place everywhere sport at the services of the harmonious development of mankind, with a view of encouraging the establishment of a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of human dignity.

Olympism is a concept that is not only applicable in the field of play, but can be applied in every aspect of life and can encourage self-development. It diminishes cultural boundaries, as participation in the Olympic Movement is irrespective of colour, religion and race. It is a philosophy, which extends its horizons beyond sports. Throughout this dialectic consideration, the event of the Olympic Games extends beyond the limits of sports to become at the same time a historic and political event, which result in significant social and cultural changes. In spite of this, however, it maintains its autonomy and its own laws and rules which govern its operation, and the emergence, evolution

and disappearance of its various aspects (International Olympic Academy, 2003).

The ancient and modern paradigms of Olympism are shown in table 1.

Table 1. The Ancient and Modern Paradigms of Olympism

<i>Ancient</i>	<i>Modern</i>
The 1st Ancient Olympic games were held in 776BC at Olympia and were always celebrated at the same venue.	The 1st Modern Olympic Games took place in 1896 at Athens and are held in different cities and countries.
There were fewer events.	There are more events.
The Games lead to the development of the Panhellenic Games.	The Games led to the establishment of the Olympic Winter Games and the Paralympic Games.
The Games were celebrated in honour of specific Gods	The Games are celebrated in honour of outstanding athletes
The Games focused on culture, religion and mankind with a proclamation of a sacred truce	The Games focus on the harmonious development of humankind and peaceful society
The Games were conservative	The Games are innovative
Athletes were identified by their nakedness and were not professionals. Only free men who spoke Greek could compete.	Athletes are identified by sports attire and include professionals. Both men and women from each country can compete.
Prizes included wreaths, ribbons and palm fronds, awarded only to the first placed athlete.	Prizes include medals: gold, silver, bronze awarded to 1st, 2nd and 3rd placed athletes respectively.

While we think alike or otherwise on the interpretation of Olympism, the common denominator is that Olympism is a philosophy of life characterised by dialectically and universally acknowledged principles of humankind not only in and through sport, but in all spheres of life.

Olympism and Policy Governance

In Olympism, the functions of policy governance are normally by the heads or boards of the movement. The Olympic Movement groups together all those who agree to be guided by the Olympic Charter and who recognise the authority of the international Olympic Committee (IOC), namely, the International Olympic Committee, Organising Committee of the Olympic Games (OCOGs), the National Olympic Committees, the International Federations (IFs), the national associations, clubs, athletes, judges and referees, as well as the organisations and institutions recognised by the IOC. <http://www.ioc.org>. The IOC and its partners guarantee the good governance of Olympism in accordance with the Olympic Charter.

In the Olympic Movement values are of paramount importance in discharging its operations. The process is equally important as the product and the operations are not only a means to organisational effectiveness but also an end in itself. The governance role falls under three broad categories: representation, decision-making and leadership and accountability. Governance in practice is dictated by organisational structure, traditions, and above all, people and their relationships. Good governance allows the movement to fulfil its mission through appropriate governance and management team, resulting in organisational effectiveness.

Governance

The concept of governance refers in a generic sense to the task of running a government or any other entity. The general definition provided by Webster's Third New International Dictionary (1986) shows that governance is a synonym for government, or the act or process of governing specifically authoritative direction and control. This interpretation appears to dwell on the responsibility of the management team.

Policy Governance

In earlier times, governing sport was less troublesome and complex, and original sports bodies were established to codify rules and organise events. However, rapid globalisation and commercialisation of sport created new conflicting and competing interests, and this led to numerous parties to challenge the ability of sports industry to competently govern itself. Essentially, this increased attention has the risk of legislative over-regulation which may potentially undermine the principle of flexibility and self-regulation that have been central in the development of sport. Sport should voluntarily strive towards higher levels of adherence to principles of responsible and accountable self-governance (Burger, 2003).

Sports governing bodies are at the same time executive bodies which are managing their sport legislators in setting up "the rules of the game" but also judges whenever it comes to settling sporting disputes, the manifold dimensions of sports governance are quite unique, if compared with other sectors.

Sports organisations can be the victim of their success if they do not keep pace with the political economical and legal environment in which they act --- sporting rules and procedures are challenged before courts or international institutions and several rulings and decisions have shaken up the sporting community (Rogge, 2001).

Good Governance

The concept of governance may mean different things to different people, however, the world bank's definition on governance has a special relevance for the developing world (World Bank, 1991).

Good governance is epitomised by predictable, open and enlightened policy-making, a bureaucracy imbued with professional ethos acting in furtherance of the public good, the rule of laws, transparent processes and a strong civil society participating in public affairs. Poor governance (the other hand) is characterised by arbitrary policy-making, unaccountable bureaucracies, uninformed or unjust legal systems, the abuse of executive power, a civil society not engaged in public life and widespread corruption.

In its 1989 report, *From Crisis to Sustainable Growth*, the World Bank expressed this notion as follows: Efforts to create an enabling environment and to build capacities will be wasted if the political context is not favourable. Ultimately, better governance requires political renewal.

Government creates the conditions for functioning of markets, operation of private firms, strength of civil society, and welfare of communities and individuals. Good governance assures that political, social and economic priorities are based on broad consensus in society and that the voices of the poorest and the most vulnerable are heard in decision making over the allocation of development resources. While a governing body may lay a foundation for good governance, it may only be sustainable if the entire population shows undivided response and support.

Ethics of Good Governance

The proponents of policy governance have a shared consensus on the ethics of good governance (Table 2).

Table 2. Ethics of Good Governance

<i>Characteristic</i>	<i>Objective</i>
Participation	Consulting all stakeholders in policy and decision making.
Rule of law	Legal framework should be fair and impartial to all.
Transparency	Built on the accessibility and free flows of information and utilisation of the internet. Transparent decision-making and information openness to external reviewers.
Consensus orientation	Organisations mediate differing interests to arrive at a broad consensus.
Equity	All men and women have opportunities to participate.
Effectiveness and efficiency	Organisations produce results that satisfy stakeholders while making the optimum utilisation of resources.
Accountability	Organisations and decision-makers are accountable for their decisions and performance as well as to their stakeholders.
Strategic vision	The leadership construct a road and long term perspective on good governance to the best interest of human development taking cognisance of historical, cultural and social complexities.
Technical and management competence	Competent staff is critical to good governance.

Organisational Capacity	Good governance should not only rely on leadership but also on the overall quality of the organisation – maximise skilled staff.
Responsibility	The organisation should act responsibly towards all stakeholders upholding ethical standards as well as social responsibility.
Independence	Independence concerns financial auditing, decision making free from wrongful or outside influences and other fair procedures.
Fairness	Fair representation and consideration to the interests of all stakeholders.
Discipline	Adherence to universally acknowledged behaviour.
Democracy elections and appointments	Determine democratic rules, elections and terms of office, structure, membership and size of governing body.
Communication	Communicating the essence the organisation with stakeholders. Promoting the use of two-way communication and use of internet/e- governance.
Decisions and appeals	Existence of procedures for resolving differences amicably – access to internal and external appeals or arbitration.
Conflict of interest	Demarcating the governing body's governance role and commercial role – allocating various roles to different committees
Solidarity	Fair and effective distribution of income based on principles of solidarity at all levels of sport

Good governance allows the key strategic units to accomplish their tasks in an efficient and effective manner.

Carver Model

A rational collection of policies constitute a model of governance. Carver perceived that governance (a function of the board) was the nuclear in the body of non-profit organisations. For instance, capable people lead to the formation of incapable boards, giving proof to the effect that the problem with most boards was not the people but the process. Carver intended to create a model with structures and clearly defined roles and responsibilities that would maximise a board's potential. The basic principles of Carver Model rules and regulations, roles and responsibilities, speaking with one voice or not at all, strategic decisions, chief executive officer (CEO) targets, aims <http://www.iog.ca>.

The board governs by setting policies that define the operations of the organisation, the board/CEO/staff relationship. A governance model has the following attributes: a set of structures, functions and practices that define who does what and how they do it.

Governance models vary according to how a committee is structured, how responsibilities are distributed between the committee, management and staff and decision making. Some notable models include, operational, collective management, traditional, policy governance (Carver model) Results-oriented board Advisory and representational.

The policy provides a goal-oriented course of action that an individual or a group of individuals follow in an effort to resolve a problem or matter of concern. But the policy process may follow a chronological sequence of related activities which can be categorised as: problem identification, formulating proposal, policy adoption, policy implementation and policy evaluation.

It is important to note that there are several organisational descriptive models, for instance, the elite/mass model, the systems model and prescriptive models, for instance, the incremental model and the rational model that are complimentary to the Carver Model. Descriptive models are concerned with an approach to public policy while prescriptive models focus on the ways policy makers ought to act.

Sport and Education Policy Governance in Zimbabwe

In Zimbabwe, sport and education policy governance emanate from the public administrative machinery and the political hierarchy. Public policies guide the state and the whole society. There are two types of policy-making channels: legislative or bureaucratic policy-making which is sometimes referred to as institutional policy-making. The main actors in policy governance are the public officials (executive, legislature and the bureaucracy) and civil society (all members of society outside the state).

Pre - Independence

In pre-independence education and sport policy governance during the 19th century reflected the socio – economic and political aspirations of the colonial settlers. The first education ordinance perpetrated a racially segregated education system in favour of the whites. A two-pyramid policy for African Education and European Education was developed. The colonial masters, the whites dominated the policy making process for the benefit of the white minority at the expense of the black majority. The settlers provided adequate services for the whites but left the education of the Africans, whom they called natives, to voluntary white missionaries.

Post – Independence

At Independence in 1980, Zimbabwe (formally Rhodesia) inherited an education policy that served the interest of the white students. The first major reform was the unification of the separate education system. At independence the government adapted a socialist principle: “Growth and Equity” and “Education for all” to redress the inequalities in access to education (Chisholm, 1988). The current policies have shifted from expanding education quantitatively to growing qualitatively.

There are two Ministries of Education in Zimbabwe: the Ministry of Education Sport and Culture is accountable for: preschool, primary, secondary, sport and culture. The Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology is responsible for tertiary education, teachers colleges, polytechnic colleges, the universities and the development of science and technology. The National Sports and Recreational Policy Committee and the Sports and Recreation Commission fall under the Ministry of Education and Sport and Culture. Both are under the jurisdiction of appointed boards and provide parameters for policy governance.

According to Moyo (1992), the lack of a blueprint or model policy in Africa (Zimbabwe included) is attributed to post-colonial states’ lack of craft-literacy and craft-competence.

Olympism and Policy Governance in Zimbabwe

The Zimbabwe Olympic Committee (ZOC), a non – profit association, was founded in 1934. During the pre-independence period the concepts of Olympism and policy governance were blurred. According to Musangeya (1999), the colonial rule was characterised by the ills of injustice, racial discrimination and prejudice. During the colonial period sport was not valued by a majority of blacks, controlled by the whites, elitist and based on western activities, values and beliefs.

Zimbabwe, only competed in the Olympics in 1964. It was not invited in 1968 and excluded in 1972 for perpetuating racial discrimination, an abrogation of the philosophy of Olympism.

With the advent of independence in 1980, the ZOC, was recognised by the International Olympic Committee in the same year. An appointed National Olympic Committee (NOC) was put in place in order to insure racial balance and some form of democracy to break the white monoculture in sport. The appointed NOC existed for 18 years (until 1998) when it was felt by the government that sport was now democratised and therefore democratic elections for office bearers of the NOC needed to be done (Musangeya, 1999).

The mission of ZOC is to promote and protect the Olympic and the Commonwealth Games movements in Zimbabwe and to facilitate quality participation in the games. In pursuance of this mission the ZOC may cooperate with governmental and governmental bodies at national, regional, continental and international levels. The ZOC's strategic framework envisions facilitating the advancement of high performance sport persons to win Olympic medals in Beijing 2008.

The ZOC is driven by the following moral and governance values: ethical conduct, transparency and accountability, respect for others, integrity and commitment (ZOC, 2003).

ZOC propagates the principles of policy governance through the letter and spirit of its constitution in compliance with the Olympic Charter. The actors of the policy process consist of the General Assembly, Executive Board, Executive, Committee, General Secretariat, Commissions and honorary life members.

Conclusion

- Olympism is an overall philosophy of life in a balanced whole the dialectically and universally acknowledged principles of humankind not only in and through sport, but in all spheres of life
- Policy governance can be classified into good governance or poor governance requires not only management or board renewal but also requires political renewal. Good governance is a vehicle for social, economic and political prosperity
- Pre-independence sport and education policy governance served the interest of the white colonial settlers, while the post-independence one serves the entire nation
- The Zimbabwe Olympic Committee, in conformity with the Olympic Charter, cooperates with governmental and non-governmental bodies in upholding the philosophy of Olympism
- The policy governance models on Olympism, education and sport are not appropriately legislated

Recommendation

- Linguistic rephrasing of the philosophy and goals of Olympism
- Legislation and incorporation of policy governance model characterised by ethics of good governance in Olympism, sport and education, and other recognised sectors
- Promotion of strategic partnership and stakeholders' participation in Olympism, sport and education
- Enhanced involvement of the government and coordination between the two Ministries of Education in promoting Olympic education
- Advancement and coordination of Olympism, sport and education action programmes under the auspices of the Zimbabwe Olympic Committee

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OLYMPISM, INTERSUBJECTIVITY AND COMPETITION

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Introduction:

An important philosophical development of the 20th century was the elucidation of intersubjectivity by philosophers such as Edmund Husserl and Maurice Merleau-Ponty. Contemporary to this development was the establishment and expansion of the modern Olympic Games. Of particular significance is Pierre de Coubertin's elaboration of Olympism, a complex philosophical vision that evokes ethical principles pertaining not only to sport but also to society at large. Olympism does not only drive the proliferation of the modern Olympic Games but also seems to entail the notion of intersubjectivity. Indeed, it seems necessary to have a clear understanding of intersubjectivity to fully appreciate the importance of Olympism. In turn, it seems that Olympism provides a conceptual framework in which the intersubjective nature of sport becomes significant.

Olympism and Ambiguity:

While Olympism may be at the heart of the Olympic movement, it is nevertheless an elusive ideal. What exactly is Olympism? From the Olympic Charter we learn that it is a "philosophy of life" that blends "sport with culture and education," seeking to "create a way of life based on the joy of effort" (IOC, p. 9). In enumerating the fundamental

principles of Olympism, the Charter states that “the goal of Olympism is to place sport at the service of the harmonious development of man, with a view to promoting a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of human dignity” (IOC, p. 9). Proclaiming the universality of Olympism as a twentieth-century religion, Coubertin and Avery Brundage “imagined that the Olympic Games might form the nucleus of a modern secular faith based on ‘good sportsmanship and fair play’” (Guttmann, p. 3).

As a universal, secular religion, Olympism advances numerous values, some that even seem difficult to reconcile. For example, there are individual values such as self-development through lifelong participation in sport that is purported to cultivate qualities of self-discipline and courage. There are, also, collective values pertaining to sportsmanship, fair play, teamwork, cooperation, and friendly competition. It is of particular significance that these values extend beyond the realm of sport, having relevance for humanistic and societal concerns.

The values promoted by Olympism are essential to life in general, whether in promoting well-being at the individual level or national spirit and international well-being at the collective level (USOC, p. 41). Coubertin was only in part concerned about the “health and strength of young people, more importantly he desired to guide them toward becoming better citizens, more honest and efficient, with an optimistic and pleasant disposition and a stronger personality” (USOC, p. 41). But the content of individual values and collective values can often be found in conflict, so what can be made of these divergent elements of Olympism?

While there are certainly educational, ethical, and societal considerations wrapped up in the notion of Olympism, they are not explicitly spelled out in the Olympic Charter or in the writings of Pierre de Coubertin. Olympic historian Cesar Torres states that “as

a formulation for moral development, Olympism seems a worthy philosophy. However, the lack of specificity regarding the moral values propounded by Olympism has challenged its understanding and implementation” (Torres, p. 2). For example, when conflict arises between individual concerns and collective concerns as they are informed by Olympism how are competing claims reconciled? Or what exactly is the nature of competition and how is it informed by the Olympic values? Unfortunately, the conceptual framework for answering such dilemmas seems to lack sufficient robustness, for the Olympic Charter is often too general to provide concrete solutions to specific cases as they arise and the writings of Coubertin often seem contradictory on what values are central to Olympism or provide little direction on how to prioritize values.

In addition to conceptual lacunas, “Coubertin’s ideas [on Olympism] were marred by inconsistencies, which... further challenge its understanding and implementation” (Torres, p. 3). Unfortunately, as stated by Olympic scholar John McAloon (1981, p. 266), “Coubertin would build a philosophical anthropology which he could never in his life fully explicate, in part because his loose habits of mind ever prevailed, in part because he lacked a concept of ‘culture’ appropriate to the task.” If the inconsistencies and lack of clarity could be addressed so that a richer account of Olympism is realized, then perhaps the values of Olympism would be more fully actualized in the practice of the Games.

Given this situation, it is not necessary to merely accept the meaning and significance of Olympism as ambiguous. Just as the modern Olympic Games have grown and flourished, so too can our understanding of Olympism. Just as Coubertin in formulating his notion of Olympism was informed by multiple sources, and not just by the ancient Olympics, current researchers can and should draw from all relevant sources that can inform and elucidate the concept of Olympism. I contend that intersubjectivity is one such notion.

Intersubjectivity and Olympism:

In order to understand how intersubjectivity can reveal important aspects of the human condition, it is important to first understand what intersubjectivity is. After providing a brief account of intersubjectivity, a further step must be taken. By understanding what intersubjectivity is and how it reveals important aspects of our human condition, the notion of Olympism will be understood in a new light.

Phenomenology is a philosophy that demands that we “return to the things themselves.” Because of certain limitations of dominant philosophical and scientific methodologies that present challenges to our ability to fully understand our selves and our world, Edmund Husserl set out to develop a methodology that would more accurately account for our being and our world. An important development of his work was the notion of intersubjectivity which provides an account of the relationship between the self and others. Husserl (1998, p. 136) argues that “I *experience* the world (including others)... *not* as...my *private* synthetic formation but as other than mine alone, as an *intersubjective* world, actually there for everyone, accessible in respect of its Objects to everyone.”

But intersubjectivity goes deeper than merely accounting for a common world. It is because we share this same world that, as Merleau-Ponty (p. 354) claims, “we have here a dual being... we are collaborators for each other in consummate reciprocity. Our perspectives merge into each other, and we co-exist through a common world.” Upon recognizing how, as collaborators, we are bound together in co-existence, we “recover the originary relation of understanding...on whose basis the social itself draws its meaning” (Lyotard, p. 102). For the phenomenologist, the world is “an intertwined matrix of sensations and perceptions, a collective field of experience lived through many different angles” (Abram, p. 39). It is through this intertwined matrix that we derive and negotiate meaning.

Because our experience is always already intersubjective, our values and meanings are forged in and reflect this actuality. The promotion of values that fail to be informed by or take seriously our intersubjectivity will compromise our humanity. One way in which intersubjectivity provides a richer account of our humanity is by resolving those philosophical concerns pertaining to the self and the other as well as the subjective and the objective. There is no pure subjectivity for “I” am always already being in a world, influenced and informed by others, and negotiating meaning with others. In turn, there is no pure objectivity for “it” or “the other” is always already immersed in a network of relations in which the other’s meaning is determined through interactions between itself and still others. Concerns about the philosophical difficulty of reconciling the self and the other are resolved through the notion of intersubjectivity because, rather than beginning with abstractions that create an unbridgeable gap between subjectivity and objectivity, it begins with our coherent experience of the life-world, “our undergoing, our involvement in the world, our lending or withholding ourselves, keyed to our responsiveness, our sensibility, our alertness or our deadness” (Bugbee, p. 50). By accurately accounting for our experience, it expresses how we are tethered to one another. Whether from the perspective of the collective or of the individual, “there is implicit a *mutual being for one another*” (Husserl, p. 157). Our intersubjectivity weaves through all that we are and all that we do.

This intersubjective coherence applies just as well to the world of sport, particularly as informed by Olympism. The Olympic Charter states the goal of Olympism as being “to place sport at the service of the harmonious development of man, with a view to promoting a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of human dignity” (IOC, p. 10). The intersubjective quality of this goal can perhaps best be observed by the Olympic Symbol, which “consists of five interlaced rings of equal dimensions... The Olympic symbol represents the union of the five

continents and the meeting of athletes from throughout the world at the Olympic Games” (IOC, p. 18). The “union” and the “meeting” should be recognized as an identification of our intersubjective meeting. The linking of the rings signifies how people are inextricably related to one another in the act of participating in the Olympic Games. This is represented by Olympic governance, which is conducted through interactions between the IOC and its respective commissions, NOCs, IFs, and OCOGs. So structured, the multiple representative bodies negotiate and collaborate the identity, implementation, and meaning of the Olympic Movement. While at varying periods of our modern Olympic history some parties have wielded more influence over the Games, it is clear that the intent is for the multitude of interested parties to have a voice in the Olympic Movement.

Additionally, one of the roles of the IOC is “to cooperate with the competent public and private organizations and authorities in the endeavor to place sport at the service of humanity and thereby to promote peace” (IOC, p. 11). Perhaps it would be useful to read “competent” organizations as those who in large measure are fundamentally aware of the intersubjective nature of persons. Organizations wishing to become involved in the Olympic Movement must be guided by principles that entail our intersubjective reality. Just as our humanity is only actualized through intersubjectivity, so too is peace only possible when individuals, organizations, and nations recognize their reciprocity and mutuality to one another. Coubertin expressed this very notion when he wrote, “This is why every four years the revived Olympic Games must give the youth of all the world a chance of a happy and brotherly encounter which will gradually efface the people’s ignorance of things which concern them all” (quoted from McAloon, p. 188).

Indeed, internationalism has been the focus of the promotion of peace through Olympism and the Olympic Movement. But it

seems for Coubertin, the promotion of peace happens at the level of individuals engaged in the common practice of sport. As argued by McAloon (p. 266), for Coubertin “true internationalism certainly involved the discovery and experience of social and cultural differences. However, far from dividing and repelling men from one another, national differences were to be celebrated as different ways of being human; their recognition was the first step toward peace, friendliness,” and mutual respect. While friendship and mutual respect can be conferred between nations, it is at the level of intersubjective beings that it becomes meaningful, that differences can be negotiated and reconciled and commonalities can be recognized and forged.

Intersubjectivity in the Olympic experience:

It seems that the notion of intersubjectivity is not only implicit in the notion of Olympism, but is in important ways a fundamental and crucial element. Indeed, it seems as though such views were inherent to Coubertin’s vision of what the modern Olympic Games should look like. At the same time, it also seems that the modern Olympic Games serve as a terrain in which recognition of our intersubjectivity can flourish. This becomes clear when looking at the nature and meaning of competition.

The Olympic Games are comprised of sporting contests. The pursuit of excellence, and specifically winning, are at the heart of this competitive process. For this reason, competition and the quest for victory present many difficulties, especially because it emphasizes individual or team accomplishments at the expense of others. Because such attitudes can be negative and divisive, an emphasis towards participation has been promoted. These two approaches toward sport are recognized in the Olympic motto and the Olympic creed, respectively.

The Olympic motto, “Citius, altius, fortius,” represents the aspirations of achievement and excellence. The Olympic creed

proposes that “the most important thing is not winning, but taking part.” Torres has argued that:

Both dictums are evocative of Olympism. Yet, their connotation regarding Olympic results appears to be contentious. It could be argued that by stressing participation, the Olympic creed primarily values the process of contesting. More important, it explicitly diminishes the significance of results. Conversely, it could be argued that the Olympic motto highlights not merely the results of contests, but the attainment of ever greater and greater record performances. (Torres, 2005, p. 2)

These seemingly contradictory notions of competition, one emphasizing the process of competing and the other emphasizing the end (particularly winning over losing), can be readily reconciled, however, when viewed through the lens of intersubjectivity. When an individual becomes concerned with participation, it is almost always participation in a particular activity. Identity, values, and a life-narrative are informed by and wrapped up in the sport and sporting community a person participates in, generating a shared concern for a particular set of skills and an appreciation for the excellent execution of those skills. Therefore, participation, in the fullest sense of the word, necessarily leads to a recognition, appreciation and concern for excellence, including the expression of victory in sporting contests, even when not one's own.

On the other hand, an interest in winning is only fully intelligible when understood in an intersubjective manner. The significance of a victory is in strong measure correlated to the quality of one's opponent. It is in this sense that sport is understood as a cooperative activity, but there is a deeper significance here. If one truly cares about victory, then one must care about one's sport and the values and excellences that make up that sport. Appreciating winning demands an appreciation

for the contesting which makes winning intelligible, which necessarily demands a concern for the sport and sporting community. To jump higher, run faster, and become stronger requires effort and devotion to that endeavor. When one has achieved excellence in a sport, it is normal to look for validation and appreciation from others. In order for one's excellence to be meaningful and appreciated, there must be others to provide a significant challenge, recognize skillful achievement, and validate that achievement in proper measure. Excellence and winning occurs within the network of relations of those participating in a given sport.

Intersubjectivity reconciles participation and winning, as well as the Olympic creed and the Olympic motto, because it shows how they are inextricably bound, that they logically entail the other. Sport as currently practiced often fails to recognize this balance, which results in an overemphasis or de-emphasis on winning. But from the perspective of intersubjectivity, sporting contests are merely places where we negotiate meanings by determining relative abilities. While some wins and losses take on greater importance, they are relative to a vast network of wins and losses, and rarely ever is a win or loss a final, absolute measure. There are almost always opportunities to continue the discovery and negotiate relative abilities in future contests.

It is perhaps helpful to elucidate a final word about why sport, and not other human activities, such as music or art for example, were selected as the primary method of realizing Olympic ideals. While the history of sporting contests from the ancient Olympic Games is an important factor, there is in many ways a tenuous link between modern Olympism and the ideals that governed the ancient Olympic Games. It may be instructive to return again to phenomenology for some clarity on the significance and centrality of sport in Olympism. In particular, phenomenology may clarify the philosophical anthropology that McAloon suggested Coubertin never fully explicated.

It has been suggested that sport is a universal language. Such a claim, often used to support, for example, the role of sport in efforts of promoting peace, often lacks sufficient justification. But by turning to the phenomenologists, particularly Maurice Merleau-Ponty and Maxine Sheets-Johnstone, this claim can more readily be substantiated. An important claim of phenomenology is that we are embodied, moving beings. Our physicality is centrally important to any account of our humanity. In *The Primacy of Movement*, Sheets-Johnstone (pp. 398-399) suggests that an evolutionary semantics would “move us closer to an appreciation of the way in which the primacy of movement and the primacy of meaning in the natural world are essentially intertwined” as well as “attune us to the fact that sense-making is a fundamental way of life rooted in a diversity of animate forms and tactile-kinesthetic bodies, and in a foundational readiness toward meaning.” She argues with some force that movement is the basis of human thought, power, language, ethics and meaning.

Furthermore, we can only experience and express what our bodies are prepared for. “When we reflect back upon our own fundamental knowledge of ourselves and the world, we realize that our most basic human concepts are foundationally corporeal concepts; they derive from our own dynamic bodily lives” (Sheets-Johnstone, p. 505). As developed by Sheets-Johnstone, philosophical anthropology makes apparent that humans share a common embodied ancestry that provides common, corporeal concepts that inform our understanding of humanity. Indeed, moving in general, and therefore sport in particular, is a universal language that allows people to recognize their intersubjective natures and negotiate values and meaning. It becomes clear then, based on the significance of our embodiment, why Coubertin was so fond of sport as means of promoting humanistic goals.

Finally, it should be stated that intersubjectivity is not an addendum or amendment to Olympism; it is rather just an elucidation of an

important aspect of Olympism. Intersubjectivity underlies and helps to clarify the complex Olympic philosophy, reconciling values that at first blush may seem to be in conflict. Not only does it seem that Coubertin would have enjoyed the elucidation of intersubjectivity through phenomenology, but also, if he had knowledge of such a concept, he would have utilized it more clearly in his own writing. Perhaps this would have prevented some of the ambiguity regarding Olympism that exists to this day. Because intersubjectivity allows us not only to understand competition and sport more completely but also to understand ourselves as relational beings more fully, it seems that it clearly promotes Olympism.

David Abram describes our intersubjective experience in the following way; “our most immediate experience of things... is necessarily an experience of reciprocal encounter—of tension, communication, and commingling” (Abram, p. 56). This seems to be an apt account of sport as well. The experience of sport is one of immediacy, in which the encounter of an opponent leads to tension that must be resolved through contesting. The outcome is one in which knowledge is communicated to both parties, the performance of the one made intelligible only in reference to the other.

The legacy of intersubjectivity has led to this conclusion: that when looking into the face of the other, I become involved with him, accountable to her. I am inextricably bound in a mutual relationship. But it is time for us to make explicit what this means for sport, to describe the primacy of our intersubjectivity in contesting. For when running shoulder to shoulder with a competitor, one truly does become inextricably bound in a mutual relationship. One knows oneself fully only in reference to the other and sporting conversations are undertaken and developed through sport. We return to sport to affirm ourselves, not as winners, not as participants, but as persons who share an appreciation for common skills, common values, and shared meanings.

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STRATEGIC THINKING OF OLYMPIC EDUCATION TOWARDS THE 2008 BEIJING OLYMPIC GAMES

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When the Mayor of Beijing representing the city promised to hold a distinguished Olympic Games in the year of 2008, the creative motto: People's Olympics, high-tech Olympics, and Green Olympics has been raised, winning a lot of good comments from the international societies. Among them the first one is the most important due to its fundamental role. However, the realization of People's Olympics should be substantiated by practices. Olympic Education could be an effective instrument to carry out People's Olympics, whose significance has already been recognized and emphasized. This is going to be a huge project, good for people's health of both body and soul, good for cultural exchange and mutual understanding, good for a peaceful and better world.

Olympic Education, a modern educational channel all the way through Olympic Movement, has played a significant role in the human development and social harmony. Nowadays some sport problems such as doping, commercialization, professionalism, corruption and bribery, are seriously damaging sport image and Olympism. Olympic Education can effectively lessen or even avoid the negative influence of those problems by advocating participation, fair play and justice, and stably fighting against impure and unclean phenomena. In a more general sense, Olympic Education can also help with unfair society, all kinds of discriminations, cheating and fraudulence, through special designed situations and teaching methods.

Facing the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, it still remains a lot to achieve for the Olympic Education in China. The National Olympic Academy has not been formally running; the official Olympic Education website has not been built yet; the Olympic Education Program has not been pushed out. Olympic Education in China should be viewed as a long-term beneficial course not only for the 2008 Olympic Games. Thus this paper aims at discussing the great significance of the Olympic Education to carry out People's Olympics, analyzing the status and problems of Olympic Education now in China, and proposing solutions to handle those problems from a strategic perspective.

Problems

Due to historical and political reason, China got involved in the Olympic Movement relatively late and so did Olympic Education. In 1984 it sent the first delegation to the 23rd Olympic Games. However, the central government has always attached much importance to the sport and culture education and actively promoted Olympic education with the participation in different aspects of Olympic Movement. Some universities and institutions built Olympic Study Centers such as the National Research Institute of Sport Science, the Beijing Sport University, the Qingdao College of Profession and Technology and etc. Meanwhile a large number of activities of sport art, sport literature, sport journalism and the like are held by sport governing bodies on every level in association with governmental and social organizations of culture and education. Frankly Olympic Education in China has just taken initial steps and achieved some fruitful results. With the coming 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, the city of Beijing is obliged to implement an Olympic Education Program in the 4-year cycle. Olympic Education is not only an indispensable component of organizing the Olympic Games, but also a great opportunity to promote national culture worldwide. When strategically thinking

about how to implement a successful Olympic Education Program in China we found the following problems which are not favorable to the ongoing Olympic Education process:

Problem 1: The role of Olympic Education has not been sufficiently emphasized

Though many people think that Olympic education is very important, its role is easily weakened without integrating with the current department objectives and national goals. Therefore we should look into the core of the sport policies and government thoughts.

In the Document 8 issued by the Central Government and the State Department, the task for sport to achieve in the new era is stipulated: with the further development of economy and society, people are more aware of fitness and exercise, thus the role and function of sport are more prominent. This is completely in line with the scientific development concept of building harmonious and people-oriented society. It says, sport as a broadly participated activity cannot only build people's body, but also build their soul in bravery, strong will, self surpass, taking risk and challenge, competing and cooperating, which is a perfect means to enhance friendship and solidarity. The above concepts comply with the Olympic values in harmonious development of body, will and mind, people and nature, economic growth and social progress. Olympism is philosophic thinking of life, elevating quality of people's behavior in a philosophic way, convincing people to believe in individual endeavor and human equality, and fight against discrimination of race, class and ideology. Furthermore, Olympism not only encourages people to participate in sport, but also to interact and associate in the multi-cultural realm. It is a tool to unite all people in the world. Everyone could be model of the others. If more people follow Olympism in their routine lives, the philosophy can rapidly overspread the whole society. From the perspective of

scientific development concept, the Olympic Education in China can be sufficiently emphasized, being the key to realize “People’s Olympics”, and the means to fulfill the Chinese sport task in the new era.

Problem 2: Olympic Education values ought to be clarified

We often hear the sayings like gold medal always goes first, or result is much more important than process. As long as you get the gold medal in the end, all things can be negotiated. If the thought can be broadly accepted by the society, many sport problems would deteriorate. For example, the athlete would use doping at cost of damaging his body for the first place; the referee would judge unjustly due to taking bribery. In this sense Olympic education can help a lot, clarifying Olympic value of happy sporting, self-challenging and fair play to invisibly supervise the behavior of athletes and referees.

Olympism is a changing philosophy, reflecting the characters of the era. People are more and more aware of living harmoniously with nature. Green, sustainable development and environmental protection are becoming key words of the modern times. This is a typical illustration of Olympic spirits being continually enriched. During the practice of Olympic Education, we should take notice of these changes and evolutions, deeply perceiving the spirit of Olympism with the society progress.

Furthermore, we ought to create national featured Olympic values based upon a good understanding of Olympism and current situation, which would become an innovation of Olympic Education characterized by times and nationality. We have seen a good example in the Canadian Olympic Education Program with 7 Olympic Values concluded: excellence, entertainment, fairness, respect, human development, leadership and peace. In the case of Chinese Olympic Education, Olympic values should be clarified and interpreted taking account of Chinese traditional culture and current social problems.

Problem 3: The civilization level of venue audience should be increase

For a host country the very basic task for Olympic education is to disseminate Olympic knowledge and protocol among ordinary people, thus they can prepare well when the Olympic Games and the Paraolympic Games come. Do audiences enjoy the match? Do they respect the athletes and referees? Do they behave properly? Specifically in China a certain degree of misunderstanding is unavoidable caused by culture differences of east and west, therefore cultivate Chinese audience at sport venues through Olympic Education is very necessary and effective as well.

In order to solve this problem, behavior code for venue audience should be broadly popularized and more importantly the misunderstandings need to be corrected. Very often the audience cannot keep calm or objective when watching the game between China and the country, which has ever invaded it in the history, or a former Chinese player representing the other nation, playing against a Chinese athlete. Olympic Education can help them overcome the radical patriotism and behave properly.

Problem 4: Olympic Education to athletes is the core

It is self-evident that the athletes can be good modeling. From the very beginning of the Olympic Games the athletes were the most shining stars leading audience's eyeballs. Whether the gold medallist stepping on the podium hearing the national anthem singing, or the last player far behind other contesters still running on the track to the end, they are all heroes respected by people equally. The Olympic champions are easily becoming national heroes and idols of the young. However, some of these athletes are lured by money and honor, doing a lot of commercials and asking for high rewards. Some even break laws or do against public interest. In China many Olympic Champions are filming in the advertisements of cigarette and alcohol.

This is obviously not in line with the healthy lifestyle advocated by Olympism.

In addition, doping needs to be strictly banned among athletes. Not very few athletes take risks to use doping in order to get the gold medals. They are eager to be the first in the match sacrificing their body, which helps the negative social problems for example hook and crook, cheat and fraud. So the athletes need to be first educated by Olympism, and their attitude and behavior can influence people and guide the teenagers to experience the Olympic spirits like fair play, self-surpass, strong will, and etc.

Problem 5: Avoiding negative influence of media dissemination

Nowadays sport cannot survive without media, and the prosperity of Olympics has been closely associated with the development of media. It was TV that brought the Olympic Games to the whole world. People cheer for the Olympics at the same time but in different places. TV was acting as the platform to show Olympic Games, to promote the Olympic Movement, and to transmit Olympism. Besides TV the traditional media like newspaper, magazine, radio, and film are playing similar roles. Therefore media can easily influence people and sometimes misguide them, especially teenagers who lack in capability of telling apart good and evil. For example, many people think that “gold medal the first”, or “result talks”, which has something to do with the media misleading. Meanwhile the new media Internet not only causes a media revolution but also reform the sport transmission. It is very important to the current Olympic Education. From 2000, 2002 to 2004 Olympic Games, Internet has been adopted in the Olympic Education and achieved a lot. Both traditional and new media are playing great roles in Olympic Education, influencing the audience especially the young at large.

Solutions

Create Chinese featured Olympic values

Olympic culture and education is developing in the trend of diversification. Being the host of 2008 Olympic Games, Beijing should contribute to the Olympic Education in a way of blending oriental culture essence with Olympism during the 2008 cycle by innovatively supplementing and expanding the contents and forms of Olympic Education to invite the whole world's involvement in our Olympic Education Program. China is one of the cradles of oriental civilization, giving the Olympic Education a great space to create and reform. Chinese featured Olympic values are supposed to be created on the basis of national development in the framework of current world situation. The value system ought to guide the Chinese people studying, working and living in a positive way, and solve the social problems to benefit the whole world. We strongly believe that we ought to and can make a tremendous contribution to the Olympic Education and Olympic Movement.

Olympic Education for every one

In the over one hundred years of modern Olympic history, the Olympic Education is basically provided to the school students. However the Olympic Education should not be limited to a group of people but open to all people. Actually Olympic Education to some special groups such as athletes, media reporters, venue audiences is very important and sometimes compulsory. Furthermore, the Olympic Education should not be limited geographically to Beijing or some cities undertaking event tasks, but to spread to the whole country and the underdeveloped western areas in particular. Therefore the Olympic Education should face everyone in the broadest way through Olympic Education websites, Olympic knowledge exhibitions, Olympic textbooks, Olympic issue forums, Olympic learning software and so on.

Program making and implementation of Olympic Education should be people-based and sustainable

The Olympic Education program should not only guarantee the implementation before and during the Olympic games, but also ensure the legacy could be effectively kept through the post-Olympic Education. Thus a sustainable Olympic Education can be formed with the education impact continually expanded. In order to promote and transmit the Olympic Education on the global level, ideally the executive organization of Olympic Education should run under the supervision of BOCOG and NOC, cooperate with Beijing municipality and relevant departments of China Education Ministry, and actively associate with IOA and other National Olympic Academies.

Internet tool of Olympic Education should stick to non-profit, cutting edge, recreation, interactivity and broadness

For the coming 2008 Beijing Olympic Games a great deal of Olympic themed websites have emerged but developed a certain disorder, such as using the same content with different titles, repeating construction, mixing profit and non-profit together. Thus the resources of Olympic Education need to be well integrated with the contents and means focusing on entertainment, advancing and interactivity. For example, the cartoon games and electronic games in the context of Olympic Education are designed for teenagers, who can learn Olympic knowledge and experience Olympic spirits by the funny way of playing games. In addition, Internet tools should make full use of the international Olympic Education resources, cooperating with Olympic education societies worldwide to build a global platform of Olympic Education.

Set up effective mechanism to guarantee the success of Olympic Education

For the time being, Olympic Education in China is warmly welcomed and passionately expected by the whole society and schools in particular. There are many associations and corporations that would like to contribute to the promotion of Olympic Education without any reward. However, Olympic Education cannot be done only out of goodwill but to take the intellectual property rights and regulation into consideration. Therefore an effective mechanism should be set up as soon as possible in the executive organization of Olympic Education, to meet the Olympic Education needs of different groups and to promote the Olympic Education through all social forces. In the case of the Beijing 2008 Olympic Games, BOCOG is supposed to build an approval procedure to handle with the Olympic Education proposals, presenting to the public with a transparent and dynamic understanding. Meanwhile a monitoring and evaluating system is necessary to guarantee the validity and effect of the Olympic Education.

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THE BIRTH OF ROWING IN ITALY: FROM AN ANCIENT TRADITION INTO AN OLYMPIC SPORT

Ms Valentina MARONE (ITA)

This paper concerns the introduction of the “gentleman’s hobby” of rowing into Italy from Anglo-Saxon culture and its subsequent evolution into a true sporting discipline in the Italian context. The paper explores the primary “importation”, subsequent historical development and modern sports view of rowing in Italy.

These events have not been homogeneous with the Anglo-Saxon model of rowing, but have developed along Italian national and regional lines. Basically the revival of the “English style” has been progressively worn out by following occasional patterns in different schools of thought. This writing tries to explain how the use of the oar, more in Rome than somewhere else, has produced a strange cohabitation along the river of the typical English man’s sobriety and the odd “boatman’s exuberance” which is the main feature of Roman people along the banks of the Tiber.

Along the riverside of the Tiber the history of roman rowing is full of anecdotes and gossips which linked the Romans to the “*Father Tiber*” into bonds of complicity and reciprocity. The introduction in Rome of the English oaring custom has settled a strange cohabitation of Anglo-Saxon moderation – typical of the English “*gentleman*” – and carefree youth of the local people – typical of the boatmen. The

20th century begins the modernity and the technical development of rowing bringing up the value of its “*coubertinian*” change from an ancient tradition into an ideal discipline of Sport.

In Italy the introduction of what can be considered as typical English tradition, strengthened and firmed by centuries of deep tradition, has been equivalent to the assimilation of an odd pattern which has produced a proliferation of meanings and personalizations typically Italian.

It's true that Italians were used to oaring since a long time, but it's so much true that the real modern and sporting rowing has always seemed distant from the Italian practice and style for historical reasons.

In Venice a boat race called “*regatta*” was an autochthonous component, synonym of association and collective participation to a special event made possible by a strange combination of morphological and political factors. The others towns nearby attempted the revival, such an “*exhumation*”, of this ancient type of rowing have failed worn out and involved by local particularisms.

In Italy the requirement of establishing a national federation that gathers the whole rowing movement was already rife, especially in the two towns more involved into the matter; Turin and Rome. Through the analysis of their social situation at the very end of the 19th century comes out clearly a sampling of which were the differences in the approach to the newness of rowing. In Turin prevailed the attraction of the competitions and the competence of the spectators. Along the river the bound toward the progress is attributed to the sport version of this kind of custom. Rome is the stage of the nobility that takes place in the most prestigious clubs, nearby the people from the lower classes perform the role of “sons of the Tiber”, passionate fishermen, chance lifeguards or lone swimmers.

Since before the second half of the 19th century there was in Rome a small group of young sportsmen that later on, in 1872, took the official role of “Gymnastic Club of Tiber's rowers” – “*Società*

ginnastica canottieri del Tevere” – : so, not really a rowing club but still an association of amateurs.

Through the fusion with the “*Club of the Oar*” – “*Club del Remo*” – which was born by the splitting from a recreative association to increase nautical sports along the banks, rose a coalition named “*Circolo Canottieri Tevere Remo*”. According to its’ statute the new-born Club’s original purposes were rescue operations during the floods of the Tiber. To do that it was equipped with only 50 rowers and 25 boats, but enough for such “noble” initiative. And exactly the noblemen from the upper class were the pioneers of the escalation of the “*rowing vogue*”: businessmen, self-employed, politicians, physicians and all the people belonging to aristocracy crowded the floats on the banks where at that time bathing was a very important chance of joint sociality.

So at once seemed clear such class-conscious approach to the new custom: the very first amateur associations were forbidden for professional athletes, employers, manufacturers, engineers and labourers coming from the working classes.

In open antagonism towards the Club mentioned above at the very beginning of the 20th century rises a new “companionship” of protesters belonging to the middle class which contested certain kinds of “*snobbery*” introduced into the rowing Clubs by the real Roman patriciate. According to them the xenomania for the English Style has progressively ruined the authenticity of rowing and its’ spontaneous meaning of being an entertainment as a sport discipline.

After many years of sporting activity those protagonists of such “*nouvelle vogue*” along the river founded the “Lazio Sports Club” – “*Società podistica Lazio*” in January 1900 and since the beginning they tried to boost rowing from the sportive point of view.

So, as it can be seen so far, in Rome the passion for rowing was born between Sport and vogue as a hybrid between two contrary concepts of the way of living: the instinctive free play to athletics or the noisy

spontaneity of physical movement through sport which belongs to the lower class and the silent moderation of style of the leisure time – “*loisir*” – through recreative and no physical activities which belongs to the upper class. Rowing combined these two concepts together into the shape of a great event that associates, gathers, entertains the audience like a true social and athletic *event*.

At the same time as the first victories in national competitions and championships rowing clubs increased their prestige and popularity: becoming a member of the Sports Club meant to invest a large sum in it; money required for the maintenance of the buildings and the equipment.

Free from the inconvenient label of a slavish and amateurish practice modern rowing mended its' style and improved the training. Despite these efforts, the results of this improvement did not turn into the convergence of the rowing style, but contrary the differentiations came from unlikely cultural origins. That's because at that time in Italy was still clear such kind of stylistic unevenness which prevented its real standardization. When the roman rowers started to assimilate other's intuitions, adapting them to their own physical characteristics, they invented a style rather agile and effective which made its' contribution to victories and to the evolution of technique and methodology of training.

Having laid the foundations of the relaunching of the oar's movement, independent of the importation of foreign avant-gardes and trainers, the clubs crammed themselves with Italian talents able to spread and transmit the pedagogical meaning of rowing through a significative metaphor: “**rowing is just like put on a boot**”.

Rowing might be educative, because it is not only the ostentation and the expression of strength but also agility, accurate, precision and predominance of the technical aspects, but above all it reproduces strength of character, physical vigour and synchronism: properties also necessary for everyday life, in their comparative and non-competitive

shape, for improving the moral, corporal and spiritual formation of the human being.

The heritage of the first World War didn't keep rowing from surviving and proliferation, although in the post-war period Rome was an open building yard and human and economical resources were exhausted. When during the twenties the "Rowing Club of Rome" – "*Circolo Canottieri Roma*" – was born it seemed that rowing could still keep up the bond between the city and its waterway, the "*Father Tiber*". But after the resumption a crisis occurred as a result of the tearing and breaking between the National Federation and the Clubs which complained of the high admission fees and accused the League of weak advertising and lacking obligation in the planning of work.

The intervention of the Fascist government prevented the regression and involution of the whole "*Oar System*" and during the first twenty years made Sport as the **catalyzing phenomenon** of its home politics of consent. The gold reserve of university students, registered to fascist youth organization such as the *GUF* (Giovani Universitari Fascisti), assured a long sequence of victories: the spirit of self sacrifice, the obedience to the orders, the endurance to hard trainings and the will of standing out among all the others, were requirements and peculiarities coming from fascist ideology.

Unfortunately the bronze medal won by a "Capitoline" crew during the Olympic Games in Los Angeles 1932 is the last picture of the enthusiasm of the roman rowers before the Second World War which had turned Europe into a heap of debris, but which couldn't abolish the natural inclination of the human being to Sport and its unicity in handing down values. Sport can resist profit and professionalism and can maintain its noble and generous character if reformed as an institution.

That's why and how rowing has survived in Rome: a "*open town*" as in Rossellini's movie that laid down arms to grip again oars and to return to the *Father Tiber*.

OLYMPIC MOVEMENT AND OLYMPIC EDUCATION IN IRAN

Behzad Mehdi KHABAZIAN (IRI)

The history of Iran national Olympic Academy

The idea and plan of establishing the Iran national Olympic Academy goes back to 1994. The NOA's original statutes adopted in 1994 had to be amended to correspond with the new facilities added to the NOA complex. The NOA complex was finally ready to become operational in the year 2002.

The amended text was then submitted to the NOC executive board and was re-approved in March 2000. The national Olympic Academy was inaugurated on 20th June 2002 by the president of international Olympic committee and high ranking sport officials of the country so as to become the meeting place for all those who are in quest of realizing both knowledge and action in their strive to the development of sport, promotion of olympism and bringing about sport achievements.

Mission statement

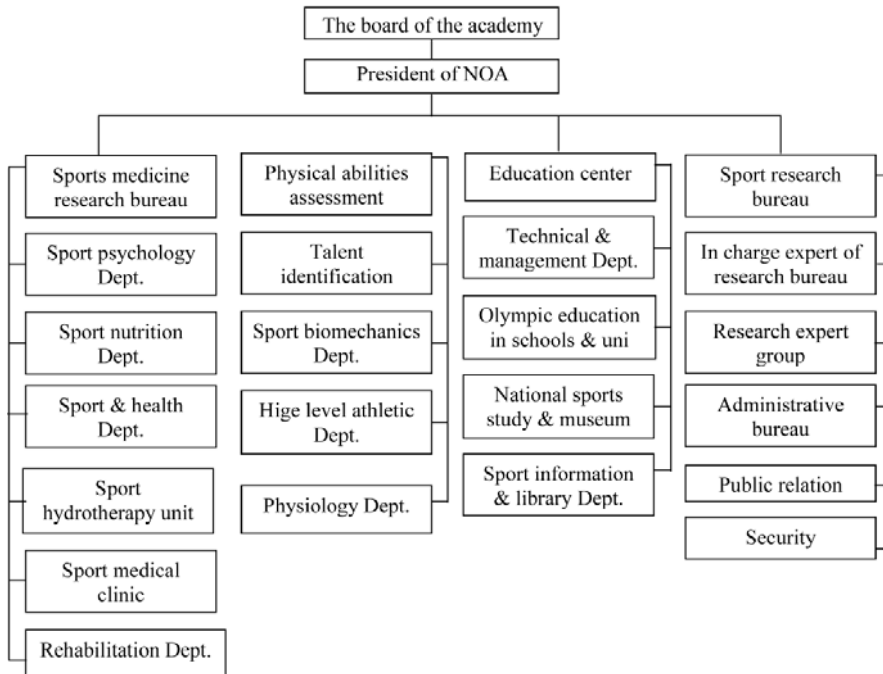
The Olympic movement is a widespread global movement which incorporating sport on the one hand and education and culture on the other, represents a life style based on the joy found in effort, the educational value of good example and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles and patriotism.

Its goal is being to place everywhere sport at the service of the harmonious development of man, the Olympic movement tries to help create a peaceful and better world.

In accordance with the Olympic values, the national Olympic Academy of I.R.Iran was established by the I.R.NOC as a scientific, educational, cultural and specialized research organization to pursue the following objectives:

- To promote the fundamental goals of olympism and familiarize the society with the goals and ideals of the Olympic movement.
- To promote the spirit of chivalry and strengthen the fundamental ethical movement.
- To identify and improve talents and to conduct research and study programs, using sports sciences for the development of sports quantitatively and qualitatively.
- To prepare the required facilities and training, educational, research and sports medical service.
- To prepare national elite athletes for participation in the Olympic, Asian, regional and Islamic solidarity games.
- To organize educational seminars and scientific symposiums on national and international levels.
- To organize cultural and art programs and hold sport books or photo exhibitions and sport, cultural and educational film festivals.
- To promote mutual scientific and cultural cooperation with other centers in the national regional and international levels.

Organization of Iran national Olympic academy



Education center

Olympism is a way and philosophy of life based on respect to human dignity and fundamental ethical principles, the joy found in effort and the educational value of good example. The goal of Olympism is to place sport at the service of harmonious development of man. Olympic education center as one of several sections of the national Olympic academy has the responsibility of promoting ethical values through sports and educating the youth in accordance with the Olympic charter to create a world filled with peace and friendship.

This center is consisted of the following sections:

- sport administration and technical education
- Olympic education in schools and universities

- Information center and the library
- Museum and survey tradition sports

The goals, mission and duties are:

- 1- To promote the principles and goals of the Olympic movement and familiarize the society with the goals and ideals of the Olympic Games
- 2- To organize educational courses to further familiarize students, media and others involved in sports and cultural affairs of the Olympic movement
- 3- To organize sessions and meetings where research article on the topics discussed in the international Olympic academy and other international forums are presented and discussed and to devise and apply the regulations and criteria according to which representatives are selected and sent to such international events
 - To organize Olympic solidarity technical courses and other scientific and refresher courses for coaches and experts on national and international levels
 - To hold short term technical and sport management courses for the administrators in charge of different sport federation, associations and other executive sections to further improve the level of sports administration and leadership activities
 - To organize coaching courses for the neighboring NOC's and Islamic countries
 - To dispatch coaches and experts to other countries to cooperate in the field of sport sciences
- 4- To promote relations with the international Olympic academy, international Olympic committee, Olympic museum and Olympic research center and other national or continental Olympic academies and with the Islamic solidarity sport federation

- 5- To plan and hold sport seminars and congresses especially on the topics related to Olympic and Paralympics movements
- 6- To publish scientific, technical, educational, cultural and historical books on the Olympics and Paralympics and on the biographies of sport champions and prominent coaches and those who have devoted their lives to the cause of the development of sports

Sport research bureau

Regarding the importance of research activities on promoting and improving the sport functions as well as permanent development of sport, this section, closely working with other departments and research scientific institutions, is responsible for consulting, drawing up and supervising sport science research projects of the academy.

Goals, missions and duties:

- 1- To identify research needs through collaboration with other department.
- 2- To organize and conduct research to further improve sports and athletes performance.
- 3- To organize and conduct scientific / cultural research works on the subjects discussed in the Olympic movement.
- 4- To supervise and prepare research proposals for the approval of the NOA council.
- 5- To provide consultation and statistical assistance for intended research projects.
- 6- To organize joint research projects with other scientific centers or institutions with the cooperation of other departments of the academy.
- 7- To establish a data bank on sports research programs in close collaboration with the web site of the academy

- 8- To organize research workshops.
- 9- To carry out research works on domestic sports and provide help for internationalization of national / local sports.

Physical abilities assessment & improvement center

The NOC of the Islamic republic of Iran established the physical abilities assessment and improvement center in 1997 to assess the physical abilities of national team athletes participating in the 13th Asian games, Bangkok 1998 and 2000 Olympic in Sydney, Australia.

Ever since its establishment, this center has played a pivotal role in developing sport sciences in the country through evaluation athletes' physical abilities with the assessment results submitted to the respective coaches and team managers. The experts working in this center have outstandingly developed their abilities in the field of sport technology by designing assessment and measurement devices in cooperation with Iranian engineers. The assessment and measurement devices thus produced herald new prospects on national and international levels.

This center currently includes four sections which are as follows:

- physical abilities assessment and improvement
- physiology and talent identification
- sport biomechanics
- high level training

Goals, missions and duties:

- 1- To design, prepare and implement testing and assessment protocols and schemes in the fields of sports physiology, sports biomechanics and assessment of athletes' physical fitness and to further analyze and disseminate test results to athletes and coaches.

- 2- To provide the related service and consultations to elite athletes and coaches.
- 3- To organize and conduct educational programs for national teams, elite athletes and coaches.
- 4- To provide consultations to elite athletes and coaches based on available assessment results to further improve and expand their abilities and training schemes.
- 5- To improve and conduct research projects in collaboration with other national, regional or international research centers and institutes.
- 6- To identify and train the special talents in collaboration with the related sport federations and sports medicine research centers of the academy.
- 7- To develop the international relations with related research and scientific centers.
- 8- To analyze, compile, translate and publish the results of the tests as well as articles and books.
- 9- To conduct the laboratory affairs to ensure the adequate maintenance of its equipment.

Sports medicine research center

“Contributing to the development of performance of Iranian athletes and coaches through the integration of the highest standards of provision and research in applied sports science and sports medicine” sports medicine center of the national Olympic academy of I.R.Iran is a specialized center which focuses on education and research in the field of sport medicine and present clinical and scientific services. It currently encompasses some different clinical and sports science section including:

- sport medicine clinic
- hydrotherapy unit

- sport rehabilitation
- sport psychology
- sport nutrition
- health and fitness

Goals, missions and duties:

- 1- to conduct study, research and educational programs aimed at improving and developing sports medical sciences on national, regional and international levels.
- 2- To organize and conduct appropriate educational courses in the field of sports psychology, sport nutrition and sport rehabilitation for national athletes, coaches, experts, administrators and office bearers of sports federation and other involved in competitive sport.
- 3- To organize workshops and educational courses for team doctors and other medical staff (e.g. physical therapists) involved in sports.
- 4- To organize workshops and educational courses on sport and health as well as consulting sessions.
- 5- To provide facilities and specialized medical care and services for elite athletes and national teams.
- 6- To organize national and international seminars and symposiums on sports medical sciences.
- 7- To promote mutual scientific and research cooperation with international institutions and to strive to achieve positions within international sport and science bodies and organization.
- 8- To constantly update the sports medicine knowledge of specialized staff of the department through participation in appropriate courses held by other international institutions or centers.
- 9- To cooperate with the physical education organization, sport federations, universities and other research or educational centers.

- 10- To compile, translate and publish specialized books, bulletins or magazines on sports medical sciences.
- 11- To provide consultation and services for medical, training or assessment needs of the national athletes and coaches.
- 12- To conduct the laboratory and clinic's affairs and to ensure appropriate maintenance of their equipment.

Public relations

Public relations, considered as the connecting link between the administrative programming and the public, tries to build up mutual understanding between the academy and target population. To further promote the spirit of cooperation among colleagues and subsequently achieve the goals of the system through public collaboration, the public relations department, besides documentation of sport events and cultural or art activities also holds photos and books exhibitions and sports film festivals.

The department includes the following sections:

- Documentation and media affairs
- Audio – visual
- Graphics and publication
- Cultural and public collaboration section

Goals, missions and duties:

- 1- to program and take the necessary steps towards the improvement and expansion of the universal moral and ethical values with an emphasis given to Islamic-Iranian culture and the public opinion.
- 2- To plan and conduct scientific and specialized research projects on cultural and social relations.
- 3- To improve cooperation with managers at different levels of the organization in providing the necessary information and

executive assistance.

- 4- Documentation of sport events and publication of news bulletins, brochures, posters, reportage and other promotional material and to maintain a constructive relation with media to provide a fast and clear coverage of the news.
- 5- To organize and hold cultural and art festivals and exhibitions.
- 6- To maintain update archives of photos, films, CD's and other related material.
- 7- To attract public collaboration to further promote the goals of the academy.

Hotel

Being located in an attractive area north of Tehran, and having 35 rooms and the related administration and logistics department, besides providing accommodation and services for the guests, mostly athletes and coaches, the hotel is ready to host guests for different training or educational courses and camps and seminars.

Location and facilities

The national Olympic academy of I.R.Iran is located in the Enghelab sports complex north of Tehran, the capital city of Iran. The total functional area of the academy occupies 4 hectares of the land of the Enghelab sport complex and is consisted of different roofed and open air exclusive and multi purpose halls and gymnasium.

Facilities of the academy

- Multi purpose gyms include volleyball, basketball, and handball, judo, taekwondo, karate, fencing, wrestling.
- Physical abilities assessment and improvement center
- Halls for forums and seminars

- Swimming pool and saunas
- Outdoor field

Facilities of Enghelab sports complex

- several golf courses, 30 outdoor tennis courts, 7 indoor tennis courts, 5 volleyball and basketball courts, multi purpose courts for indoor sports, out door and indoor swimming pool, fishing pool, soccer field, jogging and cycling track, extensive training facilities for youngsters, adequate camping facilities for training teams and even at international levels, a 230 person boardinghouse able to cater several teams under training, a 200 seat auditorium and a 50 seat conference hall both well equipped for various events, multi purpose seat for 500 – 3000 seats, squash court, skating field, total area 2500 square meter, paint ball total area 2100 square meter

The Olympic education from statistical view (2003-2005)

In the following table you can find the number of participants in Olympic education during the years 2003 to 2005.

Kindergarden	2000
Elementary school students	8000
Guidance school students	1700
High school students	3000
University student	1700
Disabled people	6000
Coaches and athletes	1700
Physical education students	4500
<i>total</i>	28600

7 research, 2 ethic and sport seminars, 1 audio-visual seminar, doping control seminar and first seminar about Olympic education in Feb 2005 are some the works which has done during the last 2 years by the national Olympic Academy of Iran.

Vision for the future

In the next few years, the main goals of Iran national Olympic Academy will be improving international relations, decentralize the educational and cultural programs, increasing relationships with physical education universities, to have annual educational/cultural and scientific seminars.

At the end it should be noted that the national Olympic Academy of Iran is not only an educational/cultural center but also scientific as well and providing different kinds of facilities and services to the sport society makes this center unique.

BEIJING OLYMPIC GAMES AND OLYMPIC EDUCATION IN CHINA

Ms Guanwei GUO (CHN)

I. Introduction

China's Olympic involvement can be traced back as early as the 1920s when Mr. Wang Zhengting, a high ranking Chinese diplomat and sport leader was selected as the first Chinese IOC member in 1922. However, for the next several decades the Chinese Olympic Movement hardly developed simply because the nation was engaged in other more urgent tasks in order to survive under the threat of foreign powers and later, a conflict on the legitimate membership of the IOC with Taiwan kept China out of the Olympic family. This controversy was finally solved in 1979; China returned to the Olympic family, and the Olympic Movement got unprecedented development in the most populous nation in the world. But in the decades of 1979-1999, the practical activities of the Olympic movement were given far more attention than the ideological system, the core part of Olympic Movement.

On July 13, 2001, Beijing won the right to host the Games of the XXIX Olympiad. Hundreds of millions of Chinese people around the world jumped into ovation, swarmed into all kinds of streets and roads all night long as soon as Baron Samaranch's voice finished the announcement. From that day on, Chinese Olympic history started a new page and at the same time Olympic Education spread itself to more abroad areas and accelerated itself to high level.

What is Olympic Education? The question may have various answers. I agree with the explanation by Professor Ren Hai, namely Olympic Education is a process for people to acquire Olympism. Olympism is, according to the Olympic Charter, "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 of 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;
- To spread sport ethics in order to cultivate sportsmanship among its participants;
- To set up role models of Olympic athletes for youngsters.²

II. The Origin of Olympic Education in China

Though Beijing failed to win its bid for the 2000 Olympic Games by two votes, Chinese people still gave enormous enthusiasm to the Olympic Movement. Olympic education emerged as a new field in China from the beginning of 1990s.

According to state regulations, physical education is a compulsory subject from the first grade in primary school up to senior high school. In these P.E. programs skills of Olympic sports and Olympic knowledge are taught. Two textbooks, *The Olympic Story* for primary

¹ IOC, Olympic Charter, 2004

² REN Hai, Olympic Education Programmes in China History, Analysis, Methodology and Evaluation, *Report on the IOA's Special Sessions and Seminars 2000*, P402

schools and *The Olympic Knowledge* for secondary, were published in 1993, which provided teachers with proper materials to quench young people's thirst for Olympic knowledge. In addition, a monthly journal, *The Journal of Physical Education in China*, mainly for primary and secondary school gym teachers, has a special column for articles on the Olympics.

Also in 1993, China published the first systemic Olympic teaching material, named *Olympic Movement*, which was a compulsory subject for all institutes and university of physical education, offered at the undergraduate level with 36 teaching hours. In 1999, *Olympic Theory* was published. Nationwide normal universities and colleges chose it as a compulsory subject. Beijing University of Physical Education has recruited students for their Master's and Doctoral programs on Olympic studies since the early 1990s. In 1994, the Olympic Research Centre in the Beijing University of Physical Education was established, which 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.

Olympic education has also been conducted in conjunction with the school games held in stadiums, 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. Through such education, young people are expected to acquire knowledge about the Olympics, develop a concern for the Olympic movement and understand the Olympic spirit.

In 1989, the National Sport Museum and the Olympic Press were set up in Beijing with a wide-ranging collection of sports artifacts and a great number of books on various facets of the Olympics published separately. The museum's fifth exhibition hall was specially designed

to exhibit the Olympic's artifacts. Programs like "the Five Rings Talk Show" and International "Sport Review" at a China Central Television Station also disseminated a large amount of information to a willing audience of Chinese citizens.

Collaboration among P.E. institutes, sport research institutions and the governmental sport administrative agency - the National Sport Bureau, and the Chinese Olympic Committee (COC) resulted in various workshops, seminars and symposia, all with explicit educational purposes. From the middle of the 1990s a series of short anti-drug educational programs for athletes and other concerned persons have been carried out, pamphlets published and experts invited to give lectures, highlighting health damage and moral defects of drug taking. The Olympic Day run is another activity organized by the COC with an educational concern. Each year around June 23, 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 on promoting mass sport participation.

III. The Development of Olympic Education after Beijing Winning to Host the Games of the XXIX Olympiad

Winning the 2008 Olympic Games is an optimum educational opportunity to disseminate Olympism in China. The theme of Cultural Programs of the 2008 Olympic Games is "harmoniousness, communication and development" and this forms the core of Chinese Olympic education.

Many Olympic research institutions have set up in Chinese universities and are actively devoted to Olympic studies since 2000. Authorized by the Beijing Municipal Government and supported by the Beijing 2008 Olympic Organizing Committee, the Humanistic Olympics Studies Center at Renmin University of People's Republic

of China was inaugurated on October 21, 2001 to improve, strengthen and coordinate academic effort focusing on the theme of “Humanistic Olympics” in the preparation of Beijing 2008 Olympic Games and related application and training (<http://www.c2008.org>). Their book *Humanistic Olympics* was published by the center in 2003. Starting from 2001, many universities have set up a study of the Olympic Movement as an elective. Chapters of Olympic education were added into the physical teaching material, *Physical Education and Health*. For example, Zhong Yuan University of Technology offers an elective named *Olympic Culture* at the undergraduate level with 26 teaching hours. The contents include Olympic history, Olympic Movement in China, the proceeding and sense of bidding on Olympic Games, technology and Olympics, the doping problem in Olympic Movement, the culture characteristics of Olympic movement and Olympic Movement in the 21st Century. The subject was developed by AUTHORWAR, which is rich with pictures and videos. Capital Institute of Physical Education (CIPE) has set down an action programme, i.e. CIPE Olympic Action Programme. The program aims to provide human resources and intelligence support to the Beijing 2008 Olympics.

With Olympic studies going to higher levels, Olympic researchers have also been trying to popularize and disseminate Olympic education. In 2001, mega-activities like “China Olympic Education Tour” and “Chinese Children and the Olympics” were launched by senior lecturer in Capital Institute of Physical Education Dongguang Pei, a participant in the 7th International Postgraduate Seminar on Olympic Studies, connected with some other gym instructors. The content of these activities includes making exhibition of picture boards of the Olympic movement in China in all kinds of schools, colleges, universities and communities; staging Sports Games that simulate the ancient Olympics pentathlon and at the same time hosting an exhibition of infant painting arts and singing contests that welcome the 2008 Beijing Olympics. Through these activities they got

the support of the Beijing Organizing Committee for Olympic Games (BOCOG) and exposure to about fifty media representatives.

In 2002, the Beijing Municipal Government and BOCOG released the Beijing Olympic Action Plan in both Chinese and English which is available on the website of BOCOG (<http://en.beijing-2008.org/76/29/column211612976.shtml>). The plan emphatically states that education is a core element of the Olympic principles. In the next 6 years, a variety of approaches would be applied to popularize knowledge about the Olympics, spread Olympic ideals and promote the localization of the Olympic spirit. *Olympic Readings for High School Student and Olympic Readings for Primary School Student* were published by BOCOG separately in January 2004, March 2005. The books not only systematically introduce the basic Olympic knowledge but also vividly illuminate the substance of the Olympic spirit by describing Olympians and things that happened in the Olympic movement. In addition, BOCOG promoted a new style curriculum schedule sheet printed on regenerative paper. Special space inside the sheet was arranged to introduce “Green Olympics, High-tech Olympics and People’s Olympics”.

Volunteers play a very important role in every Olympic Games. Beijing 2008 Olympic Games will need almost as many as 100,000 volunteers. On July 3, 2002, the Beijing Young People’s Olympic Action Plan developed by Beijing’s Youth League Committee (<http://www.bjyouth.gov.cn>) was launched. The plan includes six major activities, i.e. youth civilization action, youth green action, youth science and technology action, youth health action, youth friendship action and youth volunteer action. On July 13, which was set as “Unified Action Day”, it held a series of activities and promotional activities including Olympism and Olympic knowledge. With the help of various Youth League organizations and volunteer groups, an educational campaign has been conducted in the neighborhoods, schools, and businesses on the theme that “voluntary service adds to the Olympic glory”.

Starting from 2003, a “Beijing Olympic Cultural Festival” has been held annually from June 23, the International Olympic Day, to July 13, the day when Beijing succeeded in its Olympic bid in 2001. The festival is aimed at showcasing the magnificent and long-standing Chinese culture and civilization, promoting the propagation and development of the Olympic spirit in China and publicizing the three concepts of “Green, High-tech and People’s Olympic Games”. During the festival, lively cultural events that are rich in both content and form, including high-quality international art performances, have been staged to help extend the social impact of the Olympics, spread the Olympic ideal and demonstrate people’s enthusiasm for the Olympic Games. Scholars and experts from home and abroad were invited to take part in symposiums on Olympic Games image design and cultural innovation, Olympic torch relay, Chinese jade culture and Olympic spirits, Olympic education, and digital film and television for Olympic Games. The Cultural Festival has encouraged people in different fields to participate in cultural activities such as the performance of Taiji (shadow boxing) by 10,000 people on the Great Wall, open-air cultural events, English speaking contests for high school students, singing contests and other cultural and sports activities.

The communicative power of the media has been fully tapped to promote the themes of 2008 Olympic Games. Special Olympic programs like “Leading to 2008” showed on Beijing TV has been launched, and the broadcasting of sports events over TV or radio has been strengthened.

IV. Outlook of the Coming Olympic Education in China

Starting from 2005, Olympic lectures will be provided at colleges and universities as well as elementary and secondary schools, using the *Olympic Education Readings* released by the IOC Committee of Culture and Education as important teaching materials.

Plans have been made to set up an Olympic website and launch an online Olympic club to provide athletes and sports new ways of communication and convenient Internet services. This can help to spur the enthusiasm of network users in participating in the Olympics. Programmes like “Welcome 2008”, “Splendid 2008” will be staged on TV succeeded the “Leading to 2008”. It also plans to set up a virtual Olympic Museum in 2008 in cooperation with the Olympic Museum in Lausanne.

With the coming of the year 2008, all government organizations, all kinds of schools, colleges, institutions and universities will devote more time and resources to Olympic education. Through the process of receiving Olympic education, all citizens, especially the youth, will be encouraged to build a better country, then a better world. Such will be a great legacy that Beijing 2008 Olympic Games leaves behind to the world, thanks in the main to the emphasis on Olympic education.

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THE OLYMPIC GAMES: WORLD CUP OF WORLD CUPS – THE RIGHT WAY?

Mr Patrick SUVES (SWE)

From Athens to Athens. A hundred and eight year journey through the 20th century. From 241 athletes from 14 nations to 10 500 athletes from 204 countries. From 43 to 301 events. The last Olympic Games were followed by 2/3s of the world population. One could say that the Olympics have evolved. But which way it will or could or should go in the future. This paper's mission is to ask that question, trying to answer it and giving an opportunity for thinking and discussing the matter.

Introduction

The glory of being an Olympic sport is a tremendous one, especially when perceived from a non-Olympic sport point of view. The chance of being seen by thousands of on-site spectators and millions of television viewers can be somewhat of a huge positive injection to the specific sport in question. On the lighter darker side, a setback can be what effect it can have on the sports own World Cup competition.

In this paper I mainly concentrate on the possible expansion of the Olympic Games and what consequences it could have. As I strongly believe that a world cup isn't just an arena for the best, but also a stage for the up & comers to show their own qualities. And as the Olympic Games generally are a collection of World Cups or World Championship

tournaments for that matter, it is hence also an arena not just for the most famous sports, but for the more unknown as well.

I also set the focus on four different sports with three different backgrounds or approaches to the Olympic movement and try to generate a result of what effect the Olympic status has to the sport, not just in general, but for the IFs own competitions as well. One with nearly bigger status than Olympic Games itself, one with the honour of being an Olympic sport and two with thirst for achieving the status. I have chosen the following four sports for specific reasons, that I have seen have had clear or would have clear effects of the Olympic status. King Football, as it's many time referred to, is one of my subjects. Ice Hockey, another team sport game, is another subject and thirdly, yet again, two sports with the elements of team and ball. They have a lot in common in sport specific terms, but even more so in the fact that they strive for the status of Olympic sport. Fairly new to the lot of you, but here they are, they're called Bandy and Floorball.

Football – number one

Football (or soccer) is a globally known phenomenon, an Olympic Sport since Paris 1900, the most widely spread ball game in the world and the sport that generally anybody can play and therefore has the largest number actives. The winner team of the Olympic Games was hailed as the greatest of the world until Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) launched its own World Cup competition in 1930. Nowadays the FIFA World Cup is the only sporting event that can compete with the Olympic Games in size, public interest, TV ratings and money. The Olympic Games usually hauls and lines up the best of the best athletes. That's not the case in the Olympic Games men's soccer tournament. The teams that compete of the gold medals are the respective nations under 23 – teams with an exception of the fact that each country may use three extra players, regardless of age.

With knowing that deal one might realize that the standard of football in the Games is not on the highest level. No disrespect of any kind to the actual talented players, who show us spectacular football, despite the above. Anyway, something is missing and that is the absolute best teams and players. That said and not much more needed to say that the status of FIFA World Cup is much higher than Olympic Football tournament. Thus even the players regard that winning a World Cup is a much more greater goal, a harder strive and a bigger challenge than an Olympic gold medal in Football. One might wonder why is this the case? Why are there “youth” teams playing in the event considered as the greatest challenge an athlete can participate in Olympic Games? You might just guess, that the standard, status, brand etc of FIFAs own World Cup is just on so high level that it would be foolish to let the Olympics compete with their own magnificent masterpiece. Therefore a “rule” from FIFA to let only U-23 teams compete in Olympic football tournament has made the standard what it is today.

The last World Cup in Japan and South Korea 2002 was broadcasted into 213 countries and the viewing of the final can only be compared in terms of viewers to the American Football final – the Super Bowl. As these two events are the highest ranking TV programs when looked into the total amount of broadcasted countries and the sum of TV viewers. Comparing the TV rights for the Summer Olympics and the FIFA World Cup shows the gigantic magnitude of money we are dealing with here. The amount of revenue gained by the two global happenings are nearly identical and both IOC and FIFA received a sum of somewhat 1,5 billion dollars for selling the TV rights for their respective games. One could playfully and hypothetically say that it wouldn't hurt the sport of football to step out of the Olympics as the only really strong competitor to the Olympic summer games is – just as said before – the World Cup of football.

Ice Hockey – at a turning point

Ice Hockey, globally a much smaller sport than football, has been on the Olympic programme even before the winter games began. First in 1920 at Antwerp summer games, but when in 1924 in Chamonix the winter games started Ice Hockey transferred there and has been in the Olympics since. International Ice Hockey Federation (IIHF) has organized World Championship Tournament annually, with few exceptions, as far back as 1930. The standard for the tournament has never been high neither for the World Championships nor the Ice Hockey tournament in the Olympics since the best ice hockey players in the world compete at the same time in the National Hockey League (NHL) in the United States and Canada. This until the last years, when the NHL officials decided to arrange a break during the Olympics. This fact has skyrocketed the standard and status for the ice hockey tournament in the Winter Olympics. The IIHF annual World Championships has lastly now if not earlier, suffered inflation due to fact that the games are every year and that the players mainly are of B calibre. It doesn't help that NHL itself arranges from time to time (though many years apart) its own tournament for the world's eight best national hockey teams – the World Cup (a follow-up for Canada Cup). Despite these truths, the public interest is still strong in Europe's traditional hockey countries. Even that, this doesn't change the opinion among experts that the only "real" world champions title can be achieved only by winning the Ice Hockey tournament in the Olympic winter games or by conquering World Cup.

In sport terms for ice hockey it is though vital to be part of the Olympic family as the coverage of events by TV is much wider than the coverage of a single World Championships or World Cup. Salt Lake City 2002 winter Olympic Games were broadcasted into 160 countries, which is far larger number than for example the fifty countries the IIHF World Championships 2005 is broadcasted into. It

is clear that for the expansion of a sport the Olympic games provide an excellent showroom to gain new members for the specific sport in question.

Bandy and Floorball – the eventual road to Olympics

Bandy, an older game, that's played with sticks and skates on a large ice field is roughly said a mix up between the two earlier talked about sports – football and ice hockey. Floorball, a fairly new game, is on the other hand a mix up of all these sports – football, ice hockey and bandy – and is played in a rink with stick and shoes. Speaking with sport terms the goal of both sports is to score with the ball in the opposing net. But when speaking of the goals of the International federations both have set the Olympic recognisance as target, as it is somewhat believed as a quick fix for sport development and acquiring new actives.

The latter – floorball - has quickly evolved around the world with many new national federations starting up often and the game basics spreading globally with a fast pace. In the case of bandy it has gone quite the opposite and the international and national federations are trying to stop the negative trend. Although it has already been approved by the Olympic committee and is now on the list for recognized sports. Even that the road to becoming a full bloodied Olympic sport and event is still long. Even longer it is for Floorball, as the needs for Summer Olympics are even tougher. The reward is quite the worthwhile as nowadays the World Championships (Bandy – annually, Floorball – every second year) are broadcasted to just some few measly countries. To understand the philosophy of being or in this case wanting to be an Olympic sport and not just prestige thing, imagine for example how many people would know what curling is, if it weren't for the Olympics. You will get hints of what possible effects the honour brings or better yet it shows the difference

of being an Olympic sport and not being one. Don't get me wrong, achievement of acquiring an Olympic seal isn't automatically an immediate pathway to glory and a solution to all problems although it's often a huge milestone and above all an excellent arena to show the rest of the world the strength and greatness of the sport. The economics resources also rise as the central organizations for sport often favour the Olympics sports because of the possibility of medals which in their case might bring glory and recognition for the land in question.

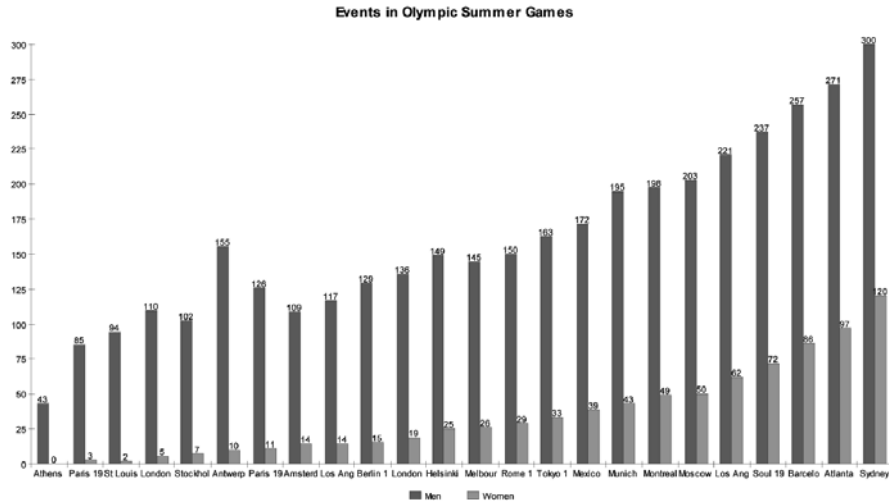
Conclusively for this part though, both bandy with 15 affiliated international federations and floorball with 32 affiliated international federations have still a long way to meet the IOCs requirements to become full members of the Olympic family. As for winter games the requirements are that the sport is widely practiced in 25 countries on three continents and for summer games that men from at least 75 countries and four continents and women from 40 countries and three continents widely practice the sport. Though the sports has taken the example from the other sports and made new special federations in countries with no significant improvement even after years with the thought that the eventual Olympic status will buffer up the interest. The fact that there are many sports in the Olympics that do not fulfil the criteria above but still maintain their position as an Olympic sport because of historical reason is entirely a different matter.

Dilemma

Although there lays a dilemma, as the adding of new events, disciplines and even sports makes the organizing of the games even harder. The new things demand not just more time, space and people. There is also danger that the whole structure will collapse if it becomes "just" too much. The people will start to lose interest (probably worst with swimming, with a lot of likewise events), the

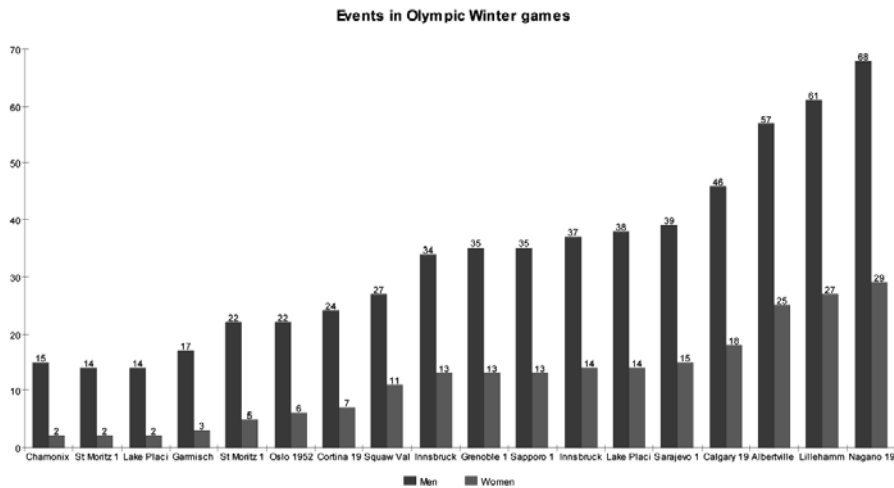
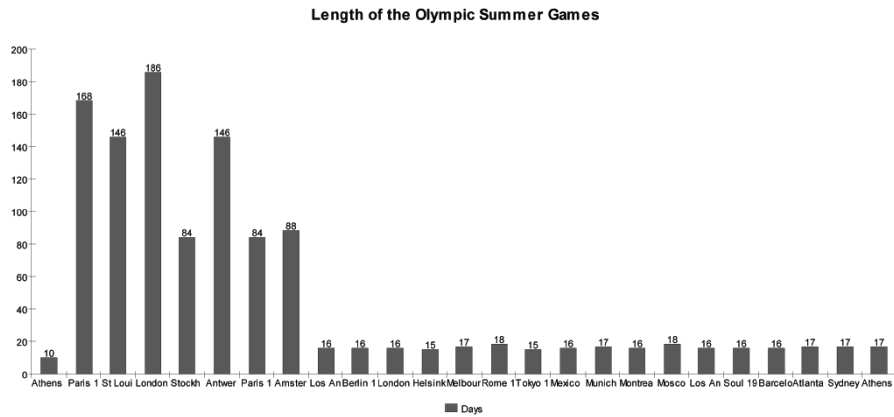
cost will increase (just look how high the budget has slipped. i.e. the security budget skyrocketed for Athens 2004 after the September 11th events) and as said before with little exaggerated pessimistic attitude, that too much is too much. But maybe that is just as I said, who would have in the Athens 1896 organizing committee thought that the games would be so humongous that they are today. But the question is yet again, has the critical top been reached and more is it important is it even necessary to expand further without the games suffering damage. Would a longer time than the present two weeks be required or would it cause disastrous elements as the public could lose interest in a more flat lined longer version of the games. We have in history the beginning of the 20th century, when the games were synchronized with the World Fairs and lasted over 100 days. Generally all the games before Los Angeles (excluding Athens 1896) lasted at least 80 days. A step back in time to those days is no doubt an option any more in anybody's mind, but some plans of moving towards it IOC considers before it's too late. With the current expansion rate, I regrettably believe that it can make organising in the current time period harder and the consequences may have dark future sights. I haven't calculated any economical figures, but is an expansion with two weeks out of the question, as the successful FIFA World Cup hosts a month long football manifestation with keeping the attention full time at total focus. As for now the Olympics host a world cup for World Cups for 28 sports and as many sports' disciplines have their own World Championships the total amount rises to near forty. An average championship takes about two weeks, so the total amount rises to near eighty weeks or one and a half year. Hence the OCOG have a seven year long job to shrink a one and a half year of World Cups to just two weeks (or seventeen days to be exact.) Mission Impossible, some could say. A challenge even for the logistics mastermind. But somehow they've always made it and for our pleasure mostly a job well done. But there is always room for improvement.

Stats and figures of the Olympic expansion

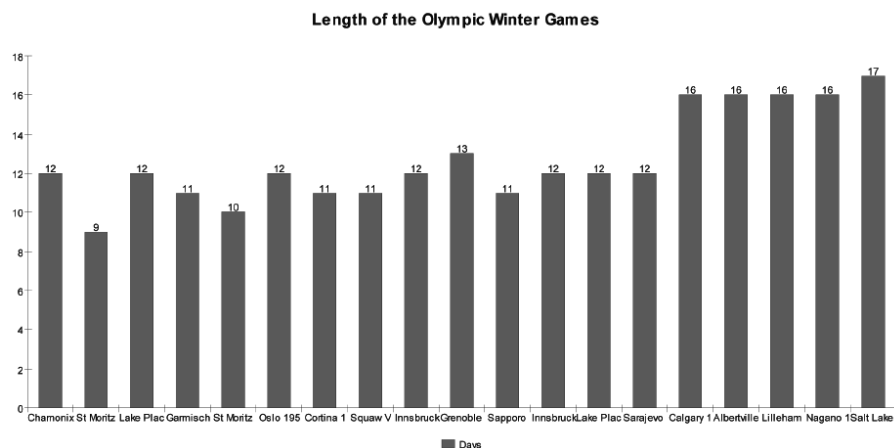


* In 1952 the equestrian was competed half year earlier in Stockholm instead of Melbourne and is excluded from the figure above.

Nowadays the Olympic summer games is competed in 28 different sports including the following: Aquatics, archery, athletics, badminton, baseball, basketball, boxing, canoe/kayak, cycling, equestrian, fencing, football, gymnastics, handball, hockey, judo, modern pentathlon, rowing, sailing, shooting, softball, table tennis, taekwondo, tennis, triathlon, volleyball, weightlifting and wrestling.



The Olympic winter games include today the following sports: Biathlon, bobsleigh, curling, ice hockey, luge, skating and skiing.



As the graphs show the events in the winter games move much better hand in hand with the amount of events. For the summer games (ignoring the “marathon” games and beginning with LA ’32) the events steadily rise with near 200 but only a single day is added to the schedule. These facts help me contribute the message I’ve earlier delivered in this paper and in the next chapter conclude.

Suggestions to improve the World Cup of World Cups

Could it be that the expansion of the games time wise would ruin the mood or could it be that this way the introduction of new sports of all around world will increase and even the more secluded sports may get a chance to show the rest of the world its strength. I would, if a parallel universe existed and this could be tested, put my money on the latter one. During the modern Olympic Games over one hundred year old history the time span of the games since ’32 hasn’t expanded nearly with the same index as the sports, disciplines and events. So with the current status with including all of this in two weeks, what could we achieve in a whole month? An answer would be something like the following: A better concentration of sports and events, as people now feel the games are much of a blur during the month.

Interest for special and unique events would simply rise. The element of adding new sports, disciplines and events would be easier as time wouldn't be so much more of a factor. Although I feel that cutting on the number of events in some disciplines could lower the danger for inflation in some sports, though on the other hand this wouldn't have any remarkable economic effect on the games as same stages would be used in most cases. The adding of new sports would definitely cost more as for some sports the need for new stadiums would be inevitable. But so would the income also rise as more and more people would get the chance to see the games live and the sponsors would get more exploitation time. Television broadcasting for a month would boost up even more the status of Olympic Games. In terms of interaction, communication and unification this would rise up the interest for the Olympic movement. The case is even more obvious for the Olympic winter games, where I see a lot of space for improvement, even though the amount of participating athletes and countries are smaller.

A negative effect of the expanding the number of sports may though result in lowering the status of Olympics and that this would simply cause inflation if too much would be covered. Personally I don't see this as a problem, because to change something you can't expect changes make a difference to better right away. People aren't that versatile, so it would require adjustments in time. Another thing that I often hear, but never see is the exhibition sports. So when do they take place, as TV coverage hardly covers their best chance of getting the general public interested. All in all, the adding of more days to the schedule wouldn't just give the people more of what they want, but would simply ease the job for the organizers, lower the rim of new sports and get simply more people excited about the world of sport and it's greatest showcase – the Olympic Games.

Just why should we stay put, when we have the chance to move forward. If we have the power, isn't true power measured in those who

also make others powerful? So why wouldn't we give a chance to others as well and expand the games in the sporting world. Show the world in years of Olympiad the greatness, strength, glory and unification of sport and celebrate for a whole month. Expand from two weeks to a whole month, lower the barrier for Olympic recognisance and therefore give chances to even more and more people to participate. Give the great audience chances to new experiences. Joy from new athletes, from new events, from new sports, from new parts of the world brings us all closer - closer to a better world. We in the Olympic family have the privilege to make a difference, to make ends meet and spread the glory of Olympism. So why wouldn't we use that privilege?

Source Material

www.olympic.org

www.fifa.com

www.iihf.com

www.internationalbandy.com

www.floorball.org

THE PARALYMPIC GAMES IN ATHENS 2004 FROM GREEK PUPILS' POINT OF VIEW

Ms Sandra HECK (GER)

1. Introduction – subject of investigation

Paralympic Games are already an established part of today's World Sports Movement. Through their relatively short history they can be compared to the first state of development of Olympic Games, to a time when contests were determined by the ideal of amateurism.

Do Paralympic Games therefore still represent Olympic Values in a purer and clearer way? Has an environment of commercialization and professionalism not yet formed a certain unstoppable direction for the Paralympics, too? Or is there a meagre chance that the environment will change itself to the "purity" of Paralympic Games?

According to negative tendencies of modern sport, like corruption and doping, these elements are not directly connected with Paralympic Competitions.

The decline of values that may endanger the future of the Games is closer connected to the Olympic Games and could be named as an aspect of the increasing process of demystification of our modern world. From this point of view Paralympic Games still take up a position far away from a sports world that concentrates only on professionalism and capital expansion.

The question is whether these special features and possible advantages of Paralympic Games (like pureness and honesty) remain

only a theoretical assumption and do not correspond to their real image or whether the Paralympic Athletes manage to transfer these attributes on the spectator.

While the first possibility would refute the existence of these as typical Paralympic presented features, the last possibility would firm their position as unique and special elements and therefore an important and indispensable part of the Games.

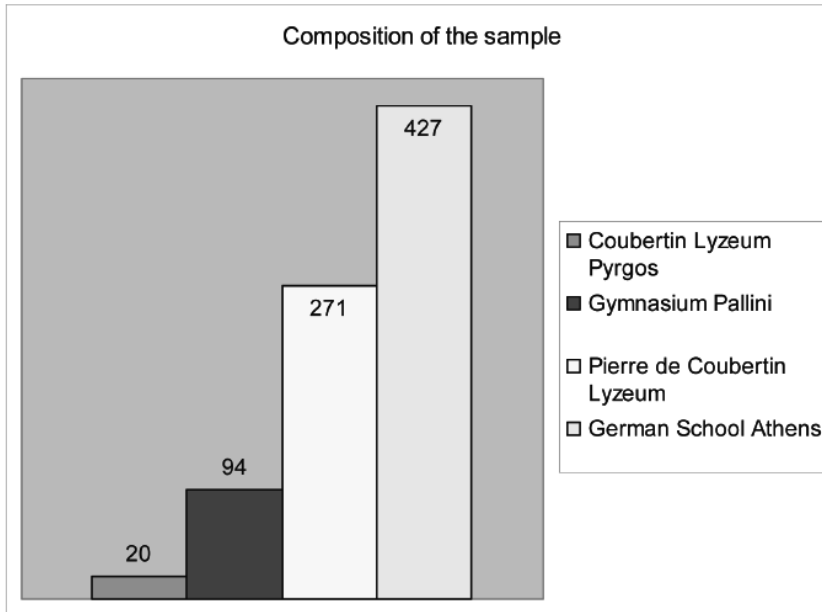
The following paper may give an insight of how young people who could be considered as representatives of future developments value Paralympic Games. The paper is based on a questionnaire (see appendix) amongst pupils from schools in Greece during the Paralympic Games in Athens 2004.

After the explanation of the method (see chapter 2) an insight in the most important results of the questionnaire (see chapter 3) is given. The paper closes with a "Summary and conclusion" (see chapter 4).

2. Method

In order to get a representative sample more than 800 pupils (aged approximately 14 to 18 years) were asked to answer the questionnaire.

More than half of them were composed of pupils from the "German school of Athens". Besides that three Greek schools, "Coubertin Lyzeum Pyrgos", "Gymnasium Pallini" and "Pierre de Coubertin Lyzeum", took part in the Olympic research.



The return of the questionnaire was, apart from some missing particulars very high: All pupils completed the form. But from this value no conclusion could be drawn because the children had no chance to decide whether to fill the form out or not. They were ordered to take part by their teachers during the lessons.

The visit of the Paralympic Competitions was also not the children's free decision. In most cases one can assume that it was mainly a decision of their parents because the schools required parental consent to take students out of class. With the parents' consent pupils in Greece visited the Games in closed classes together with their teachers.

Compared to "normal" spectators the pupils of the sample represented a specially-prepared group: Already two years before the Games started all Greek pupils were scheduled in Olympic themes within the Olympic and Paralympic Educational Program. For the imparting of this program special Olympic teachers were taken on additionally.

3. Results of research

The following theses refer to selected aspects of the questionnaire (see appendix). First the thesis is mentioned – in taking a strict one-sided position – and subsequently the confirmation or contradiction to the results of the pupils' particulars.

For not directing the reader in a predicted way of valuation, the results are consciously only named and described and not used to produce a certain attitude. The decision whether to agree with the statement or not, shall lie totally in the hands of the reader and give initiative to an interesting discussion of different points of view.

Referring to the different theses and results in each case, several questions or possible ideas of interpretation are formulated as a kind of impulse. They shall initiate the search for own positions and give an impression of possible ways of thinking and reflecting.

Thesis 1: Pupils only visit the Paralympics because they are ordered to by the school authority.

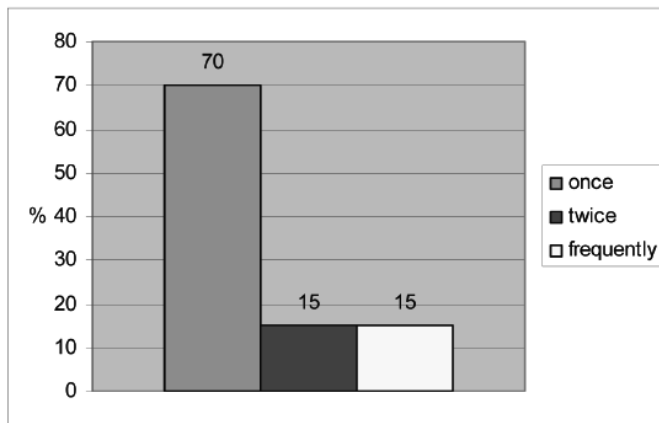
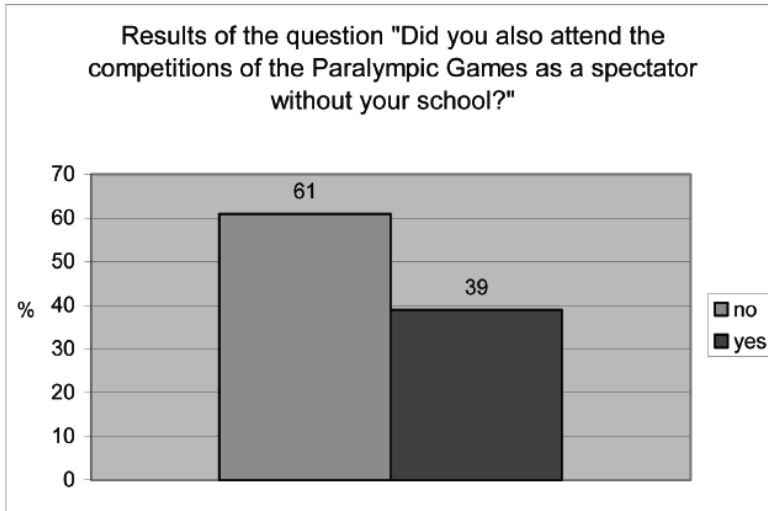
Why do young people visit Paralympic Games? Is their visit based on own interest (which may correspond to a great future of the Paralympic Games) or do they prefer other activities in their free-time?

As part of the Olympic and Paralympic Educational Program of the schools in Greece pupils visited the Paralympic Games (like the Olympic Games before) together with their teachers (see chapter 2). That is why pupils had actually little chance to decide whether to take part or not.¹

This school-intern organized kind of visitation gives reason to speculations whether the pupils would have visited the Paralympics

¹ Not thinking of a minority of pupils who may skip school if they do not want to participate. And also excluding the possibility of the parents' decline of this school excursion.

at all without the impulse of school. A free¹ decision seems to be underlined if they visited the Games not only once but even frequently by their own.



¹ "Free" in this context means without the requirement of school authority. The possibility that pupils are also forced in their free-time for example by their parents or only by Freud's "Over-I" (which is actually part of every decision) is not included.

With 39% of the sample less than half of the pupils took the chance to visit the Paralympic Games additionally to the school excursion.

From the minority (39%) that visited the Paralympic Games independently, a great majority (70%) only went once.

So can we conclude that it was mainly the influence of school that brought young people to the Paralympic Competitions? Are Paralympic Games less attractive's youth is confronted with?

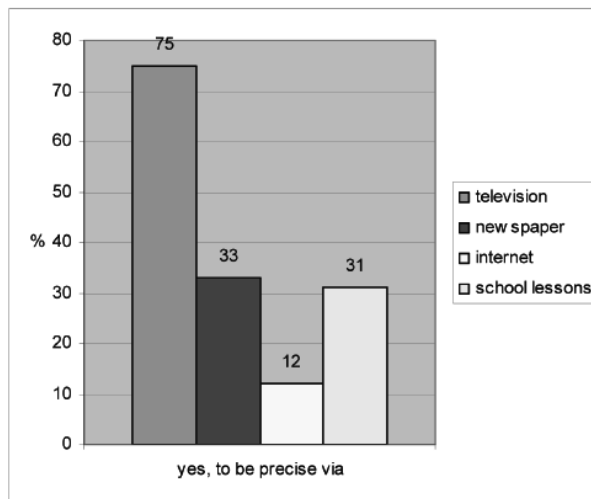
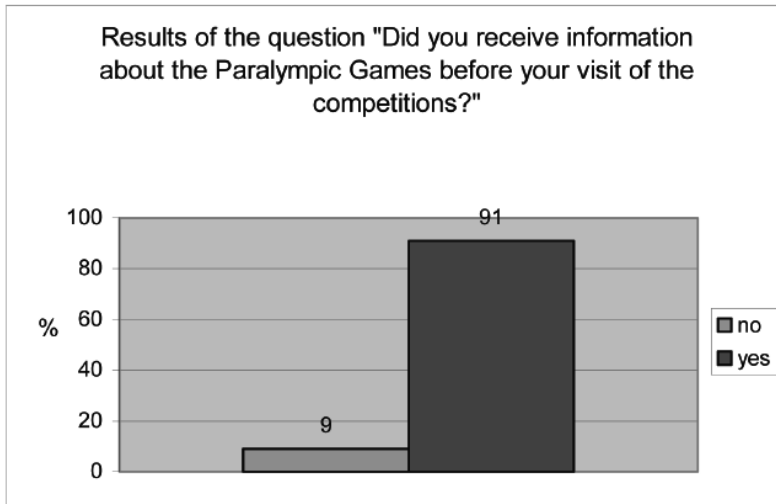
The following thesis attends to one possible reason for the minor interest of visiting the Paralympics more frequently.

Thesis 2: Pupils have less interest in the Paralympics because they do not dispose of a fundamental theoretical background knowledge.

What are the reasons for the minor popularity¹ of Paralympic Games? Is the stand of information too low?

All the questioned pupils took part in the Olympic and Paralympic Educational Program (see chapter 2). The question is whether this Program really reached the pupils and if they consequently dispose of fundamental background knowledge about the Paralympic Games. Maybe other media had a greater influence on their Paralympic knowledge?

¹ The conclusion that the minority of "additional-visitors" (see thesis 1) is due to a general minor interest is not proven, and therefore only represents one possible reason for low additional visits.



About 90% of the pupils received information about the Paralympics in advance of the Games. Though it is not possible to state the amount and the quality of their knowledge the majority of the pupils had obviously been informed about the Paralympics before their visit.

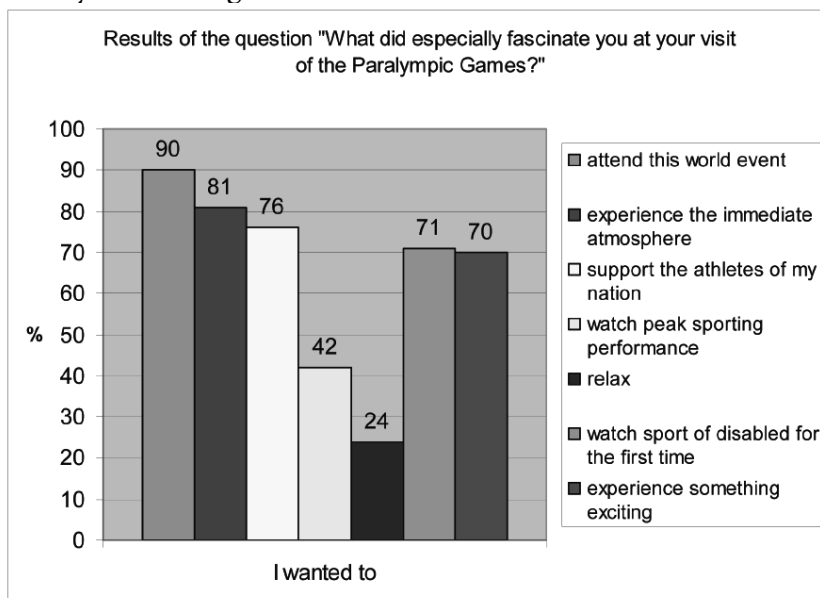
The most important source of information was “television” with over 70% of mentionings. Compared to that less than half of the information (31%) was based on the “school lessons”.

So could one conclude that the preparation within the Olympic and especially within the Paralympic Educational Program did not cause lasting impressions on the pupils' knowledge of the Paralympic Games?

However caused, whether through television, newspaper, internet or school lessons, pupils gained knowledge about the Paralympic Games and built up their own special image about them (see thesis 3).

Thesis 3: Pupils combine special features with the Paralympics that contribute to an independent position of Paralympic Games on an equal level to Olympic Games.

Are there features that mark the Paralympic Games as a special competition? Which features do the young spectators mention as especially fascinating?



The aspect of “watching the sport of disabled persons for the first time” was named in more than 70%. This high number of primary experiences may correspond to the young stage of development in which the Paralympic Games stand (see chapter 1).

In regards to the Paralympic Games, the result of the competition seemed not to be that important for the pupils: More than half of them did not emphasize “the peak sporting performance”.

Compared to impressions within the spectators of the Olympic Games¹ this attitude tends to be quite unusual and therefore specifically Paralympic.

Other values like “attending in a world event”, “experiencing the immediate atmosphere”, “supporting the athletes of their nation” and “relaxing” did not stand out in comparison with the Olympic Games.

So does the result underline the thesis of Paralympic Games as a special, other way of sports competition?

The next thesis follows the assumption that compared to the Olympic Games Paralympics are marked by their own and special features. This difference may also be apparent in the differing frequency of watching the Games on television (see thesis 4).

Thesis 4: Pupils consider the watching of Paralympic Games compared to the watching of Olympic Games as less attractive.

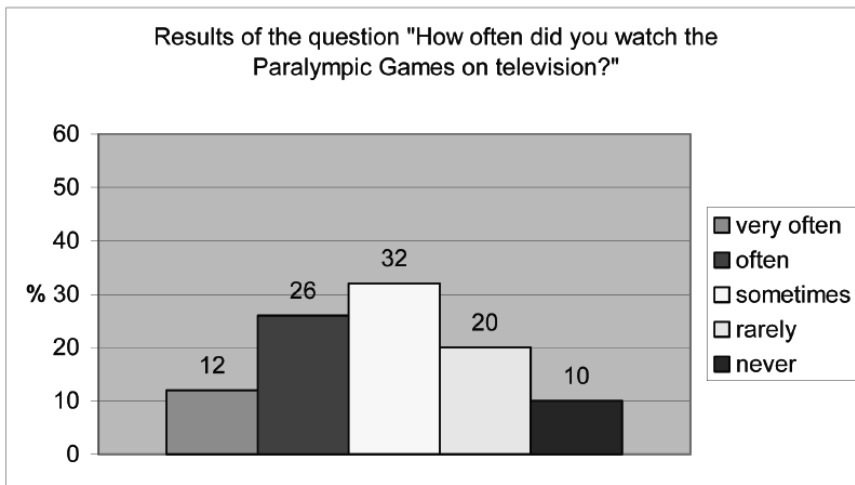
The enormous viewing figures and the fact that nearly every household owns at least one television set underlines the important role that television plays in every day life of modern societies. Accordingly the possibility of watching world events

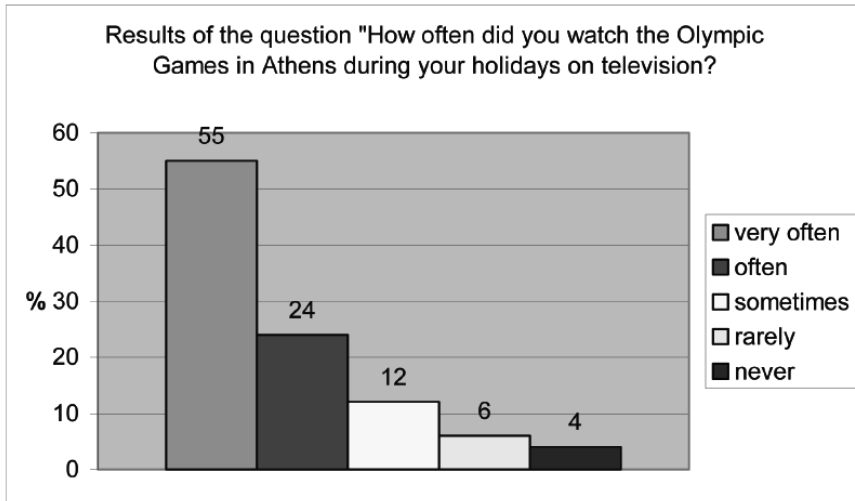
¹ Since 1984 field researches at the Olympic and Paralympic Games (questionnaires within the spectators etc.) are one of the main subjects of the Research Team Olympia (Faculty of Sports, University of Mainz, Germany).

like Paralympic and Olympic Games can be assumed for pupils in Greece too.

But having the possibility to watch different channels with different programs also includes the possibility to decide what to watch or not.

Does the Olympic-interested spectator make a difference in the frequency of watching the Paralympic and watching the Olympic Games? Is the watching of Paralympic or of Olympic Games more attractive?





As the frequency of watching the Games in television is used as an indicator of general interest Olympic Games are obviously more attractive for pupils than Paralympic Games: While during the Paralympics “watching very often” was only chosen in 12% of the cases, more than 50% choose “very often” in context of the Olympic Games.

But the conclusion that the Paralympics are totally out of pupils’ interest is not confirmed. Less than 10% have “never” watched Paralympics on television and more than 30% after all “sometimes”.

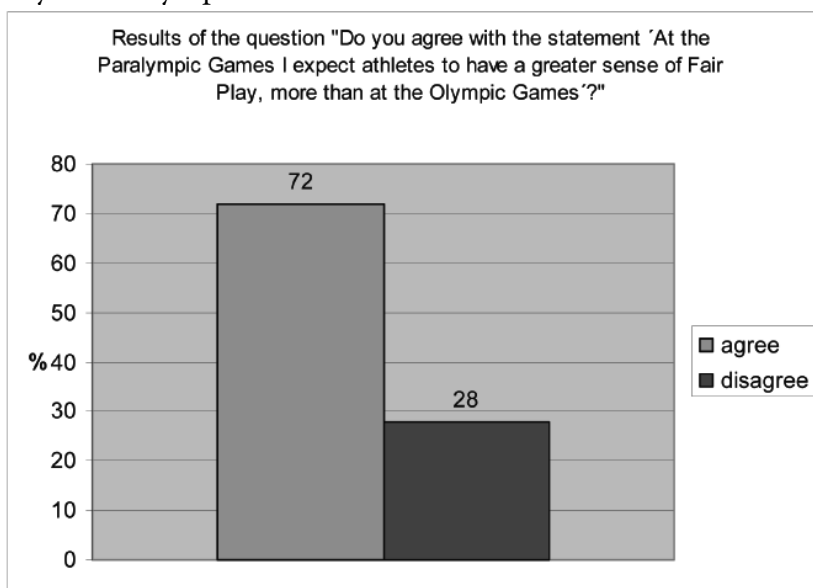
Does the media somehow produce this result by itself through different ways and durations of broadcasting?

Or are Paralympics generally less attractive for the young spectator?

The following theses 5 to 7 that will give an insight in pupils’ attitude towards Paralympic Games may help to find answers to the origin of this difference in interest.

Thesis 5: Pupils think that Paralympic Athletes represent the value of Fair Play better than Olympic Athletes.

Representing 'Fair Play' is normally considered as a positive way of practising sports. As Olympic Athletes serve many people as a figure of identification they should stand for this value in particular. If people expected (compared to the Olympic Games) a greater sense of Fair Play during the Paralympic Games the importance and special quality of Paralympics would be confirmed.



With more than 70% a great majority expected more Fair Play within the competitions of the Paralympics.

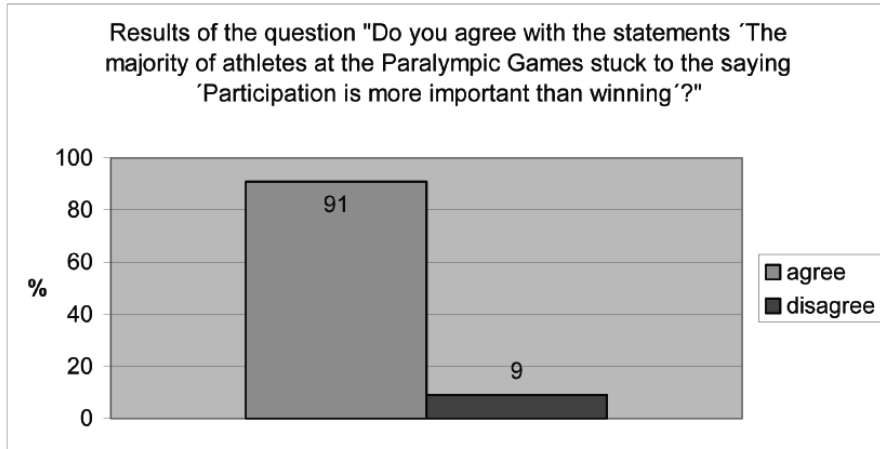
This clear vote may correspond to the observation that the “peak sporting performance” was not considered as first aim during the Paralympic Competitions (see thesis 3).

Do Paralympic Games according to this result still represent Olympic Values in a purer and clearer way (see chapter 1)? Or is it only a cliché, a prejudice?

Maybe the analysis of a corresponding Olympic Value, the attitude that “taking part is more important than winning” (see thesis 6), will offer more insight.

Thesis 6: Pupils attribute the attitude that “Participation is more important than winning” to a majority of Paralympic Athletes.

A majority of the pupils expected a greater sense of Fair Play from Paralympic Athletes (see thesis 5). Pupils’ attitude to the representation of another Olympic Value, that “Participation is more important than winning“, is analysed within this thesis. This result may give a possible reason for the greater possibility of practising a fair sport: If participation is first aim of athletes, ideas of Fair Play may have a greater influence on athletes’ behaviour. But do pupils think that Paralympic Athletes are already satisfied with their pure participation in the Games?



More than 90% of the questioned children agree with the thesis that winning played not the most important part for the Paralympic Athletes in Athens.

In contrast to this, the second place during Olympic Games often seems to be the unlucky place of the first loser.

This result confirms the classification of “the peak sporting performance” in a back position of the ranking (see thesis 3) and the emphasis of Fair Play during the Paralympics (see thesis 5).

The following and last thesis refers to a certain aspect of fair sports competitions: the “principal of equal chance” (see thesis 7).

Thesis 7: Pupils think that the “principal of equal chance” is not realised during Paralympic Games.

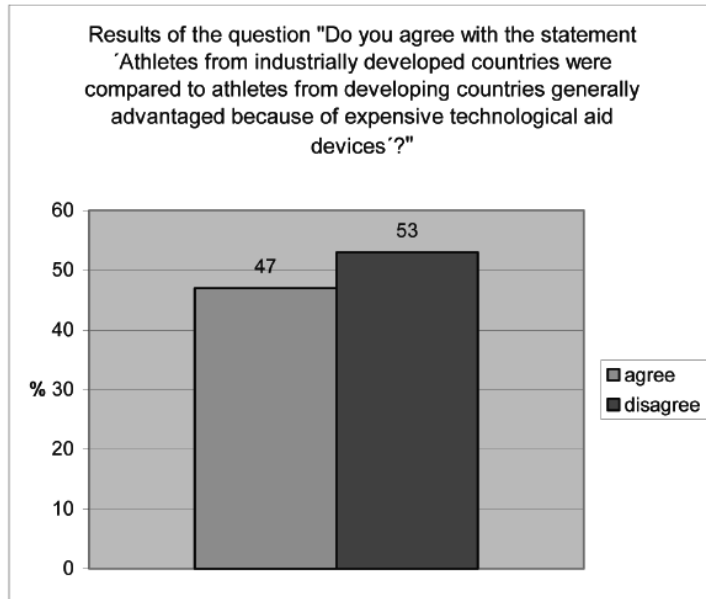
Besides the sporting performance the quality of the technical equipment plays an increasing important part within the Paralympic Games.

The fact that technical equipment requires research and capital expenditures – in particular because of the mostly missing sponsors – creates a difference between the quality of the athletes' equipment.

The thesis that the “principal of equal chance” is not realised during the Paralympic Games responds to the fact that athletes from industrial countries may be considered as generally advantaged compared to athletes from developing countries because of their possibility to produce or buy expensive instruments. If the results of sports competitions are mainly determined by money, athletes from developing countries may be considered as generally disadvantaged.

Did the questioned pupils confirm this thesis? Did they see an imbalance concerning the chance of winning between high and less developed countries? And if yes, does this mean a danger for the future of the Paralympic Games?

Or is the importance of the technical equipment overvalued and does not create decisive differences in the sporting performance of Paralympic Athletes?



The undecided answers to this question, only 6% difference, show that the pupils are not sure whether the different available monetary funds represent a danger for the guarantee of equal chance during the Paralympic Games: A meagre majority denies the existence of inequality.

Maybe this technical aspect even has a positive effect on the popularity of the Paralympics by creating a new group of spectators with a special technological interest.

4. Summary and conclusion

The questionnaire amongst pupils who watched the Paralympic Games in Athens 2004 has evaluated some interesting aspects concerning their attitude towards the Paralympics in general:

Though possessing certain background knowledge of the Paralympics, most of the pupils did not visit the competitions in

addition to their school visit. The knowledge about the occurrence of an event does not mean that the impulse of action will be put to practice through an additional visit (see theses 1 and 2).

This insight appears even more surprising because pupils seem to recognize the special features of the Paralympics as they emphasized values far away from the concentration on victory (see thesis 3).

Maybe this minor concentration on the peak sporting performance was one of the main causes for the pupils' minor interest (compared to the Olympic Games) in watching the Paralympic Games on television (see thesis 4).

The assumption that the Paralympic Games still have secured the ideal of Olympism through their relatively short history was confirmed by the pupils' answers (see theses 5 to 7). Paralympic Games of today therefore could be compared to the beginnings of Olympic Games when amateurism prevailed. With their pure kind of realization of Olympic Values the Paralympic Games might be more suitable for the representation of a fair sports competition. Young people especially may thereby learn to reproduce these values into their own surroundings as they try to become fair sportsmen themselves.

The Paralympic Games are not free of ambiguous developments either: The different qualities of technology in Paralympic Competitions may influence the demand for equality. But for the questioned pupils this danger was not evident during the Paralympics in Athens (see thesis 7).

Which direction the Paralympics will take during the next Games, whether they manage to keep their special honest image or whether professionalism and commercialization will dominate, are demands for an answer which only the future can bring.

The better Olympic and Paralympic knowledge (compared to the beginnings of the Olympic Games) that today's pupils possess through initiatives like the Olympic and Paralympic Educational Program

and through media – especially their awareness of the importance of keeping the Olympic ideal – might take the Paralympic Games in another direction than the Olympic Games.

The continuation of Olympic research about spectators' attitudes and valuations will help to discover possible changes and developments concerning the future of the Paralympic Games.

Literature

- For further information about the Olympic and Paralympic Educational Program:
- National Olympic Committee for Germany (NOK): Olympic Education at school
<http://www.paralympic.org>
<http://www.athens.olympic.org>
- For further information about the Research Team Olympia (Faculty of Sports, Mainz, Germany):
- <http://www.sport.uni-mainz.de/Olympia/>

- Dear pupil!

With this questionnaire we would like to find out your opinion on the Paralympic Games.

Please fill in the questionnaire completely and totally on your own! Your personal opinion is important for us. The results will be used for the pupils' preparation in China for the next Paralympic Games 2008 in Beijing. This questionnaire is anonymous so that nobody will find out your name.

Thank you very much for your support and your ideas!

Prof. Dr. Norbert Müller

President of the International Coubertin Committee
Head of the Research Team Olympia, University of Mainz, Germany

1. You attended the Paralympic Games with your school. Did you also attend the competitions of the Paralympic Games as a spectator without your school?

[illegible]

With whom did you visit the Paralympic Games?

- ☐ with members of my family
- ☐ with friends
- ☐ on my own

2. Did you receive information about the Paralympic Games before your visit of the competitions?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Yes, and to be precise via

☐ ... television	☐ ... internet
☐ ... newspaper	☐ ... school lessons

3. What did especially fascinate you at your visit to the Paralympic Games?
(Please tick every row!)

I wanted to...	true	false
...attend this world event.	☐	☐
...experience the immediate atmosphere.	☐	☐
...support the athletes of my nation.	☐	☐
...watch peak sporting performance.	☐	☐
...relax.	☐	☐
...watch the sport of disabled for the first time.	☐	☐
...experience something exciting.	☐	☐

4. Did you have any personal contact with the athletes?

- ☐ No
☐ Yes

If yes, what sort of contact?

☐ autograph	☐ conversation
☐ shared picture	☐ shake hands

5. Which competitions did you attend during the Paralympic Games and which ones did you find particularly interesting?

Please tick the event you attended and underline the events which you found particularly interesting! Several answers are possible.

☐ Archery	☐ Sailing
☐ Athletics	☐ Shooting
☐ Boccia	☐ Swimming
☐ Cycling	☐ Table Tennis
☐ Equestrian	☐ Volleyball
☐ Football (5 A Side)	☐ Wheelchair-Basketball
☐ Football (7 A Side)	☐ Wheelchair-Fencing

☐ Goalball	☐ Wheelchair-Rugby
☐ Judo	☐ Wheelchair-Tennis
☐ Powerlifting	☐ Marathon

DID YOU UNDERLINE IN QUESTION 5 THE SPORTING EVENTS THAT YOU FOUND PARTICULARLY INTERESTING?

6. How often did you watch the Paralympic Games on television?

☐ very often	☐ often
☐ sometimes	☐ rarely
☐ never	

7. How often did you watch the Olympic Games in August during your holidays on television?

☐ very often	☐ often
☐ sometimes	☐ rarely
☐ never	

8. In your opinion, which of the following statements apply to the Paralympic Games?

	<i>agree</i>	<i>disagree</i>
At the Paralympic Games I expect athletes to have a greater sense of Fair Play, more than at the Olympic Games.	☐	☐
For me not only the medal-winners are of interest, but especially the athletes who topped their individual performance.	☐	☐
Due to the Paralympic Games the position of people with a disability in society in Greece improved significantly.	☐	☐
The opening and closing ceremonies of the Paralympic Games should not only been broadcasted in Greece, but also worldwide in television.	☐	☐

The media should pay more attention to the athletes' achievement instead of pity and admiration for the destiny of athletes with a disability.	☐	☐
Sports complexes and means of traffic for handicapped persons are important for the living standard of all disabled persons in Athens.	☐	☐
Athletes from industrially developed countries compared to athletes from developing countries were generally advantaged because of expensive technological aid devices (wheelchairs, artificial arms/legs etc.).	☐	☐
The majority of athletes at the Paralympic Games stuck to the saying „Participation is more important than winning”.	☐	☐
The system of the garbage separation carried out with the Olympic and Paralympic Games is a model for many countries and should be introduced in Greece in general.	☐	☐
Paralympic champions should receive a financial reward after the Games.	☐	☐

9. Did you watch the Opening Ceremony?

☐ No (*please go to question 12*)

☐ Yes

If yes, where did you watch the Ceremony?

☐ in the stadium

☐ on television

10. How did you like the Opening Ceremonies altogether?

☐ Good

☐ average

☐ poor

11. How did you like the following elements of the Opening Ceremony?
(*Please tick every row!*)

	<i>good</i>	<i>average</i>	<i>poor</i>
The entry of the Greek Equipe	☐	☐	☐
The fireworks	☐	☐	☐

The athlete from Turkmenistan with his artistic performance during the entry	☐	☐	☐
The tree	☐	☐	☐
The entry of the nations	☐	☐	☐
The music	☐	☐	☐
The Paralympic Oath	☐	☐	☐
The lighting of the Paralympic Fire	☐	☐	☐

TO CONCLUDE THIS SURVEY, WE WOULD LIKE YOU TO ANSWER A FEW PERSONAL QUESTIONS:

12. What gender do you have?

☐ female ☐ male

13. In which year are you born? 19____

14. Do you practise some sport outside of school?

☐ No

☐ Yes, and to be precise

☐ competitive sports

☐ non-competitive sports

Thank you very much for your support!

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COMMERCIALIZATION AND MEDIAL ASPECTS OF SPORT AND MODERN OLYMPIC GAMES

Mr Kamil KOTLÍK (CZE)

1. Introduction

The theme of media and commercialization in sport is recently very often discussed. Because of its' extremely wide extent, we aim to appreciate several main commercializative aspects and their relations with media.

2. Progressive Commercialization of Sport

The media has started a process of commercialization of sport by informing people about passed and upcoming sporting events and consequent inviting of potential spectators to watch selected sporting events. Media were ab ovo establish on the commercial base as being mercantile instrument. If media advertise for specific sporting events, they do this with a purpose of recovery of investment into publication and distribution of media, because this recovery of investment is also one of the basic incomes for media.

The backflow lies in the high saleability of a concrete medium. There increased a commercial potential together with increasing attractiveness for spectators and it was an impulse that provoked media to invest into the sphere of sport news and sport itself for example by the way of advertisiment and sponsoring. This process accelerated

markedly through the wideworld expansion of TV and recent media tools. This phase of accelerating has lasted cca, last 50 years.

We can consider the second half of the 19th century to be a time of the origin of sport professionalism and it also corresponds with large-scale spreading of sport. Originally, in accordance to the British Amateur Athletic Association, an amateur was that man, who:

1. has never competed in open competition
 2. has never competed against a professional
 3. has never competed for a financial prize
 4. has never competed for gate money
 5. has never trained somebody for money
 6. has never been an artisan, an artist or a worker
- (Cashmore 1996)

There is an evident tendency to strictly bind amateurism and its social exclusivity from the above mentioned definition. In the 19th century, sport was mainly a recreation or a pastime of higher classes – mainly of aristocracy. Together with spreading of sport among lower social classes competition in sport highly increased and people who had great capability for some kind of sport can gain some money thanks to this sport. In accordance to the public presentation of great sport skills there rised also a spectator attractiveness of sport, which was spread mainly by media. In this state, it was only a question of time when somebody took advantage of this unneglected financial potential. There was also another important fact – a man who begun to earn his living by sport had not only more time for training, but also gave a part of his finances to improving of his sport skills. His efficiency rised in comparison to amateurs and their common competition was becoming uneven. British aristocracy had thanks to these facts two reasons for separating amateurism and professionalism:

1. an effort to ensure an equal sport competition

2. an effort to maintain aristocracy's social exclusivity (this is also a reason because of amateurs were not be able to compete in public competitions)
(Cashmore 1996)

There is also another aspect of commercialization of sport we have to mention. A man who started to earn money by his sport performance (be professional) tried to earn as much money as was possible, because the professional sport career can't last whole life and he needed to assure himself for the time after he finished sport career and had no income. This aspect also helped the process of commercialization of sport.

In the past, a mark of an amateur had a high social status in comparison to a mark of a professional. Nowadays, the definition of professional and amateur has changed and their social estimation, too.

It is well-known that the media works with public opinion and consequently influences this opinion. For media, succesfull sportsmen and sportswomen – mainly professionals with great sport skills - are a much more attractive commodity than unsuccesfull sportsmen or sportswomen. If media celebrates and in some cases glorifies these succesfull sportsmen and sportswomen, it leads to increasing their social prestige and social status of professional and amatuer reverse in comparison to past. Other consequences of the word amateur are awkward, incapable and so on. In contrast to this social mark, professional means somebody who is very capable, skillfull, important in his branch etc.

3. Commercialization Aspects of Sport and Media

In recent times, sport has many accompanying aspects and many of them have close relation to the commercialization of sport and are influenced by media. In the next chapter, we will try to analyse some basic and most important aspects.

3.1 Commercializative spiral

Together with incorporating of sport into a society its institutionalization is going on. Sport has become an important social institution (Čechák a Linhart 1986) and draws media attention. Media attention causes, via spectators, advertisement and sponsoring, larger earnings for sportsmen and sportswomen and for people from a background of sport. Then they can attend to sport professionally. Professional level of sport is more attractive for spectators (professional sportsmen and sportswomen can spend more time with sport and have more possibilities how to develop their sport skills – financial possibilities, personal trainers, realization teams etc.) and a primary consequence of that is a more attractive show, which initiates more intense media interest. Finally, this process can be perceived as some commercializative spiral, which can be presented (in a brief form) as following:

Incorporating of sport into society = interest of media = larger earnings = professionalization = more competitive games or fights and more attractive shows = greater interest of media = and the spiral continues. Each of next levels has great levels of commercialization, its structure is the same as mentioned above (Miller, Lawrence, McKay, Rowe 2001).

3.2 Olympic Games

Nowadays, we can hear very common opinion that Olympic Games are more business than sport and baron Pierre de Coubertin probably didn't anticipate which will be the further development of Olympic Games. What does this (and other) opinion mean?

Olympic Games, which should be mainly a pacific and stabilising factor, in the time of their origin tried to hit demands of that time. Just the end of 19th and the first half of 20th century, which can be characterised by the disintegration of colonial sphere and large wars and serious conflicts were the right time for an acceptance of Coubertin's idea. The idea of peace was very attractive for wide

masses of population. But another aspect is that particular countries also had an opportunity to promote Olympic Games, because it was a great opportunity to demonstrate their national power via sport. As an example, we can mentioned the Olympic Games held in Berlin in 1936 under the patronage of Hitler. But also other countries utilized these Games to their profit (for example USA via Jesse Owens).

Olympic Games then took up their roots and because they were the biggest sport action, majority of countries sent their best sportsmen and sportswomen to the Games. This led to an increase of spectator's attractiveness and Olympic Games became an opportunity for financial gain. Together with an entrancing of television into Olympic Games also sponsoring of excellent sportsmen and sportswomen by business firms went into the scene. A sportsman or a sportswoman had to wear a dress containig a logo of his/her sponsor. Through the time, not only logo on a dress, but also a trade mark of wear, shoes, drink, food, car, which sportsman or sportswoman used, became an object of sponsoring treaty. Nowadays, we can say that sportsman or sportswoman is becoming an employee of that firm, which he/she advertises. A great media interest about a given competition increases also sponsor interest about sportsmen and sportswomen participating in it. Olympic Games are extremely attractive for sponsors and sportsmen and sportswomen participating in Olympic Games become the objects of business contracts. In the eyes of a part of population, these sportsmen and sportswomen are degraded to be only a merchandise.

One of the base ideas of Olympic Games, which is preserved despite today's great commercialization is that it is not important to win, but to take part. For example, in Olympic Games sportsmen and sportswomen, which have lower efficiency than other participants and come from untraditional countries (of given sport) can still participate. There is an apparent element of pan-sport idea. But also this aspect can be used to earn money. For media, a small number of

“exotic” sportsmen and sportswomen are very attractive, because it increases an attractiveness of news and earn more money.

The main and primary aspect of modern Olympic Games is, if we pass away their motto and basic idea, to remain their progressive commercialization, which modify their shape. Olympic Games have suffered the greatest change during the last 4 decades, in which they have been mostly changed by TV. Olympic Games have become a giant event with plenty of non-sporting activities and these activities earn much money to organizers, subcontractors and mainly to media.

This is one of the main reasons of an outbreak of very hard struggle about broadcasting rights among media. This trend has become much more markable after avoiding of possessive restrictions (nowadays, media can carry business also not only in the media sphere), and after restricting of a media sector governed by public law (Miller, Lawrence, McKay, Rowe 2001).

Thanks to these two facts, sport has become good-class and at the same time cheap show, which is approachable to wide masses of the population. One of the basic reasons of a spreading of sport spectatorship is the fact that sport is so attractive, a relaxation and regenerative show that spectators want to pay for an opportunity to look down upon this show (Cashmore 1996). In the case of Olympic Games, this fact is much more important than as it is common.

In this place are two basic questions, which demarcate a maximum limit of spreading media in sport. These questions are how much and by what way are people part to pay for an opportunity to watch a sport show. A question of how much is clearly a limiting factor. But it must be so much that broadcasting companies can profit. A question, by what way is sport broadcasting paid, is a little bit difficult. If a spectator pays for sport show a tax what is charged by public law television, he mostly don't feel this payment as his own above-standard expenditure. Public TV companies are again limited

by greater restrictions than private broadcasting companies and thus they are prejudiced by them in some areas. Nowadays, there happen some paradoxical situations when public and even all-European broadcasting corporations and associations (for example European Broadcasting Union) are overpaid by private owners (this happened e.g. in Germany in 1996) (Miller, Lawrence, McKay, Rowe 2001).

Private firms, which have more tools how to gain finances to buy broadcasting rights than public corporations, want to gain their investments back, of course. They can realize it via the advertisement or via establishing of a separate broadcasting channel, which broadcasts only a certain sport event (or a complex of arranged sport events, which are highly watched within a society – for example NBA, NHL, F1 etc.). Watching of this separate channel is then consequently paid independently on other channels. The question is what price can broadcasting firms request for their products? But this question has wide social consequences and is out of the frame of our study.

Presently, there is a visible effort, especially among Western European, Western American and Eastern Asian broadcasting corporations, to facilitate broadcasting on a separate channel by means of digital record. With regard to the question of financial charges of this broadcasting technique it is the first time in broadcasting history when the number of spectators watching Olympic Games didn't rise, but somewhere even decreased. We can conclude that broadcasting corporations choose a bad level of financial charge of a target spectator. This mechanism doesn't obtain in the case of long-time sport channels when this strategy works (in France more than 40% of sport spectators of the channel Canal+ pay for this medium only for the sake of football (Miller, Lawrence, McKay, Rowe 2001)).

We can also mention another case when a broadcasting corporation failed with the plan of implementation of a digital broadcasting. This is the case of Great Britain and Northern Ireland where the corporations

effort to gain the rights for digital broadcasting of the highest cricket league failed. The reason to rejecting digital broadcasting was the long tradition of cricket and this case was solved finally by British government, which agreed with traditionalists (Miller, Lawrence, McKay, Rowe 2001).

The result of paying for certain sport channels is apart from rising commercialization and lasting commercializative spiral mainly rises a number of voices which call for free sport broadcasting or for indirect tax. These people try to carry through the concept of sport as a public good (Miller, Lawrence, McKay, Rowe 2001) and focuses their requests almost on the state.

Another aspect of Olympic Games is their shape as communication-economic phenomena which manifest oneself through geographic connections. Pujik (1999 In.: Miller, Lawrence, McKay, Rowe 2001) claims that the first world have available digital picture and the third world analogue picture. Except of USA, there is produced the same text to every picture and this text is consequently adapted by particular stations (they translate this text into their own language, respectively). The product which is given to a target spectator is then not necessary true (it means the same as original).

Important sport events have also their negative social aspects, which we have to mention for the sake of entirety at this place. Olympic Games (and other big sport events) distinguish themselves by concentration of a large number of people in one place. If we pass over a common criminality and negative actions connected with mass behaviour, we have to mention such negative phenomena, which are influenced just by media participation on a sport event.

A common denominator is, in this case, an effort of non-sporting people (but sometimes also sportsmen or sportswomen) to put themselves on the map and it is the easiest just through the media. The scale of social negative phenomena is very large and extends

from a trivial exhibitionism (for example, the spectator run naked into a sport field) through demonstration of social attitudes (for example, racially motivated shouting on sportsmen or sportswomen and insulting them) to the most serious offences (for example killing of Israel sportsmen in summer Olympic Games in Munich in 1972 by fundamental Palestines).

3.3 Inclusive (positive) influence of commercialization through media

Sport has spread into the whole world together with the process of globalization. The accession of television to its existence caused a lift of sport from the local to the global social institution. Sport has become a global show from the spectators' point of view. Together with releasing market mechanisms, rising importance of finances and a permeation of borders there take place an "opening of a world sport area", when sportsmen or sportswomen from some regions and countries are bought into the clubs from other regions or countries.

Because of these sportsmen or sportswomen are presented as reinforcements of their new clubs, they usually have a high degree of social prestige, which is made by media, of course. These people are usually very quickly integrated into a new society. The media influence is in this case social-integrative, because it helps to concrete sportsmen or sportswomen to integrate themselves into a society in a new country (Foret 1994). Media plays a social positive role also in the transfer of these integrative mechanisms onto the members of the same community to which integrated sportsman or sportswoman belongs to, of course. As an example, we can mention the role, which is played by footballers with African origin in the Czech highest football league. These players have to get over accessory barriers, but due to a cooperation with media they clear away prejudices of Czech population against all people of different ethnic groups.

3.4 Negative commercializative influence of media

In sport, there takes place also negative phenomena and processes directly and indirectly caused by media influence. We mentioned some negative phenomena, which results from the effort acteurs to put themselves on the map in the chapter titled "Olympic Games". This effort can be satisfied through the media by the easiest way and a scale of phenomena, which then can take place is very wide (from a trivial exhibitionism to "Black September" in Munich 1972). Other negative results of the media influence on sport is a weakening of a local economic base of periphery regions and consequently also a weakening of a national cohesion (but this second aspect is not necessarily negative).

In consequence of sport commercialization, plenty of sponsors come into the most attractive sport from the spectators point of view. These sponsors are interested in their putting on the map through media, of course. This putting on the map becomes more visible with an increasing attractiveness of a sport team or sportsman/sportswoman. From the spectators' point of view, the most attractive is that sport team or sportsman/sportswoman who have a high degree of efficiency or are able to do the most interesting show from their sport performance (Mackû 1997). Futher in the text, we will describe this mechanism on some sport club – for example noname club of NHL.

The club's team has a high degree of sport efficiency and it is achieved mainly by a cooperation among particular players, which must have a very high sport efficiency and also abnormal sport skills. Such players, who are extraordinary for the sake of their abilities, are also much more expensive on a sport market than average players and request also better training conditions. Nowadays, professional clubs are owned mainly by private owners and they have to be very rich. If they aren't rich enough, they lose the opportunity to keep the club in their holding otherwise the club becomes only a provincial and marginal. A higher concentration of rich owners is in areas with a

higher economic standard, of course and it is, among other things, in areas from where possible sponsors come. Sponsors' main interest is a most available promotion of their firm. If this promotion takes place in their close background, it is the best thing for them – this mechanism doesn't stand for such international firms and corporations as for example Coca-Cola (they invest all around the world).

If the owner failed in a rival fight, he (or she) is forced to sell the club and it is moved into the economically stronger region. As a manifest example, we can mention clubs in Anaheim, San José, Nashville, Miami, Tampa Bay etc. These cities have no relationship to ice-hockey and the background in them is built up artificially, but they have very good demographic and economic conditions. On the other hand, the NHL moved away from cities as Montreal, Toronto, Edmonton, Quebec and Winnipeg, which compose a semi-periphery in North-American business area.

High-mentioned mechanism leads to an economic centralization (not only in North-American area) and to emphasising of economic and social differences in regional society. It leads to social instability, when the state is losing the support of a national feeling among its citizens. There break out the waves of disagreement and antipathy with this centralization very often. This disagreement takes place because people lose their favourite clubs and idols of them they are very proud – they lose their patriotism. This aversion is most perceptible in the regions where mentioned patriotism is the strongest and it is mostly in minor ethnic enclaves, for example in Quebec in Canada (Whitson 1998). Another aspect is that those Canadian (and other) players who want to still play in NHL, migrate together with the club to USA and are socially degraded from extraordinary people to only trivial working force. Miller, Lawrence, McKay, Rowe (2001) even speak about a proletarianization of these players.

Another negative aspect of the negative media influence on

sport and even non-sport atmosphere is another mechanism of fragmentation of spectators nationalistic feeling. In a present commercial atmosphere of the top sport competitions, when media creates pressure on sportsmen or sportswomen and sponsors, there is a visible effort to engage the best sportsmen or sportswomen by owners of sport clubs. We can illustrate this mechanism on English Premier League, for example.

Premier League is the top football competition and requires the best footballers. Consequently, owners of clubs and trainers must solve one important problem: Where do they get hold of top footballers? This pursuit of being the best also means that it is impossible to saturate the business market of Premier League by English players. With respect to an existence of an open economic global system, agents of clubs can search and engage practically any player from any country of the whole world.

Because of the competitive fight among particular clubs, there becomes a situation that some richer clubs can set up a team without any English player (for example Chelsea and Arsenal). This fact causes a wave of antipathy within home spectators and especially within fans, who gain a feeling of the loss of a part of national pride and integrity. De Carvalho (1997 In: Miller, Lawrence, McKay, Rowe 2001) even speaks about killing of these sport competitions by foreigners. The important motive of this phenomena of foreigners' exuberance in sport competitions is created by media again.

3.5 Negative aspects of the media influence on sport

Media can also have a negative influence on a sportsman or sportswoman and on sport as a whole. This influence is not necessary only the commercialization of sport as was analyzed above in the text.

Media works with public opinions, which they also create in some way, and they try to influence the target population as strong as it is

possible. This is because of assuring themselves of the higher number of sold papers, broadcasted programmes etc. Consequently, media try to be as attractive for their readers and spectators as it is possible. This can be done mainly via the attractiveness of the content of news. The most attractive news such which are shocking in some way. Due to this, media try to find as high number of shocking news about famous sportsmen, sportswomen or sport clubs and their owners as it is possible. The degree of attractivity of the news increases with the fame of the subject of the news. It led not only to the damage of sportsmen and sportswomen privacy, but also to their worse including into the society. We can mention some information about woman tennis players, for example. Then we can read from newspapers that woman tennis players use drugs or banned stimulate substances, they are lesbians and so on. It is horrible that it doesn't matter if these facts are true or not. The most important thing is that these news bring the pay-off and the interest of public and so they fullth their major purpose. This kind of media interest about sportsmen and sportswomen is also sometimes called "medial panique" (Miller, Lawrence, McKay, Rowe 2001).

In accordance to financial advantages, which the media fame brings with, there is getting to another kind of socially negative aspects by which media influences sport and sportpersons indirectly. Many sportpersons try to help themselves in the effort to be the best or to keep themselves among the elite by using banned and very often also toxic substances. But the results of these substances can express themselves after a long time. We can mention Florance Griffith-Joyner as a manifest example. She died at 38 (very early after finishing her professional sport carrier) and doctors marked the using of doping as the reason of her death. Of course, it is clear that we can't adjudge the responsibility for such cases to media. We have to know that each sportsman or sportswoman is responsible for his/her own health at first. But we also have to know that media creates the right environment

for high-mentioned phenomena and in this environment every sport success is celebrated and every failure is damned. It doesn't matter if the sportsman or sportswoman is positively or negatively motivated for using doping – the most important fact is that doping is used.

We can put also the ethics of sponsorship into the negative media influence on the sport environment. Recently, the richest (and money giving) sponsors are, among others, those firms who produce alcohol and tobacco products. Nowadays, there is a wide discussion about the unhealthiness of these products within society and also about restrictions and even cancelling alcohol and tobacco advertisement. But in sport, advertisement opportunities of these firms are unlimited. We can mention some examples just in Czech Republic – Gambrinus league, Staropramen extra-league (both financed by big breweries) etc. and in other countries for example West McLaren, Marlboro (both are sponsors of F1 series).

As a matter of fact, media influence value systems in sport's part of population and among sport spectators via advertising these and similar firms from the area of alcohol and tobacco. The most risky group of population is mainly the youth, of course, because young people still establish their value systems and then it is easy to modify these systems. Similar to preceding case, also in this case it is only indirect media influence and they have not direct responsibility of any problems resulting from their activities. It is a conspicuous paradox – media are doing in accordance to laws, but they stimulate the occurrence of possible social problems (Houška, Zemánek 1996).

4. Conclusions

From this study is clearly visible that there is getting to multilateral reciprocal influencing among the media, concretely sport media, and sport and its secondary aspects. We can consider that this complex relationship is a symbiosis of both social institutions, even if their

intentions and interests haven't to be in a coincidence necessary. On the contrary, particular influences, by which particular sport branches and sport media effect themselves, are very often opposite and inhibited to each other (for example, the success of the TV distribution of sport programmes leads to gain regular spectators and then to a lesser attendance at the stands of sport stadiums; this mechanism hold also in other way – with the increasing attractiveness and quality of the top level of some sport, the attendance of lower levels of this sport decreases). Sometimes, this paradox situation take place also within particular branches.

With respect to a historical development the high-mentioned relationship is a very dynamic relationship between two of social institutions. This relationship is still in the phase of evolution and progress and it is still looking for new perspectives and opportunities (for example the use of internet within the sport, promo actions etc.). In accordance to some mentioned trends, we can logically suppose that this complex relationship will be further developed in the future.

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SPORTS PSYCHOLOGY: STRATEGY TO IMPROVE SPORT PERFORMANCE

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What is a Sports Psychology?

The Association for the advancement of Applied Sport Psychology (AAASP), one of the professional societies representing sport psychologists suggested that “Sport psychology is (a) the study of the psychological and mental factors that influence and are influenced by participation and performance in sport, exercise and physical activity, and (b) the application of the knowledge gained through this study to everyday settings. Sport psychology professionals are interested in how participation in sport, exercise and physical activity may enhance personal development and well being throughout the life span”. (LeUnes A., et al., 2002) Stated more simply, sport psychology is a science in which the principles of psychology apply in a sport or exercise setting. These principles are often applied to enhance performance. In fact, it is the study of the effect of psychological and emotional factors on sport performance, and the effect of sport involvement on psychological and emotional factors. Athletic performance is influenced by psychological and emotional factors that can be fine-tuned and learned. Conversely, involvement in sport activities can have a positive effect upon an individual's psychological and emotional makeup. (Cox RH. 2002)

Sport psychology, when viewed, as a subdiscipline within the larger field of psychology, is defined as an applied psychology. Although sport psychology traditionally has not been recognized as a sub discipline within the field of academic psychology, Smith (1989) suggested that sport psychology was ready to be embraced by mainstream psychology. As evidence of this, sport psychology was approved as Division 47 within the American Psychological Association (APA) in 1986 and has long been recognized as a specialization within psychology throughout Europe. There are even some sport psychology specializations within graduate programs in clinical psychology and educational/school psychology. The Association for the Advancement of Applied Sport Psychology (AAASP) publishes a directory of these “clinically oriented” sport psychology graduate programs. Still, sport psychology has not attained wide acceptance within the broader field of psychology. (Horn TS. 2002).

Is sports psychology important?

In 1983, The United States Olympic Committee has established a board of prominent sport psychologists to help coordinate the delivery of psychological services to athletes and coaches. An increasing number of professional sport teams and collegiate athletic programs are receiving sport psychology consultation. The field of sport psychology has developed rapidly in the past 20 years. A decade from now, sport psychologist consultates were as much a part of elite athletic programs as strength coaches are now. Moreover, more countries now include sport psychologists as part of their team’s preparation for the Olympic Games.

In any sport a player’s success (or failure) results from a combination of physical (e.g., strength, speed, balance, coordination) and mental (e.g., concentration, confidence, anxiety management) abilities. Most coaches consider that sport is at least 50% mental and certain sports, such as golf, tennis, and figure skating, are consistently viewed as being

80% to 90% mental. Jimmy Connors, known for his mental tenacity and toughness, has often stated that professional tennis is 95% mental. Tiger Woods started his amazing run at winning the Master's by 18 strokes with a subpar first nine holes. He said that after the disastrous first nine holes, he knew he just needed to remain focused and get his "mental game" back together because it would be the key to his success. Most professional and elite amateur athletes will agree that their psychology has a large influence on their sports performance. Most will concede that they could benefit from the service of a sport psychologist. More specifically, within the last two decades, a variety of intervention psychological techniques have been developed and promoted to help athletes develop important psychological skills (i.e. goal setting, self-talk, imagery) and thus to enhance their performance of to modify their behavior in sport and physical activity contexts.

The performance enhancement aspect of sport psychology refers to the effects of psychological factors on sport performance. *These psychological factors include anxiety and arousal, concentration, confidence, and motivation.* It should be noted that the performance enhancement aspect of sport psychology is not restricted to elite athletes. Those psychological factors are described as follows.

Psychological factor: Anxiety and arousal

Anxiety and arousal are inherent in competitive sport. The proper mental preparation of sport participants to regulate these states before and during the contest is among the most complex skills in coaching.

Anxiety and arousal, although often used interchangeably, are not synonymous. Whereas anxiety is an emotional condition reflecting over worry or extreme perceived threat of a situation, arousal can be either emotional or physiological. It is caused by positive feelings of excitement and confidence or by negative feelings of fear or sadness. Physiologically, arousal is indicated by an increase in the body's level of activation. Most

athletes experience mild anxiety, but when it becomes disruptive to the athlete's performance or the life satisfaction, treatment may be needed. Each individual athlete, sport, position on the team, and sport situation has a level of arousal (and, to a lesser degree, anxiety) that will produce optimal performance. Theories that attempt to explain and predict an athlete's optimal arousal level include the inverted-U hypothesis, catastrophe theory, and reversal theory.

An important role of the coach is to help athletes determine the level of arousal at which they function best in sport. Before and during the contest, coaches can enact strategies to reduce, maintain, or increase their athletes' arousal so that they reach and maintain an optimal state. Coaches can also markedly reduce the usually undesirable state of competitive anxiety. Unfortunately, many coaches ignore the recommendations supported by sport psychology consultants and often use techniques that are actually counterproductive in establishing the proper pregame and between-period mental set.

Psychological factor: Concentration

Concentration in sport settings usually involves focusing on the relevant cues in the environment, maintaining that focus over time, and being aware of the changing situation. Athletes who describe their best performances inevitably mention that they are completely absorbed in the present, focused on the task at hand, and are acutely aware of their own bodies and the external environment. If the athletes lack concentration then their athletic abilities will not be effectively or efficiently applied to the task. Research has shown that a key component of optimal performance is the performer's ability to focus attention and become fully absorbed in the game. Expert performers use various attentional cues, picking these cues up more quickly than do novices, to help themselves perform their skills more quickly and more effectively.

Nideffer (1986) identified four different types of attentional focus: broad-external, narrow-external, broad-internal, and narrow-internal. Different sports or tasks within sports require these different types of attention for effective performance. Shifting attention is also necessary, and often more difficult, when time pressure during a competition is intense.

Attentional problems can be categorized as coming from internal or external distracters. Internal distracters include attending to past events, attending to future events, fatigue, and overanalyzing body mechanics. External distracters include visual factors, such as the audience, and auditory ones, such as the crowd noise, as well as the opponent's gamesmanship itself. (Weinberg RS.1999)

Strategies to improve concentration are very personal. One way to maintain focus is to set process goals for each session or competition. The athlete will have an overall goal for which the athlete will identify a number of process goals which help focus on specific aspects of the task. For each of these goals the athlete can use a trigger word (a word which instantly refocuses the athlete's concentration to the goal) e.g. sprinting technique requires the athlete to focus on being tall, relaxed, smooth and to drive with the elbows- trigger word could be "Technique". Athletes will develop a routine for competition which may include the night before, the morning, pre competition, competition and post competition routines. If these routines are appropriately structured then they can prove a useful aid to concentration.

Psychological factor: Self-confidence

Self-confidence has been defined as the belief that you can successfully perform a desired behavior. It results from the comparison an athlete makes between the goal and their ability. The athlete will have self-confidence if they believe they can achieve their

goal. High levels of self-confidence can enhance positive emotions, concentration, setting more challenging goals, increasing effort, and developing effective competitive strategies.

Strategies for enhancing one's self-confidence include acting confidently, thinking confidently, using imagery, being in good physical condition, and preparing mentally and physically for upcoming performances. (Weinberg RS.1999)

Psychological factor: Motivation

Motivation can be defined as the direction and intensity of effort. The direction of effort refers to whether an individual seeks out, approaches, or is attracted to certain situations. The intensity of effort refers to how much effort a person puts forth in a particular situation.

Motivation is both an art and a science. The art of motivating others means having a communication style—verbal and nonverbal—that offers a mixture of credibility, knowledge, and sensitivity. Associated with motivating athletes are numerous myths and practices of coaches that have been handed down over the years with no scientific basis. Often, these techniques do more harm than good. Intimidation, threats, physical abuse, and hostile criticism are examples. Motivation is also a science in that the leader must know when to say something and how to say it.

Sources of motivation may be derived from personal factors, situational factors, or a combination of both, called the interaction view. The personal view holds that motivation reflects the individual's characteristics, such as individual desire or a high need to achieve. The situational view is that motivation is fostered primarily by situational characteristics, such as anticipating or experiencing excitement, achievement, and satisfaction. According to the interaction view, the combination of personal and situational characteristics best predicts and describes motivation.

Strategy for enhancing athlete's motivation is to set goals. For best results, goals should be challenging yet realistic, based on previous performance, both short term and long term, performance-based rather outcome-based, and observable and measurable. Coaches and athletes should work jointly to set goals and, based on ongoing assessments of performance, should agree to alter them if necessary.

Different types of motivation have been identified. Achievement motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and competence motivation are based on a person's strong desire to achieve and to deal effectively with his or her environment for a prolonged period of time. Weinberg (1984), Martens (1987) and Rushall (1992) emphasize that athletes should be encouraged to improve performance from intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation to help with attaining specific goals. This is because extrinsic rewards tend to govern the concept of self, and event performance, that is, the athlete's self-confidence and overall satisfaction with training and performance are influenced and defined by external factors out of the control of the individual.

Psychological Skill training up to date, sports psychology was wildly used to improve the performance of athletes. We can develop the skill of these psychology factors by using various techniques of psychology skill training including goals setting, self-talk and imagery as described below.

1. Goals setting

Goals are objectives or aims of actions. They may be subjective or objective and directed toward performance (self-comparisons for improvement), process (action that lead to improved performance), or outcome (beating or surpassing others). All these types of goals can be useful. The key is knowing when to focus on each goal type and not focusing all one's attention on outcome goals. (Weinberg RS.1999)

Goal setting is a formal process for personal planning. By setting

goals on a routine basis you decide what you want to achieve, and then move step-by-step towards the achievement of these goals. The process of setting goals and targets allows you to choose where you want to go in life. By knowing precisely what you want to achieve, you know what you have to concentrate on to do it. You also know what is merely a distraction.

Goal setting is a standard technique used by top-level athletes, successful business-people and achievers in all fields. It gives you long-term vision and short-term motivation. It focuses your acquisition of knowledge and helps you to organize your resources. By setting sharp, clearly defined goals, you can measure and take pride in the achievement of those goals. You can see forward progress in what might previously have seemed a long pointless grind. By setting goals, you will also raise your self-confidence, as you recognize your ability and competence in achieving the goals that you have set. The process of achieving goals and seeing this achievement gives you confidence that you will be able to achieve higher and more difficult goals.

A good tip for helping athletes or exercises remember characteristics of effective goals is to think of the word SMART and remember the following principles (Smith, 1994)

- Specific – goals should indicate precisely what is to be done.
- Measurable – make sure you can quantify your goal.
- Action-oriented – goals should indicate something that needs to be done.
- Realistic – make sure the goal can be achieved given various constraints.
- Timely – make sure the goal can be achieved in a reasonable time.

2. *Self talk*

Self talk is identified as an important cognitive strategy for developing situation-specific self-confidence. Self-talk can be in the form of words actually spoken, or in the form of thoughts that come into the mind.

Categories of self-talk of thoughts that come into the mind. Categories of self-talk include statements related to technique, statements used for encouragement, and words that change mood. Self-talk is used to build self-confidence, assist in skill development, effect a change in mood or effort, and focus attention. (Cox, R.H. 2002)

Self talk is an effective technique to control thoughts and to influence feelings. Thoughts and feelings can influence self-confidence as well as performance. Thoughts that come into an athlete's mind during competition can be either positive or negative. These thoughts are a form of self-talk. The athlete must learn to control his thoughts and to structure them to his advantage. This is effectively accomplished through self-talk. The athlete must carefully preselect the actual words and phrases used during self-talk and consider them for maximum effectiveness. The coach or sport psychologist can assist the athlete in this regard (Cox, R.H. 2002). Self-talk takes many forms, but it can be simply categorized as positive and negative. Positive self-talk is an asset that enhances self-esteem, motivation, attentional focus, and performance. Negative self-talk is critical and self-demeaning and it tends to produce anxiety, which undermines concentration. (Weinberg, R.S., 1984).

Zinsser et al. (2001) identify specific uses of self-talk. All of the recommended uses relate directly or indirectly to the enhancement of self-confidence. Self-talk is effective in

1. Building and developing self-efficacy; Self-talk is effective in stimulating thoughts and feelings that leads to the belief that a person is competent and able to perform a task efficiently and effectively.
2. Skill acquisition; Learning a new skill requires persistence, effort, and dedication. Self-talk can be effective in helping the athlete to continue to work hard in order to achieve a worthwhile goal. In becoming proficient in a new skill, the athlete changes bad habits and learns new good habits.

3. Creating and changing mood. Effective use of mood works can either create a desired mood or change an undesirable one. Words are powerful motivators because of the meaning that they convey. In an effort to increase power needed to get out of a sprinter's block quickly, the athlete might say the words "go" or "explode" as she powers forward.
4. Controlling effort; Athletes need to be able to sustain effort throughout long practices or competitions. Self-talk can suggest to the athlete the need to increase effort when it is needed or to sustain effort when it is deemed beneficial for performance learning or enhancement. During long practices, boredom can be a challenge that must be overcome. Self-talk words and phrases such as "pick it up," "stay with it," or "pace" can be effective in controlling effort.
5. Focusing attention or concentration; As with maintaining effort, it is often necessary to remind yourself to stay focused or to concentrate on the task at hand. Athletes often get tired, and when this happens, their concentration can easily wander. If the mind wanders when the coach is teaching an important concept relating to the athlete's role on the team, it is imperative that he heighten and maintain concentration. Such words and phrases as "focus," "stay with it," or "now" can help the athlete stay focused.

3. Imagery

Imagery refers to creating or recreating an experience in the mind. It is a form of simulation that involves recalling from memory pieces of information stored there from all types of experiences and shaping them into meaningful images. Imagery has many uses including reducing anxiety, building confidence, enhancing concentration, recovering from injury, and practicing specific skills and strategies. For example, Orlick and Partington (1988) found that 99% of Canadian Olympic athletes reported using imagery prior to the 1984 Olympics, and found imagery to be highly effective in facilitating athletic

performances. Furthermore, coaches have also reported that imagery was a valuable mental skills technique. Hall and Rodgers (1989) found that experienced skating coaches viewed imagery as a very useful technique and used it often with their skaters.

Imagery is the process of using all the senses to recreate or create an experience in the mind. Other terms that have been used as synonyms to imagery include cognitive and symbolic rehearsal, mental rehearsal, visualization, and mental practice. The mental practice literature provides evidence that imagery is an effective cognitive-behavioral process for enhancing learning and performance of motor skills. Factors that moderate the relationship between imagery use and performance enhancement include the skill level of the athlete and the cognitive component of the skill. The higher the skill level of the athlete and the larger the cognitive component of the skill, the stronger the relationship between imagery and enhanced performance. Finally, imagery can be used before and after practice and competition, during breaks in the action, and during personal time. Moreover, imagery can also benefit the injury rehabilitation process.

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REPRESENTATIONS OF GENDER IN MEDIA COVERAGE OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES: THE CANADIAN CONTEXT

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There is no doubt that the Olympic Games of the 21st century are the largest global multi-sport mega event. Their importance is signified not only by the pinnacle status of their athletic events, but by the enormous amounts of media attention they garner from around the world. Given the power of the media to create and maintain particular discourses, media coverage of the Olympics therefore is a key site where the value of particular elements of society can be observed. This paper reviews the way that women have been represented in Canadian media coverage of the Olympic Games in an attempt to understand the place of women's sport in the Canadian context. The results of empirical studies into the political-economic and ideological contexts of media representation form the first two major sections of the paper. This research is contrasted against global knowledge of portrayals of sportswomen. Possible explanations for understanding patterns in coverage are presented in the third section. In concluding and evaluating the status of research, consideration will be given to ways of improving Canadian understandings of gender as constructed during the Olympic period.

It is necessary to pay attention to the ways that the media represent women, for, along with race and class, etc., gender is a key marker

of identity within and constructed by society, that influences social hierarchy and power relations between people (Coakley & Donnelly, 2004; M. A. Hall, 1999). Understanding gender as a social construction does not deny different male and female biological roles, but argues that the values, expectations and assumptions about the social categories of men and women are arbitrary and negotiated, and can therefore be challenged and changed (Lorber, 1994, 2000; Staudt, 2003). Modern sport, an activity that with few exceptions, divides itself rigidly along gender lines, is “a particularly powerful setting for the construction of gender ideology” (Theberge, 1990, p. 390). Although the ideologies regarding women’s sport participation and the meanings ascribed to the sporting female body have changed over time, it is apparent even today that “residual patriarchal ideologies concerning the ‘inferiority’ of feminine practices seem to be at the basis of female socialization” (MacNeill, 1994, p. 197).

Like sport, the media is a powerful ideological tool that has the ability to create and maintain particular images of the female athlete and therefore impact upon power relations between genders. Although it may be argued that media merely reflect society, as an institution of society and therefore part of it, the discourses media disseminate certainly play a role in informing and shaping social opinion (Clarke & Clarke, 1982; Gruneau, Whitson, & Cantelon, 1988; Kinkema & Harris, 1998; McKay, 1987). By selecting what to report on, the media define what is considered important within (and remembered by) society and also set the dominant hegemonic framework (limits) for how society thinks about those things presented (S. Hall, 1984). “Alternatives to this range [of thought] are either never considered or dismissed as inappropriate, that is, they are marginalized” (MacNeill, 1994, p. 196). A key interest of researchers has been the powerful role that the media plays in the social construction of and naturalization of gender difference and hierarchy in the sporting context, achieved via by framing men and women in different ways (Duncan, 1990; Kane

& Parks, 1992; Theberge, 1990). The implications of this differential framing are that males are dominant and females subordinate and by inference, men's sport is more important than women's. Such an understanding facilitates the perpetuation of social inequalities and injustices towards women in the context of sport.

The Olympic Games are the world's largest multi-sport event. Given their time and space-compressed nature and the enormous amounts of media attention paid to them, the Olympics are an important and unique site for the undertaking of projects that reinforce national hegemonies (Gruneau, 1989; Roche, 2004; Rowe, 1998). It is the powerful effect of the media attention at this focused moment that provides a snapshot of societal understandings of elements of various forms of identity, including gender. Although, the Games are often considered 'outside' the realm of the everyday, the impact of discourses (messages) emanating from the Games as key historical moments can be significant and ongoing (Real, 1989; Roche, 2004).

Political-economic context

Canadian sports media coverage is closely tied to understandings of media as a business whose goal is to maximize profits. Research has shown that commercial considerations – the need for media to deliver an audience for their advertisers – drive many of the choices made in showing and reporting upon sports (Jhally, 1984, 1989; MacNeill, 1996; Silk, Slack, & Amis, 2000). The widely held perception by media producers and editors that coverage of men's sports delivers predictably for media advertisers a highly desirable male audience has resulted in dominance of everyday sports media coverage by major men's professional sports – ice hockey, baseball, basketball and football (Crossman, 1994; Knoppers & Elling, 2004; Lowes, 2004; Ormsby, 1997; Theberge & Cronk, 1986). The dependency of these sports on broadcast rights for financial survival completes the circuit of the sport-

media complex (Jhally, 1984). Further, the structure of the Canadian media industry, which allows broadcasters and press conglomerates to own shares in professional sports teams (Sparks 1992), highlights the importance of these male sports to the economic survival of the media, and also ensures for sports teams prominence and regular coverage by the media. Professional men's sport and the media are thus inextricably linked in an ongoing, co-dependent, symbiotic relationship.

Women's sport therefore does not appear to play a major role in the everyday operation of the sports-media complex in Canada. The perceived lack of commercial appeal, and thus low prestige, attached to female sports is evident by the fact that on average, day-to-day coverage of women's sport receives less than 10% of newspaper sports coverage (there have been no published studies examining everyday television coverage) (see Table 1). According to Theberge (1990), the "message conveyed to the reader is that on a typical day in Canada, women's sport for the most part doesn't happen" (p. 391). The Canadian figures are on a par with other western nations, such as USA, Australia, UK and New Zealand (see Table 2). However, it can be observed that over time, the Canadian figure has fallen, whereas globally, a small but steady increase in coverage of women's sport has been observed. The expansion in Canada of men's sport coverage due to satellite, cable, 24hr channels, sports radio etc., may be a reason why, despite increases in amounts of sports media time and space, women now receive proportionally less coverage now than in the past. Further evidence for the low importance placed upon everyday women's sport coverage in Canada is apparent in the failure of a dedicated women's sport digital-tv channel which collapsed after two years of operation in 2003, due to an inadequate number of subscribers¹ (Neveron, 2005).

¹ The official reason given for the demise. Problems related to the digital broadcast format may have contributed to the low uptake of subscribers.

Nevertheless, when major events such as the Olympics are held, the amount of attention paid to sportswomen by the Canadian media increases dramatically. Researchers have found that coverage of Canadian sportswomen during the Olympic Games (both Summer and Winter) has increased from a low of less than 15% (Lee, 1992) to slightly more than 30% (Vincent, Imwold, Masemann, & Johnson, 2002). Yet women athletes have been consistently underrepresented compared to male athletes in Olympic competition. Between 1924 and 1992, women received an average of 13.8% of coverage of the Winter Games in the national *Globe and Mail* newspaper (Urquhart & Crossman, 1999). However, this figure obscures the fact that coverage of Canadian women received tends to correspond to their success at winning medals: when women perform poorly, their coverage is negligible. In general though, Canadian Olympic media coverage appears to be following international trends of significant increases in, and in some cases, equitable media coverage for men and women athletes (see Table 3). For example, analysis of the 1994 Lillehammer Games by Spears & Seydegart (1996) identified that women received 1/3 of the television coverage, with the other 2/3 devoted to men's sport. Closer examination reveals that men's hockey – a game tied closely to Canadian nation identity – received half of the men's total sport coverage, or the same amount in total as women. Were hockey to be discounted, the results show that men and women received relatively equitable coverage during those Games¹. Combined research results of Canadian, USA and UK newspaper coverage² of the 1996 Atlanta Olympics concluded that sportswomen received “generally equitable” (Vincent et al., 2002, p. 234) amounts of coverage, being in proportion

¹ There have been no published studies looking at whether the introduction of women's hockey into the Winter Olympic program has impacted upon amount of coverage received by sportswomen during the Games.

² No significant differences between the results of each country were found.

to the number of women (34% of total athletes) competing at the Games. However, when this figure is compared to the number of female athletes competing for Canada (just over half of the team were female: 154 women, 153 men) it can be seen that the figure falls short for proportional equity. Likewise, if women's coverage is compared to proportion of Canadian medal-winners, of whom 50% were women, the coverage again favours male athletes.

Although women athletes do receive a greater proportion of coverage during the Olympics than in 'everyday' reporting, this coverage is not equally distributed amongst female athletes. There is a marked preference by the media to give traditionally 'feminine appropriate' sports more coverage. These sports "emphasize aesthetic characteristics – appearance, beauty, form, and grace – and are seen as culturally acceptable sports for women" (Lee, 1992, p. 206) and a focus on them in coverage is problematic because it sends "mixed messages" (Theberge, 1990, p. 390) about what types of sports and physical activity to are acceptable for women to engage in (Kane & Parks, 1990; Urquhart & Crossman, 1999). In American television coverage of the 1992 and 1996 Games, researchers identified overall increases in women's visibility, but within that coverage, there was a preference for sports such as gymnastics, diving, cycling, swimming, tennis and rowing (Higgs & Weiller, 1994; Tuggle & Owen, 1999). Indeed, during the 1996 Games, 60% of the coverage of women went to athletes in just three sports: swimming, diving and gymnastics (Tuggle & Owen, 1999). This trend is also identifiable in the Canadian context, where Lee (1992) found a media preference for individual, female sports such as swimming, diving and gymnastics in newspaper coverage of the 1984 and 1988 Olympics. In Winter Games, the Canadian media have paid the most attention to women competing in figure skating, and downhill skiing – 'feminine appropriate' winter sports, but also sports where Canadian women have had success (Urquhart & Crossman, 1999). More recently, Vincent et al. (2002) identified that images of

women in newspaper coverage of the 1996 Olympics were split evenly between 'appropriate' and 'non-appropriate' sports¹, possibly evidence of a shift by the Canadian media towards greater cultural acceptance of non-traditional sports for women.

The imbalance experienced in 'everyday' coverage between men's and women's sports is problematic because it sends the message that's men's sports are more important than women's as well as limiting thinking on the possibilities of physical activity that are available to, or deemed 'appropriate' for women to engage in (Kane & Parks, 1992; Theberge, 1991). "Insidiously our society's reverence for men's pro sports and its silence about women's accomplishments shapes, define, and limits how we feel about ourselves as women and men" (McGregor, 2000, p. 165). During the Olympics, however, it is becoming apparent from both Canadian and global trends, that this imbalance is being reduced as female athletes gain greater visibility. Thus, an understanding of the messages about women in sport contained within this increased coverage are extremely important.

Ideological Context

Considering research that addresses qualitative representations of gender, it is possible to gauge a more nuanced assessment of the place of females and females in sport within Canadian society. Although there is comparatively little Canadian research both within and outside the Olympic context that privileges the qualitative approach, it is possible to draw inferences from the large body of global research that has long identified typical patterns of representation of women in sports reporting (Bernstein, 2002; Kane & Greendorfer, 1994; Kane

¹ There is contention about what sports actually constitute these categories. Given changing historical and social contexts, Vincent et al. (2002) even question the validity and their own use of these classifications.

& Parks, 1992). Common techniques used by the media in reporting on and images of women include, gender marking, compulsory heterosexuality, emphasizing appropriate femininity, infantilization, and focusing on non-sport related aspects (Bernstein, 2002; Daddario, 1994; Elueze & Jones, 1998; Higgs & Weiller, 1994; Kane & Greendorfer, 1994; Pirnen, 1997; Wensing & Bruce, 2003). These unwritten 'rules' of coverage represent women in relation to stereotypical – generalized and oversimplified – conceptions of femininity which reinforce notions of patriarchal dominance by downplaying or negating the success and importance of women's sport involvement (Kane & Parks, 1992). The technique of ambivalence, which tempers such stereotypical representations with more positive ones, is becoming increasingly common in reporting upon women's sport, (Christopherson, Janning, & McConnell, 2002; Eastman & Billings, 1999; Elueze & Jones, 1998; Weiller, 1999; Wensing & Bruce, 2003).

In two historical analyses of media representations of Canadian sportswomen, the use of stereotypical framing techniques can clearly be seen. Lenskyj (1987) examined coverage of female athletics across the print media during the period from 1890 to 1930, a period when participation of females in range of athletic activities was burgeoning. She found that coverage was primarily limited to those sports deemed 'socially acceptable' (Lenskyj, 1987). In coverage that was received, journalists focused on non-sporting aspects like clothing and personal appearance "apparently for the purposes of reassuring readers that these women were feminine, that is charming and attractive, as well as athletic" (Lenskyj, 1987, p. 217). The emphasis on overt demeaning of female athletic accomplishments was, however, balanced by the presence of female sports columnists. Usually former athletes themselves, these women defended women's involvement in sport against attackers who would prefer they remain free from sport's "sweat and strain" and "grime" (Lenskyj, 1987, p. 226; also Hall, 1999). Yet it was apparent that the press in general held mixed

feelings regarding the involvement of women in physical activity. For example, the outstanding success of Canada's female athletes at the 1928 Olympics (4 medals and the team athletics title) went unnoticed by the major women's magazine, *Chatelaine*, even though many "Canadian papers reacted with an outpouring of national pride" (Lenskyj, 1987, p. 223). Feelings of nationalism were also a key factor contributing to the relatively large volume of coverage received by Canadian figure-skater Barbara Ann Scott during her amateur and professional career, between 1939 to 1954. Her key successes came during a time of post-war reassertion of traditional feminine ideals, and despite the athletic efforts required to succeed, "the media concentrated its descriptions of Barbara Ann upon her 'femaleness;' she was pretty female first and foremost, athlete a distant second" (Morrow, 1987, p. 41). These findings should not be surprising, as they reflect the prevailing standards and trends related to femininity at these times. The studies are useful as they provide a foundation for comparison to see how media representations of Canadian female athletes have changed.

Contemporary coverage of Canadian sportswomen in the Olympics appears to be moving away from such overtly stereotypical representations. Television coverage of the 1994 Winter Olympics was apparently free from 'gender bias' as both male and female athletes were addressed by surname, and "commentators used similar language to describe male and female competitors, and disparaging references to gender were absent" (Spears & Seydegart, 1996, p. 4). However, the reliability of Spears & Seydegart's qualitative assessment of Games coverage is questionable: methodological descriptions are vague in their assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of the coverage and the implications of particular framings. For example, researchers found through "subjective opinion" that language was balanced with announcers "staying close" to the action of the moment (Spears & Seydegart, 1996, p. 29). This is not necessarily a good thing, as in

more recent and systematic analysis, Jones, Murrell & Jackson (1999) found that coverage that focused more on task-related descriptions, particularly in gender appropriate sports (gymnastics, softball), was mediated by the fact these sports still “had the highest frequency of female stereotypic comments” (p. 190), focusing on things like ‘beauty’ and ‘grace’. McGregor observes that at the 1992 and 1994 Olympics “by and large the Canadian media did the Canadian women and their performances justice” (McGregor, 2000, pp. 167-168) as they refrained from overtly stereotypic adjectives like girls, ladies, sexy, leggy, or cute in their coverage and focused on performance. This work does not disclose how such evaluations were arrived at, so an assessment of the strength of and weight that should be paid to these observations is difficult. More convincing is Vincent et al.’s (2002) analysis of the 1996 Olympics which found although men received a greater number of photographs overall, both men and women were “portrayed qualitatively similarly in terms of the number of photographs depicting female and male athletes ‘competing’ or ‘not competing’ in their sport or event” (p. 329). This is a contrast to previous research in which women were more often pictured passively or in non-competitive settings (Duncan, 1990). Also in contrast to previous research, Vincent et al. (2002) found posed photographs occurred more frequently for men than for women.

These progressive representations of Canadian sportswomen are mediated somewhat by the fact that stereotypical representations still occur. Lee found that in the 1984 and 1988 Games, trivialization was apparent as “references made to the private and social lives of athletes, appearance, psychological traits and images, as well as to physiological differences between men and women, occurred more often for women than for men” (Lee, 1992, p. 208). It has been found that stereotypical representations tend to occur most often in the traditional ‘feminine appropriate’ sports rather than in non-traditional sports (Daddario, 1994; Higgs & Weiller, 1994). Given that traditional feminine sports

tend to receive the most coverage, this pattern send the message that it is socially more acceptable for women to participate in sports in a manner which does little to disrupt or challenge the hegemonic status quo. Yet in times of increased recognition of women's rights and advancement in society recent research has suggested that portrayal of female athletes is beginning to rely less and less on these overtly feminine stereotypes as primary framing devices (e.g., Duncan, Messner, M.A., Williams & Jensen, 1990; Eastman & Billings, 1999; Kane & Parks, 1992; Kinnick, 1998) as the "formerly common practices of marginalisation and trivialization [are now] apparently too unfair and inappropriate" (Theberge, 1990, p. 392). Instead, the most common framing device for women's sport, both globally and in Canada, now appears to be the simultaneous use of both positive and negative portrayals of women, or ambivalence (e.g., Christopherson et al., 2002; Eastman & Billings, 1999; Elueze & Jones, 1998; Weiller, 1999). Ambivalence is problematic because even though coverage is improved, sportswomen are still not given appropriate recognition and prestige (Kane & Greendorfer, 1994).

In Canada, examples of ambivalence towards women in sport has been found in several aspects of media coverage. Lee's (1992) analysis found that "writers acknowledged the performance and achievements of female athletes, and described them as being powerful, graceful, or skilful. At the same time, however, they were also described as cute, vulnerable, emotional, or possessing some other traits which rendered them flawed heroines" (Lee, 1992, p. 216). Further, men and women were portrayed qualitatively differently in coverage, with instances of ambivalence occurring both between and within single articles and images for females, but rarely within the same article or image for male athletes. Spears & Seydegart (1996) found that although women's sport was present in coverage of the 1994 Winter Games, it was integrated into coverage of the men's sport. Headlines and leads often gave little indication that the articles contained references to women's

sport. The women's sport coverage was discursively 'camouflaged' for the reader, sending the message that the women's competition and results were secondary to the men's, and not worthy of attention in their own right. Overall, Vincent et al., (2002) found improvements in quantity and quality of coverage of female athletes, however they did observe differences in representations of female athletes between 'popular' (*Toronto Star*) and 'serious' (*Globe and Mail*) publications. The 'popular' press "on occasion denigrated the efforts of female athletes and reverted to a stereotypical, sexist, portrayal" (Vincent et al., 2002, p. 330), especially in regards to infantilising gymnasts and sexualising beach volleyball players. The 'popular' press also contained almost twice as many negative (stereotypical) than positive paragraphs addressing female athletes' attire. These ambivalent representations send the message that although women's sport participation and performance are recognized, they are not valued in the same way as men's.

Discussion

Given the greater media attention received and improvements in quality of representation, it can be inferred that the value of women's place in sport appears to have increased in Canada, especially during the Olympics. Likely reasons for the heightened place of sportswomen include nationalism, changing societal values, and explicit media policy. There is no doubt that the Olympics are used as a tool of nation-building, and major event reporting focuses not only on national representatives, but on winners as a means to emphasise success as a nation (Wensing, Bruce, & Pope, 2004). In Canada, the "gross disparity" (Urquhart & Crossman, 1999, p. 298) in coverage between men and women when women performed poorly at the Winter Games show that success of Canadian sportswomen has helped them attain media prominence (also McGregor, 2000; Vincent et al., 2002). Further, as Wensing & Bruce (2003) demonstrate in their

analysis of Australian track superstar Cathy Freeman at the 2000 Olympics, the construction of female national heroes is incompatible with traditional stereotypical media framings of women as weak and dependent. Canadian Olympic stars like Silken Laumann, Perdita Felicien, Catriona Le May Doan, or Clara Hughes, cannot carry the hopes of the Canadian nation if they are framed by the media in ways which suggest they are emotionally fragile and therefore unable to perform. Sport stars – whether male or female – are valued for the reflected glory they can bring the nation.

Increases in the amount women's coverage – compared to 'everyday' reporting as well as over time during the Games – can also be attributed to changing societal values that are now more accepting of women competing in a greater range of sports (Vincent et al., 2002). As Gruneau, (1989) notes, economic and cultural factors do shape Olympic programming. The addition of many women's sports events to the Olympic program and pushes for equality within the Games has given media greater opportunities for reporting upon women's Olympic sport. Consideration of women as a 'market' for advertisers and evidence that women make up a significant proportion of the Olympic television audience, has seen the shaping of the content of Olympic broadcast to be more 'female friendly' (Borcila, 2000). Reductions in overt stereotypical framing of female athletes may therefore be attributable to the need for the media to appeal to this broader audience.

Third, and an area requiring more systematic investigation, is the successes of dedicated media education workshops, and equal-treatment policies of broadcasters and broadcast/reporting policies in effecting change to the hegemonic status quo. External criticism and pressure, from organizations like CAAWS, may have had an effect in changing the way the Canadian media portray female athletes (Coakley & Donnelly, 2004; McGregor, 2000). The national broadcaster, CBC, also

instituted equity and education policies for media personnel at the 2000 Olympics, resulting in equal coverage (of diving) for men and women (Cluer et al., cited in Coakley & Donnelly, 2004). Only with the dedicated leadership within the sport department has it been possible to challenge CBC's masculine hegemonic status quo regarding women's sport. The impact of this type of a cultural shift away from the sexualization of women athletes has the potential to effect permanent change in the way women are regarded by the sports media. Such policies need to be taken up by other media organizations, if the status and respect for women in contemporary Canadian culture is to be accurately reflected in the media coverage of sportswomen.

Conclusion

This review provides a point of summary of empirical investigations into representations of women in the Canadian sports media during the Olympics. The research evidence available suggests increased standing and respect for Canadian sportswomen in recent years, reflecting moves in western culture towards equal status for women in all spheres. Empirical work needs to continue to confirm that these trends are not fleeting, and to maintain pressure on media institutions to ensure that fair representation of sportswomen during this time of national importance remains a priority. However, it is important to remember that gender is but one dimension of analysis and that understanding of the place and status of Canadian sportswomen can be improved by paying attention to the broader context of their coverage. While gender can remain privileged, greater attention needs to be paid to how it intersects with other axes of identity like class, race and ethnicity, sexual orientation, ability, etc. Detailed investigations by Foote (2003), Schell & Rodriguez (2001) and Jamieson (1998) for example, have shown that such axes of difference can change the way female athletes are portrayed in the media. Further, the specific

contexts and culture which make media representations uniquely Canadian must be addressed in more detail. Incorporating analysis of French and English colonialism, indigenous culture, contemporary multiculturalism, geographical and political relations is vital to fully appreciate the Canadian context. Examining how such nuances play out in media coverage during the Olympic period, “a microcosm of society, reflecting past, present, and foreseeable societal and cultural changes” (Lee, 1992, p. 216), is a key step in coming to better understand the role sportswomen have to play in media representations of the Canadian nation.

Table 1. Media Coverage in Canadian Sport by Gender

Year	Event	Medium	Type	Women	Men	Mixed	Source/Notes
				%			
1984	Olympic (S)	Newspaper	Articles	16.4	43.9	19.3	Lee (1992)
1984	Olympic (S)	Newspaper	Space	13.9	41.5	18.8	Lee (1992)
1984	Olympic (S)	Newspaper	Pictures	24.5	63.2	3.8	Lee (1992)
1986	Everyday	Newspaper		8.9			Theberge (1991)
1988	Olympic (S)	Newspaper	Articles	12.9	55.7	9	Lee (1992)
1988	Olympic (S)	Newspaper	Space	10.5	53.9	8.9	Lee (1992)
1988	Olympic (S)	Newspaper	Pictures	25.5	57.9	0	Lee (1992)
1988/89	Everyday	Newspaper		6.3	82	11.7	Crossman et al. (1994)
1924-92	Olympic (W)	Newspaper	Articles	13.8	56.5	24.5	Urquhart & Crossman (1999)
1924-92	Olympic (W)	Newspaper	Pictures	24.8	65.5	7.8	Urquhart & Crossman (1999)

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1994	Olympic (W)	Television	On-site Event	26	64	10	Spears & Seydegart (1996)
1994	Olympic (W)	Television	Inter-view Time	27	73		Spears & Seydegart (1996)
1994	Everyday	Newspaper		5			McGregor (2000)
1996	Olympic (S)	Newspaper	Articles with Pic	36	51	13	Vincent et al. (2002)
1996	Olympic (S)	Newspaper	Articles no Pic	31	51	18	Vincent et al. (2002)
1996	Olympic (S)	Newspaper	Pic Only	45	53	2	Vincent et al. (2002)

S=Summer Games, W=Winter Games

Table 2. Everyday Media Coverage of Sportswomen (non-Canadian)

<i>Year</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>Newspaper</i>	<i>Television</i>	<i>Source</i>
		%	%	
1972/73	USA		0.003	Dyer, 1982
1980	Australia	2	0.025	Menzies (1989)
1980/81	Norway	10	5	Fasting & Tangen (1983)
1983	Australia		>1.3	Spurling, cited in Toohey (1997)
1984	Australia	1.3		Menzies (1989)
1984	UK	13		Mathesen & Flatten (1996)
1984/85	Iceland	9		Valgiernesson & Snyder (1986)
1984/85	UK	5		Valgiernesson & Snyder (1986)
1984/85	USA	3		Valgiernesson & Snyder (1986)
1986	NZ	9.3		Aston (1987)
1988	Australia	2.5	1.3	Gordon (1989) cited in Phillips (1997)

1989	USA		5	Duncan et al. (1990)
1992	Australia	4.5	1.2	Stoddart (1994)
1992	NZ	11.3	15.3	Ferkins (1992)
1992	NZ	12.4		McGregor & Melville (93/4)
1994	UK	4.5		Mathesen & Flatten (1996)
1995	Australia	4.6-5.8+	13.9+	Alston (1996)
1996	Australia	10.7	2	Phillips (1997)
1996	NZ	4.4		McGregor & Foutaine (97)
1997	Australia	5.8+		Mikosza (1997)
1998	USA	13.5	5	Eastman & Billings (2000)
1999	Australia	8.6	6-8%	Bruce et al. (1999)

+ regional newspapers only

Table 3. Olympic Media Coverage of Sportswomen (non-Canadian)

<i>Year</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>Newspaper</i>	<i>Television</i>	<i>Source</i>
		%	%	
1984	Australia	9.2	>1.5	Hindson (1989)
1984	USA	15.4	>1.10	Lee (1992)
1988	Australia		32.9	Toohy (1997)
1988	Australia	11.6		Hindson (1989)
1988	USA	14.4		Lee (1992)
1992	Australia		29.7	Toohy (1997)
1992	Australia	20.0-51.1		Embrey, Hall & Gunter (1992)
1992	USA		44	Higgs & Weiller (1994)
1994	USA		~40*	Eastman & Billings (1999)
1996	Australia	33.1		Mikosza (1996)
1996	USA		50*	Eastman & Billings (1999)
1996	USA		47.4	Tuggle & Owen (1999)
1998	USA		~40*	Eastman & Billings (1999)

* converted from a ratio

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MEDIA, NATIONALISM AND GLOBAL SPORT

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1. Introduction

Recently, many academics have paid attention to relationships between globalisation and nationalism or national identity politics. A key question of the issue of nationalism in a global context is whether nationalism is likely to disappear because of the homogenisation process of globalisation or whether it will become more intensified as a result of resistance to globalisation processes (Held and McGrew, 2002). While there is a tendency for the world to move toward a single society, namely the 'global village', much empirical evidence shows that it is unlikely that the intensity of nationalism and national identity politics will be lessened (Giddens, 2002, Smith, 1995). In fact, in some areas, a more fervent form of nationalism is emerging because of globalisation processes.

In discussing nationalism in global society, the media depiction of the nation must not be ignored. In fact, the media have a crucial role in reinforcing and reproducing nationalism (Billig, 1995; Schlesinger, 1991). Whether it is discursive or intentional, nationalistic discourses are easily found in media contents. By domesticating or nationalising media event, the national media tend to distinguish home nations from others (Billig, 1995; Cohen et al, 1996). Thus, without understanding the role of media, it is difficult to draw an accurate picture on nationalism in the global era.

‘Sport worlds’ is one of the key areas in which nationalistic emotion often occurs. Because of this reason, many governments have deliberately exploited sports as a means of political propaganda (Maguire et al, 2002; Sugden and Bairner, 1993). Therefore, it is not very surprising that sport is not only a competition for winning the game itself, but also is a battlefield of various national identity politics in ‘the global sport arena.’ Furthermore, this sporting nationalism tends to be more intensified as globalisation processes advance (Bairner, 2001, Maguire et al, 2002).

The purpose of this paper is to identify complex relations between sport, media, and nationalism in the global era. Therefore, firstly, the relations between the nation and the media will be examined. Secondly, Sport and nationalism will be discussed in relation to globalisation. Finally, nationalistic character of global media sports, especially of the Olympic Games will be explored.

2. Media and Nationalism

It is widely accepted that the media, especially television and newspapers are not neutral institutions, but reflect certain groups’ interest, whether these are commercial or political (Golding and Murdock, 2000). In relation to nationalism and media, because the media are essentially national institutions, their content often reflects nations’ political and cultural perspective, especially as they mediate international affairs to the people (Richards, 2000; Rosie et al, 2004). In addition, the media as communication systems have a crucial function to integrate the people; the media construct and reinforce national identity (Anderson, 1983; Deutsch, 1966; Gellner, 1983). Thus, when the problem of nation and nationalism is concerned, the media may be the most effective tools for constructing and reproducing nationalism.

Deutsch (1966) argues that a coherent social communication which involves a cultural integrity is crucial to provide a feeling of belonging

to the people. Conversely, a lack of those systems or inefficacy of communication can be seen as a failure to facilitate national integration. Thus, the Commission of European Communities (CEC) laments that '[a] European identity will only develop if Europeans are adequately informed. At present, [however,] information via mass media is controlled at national level' (CEC, 1984, cited in Schlesinger, 1991, p. 139). In a similar vein, Gellner (1983) also points out the importance of cultural elements to building a nation. According to him, all cultural aspects of a nation, from museums and libraries to educational systems, contribute to national integration; the media has a distinctive role amongst those cultural institutions. According to Gellner:

the media themselves, the pervasiveness and importance of abstract, centralized, standardized, one to many communication, which itself automatically engendered the core idea of nationalism, quite irrespective of what in particular is being put into the specific messages transmitted. The most important and persistent message is generated by the medium itself, by the role which such media have acquired in modern life. The core message is that the language and style of the transmissions is important, that only he who can understand them, or can acquire such comprehension, is included in a moral and economic community, and that he who does not and cannot, is excluded (Gellner, 1983, p. 127).

While both Deutsch and Gellner offer valuable theses in understanding the function of the media in the nation building process, Schlesinger (2000) warns that although useful, their arguments concentrate on communication itself, rather than investigating the role of the media itself as social and cultural apparatus. Anderson (1983), however, suggests a more practical explanation about a relation between media and nation. Anderson (1983) argues that print media such as newspaper and media increase in capacity for dissemination

of national belonging into the people's mind. The print media made possible a certain vernacular as national language, and converged time and space in a particular area by circulating the same representations and contents within the territory simultaneously. These media deliver a shared identity to the people who reside in the area. Thus, 'imagined community' can be created between people who do not know each other, but possess togetherness and sameness by media. As he puts it:

an American will never meet or even know the name of more than a handful of his fellow Americans. He has no idea of what they are up to at any time. But he has complete confidence in their steady, anonymous simultaneous activity (Anderson, 1983, p. 16)

As the above quotation indicates, integration of the people within a large area cannot be achieved without media. Richards (2000) also stresses the importance of shared cultural background in making a national identity, and asserts that without media, it would be almost impossible to disseminate an identical socio-cultural value throughout a particular territory.

These arguments introduced so far tend to stress the role of the media in the nation building process. However, once a nation is established, its ideology needs to be reproduced and reinforced (Billig, 1995; Richard, 2000; Smith, 2001). The ways in which the media reinforce and reproduce national identity vary. Among these ways, two distinctive forms are worth examining; 'domestication' of media reporting and 'banal nationalism' (Billig, 1995; Cohen et al, 1996). Domestication of media reporting is understood as a representation and interpretation of incidents or events from a nation-centred perspective (Cohens et al, 1996). International events are often delivered through a national prism to the audience. Thus, politically or culturally mobilised nationalism is often expressed in an obvious way. By contrast, banal nationalism, as the term 'banal' implied, indicates banality of nationalism. In other words, it implies

that 'a great deal of nationalist practice is embedded in the ritual and practices of everyday life' (Schlesinger, 2000, p. 105). Thus, nationalism is expressed in a discursive way. These two forms of representing nationalism in the media need to be spelt out in more detail.

The media often reinforce national identity by representing a certain event in a nationalistic fashion (Richard, 2000; Higson, 2002). Media personnel both intentionally and unintentionally add a national value and ideology to its 'raw material'. Consequently, it is often found that the media from different countries mediate same event differently in accordance with their own national interest. All these processes are the 'domestication' of media reporting (Cohen et al, 1996; Lee et al, 2000). The domestication process is especially apparent as the media from various nations mediate international news events. Thus Lee et al (2000, p. 295) argue that 'the same event may be given distinct media representations by various nations through the prisms of their dominant ideologies as defined by power structures, cultural repertoires and politico-economic interests'.

Stimulating nationalistic emotion is one of the key effects of domestication. In order to successfully domesticate media events and disseminate nationalism through them, the media often exploit the nation's history and its national character which Elias (1996) called the national 'habitus codes' (Dayan and Katz, 1992; Maguire and Poulton, 1999). Moreover, Dayan and Katz (1992) stress that not only do the media reproduce and reinforce nationalism by adding national history to the media event, but they also generate and shape collective memories. In other words, the media rewrite national history. They also stress that the media often proclaim that a certain type of events is historical, and, in so doing, '[the media] has entered into competition with historian for the role of chronicler of the present and interpreter of the past' (Dayan and Katz, 1988, p. 104). Consequently, the media define 'what should be labelled historic and, how it should be told, and

what it means' (Dayan and Katz, 1988, p. 104). By adopting historical accounts and framing historical perspectives, the media intentionally and unintentionally engender a common national boundary.

However, it can be problematic to assume that members of a particular society all agree with a certain nationalistic ideology; in fact, the opposite situation is more likely to be true at least in a democratic society (Giddens, 2001; Lee et al, 2000). The collapse of mutual consensus in one society under nationalism has been fanned by a global influx of culture and ideology. In this circumstance, national media institutions tend to preserve a conservative value of society, and they are likely to domesticate the global media event in favour of nationalist ideology (Gitlin, 1980). In that sense, the domestication of global events is seen as the opposite pole of globalisation of the media (Cohen et al, 1996). Therefore, nationalistic, and sometimes jingoistic expressions of the news events, including sport reports, are used in order to strengthen and reinforce national identity in response to the globalisation process.

Unlike the obvious and sometimes jingoistic way of nationalism, Billig (1995) argues that nationalist ideas are so pervasive in our life that such banality of nationalistic expression is barely noticeable. According to him:

Banal nationalism operates with prosaic, routine words, which take nations for granted, and which, in so doing, inhabit them. Small words, rather than grand memorable phrases, offer constant, but barely conscious, reminders of the homeland, making 'our' national identity unforgettable (Billig, 1995, p. 93).

As Renan (1882/1994, p. 17) points out, borrowing his term, 'the existence of a nation is an everyday plebiscite'. It indicates that without an individual belonging a common life, a history of the nation will end or be replaced. Thus, reproduction of nationalism is essential. Banal nationalism is especially effective in reproducing it. In media,

small words from personal pronoun such as 'I', 'our', 'you', and 'we' to indicators of time and place such as today, now, here, and there discursively denote the deictic centre of a nation. With regard to this, Maguire and Poulton (1999) explain that:

I/we identities are constructed through discursive practices and practical actions, both of which often have an unacknowledged affective component. The familiar, the taken-for-granted, the daily unnoticed actions bind us to a particular I/we identity ... The deepening and consolidation of an I/we feeling is also a double bind, a cognition/sentiment which enables us to 'share' things in common with others like 'us', but also acts to separate 'us' from 'them' (Maguire and Poulton, 1999, p. 20).

In addition, distinction between home and international news, which distinguish an incident happens inside of our nation from that occurs outside of the nation, also remind the people of their national identity. Moreover, in newspapers, an economy section is about the economy of the nation, even if the title of the section is printed as just 'economy' and not the nation's economy. When the people read or watch news through the media, therefore, they unconsciously assume that they are citizens of the nation. Thus, this banality of nationalist ideas in the media well works in reproducing nationalism without using coercive means (Billig, 1995; Law; 2001; Rosie et al, 2004).

This banality of nationalism, especially using personal pronoun, as a means of distinguishing the 'established and outsider', and of asserting national identity, is also stressed by Elias (1996). As he indicates:

The love for one's nation is never only a love for persons or groups of whom one says 'you'; it is always also the love of a collectivity to which one can refer as 'we'. Whatever else it may be, it is also a form of self-love. ... The image of the nation experienced by an individual who forms part of that nation, therefore, is also

a constituent of that person's self image. The virtue, the value, the meaningfulness of the nation are also his or her own (Elias, 1996, pp. 151-152).

In his book *the Germans* Elias (1996) declares that the nation and the individual are not totally separated entities but that these are linked to each other. In other words, 'we-image' as nation and 'I-image' as individual are complementary concepts. Therefore, as Billig (1995) argues, personal pronouns used by the mass media easily indicate one's nation without a specific reference of the nation.

As such, in the media, the domestication of news report and banal nationalism are the two distinctive ways of reproducing nationalism and national identity. It is not difficult to find media texts, which involve such nationalistic ideology.

3. Sport and Nationalism

It might be difficult to deny that sport and nationalism are the areas in which the most serious emotional issues are generated in modern society. Moreover, when the two areas are integrated, passion engendered may be the most fervent feeling, next to the emotion generated by warfare (Bairner, 2001). Thus, George Orwell calls it 'war minus shooting'. Hobsbawm (1992) also admits an importance of sport in relation to nationalism, saying that:

What has made sport so uniquely effective a medium for inculcating national feeling...is the ease with the nation as symbolised by young persons at what practically every man [sic] wants, or at one time in life has wanted to be good at. The imagined community of millions seems more real as a team of eleven named people. The individual, even the one who only cheers, becomes a symbol of his nation himself (Hobsbawm, 1992, p. 143).

Because of the interconnection between sport and nationalism, many governments try to exploit sport as a means of a nation-building project (Bairner 2001; Sugden and Bairner, 1993; Maguire et al, 2002; Mangan, 1996). Based on these arguments that confirm the relations between nationalism and sport, three typologies of sporting nationalism can be generated; these are sporting nationalisms as a nation building project; as surrogate war between rivalry nations; and as a means of identification to a national sport (Bairner, 2001; Maguire et al, 2002; Mangan, 1996).

Firstly, sport is often exploited as a means of a nation building project (Hargreaves, 2000; Mangan, 1996). Maguire (1999, p. 178) declares that 'sport is well placed to contribute to this process of identity-formation and invention of tradition'. In that sense, when a nation-state is newly formed, sport offers it chance to promote its political and cultural legitimacy to international society (Espy, 1979; Mangan, 1996). In addition, minority nations within a nation-state can assert their independence by developing their sport talents. The Catalans in Spain and Quebecers in Canada show a typical example of this type of sporting nationalism.

Secondly, sport provides a country with opportunity to confirm superiority over the other country (Espy, 1979; Maguire et al, 2002; Houlihan, 2000). This type of nationalism was at its epoch during the Cold War. At that time, winning the game by one country was often linked to political supremacy over the other political bloc. Sport competition between the former coloniser and colonised country also reflects this type of sporting nationalism. Especially, when the ex-colonised defeats the ex-invader, the sporting nationalism becomes more fervent (Maguire, 1999).

Finally, a nation promotes cultural nationalism through supporting national sport (Bairner, 2001; Maguire et al, 2002). Gaelic sport in Ireland, American Football in the United States, Ice Hockey in

Canada, and Aussie-rules football in Australia are typical examples. Bairner (2001) points out that the term 'national sport' can be somewhat confusing. On the one hand, the national sport can be both a traditional sport and very popular, at least, within the nation. Hurling in the Republic of Ireland is a typical example. On the other hand, there could be a traditional sport that only some historians might be interested in, for instance Shinty in Scotland. In the case of the former, it will be regarded as a national sport that promotes nationalism. However, in the case of the latter, it is problematic considering it as a national sport because without mass mobilisation, it might not be possible to encourage nationalistic feeling through the sport. A third case is also possible. Take ice hockey in Canada, the sport did not originate from the country but is supported by a huge male population. In this case, sport enhances cultural nationalism even though the sport is not traditionally from the country.

As this typology of sporting nationalism shows, sport can strengthen nationalism and national identity politics of the modern nation-state. Since the late nineteenth century, sport has contributed to several nation building processes and independence movements. Therefore, even though it might be not possible to consider sport as a critical means of reinforcing nationalism, its political connotation should not be underestimated.

4. The Global Sport Arena and Nationalism

The development and diffusion of the modern form of sport runs parallel with what we call the period of modernism, though its origin is also a part of the long term civilising processes in Europe, mainly England (Elias and Dunning, 1986, Maguire, 1999). In addition, the diffusion of modern sport was often linked to nationalism. However, since the second half of the twentieth century, the relations between sport and the nation have also become much more complex (Maguire et al, 2002).

Global sport events are often praised for their function that promotes global understanding by their organisers. However, critics often point out that, strictly speaking, these events are not global events, but international games; accordingly, one can find nationalism in those events as opposed to globalism (Bairner, 2001, Rowe, 2003, Tomlinson, 1996). Tomlinson (1996), furthermore, argues that what is globalised through global sport events is not mutual understanding between members of global society, but exclusive global capitalism. In this situation, the global sport events seem to be, unlike their name and motto implies, far away from the way to build global community. Therefore, Bairner (2001, p. xi) states that ‘although the process known as globalisation has clearly had an impact on them, the relationship between sport, national identity, and nationalism remains as strong as ever’. In the same context, Rowe (2002), in his research on mega-sports event, argues that at a cultural level, sport is certainly one of the most remarkable global cultures, yet, because of sport’s competitiveness in character, it seems to stimulate nationalism at the global sport contest. Thus, he concludes that paradoxically the most globalised culture has drastically encouraged ‘the repudiation of the global’.

In media sport texts, the elements of national identity frequently emerge. Researchers point out that media sport is an arena for nationalism (Maguire, 1999, Rowe et al., 1998), and Whannel (2000) goes further, and declares that ‘media representations of sport inevitably involve the production of image of national identities’ (p. 300). Jhally (1989) reveals that nationalistic emotions are reinforced by media commentators who use terms such as ‘we’ or ‘they’ because “‘we” are separated from “them” the foreigners, through the use of stereotypical representation. “They” are different from us culturally and psychologically’ (p. 84). Maguire et al. (1999), in their research on media coverage of the 1996 European Football championship, clarify that media sport text often reawaken ‘sleeping memories’. For instance, when England played against Germany, media personnel

exploited historical metaphors to depict the game. Media coverage of the Olympic Game is also exploited in various ways in order to confirm one's national identity. Tomlinson (1996) discovered that media coverage of the opening and closing ceremonies consisted of nationalistic elements of the host countries. From a different point of view, Real (1998) explains that 'when a national broadcaster buys Olympic rights ... the national service may add its own commentator and then may transmit live or may edit and transmit on a delayed basis. It is "designer" television in which the original event becomes customised for each of scores of different audiences' (p. 23). During this process, as Whannel (1998) points out, it is inevitable that the original broadcast becomes decorated with nationalistic expressions.

With regard to national identity politics and the media representation of the Olympics, Moragas Spà et al (1995) assert that although the Olympic ideal emphasises international cooperation and goodwill, the media image of the game exclusively concerns with national self-identity. Similarly, in his research on the mediated version of opening and closing ceremony of the Olympic Games, Tomlinson (1996) discovers that nationalistic display prevails over universal and global image of the Olympics. He also states that 'despite the early Olympic message calling for peace and co-operation between the youth of the world, the local celebration of the Games as expressed in ceremonies leads inevitably to forms of nationalism and nationalistic self- aggrandizement' (Tomlinson, 1996, p. 600). Therefore, many academics point out that such nationalistic media Olympics as a paradox of global sport event (Moragas Spà et al, 1995; Rowe, 2003; Tomlinson, 1996).

5. Conclusion Remark

In this paper, complex relations between media, sport, and nationalism have been discussed in the context of globalisation. Some

might argue that the fervour of nationalism will disappear or, at least, lessen in the global era. However, as recent research on the media, and the media sport in particular, shows, nationalism as an ideology still maintains its powerful position in the contemporary society. In the global sport arena, such nationalism is manifest, and this sporting nationalism is often promoted by the media. A case of the Olympics and its media representation indicates that, although the ideal of the Olympics stresses mutual understanding and global co-operation, each nation's media tend to frame and deliver the game in a nationalistic fashion. Therefore, even though it might be too early to conclude that nationalism will never cease to be a core of human ideology, it is a very unlikely situation that nationalism is going to be weakened in the near future.

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THE ECONOMIC IMPACT OF THE 2005 EUROPEAN YOUTH OLYMPIC WINTER FESTIVAL ON THE VALAIS CHABLAIS AREA OF SWITZERLAND

Mr Thomas JUNOD (SUI)

Introduction

The Swiss canton (i.e. region) of Valais lost out in the bids to host the 2002 and 2006 Winter Olympics when the candidature of the city of Sion was unsuccessful on both occasions. Nevertheless an Olympic event was recently held there when the 7th European Youth Olympic Winter Festival (EYOF) was hosted in Monthey in the Chablais area of the Valais canton. Between the 22nd and 29th of January 2005, 1200 young athletes and officials gathered here to take part in the event. Our aim is to calculate the Festival's economic impact on the Valais Chablais area. Following a brief description of the EYOF, our method for calculating its economic impact on the area is outlined and developed. To complement our analysis of the financial aspects of the Festival's impact, we conclude by reviewing some of the intangible effects it created.

About the EYOF

On the initiative of the European Olympic Committees (EOC)¹ the European Youth Olympic Festival (EYOF) has been held every

¹ The association that brings together the national European Olympic Committees.

other year since 1991, and is made up of a winter and summer event. The EYOF is reserved for European athletes aged between 15 and 18 and aims to use high level competitions as a way of developing and encouraging the Olympic spirit among talented young sports people. Between the 22nd and 29th of January 2005 Monthey, along with neighbouring resorts, hosted the Festival's 7th winter games. The programme consisted of eight disciplines (biathlon, cross-country skiing, curling, figure skating, ice hockey, short-track, skiing, and snowboarding). 41 delegations from European countries, made up of 763 athletes and 413 officials, took part. Furthermore, 1280 volunteers and 54 judges and referees played their part in ensuring that the games went off smoothly. According to estimates made by the organisers, 83,400 spectators in all watched the competitions. However, a precise figure cannot be given as tickets were not necessary since entry to the event was free.

Impact Analysis

The organisation of the EYOF in the Valais Chablais area had a major financial impact on the local economy. For example, 1200 athletes and officials spent a week staying in the area's hotels. Furthermore, spectators (mainly members of the athletes' families) came especially from abroad to watch the competitions. Major sums were injected into the local economy by sponsors and public authorities outside the area; and many locally-based businesses and companies were involved in works carried out in preparation for the Festival. The purpose of an economic impact study of a sporting event is to quantify the additional activity in the area that the Festival generated. In other words, to calculate the value added created within the area which organised the Festival. There have already been numerous impact studies of sporting events of this type. Unfortunately, their methodologies vary considerably. Given the wide variation in methods used, comparisons

are very difficult. This has already been described as a regrettable state of affairs by Barget (2001). Our study follows his proposed standardised methodology for assessing the economic impact of sporting events.¹ Firstly, it is essential to state precisely the geographic area covered by our analysis of the Festival's economic effects. The events that made up the EYOF were held in Monthey, Champéry, Morgins and in Les Crosets. All are part of a geographic area described here as Valais Chablais, which is the study's reference area. A month before the competition, the half-pipe (snowboarding) events were moved to Leysin, which is part of the Vaud (Lake Geneva) canton. In order to be consistent with our reference area we have to exclude, or even treat as leakages, the economic expenditures related to Leysin's hosting of these events. In the context of impact studies, expenditures benefiting economic agents in the area² can only be considered as injections if they are "autonomous"; i.e. expenditures financed by economic agents outside of the area. By the same token, expenditures arising within the area and paid to agents outside it represent leakages from the area. Expenditures by agents within the area should not be counted, as they are simply internal transfers between the area's residents rather than a net cash injection into the area organising the event (Barget, 2001). Given Valais Chablais' small area (370 km²) the organisers were likely to have awarded a large amount of business to companies outside the area; making it almost certain that some comparatively major leakages must have occurred. However, autonomous incomes will have been much higher than would have been the case had a larger reference

¹ Although important, one recommendation that we have not followed concerns the declining value of money. We have assumed that the vast majority of income and expenditure took place in 2004 and at the start of 2005. When incomes and expenditures are spread over many years it is essential that monetary values are updated (revalued in line with inflation).

² i.e. its residents, to use national accounting terminology.

area been used. Thus the specification of the reference area is crucial to an impact study, since it has a significant effect on the final results of the analysis.

When autonomous incomes are used to pay wages and salaries it immediately leads to the creation of an equivalent sum in the form of incomes within the reference area's economy. By contrast, when looking at expenditure on orders placed with companies, it is necessary to establish whether the value of goods and services was created in the area rather than outside it. To measure the share of orders resulting in value added being created inside the area, a distinction is made between the direct and indirect effects of such expenditure. The direct effect corresponds to that part of expenditure which is transformed into income within the area through wages and salaries being paid by companies that have won business and by the profits that they have made. Right from the start, these expenditures become income.¹ When companies which have won EYOF-related business sub-contract part of the works, or buy intermediate goods and services, the point of impact of these new expenditures needs to be determined. Indirect effects are created when their purchases from business and companies in the area are, in turn, transformed into income.² The amounts cascading from business to business can go through several stages before they become incomes or before they flow out of the area. The term "primary income" is generally used to

¹ We have assumed that the direct effect = wages and salaries + $\frac{3}{4}$ of overheads and profit margins. This is a standard assumption that can be found in Stritt and Voillat's (1998) analysis of the impact of Sion's ultimately unsuccessful bid to host the 2006 Winter Olympics on the Valais canton.

² Indirect effects were calculated as follows: Indirect Effects = ($\frac{1}{4}$ overheads and profit margin + purchases of goods and services) * business multiplier (Stritt and Voillat, 1998). The manner of calculating the business multiplier is explained overleaf.

denote the total figure covering direct and indirect effects. Primary income is equivalent to the amount of initial expenditure which ends up as income for the area's residents. It can also be regarded as the value added created by businesses and companies in the area as a result of the sporting event being hosted there. Primary income is, in turn, then spent by households, which generates a new round of expenditure in the area (generally termed the "induced effects"). The value of the induced effects depend on individuals' marginal propensity to consume. The more they prefer to spend rather than save, the higher will be the new expenditures directed towards business and companies. By contrast, the marginal tax rate and the marginal propensity to import¹ have a negative impact on the induced effects (the more individuals pay as a result of a higher tax rate and the more they spend on goods and services produced outside the region the weaker will be the impact of their expenditure on local business and companies). When induced effects are added to primary income, we arrive at the total income corresponding to the aggregate economic value created in the local economy by the expenditure initially linked to an event like the Festival. A Keynesian-type regional household multiplier is the means by which the figure representing total income arises from primary income,² and this represents the final stage of the impact analysis. The smaller the area, the more likely it is that the value of the multiplier will be

¹ More precisely we will use here the import share of the marginal propensity to consume.

² The Keynesian household multiplier (K_h) is calculated as follows:

$$K_h = 1/[1-(1-\mu)\cdot(1-t)\cdot c]$$

where: c = marginal propensity to consume; t = marginal tax rate; μ = import-related share of the marginal propensity to consume. The formula for calculating the business multiplier (K_b) is more or less the same: $K_b = 1-\mu/[1-(1-\mu)\cdot(1-t)\cdot c]$ where $(1-\mu)$ represents the share of value added in the area and $1/[1-(1-\mu)\cdot(1-t)\cdot c]$ the induced effects.

reduced, as the marginal propensity to import is inversely related to the area's size. The flow chart in Figure 1 (overleaf) illustrates the income and expenditure flows generated by the Festival.

Generally, there are three types of expenditure in an impact analysis of major sporting events: infrastructure spending, the organising committee's operating expenditures, and visitor-related expenditure. In the case of the Monthey EYOF, infrastructure spending was not significant. The holding of the EYOF did not lead to any major new infrastructure works. For this reason, we decided to include renovation works and facility enlargement projects under the organising committee's operating expenditures. It is worth noting however that the curling and short-track competitions were held in Champéry's new National Ice Sports Centre, due to be officially opened in June 2005.¹ Amongst other things, this building will be the training centre for the Swiss Skating Union's national programmes. Its facilities include a swimming pool, a covered rink, a curling arena, four tennis courts, a multipurpose hall, a restaurant and a 90-bed reception centre. It was partly financed by the Swiss Confederation and the Swiss Olympic Committee ("Swiss Olympic Association"). Several municipalities were in the running to house this National Centre and the organisation of the EYOF events in and around Monthey was indisputably a decisive factor in the choice of Champéry. Even though our calculations do not take account of the financing and economic consequences of the National Ice Sports Centre's construction, its importance cannot be ignored in terms of getting the full picture of the EYOF's impact on Valais Chablais.

Regarding operating expenditures, it is first of all necessary to obtain an aggregate figure for the organising committee's expenditure in the reference area. After that, the share of the organising committee's

¹ The Centre has been named the "Champéry Palladium".

receipts originating from outside the area (in other words the share of autonomous incomes in the total) needs to be determined. This share can then be used to obtain a figure for the externally-financed operating expenditures that had an economic impact on the area. These expenditures generate the various economic flows shown in figure 1.

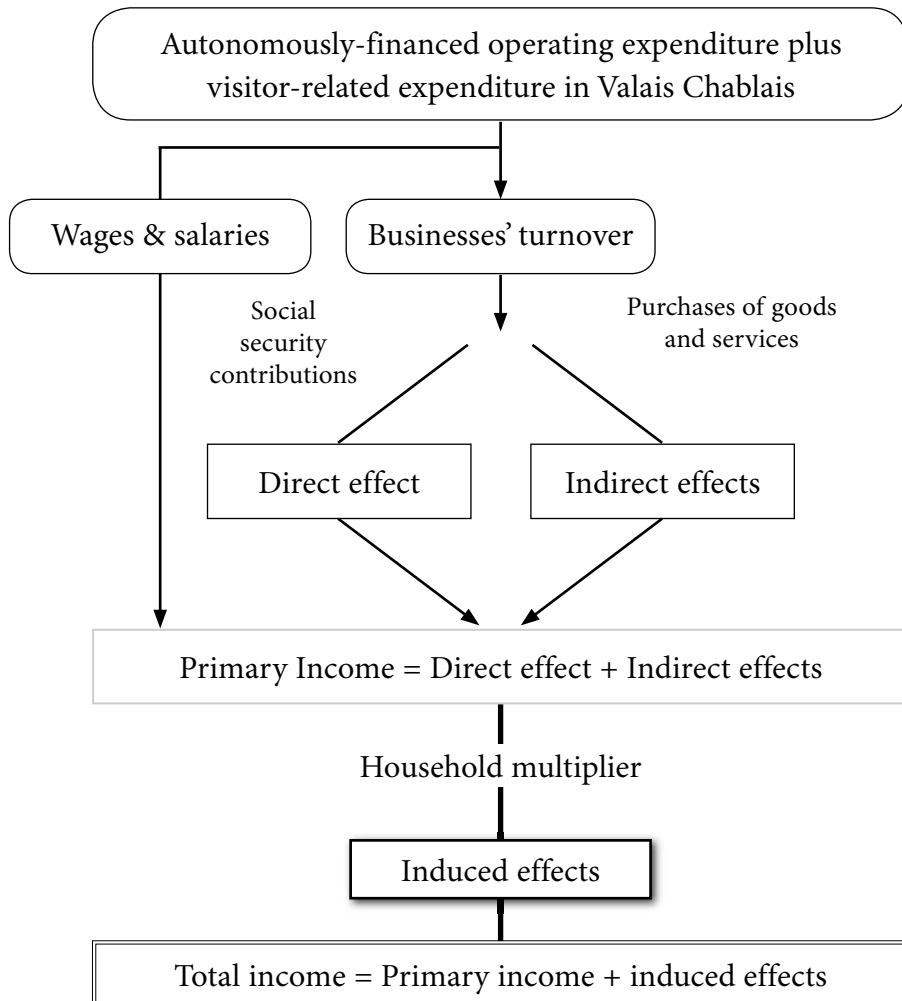


Figure 1: Impact study economic flow chart (based on Stritt and Voillat, 1998)

The expenditures of visitors who came to watch and participate in the sporting events also need to be taken into account when calculating the Festival's economic impact. In this regard, only the expenditure of visitors who came specifically for the games should be counted. Preuss & Weiss (2003) and Barget (2001) are among those who have made the point that the expenditure of spectators living in the area should not be counted, as they are not the outcome of autonomous cash injections. Similarly, expenditure by visitors who took advantage of their stay in Valais Chablais to watch the EYOF events should not be considered, as they would have been there regardless of whether or not the games were held. For ease of exposition, visitor-related expenditures are divided into three categories: accommodation costs, the cost of meals, and expenditure on entertainment and miscellaneous purchases. Having calculated the total value of visitor-related expenditure for each of the three categories we then determine the primary income and the total income that it generated by referring to the same flow chart as that used for operating expenditures. Adding together total incomes created by visitor-related expenditure and the organising committee's operating expenditures produces a value corresponding to the economic impact of the Festival.

Calculating the economic impact of the EYOF

Expenditure arising from the EYOF's economic impact on the Valais Chablais area was divided into two broad categories: the organising committee's operating expenditures and visitor-related expenditure. Expenditures covered by the first category were broken down on the basis of the 27 budget headings used by the organisers. Under each heading, estimates were made of the share of expenditure directed towards Valais Chablais-based businesses and companies. Despite the area's small size, the organisers made sure that most contracts were awarded to locally-based businesses and companies, thereby limiting

leakages. Out of a total budget of 5.13m Swiss francs¹ for the EYOF, we estimate that 3.385m (66%) went in the first place to a business in the area.² In line with the approach that Barget (2001) in particular has used, we are only concerned with the share of autonomously-financed expenditure by the organisers on local businesses.³ The impact of expenditure flows financed from within the area itself (20% of the total) has to be ignored, as they are merely transfers. For each budget heading, we then estimated the share of expenditure immediately transformed into wages and salaries, that which was used to buy goods and services and that which was attributable to overhead costs and profit margins. Thus the direct effect is the amount directly transformed into regional income. On the basis of our assumptions, it covered 100% of wages and salaries and $\frac{3}{4}$ of overhead costs and profit margins. Using this approach, the direct effect of operating expenditures was calculated as 2.195m. Indirect effects represent spending in the area through orders for goods and services. Using the assumptions we have made, the figures were obtained by adding purchases of goods and services to an amount representing a $\frac{1}{4}$ of the combined figure for overhead costs and profit margins. The overall figure is then multiplied by the business multiplier. The total representing the indirect effects on the Valais Chablais area of

¹ 1 Swiss franc = 0.65 euros (average for December-January 2005. Source: Banque nationale suisse).

² This study uses the August 2004 version of the organising committee's budget, where total expenditure came to 5.52m Swiss francs. We have, as far as we have been able, subtracted the notional values recorded in the budget for services that sponsors provided free to the organisers from this figure. Evidently, these notional expenditures have a zero economic impact given the logic underlying our analysis.

³ Of the projected expenditure of 5.13m Swiss francs in the budget (which was a balanced budget) autonomously-financed expenditure was estimated as 4.07m (79.34%).

the EYOF operating budget's expenditure was estimated as 0.265m. Primary income thus represents the combined total for the direct and indirect effects. Within Valais Chablais, primary income arising from EYOF-related operating expenditures amounted to 2.46m. The size of the business multiplier was estimated to be 0.2. Calculating the business multiplier required an estimate of the import share of the marginal propensity to consume for the Valais Chablais area. Using the regression techniques proposed by Zarin-Nejadan (1994) resulted in an estimate of 0.825. Another regression equation yielded an estimate of 0.295 as the marginal tax rate for Valais Chablais. Finally, we assumed that Valais Chablais' marginal propensity to consume was the same as that calculated for Switzerland by Mattei (2002) as a whole (0.962).¹ Using the same values, the household multiplier for Valais Chablais was estimated as 1.13. By multiplying primary income by the household multiplier, we determine that the total income created in Valais Chablais resulting from expenditure made by the organisers came to 2.78m.

Furthermore, the impact of spending made by visitors to the EYOF on Valais Chablais has to be measured. The term "visitors" encompasses not just those who watched the events but also the athletes, judges and officials who took part in the competitions. Volunteers, the media and VIPs also fall within the definition used. For each category of visitor, we estimated their numbers, their average stay as well as their daily accommodation and meal costs plus the miscellaneous purchases that they made. Some of the expenditures here have been excluded from the calculations in order to avoid double counting. The reason for this is because they were already part of the

¹ Thus $K_b = 1 - \mu / [1 - (1 - \mu) \cdot (1 - t) \cdot c] = 1 - 0.825 / [1 - (1 - 0.825)(1 - 0.295) \cdot 0.962] = 0.2$. Using the same approach, Stritt and Voillat (1998) estimated the business multiplier for the Valais canton to be 0.396. As the Valais Chablais area is part of the Valais canton, its corresponding multiplier will be smaller because imports will be greater.

budget figures for the organisers' operating expenditure (for example delegations' accommodation and meal costs). We have adopted the assumptions used by Stritt and Voillat (1998) in their study of the economic impact of Sion's bid to host the 2006 Winter Olympics on the Valais canton.¹ The organisers estimate that, for the games as a whole, the event drew 58,300 spectators.² Based on the assumption that each spectator saw one competition per day, the average for the number of spectators per day was estimated to be 9,710 (including the day for the opening ceremony). Figure 2 illustrates the share for each spectator category based on a survey that took place at the Festival venues. The expenditures of spectators living in Valais Chablais are not autonomous cash injections and for that reason have not been counted. Equally, expenditures incurred by those who took advantage of their stay in Valais Chablais to watch the events have also not been counted. As they would have been in the region regardless of whether the games were held, their expenditure cannot be attributed to the event. This gives a figure of 2.01m for the expenditure incurred by the remaining total of spectators. Using the same assumptions and multipliers for analysing operating expenditures, primary income linked to visitor-related expenditure comes to 1.25m and total income is estimated as 1.41m.

¹ For example, for all types of visitor, daily expenses on entertainment and miscellaneous purchases were estimated as 20 Swiss francs. For overseas visitors, accommodation costs were set at 44 francs a night and meal costs at 35 francs a day.

² This is less than the official figure of 83,400. We have subtracted spectators at various practice sessions and at the medal awards ceremonies. Spectators at the half-pipe competitions held at Leysin (outside of the Valais Chablais area) have also been subtracted from the figure. The 5,100 children and teenagers invited by the Valais canton and Swiss Olympic have been counted separately under a special visitor category.

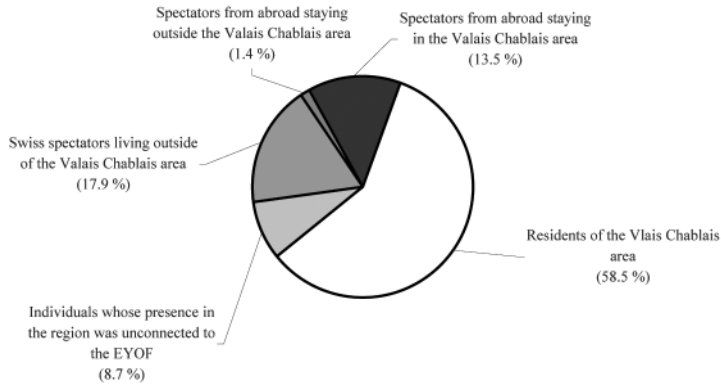


Figure 2: Monthey EYOF - spectator category shares

The total impact of the EYOF on the Valais Chablais area thus comes to 4.19m and is obtained by adding together the total income generated by operating expenditures and visitor-related expenditure.

	Analysed expenditure	Primary Income	Ratio of primary income to expenditure	Total income	Ratio of total income to expenditure
Operating expenditures	3,385,000	2,462,000	0.73	2,782,000	0.82
Visitors	2,011,000	1,246,000	0.62	1,408,000	0.70
Total	5,396,000	3,708,000	0.69	4,190,000	0.78

Table 1: Income generated in the Valais Chablais area related to the Monthey EYOF (in Swiss francs)

Qualifications and criticisms

An impact study aims to calculate the net wealth created within a defined geographic area resulting from a major expenditure-

generating activity. In studies of this nature, the final estimated figure is always positive. By their nature, such studies cannot address questions concerning the justification for a public authority's support for the organisation of a major sporting event. Through separately adding together all the costs and benefits stemming from staging such events, and then subtracting one total from the other, a cost-benefit analysis is able to indicate the welfare gain or loss (expressed in monetary terms) for the area organising the event. The principles of cost-benefit analysis are simple enough, but their theoretical foundation is more sophisticated than that of impact studies. It is also much more costly and complicated to undertake a cost-benefit analysis, as it necessitates both visitor and local population surveys. Issues such as knowing which costs and benefits should be taken into account and the biases that should be avoided continue to be debated (Barget, 2001). This explains why there are so few cost-benefit analyses of major sporting events. Several authors have however recently advocated the greater use of cost-benefit analyses for studying the impact of major sporting events (Chappelet, 2004). Impact studies of the income generated in the reference area are usually supplemented by a qualitative assessments of the intangible costs and benefits (i.e. positive and negative externalities) associated with the event, such as adverse environmental effects or the local population's sense of pride stemming from the successful organisation of the event (Preuss, 2004).

Without going into a full qualitative assessment of the Monthey EYOF, we can nevertheless list the most important intangible effects of the event. 43 media organisations representing 14 nationalities requested accreditation to cover the Festival. Monthey and the winter resorts which hosted the individual events will have featured in a range of reports on the games, both in Switzerland and abroad. However, the media impact of these games was in no way comparable to that for the actual Olympic Games. Even though they were unsuccessful, it

is reasonable to assume that the media impact of Sion's bids to host the 2002 and 2006 Winter Olympics was greater than that created by holding the EYOF in and around Monthey. However, the impact on the Valais Chablais area of an event with the prestige and profile of the EYOF is not limited to the degree of media coverage it received. Many athletes, judges and officials will have got to know the area and some may want to return in the future for a holiday. The same goes for overseas spectators. Thus 55% of spectators who had never visited Valais Chablais before said that they were intending to come back for a holiday visit.¹ The holding of the EYOF also played a decisive role in the federal authorities' decision to establish the National Ice Sports Centre in Champéry rather than in one of the other municipalities that were in the running to house this facility. A quarter of the funding of its budget of 14m Swiss francs came from the Swiss Confederation, 5% from Swiss Olympic and around 10% from the Valais canton. The Centre gives Valais Chablais a top quality multisport facility for national team training sessions together with the possibility of hosting future international events.² Many volunteers involved in the organisation of the EYOF found it a satisfying and rewarding experience and were able to develop new skills as a result. According to Chappelet (2004), such on-the-ground training amidst all the action contributes to the area's dynamism as well as to greater social integration of those involved. This is described as the "feel good factor" in terms of the psychological benefit felt by the population as a result of the event being a success. According to René Künzle, President of

¹ However, this figure should be treated with care. It is impossible to exclude totally the possibility of bias arising from a "willingness to please" in terms of responses given to canvassers.

² The Champéry municipality is already interested in putting forward its candidature for the European Curling Championships and could host one of the stages of the World Short-Track Cup.

the Organising Committee, one of the objectives of the EYOF was to “show that Switzerland has the capacity to organise important events like this.”¹ This objective appears to have been met, as immediately the games ended, there was talk again of a Swiss bid to host the Winter Olympics.² Intangible costs (or negative externalities) arising from the EYOF, such as potential environmental damage or the costs arising from congested road networks, were almost non-existent.

Conclusion

While its size and scope is nowhere near that of the actual Olympic Games, the European Youth Olympic Festival is, nevertheless, a large-scale sporting event requiring a great deal of organisation. By virtue of the number of participants and its length, the EYOF is capable of having a major economic impact on the area hosting it. As Chappelet (2004) notes, events with the greatest media potential are not necessarily the ones with the strongest economic impact. In terms of an economic impact study, measures of the final effects greatly depend on the reference area used. In choosing the Valais Chablais area rather than the whole of the Valais canton, we have markedly increased economic outflows in terms of leakages. On the other hand, autonomously-financed expenditures – the only ones which are relevant in a study of this type – were considerably greater. According to our estimates, total income for Valais arising from the 7th Winter EYOF came to 4.19m Swiss francs. The ratio of primary income generated by the Monthey EYOF to the expenditures that we analysed equalled 0.69. This is higher than the corresponding ratio (0.58) obtained by Stritt and Voillat (1998) in their study of the potential economic impact on the Valais canton of

¹ Swiss Sport, no 10/2004, p. 5.

² Jotterand C., “La Suisse rêve à nouveau d’organiser les Jeux” (“Switzerland Dreams Again of Organising the Games”), in 24 Heures, January, p. 3.

Sion's bid to host the 2006 Winter Olympics. On the other hand, our figure of 0.78 for total income relative to expenditure can be contrasted with Stritt and Voillat's figure of 0.83. Such a reversal is attributable to the low value of our household multiplier, which makes perfect sense given the small size of the Valais Chablais area.

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SPORTS AND ENVIRONMENT

Ms Andriana THEODOROU (GRE)

Introduction

Every human being is by nature social and develops activities which contribute to a continuous contact with its fellows and environment. Nature and sports have always played an important role in the development of human kind at all levels, social, political, economical and cultural. The Olympic Games of ancient years started as a political phenomenon (truce among cities-states) based on religion and worship (of Olympic God, Zeus), at the «*κάλλιστος*»¹ (*best, excellent*) place of Olympia, where the *geo-morphology* and the *topography* could offer to the Games the required witchcraft. However, in our days, when we define environment we include natural and technical, internal and external, which influences the man and the athlete - in a wider sense. In order to succeed his enrollment in the society, the man is required to take part in the formation of rules and the stabilization of factors which infect at the same time his personality (internal environment) and his general behavior (external environment).

The purpose of this paper is to present the relationships which rule the significations of environment with the athletic structure, so as to emphasize the unbreakable and classic connection of sports

¹ s. Lysias, *Olympikos* 2, s.also, D. Panagiotopoulos, (2001), *Sports Relations*, Ant. Sakkoulas, Athens.

with the sustainable development of the environment and the human nature. The method which is being followed is the listing analyzing comparative review connecting the environment and the athletic happenings according to the sources, the international actions referring to the environment and sports in the horizon of the modern bibliography, so as to expose the environmental problem and its importance at modern sports and show the necessity of scientific occupation with it.

1. The Athletic Environment

a. External - natural environment

The external environment is the wider area where the athletic phenomenon takes place and consists of the sports areas (venues), the supporting areas and the natural environment¹ as well (air, water and soil). As it is expected the protection of the environment is a social command because it is connected with the opportunity for sports and the capability of physical exercise in a developed and healthy environment.

The athletic venues and the supporting areas have to meet the rules of security, which are determined each time by the responsible Federations and the legal layouts of every state in order to carry out the athletic activity without danger for the athletes². There are many cases in which it is noticed deterioration of the health of athletes and citizens as well, because of the polluted environment. According to legislative regulations, is ensured the less possible charge of the environment. A suitable example is the construction of the Olympic Village of Athens and the rest of the athletic facilities³ which were

¹ s. Article 24 of the Greek Constitution.

² s. Greek Athletic Code, Article 15 (2005).

³ G. Giannakourou, E. Trova (2001) Olympic Games and Justice, Ant. Sakkoulas p. 265.

created to have the less possible consequences¹ in the downgrading of the natural environment.²

The appropriate management of the environmental waste plays an important role in the protection of our environment, as the contamination of water, soil and air depends directly on it. Another aspect we should not forget is the centralized action of fouling, especially in the aquatic organisms, which are a mechanism of cleaning water.

The power problem is also a factor which possesses one of the first places in the protection of the natural environment. The use of alternative forms of power is considered to be a solution with ecological and economical benefits. In the Olympic Games of Athens, the way of freezing air-conditions and refrigerators were the one used liquified gases. These gases have been under control by the Convention of Climatological conditions, are prohibited by the Community Authorities, or inflate the greenhouse effect and the proposal which was finally accepted was the one based on hydrocarbons.³

The importance of protecting the environment is supported by the European Union⁴. In the terms of the European Regime are referred - among others - the viable development and the high level of protection and improvement of the Environment⁵ and also predictions

¹ Ibid pp. 224-226.

² Cho Hyun-Joo: Environment in the Olympic Movement: Perspective of human security, IOA, 6th special session, Ancient Olympia 2002, according to his opinion: the International community faces a great number of global challenges, including poverty, conflict, refugees, human rights, violation, HIV/AIDS and other infectious diseases, crime and terrorism.

³ I. Paleokrassas: Economy of the Environment and the Olympic Games, Olympic Games and Environment, Hellenic Company of the Management of the Environment, Ant.Sakkoulas, Athens 2002.

⁴ Schedule of the Treaty of the European Constitution, June 2003, Thessaloniki.

⁵ Ibid, Part 1, Subject 1, Article 3: rights coming from the Map, Part 2, Subject 4, Article 37: general adoption.

about the environmental policy of the Convention about the European Community¹. In this field the policy followed by the Union contributes to the maintenance, the protection and the improvement of the quality of our environment and helps in keeping healthy and using the natural sources in a sensible and orthological way. It also offers a great assistance in the promotion of measures in order to come up with environmental problems at a regional and international level.²

The European Committee has decreed environmental measures such as: a) decrease of the use of nitro, as the exaggerated use of it, leads to the extravagant increase of the water flora, having disastrous consequences in the aquatic organisms, b) the subsidies of the biological methods of cultivation and exploitation of agricultural areas are another motivation for using alternative forms of energy (European Union regulation 1257/99), c) the protection of the wild life is one of the most recent measures of protection (European Union regulation 445/02). The imposition of fines in case of violation of the measures above is a way of pressure which is considered to have doubtful results.

Furthermore, the protection of the environment and the sustainable development is believed to be the third field of interest for the Olympic Movement and the International Olympic Committee (I.O.C.) has accepted the Agenda 21, by which it was self-engaged.³

According to the “Declaration about Athletics and sustainable development”, which was issued during the third International Conference of I.O.C. about Athletics and Environment in 1999, Agenda 21 is the tool which determines the actions of an effective contribution of the Olympic Movement in sustainable development.

¹ Id, Part 5, Articles 3, pp. 129-131.

² Legislation and Nature: Forum concerning the environmental regulations of the European Constitution www.nomosphysis.org.gr.

³ P. Skouris El. Trova (2003) “From the first Olympic Games in Athens to the first Olympic Games in Europe” Ant. Sakkoulas, Athens, p. 54.

Everyone who participates in sports and athletic companies is requested to comply with the Agenda 21 in the best possible way and respect the culture, traditions and beliefs.¹

It is clearly understood that the importance of the external environment is great not only about nature and humans, but also about the athlete himself. It is a necessity to realize by all means the importance of the three-aspect “city-environment-athletics”.²

b. Internal - contest environment

Of course the athletic environment is not composed only of the installations and the technical gear or the physical beauty. It is animated by the athletic being, the place and the way of holding the athletic events. At this point it is impossible to avoid the temptation of interrelation of the Ancient Olympic Games (form-spirit) with the modern Games.

During the ancient years the celebration of the “Olympia” had a deeply religious character³, connected with worship of gods. This is obvious by the holy place, the holy objectives, the holy plants, the statues, the idols and the munskulls in different sizes, the holy time and the sacrifices. The most typical example of all is the fact that the athletes put out their clothes, and through an inner process could clean themselves by many means (such as self - whipping, baptism, bathing, etc.), which were thought to lead to Expiation and Forgiveness, to «αμπνοά» (perfection), celebration and to true truce. Before these actions preceded fasting, training, exercise, monastic and seminary virginity.⁴

¹ Ibid, p. 54.

² Ibid, p. 55.

³ D. Panagiotopoulos (1991) “Law of the Olympic Games” Ant. Sakkoulas, Athens, pp. 65-68.

⁴ G. D. Farantos “Introduction in Olympic Education” Zacharopoulos, Athens (2004).

Nowadays, the character of the Games has changed and they are not connected with the religion or the political beliefs of the organizers or the athletes. The basic principles of Olympism as they were defined by the first International Athletic Conference, in Sorbon and then shaped by the I.O.C. govern the athletic structure from its most complex to its simplest form¹. The equality between genders and among races of different religions and system of government and the respect of the particular characteristics of each athlete assist the international profile of sports, which according to Coubertin can become a good example to face the citizens of the world.²

All the procedures - starting from participation till the elevation of the winners - are provided in the regulations of the Olympic Charter and of the International Federations of the Sports. These boundaries can ensure the quality and the prestige of the Games, as common human errors and the subjective element are limited. Even in sports where subjectivity is an important factor in order to come up with a result (e.g. gymnastics), Federations tend to impose terms and layouts more objective than ever. In the past there were many cases, in which athletes were feeling unfairly treated due to this reason, with many similar examples during the Olympic Games in Athens. As a result we had athletes' and missions' protests and submissions of many objections.

The sporting attribute is also a part of the contesting environment. Spectators, elements and athletes should enter the Game with a mood trying to accept both defeat and victory in the same way if possible. The respect to each other, the mutual understanding and friendship

¹ Articles 41, 42, 43, 44 & 45 Olympic Charter as it was enforced from September 2004.

² K. Georgiadis (2001) "The revival of Modern Olympic Games" *Olympic Games-References* Ministry of Education and Religion, - Organizing Committee of Athens 2004, Athens, p. 107 who encourage the development of democratic ideals.

are principles having international prestige and throughout sports aim to the education of the young people so as to achieve a better and peaceful world.¹

By athletes and those who contribute to their success an expression of kind and humble behavior is demanded, which can not permit unequal confrontation.²

The requirements in order to be a sportsman are: a) love for the contest, training and physical exercise, b) effort to promote exercise and sports, c) the unexceptionable behavior having to do with morals and conduct. Despite the fact that sportsmen (professional athletes, judges-referees, amateur athletes and simple fans of sports) enter the contesting places in a good mood, there are psychological factors (mainly psychology of the crowd and theory of canceling) which provoke anti-athletic behavior contrasting with the athletic spirit. According to the violation which refers to the sporting spirit and the relating principles, as they are defined in the corresponding legislations, there can be an imposition concerning the lack of the sporting attribute, which can be of defining or non-defining period of time, for whoever natural or legal person. This kind of imposition can be expressed as prohibition in watching sport events, or participating by no legal authority - as an athlete, a trainer or a member of a sport union, a professional society, or even as a referee, a judge, an observer, or a doctor. This penalty is inflicted to the offenders by the Committee of the Sporting Spirit, which is the exclusive department in charge.³

¹ Ideas of Kilanin which are referred in D. Panagiotopoulos (2001) *Athletic Law-Systematic Fundamentality and Application* Ant. Sakkoulas, Athens p. 219.

² D. Pangiotopoulos (2001) *Athletic Law-Systematic Fundamentality and Application* Ant. Sakkoulas, Athens p. 220.

³ Article 130, 2725/1999 D. Panagiotopoulos (2005) *Athletic Code*, Ant. Sakkoulas, Athens, p. 311.

c. Environment of the athlete.***i. Internal environment - inside world***

It is generally accepted that athletics is one of the most important factors of educating and moulding the human personality. His behavior and the atmosphere that the trainer creates permit the prevalence of the team spirit having a great pedagogical role. Every youth who occupies with sports carries with him his distinctive personality and his experience. The perpetual exchange among athletes, especially in team sports, has as a result the restructuring and the reconstruction of their characters.

The trainer is the one who is required to keep the balance and promote the positive elements of each personality in order to protect the team spirit. So as to achieve the best possible relationships between trainer and trainee, we should take into account the facts below: a) private conversation about personal and social problems that concern the athlete in order to realize his thoughts, desires and feelings, b) some athletes - especially those who participate in individual sports - need more assistance than usual which should be offered, c) the trainer should be aware of the reactions and the special needs of his trainees in order to behave each time according to the circumstances and d) the concept of the athletes about the ability of their trainers which, at a great extent, is based on their preferences and their expectations.¹

Sports can condense and present through athletic events values, which have been composing from the past, pedagogical sources for the citizens such as: decency, honesty, purity and fair judgement, related sources to those of the classic greek athletics, which represent beauty, noble ideals, clearness and decency at the horizon of social friendship.²

¹ G. Zervas "Psychology of Physical Culture and Athletics" Athens (1996).

² D. Panagiotopoulos (2001) *Athletic Relationships- Olympic and International Contests* Ant. Sakkoulas, Athens.

ii. External environment - behavior

Everything that an athlete has experienced and received during the trainings, not only at the level of muscular strength and stamina but also at the level of character, is revealed at the tough moments of the game. The desire of conducting a game in the terms of “fair play” becomes more obvious when the athlete is in a difficult position. The athletic dignity is a kind of behavior expressing the inner world which co-exists with the ideals of the game and athletics.

However, contesting morals do not begin and end by a movement of amiability e.g. throwing the ball on purpose out of court during a football match. It means much more. It means the willingness of the athlete who enters the court prepared to face his opponents, by using his own strength, and ready to be tested without the assistance of various substances or the “support” of referees and judges.

Nowadays, there is a huge amount of ways and substances of doping which can not be scanned very easily. We should start wondering why there is such exaltation. Is it only the profit that matters? Is it only the social approval of the athlete? Is it the general crisis of values that we hear, read and realize every day in which we do take part even by our silent acceptance? Finally, which is the exact reason that leads the athletes to this path? How do athletes face the punishment for receiving prohibited substances?

In agreement to theory, is accepted the fact that, to athletes who violate the law and the anti-doping code, are imposed the following penalties: a) imprisonment penalty (common criminal law), b) disqualification of the Games (disciplinary penalty) and c) lack of sporting attribute (penalty for sporting spirit). A recent investigation showed that the penalty of great contest disqualification from important games due to receiving doping substances and not the penalty of imprisonment is considered to be essential by the athletes in order to cope with the problem because it refers to a person with

anti-athletic behavior¹. By this penalty we are trying to prevent this phenomenon and efface the anti-athletic behavior.²

2. Human Rights and Sports

a. Discrimination of Human Rights

According to the prevailing social, political, economical and cultural conditions of every season are created the corresponding needs of the citizens. The usual tendency is starting from the simplest - coverage of basic needs - to the most complex ones - establishment of better financial terms etc.

Each time these needs are legislated and declared as human rights.³

Nowadays, we are talking about three generations of human rights which are classified as below: a) the first one is identified with the declaration of human rights, the legislations concerning the human existence and life, b) the second has to do with the social and economical character of human rights as an obligation of the states towards human, person and personality, c) the third generation of human rights is related with environment, peace, civilization and the right in the cultural difference inherited by humanity and also the right in fair judgement.⁴

¹ Sourì W. Kh. (1998) "The behavior of the punished athletes in top competition team sport". Doctor's thesis, University of Athens, p. 67.

² s. D. Panagiotopoulos (2005), "Doping and food supplements parallel development", *15th Pan-Hellenic Seminar of female Endocrinology*, U.H.E.G: Athens, pp. 68-78.

³ Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, 2000/C 346/01.

⁴ D. Panagiotopoulos (2001), *Sporting relationships*, Ant. Sakkoulas, Athens, p. 169.

Sports are the model through which there can be a wide implementation and spread of all the three generations of human rights. For example, through sports was fought the phenomenon of racial discrimination and the distinction of the races (1st generation of human rights), also was fought the exploitation at work (2nd generation of human rights) and finally through the Olympic Ideals we are trying to support the sustainable development of the Environment and Peace (3rd generation of human rights).

At this point of view we should define the meaning of the Right in Athletics. In sports as a Right can be considered: the Right against violations, the application of a fair environment, the principle of proportionality in expressing law limitations and the principle of subsidy.¹

b. Third generation of human Rights

According to the Constitution of Fundamental Rights of the European Union²: Protection of the Environment: the high level of the Environment and the improvement of its quality have to be embodied with the policy of the Union and secured according to the principle of the sustainable development.

Solidarity, where the Environment is accessed, creates the appropriate requirements for the development of a healthy environment of any activity, including sports.

Through these legislations is constructed the moral, technical and natural environment of the athletic activities. The Right in a human environment is a basic element for the minimization of racial discriminations which sports promote. For example, disqualification from athletic activities due to origin leads to the confusion of the environment.

¹ Ibid, p. 170.

² Title IV, Solidarity, Article 37.

In the third generation of human Rights is incorporated the phenomenon of doping that concerns the human being both as body and spirit¹. The wild competition, the profit and the social recognition, also the plutocratic character of the universal community, are some of the most important reasons that lead the athletes to the use of prohibited substances and their physical disaster.²

The motto of Olympic Games: Citius, Altius, Fortius, means the human progress is based on the improvement of psychological and natural abilities combined with natural talent. According to Coubertin, the organizers of the games tend to corrupt the athletes in order to offer satisfaction to the spectators and as a human imperfection tends to transform the Olympian athlete into a circus gladiator. The legal context of repressive measures about doping is the Olympic Constitution and the Anti-Doping Code.³

We all know that the substances which are used today as a way to improve records are scanned with difficulty and WADA takes part in a continuous speed race, in order to catch up and trace the developing forms of doping. The main tactic which is followed is the inspection during the year, of athletes of a high level without warning. Of course it has been proven to be a non-repressive measure.

¹ D. Panagiotopoulos, (2005), "Doping and food supplements parallel development", *15^o Pan-Hellenic Seminar of female Endocrinology*, U.H.E.G: Athens, pp. 68-78.

² More about Dopping- Durantez (2003/4): "Doping: Cheating fair play", *Sport Ethics, Culture, Fair Play Vol.3*, Panathlon International, pp. 151-172.

³ WADA, (2003), World Anti-doping code, D. Panagiotopoulos (2001) *Athletic Law* p. 430 J. Nafziger, Dopping, Violence and Commercialization, *International Sports Law*, 2004 and from the medical aspect G. Scuderi, P. McCann, P. Bruno, P. Baltopoulos (2002-2003), *Athletic Medicine*, Chapter 2, Paschalidis, Athens, pp. 1030-1036.

In order to cope with the hard training and lead themselves to success, athletes are willing to submit themselves in whatever test without taking into account the consequences which –in many cases– lead to the disorganization and conversion of their own body¹. The question that occurs is if the Right of self-disposal prevails over the disruption of the body, if the protection of sex and the Right of dignity come in a second place. And the major question that is created is if and at what degree does the athlete have the Right to occur – in the name of human Rights - this disaster and change.

Nevertheless, all the above seem to be very innocent if we consider the nightmare of genetic doping. The scientific and technological progress has given us the opportunity to choose athletes due to their genes or improve them by a genetic way. The genetic treatment of athletes can lead to the “construction” of super-athletes and supersede the human nature². However, the Theoretical Sciences have developed the field of Philosophy which is called Bio-ethics.³

¹ Some of these consequences in females are: hairy body, change of tint, enlargement of clitoris, disorder in period and sterility, a suitable example is the german athlete Heidi Krieger. In men the use of prohibited substances can occur sperm decrease, problems in their testes, hypertrophy of the prostate gland, sexual disability and sterility. These symptoms occur the syndrom of “chemical castration” G. Scuderi, P. McCANN, p. Bruno, P. Baltopolos pp. 1030-1036.

² This problem is even greater if we take into account that: a) it is almost impossible to trace the access into the genes of the athlete, at least by using today’s techniques and b) does not exist any legal coverage (Chapter 1, Dignity, Article 3, Right in Human Accuracy) and as a result there is no practical way to restrict the athletes’ rights towards this form of dopping.

³ Occupies with centers of life which are under intense human influences, are in danger or are directed based on scientific investigation which has reached them with unpredictable consequences for the presentation of human and life on planet earth. G.D. Farantos, (1996), Introduction Theory-Philosophy of Sports, Telethron, Athens, p. 107.

As a result, many justifiable questions arise, which have to do with the independent existence of life, the creation of particular human kinds and the official position of Athletics towards this challenge.

3. Law and Athletic Environment

The athletic environment is a field that attracts a great amount of people, appearing particular elements; this is why the existence of corresponding rules is essential. These rules define the form, the relationships and the results of the games. The negative phenomena that appear in sports are those which impose the enactment of such rules, especially concerning violence and doping.

The basic Legal Context in Sports is established by the Olympic Charter, but it is not the only one. The National and International Federation of each sport lays down rules that concern every single phase of athletic activities, defining obligations and rights for those who participate. Moreover, are defined penalties for those who break the rules and according to Sports Law are faced with strict punishments¹. Another important aspect is the lack of providence for those circumstances where there is violation of the article 3, of the 1st Capital of the Declaration of Human Rights and reffer to eugenic practices. That's an enormous challenge for the next generations.

Conclusion

After the above references it is understandable that human-sports-environment exist as a united trinity, which we should support and defend.

¹ D. Panagiotopoulos (2001) Sports Law, Ant. Sakkoulas, Athens, p. 440.

We are the generation which is called in order to combine in an harmonic way science, technology and human concept. Human should protect human, the environment and the sports and should keep alive the sporting spirit. That means defending of: a) the human substance, b) his participation in society and c) the establishment of the independence of creation, without destroying life.

The appropriate legal context is the global key in sports and athletes, preventing from unlawful ways to victory.

The natural and technical environment demands our effective management, because we do not own it, we have inherited it from our ancestors and they have inherited it from nature.

Olympic Culture and Environmental Education are both ways of awakening the consciousness of the future generations.

“The future of our civilization rests at this moment neither on political nor on economic bases. It depends solely on the direction which will be given to education”.¹

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¹ Pierre de Coubertin, *The International Olympic Academy*, Ancient Olympia, p. 20.

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REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN SPORT IN SERBIA THROUGH ATHLETES, COACHES AND LEADERS

Mrs Tatjana PETROVIC-ROPRET (SCG)

1. International introduction

“Woman in our society is not weaker, she is just different”

The movement for equality of men and women throughout the world presents one of the events that have defined our times. This movement has found its ally in the United Nations. The UN Charter explicitly demands full equality between men and women. In 1979 the UN General Assembly has adopted the Convention of Eliminating for All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, which presents a turning point regarding the participation of women in the political and economic life of all States and international institutions.

The 4th International UN Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995) reached the conclusion that there is no country in the world in which man and women fully enjoy equal rights. As an answer to this situation, the participants adopted the Beijing Declaration and Action Platform. Their conclusion was that the last year of the 20th century and the beginning of 21st, until 2015 at the latest, should be marked by creating as many opportunities that shall provide equal rights and improve the position of women. The aimed percentage set for participation of women was 30-35%.

Definition of Discrimination in sport

Discrimination results in disproportion between male sporting disciplines and female sporting disciplines in terms of financial aid, support, coach education etc.

It means you have experienced coaches, good sports facilities, and strong competitions, large number of spectators, national schools of sport, interest in youth sport and support of sport schemes from the government, for each male sporting discipline. Conversely these opportunities are limited in female disciplines. Also discrimination exists when people assume that female results are weaker than male results and as a consequence female sports are less attractive.

World movement against Discrimination in Sport

In accordance with the UN Convention for eliminating all forms of discrimination against women, the IOC encourages larger participation of women in all fields of sport, as well as in the Olympic Games. For that reason, the IOC established a Women and Sport Working Group in 1995 as an advisory body of the IOC Executive Board on all issues related to the participation of women in sport.

Many international and European, inter and non-governmental, sports and non-sports organizations have been dealing with the problem of women in sport. Some of the most important are:

UNESCO, European Sport conference (ESC), European Women and Sport Group (EWS), International Working Group on Women and Sport (IWG), International Association of Physical Education and Sport for Girls and women (IAPESGW), International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education (ICSSPE), Women Sport International (WSI), International Olympic Comity (IOC), etc.

All these organizations have one strategic aim. That is the development of sports culture, which will enable and value full participation of women in all aspects of sport. The first International

Conference on women and sports held in Brighton in 1994 defined principles for accomplishing this aim within the Brighton Declaration adopted by more than 200 organizations and institutions worldwide. Among them the IOC enabled women to participate and represent 10% of all their working bodies, commissions, assemblies, directing and executive committee, while by 2005 this participation must be raised to 20%.

The second International Conference on women and sports was held in Windhoek, Namibia, which transformed these principles into Call for Action in 10 points. Call for action addressed all national and international sports organizations, governments, national public authorities, school, educational and scientific institutions, women's organizations responsible for sport or with direct or indirect influence to sport, or those that are in any way engaged in employing, educating, training, leadership or care for girls and women in sport.

Reasons for the inadequate position of women in sport: historical, sociological, cultural, religious, economic, and biological.

Reasons for equal presentation women in sport can be:

Every society wants to have healthy, more productive and a more active nation. Women have an important part to play in this role. We have increased the number of women participating in sport, especially in the Olympics Games. Women's participation in the OG has grown steadily since the 1900's and has seen a sharp increase in the last two decades. In 1960 in OG at Rome there were 611 women participants making up 11.5% of total number of participants. By the 1980 games women's participation had leaped to represent close to 22% and at the Sydney games 2000, the number of female athletes reached 4.069 of a total of 10.651 participants, making up over 38% of participation.

In Athens in 2004, there were 41% of women top athletes, women competed in 27 of 28 sports on the program and in 135 events, a new

record for women's participation at the Olympics game. In our society we have the largest number of female participants in sport so it is our responsibility to provide equal conditions for women to do sport in any form (recreation, top-level, experts, and leaderships).

2. Sport in Serbia

Women's sports in Serbia show a significantly smaller percentage of women participants in comparison with men. Out of the total of 11053 employed in sports organizations in the territory of Serbia, at the end of the 20th century, only 931 are women, out of which 90% are employed in administration mostly accountants (accounting, translators, secretaries,...). Summarizing the results of many international research studies and conventions (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7), the National conference (2000) on "Woman and sport, more courageously into the 21st century" came to the following conclusions:

1. In view of recognizing the problem of a women in sports and in terms of the measures used for improving it, Serbia is behind most other European countries;
2. The position of women in sports is the reflection of the total position of a woman in society;
3. Engagement of a woman in sports is the result of the following:
 - a. according to tradition in Serbia, women have had fewer opportunities to practice sports than men
 - b. inadequate care for controlled and guided physical activity of children, especially girls of preschool and early school age
 - c. physical education, in many schools, is not adapted to the needs of girls
 - d. total disinterest in doing sports and minimum financial investment in women's sports
 - e. inadequate publicity of women's sports in the media
 - f. marginalizing of the results of women in comparison with the

- results of men of the same rank
- g. women achieving worse results in team sports than men
- h. minimal participation of women as expert's and leading positions in sports organizations, associations, establishments and sports institutions
- i. lack of free time and insufficient interest of an average woman to do physical activity
- 4. Non existence of the global information system for circulation of information about problems in sports and inaccessibility of relevant information and research in the international frame.

On the bases of the results of this conference and acceptance of Brighton declaration and Windhock's invitation, there were few significant decisions and actions on the state level. The National Olympic Committee (NOC) of Serbia started the first researches. The national commission dealing with the problem of women in sports was formed at the Faculties of Sports and Physical Education. The problem of sports for women is understood teaching programs for PE teaching are expanded and so forth. The status of women's sports which marked the beginning of the new millennium, the significant number of the International conventions, the activities of the NOC on affirmation of International Committee Decisions on the territory of Serbia, were an encouragement for the start of research activities which would provide closer insight into the state of women's sport in our country. For setting the parameters for participation of women in sports in Serbia, there was a research which covered 94% of all sports associations, and sport institutions in Serbia. The research aim was to provide better description of sports' population with special accent on the following:

1. the degree of feminization of some sports (participation of women in relation to the total number of sports activities -programs);
2. the type of participation (activities) of women in sports

organizations (degree of attractiveness of a sport for women);

3. results achieved by women

3. Method of research and Method of data analysis

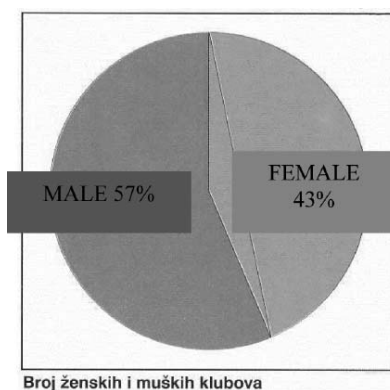
This research is carried out by a questionnaire with questions in different fields of the subject of this research. Method of data analysis referred to the indicators of the proportion and main indexes showing the results and their analysis by the techniques of visualization (graph).

4. Research results

4.1. Participation of women in sports clubs

The base of sports organization are clubs. The participation of women in sports can consequently be measured and presented of the level on which the clubs are opened for the female population which is interested in sport activities. Out of the total number of registered clubs, 43% declared that they deal with the female population (Graph. 1).

4.2. The ranks of top athletes



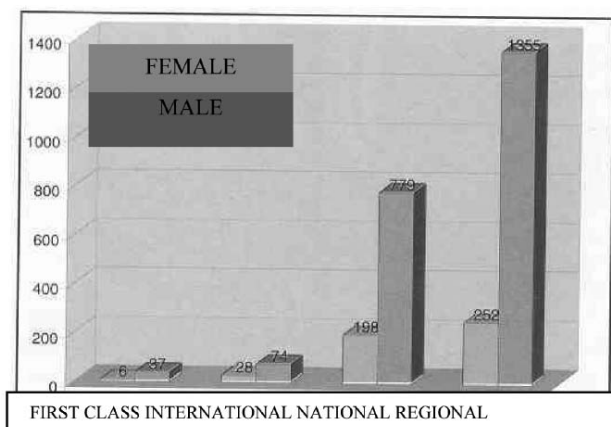
Graph.1. Total number of male and female clubs

On the basis of this graph, it can be concluded that in Serbia there are conditions for equal engagement of both sexes. Those clubs engage 66,2% of the total number of sports women. Comparing the average number of woman membership in clubs, we can conclude that the attractive sport for woman are: bodybuilding, fitness, aerobics, ju jitsu, fencing, swimming, synchronized swimming, football and handball. Only in 1,26% of the clubs, as leaders or as presidents position, are there women. In other words, being a president of a sports club in Serbia is hardly accessible to women.

There is a big disproportion between clubs registered for women's sports activities (43%) and the opportunities for women to be presidents.

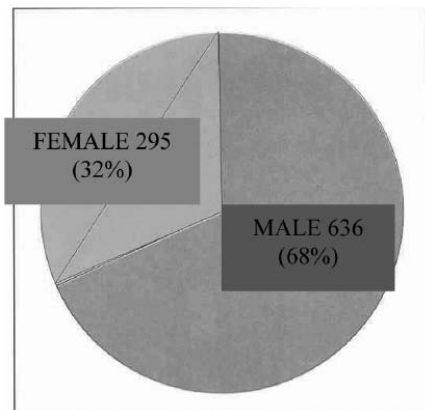
(positive example: Karate club Nippon: from total number of 150 members, more than 50% are girls; from 5 coaches, four are women; and president and generally secretary are women. Next example: Rhythmic gymnastic club Ritam).

As result of this research, we have established that sports women have more difficulties to reach the highest status than men (Graph. 4).



Graph. 4. The rank of top athletes by status

In all international competition, Serbian women competitors achieved a 32% success rate. (Graph. 5).

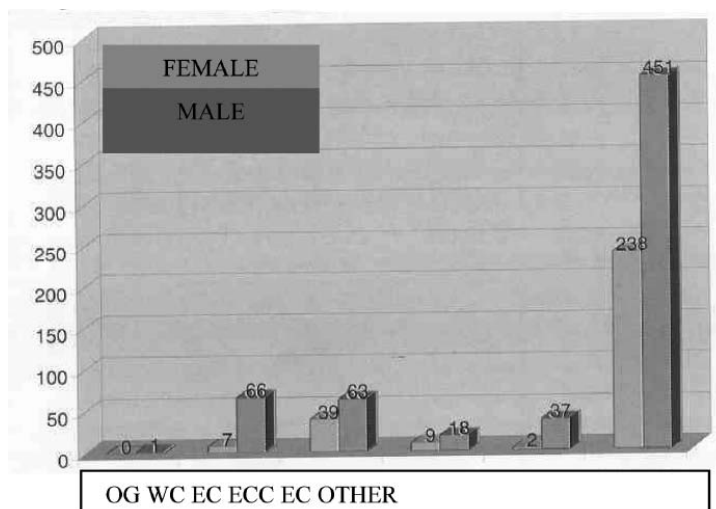


Graph. 5. International success (medals, 1991-2001)

Women achieved high International standards in the European competitions, while such success was not achieved in the Olympics and in World Championships, except in some disciplines in shooting (Graph. 6). Women achieved top results in shooting, athletics, kayaking, karate and table tennis. Special success women achieved in karate all level of international competition.

Comments:

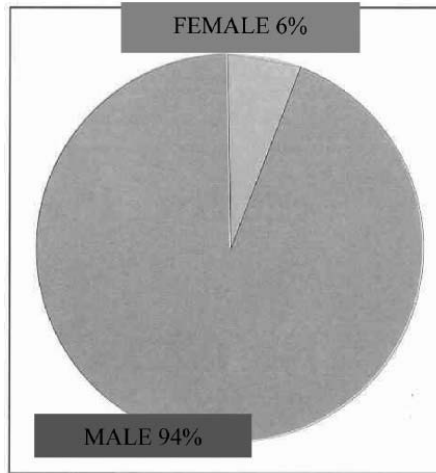
- small investment but big results (great name of Serbian women competitor)
- disproportional of the investment system in sport between team and individual sport
- lack of the national program of sports development in Serbia



Graph. 6. Numbers of medals in international competitions (OG- Olympic Games, WC-World cup, EC-European cup, ECC- European club championships, ECL – European champions league)

4.3. Women coaches

Profession coaching is the base of the system inside of which the process of building up a sports people is being done. Participation of women in the coaching profession can show the position and contribution of a woman in sports development. From the analysis of the results of this research it can be concluded that the percentage of women coaches in Serbia is very low, i.e. only about 6 % (Graph. 9).



Graph. 9. Participation of women in the profession of a coach

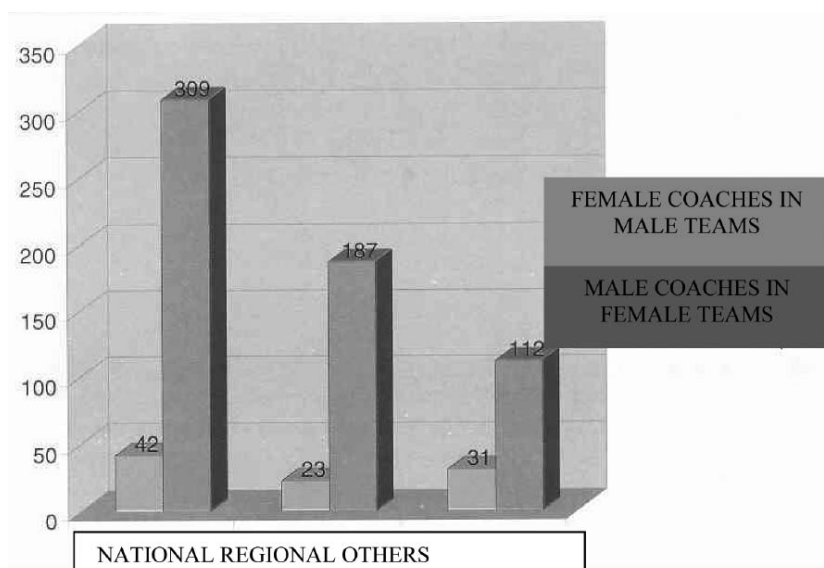
The total number of women as licensed coaches is only 155 out of 2651 coaches. The reason for smaller number of women coaches can be explained by their low participation in the mass sports in the country, such as: football, handball, karate. According to the results of this, women have less chance to become coaches of the men's teams, whereas this chance is not limited in cases of men coaching women's teams.

Comparisons below:

<i>Lack of</i>	<i>Lack of</i>	<i>Positive</i>
FEMALE COACHES IN MALE TEAMS	MALE COACHES IN FEMALE TEAMS	FEMALE COACHES IN FEMALE TEAMS
Outstanding authority because of male ego	History of abuse and harassment	Analysis of German experience (female camps)

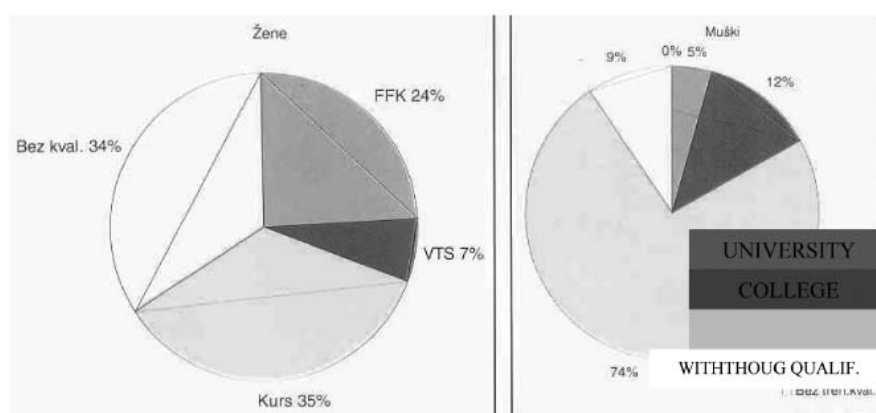
Prejudice	Lack of understanding female needs	Better communication between coach and participant
Emotional in a negative	Inadequate care for women's health	More care taken regarding women's health
An ability to make decisions		Recognition of the importance of unity & trust (e.g. team talk)

This is one of the important indicators of the existence of obstacles in promoting a woman as a coach of the top sportsmen, men's teams, and it even more so in the case of women's teams (Graph 10).



Graph.10. Women coaches in male teams, and male coaches in female teams (by level of competition)

This situation can be explained by the absence of women coaches in the sports in which it is evident that there is a special interest of the female population, such as women's football, gymnastics, handball, table tennis, athletics, body building, tekvando. One of the reasons for the disproportional participation of women in coaching is the process of education for this job education. By the analysis of the educational qualifications of the coaches it is evident that the majority of the coaches do finish coaching courses, although there is an absence of a systematic for this job. For women coaches it is characteristic that even 24 % have finished studies in Faculties of Physical Education. It can be said that women in sports of Serbia brings higher educational degrees based on a systematic preparation for the coaching job, than men. (Graph. 11).



Graph. 11. Educational degree of the coaches (FEMALE-left, MALE-right)

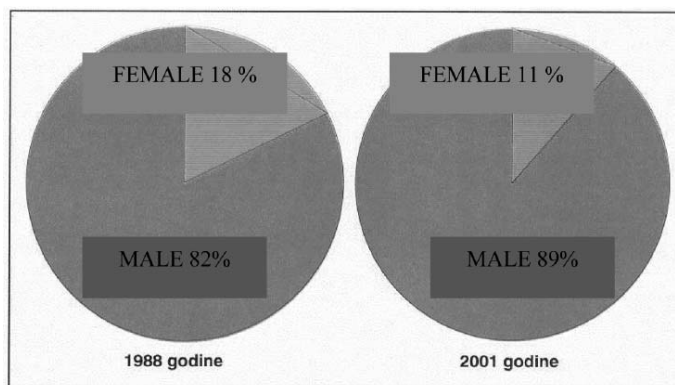
4.4. Women referees

The participation of women among all sports referees in Serbia and Montenegro is absolutely marginal, i.e. it is about 5%. By analyzing the results of this research it is noticed that the small number of women

referees have better qualifications in view of the competition level for which they are licensed. Women have a good reputation in handball, table tennis and skiing.

4.5. Membership of women in National Federations

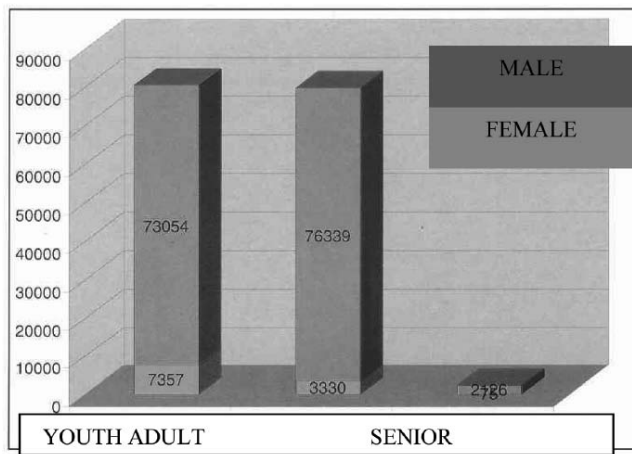
The past years are most often described as negative for the social-economic development of the country. It is evident that those relations caused the participation of women in the active membership in the National Federations in Serbia to be decreased from 18% in 1988 to 11% in 2001 these are shown in this research (Graph. 2).



Graph. 2. Participation of women in the active membership in the National Federations

In the past period there was a decrease of membership in the National Federations, both in the female and male population. One of the reasons for the decrease of the number of women can be described by the stagnation or closing of traditional women's sports, such as gymnastics, rhythmic gymnastics and bowling. This decrease is partially mitigated by new sports such as fitness, body building and martial arts.

When we look at the participation in the National Federations from the point of view of winning medals, we can see that the presence of women is only 4,3% compare with that of the men. In achieving the top results in younger categories, women achieve 10,07% in comparison with men. Also, in the case of senior competitors (over age 35 or 40) women's results come to only 3,53% compared with the men's results. Only in 5 National Federations are there registered women seniors. The decrease in the number of competitors from the youngest to senior category among women is 57,74%. This fact can be understood in two ways such as: the existences of barriers in the progress of women, which are a result of historical and cultural factors (Graph. 3).

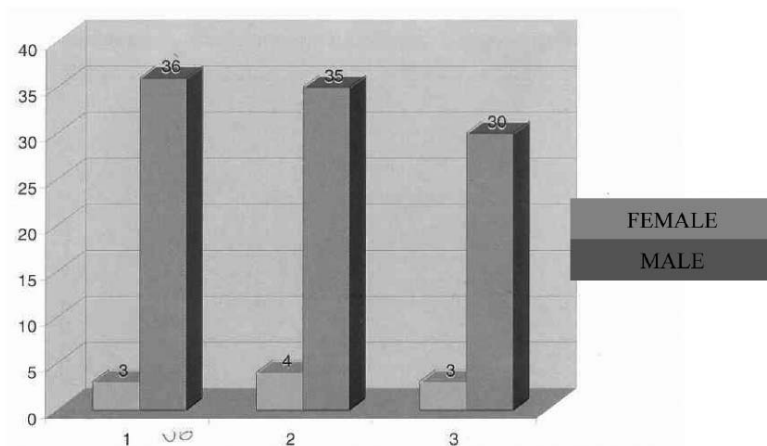


Graph. 3. Registered athletes by age and sexes

For all sports systems, no matter if it applies to women or men, these can be alarming data, because the small number of competitors moving from the younger to adult categories.

4.6. Women in leading positions in the National Federations

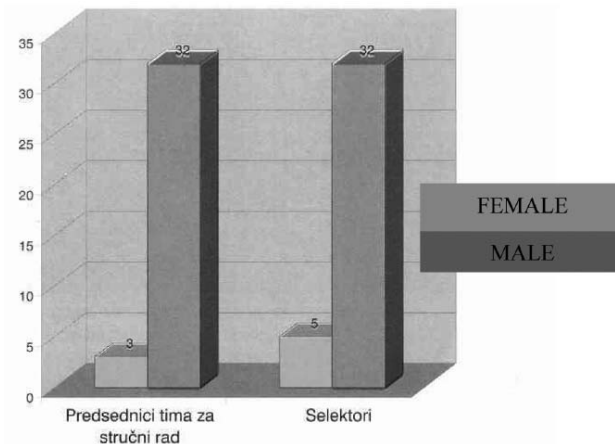
Promoting of the policy of equal participation of the sexes in sports depends quite a lot on the participation of women in leading positions in the National Federations. The result of this research shows that this participation is symbolic. Out of the total number of leading positions (there are about 126 leading positions in the National Federations) only 10 or 7.74 % are held by women, and that is in gymnastics, triathlon, synchronized swimming, orienteering sports, diving, table tennis and tennis (Graph. 7).



Graph. 7. Participation of women in the leading positions in the National Federations (1-president of executive board; 2-general secretary; 3-president of institution)

The second indicator of women's positions in the National Federations can be shown by their participation on the commissions. Out of a total of 197 with app. 1000 members there are 102 women or app. 10%. On the commissions for experts, trainers and other professionals there are app. 8,6% women and mainly in automobile sports, bodybuilding and orienteering. In the position of the National

Advisors, there are app. 13,51% women and mainly in tennis, gymnastic and orienteering sports (Graph. 8).



Graph. 8. President of the teams for expert work (left), National Advisors (right)

On the basis of these data we can conclude that the presence of women is symbolic, and consequently, their influence in realizing the policy of proportional participation in sports is insignificant.

Comments:

- in accordance with international declarations the position of women in National Federations and sport institutions in Serbia were change in last 5 years.
- One of the most important reasons for better position for women is due to the recommendation of NOK to the federations about of more representation of women in sport in Serbia

4.7. Women employed in the national federations

Successful governing of the total sports system requires qualified staff, employed full time in the head offices of the National Federations. According to the results of this research, there is the lower participation of women in positions that require higher levels of education and vice versa, women are over represented in positions that require lower education and jobs without much influence on the development process of sports. If we compare, by years, the population of those employed in the National Federations, we can see that the employed men are younger than women. Among employed women 40% are in the category older than 55. The profession with the High Education Degrees in sports is doctors of sports medicine. Among them the majority are women between 30 and 68 years of age.

5. Conclusion

This empirical research covering the participation of women in sports in Serbia is presented with the aim to establish similarities and differences in the position of the female population according to the model found in International Organizations. The research has proved that women in sports in Serbia have disproportionately low participation in the field of membership in the National Federations as well as in the leading positions and expert bodies of those sports institutions.

It is established that participation of women in the total sports population in Serbia in the last decade was reduced by approximately one tenth. Negative social circumstances during the past decade affected especially the position and chances of the women to provide their interests and requirements in sports, which caused a decrease of women in the majority of sports.

in a field of discrimination:

The basic conclusion of this research has shown a more precise understanding of the insufficient participation, meaning discrimination against women in sports in total. Discrimination is defined quantitatively, as the absence or small percentage of women in the total sports population, however we also require a deeper, qualitative understanding of this phenomenon.

The second important basic conclusion of this study refers to participation of women in leading sports structures. It is shown that sports as institutions in Serbia are masculinised i.e. male oriented.

in a field of leaders structure:

Where there is no interested and organized female membership, there are no women in the leading structures. Without increasing women sports population it is difficult to predict the approach of women to the leading structures of sports, and without their presence sports remain indifferent to the situation of women. Without successful top sports women we cannot speak about an effective process of feminization of sports.

in a field of specialization:

Specialization in women's sports is one of the best ways for institutions to remove sex inequality in sports. In the analysis of sports in Serbia it is concluded that sports are not a reliable field of work for talented sports women. Going to the older categories of sports of women we noticed a decrease in the number of women. Men stay longer in sports, have a higher status, and remain at the top level.

The result of this research shows a pessimistic model of women positions in sports in Serbia. Strategic directions to improve the position of women are identified by the International Organizations, OUN and others. They are acceptable and necessary in projecting the

development of sports in Serbia. The proportion of participation of women in sports is an assumption for improving their position as sports women, experts and leaders in sport. Establishing the strategy of improving the position of women in sports in Serbia requires the establishing of predictors (strategic factors), of grouping the women into categories that demand more or less successful sports women, experts and leaders.

Perspective:

Following this proposed method, we are in the middle of new research where International resolutions and solutions must be included in the Law covering sports and National program for sports development in Serbia.

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OLYMPIC GAMES: FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF AN OLYMPIC GOLD MEDALIST. PAST AND PRESENT

Ms Maria OLARU (ROM)

The origins of the Olympic Games are lost in time. The origins and its message have to be searched back in time, where human thirst of knowledge can go.

After some research, these kinds of games were organized 3000 years ago. The archeological diggings from *Athens (Greece)* in the XIX century revealed among the remains of important constructions, numerous statues, different cult objects, marble plates with the names of the winners in this Olympic Games. This way we have now the written proof of the oldest Olympic champion from year 776 BC. From this year forward we can speak about a real historical knowledge of these phenomena.

Along centuries, kings and generals, poets and philosophers, learned about the importance of these manifestations, some as spectators, others descending in the arena, participating and some time even winning (*Pitagora*). In the Olympia temple could be found the statue of Zeus. Under his sponsorship Olympic Games took place. The statue was 12m high. The artist is the famous sculptor, named Phideas and the statue was made of marble, gold and ivory.

The Olympic Games were cancelled in year 394 AD by an edict of emperor Theodosius I, which forbid every pagan celebration.

However, the stateliness and spirit remains thanks to the poets of the time and all the inscriptions and decorations from different objects, coins, jewelers etc.

During the time lots of cultural people were interested in resurrecting the games. British Dr. William P. Brookes who finished his medical studies in Paris at the beginning of the XIX century, was passionate about the mysteries of Hellenic civilization, and thus created an Olympic Association in the small town of Much Wenlock, in England. The main objective of this association was to contribute to developing physical, moral and intellectual qualities of the citizens from the country, encouraging outdoor physical exercises. Brookes opened the Much Wenlock Olympic Games, sport contests with huge local success.

The first big action in the resurrection of the ancient Greek Olympic Games, and the reorganization of this, on modern principles, took place thanks to the financial effort of Evangelie Zappas, who was a Greek ethnic, and became a Romanian citizen in 1833. He contributed as well to the foundation of Romanian Academy and the writing of a Romanian grammar book.

A spiritual and intellectual person as well as a rich businessman, Zappas decide to do something to resurrect the Olympic spirit. He asked to Othon I, King of Greece, permission to organize the Olympic Games in Athens in 1859. Financially, everything was supported by Zappas. This manifestation, organized mostly as an exhibition show, with different tests, more fun than real sport activities. His generous idea was that this Olympic Contests to be repeated every 4 years. Unfortunately his project was a failure. Through his last will, Zappas left most of his huge fortune to an Olympic Games Committee. The duty of this committee was to continue the organization of these games. A kind of sport competition never left the borders of Greece, or even the neighborhood of Athens. This way, with Evangelie

Zappas's money the Greeks organized Olympic Games containing artistic contests, art exhibition shows, among sport contest between the years 1859-1870-1875 1888 and 1889.

The resurrection and internationalization of the Olympic Games in the context of modern time, and the philosophical restructuring, are the work of Baron Pierre de Coubertin. He is not only the continuer of Olympic Games but its founder. In the year 1896 he succeeded to start and internationalize the Modern Olympic Games.

These games take place in different countries and towns, and continent, developing in time, having today the participation over 200 countries.

Coubertin was, first of all, a pedagogic reformist. His remarkable idea was: sport and physical exercise to serve to a moral and education work. Thanks to him, Olympism became a life philosophy which combines the qualities of body, will and mind. These phenomena generate a balanced lifestyle based on joy of effort, the pedagogic value of the good example and respect for the universal ethical principle.

Olympic Phenomena: Dimensions And Implications

The Olympic Movement which was born thanks to Olympism, follows the idea to build a peaceful world, where sport, practiced in the Olympic spirit, with no discrimination, contributes to the education of the new generation. We can conclude, the Olympic movement includes all who share the Olympic conception of love to sport and who work inside organizations recognized by International Olympic Committee.

Coubertin knew that sport builds not only muscles but souls of people. Olympic Games do not make any sense if this movement does not contain people from all around the world, including every race, culture, religion or political belief. His main merit is to promote sport as a universal value and to tie Olympic movement to theory, and

practice. Without this it couldn't develop.

Those cultured people, being preoccupied by the big changes of the time, was convinced, sport, organized on certain principles, can offer people, especially young, physical benefits but moral qualities as well.

Pierre de Coubertin imagined in his wisdom the fundamental Olympic principles which if they would be followed by competitors, would stop the road for unlimited ambitions, envy and power thirst and halt corruption and social decadence.

The request of Baron Coubertin was convoked by Union of France Societies of Athletic Sports, the International Congress from Paris, reunited in 1894 at the Sorbonne. The program of this Congress was addressed to the majority of International Federations and sport organizations. On the 23 July, the Congress, sustained totally by 49 associations coming from 12 countries, decided to reintroduce Olympic Games and to organize the first modern edition in 1896 to Athens and the second in 1900 to Paris.

With this occasion the International Olympic Committee was created. Today, this forum is the supreme authority and coordinates the entire Olympic movement, contributing first of all to abolish every kind of discrimination in sport.

The International Olympic Committee is preoccupied by the moral action of sport and physical culture of children, adolescents and mature people, by the influence of effort in forming characters and generally the human personality. Olympics don't have only the mission to develop physical force. It has to be as well a developer of culture and artistic activities, says Pierre de Coubertain.

Olympism uses sport to develop fundamental social values and universal moral principle as equality for all, balanced development of personality, fair-play, positive attitude in life, non discrimination, respect for the loser, friendship, solidarity, understanding, peace and democracy.

The new reform, introduced on the end of last decade, tied the Olympic Movement to different important social mediums, being oriented to political, economic, moral and ecologist problems. The reform reoriented and positioned the Olympic Movement in a better place to avoid any kind of political or economical abuse.

The most important principles of the Olympism are based on cultural and educational criteria: solidarity and understanding. This is the reason why the International Olympic Academy and National Olympic Academies contribute to the education. The Olympic Movement maintains certain fundamental principles which will be accepted by each participant, to ask everyone a certain universal conduct and a clear road to follow.

These fundamental principles are nothing else but cultural and educational values leading to a harmonious development of the individual and the peace on earth.

These values have a vital importance for the entire of humanity, and are accepted by every country being the base of the Olympic Movement. This carries not only the flag of culture and education but the flag of human spirituality.

Olympism through his specificity is a very unique human creation represented by the necessity to satisfy on superior levels a number of fundamental aspirations of humanity.

Accomplished through permanent self outrunning, sociability, chasing perfection, friendship and mutual understanding, knowledge and respect dignity etc. this is what Olympism means.

For these reasons the Olympic flame is considered sacred. It is an expression of all big things, solemn, precious and always present human aspirations.

The world of values is the world of outstanding human creations. To be able to make a difference, to build that special person as a unique being, have to prove his specificity, making things which give

base and sense to his life.

Made by so very special value system, Olympism can break the youngest and oldest consciousness, influence or change human behavior, and becoming among other social elements as on high value educational element.

First Olympic Games of Millennium – 2004

The first Olympic Games of the Millennium are closed. Now remain the memories of the most beautiful celebration of sport. This celebration brings heroes for history and our hearts. We are proud and joyful living this historical glorious moment, to be contemporary with these events and the heroes who accomplished all this, participants and organizers together.

The 28th edition of Olympic Games was a success. As the President of the Organizing Committee, declared after closing the Games. This Greek edition of the Games demolished almost every peak. The Olympic village, built especially for this games, hosted the largest number of participants, over 10500 people from 202 countries. This contest in Athens was the most grandiose sport event ever organized by humanity.

The top of TV audience was 4 billion spectators, 20% larger then games from Sydney. In the 16 competition days 3600000 tickets were sold. Among these impressive numbers, we can't forget the outstanding organization and the almost perfect infrastructure.

The Olympic Games are closed, with his emotions and joy. What's left? A long line of beautiful tales and legend heroes. The blessed earth of Greece is the best place for legends to be born. One of them, very dear to us, Romanians, is Catalina Ponor. This girl like lowering directly on the sport beam from fairy tale was immediately loved and adopted by the Greeks, a very special warm nation. After the team contest, Catalina monopolized the last day of the contest. Two

appearances, two gold medals and Romania maintains its tradition to bring a big champion to each game.

In 1976 and 1980 it was Nadia, at Los Angeles, in 1984, was Ekaterina Szabo, in 1988 in Seoul was Daniela Silivas's turn, in Barcelona, in 1992 sparkled Lavinia Milosovici and in Sydney in 2000 Andreea Raducan story was born. Now, with her 3 Olympic titles it is Catalina Ponor. She demonstrates once again, the unchallenged value of Romanian gymnastics, and our country is an important member of the big Olympic family.

As a former Olympic champion, I lived the same emotions, together with the gymnasts, knowing better than everybody else the numerous difficult moments, until you reach the highest step of the podium. Our gymnastic team left for Athens with a complete new face, different from the team from Sydney. Everybody was skeptical and was concerned with keeping the world title won in year 2000.

In the two previous years, Romania had not a gymnastic team. At the European Championship it was represented by one senior gymnast and she won the bronze medal to parallel. In this condition, the World Championship came, and in Anaheim, Romania appeared with a number of unknown little girls, and they came home with 3 silver medals. After this everything changed, things went back to normal: lots of medals at the European Championship in Amsterdam, 4 of them gold, the same in Athens. We managed this way to consolidate our supremacies proving our team is the most valuable in the world and we have to admit, our girls with their coaches are real GOLD.

The 28th edition of the Olympic Games was for Romania a real success. With 19 medals (8 gold, 5 silver and 6 bronze) our country was placed 14th at the media medals' table. This is mainly thanks to gymnastics with 4 gold medals, 1 silver and 1 bronze.

Looking at the evolution of the Romanian team I lived two different feelings: a huge joy and happiness created by the girls, winning all

the medals, and nostalgia because some other time I was right there helping the team to win.

The girls of this new team had a very good moral status, proving they have a huge power of mobilization. I would like to let you know, I lived, as a champion and as simple person, normal emotions, with no fear of losing, knowing exactly my value, the most important thing, not only for a champion but for every sportsman.

The overall success of the Romanian's teams isn't just coincidence. It's a reward for hard work, talent and value of the members of team and leading coaches. Athens we proved once again that under the statue of Zeus, the Romanian gymnastic is one of the wonders of the world.

For all those beautiful moments lived then and for a long time after, we have to give thank to organizers, participants, the state and the friendly people of Greece.

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PROMOTIONAL POLICIES OF KOREAN TAEKWONDO AND FUTURE TASKS OF TAEKWONDO IN THE OLYMPIC GAMES

Ms So-Jung KIM (KOR)

Introduction

Taekwondo has become one of the world's fastest growing martial art sports participated by a global family of 50 million people throughout 175 countries. Taekwondo has been developing with the 5000-year-long history of Korea being called by several different names such as Subak and Taekkyon. As the origin nation, Korea or Koguryo in ancient times plays an important role in the world Taekwondo society. Taekwondo not only is a sport loved and enjoyed the world over, but it also allows people to learn about Korean culture. Taekwondo not only teaches physical fighting skills, but also as a way of honing one's mental skills. In addition, Taekwondo pursues harmonious growth and improvements of life through its unique activities. That is why Taekwondo philosophy represents the principles of the changes and movements in human beings.

Taekwondo was a demonstration sport of the 1988 Olympics held in Seoul, Korea and the 1992 Olympics in Barcelona, Spain. In 1994, the International Olympic Committee admitted Taekwondo as an official event of the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, and 2004 Athens Olympic Games. Because of those successes and its growing popularity, it is surely to be a mainstay in the Olympic Games in the future.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to show promotional policies of Korea as an origin nation and desirable plans for Taekwondo in future Olympic Games.

Promotional policies of Korean Taekwondo

Taekwondo is a popular sport in Korea as well as in the world. It was selected as a demonstration sport in Seoul Olympic in 1988 and it became an official event in Sydney Olympic in 2000 for the first time and it is still placed as a world class sport until the Athens Olympics in 2004. Taekwondo was selected as representative of Korean culture by Culture-Sport Ministry in 1996. It is not simply a Korean sport but a the world renowned superior cultural asset as well as a firmly grounded Olympic event that 50 million people from 175 countries enjoy. Therefore, as the suzerain country, Korea should make every effort to improve promotional policies of Korean Taekwondo.

It is required to have various policies to improve Taekwondo. It is necessary to study Taekwondo history, the role of Korea as the suzerain country, the Taekwondo structure as an organization, administrative problems, and to seek solutions. Koreans will be able to show off their dignity and pride as the Taekwondo suzerain country both in the name and reality if all the people in Korea can enjoy the physical, mental, and social benefits and live better and healthier lives through Taekwondo. If there are effective improvements such as: policies, facilities, programs, and coaching, this will help establish a sound leisure culture.

These factors should be used to help establish policy guidelines. Taekwondo does not require special equipment and there are no restrictions on time or weather. It also does not have any problem of space restriction, which is considered by me the most important factor in sports because there are a great many Taekwondo halls throughout the country where space is a premium. Therefore, Taekwondo is the most promising sport above all the other sports. On the other hand,

since Taekwondo is a Korean traditional martial art it is necessary to popularize not only as a sport but also as a succeeding Korean tradition.

The following measures for the promotion of Taekwondo are required to ensure in correct direction it takes as a sport for the people all around the world. (Jeong, Kim, Chio, and Jeong, 2002).

1. Taekwondo should be equipped with the practical powers by the revision and new establishment of the laws and regulations for the Taekwondo development by institution under direct control of the President.
2. The setting of the gymnasium should reflect the local specialities and the vision of the community to be a stable athletic center.
3. The education program of Taekwondo should be based on the consideration and reflect the trainee's sex, age, physical and emotional characteristics, time, personality.
4. There should be a training institution to train the professional leaders for the practical Taekwondo publication.

On these bases, there should be also every effort to facilitate Taekwondo by the enlargement of Taekwondo population, and the actual measure of development can be summarized in the following five points.

1. Research efforts for the improvement of Taekwondo training methods should be regularly implemented.
2. There should be a program to provide the public with an insight into the rigours of Taekwondo training.
3. To secure more Taekwondo training facilities and to gain the maximum use from these facilities by providing easier access to gymnasiums.
4. The administrative organization should be improved and the establishment of a research and development board is urgent.
5. There should be an attempt to provide an accurate history of the

growth of the Taekwondo as a popular sport and an emphasis should also be placed on the philosophical foundation of Taekwondo.

The Korean government recognized this matter seriously and announced on April 3, 2000 it would establish a 660,000 million square meter Taekwondo Park in Mujoo, a ski resort in central South Korea, as the permanent home for Taekwondo. The Taekwondo Park will take a role as a center for the people who practice in Taekwondo. It will promote personal wellbeing and national pride. It can be used as a pilgrimage training place for people Taekwondo from Korea as well as from around the world. The Taekwondo park will include competition, training and recreational facilities, with a budget of thousand billion dollars. Also, the opening of Taekwondo Park and the competing of the 2014 Winter Olympics will take place at the same time and it will be advantageous to promote the Taekwondo Park to the world as a theme park during this period because it would maximize the effect since there would not be any double investment for foundation facilities of both the Winter Olympic and Taekwondo Park making it possible to form the most economic park.

Also, the Korean Taekwondo administration system should concentrate on improving Taekwondo administration based on government's policies on sports, and each university's Taekwondo departments should conduct constant research to develop software and establish identity of Taekwondo study to make Taekwondo a creative culture.

Future tasks of Taekwondo in the Olympic Games

In 1975 Taekwondo was accepted as an official sport by the U.S Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) and also admitted to the General Association of International Sports Federations (GAISE), followed

by the adoption of official sports event by the international council of military sports (CISM) in 1976, president of the World Taekwondo Federation (WTF) was elected President of the world federation of non-Olympic sports. The WTF became an IOC-recognized sports federation in 1980, making Taekwondo an Olympic sport. Then the adoption of Taekwondo as an official event was followed by the World Games in 1981, the Pan-American games in 1986, and finally by the 2000 Olympiad held in Australia.

Taekwondo is a Korean traditional martial art within the Oriental tradition. However, it also accepted Western sport forms one-by-one making a new concept of “martial sport” representing the two cultures (Ryu, 2001). Taekwondo has been required to make many changes until it was selected as an official Olympic event consequently, that has caused an increase in the level of objectivity in judging more than any other sporting event as a competing Olympic sport. There were also several problems in the standardizing of Kyorugi(competition) since it had to make objective winners and losers rather than by the competitors deciding the outcome of the match based on their respective skill levels. Therefore, the following improvement plans are needed to make the best use of its original martial characteristic in order for it to remain a world class sport as well as a permanent event in Olympics.

The rules of the game and objectivity of judgment

First of all, here are some rules of Taekwondo in Olympics.

The match

In Olympic competition, one contest consists of three rounds of three minutes for men, and three rounds of two minutes for women, each with one-minute intervals between rounds. The contestants, “Chung” (blue) and “Hong” (red), compete against each other by punching and kicking techniques performed on permitted parts

of the body. In Taekwondo contests, kicks are allowed to the face and body, while punches are only allowed on the body. Hits below the lower abdomen are forbidden. All vulnerable parts of the body are covered with protectors. One referee and three judges oversee the contest. Points are considered valid when two or more judges acknowledge and register them. An effective attack to the trunk counts for one point; an effective attack to the face wins two points. There is an additional point for a knockdown. Grabbing, pushing, holding, feigning injury, turning the back evasively to an opponent and various other infringements are forbidden and bear a penalty. The winner of a contest is determined either by a knockout, by points, or when eight penalties are granted to the opponent.

The biggest problem that current Taekwondo has under the above rules is that fighters tend not to attack and only concentrate on defense as the game is more important like Olympics. There is a rule that a fighter gets penalty of 1 mark with 2 warnings that are given when a fighter only defends himself. However, it does not have much effect if both fighters do not try to attack. In addition, it is necessary to improve some of the rules such as prohibiting attack on face with hands but allowing attack on body because the rules only allow fighters to exchange kicks. Current marking system recognizes marks when two out of three sub referees press the button in 0.5 seconds. However, it should be improved because sub referees can miss this timing instantly and the chief referee who is in the best position to watch a match cannot even participate in marking. Cho, Jung Won, the president of World Taekwondo Federation, expressed his willingness to change the rules and marking system of Taekwondo that made us to expect many changes in future Taekwondo matches.

Other sports change their rules and judging systems to improve themselves and most of the changes concentrate on bringing about interests from audiences and improving objectivity and reasonableness

of judgment. Wrestling has two completely different matching forms and adopted point system. It is considered that these changes in rules and judging system as well as its objectivity and reasonableness lead to a successful revision in many other sports.

While Oriental martial arts are self-cultivation and concentrate on defending oneself, Western martial such as boxing, wrestling, and fencing are aggressive and competitive. Although Taekwondo is an Oriental martial sport, it has Daeryun (sparring) and has pros and cons as it became worldwide sport by spreading to the West such as the U.S. and Europe that in turn adopted aggressive and competitive characteristics like boxing or wrestling. Taekwondo has many diverse hand techniques for defense and smashing (chopping) but, presently the rules for olympic competition favor the use of foot techniques making it less interesting and limiting the true essence of Taekwondo. However, Taekwondo can recover its original aspect and become a more fascinating and interesting event if competitions were to include the beautiful Poom-se which is an artistic form and could be added to Taekwondo matches.

In Conclusion

In Korea, it is necessary to develop a series of new martial art techniques, scientific theories for systematic training and to ensure that the proper structures are in place for the management of competitors. It is also crucial to sustain the world-class standard of Korean Taekwondo by recruiting the best fighters through a combination of proper training methods, facilities and professional management.

In the context of the Olympic Games, it may be necessary to contemplate a change in the rules of Taekwondo, diverse techniques and a subdivision of competition not merely to maintain the status quo for the Beijing Olympic Games in 2008 but in order to cement the sport as a stable and permanent event in the future Olympic Games.

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EFFECT OF SPORT ON DEPRIVED AREAS IN GHANA

Ms Cynthia ATTORKWE (GHA)

Introduction

As far as sports is concern in Ghana, it is necessary to find out the impact of sport on the less privileged individuals and communities in the country. This can be done by looking at the picture of the country per say that is the geographical location, the economic status, the cultural status and the people's passion for sports. Who are the people been talked of, answers the question of the status of deprived areas; what do they do so far as sports is concerned, answers for the rural perspective of sports and then finally, the effect of sports on the deprived area gives a general picture of whether something can be done to save a situation.

Ghana is one of the sport loving countries found on the western part of the African continent. Ghana has a population of about 20 million people. The people of Ghana have passion for sport especially soccer. Other sporting activities, which reflect in Ghana sports, include boxing, tennis, table tennis, badminton, basketball, volleyball, hockey, handball, netball and horse racing and obviously track and field sports just to mention a few.

In Ghana, people get into sporting at very young ages depending on the exposure thus the availability of the sports to them. About 65% of the population plays one sports or the other. On the other hand about

85% of the people in Ghana are involved in sporting activities either through playing or supporting. The greater proportions however are caught up with soccer. This is to say that the people in Ghana uphold some of the value of Olympic ideas if not directly involve in sports per say.

Economically, Ghana is endowed with a lot of natural resources and has twice the per capita output of some poorer countries in West Africa. Even so, Ghana remains heavily dependent on international financial and technical assistance. Gold, timber, and cocoa production are major source of foreign exchange. The domestic economy continues to revolve around subsistence agriculture, which accounts for 36% of GDP and employs 60% of the work force, mainly small landholders. In 2004 inflation rate was 11.3% and interest rate was 26% also the GDP growth rate was 5.2%. Minimum daily wage in Jan. 2004 was 10,500 cedis.

Ghana in the view of socio-cultural picture has a lot of ethnic groups some of which include the Akan, Ewe, Mole Dagbani, Guan and Ga –Adangbe. The subdivisions of each group share a common cultural heritage, history, language and origin.

No part of Ghana, however, is ethnically homogeneous. Urban centres are the most ethnically mixed because of migration to towns and cities by those in search of employment. Rural areas, with the exception of cocoa-producing areas that have attracted migrant labour, tend to reflect more traditional population distributions.

Overriding feature of the country's ethnic population is that groups to the south west are closer to the Atlantic Coast have long been influenced by the money economy, western education and Christianity, whereas Gur-speakers to the north who have been less exposed to those influences have come under Islamic influence were not pervasive in the respective regions, however, nor were they wholly restricted to them.

Status of Deprived Areas

There are a few differences between urban and deprived areas in Ghana. Some of the features associated with urban areas in Ghana include a large population count. The population weights in the deprived area are lighter and sometimes sparsely distributed. This is because people go to the urban areas to search for white collar jobs and other things, mostly because there are no good amenities like electricity, communication network and infrastructure such as schools, here pupils will have to school under trees and sheds, no good market centres and all others that end up to improve the economy. The economic situations in the deprived areas are not very active. Foodstuffs are sold to consumers on specially designated market days and when these food stuffs are not bought they are left to rot because of poor storage facilities or rather been used by the farmers themselves and the question is how do they get money to finance themselves? People have to travel to the urban centres for other items or imperishable goods. Sometimes due to poor communication network people will have to commune to and fro for a couple of days before they can get what they want. These groups of people in this part of the country do not have good drinking water as well as some facility like electricity and telecommunication network. They do not have access to modern medical care, they have to travel over miles or resort to traditional medicines which when care is not taken is detrimental to their very lives.

The Rural Perspective of Sports

There is a relating factor concerning Coubertin's idea of Olympism which is that there is a degree of satisfaction in participation.

For such a situation it is rather interesting to know that through education people are able to improvise facilities needed to help them participate in some sporting activities. They do this from traces of their traditional games and plays and in this scientific era, of cause which also have effects on the people from the deprived areas, they

think of things they need that can help them come out of a few anomalies and hence the solution is to make up for sports.

Since it is not easy to come out with sporting facilities, they thought it wise to improvise a lot of equipment to come out satisfied with their needs at a time. In some instances school children will have to farm on the school land to enable them to have money to purchase a few sports equipment. With the various local communities people will have to do communal labour by tilting the land and having its products sold out to get money to buy sports equipment for the community or to get money to transport themselves to other places where they need to go and play some sort of return matches or have athletics festivals where school children are involved and of course in such activities the ideology of Olympism is learned and portrayed.

Socially as much as the urban areas are full of sporting activities, the deprived areas are not left out because as some sports loving elites move from the rural to urban and back, they buy the ideals and implement them back in the rural areas. Moreover, it is the right of the youth in school to also take part in sports competition at their level as their urban counterparts do. By their participation in the sporting activities the ideal of sports is spread in the communities and the awareness is created and also talents are unearthed and future champions are made. It is the belief of the rural people that if sports is made part of them talents will be unearthed as well and it will go a long way to help in the development of the individual and the communities as a whole. Out of these it is their hope that future stars will come from their communities which will be to their credit.

As much as the urban areas organise and uphold sports in high esteem, the deprived or rural folks are not left out they modify equipment and rules to enable them to partake in benefits or gains of the sporting world. For instance tree barks are made into net and hanged to serve as net for volleyball and then play goes on. On the other hand children are found

using their old socks to prepare balls for play. They fill in the socks with polythene, shape it round and sew it, each size for each particular sport. In some cases some tropical trees produce sticky juice or liquid which can be used in the production of these items by the rural folks. Also the duty of some teachers who were trained in the urban areas have no option but to introduce the community and the school as a whole to sporting activities so as to remove boredom because of change in environments and experience. In some cases the works of the Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) are really appreciated. Organizations like the Plan International, Action Aid International and USAID play important educational roles in the rural areas and therefore end up building some sporting facilities for these under privileged areas so that they could also have a taste of “good” sports. Also the Ghana Olympic Committee (GOC) is doing its best to organise some of its physical activities in such under privileged areas and also giving them sponsorships and scholarships to most people who are not privileged to be in the urban areas where facilities are easy to come by. Out of these sporting activities the rural areas or communities in Ghana are able to improve or gain a lot to the advantage of the communities whom these organisations reach out to.

Some of the children from the rural areas who are into sports win scholarships once in a while to help their parent educate them well and this also goes to educate the parents themselves about the positive nature of sports. The GOC for instance have some of its solidarity packages for those in the deprived areas to make them feel part of the Olympic family in the country.

Effects of Sports in the Deprived Areas

Sports in the deprived areas in Ghana have helped to gain the following but to mention a few;

- Improvement upon peace in conflict areas and in general
- Improvement in development in all circles

- Wealth is created through sports
- Economic activities are enhanced
- Potentials are tapped
- Friendship is enhanced
- Social vices are stopped
- Corrective measures in relation to behaviours
- Scholarships are won
- Promotion of education-PE
- Confidence is built in people
- Health levels are improved

With developmental issues, sports have helped some remote areas by way of providing facilities for sports like playing courts and play fields. Social amenities and infrastructure development have been provided, like hospital/clinics, roads, electricity, recreation and play centres, water and stadiums to project the status of these places. This is done because at the end of the day people come out of these places and directly or indirectly project the sports sector. As teams are formed people travel to and from these places making it necessary for the provision of some of these things.

Apart from the structural development sports also helps in the human development as well. The rural folks tend to develop in all human aspect both physical, spiritual, moral and so on due to their participation in sports. Also teenagers who take up sports become morally upright due to their belief in Ghana. According to Turkildson (1993: page 23): 'Children's play can help to determine the type of people they are and the type of adult they will become, therefore we need to provide a carefully considered and guided variety of activities for their development. Appropriate public pervasive of play is of utter most importance'. From the above quotation, it can be deduced that, as children as well as adults play sports they end up in self-developments of all kinds.

Sport in general is noted for its role in the resolution of conflict worldwide. It is not an exemption in deprived communities in Ghana. In the remote areas in Ghana petty quarrels and conflicts are common. This is due to the chieftaincy issues and polygamous nature of family settings. But thanks to sports, it has help people to live cordially with one another because the people in these communities have come to realise that they could not team up against others to play sports when there are quarrels or conflicts between them (an Olympic idea is put into practise). Also various individuals from different communities have to come together to form a team against other communities of the same status to participate in sporting activities such as soccer, volleyball, boxing and so on. In areas of this nature sports also provide avenues for people to experience collective conscious spirit. In a case like this sports creates a communal spirit that brings people together in a common manner in search of a common goal. If people should continue fighting this could not take place hence thanks to sports.

It has been found that sport helps in the creation of wealth in the remote areas in Ghana by the rural folks. It has been revealed that whenever there is a sports meet or festivals in such areas, people from far and near get to the venues and trade. They prepare all sorts of local cookies, drinks and so on and sell to both fans and participants. During this period, sellers confirm that they make money several times their normal sales on ordinary days. This is a source of wealth creation, however small it might look; it is significant in the lives of the rural folks. To link up with this economic activities are generally enhanced. People go into all kinds of economic ventures just in the name of sports. People create various kinds of improvised equipment, which are bought by the sports lovers and used in their training sections for competitions.

Such equipment includes soccer balls; chin guard, goalpost, and basketball net and so on made from local materials. Others also take up jobs that will help prepare fields and courts to be used

especially during school sports festivals and local community sports competitions. Still for economic gains, the remote communities are prepared to contribute to get people from the urban areas to handle or manage their various teams for competitions because for them to win in sports is to win in life, which will make them famous and as well acquire them name so far as sports is concerned in the rural areas.

Another contribution of sport on remote areas in Ghana is the tapping of potential sportsmen and women. Most of the stars and champions of Ghana come from the deprived areas of the country. Out of the adaptation of sports by the local people it has ended up bringing out, the talents in the youth by so doing they are identified and trained, for example in the games of Athens 2004 there were two new discoveries that took part in the games from the rural areas. In the long run those chaps from the remote areas end up exposing the country to the whole world. It will interest you to know that some soccer stars such as Abedi Pele, Tony Yeboah; and Ike Quartey and Azumah Nelson of the boxing fame and the rest come from remote areas in Ghana thus in the Upper East, Ashanti and Greater Accra Regions respectively. But these are people who have in one way or the other lifted the flag of Ghana up in the soccer and boxing front. These people do not keep their achievement to themselves but come back to share with their very roots.

It is true that sports promote friendship and this has reflected in the sporting activities in remote communities in Ghana. It is realised that sport is an effective way to reach the youth who are often excluded and discriminated against especially when they come out to the towns and cities, including orphans, children with mental and physical difficulties. Sports offer them companionship, support, a sense of belongingness and connectedness. When this friendship is established the youth improve their confidence and self esteem level through sports. They do not have that “looking down upon”, feeling, they become bold through the magic of sports.

As much as sports enhance friendship, it also helps the majority to do away with the various social vices they are into. Most often when the youth in the deprived areas of the country, go into sporting most of the unaccepted individual habits are dropped and when it happens so a healthy country is built. For example in Ghana it is believed that young people should be morally upright to be successful in their sporting activities especially in acquiring advance skills. By so doing people flee from sexual activities and so on. This results in the reduction in a lot of teenage pregnancy and teenage healthy lifestyle is ensured. It is realised that people who get into sport at early ages do not give birth early especially at the time they are irresponsible for having them. The rural folks in Ghana are the producers of foodstuffs to feed the whole country so they need to be in a healthy state to enable them to work and this comes through their involvement in sporting activities.

In a deprived area in Ghana for instance where there is a Soccer Academy called Feyenoord Academy a lot of benefits have been derived through the activities of the academy. This academy has children from the various deprived areas who can play soccer and are taken care of both in academics and in sports. They have formed partnership with UNICEF since 2002 to support HIV/AIDS prevention programme at the grass root level thus with the deprived communities around them in Ghana. This developed and made it possible to explore a new avenue in HIV/AIDS prevention with young people through sports: 'Peer Education through Sports' this innovative approach of peer education, through young football players and boxers, has shown positive results over the last two years. The project began at the Feyenoord Fetteh Football Academy and has now been expanded to other local football teams and boxing teams in the Jamestown area. In the fight against HIV/AIDS, these innovative approaches are needed to bring about the required social and behavioural changes that will safeguard young people from the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Using football

and boxing as the vehicle to reach young people to talk about healthy lifestyles, risks and choices, proves to be very effective. Whether on the streets of Accra, in their respective rural areas or on the field during a football tournament, the peer educators talk to the large crowds they pull when they take out their 'Risk Games' or 'Journey of Hope'.

Other contributions of sports include helping people to change their bad unacceptable behaviours, which means that sport can help control peoples' temperaments especially where the officials help in the interpretation of the rules and penalising offenders. When these things are observed it is obvious that social lives are shaped and responsible people are made right from the grassroots. Also people learn to be fair towards each other.

In Ghana especially among the rural folks who have little or no knowledge of formal education at all think that people with disabilities are evil children or are punishment from God to their parents. These parents therefore do not expose them to public but as sports continue to spread to these areas, people have come to realise that it is not strange to have a disability and that people with a disability can do all that others do. No wonder Ghana raised a deaf Olympic football team-The Black Wonders-where most of the players are rural folks. Here they come to know that sports can be a powerful tool in promoting equality for all. Sport helps children with disabilities to gain confidence that they can apply to other aspects of their lives. When the focus is on scoring a goal or shooting a basket, children's abilities becomes important, not their disabilities. When combined with health information, sports can also be used to educate such communities on ways to prevent disabilities and to stress the importance of vaccination, proper nutrition and use of iodised salt.

In any case despite the contributions of sports in the deprived areas in Ghana its negative aspects cannot be left out such as heavy alcohol consumption, drug abuse, unhealthy competitiveness, which can

divide communities, cheating, corruption and violence. The benefit of sports, however far outweigh these potential negative consequences.

Recommendation

In view of the effects of sports on deprived area in Ghana a few recommendations can help improve upon the lots. It is my view that there should be both financial and structural support towards sporting activities in the deprived areas to help in the sharing and participating in the Olympic values.

Scholarship should to institute by stakeholders like the Ghana Olympic Committee and the Ghana Education Service to enable people in the remote areas gain enough from sports so as to uphold the values of the Olympic Movement.

Recreational fields and centres should be built by the government to enable people to get access to space and courts to practise their various sports, when this is done Olympism will be more of practical than theory.

Non-governmental organisations should promote more sporting activities so as to increase sports participation in the remote areas and in Ghana as a whole.

The government of Ghana should vote a bigger percentage of funds to promote sports in the rural areas to help prevent diseases and illness due to lack of exercise, foster friendship, reduce stress and depression, improve confidence and self- esteem, reduce crime and to improve learning the values of Olympism and enhance academic performance as well.

Conclusion

In conclusion I would like to join the Secretary General of the United Nation – Kofi Annan in his speech that ‘Sport can play a role

in improving the lives of individuals not only individual.....
.....but whole communities. I am convinced that the time is right to build on the understanding, to encourage governments, development agencies and communities to think how sport can be included systematically in the plans to help children, particularly those living in the midst of poverty, disease and conflict.’

Also it can be noticed that when people are into sports very early they become more integrated when they have the chance to come out and join others from the other side of the “world”.

With this let’s reflect on a statement made by Kofi Annan of course a Ghanaian that “sport is a universal language that can bring people together no matter what their origin, background, religious beliefs or economic status”.

On this note I wish to say that may sport live up to its highest standard on every continent, country, state and community in all aspects of life.

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A SOFT GYNOCENTRIC CRITIQUE OF THE PRACTICE OF MODERN SPORT

Ms Lisa EDWARDS (GBR)

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to examine the suggestion that sport offers the tools for debunking gender concepts. I will also argue that sport can be a social practice liberating to both men and women.

The discord towards sport as a potential site for female liberation provides a showcase for the well documented tensions in modern feminism. I will briefly outline the two main feminist strands, gynocentric and humanist feminism, both of which encounter a number of feminist traditions. I will explore the shift from the popularised liberal feminism towards a more radical critique of male dominated society. However, I will not strictly adhere to all aspects of one over the other but instead offer a soft gynocentric approach as an alternative in this critique of the modern practice of sport.

Humanist Feminism

Humanist feminism was the mainstream feminist discourse throughout the 19th and 20th centuries and overlaps considerably with liberal feminism, equality and sameness feminism and some forms of radical feminism, among others. This large body of feminist writing is encapsulated by the term humanist feminism because it defines gender as accidental to humanity.

Humanist feminism began to gain momentum in the early 18th century, inspired by the radical movements of the French Revolution, women attempted to establish females as rational human beings who should gain the same opportunities and rights that apply to men in a liberal society. These early feminist thinkers were influenced by the ideological treatment of women by modern philosophical thinkers, none more so than Rousseau, who applied ideological conceptions to women and consistently excluded women as members of the human class. Mary Wollstonecraft, John Stuart Mill, Harriet Taylor and later Simone de Beauvoir exhibit the main features of humanist feminism. They have been referred to as liberal feminists in so far as they aim to achieve equality and justice by removing the obstructions of femininity from the lives of women. According to this theory gender refers to cultural constructions which arise at a later moment in the production of one's identity. Liberal feminism remains a strong advocate of humanist feminism today.

Humanist feminism is problematic for a number of reasons. Perhaps the strongest criticism is that humanist feminism is actually a part of the patriarchal ideology of 'self'. Equality is conceived only in phallogentric terms, which according to Grosz (1990) is the procedure of collapsing representations of the two sexes into a single mode, called 'human' or 'man', but which is in fact congruent only, with the masculine. Women's specific needs and interests are increasingly minimised in order to stress a common humanity. Catherine Mackinnon successfully illustrates the tension between the concept of equality which presupposes 'sameness' and the concept of sex which presupposes 'difference'. Thus the concept of sex equality becomes something of a contradiction. Humanist feminism is also criticised for its explanation of the relationship between the body and the subject. Williams offers an alternative paradigm for women, a shift away from equality with men to an affirmation of women's difference from men.

Gynocentric Feminism

In opposition to humanist feminism gynocentric feminism regards gender as a fundamental property rather than an externally attached property. Young (1990) contends that gynocentric feminism has grown from a critique of humanist feminism and contains a more radical critique of male dominated society.

Rather than viewing femininity as the primary vehicle of oppression, gynocentric feminism defines women's oppression as the devaluation and repression of women's experience by a masculinist culture. Gynocentric feminism embraces cultural, lesbian and some forms of radical feminism and can be identified with the belief in the superiority of values embodied in traditional female experience.

Gynocentric feminists do not aim to eliminate 'difference' or the requirements of 'femininity' that inhibit the full development of women's capacities. They argue that our identity is not centered on consciousnesses but to a large extent is dependent on the body. They maintain that the concept of 'sexual difference' can be utilised in contesting patriarchal conceptions of women. Gynocentric feminism argues that women speak in a different voice than men locating the presence of gender at a much deeper level, that is outside of the conscious mind. The notion of sexual difference has emerged in the last 20 years as a central theory within feminist writing and has created antagonistic struggles within feminist theory. This struggle has centered on the meaning of 'woman' and the question of whether there is or is not a 'female essence' which is benevolent.

The main criticism of gynocentric feminism or 'difference' feminism is its dangerously close relationship to essentialism¹ which refers

¹ Essentialism refers to the attribution of a fixed essence seen as residing in female biology, nature or/and psychological characteristics.

to a fixed female essence. The concept of essentialism has weighed heavily on feminism and essentialist ideology has historically been used as justification for the exclusion and subordination of women. This approach has a number of criticisms. Firstly the 'difference' approach has played down social, historical and cultural variants which effect human behaviour and sexual dimorphism. Secondly, this concept seems to brushstroke all 'feminine' values as positive and to indiscriminately critique the male mind set. Davion (1994) argues that in rejecting humanist claims that 'femininity' inhibits, distorts, and mutilates women's lives, gynocentric feminists uncritically glorify the feminine.

For example, the elevation of women's position in the private realm fails to recognise how the self – sacrificing woman can oppress and impair women as a whole. Germaine Greer champions this view by exposing the exploitation of women as mothers, wives and housekeepers. She argues that, "The house of the millennium is still a temple of vicarious leisure, that is, pointless activity that serves no purpose but to demonstrate the status of the people that perform it" (1999, p. 127).

Thirdly, it is problematic to view all traits that are traditionally unfemale as undesirable. Gynocentric feminists have claimed superiority for female virtues – the ethic of responsibility and care, nurturance, non – competitiveness, and so on – values which they argue our world sorely needs. At the same time they argue that masculine values which are exalted in society are objectionable and unacceptable. Young (1990) argues:

The male – dominated activities with the greatest prestige in our society – politics, science, technology, warfare, and business – threaten the survival of our planet and the human race. That our society accords these activities the highest value only indicates the deep perversity of patriarchal culture. Masculine

values exalt death, violence, competition, selfishness, a repression of the body, sexuality and affectivity

(p. 78).

Innumerable other works treat the aspect of sports efficacy and the concept of masculinity with varied levels of insight. This sports literature alludes to the putative characteristics of male sport suggesting an attitude of aggressiveness; overly competitive spirit; the primacy of power, speed and strength; the elevation of winning at the expense of play – process; indifference towards aesthetic qualities such as rhythms, processes and textures; poisonous attitudes towards opponents; a general attitude of boorishness and philistinism; and the exclusivity of the isms, such as sexism, racism, ageism and heterosexism (Davis 1998).¹

A gynocentric mindset proffers the theory that this masculine ideology is unsuitable for both men and women and aims to transform society and sport on female centred values. Yet this argument suggests a fixed male essence which is unestablished and a wholesale rejection of masculine values. Finally, gynocentric feminism also relies on the opposition of masculinity and femininity perpetuating a number of spurious dualities. Davion (1994) concludes that the solution does not lie in simply valuing the side of the dichotomy that has been devalued in western patriarchal frameworks.

Soft Gynocentric feminism

Although I support a shift towards a more radical critique of male dominated society, I do not endorse unbridled gynocentric feminism. My aim is to endorse what I will refer to as ‘soft’ gynocentric feminism.

¹ I am indebted to Paul Davis for use of an unpublished paper in expressing the putative characteristics of male sport.

Firstly, I wish to distance myself from the view, presented by these two approaches that the answer to sexual dimorphism can be found either in environmentalism¹ or essentialism. It is also valuable to question, as Judith Butler does in 'gender trouble', the mileage in continuing to try and settle the questions of primary identity in order to construct a feminist theory which actively works towards the liberation of men and women.

Although 'soft' gynocentric feminism rejects essentialism this is not a blanket rejection of the significance of the body. Moria Gatens (1996) argues, compellingly, that the body is historically and culturally situated, and defies a rationalist explanation². In other words, Gatens maintains that "such complicity may be shown without thereby supporting an essentialist notion of sexual difference" (p. 148). Secondly, I recognise the vital step that gynocentric feminism has made in rejecting the phallogocentric view of a universal humanity. As Gatens argues, without 'difference' women become represented as pale shadows and incomplete complements to the more excellent type – man.

Gynocentric feminism, however, sees all traditionally masculine traits as intrinsically damaging for both men and women. Whereas, I contend that it is the cultural environment in which these traits or virtues are fostered and valued that is damaging to men and women. It is, I believe, vital to critique masculine and feminine traits rather than elevating feminine values which have been fostered in a patriarchal culture and often have origins in oppression.³

¹ Environmentalism is a term utilised by Gatens (1996) to refer to the use of re-education and re-learning of patriarchal codes in order to neutralise sex difference.

² This is to deny the abstract notion of a mind/body dualism.

³ I refer back to the illustration provided by Germaine Greer on page 5.

A Soft Gynocentric Vision of Sport

How will this critique affect sport? Authors such as Tannsjo (2000), Schnider (2000), Burke (2000), and Loland (2000) and many more, have argued that we should mould sport in a certain desirable direction. Regardless of environmental or essential beginnings even deep – seated, socially specific traits remain adjustable, as Flanagan (1991, p. 43) argues:

If we were to find some of our distinctive practices and associated attitudes about their normalcy and acceptability somehow rationally indefensible, we could seek to change the practices and attitudes of subsequent generations

The first conclusion to be drawn from soft gynocentric feminism is that elevation of female traits in sport (as we know it) reinforces ideologically damaging concepts of women. Gynocentric feminism endorses too forcefully the female ‘voice’ which is liable to be ideologically imbued. Thus ‘soft’ gynocentric feminism does not fully sanction a conception of sport which allows only traditionally female values to flourish.

Secondly, a ‘soft’ gynocentric approach recognises that some traditionally masculine elements of sport might warrant preservation. I will use mental toughness to further illustrate this. Dixon (1999) suggests, mental toughness is a legitimate component of athletic excellence and is closely connected with masculine culture. Yet I believe that as with many other important values and traits in sport mental toughness can be retrieved from masculine culture. Mental toughness is not intrinsically masculine or intrinsically negative. Rather it is society’s fixation with mental toughness that should be rejected by ‘soft’ gynocentric feminism.

Examples are not hard to come by, most recently Paula Radcliffe has been accused of 'quitting' during the Olympic Marathon in Athens. Despite medical problems and obvious physical distress, TV commentators, coaches, family and friends, have eagerly assured us that 'Paula is not a quitter'. Despite two world cross country titles, three marathon world records and being recorded as the third fastest female runner ever, Radcliff has been judged on "that" race and more so because of her visible emotional reaction to defeat. Dixon (1999, p. 22) suggests "we seem to have fetishized the ability to perform under pressure and given it far more importance as a criterion for athletic excellence than it deserves".

Another example of our masculine evaluation of mental toughness can be found in the recent world record breaking voyage of Ellen Macarthur. In an event requiring phenomenal mental toughness, her race has been described as 'brutal' both physically and psychologically. Sue Mott of the Daily Telegraph described the journey as involving 60FT waves, biblical hailstorms, equatorial overheating, sailing whilst pitifully exhausted, dehydrated and sleep deprived. Yet this, it seems, is not enough. During her world record attempt Macarthur exhibited her stress through tears and emotion, and consequently has been labelled by many as a 'whinger':

Bob Fisher of the Guardian declared:

Ellen is a difficult person to empathise with, she moans and whinges the whole time so many people, quite understandably, are of the opinion that, given that she knew what was in store for her she would just shut up and get on with it.

This example illustrates the way that masculine culture distorts mental toughness into repression of emotion and contempt for weakness. Gynocentric feminism would lobby for moderation in

sport, to remove all respect for mental toughness, to be replaced by traditionally feminine values such as emotional support and empathy. However, as I illustrated earlier, a 'soft' gynocentric approach refutes the belief that a solution can be found in elevating one side of the male / female dichotomy over another. Rather it is important to recognise that the current cult of masculinity is a cultural phenomenon and the primacy, elevation and description of sporting qualities, such as mental toughness, are in need of re-evaluation.

I have suggested that sport offers the tools for debunking gender concepts and provides a liberating environment for both males and females in which:

Each person should choose any combination of morally acceptable behaviours and psychological traits that they see fit, regardless of that person's sex

(Grim 1981, p. 65).

THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT: AN INSTITUTIONAL AND LEGAL APPROACH

Mr Alexandre MESTRE (POR)

In the first part of this paper, we will try to study the institutional framework of the Olympic Movement (OM), focusing on its three main constituents and also on the principal so called OM “satellite organizations”. In the second part, adding to certain legal issues already provided in the first one, it is the purpose of this paper to give an overview and analyze some legal problems arising from the content of the Olympic Charter’s rules and by-laws.

1. The Olympic Movement

Olympic Charter (OC), Chapter 1, Composition and General Organisation of the Olympic Movement

- 1. Under the supreme Authority of the IOC, the Olympic Movement encompasses organizations, athletes and other persons who agree to be guided by the Olympic Charter. (...)*
- 2. The three main constituents of the Olympic Movement are the International Olympic Committee (IOC), the International Sport Federations (IFs) and the national Olympic Committees (NOCs).*
- 3. In addition to its three main constituents, the Olympic Movement also encompasses the Organizing Committees of the Olympic Games (OCOGs), the national associations, clubs, and the persons*

belonging to them, particularly the athletes whose interests constitute a fundamental element of its actions, and judges/referees, coaches and other sports technicians. It also includes other organizations and institutions as recognized by the IOC”.

Before analysing each component of the OM, we must clarify its definition. It can be characterised and defined as a coordinated course and series of actions on bodies and persons (‘the olympic family’) moving and aiming constantly towards the goals and the ends found in the Olympic Charter.

It can also be useful to apply to Jean-Loup Chappelet’s analyses focused on a systematic perspective, and having clear metaphors as important tools to understand the OM system.

In this context, Chappelet compares the OM to a commercial system: IOC is a multinational; IOC members are the shareholders; Sessions are the General Assemblies of the multinational; The Executive Board is the Board of Directors; NOCs are the subsidiary companies; athletes are the products made by the multinational; IFs are engineers; OGOCs are the contractors/jobbers.

The same author appeals to the United Nations system in order to make another metaphor: Olympic Congresses are the General Assemblies of the UN; the OM Commission can be compared to the Security Council; Olympic solidarity plays the role of the World Bank; CAS is compared to the International Court of Justice, in Haye; IOA is similar to the Tokio UN University.

Finally, Chappelet quotes Philippe Simont in order to compare the OM to the Catholic Church system: IOC is the Holy College which elects the Pope; NOC are the archbishops; IF are the religious orders; Olympia is the Sanctuary Temple; Olympic Congresses constitutes conciliums of an athletic faith; athletes are the martyrs.

In spite of these resemblances, the OM is undoubtedly a very particular system. In this paper first part we intend to analyse not only

IOC organs, but also the remaining main actors and partners of the OM, aiming to obtain the largest possible institutional approach.

2. The Olympic Movement: An Institutional Approach

2.1. *The Three Main Constituents of the Olympic Movement: IOC; International Federations; National Olympic Committees*

INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEE

OC, Rule 2- Mission and role of the IOC

The mission of the IOC is to promote Olympism throughout the world and to lead the Olympic Movement.

OC, Rule 15- Legal status

- 1. The IOC is an international non-governmental not- for-profit organization of unlimited duration, in the form of an association with the status of a legal person, recognized by the Swiss federal Council in accordance with an agreement entered into on 1 November 2000.*

OC, Rule 16- Members

The members of the IOC are all natural persons (...)

(...)

- 1.4. Members of the IOC represent and promote the interests of the IOC and the Olympic Movement in their countries and in the organisation of the Olympic Movement in which they serve.*

IOC is a supranational organisation which is the guardian of the Olympic movement. Its most fundamental role is quasi judicial: to ensure the respect and interpretation of the Olympic Charter.

The IOC purports to have legal personality under both national and public international law.

In what concerns to national law, IOC, as an association, is ruled by article 60 of the Swiss Civil Code. It is granted a real legal personality

in the Swiss law and within the jurisdiction of the Swiss Court. However, due to the universality of the OM, the extent of its functions and the particular interest that IOC bears within the framework of the external relations of Switzerland, the Swiss authorities have left considerable independence to the organisation. The Decree of the Federal Council of 18 July 1981 allows it exemption of national taxes, liberty of reunion, certain privileges in the area of immigration, etc.

The international legal personality of the IOC is only determined by its authority to initiate and sustain rather than by their legal status, capability and sovereignty. In fact, IOC does not possess a real legal personality on international plane since it has not been created by States and those are not members of it, and taking also into account that it is composed of individuals.

IOC's organs are the following: Session; Executive Board; President.

OC, Rule 18- The Session

1. The Session is the general meeting of the members of the IOC. It is the IOC supreme organ. Its decisions are final. An ordinary session is held once an year. Extraordinary Sessions may be convened by the President or upon the written request of at least one third of the members.

The Session is the supreme organ of the IOC. It adopts, modifies and interprets the Olympic Charter. Its decisions are final. Upon proposal of the Executive Board, it elects the members of the IOC. It may delegate powers to the Executive Board.

The Session is the Parliament of the OM. It disposes of less competencies than those usually attributed to the General Assemblies of the IF. In fact, in the one hand the election of the IOC members is subordinated to a list proposed by the Executive Board; on the other hand, its legislative competencies are confined to the Olympic Charter.

Even though, it is the Session that chooses the Olympic Games host

city, in opposition of the majority of IF- for instance, according to FIFA Regulation, it is the Executive Committee that has the competency to choose the organizers of the competitions. It must also be stressed that the session has general residual competencies, which is a typical regime of IF Executive Committees.

OC, Rule 19- The IOC Executive Board

- 1. The Executive Board consists of the President, four Vice-Presidents and ten additional members. The choice of these members will reflect the composition of the Session (...)*

The Executive Board manages the affairs of the IOC.

The Executive Board, deals with the management execution and ordinary administration of IOC, and has also juridical competencies and residual ones. In particular, it performs the following duties: it attends to the observance of the Olympic Charter; it assumes the ultimate responsibility for the administration of the IOC; it approves the IOC's internal organization, it is responsible for the management of the IOC's finances and prepares an annual report; it presents a report to the Session on any proposed change of rule or by-law.

OC Rule 20- The President

- 1. The IOC elects, by secret ballot, a President from among its members, for a term of eight years, renewable once for four years.*
- 2. The President represents the IOC and presides over all its activities*

The IOC President is the face and the charisma of the IOC.

Besides the IOC organs there are other important components of the IOC organization, namely the Olympic Congress and IOC Commissions.

OC, Rule 4- Olympic Congress

The Olympic Congress gathers representatives of the constituents of the Olympic Movement, at intervals determined by the IOC; it is convened by the IOC President; its role is consultative.

The Olympic Congress is a free tribune, with no binding decisions and/or votes, which allows the discussion of ideas related to the OM.

OC, Rule 21- IOC Commissions

IOC Commissions may be created for the purpose of advising the Session, the IOC Executive Board or the President, as the case may be.

The Commissions cover practically the entire area of IOC activity, but only a few are formally and expressly provided in the Charter: Athletes (By-law to Rule 21); Culture and Olympic Education; Olympic Games (By-law to Rule 21); Ethics (Rule 22); Executive board; Finance; International Relations; Juridical; Marketing; Medical (By-law to Rule 21); Nominations (By-law to Rule 21); Olympic Philately, Numismatic and Memorabilia; Olympic Program; Solidarity (By-law to rule 21); Press; Radio and Television; Sport and Environment; Sport and Law; Sport for All; TV Rights and New Media; Women and Sport; Evaluation for candidate cities (By-law to Rule 21);

INTERNATIONAL FEDERATIONS

OC Rule 27- Mission and Role of the IFs within the Olympic Movement

1. The role of the IFs is to:

- 1.1. establish and enforce, in accordance with the Olympic spirit, the rules concerning the practice of their respective sports and to ensure their application;*
- 1.2. ensure the development of their sports throughout the world;*
- 1.3. contribute to the achievement of the goals set out in the Olympic Charter, in particular by way of the spread of Olympism and Olympic education; (...)*

IFs are the most strategic partners of the IOC.

NATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEES

OC Rule 28- Mission and Role of the NOC's

1. *The mission of the NOCs is to develop and protect the Olympic Movement in their respective countries, in accordance with the Olympic Charter. (...)*
2. *The NOCs: (...)*
 - 2.2. *ensure the observance of the Olympic Charter in their countries; (...)*
3. *The NOCs have the exclusive powers for the representation of their respective countries at the Olympic Games and at the regional, continental or world multi-sports competitions patronized by the IOC. In addition, each NOC is obliged to participate in the Games of the Olympiad by sending athletes.*

The NOCs are the governing local bodies of the Olympic movement and, at the same time, they are the IOC territorial representatives in the respective countries, or in the territories and regions that are not yet independent, i.e., they are the mainstays of the OM in their respective countries. In this context, there is no doubt that NOCs participate in the decentralization of the OM and on its regional hierarchization.

NOCs have an hybrid legal nature: they are nationals- sometimes they are created through public legislation; even when they are purely private bodies, they have to respect national legislation-, but they are simultaneously Olympics, since they have to obey to Olympic rules, maxime the OC.

Some NOC, like USOC (United States Olympic Committee) is purely private, in spite of the Amateur Sport Act that grants to this NOC the monopoly of amateur sports management. In the opposite situation, CONI, in Italy, is public, merging the sports government with the NOC. There also some cases like Germany where the NOC is integrated in the sports confederation.

Nowadays, there are currently 202 NOCs, ranging from Albania to Zimbabwe.

**2.2. The Main “Satellite Organizations of the Olympic Movement”:
*International Olympic Academy; International Paralympic
Committee; World Anti-Doping Agency; Court of Arbitration for
Sport***

INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY (IOA)

OC Rule 2- Mission and Role of the IOC

The mission of the IOC is

(...) 16. To encourage and support the activities of the International Olympic Academy (“IOA”) and other institutions which dedicate themselves to the Olympic education.

IOA functions as a multicultural interdisciplinary centre that aims at studying, enriching and promoting Olympism. It is the connection bridge between the IOC and those that devote their work to the study and the research of the world-wide important phenomenon of Olympism.

Included in NOC, there are a lot of National Olympic Academies, and it must be also stressed that regional academies are in place, such as the Panamerican one.

INTERNATIONAL PARALYMPIC COMMITTEE (IPC)

IPC is the international representative organisation of elite sports for athletes with disabilities. It supervises and co-ordinates the organization of the Paralympic Summer and Winter Games and other multi-disability competitions on elite sport level, of which the most important are world and regional championships for the 13 IPC sports (for which the IPC functions as the International Federation). The IPC also develops sporting opportunities around the world for

athletes of all levels; from grassroots to elite level.

The IPC was founded on 22 September 1989 as an international non-profit organization formed and run by around 160 National Paralympic Committees (NPCs) from five regions and four disability specific international sports federations (IOSDs). The organization has a democratic constitution and structure, made up of elected representatives.

WORLD ANTI-DOPING AGENCY (WADA)

OC Rule 44- World Anti-Doping Code

The World Anti-Doping Code is mandatory for the whole Olympic Movement

WADA is one of the main two “satellite” organizations of the Olympic movement. Its creation born in a World Anti-Doping Conference promoted by the IOC and, as Dick Pound states, “*With such a diverse membership and therefore differing levels of knowledge and expertise, the early stages of organization were complex. Among governments, there was considerable concern that WADA was just another emanation of the IOC*”¹.

According to article 4 of the Constitutive Instrument of Foundation of the World Anti-Doping Agency, WADA’s object is to promote and coordinate at international level the fight against doping in sport in all its forms. WADA is a foundation which seat is Lausanne, thus it is a private body submitted to Swiss law. Even though- and this is a very particular legal situation- public authorities represent half of the members of WADA.

Since the World Anti-Doping Code was emanated by this private body, governments will only incorporate it in their own legislations

¹ Dick Pound, *Inside the Olympics*, John Wiley & Sons Canada Ltd., Canada 2004, p. 75.

through the approval of a UNESCO global convention against doping in sport and afterwards its ratification.

COURT OF ARBITRATION FOR SPORT (CAS)

OC Rule 61- Disputes-Arbitration

Any dispute arising on the occasion of, or in connection with, the Olympic Games, shall be submitted exclusively to the Court of Arbitration for Sport, in accordance with the Code of Sports-Related Arbitration.

CAS is an institution independent of any sports organisation which provides for services in order to facilitate the settlement of sports-related disputes through arbitration or mediation¹ by means of procedures that are adapted to the specific needs of the sports world.

Under the administrative and financial authority of the International Council of Arbitration for Sport, CAS is based in Lausanne.

To CAS can be submitted non technical disputes of a private nature arising out of the practice or development of sport, and, in a general way, all activities pertaining to sport whose settlement is not provided for in the Olympic Charter. Such disputes may bear on questions of principle relating to sport or on pecuniary or other interests.

Thus, the CAS is not competent to resolve disputes involving technical questions, such as may arise out of the rules of a particular sport and the like, nor disputes to be resolved by the IOC or other means of settlement prescribed by the OC. The CAS has residual competence, therefore, to resolve disputes as the following: contracts for the sale of sports equipment; refusal of an athlete participation in the Olympic games, disputes arising when a national sporting body bans an athlete

¹ These ADR methods have plenty of advantages, such as the following: speed; cost savings; confidentiality; control and flexibility; adaptation to business relations; independence.

for a doping offence and the athlete appeals the decision; disputes regarding application of IF Statutes; disputes between a competitor and a governing body arising from the selection process for a representative event; transfer disputes involving players, their clubs and, on occasions, their governing bodies; contractual disputes between competitors and managers, promoters, etc; disputes between teams as to the organisation of their sport; sponsorships contracts, etc.

3. The Olympic Movement: A Legal Approach

“Pour un juriste et, plus précisément, pour un avocat en exercice, les questions juridiques soulevées dans le cadre du Mouvement Olympique sont à tel point nébuleuses que beaucoup évitent de les analyser, de les approfondir, dans la mesure où, avec les temps, une sorte de “statut” original semble s’être affirmé, généralement accepté, mais qui ne résisterait guère à une critique juridique sérieuse.”, M.D.Gagas, “Problèmes juridiques du mouvement olympique contemporain”, AIO- Trente sixième session 19 Juin- 2 Juillet 1996, Ancienne Olympie, IOC, 1998, p. 123.

OC, Introduction to the Olympic Charter

The Olympic Charter is the codification of the Fundamental Principles, Rules and By-laws adopted by the IOC. It governs the organization and operation of the Olympic Movement and stipulates the conditions for the celebration of the Olympic Games. (...)

The Rules of the OC are the statute of IOC; By-laws correspond to the regulation of IOC- they are the explanation of some laconic rules and intend to be interpretative and to reinforce the operationallity of the major principles of the Charter.

We can define the Olympic Charter (OC) as the normative expression of the OM, the primary regulation of the Olympic order,

or even the OM Constitution. It has a universal legislative value, due to an extra-judicial coercive power: a non-formal legislative way with substantial material legal admission and recognition by public and private entities.

Once, J.A. Samaranch said that the OC is the Bible of Olympism. This sacralization of this basic instrument shows clearly that the foundation pact of Olympism intends to be autonomous and superior to the public legislation, i.e., there is a legal extraneity of the OC.

As any other fundamental text, the OC determinates the objectives of the OM, provides its organisation and rules OM functioning. It contains typical public law rules, such as the exclusive competency of an NOC to represent a country, and simultaneously have typical private rules, such as the propriety of the Games regime.

The OC provides executive powers- e.g. the selection of the host city-, legislative powers- the modification of rules, and judiciary powers- the appreciation of the rules respect. It defines the main reciprocal rights and obligations of the three main constituents of the OM.

As the Olympic bill of rights, the OC is the text that defines the Olympic and the international legal order and which can be considered as the only and the particular text of the universal constitutional bill of rights for sports. Its best evidence international custom pertaining to sports competition, although they were intended to be used only within the organization. Some rules have only an internal or organizational function, but several are definitive- thus, the OM is a sort of chosen agent of the international legal order.

Some authors say that it is a super active legislation, with plenty of amendments, which are too confusing for the IOC members themselves, as well as for the NOCs and IFs, to keep track of. Some amended rules are incompatible with corresponding, but unamended rules. Finally there is the annual change in the numbering of the rules, which completes the picture of confusion.

In 1984, a federal court of the United States confirmed the special status of the OC, observing as follows: *“The Olympic Games are organized and conducted under the terms of an international agreement- the Olympic Charter. We are extremely hesitant to undertake the application of one state’s statute to alter an event that is staged with competitors from the entire world under the terms of that agreement”*.

For the extent of this paper, we have chosen only a few Olympic legal aspects arising from the OC, which are some of the main ones that shall be known, analysed or criticised. In some of the following aspects, we allow ourselves to ask some questions.

THE COOPTATION SYSTEM

OC, Rule 16- Members

1.2. The IOC recruits and elects its members from among such eligible persons as it considers qualified.

This rule provides an “inverted representation system”: IOC co-opts its membership on the basis of their representation to, not from, other organizations- namely, to officially recognized national federations and committees. Thus, IOC members are representatives of and not to the IOC.

Instead of a typical democratic-pyramidal structure, it is a hierarchical-descendent one, similar to the Catholic Church and the Red Cross systems.

This means to ensure the independence of the former against any influences or pressures: IOC opted by cooperation rather than subordination, willing to avoid dependence on economic, financial, political, religious and technical pressures. In this context, members do not accept- either officially or unofficially- any mandate from any national organization and are not connected in any way with the material interests in the world of sports. However, one could hardly

suppose that an IOC member does not accord a certain priority- consciously or subconsciously- to some specific interests of his country or to his favourite sport.

OLYMPIC GAMES AS A COMPETITION

OC, Rule 6- Olympic Games

1. The Olympic Games are competitions between athletes in individual or team events and not between countries.

Undoubtedly, the Olympic Games are indeed, contests between individuals. Yet, the Olympic Games are more than that, since they are contests between individuals who have been sent by their respective NOCs to defend the flag of their nations. As far as we are concerned, OC should state that Olympic Games are “contests between sportsmen who take part in individual and team competitions”.

CESSATION OF IOC MEMBERSHIP

OC, Rule 16- Members

3.5. Any IOC member (...) shall cease to be a member if he has transferred his domicile or main centre of interests to a country other than the country that was his at the time of his election.

Were the Charter states that an IOC member is not his country's delegate to the IOC there would be no purpose in divesting him from membership if he no longer has his domicile or his main centre of interests in the country of the NOC. Is this loss of membership logic, coherent and consistent? This displays the lack of justification for the claim that an IOC member represents the IOC in his country.

NOC'S POLITICAL INDEPENDANCE

OC, Rule 31- Country and name of an NOC

“5. (...) Nevertheless, the NOCs shall preserve their autonomy and resist all pressures of any kind, including those of a political (...) nature”

Is it possible not to infringe this rule in the case of Italy, applying for CONI's case, or in plenty of eastern countries, where the NOC is not only private but also public?

THE CONCEPT OF COUNTRY

OC, Rule 31- Country and name of an NOC

“In the Olympic Charter the expression “country” means an independent State recognised by the international community”.

In the former text of this rule, “country” was considered to be any country, state, territory or part of territory which the IOC in its absolute discretion considered as the area of a recognized NOC- this discretionary distinction of territorial legitimacy allowed the IOC to be truly universal in its membership; it was an answer to Coubertin's view: a territorial geography is different from a sports geography.

However with the decolonisation processes and political problems, IOC had to be more prudent and adapted to the international relations world, avoiding external pressures and influences and running away from conflicts.

COMPETITORS CHANGE OF NATIONALITY

OC, By-law to Rule 42- Nationality of competitors

(...)

2. A competitor who has represented one country in the Olympic Games, in continental or regional games or in world or regional championships recognized by the relevant IF, and who has changed

his nationality or acquired a new country until three years after such change or acquisition. This period may be reduced or even cancelled with the agreement of the NOCs and IF concerned and the approval of the IOC Executive Board.

First of all, this rule is neglectful in what regards statelessness cases. In our opinion this lacuna can be solved with the following reasoning: under international public law, the notion of statelessness was deemed to include both de jure and the facto statelessness. Rule 42 was thus construed broadly to include de facto statelessness. Similarly, the words “has changed nationality” included in such provision were regarded as encompassing not only a change from one nationality to another, but equally a change from one nationality to none, that is to statelessness.

Secondly, we would like to stress that this rule- similar to the majority of IF rules- violates all the “Nationality Laws” of the NOCs countries. In fact, according to those legislations, once a citizen changes his nationality, he can not be discriminated on grounds of nationality. There is no period of adaptation, i.e., the new nationality gives all the rights immediately.

OLYMPIC TRUCE VIOLATION

There are no penalties for every country which violate the conditions of armistice, due to the fact that the rules of IOC for a similar subject do not bind any country. In fact, the Charter would find ground only if in the constitution of the Olympic Games took part the State, or with its participation in an international organization; or by undertaking in a common ground the country itself to organize the Olympic Games directly and not indirectly.

ATHLETES INDIVIDUAL RIGHT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE OLYMPIC GAMES

Bye-Law to Rule 41- Eligibility Code

Each IF establishes its sport's own eligibility criteria in accordance with the Olympic Charter.

Every athlete's dream is to participate in the Olympic Games at least once in her or his life. However, it can also happen that an athlete, although qualified and eligible, is ignored by the National Federation or International Federation for other reasons and is therefore not nominated by the National Olympic Committee.

First of all, we must say that despite the seemingly exclusive competence of the NOCs to enter athletes, it follows that it is the athlete himself who applies for participation, taking into account that he must sign the Entry Form and agree by his signatures to comply with further rules and inherent principles.

According to Georg Engelbrecht¹- who takes into consideration the CAS ad hoc commissions case law- there are few situations in which the IOC can be obliged to enter an athlete without an entry form submitted by the IOC. The following situations are, though, conceivable:

"1- The IOC has discretion to decide the acceptance of competitors from countries whose organisational structures have broken down due to war or civil war in keeping with its overall responsibility for the Olympic Games.

2. If a NOC- like in Bassani and Billington cases- arrives at the national decision not to participate in the Olympic Games, for example because of a political boycott, no third instance (e.g. national courts or

¹ Engelbrecht, Georg, "The individual right to participate in the Olympic Games", The International Sports Law Journal, 2004/1-2, TMC Asser Institute, p. 13.

the CAS) may contest this national decision, even though it goes against Rule 31.7 OC. However, in these cases the IOC has an unenforceable right, to be granted at its discretion, to issue a 2wild card” to athletes affected by such a boycott.

3. In cases like the Kibunde case, where formalities were neglected through no fault of the athlete or of any organisation within the Olympic Movement, it depends on the organiser’s and the other competitors’ interests whether the subsequent entry of an additional competitor may be permitted. The CAS must have competence to deal with cases such as these.

4. If a NOC refuses to enter a competitor in an allegedly discriminatory or otherwise illegal way and contrary to the relevant Rules or regulations, and the IOC supports these actions, a direct claim to the CAS must be allowed.

5. In all cases where a National or International Federation prevents the NOC (for example, by giving the wrong recommendations or decisions concerning eligibility or in qualifying competitions) from supplying the athlete with a valid entry form, the final right of acceptance lies with the IOC. This right must also be subject to the legal supervision of the CAS.”

AMBUSH MARKETING

OC, Rule 7- Rights over the Olympic Games and Olympic properties

- 1. The Olympic Games are the exclusive property of the IOC which owns all rights and data relating thereto, in particular, and without limitation, all rights relating to the organization, exploitation, broadcasting, recording, representation, reproduction, access and dissemination in any form and by any means or mechanism whatsoever, whether now existing or developed in the future.*

There is no doubt that it exist a big corporate sponsorship associated to the Olympic Games. Though, it is decisive the protection

of Olympic marks and symbols from the marauding expeditions of those intent on manipulating the name and global mystique of the Games for their own business means and, of course, without paying for the privilege to do so- an ambush or parasitic marketing.

In fact, it is crucial to fight against businesses or companies who engage in ambush marketing, seeking to capitalise on, and profit financially from an association with the Games without having to spend time and money obtaining an official association with the event.

Besides the OC, there are some legal documents that can apply to these kinds of cases.

First of all, there is the “Nairobi Treaty on the Protection of the Olympic Symbol (1981)”. All States which are party to the Treaty are under the obligation to protect the Olympic symbol—five interlaced rings—against use for commercial purposes (in advertisements, on goods, as a mark, etc.) without the authorization of the IOC.

An important effect of the Treaty is that, if the IOC grants authorization for the use of the Olympic symbol in a State party to the Treaty, the National Olympic Committee of that State is entitled to a part in any revenue the International Olympic Committee obtains for granting the said authorizations.

Another important document is “The IOC Olympic Marks and Imagery Usage Handbook”, that defines “Ambush Marketing” as “*a planned attempt by a third party to associate itself directly or indirectly with the Olympic Games to gain the recognition and benefits associated with being an Olympic Partner*”.

Finally, “SOCOG Sponsors Operation Manual” refers to Ambush Marketing as “*advertising, communications or any activity undertaken by a person or organisation which implies that person or organisation is associated with the Olympic Games, when in fact it is not*”.

The main remedies available to control and combat ambush marketing are contracts, trade marks infringements, copyright

infringements, regulatory measures, brand protection, clean venue policy and city billboard control programs.

OLYMPIC CHARTER ENTRY INTO FORCE

At present the Charter lacks a text stating when should a new rule come into force- whether right after it has been adopted by the IOC, or after the NOCs and IFs have been notified.

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AN EXAMINATION OF ELITE DISABLED SPORT IN THE DEVELOPING WORLD AND OLYMPIC SOLIDARITY

Mr Eric Porcellato (CAN)

If I want to be the world champion in the marathon, and I am committed to the training and lifestyle that will make me a world-class athlete, then no lack of opportunity should stand in my way. If I want to get up at 6:00 a.m. to go push 26 miles on a daily basis for months at a time, I should not be prohibited from doing so by a set of steps that leads up to the training path. In addition, I should be able to say with pride that I am a wheelchair marathoner, and that in defining my course I have the right to be a member of [a] Paralympic Team. This is a human right.

-Cheri Baluwet

American Paralympic Athlete

The Games of the XXVIII Olympiad in Athens, Greece reflected an ongoing global movement to affirm all peoples with their right to participate in sport. At these games, as has been tradition since 1984, Paralympic athletes were invited to compete alongside their compatriots and fellow athletes on the world stage of the Olympic Games. For those competitors in the Women's 800 meter and the Men's 1500 meter wheelchair races, their status as elite athletes was recognized before their status as belonging to the world's largest visible minority group, people with a disability.

Despite the significance of this achievement, the struggle for equality and access to sport continues to be the greatest challenge for the Paralympic Movement. Although the United Nations Declaration for Human Rights and the Olympic Charter both affirm the right to sport for all human beings, formidable challenges exist for disabled athletes, particularly those from developing countries. The potential for such athletes to break free of traditional negative stereotyping and excel in their disciplines is burdened by a variety of social, economic, and cultural barriers. In the absence of identifying and addressing these concerns, there is threat that the Paralympic Movement will continue to flourish in the developed world, while the majority of the world's disabled peoples will be unable to reap the holistic benefits of sport participation.

Already there exists a clear advantage for Paralympic athletes from developing nations. For example, the entire field of the Women's 800 meter wheelchair final represented a developed western nation. In comparison, the able bodied Women's 800 meter final included two competitors from the African continent, one of whom was Mozambique's Maria Mutola winner of several world championships and an Olympic gold medal during the Sydney 2000 games. Furthermore, no competitors in the Men's 1500 wheelchair final represented an African country. However, the able-bodied final featured 7 athletes from that continent. Considering that 80% of the world's 800 million disabled people live in a developing nation (Albrecht et al, 2000), addressing issues such as this is necessary in achieving de Coubertin's Olympic vision, and in affirming Article 12 of the Olympic Charter: "to encourage and support the development of sport for all" (IOC, 2004).

It is the intent of this paper to examine the benefits of elite disabled participation in the developing world, identify major barriers incurred by these athletes, and examine the inconsistencies between the philosophy and the implementation of the Olympic Solidarity program.

Personal, Social, and Economic Benefits of Sport in Developing Nations

Utilizing sport as a tool for development has potential to play a significant role in the developing world. The majority of the world's disabled people live in a developing nation, where their disabilities hinder economic growth and place unnecessary burden on other support systems. Promoting elite disabled sports in such nations contributes to the Sport-for-All double-pyramid theory (IOC, 2000). This theory suggests that promoting grassroots sporting initiatives may eventually lead to the development of elite athletes who may become Olympians. In turn these elite athletes become role models for younger generations and encourage more youth to participate in grassroots initiatives, furthering the development of elite athletes in a cyclical manner.

The benefits of persons with a disability participating in sport and physical activity have been well documented. However, it is estimated that 56% of people with a disability do not participate in daily exercise, significantly increasing the probability that they will develop a chronic disease (Rimmer, 2004). The International Paralympic Committee (2005) reports that athletes can significantly reduce the risk of health problems such as obesity and its secondary health concerns through sports participation. In addition, participating in sport, especially for athletes who have acquired an injury late in life can regain the greatest amount of functional mobility (IPC, 2005). It is reported that muscle strength, dexterity and coordination can be maintained or even improved in people who participate in physical activity after an injury. A study by Hicks (2003) found that aside from improved maximal power and strength, a 9 month training program also significantly improved the levels of stress, pain, and depression reported by subjects.

Furthermore, for populations that have been negatively affected by the trauma of war and violence, sport is an effective tool in tool in addressing post-traumatic stresses and developing positive self image.

Sport can also help promote social acceptance of disabled persons. In some areas, it is believed that disabilities are linked to witchcraft, or a curse of God or gods (Groce & Zola, 1993). Participating in sports at all levels allows disabled athletes to interact with others, fostering grounds on which relationships can be built, improving communication skills and empowering the individual athlete (IPC, 2005). Sport can provide a powerful medium through which negative stereotypes are overcome. For example, after her Gold medal winning performance in the Women's 800 meter wheelchair race, Canadian Chantal Petitclerc was named Canada's top female athlete for 2004. In developing nations, the lack of opportunity for athletes like Petitclerc would forego any opportunity for such accomplishments to be recognized. Misinformed stereotypes, like the ones faced by disabled athletes can influence social interaction between community members and the individual, increasing the potential for mental and physical health problems, affecting economic opportunities.

Securing a sustainable means of acquiring income increases productivity, reducing social welfare costs, and financial dependence on families and friends. The relationship between disabled sport and health could potentially further reduce the burden on health care and economic systems. For example, in the United States, it was found that for every \$1 spent on physical activity, \$3.20 was saved in medical costs (Pratt, 2000). In developing countries, it is very difficult for a person with a disability to secure a job, in some nations the employment rates for people with a disability is as low as 1 percent (Beresford, 1996). This furthers the argument for promoting sport for disabled populations in the developing world; sport promotes mental and physical well being reducing a substantial burden on economic and health care systems. In addition, sport can change social perceptions of disabled populations, while promoting employment opportunities which further contribute to overall national development. Crawford (2004) reported that some Paralympic athletes who competed in

international events would save their competition stipends and use the money to start their own small business!

Barriers of Elite Disabled Athletes in the Developing World

In light of the understood relationship between sport and personal, social, and economic well-being, disabled athletes from developing nations face significant barriers. Although hardships in amateur sport are common place, especially for Paralympic athletes, the challenges faced by athletes in developing nations seriously impedes the development of sport, and infringes on the multiple benefits that sport can reap in such nations. Financial limitations present the greatest challenge for elite disabled athletes in the developing world. Due to insufficient incomes, many potential athletes do not even train or compete in Paralympic sport (Crawford, 2004). Economic constraints often mean that potential athletes cannot afford to participate in sport, or that their lack of reliable income prevents them from taking time away from income generating activities. This barrier is believed to have the greatest impact on potential female athletes, who due to the negative societal perceptions of both their disability and sex, they are often completely dependant on their family for their welfare. The economics of their situation means that many potential world champions will never train or compete in their sport.

Former American Paralympic athlete Jana Crawford identified 4 major barriers for elite disabled athletes in the developing world in her interviews of Paralympic athletes, officials, and administrators in Nairobi, Kenya. Aside from those mentioned financial limitations, the barriers identified were: the lack of qualified coaches, the limited availability of equipment, inadequate facilities, and the negative attitude towards people with disabilities (ibid).

Lack of Qualified Coaches

Problems relating to coaching were identified as the most frequently cited challenge by both the athletes and administrators interviewed by Crawford (ibid). Within this problem several specific challenges were identified, including inconsistent coaching, low qualifications of coaches, and funding for coaches. All but one of the athletes interviewed in the Crawford study trained without a coach, although volunteer coaches had been designated to each team and sport. Often these coaches would not be involved in training, or would only appear in order to attend international events. Furthermore, coaches had little or no coaching qualifications or experience, especially concerning disabled sport, lacking knowledge in rules, maneuvers, strategy, and training techniques (ibid). Interviewed athletes would also complain that coaches would compare the disabled athletes to able bodied athletes, completely oblivious to the inherent differences in the sports. Because coaching disabled athletes is often a volunteer position, some interviewed coaches reasoned that making money for food and bills was often a higher priority than coaching. Those coaches who do volunteer time were accused by the athletes as having a hidden agenda of promoting their status within the organization and accompanying athletes during international competitions.

Limited Availability of Equipment

For disabled athletes, proper functioning equipment is an essential element of sport participation. Mobility equipment such as wheelchairs is necessary in order to compete in many of the Paralympic sports. This specialized equipment is extremely expensive and difficult to maintain, especially for chronically under or unemployed populations. Most of the specialized equipment used by disabled Paralympic athletes are donations from other National Paralympic Committees. However, advancements in technology have

made such chairs outdated (Crawford, 2004). As stated by a Kenyan Paralympic athlete, "If we can get special wheelchairs, we would have many good disabled athletes" (ibid., p. 71)

Aside from the difficulties of being competitive with little or no specialized equipment, Paralympic athletes in the developing world have tremendous difficulty in securing simple basic sporting equipment; the balls, weights, and rackets necessary for training and competing. Many of the athletes interviewed by Crawford remarked that they could not secure general equipment for their sport, the costs of purchasing equipment too great, and its availability too scarce. Often Paralympic athletes in the developing world are forced to use equipment that is the wrong size and weight, or they were forced to design and manufacture their own basic sport equipment in order to train. Some athletes even commented that they would regularly forego meals in order to save money and buy sporting equipment.

Inadequate Facilities

Aside from the lack of qualified coaches and the limited availability of equipment, Paralympic athletes in the developing world are also impeded by inadequate training facilities. There are far fewer training facilities in developing nations as compared to developed nations. Thus, gymnasiums, weight rooms, and other training facilities are used by many people, including able-bodied elite athletes, developing athletes, the general public, and Paralympians. Crawford (2004) found in her interviews with elite Paralympic athletes that the national Paralympic basketball team was allotted two 2-hour practices a week. However, this time was often cut short by other programs that would continue to use the gymnasium beyond their allotted times. Citing a lack of respect for Paralympic sports, the interviewed athletes commented that such blatant disregard for their training was apparent in all aspects of facility use, including gymnasium time and

weight room injustices. Furthermore, the quality of facilities in the developing world presents a challenge for training athletes. Not only are there fewer facilities, but they were not built to accommodate disabled athletes, meaning that accessing levels or even gymnasiums often means negotiating sets of stairs. Finally, seeing as training facilities do not exist in rural areas, disabled elite athletes are often forced to move to the closest training centers, usually a major city. However, due to the difficulties of obtaining sustainable income, these athletes are often forced to live on the outskirts of town, meaning they must endure long and relatively expensive commutes into the city in order to train.

Negative Attitudes towards People with Disabilities

Another related barrier identified in the development of elite athletes in developing nations was the negative attitudes held by the general public and the government towards people with a disability. A lack of understanding of the needs and conditions of people with disabilities is the foundation of many constraints to the development of elite disability sport in developing nations (Crawford, 2004). Many athletes complain of being perceived negatively or viewed as inferior. Others are frustrated with the reluctance of their society to view them as valuable members, especially after experiencing warm receptions in other parts of the world during international competitions (ibid.).

The negative perceptions towards these athletes are also apparent in the allocation of government funding to elite disabled sport. Despite numerous attempts to solicit funding from the national government, Crawford reported that the requests of many NPO's were rejected.

The reluctance of media to take Paralympic sports seriously further frustrates the efforts of athletes. Some interviewers argued that media attention would legitimize the Paralympic movement, positively influencing societal and governmental perceptions, possibly opening

up opportunities for disabled elite athletes in the future. However, the willingness of the media to cover such events would have to stem from societal interest or government pressure, neither of which appears to happen in the imminent future.

As illustrated through Crawford's research, becoming an elite disabled athlete in the developing world is a monumental challenge. Many potential athletes are simply unable to take up a sport due to financial limitations. Those athletes who are able to engage in their right to sport are further impeded by a variety of barriers that hinder both their training and their performance. Works that identify such barriers are an important part of overcoming these obstacles and ensuring that all athletes are given equal chances to showcase their talents in the international setting.

Olympic Solidarity and Sport for All

To this point, this paper has highlighted the potential benefits of sport participation for the disabled. Included were potential increases to personal health, the overcoming of negative stereotypes and benefits to national economic development. Also identified were some major barriers to elite sport participation for athletes living in developing nations. In this section I introduce the Olympic Solidarity program, its philosophy, and question why, given the known benefits and barriers of elite sport participation and the organizational purpose of Olympic Solidarity, are Olympic Solidarity programs not available to disabled athletes and coaches.

I will begin by clarifying some concepts relating to Olympic Values which are the core of Olympic Solidarity, and then discuss some pertinent aspects of the International Paralympic Committee. First, Olympic Solidarity aims to encourage and promote the Olympic Values and fundamental principles of the Olympic Movement as dictated by the Olympic Charter. In light of recent commercialization

and widespread morally questionable conduct in and surrounding the games, it may be necessary to identify what is meant by Olympic Values and the principles of the Olympic Movement. According to the Olympic Charter (2004) these values include, but are not limited to, respect, development, peace, dignity, friendship, solidarity, fair-play, and non-discrimination. Furthermore, although the IOC and the IPC are similar in that they share a common philosophy, Olympism, and common medium, sport, they are at their very core unique and independent organizations. The autonomy of the IPC is essential to their providing sport for the disabled. It adamantly opposes any sort of merge with the IOC in order to protect its own identity, purpose, and existence. This does not mean that both organizations have not entered into some formal relationships, for instance the organizing committees of the Olympic Games are also responsible for hosting the Paralympic Games using the same venues after the Olympic Games are finished.

The idea of creating a program that sponsored the NOC's of countries who had recently gained independence was first introduced to the IOC in 1960's. Although the program has endured several name changes, the underlying philosophy of the organization has remained the same. Olympic Solidarity aims to organize a "comprehensive assistance program to help NOCs, and through them, the development of sport and the Olympic ideals" (Olympic Solidarity, 2004, p. 4). This is achieved through the implementation of several objectives, which first and foremost is the promotion of the fundamental principles of the Olympic Movement (Olympic Solidarity, 2000). In order to assure that IOC politics do not affect its management or interfere with its programs, Olympic Solidarity operates under full financial, technical, and administrative independence. However, it is inherently connected to the IOC as it is the product of the Organization and is fully funded through the sale of TV rights of the Olympic Games. For the 2005-2008 period, Olympic Solidarity's operating budget will exceed \$244,000,000 USD (Olympic Solidarity, 2004). These funds are generally divided into

two programs; the World Program and the Continental Programs. The World Program, which is managed by Olympic Solidarity's head office, oversees the development and strengthening all aspects of sports in accordance to the Olympic Charter (ibid.). The Continental programs, on the other hand, are managed by specific Continental Associations, who focus funding on the specific needs of each individual continent. The World Program includes twenty initiatives that provide funds in four necessary aspect of sport: athlete/team development, coach development, NOC development and management, and the promotion of Olympic Values. Despite its origins, and commitment to the Olympic Values and Movement, Olympic Solidarity offers no programs that are directly accessible to disabled populations. I argue that since the objective of Olympic Solidarity is to promote Olympic Values, this presents a paradox between the organization's philosophy and program they implement.

It is argued that Olympic Solidarity is a program, independent of the Olympic Games and the IOC, which aims to promote general and elite sport development while cultivating an understanding of the Olympic Values and Principles that are found in the Olympic Charter. These values and principles include respect, development, inclusion, and dignity. In addition, the Olympic Charter also upholds the right to sport, it states; "The practice of sport is a human right. Every individual must at least have the possibility of practicing sport" (International Olympic Committee, 2004, p. 9). Although the IOC and IPC are independent organizations, they share a common philosophy, Olympism. However, according to the actions of Olympic Solidarity, the differences between the able-bodies athletes and disabled athletes warrants exclusion form their programs, this is unjust discrimination.

Interestingly, Olympic Solidarity does not define the eligibility criteria for its organization, but appears to automatically exclude athletes who do not compete in the Olympic Games, raising several

questions about the purpose of Olympic Solidarity and their intentions. How can a program that is developed to promote the right to sport for all blatantly disregard the world's largest minority? Even more perplexing, given that Olympic Solidarity openly promotes inclusion, sport for all, and double-pyramid theory, why does Olympic Solidarity not provide 'solidarity' to aspiring elite disabled athletes? Olympic Solidarity offers programs that focus on improving coaching qualifications, access to equipment, and even facilities; all of which were identified by Crawford (2004) as barriers to elite sport participation for the disabled! I argue that limiting funding to only able bodied athletes conflicts with Olympic Solidarity's purpose and philosophy, as such action must be taken to ensure all athletes can be included so that they may exercise their right to sport.

Conclusions

An examination of the Olympic Solidarity program, its philosophies, and principles clearly illustrate that elite disabled athletes are being discriminated against based on their physical limitations. I argue that this exclusion of disabled athletes is in opposition to the fundamental principles of the Olympic Charter, and further hinders the development of elite disabled sport in the developing world. Due to the significant barriers they face many elite disabled athletes are unable to begin or continue with their training, limiting the opportunity for them to inspire others. According the double pyramid theory this may have a detrimental effect on the development of a emerging nation. Recall that citizens who are active are less susceptible to develop various diseases or conditions, and are more likely to benefit from the psychological effects that sport can play. Aside from the physical and mental benefits, it is also believed that sport can play an important role in overcoming negative stereotypes concerning disabled populations, and can promote understanding, respect, and social interactions. The

social acceptance of disabled populations, especially in developing nations, is an instrumental aspect of economic development; it fosters personal economic independence and decreases social and familial welfare costs, diverting money into other necessary programs including sport.

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THE PREPARATION OF A DIVISION 4-CYCLIST WITH CEREBRAL PALSY FOR COMPETITION

Ms Susanne FERREIRA (RSA)

Introduction

All athletes strive to improve from a starting point to reach the limits of their potential and their dreams. Their tools are a combination of effective training, a sound nutrition plan, the right outlook and suitable equipment. Although your genetic potential is a given, there are certain planning strategies to rise to the optimal level of your potential.

Athletes with disabilities start their road to high performance sport in 1948 when the Stoke Mandeville Hospital in England routinely used sport as part of physical therapy in the spinal cord unit. Today athletes with disabilities compete in the Paralympic Games, the highest level of achievement for an athlete with a disability, as well as the parallel of the Olympic Games.

Preparation has been a vital part for excellence in performance since the Ancient Olympic Games. History tells us that before the Ancient Olympic Games, the athletes needed to take an oath that they had prepared for ten months before the games as well as attending a month long training session before the games.

Although athletes with disabilities are competing at a high performance level, minimal research has been done on the preparation of athletes with disabilities. There is therefore minimal knowledge

about the effects of training on the performance of these athletes. The purpose of the study was to enhance the knowledge about the training of a high performance cyclist with cerebral palsy as well as to provide sport science support to the cyclist for performance enhancement. The study focused on the effect of training as well as monitoring the periodization programme of the cyclist.

The Case Study

A case study approach was taken in this research designed to explore the usefulness of sport science support to a cyclist with cerebral palsy in Division 4, who competed in the road race events, as well as on the track.

What is Cerebral Palsy? Cerebral palsy is a term that refers to a collection of skeletal muscle control problems caused by brain lesions. Cerebral palsy can be acquired before birth, during the birth process or as the result of trauma to the developing brain. The area of the brain lesion determines the severity and type of cerebral palsy.

Cyclists competing in the cerebral palsy class are classified according to their severity of cerebral palsy. There are four classes or “divisions” for competition:

Division 1: The most severe cerebral palsy; competes on a tricycle

Division 2: Less affected than Division 1, and most of the time their balance is affected. Sometimes these cyclists are eligible in division 3 as well, but choose to cycle in Division 2 where they compete on a tricycle.

Division 3: Competes on a bicycle; less affected than Division 2.

Division 4: The least affected cyclist; hemiplegic or monoplegic cyclists and who compete on bicycles as well.

The medical description of the cyclist for this case study was a hemiplegic, spastic, cerebral palsied cyclist. Hemiplegic means that only one side of his body is affected, and spasticity refers to the hypertonicity

of the muscles. When movement occurs in a non-spastic person, the agonist muscle contracts and the antagonist muscle relaxes. In the spastic person, the antagonist muscle does not relax but rather reacts towards the stretch with a contraction that results in “blocking” or partially “blocking” the movement. This reaction is due to a hyperactive stretch-reflex.

A cyclist competing in Division 4 competes in four races: a road time trial race, a road race that can vary between 35km-70km, and a 1km standing start time trail on the track as well as a 3000m individual pursuit on the track.

Influential Factors for Cycling Performance

The following factors were recognized to be important for cyclists to perform at their best:

- 1) Training.
- 2) Nutrition.
- 3) Psychology.
- 4) Body and bicycle.
- 5) Aerodynamics.

The primary aim was to focus only on sport science support for the cyclist's training. This was done by monitoring daily training, as well as implementing periodic testing.

- Quantification of Daily Training - The daily training was monitored by the use of daily training logs as well as heart rate monitors.

Training logs:

The positive aspects of training logs are that they:
Are easy to use.
Are not expensive.

The negative aspects of training logs are that they:

Do not provide an exact record of the days training.

Are unable to provide a record of training intensity; subjective vs. objective.

Get lost.

Are considered a nuisance to complete.

Heart rate monitors

The positive aspects of heart rate monitors are that:

They are easy to use if you have access to a computer.

They require no completion of logs, just a short summary.

They provide interesting visual feedback.

The data about performance is accurate.

The negative aspects of heart rate monitors are that:

Batteries can go “flat.”

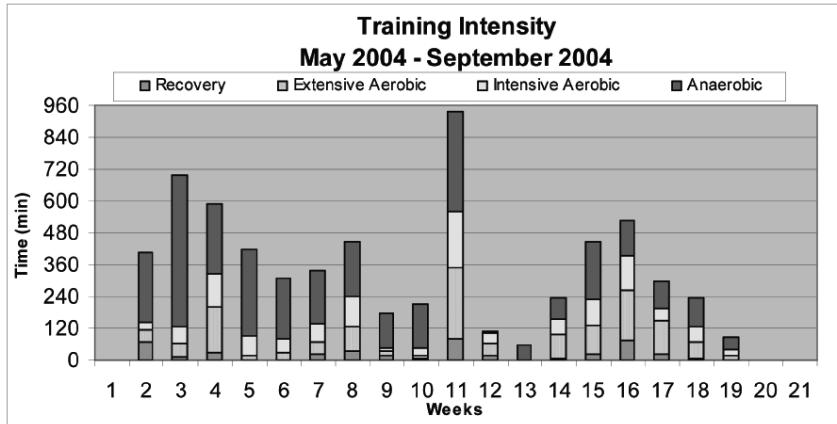
Cyclist can forget to start the hear rate monitor or forget to wear it.

No access to a computer can make their use difficult.

They are expensive to buy.

The training data used in this study was obtained by using a Polar heart rate monitor. Training information deduced was: Training intensity, duration and frequency.

1. Intensity and Duration



Recovery: <70% of HR Max

Extensive Aerobic: 70-75% of HR Max

Intensive Aerobic: 75-80% of HR Max

Anaerobic: >80% of HR Max

} TRAINING
INTENSITIES

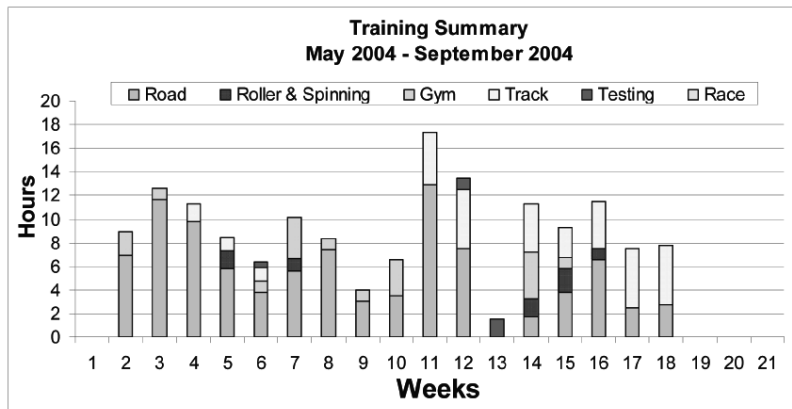
Comments: The cyclist's training intensities and training duration consisted of 2 x 6 weeks periods and 2 x 3 weeks periods, followed by the tapering period. The weeks of greatest training duration were weeks 11 & 12, when he trained 17hrs & 13hrs respectively. The graph does not correlate with the hours given, due to a heart rate monitor malfunction. His training logs were used to determine the true hours of training (see modalities and frequency graph). During weeks 11 and 12 a residential training camp was held.

The intensity of his training consists of a lot of anaerobic or high intensity training during the full periodization plan. The duration of training as well as the intensity indicates that he did not follow a true structured plan. Literature suggests that the duration of training should build up to a peak and then drop as intensity increases. The subject's training did not follow this ideal curve. During Week 19 the

holding camp before leaving South Africa for Athens took place, and one can see that that camp was not good for sustained training. The data of the last two weeks were the time spend in Athens, the athlete didn't feel comfortable to where his heart rate monitor as well as neglect to complete his training logs.

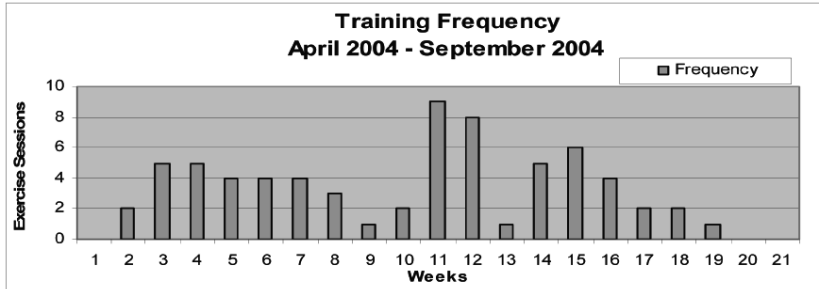
2. Training Modalities

The following graph gives an indication of the different training modalities the cyclist used:



Comments: The cyclist made use mostly of road and track training, with some gymnasium work. A lack of race fitness is evident by no races were raced before Athens Paralympic Games. Literature supports the inclusion of competition before the important race day, so lack of racing fitness was a weakness for this cyclist.

3. Training Frequency



Comments: Training frequency for the first 10 weeks averaged 4 times a week. During week 11 & 12 it picked up to an average of 8 exercises sessions, after which it dropped again. The ideal to have is no drastic changes in the frequency of training, but rather to create patterns of changes in terms of the duration and intensity of training. The high frequency of training during weeks 11 & 12 was due to the training camp when the cyclist was free from work commitments.

4. Periodic Evaluations using Laboratory Tests

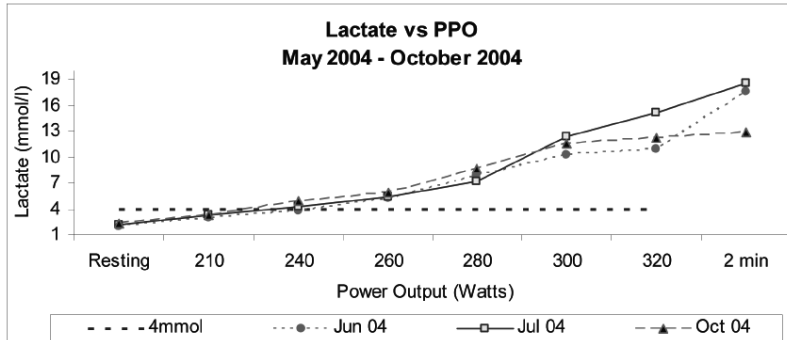
The following laboratory tests were conducted during the research period:

- 1) Power output with lactate on a Lode bike ergometer.
- 2) Peak Power Output – Wingate bike.

Power output on the Lode bike.

The cyclist's power output was tested on a Lode ergometer. The increments were increased every 150 seconds, and the test was completed when the cyclist could not cycle any more. The first increment increased with 30 watts and the increase in increments there after were 20 watts. Lactate was taken with lactate strips during the last 30 seconds of each workload.

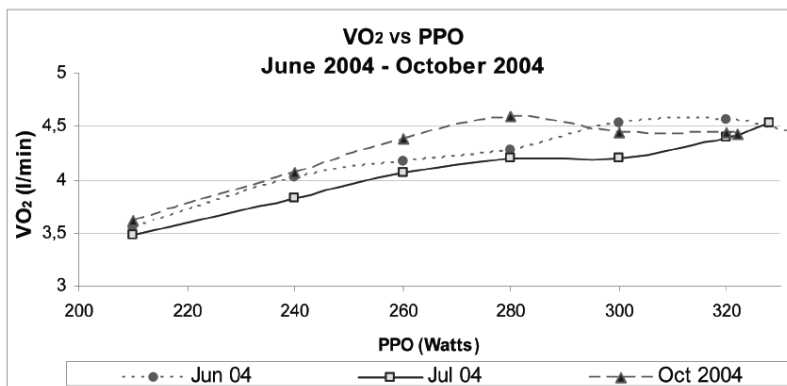
4.1. Power Output and Lactate



Comments: Anaerobic Threshold was taken as 4mmol/l. A shift in the graph from left to right indicates an improvement in lactate tolerance. Lactate tolerance is found to be a good indicator of endurance performance.

The graph indicates that during July 2004 (immediately after the training camp) the cyclist's lactate increased at 280 watts. The cyclist did complain of heavy and tired legs after the training camp and that could have influence his lactate results. There were no great improvements in lactate threshold.

4.2 Peak Power Output and VO_2 max



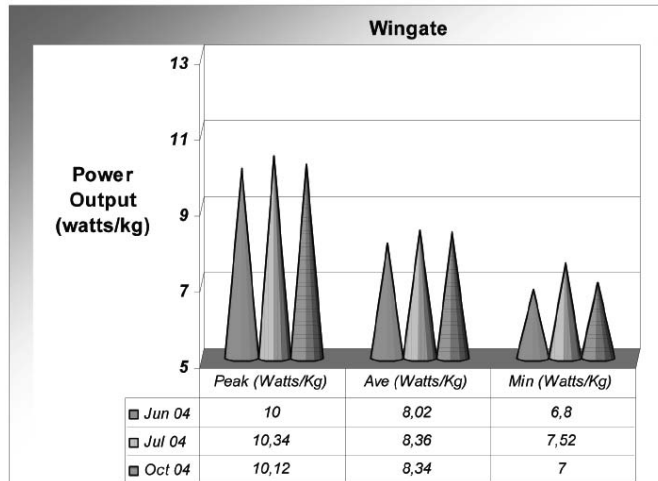
Comments: VO_2 is indicated on the graph in l/min to eliminate the variable, body mass. The cyclist's PPO was the highest during June 2004. During the July 2004 he stopped due to tired legs, which could be from the high amount of training he did the previous week.

To record improvements in $\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$, the graph shifts from the left to the right. The July graph indicates a good improvement in VO_2 efficiency up to 320 Watts. This indicates that the cyclist became more efficient through out his power range. The October 2004 graph is an indication of his performance 1 week after the major competition. The graph indicates a decrease in VO_2 efficiency. He did not train a lot during the 2 weeks of competition and this might have played a role. On the other hand he did not train a lot the 2 weeks before they left for Athens. These are four weeks that could have played a major role in efficiency.

Wingate

The Wingate test was conducted on a Monark 834E stationary bike that was connected to a computer. A resistance of 9.8% of body weight was used. The cyclist was asked to cycle as fast as possible, and on the test administrator's judgment, the resistance weight was released as maximum revolutions per minute were achieved.

4.3. Peak Power Output



Column 1 is the maximum power achieved.

Column 2 is the average power achieved.

Column 3 is the minimum power achieved.

Comments: The best maximum and average power output was achieved during the July 2004 testing. Little decrease in performance is found in the October 2004 testing. This is an indication that maximum power was either very good at competition time, that the two weeks of rest after the October testing did not hamper maximum power. Average power output is important to sustain power, for example, during the 3000m Pursuit.

Conclusions

- The training for a Division 4 cyclist with cerebral palsy is not much different from training a cyclist without cerebral palsy. Customizing training programmes are essential and the distances at which the cyclist competes must be taken into consideration when making

decisions about training volume, intensity and duration. The same principles structure training decisions for cyclists with cerebral palsy.

- The best testing results were achieved after the July 2004 training camp. Serious and focused training camps can have a huge influence on performance and should be incorporated into the training year. The reasons for the improvement after the training camps can be multiple. Motivation, focused training, enough rest etc can all influence the training situation.
- The cyclist's ability to follow a training plan can improve a lot, especially in terms of intensity and duration as well as planning. At least it is known that 15 hours per week of hard training for a cyclist in the Division 4 category is possible and does not reflect negatively on his performance. This is a sign that there is a lot more hard training possible for cyclists with cerebral palsy, than some coaches may have previously believed.
- More research is necessary to fully understand the effect of training on a cyclist with cerebral palsy.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GOVERNMENTAL AND NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS IN THE FIELD OF SPORT IN THE REPUBLIC OF SLOVENIA

Mr Marko Levovnik (SLO)

1. Introduction

Sports in the Republic of Slovenia was developing through different periods of political and social changes, which mostly reflected on increasing flexibility and independence of sport as one of most important activities and values in human life.

With constant changes of political systems and regulations, state and government were also changing views and ways of influencing and directing the work of the civil society in the field of sport.

I will try to stop at this point and focus on the situation today, the position of non-governmental organisations (associations) in the field of sport and their cooperation with government agencies and local communities in the field of sport in the Republic of Slovenia, as well as on the influence of the latter on the NGOs.

The problem of terminology can be noticed on several levels. First, the definition of non-governmental organisations. In the Republic of Slovenia we do not have a clear and legally determined definition of the term non-governmental organisations (NGO). For all terms used in this field it is important to have at least one of the characteristics, typical for civil society or non-governmental organisations (in our

case we are talking mostly about sports clubs and associations, private institutes, sports unions, ...).

As I have mentioned before, the idea of non-governmental organisations in our country is still quite undetermined. For that reason it is possible to have different terms describing organisations which have characteristics of non-governmental organisations in books and legislation: non-profitable organisations, non-lucrative organisations, institutions, associations, volunteer organisations and of course non-governmental organisations.

Besides, it is impossible to define and precisely determine who falls under obligations and rights appointed for non-governmental organisations (Šporar, 2002: 2).

2. Historical Development of Non-Governmental Organisations in the Republic of Slovenia

The origin and development of NOG's in Slovenian history has not been thoroughly researched because of the lack of corresponding literature. In spite of all that we can assume there has been a long history of organising on personal initiative and associating according to interests (Kolarič et al., 2002: 81).

Different forms of associations in Slovenia appeared quite early, in 7th and 8th century A.D. Those were various associations and unions of friends.

The real beginning of the NGO's development can be placed in the time when guilds, religious charities, church and secular foundations were starting to form, in 14th and 15th century A.D. At the time church had the leading role in those NGOs (Šporar, 2002: 1).

The next turning point in intensifying people's involvement in associations and other organisations (NGO) was the Bourgeois revolution in 1848. It brought numerous changes in legislation and

constitution: judicial norms regulating activities and management of these associations as well as freedom of gathering as one of constitutional rights (Kolarič et al., 2002: 80).

The March revolution was the essential turning point for Slovenian associations. It was the time the first associations were established on Slovenian territory. The Imperial patent, adopted in 1852, was the first legal note regarding associations.

Act on the right to assemble in associations, adopted in 1867, was the first Act managing the founding and activities of associations in this field.

Among the organised ways of satisfying the needs and interests in sport it became important to participate in sports associations which even then represented the base of an organised system in the field of sport. Slovenians' social life or their participating in sports associations can be described as extremely complex and rich and that indicates a general characteristic of associating on the grounds of common interest (Šport v Republiki Sloveniji, 1995: 95).

In that period first sports associations began to emerge in Slovenia. The first Slovenian sports association named Sokol was established in 1863. It was created in the manner of Czech sports associations. Its main task was to propagate national consciousness by performing and to compete with similar German associations. The formation of another sports association named Orel can be placed in the same time frame, but this association was distinctly catholic. Both associations were active until 1929 when they were banned (Šugman, 1998: 20-21).

Later on Slovenian national consciousness dictated the founding of associations which mostly invigorated the strength and confidence of Slovenian population. «Slovenska sokolska zveza» (Slovenian sokol union) was founded in 1905. A few years later its membership already consisted of 115 associations. Many other sports associations were established at that time, such as cycling, mountaineering and student

associations which founded new associations at different universities.

The industrial revolution in the 19th century brought numerous changes in the social life which dictated a faster development of different expert and vocational associations. First political parties were emerging as well at the same time.

Second World War, Socialist revolution and change of system in Slovenian territory caused the break with the tradition and an introduction of a totalitarian system. State itself took the leading, in fact monopolistic position in all fields of social life. In that period all ties with the past were cut and a strong public sector oriented towards satisfying the needs of the majority of population was established.

The tradition of non-profitable sector was interrupted, only associations, important in the Liberation front could continue their activities even though the legal grounds were much different than in times before World War II.

They were mostly fire fighting, sports, cultural, mountaineering and other similar associations. Church activities were almost completely prohibited and limited only to strictly religious matters.

A new constitution was adopted in 1974 and with it the politics of self-governing socialism, which started a new period in the development of NGOs. Citizens themselves began to give initiative for founding new NGOs, not only the state as the monopolistic manager. Despite several deficiencies, the Act made the founding of associations possible, which insured the interests could be expressed upwards, not only downwards.

NGOs gained more and more independence even though the communication with the state authorities was still quite weak and the state did not allow equal involvement in the production of collective goods (Černak–Meglič, 1994: 6-7).

At that time NGOs were developing at an extremely slow rate mostly because the state (state institutions and organisations)

behaved like a wicked stepmother towards them, especially in terms of financial stimulation. State did not provide any financial means for NGO's development and activities, so NGOs remained small, they did not reach huge masses, they were quite underdeveloped and most of the time they did not reach the intended goals.

80's were a time of new social movements, developing towards differentiation of various interests. After 1980 several mass movements appeared. Changes in the political and economic system in the beginning of 1990's were not followed by changes in prosperity. Public sector still held its monopolistic position. Space for founding NGOs was created only with the new legislation. But that still did not ensure equal circumstances for their activities.

No sooner than 1991 when an independent state, the Republic of Slovenia, was formed, we can start talking about equal possibilities for founding and activities of NGOs in Slovenia, even though the legislation in this area still has not been perfected to this day.

3. Organisation of Sport

For an organised way of satisfying one's interests and needs in sport it is important to participate in associations (non-profit organisations), which are the foundation of the organised sport in the Republic of Slovenia. The number of associations, number of their members, number and diversity of their activities, financial base, topmost creativity, etc. are components of nation's general culture and also a treasure which is passed on to next generations by sport.

Slovenians' social life in general is rich and diverse and it shows a general sociological characteristic – gathering. Almost every village in Slovenia has at least one sports club. They outnumber all other associations and activities. Slovenia has almost 6000 sports clubs with over 300.000 children and adults participating in sports. About 60% of participants are involved only for pleasure and entertainment and the

other 40% are striving for potential results and achievements.

The development of sport and physical activity, which is being increasingly promoted, can significantly influence the organisation of sport. Organisation of sport needs different approaches, tactics and ways, depending on the target group and its aims. We can distinguish different ways of organising sport in the following categories: competitory sport, recreation, top-level sport, unorganised recreation, etc.

Sports activity as such can get involved in the wider social environment depending on everything stated above.

Roughly, sports activities can be profitable or non-profitable. Commercial or non-commercial. There are also many stages between those two extremes. But it is worth mentioning that some activities reach into several fields at the same time, so it is difficult to separate them.

In addition to all other classifications of sports activities, there is one more – sport as «meeting others». Sport as an ethical tool. Sport as a means of meeting and understanding diversities, getting to know one another. Sport as a means of evolving democracy, learning and free expression of every individual (Kranjc-Kušlan; Hosta; 2005; pp. 16-18).

4. Relations Between Governmental and Non-Governmental Organisations in the Field of Sport

Ever since we became equal members of the European Union a year ago, the relations between governmental and non-governmental organisations in the field of sport need to be regulated according to the accepted definitions, stated in EUROPEAN SPORTS CHARTER. Those relations are defined in Article 3 of the aforementioned charter. It states:

«1. The role of the public authorities is primarily complementary to the action of sports movement. Therefore, close co-operation with non-governmental sports organisations is essential in order to ensure

the fulfilment of the aims of this Charter, including where necessary the establishment of machinery for the development and co-ordination of sport.

2. The development of the voluntary ethos and movement in sport shall be encouraged, particularly through support for the work of voluntary sports organisations.

3. Voluntary sports organisations have the right to establish autonomous decision-making processes within the law. Both governments and sports organisations shall recognise the need for a mutual respect of their decisions.

4. The implementation of some of the provisions of this Charter may be entrusted by governmental and non-governmental sports authorities or sports organisations.

5. Sports organisations should be encouraged to establish mutually beneficial arrangements with each other and potential partners. Such as the commercial sector. The media, etc., while ensuring that exploitation of sport or sportspeople is avoided.»

But there is a problem. How to achieve the most appropriate connections of the above mentioned institutions to allow maximal flow of information and correction of any disputable or questionable decisions and to avoid complete supremacy of one subject over another, especially supremacy of state over civil organisations while striving to strengthen democracy and its principles?

This connection is essential and it produces different models of sport in the world. In general, all European countries today aspire to strengthen non-governmental sports institutions by offering help from government agencies. The idea is to keep the state from having too strong and direct influence on civil society institutes. If the influence is necessary, the state's involvement is based on law, after the democratic procedure in these organisations is concluded. State can achieve this in many different ways, such as:

- recognizing civil society institutions in the field of sport;
- providing financial means from the budget and other alternative sources;
- giving state approved licences (as determined by different laws and other legal documents);
- legal regulation of all the fields where involvement of the state enables faster development or prevents negative occurrences in sport;
- regulating the relations inside associations or professional unions through central sports unions regardless of whether there is one union or two: sports federation (confederation) or the Olympic Committee. It is important not to allow the state a strong direct contact with sports performers. It is also important that the parliament determines global politics in sports which is then exercised by performers as institutes of the civil society. Otherwise the state could easily slip into the conditions of state regulation of voluntary activity – sport (Šugman, 2000).

4.1. Regulatory Framework for Sport

4.1.1. Legislation in place

Sport is included in the Slovenian Constitution. The Slovenian Parliament adopted a Sports Act in April 1998. According to this Act, the state has responsibility for safeguarding the public interest in sport. The Act regulates the areas of sports education, leisure sport, competitive sport, top-level sport and sport for disabled. The Sports Act also lays down the competencies of sports-related institutions in Slovenia and the way in which they co-operate with each other. Furthermore, the Sports Act also contains provisions for the creation of the general framework for the governance of the sporting activities. Parliament adopted a National Sport Programme in March 2000, which sets the priorities of the state in sport. Slovenia has adopted

an interventionist sport-legislation model. (Interventionist models offer the possible advantage of regularity in policy and accountability based on statutory provisions. With the roles of the key sport stakeholders included in state statutes, the interventionist model can offer a useful tool for the development of sport and accountability of the government and the sports movement. Interventionist sports legislation is also used to introduce or maintain order in the national sports movement.)

4.1.2. Role of Government

The Ministry of Education and Sport was established in 1991. This coincided with Slovenia's gaining of independence. The Sports Department has divisions for top-level sport, sport and leisure, sport for children, youth and students. The main tasks to be performed by the Sports Department include the preparatory work and planning of sports development through the long-term National Sport Programme and the annual programmes. The practical organisation of sports activities remains, however, independently administered by sports organisations. State policy is formed in co-operation with sport organisations. The Council of Sports Experts is a state-appointed consultative body for sport policy. With a total of 16 members and the President, they include recognised experts from various fields of sport supported by the state. Half of these experts are appointed from persons proposed by sports-movement representatives.

The department administers financial support from the state budget for creating and developing the relevant prerequisites for sport activities. It implements a tax policy that fosters sport. The department is also involved in the planning, construction and maintenance of sporting facilities. The Ministry is responsible for governmental representation of Slovenian Sport at an international level.

Since November 2000, the number of cities and municipalities has increased from 62 to 193. As a rule, they each have a Department for Social and Cultural Activities, with sport being part of their remit, although some larger cities and communes have their own departments of sport. Their duties under the Sports Act include implementing the National Sport Programme through annual sporting events at local level. They also promote and create the conditions for implementing and developing sporting activities and plan the building and maintenance of local sports facilities.

4.1.3. Funding

Sports activities are currently supported by the government through the national budget. The Sports Act defines the financial guidelines applicable to the state funding of the national sports movement. In particular, the new Act provides grounds for the state founding of the National (Slovenian) Olympic Committee. According to the reports, the public administration's policy is to put the country in a similar position to other developed European countries where 2-4% of the GNP (Gross National Product) is allocated to sports activities.

Direct state aid for sport is derived from the National Sport Programme. It sets aside approximately 8% of public sports funds for top-level sport, with the share of those funds originating from the state budget (22.5%) clearly exceeding the amount that comes from local budgets (3.1%).

The Act on Games of Chance, introduced in May 1995 in conjunction with the Act of Privatisation of the National Lottery, opened up another source of financing for sport. It has helped to considerably increase the funds available for sport. In order to distribute the lottery funds, the «Foundation for the Financing of Sports Organisations in the Republic of Slovenia» (FSO) was set up on the initiative of the Slovenian Parliament in February 1998. The activities of this Foundation are regulated by

the Act on Measures and Conditions for the Distribution of Funds of the Foundation for the Financing of Sports Organisations in the Republic of Slovenia of March 1998. This Act stipulates the proportion of funds to be distributed among four different areas of sport, the terms and conditions to be met by the implementing organisations and the period and manner in which applicants are to be selected. The most important body of the FOS is its Council, which is comprised of 13 representatives from the sports self-administration body. Furthermore, individual committees of experts deal with specific problems from the various areas of sport in order to safeguard the adequate distribution and optimum utilisation of lottery funds.

In 1999, the FSO was the source of as much money for sport as the central budget of the government. It can be noted that local communities allocate almost four times more money than the central authorities to sport. On the basis on the Act on Games of Chance, the national sports organisations established the so-called «Sports Lottery» and the government awarded them a concession for four different games of chance. The fourth one is usually devoted in its entirety to the financing of Slovenian participation in the Olympic Games.

The Act on Local Community Financing, passed in 1994, is of particular importance for the financing of sport. The Act covers the financial regulations applicable to local authorities. The Act also envisages financial subsidies from the central budget in case local authorities fail to provide sufficient funds for basic sport programmes. The Act purports to fill the gaps left open by the local communities. Only the larger communities are able to implement and fund an independent sports programme.

Some legislation also allows for the possibility of indirect sports financing through tax exemptions or tax reductions. A new Value Added Tax Act was introduced in 2000 and provides for lower taxes

(8.5%) on all non-profit sports services, rentals of facilities and tickets, and higher taxes (20%) on all material expenses and equipment. Tax incentives for donations to sport have also been put into place. Currently, tax exemptions of up to 0,3% of profits are applied to corporate donations.

The Sports Act permits sports organisations and private persons or athletes to raise money through sponsorship contracts. This is a part of country's transition to a market economy and the adaptation of Slovenian Acts to modern sport. In 2004, the proportion of income of the NOC from all sources was as follows: 12% (state), 13% (FSO), 10% (International – IOC) and 65% (own marketing).

4.1.4. Good governance overview

4.1.4.1. State governance in sport

Slovenian Government complies with all fundamental principles of good sport governance. These principles are:

- Freedom of association (General right, without discrimination, reasonable
- minimum persons, reasonable minimum fee, authorities impartiality);
- Freedom of speech;
- Freedom of operation;
- Transparency (funding);
- Independence (control);
- Democracy.

As in many countries, there is no rule prohibiting a member of the governmental administrative authority from serving into decision-making bodies of sport organisations. Sport organisations are given the autonomy to conduct their affairs independently from the state. The inclusion of sport NGO's in the policy-making and funding processes are evidence of the democratic nature of sport governance by the state.

4.1.4.2. Governance of the sports movement

Sport clubs are established pursuant to the Associations Act. This Act entered into force in 1995 and was modified in 1999. The main reforms in the Associations Act of 1995 relate on the provisions on the ownership and financing of associations. The Associations Act enables sports and other associations to conduct profit-making activities only where this furthers the public-benefit purposes of the associations.

Slovenia has consolidated sports movement. The Olympic Committee of Slovenia and the Association of Sports Federations merged in December 1994. The aims and objectives of this consolidated organisation are mainly to develop competitive and elite sports activities. The Slovenian Sports Union, which promotes exclusively sport-for-all activities at national and local level, is not a member of the consolidated umbrella organisation.

There are 68 registered national sports federations and close to 6000 sports clubs in Slovenia. Approximately 35% of all registered NGOs in Slovenia are sport NGOs.

The Olympic Committee of Slovenia, through its Fair-play Commission, has adopted a special set of governance guidelines. They contain basic ethical principles to be followed by Slovenian sport to promote the concept of Fair-play. A Fair-play anthem, a Fair-play Athletes Oath (2002) and a Fair-play manual were publicly presented for the first time on the occasion of the 8th European Fair-play Congress in Ljubljana in September 2002.

The key governance principles to be respected by all members of the sports organisations are transparency, fairness, equity and democracy. Under the by-laws of the OCS statutes, fines and other disciplinary measures can be taken against a member federation that does not abide by good governance principles. However, these sanctions have rarely been applied. Some Slovenian sports federations need expert support from the Olympic Committee of Slovenia - Association of

Sports Federations before taking legal steps to enforce these principles with their constituency. The procedure for the establishment of a Court of Arbitration for Sport has already started and is expected to be completed in the near future.

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WHAT WE NEED TO BE AN OLYMPIC CHAMPION IN WRESTLING

Mrs Gabriella BICSÉRDY (HUN)

Introduction

Nowadays there are a lot of sport scientific researches about the physiological basis and conditioning programs of different sport disciplines. Physical abilities are very important conditions of sport results but they are not the only terms of being successful. Also very important conditions are the psychological attitudes and the sociological surroundings. What more, the chance of being successful depends also on in which age the child starts to participate in sport activities and when the time of specialization starts. Coaches have to be very careful not to burn out or overuse the young sportsmen. Authors all over the world are looking for the meaning of talent and methods of selection and specialization. Specialization often stands opposite with the educational mission of schools also, because the multi-sport athletes are often the most active and productive athletes in schools (4,5,7).

Most of the coaches think that the young sportsman, the so called “talented” one has to perform above the average in the early age as well. They think this is the only chance to have very good results in the future. In my research I tried to find the answer for the question: what kind of anthropometrical parameters and results of physical abilities tests a young sportsman needs to become an olympic champion in wrestling and how different the results of these tests should be compared to the average?

In 1980 the Hungarian National Physical Education and Sport Office introduced a new system of measuring young sportsmen. This estimation was a good possibility to compare them during sports competitions. Experts from the National Physical Education and Sport Office, the Hungarian University of Physical Education and Sport Sciences and the Sport Associations were organising these competitions in different disciplines. In every sport discipline a series of anthropometrical measurements and a variety of general and sport-specific motor tests were assessed.

In this article the parameters and results of measurements in wrestling made in 1983 and 1984 were used. In these measurements participated Attila Repka, who became an olympic champion in 1992 in Barcelona. This “case study” is a good opportunity for looking backwards to the beginning, analysing his results in the early time of his sports carrier and find the answer for the question above.

The aim of the study:

The aim of the study was to find the relationships between the anthropometrical parameters and results of different sport tests measured of the hungarian olympic champion, Attila Repka, and compare them with the results measured in 13-14 and 15-16 years old wrestlers.

Methods:

The study was conducted on two groups of wrestlers, 13-14 years old (n=341) and 15-16 years old (n=285). Attila Repka was measured in both age groups what gave a possibility to analyse how much he developed during one year training compared to himself and the other wrestlers. All results, presented in this article were made by the National Physical Education and Sport Office in 1983 and 1984.

The following anthropometrical parameters were used in this study: body height [cm], body weight [kg], chest circumference at rest [cm], chest circumference after inspiration [cm], chest circumference after expiration [cm], bent and extended upper arm circumference, forearm-, thigh- and calf circumferences [cm]. Anthropometrical parameters which has influence on the performance, can contribute the selection process, but of course they are not the only one condition we have to pay attention (1,2,3). As an example I would like to mention a hungarian study about basketball players, in which the researchers found no significant correlation between body height and motor abilities measured by special tests (8).

From general tests the 30 m running [sec], Cooper-test [m], vertical jump high [cm] and medicine ball throwing tests [m] were analysed.

A few sport-specific tests were also analysed: performance of 10 technical elements [points], hip throw from standing position during 30 seconds [reps], around the head turn-over with cross body hold during 30 seconds [reps], rolling sideways with waist lock during 30 seconds [reps], deep push ups during 30 seconds [reps], 4 rythm exercise during 60 seconds [reps], snap-ups during 30 seconds [reps], pull ups [reps], falls down in bridge and back during 30 seconds [reps].

The data were analysed using basic statistics package (average, $\pm$ SD, minimum, maximum).

Results

The very important question is how large an influence the body weight had on the results. In wrestling the body weight is especially important, because the weight categories arrangement is based on it. In disciplines, where sportsman has to carry the whole body it is important to estimate the values in relation in body weight. It is called relative value and it is calculated by dividing maximum result by body weight. That kind of analysing the results are often made by

different authors. As an example we can find data presented by greek researchers in basketball or american researchers in non-sportsmen population.

Table 1. Anthropometrical parameters of 13-14 years old wrestlers

ANTHROPOMETRICAL PARAMETERS	Wrestlers (n=341) 13-14 years old	Repka Attila
<i>BODY HEIGHT [cm]</i>	163,6±9,7 (136÷193)	155
<i>BODY WEIGHT [kg]</i>	55,7±13,6 (33,5÷100)	44
<i>CHEST CIRCUMFERENCE IN REST [cm]</i>	82,8±9,5 (61÷114)	82
<i>CHEST CIRCUMFERENCE AFTER INSPIRATION [cm]</i>	88,3±9,5 (68÷120)	85
<i>CHEST CIRCUMFERENCE AFTER EXPIRATION [cm]</i>	80,8±9,4 (60÷112)	79
<i>BENT UPPER ARM CIRCUMFERENCE [cm]</i>	28,5±3,8 (21÷40)	25
<i>EXT. UPPER ARM CIRCUMFERENCE [cm]</i>	25,7±3,4 (19÷36)	24
<i>FOREARM CIRCUMFERENCE [cm]</i>	24,3±2,9 (16÷33)	23
<i>THIGH CIRCUMFERENCE [cm]</i>	49±6,3 (34÷76)	49
<i>CALF CIRCUMFERENCE [cm]</i>	33,7±3,8 (21÷48)	31

In table 1. the anthropometrical parameters measured in the group of 13-14 years old wrestlers are presented. From these data basic statistics analyses (average and standard deviations) were calculated as well minimum and maximum values are presented.

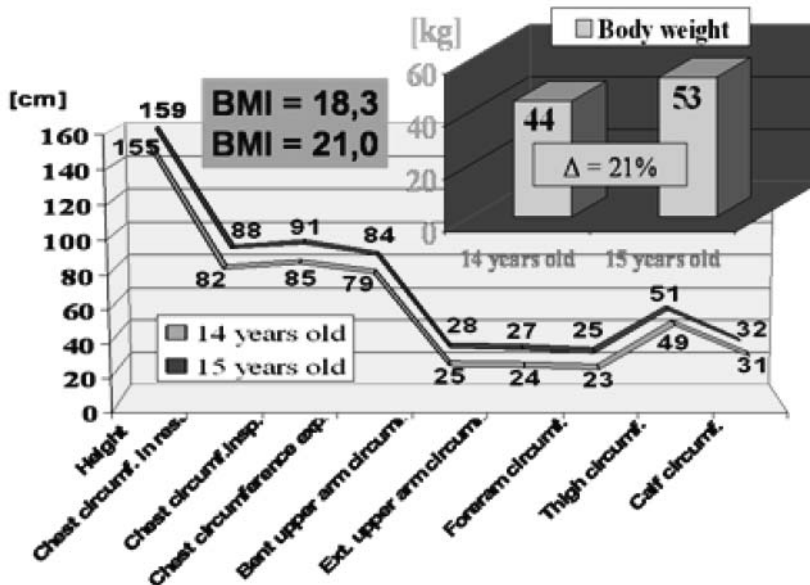
None of parameters measured for Attila Repka were above the average of the group.

Table 2. Anthropometrical parameters of 15-16 years old wrestlers

ANTHROPOMETRICAL PARAMETERS	Wrestlers (n=285) 15-16 years old	Repka Attila
BODY HEIGHT [cm]	169,9±8,2 (145÷196)	159
BODY WEIGHT [kg]	64,6±12,5 (40÷100)	53
CHEST CIRCUMFERENCE IN REST [cm]	90,2±8,3 (70÷125)	88
CHEST CIRCUMFERENCE AFTER INSPIRATION [cm]	95,5±8,5 (75÷128)	91
CHEST CIRCUMFERENCE AFTER EXPIRATION [cm]	87,8±8,2 (65÷124)	84
BENT UPPER ARM CIRCUMFERENCE [cm]	31,5±3,6 (22÷42)	28
EXT. UPPER ARM CIRCUMFERENCE [cm]	28,4±3,2 (21÷37)	27
FOREARM CIRCUMFERENCE [cm]	26,3±2,6 (19÷33)	25
THIGH CIRCUMFERENCE [cm]	51,8±5,8 (34÷75)	51
CALF CIRCUMFERENCE [cm]	35,6±3,3 (22÷48)	32

In table 2. the anthropometrical parameters measured in the group of 15-16 years old wrestlers are presented. From these data basic statistics analyses (average and standard deviations) were calculated as well minimum and maximum values are presented.

We can confirm the following tendency: the comparison of Repka results and average of the group is similar as a year before.



Legends: BMI (body mass index)- $\text{Kg} / (\text{m})^2$, Δ [%]-difference between 15 and 14 years old

Graph 1. Changes in the anthropometrical results of Attila Repka in a year period

On the graph 1. we can see the changes of the same anthropometrical parameters of Repka in one year period. The biggest changes are in body weight (21%), which can be caused partly by the maturing process.

Table 3. General tests results of young wrestlers

GENERAL TESTS	WRESTLERS (n=341) 13-14 years old	REPKA
30 m RUNNING [s]	5,2±0,6 (4,0÷9,6)	5,0
COOPER TEST [m]	2519,1±372,8 (1020÷3610)	2300
JUMPING [cm]	39,9±7 (17÷60)	50
MEDICINE BALL THROW BACK [m]	8,2±2,1 (3,8÷16,8)	6,3
MEDICINE BALL THROW FORWARD [m]	6,7±1,7 (3÷16)	6,2

At the age of 14 the results of Repka are better than the average only in 30 meters running and jumping tests.

Table 4. General tests results of young wrestlers

GENERAL TESTS	WRESTLERS (n=285) 15-16 years old	REPKA
30 m RUNNING [s]	5,0±0,6 (3,7÷7,1)	4,5
COOPER TEST [m]	2692,9±397,9 (1510÷3900)	2840
JUMPING [cm]	45,1±7,4 (11÷68)	55
MEDICINE BALL THROW BACK [m]	9,9±2,2 (4,5÷17,4)	8,9
MEDICINE BALL THROW FORWARD [m]	7,8±1,7 (4,0÷15,1)	7,0

After one year of intensive training program he developed in speed, endurance and power as well. But in medicine ball throwing he is still under the average. It seems to be that the biggest influence on these results has the body weight and body height.

The improvement in physiological abilities reflects a normal adaptation associated with the onset of puberty and moderate increases in age. Calculating the results per body weight can show different relations between Repka and group average values. In that case, when the results are relative to body weight he can be found better than the

others.

Table 5. Sport specific tests results of the 13-14 years old wrestlers

<i>SPECIAL TESTS</i>	<i>Wrestlers (n=341) 13-14 years old</i>	<i>Repka Attila</i>
<i>10 TECHNICAL ELEMENTS [points]</i>	<i>66,6±18,7 (20÷98)</i>	<i>48</i>
<i>NUMBER OF HIP THROW FROM STANDING POS./30s.</i>	<i>10,6±2,5 (3÷22)</i>	<i>10</i>
<i>NUMBER OF AROUND THE HEAD TURN- OVER WITH CROSS BODY HOLD/30s.</i>	<i>7,6±2,8 (1÷18)</i>	<i>8</i>
<i>NUMBER OF ROLLING SIDEWAYS WITH WAIST LOCK/30s.</i>	<i>11,7±3,3 (1÷22)</i>	<i>12</i>
<i>NUMBER OF DEEP PUSH UPS/30 s.</i>	<i>32,2±8,8 (8÷56)</i>	<i>34</i>
<i>NUMBER OF 4 RYTHM EXERCISES/60s.</i>	<i>27,6±8 (11÷70)</i>	<i>27</i>
<i>NUMBER OF SNAP-UPS/30s.</i>	<i>34,1±6,9 (10÷56)</i>	<i>44</i>
<i>NUMBER OF PULL UPS</i>	<i>12,1±6,8 (1÷41)</i>	<i>15</i>
<i>NUMBER OF FALLS DOWN IN BRIDGE AND BACK/30s.</i>	<i>12,7±3,7 (1÷24)</i>	<i>12</i>

Table 5. presents a group of tests specially made for wrestling based on technical elements. These exercises are used also in the training programs, when the technical development is the goal. In most of them the results of Repka oscillated around the average of the group. Only in one of them (snap-ups) he was able to perform much better according to the other 13-14 years old wrestlers.

Table 6. Sport specific tests results of the 15-16 years old wrestlers

<i>SPECIAL TESTS</i>	<i>Wrestlers (n=285) 15-16 years old</i>	<i>Repka Attila</i>
<i>10 TECHNICAL ELEMENTS [points]</i>	<i>73,1±17,8 (10÷100)</i>	<i>82</i>
<i>NUMBER OF HIP THROW FROM STANDING POS./30s.</i>	<i>11,7±2,6 (5÷25)</i>	<i>11</i>
<i>NUMBER OF AROUND THE HEAD TURN- OVER WITH CROSS BODY HOLD/30s.</i>	<i>9,2±2,9 (1÷20)</i>	<i>9</i>
<i>NUMBER OF ROLLING SIDEWAYS WITH WAIST LOCK/30s.</i>	<i>13,4±3,4 (4÷30)</i>	<i>9</i>
<i>NUMBER OF DEEP PUSH UPS/30 s.</i>	<i>36,5±8,6 (12÷61)</i>	<i>31</i>
<i>NUMBER OF 4 RYTHM EXERCISES/60s.</i>	<i>28,1±7,3 (11÷50)</i>	<i>30</i>
<i>NUMBER OF SNAP-UPS/30s.</i>	<i>36,6±6,6 (19÷58)</i>	<i>45</i>
<i>NUMBER OF PULL UPS</i>	<i>15,9±7,3 (1÷41)</i>	<i>16</i>
<i>NUMBER OF FALLS DOWN IN BRIDGE AND BACK/30s.</i>	<i>13,6±4 (1÷25)</i>	<i>14</i>

Table 6. shows the results of the same special motor tests in the age group of 15-16 years old. In this age he is still around the average in these tests. What is very interesting, 2 years after these measurements he became the junior world champion in greco-roman and had the bronze medal in freestyle also in the Junior World Championship.

Table 7. Absolute and relative differences between the results of different aged wrestlers

30 m RUNNING		14 years	15 years	$\Delta 1$
Repka	absolute	5,00	4,50	-10,00%
	relative	0,11	0,08	-25,28%
Average	absolute	5,16	4,96	-3,80%
	relative	0,09	0,08	-17,16%
$\Delta 2$	absolute	-3,09%	-9,33%	
	relative	-22,61%	-10,58%	
COOPER TEST		14 years	15 years	$\Delta 1$
Repka	absolute	2300,00	2840,00	23,48%
	relative	52,27	53,58	2,51%
Average	absolute	2519,09	2692,95	6,90%
	relative	45,25	41,66	-7,93%
$\Delta 2$	absolute	-8,70%	5,46%	
	relative	-15,51%	28,62%	
JUMPING		14 years	15 years	$\Delta 1$
Repka	absolute	50,00	55,00	10,00%
	relative	1,14	1,04	-8,68%
Average	absolute	39,87	45,06	13,04%
	relative	0,72	0,70	-2,65%
$\Delta 2$	absolute	25,42%	22,05%	
	relative	58,68%	48,85%	
SNAP-UPS REPS/30s		14 years	15 years	$\Delta 1$
Repka	absolute	44,00	45,00	2,27%
	relative	1,00	0,85	-15,09%
Average	absolute	34,06	36,59	7,45%
	relative	0,61	0,57	-7,47%
$\Delta 2$	absolute	29,19%	22,97%	
	relative	63,44%	49,97%	

Legend: relative (per 1 kg of body weight), $\Delta 1$ –differences [%] between 15 and 14 years old wrestlers, $\Delta 2$ - differences [%] between Repka and average

Table 7. shows the differences between the absolute and relative values of 4 motor tests.

In 30 meters running the 15-16 years old wrestlers performed only 3,8% better, than the 13-14 years old, but after dividing these results with body weight, the difference was 17,16%. If we analyse the results of Repka, we can say that his absolute result was 10% better, when he was 15, but the relative values shows 25,28% difference.

In Cooper test we can see a different tendency. The big improvement of Repka in this test (23,48%) was not so impressive when I calculated with body weight (2,51%).

In jumping test, both Repka and the other wrestlers from two groups, reached similar changes in test results.

The significant influence of body weight to test result we can find during analysing snap-ups test. In absolute values, both Repka and the other wrestlers were better after one year of training, but in relative values we can see the opposite effect.

Discussions and conclusions:

This case study proved that predicting the course of a sport carrier is not easy at all.

Analysis of the anthropometrical parameters and results of the battery of tests used in this study made for 13-14 and 15-16 years old wrestlers and olympic champion, Attila Repka gives opportunity to discuss about the talent.

In most of the anthropometrical parameters Repka was under the average compared to his age, especially in body weight. At the age of 14 and 15 his body weight was approximately 20% lower than average. This fact shows coaches have to be very careful and should take care of all their sportsmen not only those ones who are going in front of the others.

The results of the special tests made for wrestling also show that Repka did not reach higher values than the other wrestlers in his age. Of course during one year between these two tests his results improved but this tendency was parallel to the average of the group. One more time we can see that in the age of 13-16 future Olympic champion was not much better than his colleagues.

Finally the analysis of the general motor tests shows how big influence of the results has the body weight, especially when sportsman has to carry his body during technically advanced exercises.

Researchers proved that as the socialization, the needs and opportunities are changing, the parameters of the sportsmen are also developing. We can not use the system made a period of ten years ago. We always have to develop our knowledge and renew the selecting programs. Early identification of “talent” is not a guarantee for success in sport during childhood. There are simply too many intervening variables associated with normal growth, maturation and development, and with the sports system. In some cases, individual characteristics and the sports system interact.

Repka's success a few years later can be thanked to a very well prepared training program, as well as the mental and psychological preparation. It can also happen that these tests, which were used for years in the wrestling area, are not good enough to predict who has a chance to write his name into the list of elite wrestlers in the future. Or maybe the idea of “talent” changed? Perhaps the competitor doesn't have to perform much better than the others to be able to develop till the elite level? Or like in every field of life, here are also exceptions?

The example of Repka shows that we are not able to give explanations for being talented so easily. We can not express this meaning with only one word or sentence. The success or failure of a talent identification and selection program is dependent upon the balance between the child's ability and the demands of the sport and

sports system. Ability is dynamic, changing as the child grows, matures and develops. The differences between young sportmen's results very often can be explained with the acceleration and retardation. The performance is always complex (6).

The question "what we need to be an olympic champion in wrestling?" is still not answered.

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PHYSICAL CULTURE AND SPORT IN SPECIALIZED SCHOOLS, AS FACTOR OF SOCIAL ADAPTATION OF CHILDREN OF SENIOR SCHOOL AGE

Mr Denis ZUBATOK (UKR)

Topicality of selected subject is conditioned by concern of the country with social adaptation of children with specific requirements, in particular those with hearing disorders, which has been reflected in state laws and programmes: “Law of Ukraine on Bases of Social Protection of Disabled”, “Children of Ukraine”, “State Programme of Social Protection of Disabled”, etc. In the complex of measures aimed at protection of disabled persons physical culture and sport being the leading basis of personality social development play a significant role. Laws of Ukraine “On Physical Culture and Sport”, “On Support of Olympic, Paralympic Movement and Elite Sport of Ukraine” run that the state directs all efforts at organization of physical culture and sports sessions in the system of continuous rehabilitation of disabled persons including children.

Significance of physical culture and sport in human socialization has been revealed in fundamental studies of V.N. Platonov, S.I. Guskov. The role of physical culture and sport in the process of inclusion of disabled persons in social life and their self-realization in society have been described in the works of C. Sherill, Y.A. Briskin, S.P. Yevseyev, R.V. Chudna.

Socializing role of physical culture and sport acquires special importance during juvenile age which is considered as one of the most critical in social genesis of personality (Vygotsky, 1930; Kon, 1980; Viskovatova, 2003).

The handicapped generally experience more problems in individual and social development and adjustment than do their nonhandicapped peers. Many do not look or act like other high-school children. Some of the ways in which they differ socially from others are as follows:

1. They may lack ability to relate to others and respond appropriately.
2. They may fail to conform to the expectations of the school and society.
3. They may have particular difficulty in social interactions with peers and teachers.
4. They may encounter continued failure throughout the school years.
5. They may feel inferior, resulting in withdrawal from physical activity.

High-school children with hearing disorders are characterized by specific peculiarities conditioned by nosology. That is why, their engagement in physical culture and sport as a factor of social adaptation is of tremendous importance for them (Sermeyev B.V., Baykina N.G., Kret Y.V.). The **problem** consists in today's insufficiency of scientific and methodical provision of the process of sports event selection for juveniles with hearing disorders.

The development of social capability of handicapped children is an important objective of the physical education program. Social skills improve the chances of social acceptance by others. Researchers indicate that physical education is an efficient medium through which these children can realize social and emotional growth. Some social benefits that might be outcomes of a physical education program follow:

- It enables a display of socially acceptable characteristics.
- It enables a variety of social experiences and interactions.
- It enables the handicapped and their peers to learn of their capabilities.
- It enables them to be contributors to team and group efforts.
- It enables them to become intelligent spectators in the sport activities in which they participate.

The International Olympic Committee provides assistance to amateur athletic programs for inclusion of the handicapped in competition with the nonhandicapped. Handicapped children may be delayed in social development as well as motor development. Poor social skills are a factor in their rejection. Many handicapped children are not as capable as regular class children in initiating and sustaining appropriate social relationships; some children lack language skills. The handicapped may fail to develop social skills because they have fewer friends and are rated significantly lower in sociometric status than their peers. Or it may be that special students have difficulty using social cues; some misperceive their social standing and feel that they are better accepted by peers than they actually are. Friendless students have little opportunity to develop social skills, and those with poor skills are unlikely to form friendships.

At the secondary level these problems might increase. In adolescence social interaction with peers becomes extremely important. Handicapped students who have spent the majority of their educational career segregated from age peers can find the transition to a mainstream environment arduous. They may not only fail to share a common experiential background with regular class students, but also might not yet have acquired important social skills. These problems, combined with the barriers to acceptance, magnify the difficulty in promoting social acceptance.

Objective: To determine the influence of different sports events upon formation of social skills in high-school children with hearing disorders.

Tasks of study:

1. To study problem of social adaptation of high-school children with hearing disorders by means of physical culture and sport.
2. To develop estimation criteria of the influence of various sports events upon social adaptation of high-school children with hearing disorders.
3. To reveal the impact of different sports events on social adaptation of high-school children with hearing disorders.
4. To prepare practical recommendations concerning social adaptation of high-school children with hearing disorders by means of physical culture and sport.

Object of study: Social adaptation of high-school children with hearing disorders by physical culture and sport means under conditions of special boarding school.

Subject of study: Influence of different physical culture and sport means on social adaptation of high-school children with hearing disorders under conditions of special boarding schools.

Methods of study:

- 1) structural-and-genetic analysis of initial concepts, literature and documentation according to problem of study;
- 2) method of modeling – elaboration of tests – criteria of high-school children with hearing disorders socialization;
- 3) use of questionnaires;
- 4) pedagogical observation;
- 5) testing the level of social adaptation of high-school children (special boarding schools for children with hearing disorders;

determination of the level of psychomotor capacities on the basis of tests):

- determination of the ability to evaluate spatial-and-temporal and dynamic parameters of motion;
 - determination of the ability to evaluate and regulate spatial-and-temporal and dynamic parameters of motions (different types of shuttle running);
 - estimation of static equilibrium according to Yarotsky's method;
 - estimation of dynamic equilibrium on gymnastic bench;
 - estimation of coordination of movements (Kopylov's test ten "eights");
 - determination of motion response speed (to grasp falling stick);
 - determination of the ability to manipulate with small objects;
 - determination of the ability to simultaneously perform "tapping-test" movements
 - estimation of motor capacity development according to K. Zukhory's battery of tests;
 - determination of the ability for thinking;
 - determination of short-term conception memory;
 - determination of the ability for imagination;
 - determination of attention stability;
 - determination of mental efficiency according to Langolt's methods.
- 6) Observation of the course of social adaptation of senior school children of special educational institutions in the process of engagement in different sports events;
 - 7) Comparison of social adaptation level of studied contingent with that of control group;
 - 8) Mathematical methods of obtained statistic data processing.

Scientific novelty:

1. Elaboration of estimation criteria for the influence of different sports events upon social adaptation of high-school children with hearing disorders.
2. Systematization of sports events according to their influence on the development of social adaptation skills in high-school children with hearing disorders.

Practical importance:

Improvement of tests for determination of social adaptation level of senior school children with hearing disorders under conditions of special institution.

Elaboration of recommendations concerning utilization of different sports events for social adaptation of senior school children with hearing disorders.

Stages of study:

1. Examination of literature dealing with issues of social adaptation of high-school children with hearing disorders.
2. Determination and correction of personal methods of study according to real conditions: specification of the contingent, educational institution, sports events.
3. Studies:
 - 3.1. Specification and modification of social adaptation tests for senior school children with hearing disorders under conditions of special educational institution.
 - 3.2. Testing experimental and control group of high-school children to determine the level of social adaptation. Statistical data processing.
 - 3.3. Observation the course of experiment – engagement of high-school children in different sports events – provision of

- reliability of the results of studies.
- 3.4. Systematic testing of studied and control groups.
- 4. Mathematical processing, analysis and interpretation of obtained results.
- 5. Discussion of conclusions.
- 6. Elaboration of practical recommendations concerning utilization of different sports events for social adaptation of high-school children with hearing disorders.

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CONCLUSIONS

ANCIENT OLYMPIC GAMES

Introduction

Throughout the 13th Postgraduate seminar, various different lecturers treated the Olympic movement *en passant* with varied levels of acumen and from a wide range of academic perspectives. Indeed, the diverse views on Olympism provided us with quite an intriguing seminar - provoking much intellectual debate and conflicting discourse. In particular, the lectures in the first week provided a stimulating offbeat into the Olympic movement - past and present. Here, the students were introduced to the different historical and philosophical approaches of examining this quadrennial sporting spectacle. Given the extent of secondary material which alludes to these subjects, often without properly addressing them, it is plausible to argue that these lecturers provided both a forceful and scholarly examination of the Olympic Games reinforcing the fact that Olympism is truly a topic worthy of serious intellectual investigation.

Ultimately, this report shall attempt to provide a succinct assessment of the lectures delivered throughout the first week of the seminar. However, it should be noted that this assessment by no means strives to challenge the views of either Professor. Rather, this paper primarily seeks to trace the prevalent themes in the lectures and provide a brief insight into the social, cultural and philosophical history of the Olympic Games. Accordingly, the first section of this report opens with an analysis of the ethos and traditions of the Olympic Games in the ancient period. The report continues by tracing the development

of the Games, but with a constant eye on broader development in ancient Greek civilisation. Finally, the report concludes with an overview of the philosophical roots of the ancient Olympic Games.

Historical Background

There were four sporting festivals in Ancient Greece. These were held in Isthmia, Nemea, Delphi and Olympia. Each of these Games had different individual characteristics but it seems reasonable to surmise that the main purpose of all of them was to honour the Gods. The Ancient Olympic Games are conventionally regarded as the most important of the four mentioned. These Games honoured Zeus, the 'God of the Gods', and they were held in a particular area which was politically neutral. However, it should be borne in mind that Olympia was never a community. In fact, these Games were hosted by people from Elis.

Evolution of the Games

The archaeological maps of Olympia provide a fascinating insight into the architectural history of the Games in Olympia. The development of both the Games and the stadium was connected to different time periods. Commencing as a primitive festival in 776 B.C. it continued to develop through the 4th century B.C. and the Hellenistic Age (300 – 1 B.C.) evolving until the Roman period. Through the vast archaeological remains and a variety of historical sources, we can trace the development of infrastructural changes and other facilities. Although the Games changed over the time, the religious aspect remained the main attraction. The temples of Zeus and Hera, and the sacred olive trees were the attraction of the pilgrims who crowded the stands of the stadium. It has been suggested that the stadium could facilitate approximately 40,000 spectators. However, one should be careful of simplistic generalisations, as this has not been

written anywhere. In contrast to all the other stadia, the stadium in Olympia did not have any seats for the spectators. Perhaps the reason for this was the fact that the stadium was only used for 5 days every fourth year. To cope with the influx of spectators for the period of the Games, the organisers let tents to the various athletes and spectators. Indeed, Olympia became known as the 'tent city' during the games.

People attended the games for a variety of different reasons:

- It was a meeting place – lots of poets had an audience
- It was a place for education and culture
- In the Roman period, many of the Roman went to Greece as tourists. They were interested in the event – not *agon*.
- Many of the spectators came as pilgrims because of the temples of Zeus and Hera
- The aesthetic ideal
- The concept of victory
- *Akoniti* – without dust

The following reasons ensured that the Games in Olympia emerged as a 'mega-event'.

Why did these begin in Olympia?

As the festival was initially in honour of the God Zeus, religion was the key strand in the Games while the footraces were only of secondary importance. But it should be observed that even the athletic competitions had a ritual meaning. For example, the first footrace finished at the altar of Zeus. Then, the winner would proceed to light the fire.

There were other rituals evident in the Games:

- Zanes (hall of shame) statue of Zeus
- The truce (granted safe journey and the participation of the best athletes) - sacred to Zeus

- The crown of olives (from the sacred tree) - sacred to Zeus
- Oath taken by the athletes not to cheat or go against Zeus

In the interests of prestige, Elis and Pisa continued to struggle about arranging the games. Nevertheless, the finance of the games came from the judges and other private people. The participants came from all over Greece and sometimes from other countries. It was very difficult to go to Olympia because of the poor infrastructure. Some used horses and donkeys, others walked but most of the people travelled by boat or ship.

Athletes

The participants had to arrive one month before the game started. Firstly, the athletes had to travel to Elis where the training took place (there is approximately 55km between Elis and Olympia). For those in Athens, it took them several weeks to get to Olympia.

The *hellanodikai* were chosen by lot one month before the game started. The lot took place in Elis. The judges were selected for only one Olympiad. During the training period all athletes had to participate in the same exercises even though they had brought their own coaches.

The following points were necessary in order for an athlete to qualify to compete in Olympia:

- He should be connected with religion (not tightly)
- He should participate on his own
- There were no physical tests, but he had to participate in the one month training period
- He had to prove that he was Greek – that he could declare in the oath
- Of the male sex
- That he was a free man (not a slave)

- He had to be a good character
- He should not be a thief or a robber
- His parents should be married before he was born

The athletes knew that they had to go to Olympia when the first full moon appeared after the longest day of the year. Normally this would be in July or August.

The athletes had to start training 10 months before the training period in Elis. There were around 250-300 competitors – the same as in Athens 1896.

Philosophy

There is a difference between the academic field of philosophy and the notion of “having a philosophy”, by which we usually mean a set of beliefs and values that serve as a guide. So, we should distinguish between Olympic Philosophy as a type of academic study, and “The Olympic Philosophy” better known as “Olympism,” which is supposed to guide the Olympic Movement.

What is Philosophy?

The meaning of the word Philosophy comes from the greek words: philo (to love) and sophia (wisdom). Philosophy seeks not just practical knowledge but critical understanding applicable to other cases. Philosophy is ability of asking the right questions that improve understanding using a method of critical thinking according to certain criteria: usually (1) logic, (2) experience, (3) values.

What is Olympic Philosophy?

Olympic philosophy works in cooperation with other fields in Olympic studies by asking and discussing questions to achieve a better

understanding of Olympic ideals and values, which we can then use to critically evaluate the Olympic movement. It draws connections between ancient philosophical literature and Olympic ideals and tries to find a continuity in modern times.

So, nowadays the Olympic Charter states that: “Olympism is a philosophy of life” which seeks “the harmonious development of man” who is described as “a balanced whole [of] body, will and mind”. It believes this goal can be achieved by “blending sport with culture and education,” exploiting “the educational value of a good example” and respecting “universal fundamental ethical principles”.

What is Virtue?

Virtue or areté is the quality that makes a thing (anything) good also translated goodness or excellence (virtue=areté=excellence). In addition to that, what is virtue ethics? In Virtue ethics, the goal is being good, developing character and integrity. Virtue ethics dominates Greek philosophy, but there’s no single model of areté.

Ancient thinkers describe areté differently, but most agree on 5 cardinal virtues: Reverence or piety, courage, self-control, justice, wisdom. Areté is a single quality that can be applied in different ways to different challenges. In education for Virtue in Ancient Greece, areté was always the objective of ancient Greek education. But conceptions of areté varied, and therefore also the methods. Now, another question arises to our minds: How do Athletics lead to Virtue? Humans are by nature imperfect, but capable of great things. So, for us areté is always an ideal which requires struggle and agon. Athletic contests are manufactured agon and they can be used for the testing and training of areté.

Kalokagathia is another term used to express virtue in Ancient Greece. It’s an aristocratic ideal connecting physical beauty and moral goodness kalos refers to the beauty of the body, and agathos refers

to moral goodness. Kalokagathia suggests a harmony of physical and moral excellence. In addition, Physical Education not only refines the body, but cultivates moral goodness as well.

There is also the matter of male versus female virtue. If virtue is cultivated at least partly through athletics, shouldn't females participate? What did the Greeks think? In general, Greeks thought males and females had different functions, different virtues.

Women were largely excluded from the Ancient Olympic Games. For religious reasons, married women could not be present. Exceptions for maidens, Demeter's priestess, horse owners.

Our final question may be: Is there a "universal ethic" of fair play common to ancient and modern sport? Both ancient and modern athletes were equal under the rules and show mutual respect to each other.

HISTORY OF THE MODERN OLYMPIC GAMES

Week 2 started with lectures on the historical background of the Modern Olympic Games and the Olympic Movement. The participants were informed about the different attempts to revive the Ancient Olympic Games, like the attempts of Evangelis Zappas in Greece, W.P. Brookes in England and the people of Munich, Germany at the annual *Oktoberfest*. In the second part the lectures dealt with the development of the Modern Olympic Games since 1896 up to 2004. We also had special lectures on Olympic Medals, Diplomas and Prizes and on the Story of the Rings.

As expected, the lectures stirred some interesting questions, but unfortunately the tight schedule of the seminar didn't provide enough time for overall group discussions on general topics like Olympics and politics or watersheds in Olympic history, we therefore decided to present two of the most pressing questions.

Who can be considered as the true inventor of the Modern Games?

Coubertin surely deserves the praise for actually coming up with the suggestion of reviving the Ancient Olympic Games at the so-called "Sorbonne Conference" in 1894 in Paris. But Brookes' and Zappas' initiatives were important examples for Coubertin and the organizers of the first Modern Olympic Games in Athens 1896. The idea of reviving the Games was imminent in Greece from the 1830s and the so-called "Zappas Games" in 1859, 1870, 1875 and 1888/9 lay important foundations for the Modern Olympic Movement: These

National Olympic Games already saw an opening ceremony, an oath and art competitions in poetry, painting and music.

Brookes actually combined ancient Greek sport and Victorian culture and British sport spirit. The first British National Games were held in Much Wenlock in 1851 and in 1858 Brookes learned about the Zappas Games. Overall, British Games were held between the 1850s and 1860s.

The Munich Oktoberfest of the 18th century also staged some sportive events apart from the other well-known festivities. Newspapers described these activities as “Olympic Games” and the events included shooting, javelin and horse racing.

To conclude, it is not possible to tell exactly who had the first idea to revive the Games. It is more important to note, that all those ideas interacted somehow and that Ancient Greek culture and habits became fashionable among the European elite. This development is closely tied to the development of Philhellenism. The revival of Greek culture was a trend within the European society of the early 19th century. The excavations starting in Olympia in 1875 also triggered interest in the Ancient Olympic Games and evoked the idea to revive the Games. Coubertin’s main merit was the transformation of the different National Games into International Games and their permanent establishment every four years in different venues.

Can the history of the Modern Olympic Games since 1896 be described as a forward march which never halted? Is it all citius-altius-fortius?

First, it is important to define success. Do we mean success in economical terms or do we moreover think of it as a successful implementation of ideas?

Concerning the economy, the Games can be without any doubt considered as a success. By only looking at the sheer numbers of participants, spectators, journalists and the turn-over created by the different Organizing Committees this fact becomes imminent.

Additionally, the IOC uses a certain percentage of the TV revenue to finance Olympic Solidarity, a programme which offers help to poorer NOCs and athletes. As a result, the IOC and the Olympic Movement became prosperous and wealthy over the years.

Although the Games are watched by billions all over the world, most people think of Olympism just in terms of “participating is everything”. Therefore it can be concluded that Olympic Education has not become a major element of the national *curricula* yet. Additionally, the Olympic Movement still struggles to promote the thought of *Ekecheiria* or Olympic Truce to a wider public. Therefore, the philosophical impact of the Games is severely limited. There is still a lot of work to do to overcome the image that the Games are just a sport spectacle and successful commercialised mega-event.

Looking at the Games from a historical perspective one must state that the Olympics managed to overcome difficult situations such as the East-West-Conflict, the question of Amateurism and corruption. On the other hand it is more than arguable, if especially the IOC adopted a constant approach towards highly political questions. Moreover, organizers, media, spectators and athletes have to ask themselves in which direction they want to lead the Games. Coming generations have to think about the threat of terrorism, the advancing commercialisation of the Games and, more importantly, doping.

Olympic Education

Philosophy of Olympic Education:

One reason for the wide recognition of the Olympic Games is the philosophical basis of the movement—Olympism. The role of Olympic Education (OE) is to implement the principles of Olympism into our lives and determine what the theory means to practice. One fundamental aspect is *areté*, which is taken to be an ideal, common to all, of individual

striving for excellence. Another fundamental aspect is the promotion of inner balance which means a change of behaviour towards the achievement of harmonious development and the preservation of human dignity. Thus, OE aims at promoting values not just in sport but in society at large, which means a kind of “Olympic living” for everybody.

Steps for Building an Olympic Education Program:

In order to implement a successful Olympic Education program certain conditions must be met:

1. A primary consideration is to determine who will be targeted. Who the program refers to impacts the development and sustainability of the values and maintains the integrity of the Olympic movement. While the education should be as far reaching as possible, certain groups should be emphasized: children and youth; athletes; and officials, journalists and volunteers. Most programs nowadays address children and youth and are implemented in schools.
2. Care needs to be taken to determine the aims and contents of OE with a view to the different target groups. Methods and curricula must be developed to match the divergent target groups mentioned above.
3. A determination needs to be made as to who will administer OE programs. What role will governments, sport federation and organization officials, and educators play must be negotiated so that the message of Olympism is conveyed in the most beneficial fashion?
4. It is important to determine what resources are available to implement OE programs. Concerns of teacher training, material costs, and scope and range of implantation are limited by budgetary constraints. Care must be taken, so that administrators remain good stewards of educational resources.

5. Once OE programs are implemented, evaluations must be made to determine how effectively educational goals are being met. A measurement of achieving learning outcomes is needed to assess the usefulness and efficacy of OE programs.

The Future of Olympic Education

Olympic Education is an important aspect in the education of all persons. In order to assure its relevancy and validity in the future, certain issues need to be addressed:

1. In most countries, OE is not included in official governmental curricula, which means OE is not a part of the educational background of many students. In order to counteract this problem, the IOC, which trumpets *Sport for All*, and Olympic organizations interested in the promotion of Olympism, should promote OE for all as well.

2. Despite the wealth of OE materials that exist, it is often difficult to adequately allocate resources. In such an effort, there should be the development of regional/cultural networks that can organize and mobilize the expertise that currently is underutilized.

3. It is difficult to evaluate OE programs, particularly the assessment of qualitative changes in behavior. Despite this difficulty, it is important to evaluate current OE programs in order to appropriately direct future resources and make necessary changes to existing programs. This is to ensure the future viability and significance of Olympic Education.

Olympic Truce Session 24 – 27 May 2005

Conclusion

The IOA students had the unique opportunity to participate in the first session of the Olympic Truce foundation. Below we provide a brief account of the proceedings.

Mission

The mission of the International Olympic Truce Foundation is to promote the Olympic Ideals, to serve peace, friendship and international understanding. In particular, to uphold the observance of the Olympic Truce, calling for all hostilities to cease during the Olympic Games and beyond, and mobilizing the youth of the world in the cause of peace. The International Olympic Truce Centre is dedicated to creating the necessary support framework for the observance of the Olympic Truce and for the global promotion of a Culture of Peace, in accordance with the principles and policies established by the Foundation.

Building partnerships

To promote their mission, the Foundation and the Centre cooperate for the formulation of partnership networks with:

- The institutions of the Olympic Family
- International and national organizations
- Non-governmental organizations
- Private citizen initiatives and institutions.

Three pillars of action

1. Global Truce Forum
2. Culture of Peace
3. Truce Building

Conclusion of the session

- The request NOCs to urge their governments to co-sponsor the Olympic Truce Resolution at the 60th UN General Assembly;
- To request the President of the IOC and IOTF to accept the invitation by the Greek Government to institutionalize the forum

- into an annual event on the calendar of the Olympic Movement;
- To urge the IOC-IOTF-IOTC to develop a manual for conflict prevention and resolution and post conflict reconciliation through sport;
 - To encourage organizers to introduce Olympic Truce activities at regional games;
 - To request closer relationships between CISM and other international sports organizations, and the IOTF, in order to promote the cause of peace through traditional and innovative initiatives;
 - To request the IOC-IOTF to extend their work at national level by supporting special requests from NOCs;
 - To request the IOC-IOTF to organize, with NOCs and partner organizations, Olympic Values (education, peace and sport) confidence-building youth camps in countries and regions of extreme need in order to build understanding and respect;
 - To appeal to the IOC President to use his good offices, in the spirit of the Olympic Truce, to facilitate the participation of all the member countries of the International Committee of the Mediterranean Games in next edition of the games in Almeria and all future editions;
 - To urge the IOTF-IOTC to inform the broad Olympic Family about initiatives in sport and peace at all levels and to create symbolic actions to honour such activities;
 - To congratulate BOCOG, TOROC and VANOC for their imaginative plans in which the Olympic Truce is central to the organization of the Games in their countries;

SOCIO-CULTURAL ASPECTS OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

Introduction

The general theme for the seminars in Week Three was the social and economic-cultural impacts of the Olympic Games. The professors shared their insights and understandings about the influences on the Games in modern times, and how these have developed. They also provided a unique insider/outsider perspective of the most recent Games here in Athens. Summaries of the content of the lectures and the knowledge we gained during week three of the Seminar follow.

The Economics of the Olympic Games – Perspectives for the analysis of the socio-economic dimensions of the Olympic Movement

The first lecture introduced us to economic thinking and perspectives concerning the Olympic Games and Olympic Movement. The context of this lecture was wider and also included a general view into the sport economy. The lecture discourse had two focus directions. First, it divided the Olympic Movement into two economic subjects – the Olympic Games and the Olympic Organisations – and it helped us to a better understanding of the backgrounds of the Olympic Games and of the governance in Olympic Organisations. On the other hand, the lecture was focused on the understanding of economical thinking and on clarifying current economical theories. If we compare Klaus Heinemann's lecture with those of the earlier weeks, he highlighted one very interesting point: that philosophies of scientific thinking are

in some crucial points in opposition. This lecture in particular helped use to gain a view into economical background of big sport events and understand better economical thinking and decision-making.

Coubertin's Concept of "Eurhythmie" and its relation to ancient Greek dialectic philosophy

Eurhythmics refers to human synthesis or balance informed by cultural values, social structures, personal experiences, organic states and environmental effects. Coubertin promoted the idea that the Olympic Games were a vehicle to emphasise the balance between sport and culture. Coubertin believed that humans, although not perfect, struggled for virtue which comprises of a healthy and harmonious balance that can be developed via sporting contests. Olympism can be encapsulated as a spiritual attitude resulting from a double worship of harmony and physical effort. Within the concept of eurhythmics exists a negotiation internal within the athlete. Coubertin refers to an exchange or flow between athletes which maintains the balance of eurhythmics, for example, striving for victory whilst simultaneously respecting notions of fair play. This concept of eurhythmics is also manifested in Olympic architecture and design and particularly taking into consideration the protection of the environment for the duration of the games and subsequent to hosting the Games. The question of whether this harmonious balance of eurhythmics still exists in the contemporary Olympic Games is an eminent one. For example, it is possible to suggest that steroid abuse as an effective means to succeed in the Olympics contradicts the eurhythmics, or balance, of the Olympics in a number of ways.

Sport Sponsoring as a simulation of gift giving/as a status competition

According to Bourdieu we can distinguish different forms of capital: economic, social, and symbolic. Social and symbolic capital are

harder to define than economic, yet both bring rewards for investors who hope that through sponsoring sport a positive image will be transferred to them in the minds of the public. Within the sponsorship of the Olympic Games exists both symbolic (e.g. Olympic rings) and economic capital relations that can be considered an exchange of goods. The sponsors who invest money in the organization of the Olympic Games cannot only be considered as donors. By using the Olympic Games as a platform of communication the sponsors receive a form of capital back: they are not only altruistic givers which is often the perception by the public. Olympic sponsorship is therefore only a simulation of donation, in that the sponsors want a return on their investment to improve their image. Being an Olympic Sponsor is a great chance for the advertisement and promotion of a brand all over the world. Thus, sponsorship in truth is not a one-sided action with one giver and one receiver. The sponsors' purchase of the rights to use the symbol of the Olympic Rings is an exchange between economic and symbolic capital that tries to create a kind of equal terms of trade that result in advantages for both sides. There is need to avoid the spreading of negative tendencies like corruption and doping because they represent a danger to the symbolic capital of the Olympic Games by decreasing the attractiveness for sponsorship, which in turn negatively affects the economic capital exchange.

Olympic Games and Governance

Adopting a managerial point of view, the Olympic Movement can be considered as a system in which there are multiple actors each which follows its own goals and has influence on the whole system. There are five key actors in the Olympic Movement: the International Olympic Committee (IOC), the National Olympic Committees (NOCs), the International Federations (IFs), the Organizing Committees of the Olympic Games (OCOGs) and the athletes. However, during the last

decades new actors within the Olympic Movement have appeared and have increasing influence. The economic importance of the media and associated rights gives means broadcasters now have strong power inside the “Olympic system” (e.g. influence on Games program timing). Media have also pressured the IOC to become more transparent after recent scandals (e.g. bidding). The size and cost of the Games (e.g. because of required security measures) has meant governments of countries must be involved in the organizing process, even though the IOC declares the Games must be independent. International and national sponsors are also attracted by social and symbolic capital associated with the Games and their financial contributions are now vital for the staging of the Games, and thus sponsors also hold power. The addition of new actors in the Olympic Movement triggers us to think about sports governance, and consider how different goals and strategies of these actors have changed power relations in determining the future of the Olympic Movement.

Athens 2004 from the Spectators’ Perspective

Television has become a powerful element in sport spectating, evidenced by huge ratings for major sports events. Even live sports audiences can watch events on televisions within stadiums. However, many spectators still prefer to see the game at the stadium because of intrinsic factors: they want to be involved and entertained and feel the excitement of ‘being there’. The research presented in this lecture showed that the majority of spectators to the Olympic Games 2004 were local Greeks, rather than foreigners, impacting upon tourist and economic considerations related to hosting the Games. Most of the foreigners that did come to Athens 2004 were from Europe, including Italy, Germany and France. The low numbers of spectators from outside Europe may be attributable to safety and security concerns, while travelling to the Games as well as at the Games. The reason for spectators coming to

see the Games is mainly to witness peak performance. Spectators who witnessed the cultural program associated with Athens 2004 were less than at previous Games (Barcelona 36%, Atlanta 34%, Sydney 29%, Athens 23%). The low attendance is due to the higher proportion of domestic spectators, who are already showing awareness and understanding of Greek culture, and who do not need to attend events intended to display these elements to the world.

Economic Impact of Olympics

Scholars should be reserved concerning the validity of economic impact studies associated with the Olympics. All studies (conducted prior to the Games) suggest a favorable outcome of the Olympics because cities want to host the Games. However, the Olympics only cause a moderate increase of income, spread over many years following the Games. While the Games induce a remarkable increase of jobs, these are mainly short-term appointments. The Games may also cause significant short-term increases of prices, particularly hotels and restaurants. It seems that the intangible impacts of the Games (e.g. improved international image) are considered more important than direct tangible economic impacts, which is why cities continue to bid. It is not easy to measure these intangible effects and more qualitative and longitudinal studies are required to gain greater understanding of the economic impact and effects of an Olympics on a host city and country.

Financing the Olympic Movement

There are three sources of financing the Olympic Games. The state has to assume responsibility for operating expenses, and show it will guarantee to cover any Games deficit. Donations can be financial or in-kind (e.g. volunteering). Sale of Olympic property rights owned by the IOC via Olympic Marketing programs also occurs. The Olympic

Marketing program has three levels:

- 1) Marketing Programme of the IOC (e.g. TOP Program and TV rights) encompassing a philosophical approach and a commercial approach.
- 2) Programs of the Organizing Committee – national level sponsorship
- 3) NOC Marketing Program – each country's Olympic program

Issues raised in financing the Olympic movement include the growth of the size of the Games. Big Games limit which size countries have the capacity to host, which may be in opposition to Olympic ideals of inclusion. Also, will we be able to find and maintain the right balance between Olympic ideals and philosophy on one hand and commercialization on the other? In other words, trying to sustain the harmony – the Eurhythmie of the Games.

Communication Strategy of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games

The Olympics are an effective symbolic opportunity to attract world attention, therefore the messages a host city communicates about the Games are important for improving national visibility and presenting a national image to the world. In Athens 2004, the values or messages that the host city wanted to communicate to the world were: Uniqueness of Greece and Athens in relation to ideology and origins of Games (“Welcome Home” slogan), Heritage by building bridges between ancient and modern Olympic symbols (logo, mascots, torch, etc.), Human scale of man as measure of all things, Participation of all, Celebration of sport culture peace, etc. Electronic media as well as banner advertising around the city were used to transmit these messages and the link between modern and ancient culture was successfully made presenting an overall positive image even though there was much negative press opinion about Athens until the roof went up on the stadium. The Olympic communication strategy required many

resources: media facilities in each venue, and a central media centre were key elements to ensure the effective communication of Athens 2004 messages to the world.

Overall Conclusions

Overall, the Week Three lectures helped us to better understand the structure of the Olympic movement and what influences it. The political-economic perspectives presented highlighted that one has to look carefully at many elements to fully understand the multiple ways the Olympic Games operate in contemporary society. The Games are not only an athletic contest, but are tied closely to stakeholders like sponsors and nations who use them as a means to achieve other ends, such as improving image and economic development. Many of us had not considered these aspects of the Games before, so we take from these lectures an appreciation for the broadening of our critical knowledge base.

ETHICAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL ASPECTS RELATED TO THE OLYMPIC GAMES

Introduction

The 13th International Seminar on Olympic studies for Postgraduate Students has provided a forum for studies on the ‘three pillars’ – the Olympic Games, the Olympic Movement and Olympism. These studies involve both the Ancient Games and contemporary Olympic issues. The week in focus covered a multiplicity of topics, delivered by four professors from varying academic disciplines, focusing mainly on the modern Olympic Games with particular reference to the Olympic and Paralympic Games of Athens 2004. Through the prism of philosophy, sociology, and economics the professors delivered thought-provoking lectures which provided the students with insight on the socio – political and economic aspects of the Modern Games (business, media and communication, management and organisation), whilst also examining the ethical and philosophical issues within the modern movement (genetic engineering, the rights of athletes and sport as a moral educator). The content and delivery of each session ensured stimulating and analytical discussion throughout the week and provided a unique opportunity for an interdisciplinary and trans-cultural approach to Olympic studies.

This conclusive paper will aim to provide a concise overview of the lectures delivered throughout this week. The specific aim of the paper is to surmise the topics and to draw conclusive remarks concerning the impact of differing scholastic discourse on the Olympic Games and Olympism.

The topics during this week specialised on two main fields (we recognise that these examples are not exhaustive) Olympic solidarity / equity and moral philosophy. Throughout the seminar the discussion of women's representation in the 3 pillars of the Olympic movement has been raised through the avenue of different academic discourses. This lecture provided an insight into gender equity within recognised National Olympic Committees. The empirical evidence gathered throughout this study provides a forum for analytical discussion. A number of important issues were raised concerning the place of women in the hierarchy and operational roles within the Olympic movement. More so, this study highlighted the progressive work within the Olympics, aimed at reaching our vision of gender equity, which still remains beyond our grasp. The Olympic Games works exhaustively to bring women in line with its movements, organisation, management and practice. However, a more significant initiative for the Olympic movement would ask how it can fall in line with women.

The moral issues within sports philosophy dominated the week's lectures creating stimulating and dynamic discussion. One of the most pertinent questions that arose came from the lecture concerning genetic engineering. Human nature itself lies on the operating table, ready for alteration, for eugenic and neuropsychic "enhancement," for wholesale design. In leading laboratories, academic and industrial, new creators are confidently amazing their power. The limits of many capacities and powers of an individual are indeed genetically determined, but the nurturing and perfection of these capacities depends on other influences. Modern science has been especially interested in finding reliable biological means to change the human into a 'perfect' athlete.

This is just one of the topics raised which problematises the Olympic Games as a forum for moral development and as a safe environment for athletes. This week has illustrated to the seminar the

importance, not only of sports sociology, in examining the sporting world, but the role of philosophy which provides us with conceptual tools aimed at moving us closer to a morally sound Olympism.

Genetic Engineering, Transhumanism and the future of Olympic sport

Human nature itself lies on the Operating table, ready for alteration, for eugenic and neuropsychic “enhancement,” for wholesale design. In leading laboratories, academic and industrial, new creators are confidently amazing their power. The limits of many capacities and powers of an individual are indeed genetically determined, but the nurturing and perfection of these capacities depends on other influences. Modern science has been especially interested in finding reliable biological means to change the human into a ‘perfect’ being ... But what is perfect?

Genetic Engineering

Two concepts of genetic engineering: 1) the control of human potentialities and 2) the control of human achievements. Genetic engineering is changing and altering who we are. It promises alterations to future generations and may create new capacities and in this way changing the human potential.

Two schools of thought about human engineering are:

1. new biology : old ethics
2. new biology: new ethics

1. New Biology: Old ethics

Questions like what is the true role of medicine? What limitations should there be on improving our bodily performance and removing causes for suffering?

2. New Biology: New ethics

Should there be any stop in medicine to improve the human to “perfect” status? Why not use the scientific knowledge available?

When is medicine beyond therapy?

One of the central uses for medicine is to relieve pain and suffering. Medicine is thought of as a kind of restoration to “normal” functioning and a kind of therapy. But is vaccination, therapy or is it the enhancement of the human?

Transhumanism

Transhumanism argues that if scientific methods are available to “improve the human”, the persons need to decide themselves if they want to make use of it or not; it should be open for freedom of choice. This itself brings ethical questions such like discrimination between the rich and the poor...

The myth about “Prometheus” ends with the question: Do we proclaim “Aeschylus” as champion: the one who brings the civilized arts to mortals and in this concept the one who makes humanity better not perfect? Or “Prometheus” who attempts to trick Zeus and pays the price for his “hubris” and in this concept wants to trick the “gods”?

Sports policy in Brasil

We were talking about Sports policy in Brazilian larger cities like Sao Paulo, Rio de Janeiro etc.. How factors like, for example, rapid urbanization, increasing of life and growing of the elderly population, increasing number of people engaging in sport and activities etc. affecting urban and sports policy in those cities. The biggest problem or factor affecting urban and sport policy is the increasing number of people engaging in

sport and leisure. Here are some solutions to solve the abovementioned problem: extensive coverage of sports by mass media; emergence of organized sports for all; opening a large number of sports centers and advent of new forms of sports. Very important for urban and sports policy in these large Brazilian cities is also participative budget, which is helping to encourage community participation in the formulation and implementation of the policies as to improve democracy system.

Children's rights and elite sport participation

In this lecture the ethical issues surrounding children participating in elite sport was explored. Often, elite child athletes are coerced into sport participation by coaches and parents. This presents a morally problematic situation in that children, who are not autonomous beings, cannot consent to elite sport participation.

The lecture began with conceptual clarification of the idea of a child. What is a child? Is this definition universal? Is this definition appropriate? After gaining a better understanding of children, their participation in elite sport was discussed. It was argued that in some cases children are exploited through their elite sport participation. The intensive training and serious risk of harm inherent in elite sport participation may abrogate the rights of children and may interfere with their best interests. Coaches and parents who fanatically promote their child's elite sport participation may be neglecting their inherent duties to protect the child and their interests in the pursuit of financial gains or sport glorification. Given that children are often coerced into elite sport, and their participation presents interferes with their right to childhood, ought they to participate?

Ethics and 'Ethics' in sport

Every lecture gives us a new knowledge. So, we must pay attention if we want to get some new knowledge.

This lecture gave us a new vision on ethics problems in modern Olympic and professional sport. At the first step he was trying to give us an idea – what is ethics? How we can definite it? Is it a part of morality or not? Are its concepts universal? And then he tries to show us what ethical problems exist in modern Olympic and professional sport.

For instance, one of the most difficult and controversial problems in today's sport is involvement of children in professional sport.

And to be honest I think his attempt to show us these problems achieved its aim. And I think every one of us now got a new vision of modern Olympic and professional sport – that it's a more difficult system than we imagined before.

Olympic Education and sport for children in situations of vulnerability

By blending sport and culture, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the **joy** found in the effort, the educational value of good example and respect of universal fundamental ethical principles. Sport should be seen as the practices that act as a context for:

1. Development of human excellences and virtues
2. Cultivation of those qualities of character that dispose one to act virtuously.

Three case studies were presented to us to illustrate the effect of sport on children in vulnerable situations as well as how the project is implemented in Brasilia.

Case Study 1: Project Navegor

From National level to local level six different parties are involved in this project that encouraged kids to take part in water sports (canoeing, rowing, sailing) as a mean to promote social inclusion. A criteria for these kids is that they need to attend school, if not they aren't allowed in the project. The project provides food and transportation

to the “Nautical Stadium” where the activities take place. Children approximately between 12-15 years take part in this project.

Case Study 2: Project Fila Vatima

It is a very poor and unsafe area where children between 3-12 years take part in activities. The activities are according to the interest of the participants and the amount of women taking part in the activities is limited. The local community wants to have a bigger say in these activities. The area where the activities take place is an open field, with no grass in between the local housing. Soccer is the main activity.

Case Study 3: Project Open School

UNESCO together with various national and local parties is involved in this project. The project aims to reduce violence in schools and surrounding areas by increasing the leisure activities over weekends. The idea is to open the schools over weekends to develop leisure and sport activities such as dance, theatre, cinema and different sports. 6360 Schools are involved in 8 states. The results are impressive, with a decrease in physical aggression, vandalism, break-ins, graffiti etc. The biggest improvement was in drug traffic and homicides. The same program is now started in Argentina, with Morocco and Peru to follow.

Sport, policy and politics

Olympism is a kind of philosophy. Not just important for the elite minority, but for the majority not just a short truce period, but the whole life. Not just competition and winning, but the values of participation and cooperation. Sport not just be taken as an activity, but possesses formative and developmental influence.

According to the former president of IOA we can conclude that Olympism can be understood as tolerance, generosity, solidarity,

friendship, non-discrimination and respect to others. Policy is a set of interrelated decisions taken by a political actor or group of actors concerning the selection of goals and means of achieving them within a specific situation where these decisions should, in principle, be within the power of these actors to achieve.

Sport policies as a field of study can be researched as following:

- Globalization
- Government involvement
- State as a remarkable characteristic of the modern societies
- State as the promoter of the common good
- Sport as a common good
- Research aims:
 - Investigate motives
 - Investigate process of sport policy making
- Policy affects
- Responsibilities of central/federal government.
- Interconnection between sport policies and other public policies
- Comparative studies of policies between home and abroad.
- Related areas of study:
 - Sport economics
 - Sport management law and sport law
 - Sport sociology
 - Ethics and political philosophy
 - Political science

We discussed some existing problems concerning examples of sports policies and how to research public policies. There is a general principle for democratic sport policies to follow:

- To attend the whole population.
- To be multicultural in terms of offering a wide range of sports and

other physical activities

- To involve different sectors of the society in terms of power decision
- At last we conducted a practical exercise to discuss the following questions:
 - Why should government develop policies and invest public money in sport?
 - What is the criterion to decide where to invest public money?
 - Who should decide about the criteria?
- The conclusions for the first question were: publish health, education, national identity, productive work force, etc.
- The conclusions for the second question were: national identity, sports for all, cultural interest, etc.
- The conclusions for the last question were various. Some groups said the government. Some groups said the sport organizations and community in general.

This lecture on the impact of the Olympic Games of 2004 gave us the opportunity to think why we are interested in the impact of the Olympic Games. The main points of our preoccupation with this are the following:

- Scale of the Olympic Games as Mega- event
- Olympism as Humanistic Project
- Brand image of the Olympic Rings
- Measure of effectiveness

There were additional impacts:

- Economic (modernization, investment, consumer spending, employment inflation)
- Social (pride, sports participation, Human Rights, taxing)
- Political (regime power, city power, legal reform)

- Environmental (urban development, sustainability, urgency undermine process)
- Spatial (local, regional, national) and temporal (bidding, planning, games times) dimension of impact

Finally there were references to the feature of the impacts and these were environmental, social (abandonment of public policies) and economic.

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