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18th INTERNATIONAL SESSION
ON OLYMPIC STUDIES FOR POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS

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INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY

18th INTERNATIONAL SESSION
ON OLYMPIC STUDIES FOR POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS

SPECIAL SUBJECT:

*INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY:
50 YEARS OF OLYMPIC EDUCATION*

ANCIENT OLYMPIA

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Commemorative photo of the Seminar.

FOREWORD

The 18th International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students, which was provisionally interrupted due to the financial crisis that Greece is facing, was organized after one year's delay.

The members of the Ephoria of the IOA and its staff welcomed the students once again ensuring conditions for its continuation.

This was the first time that distinguished professors of ancient Greek history, Thomas Scanlon and Wendy Raschke, were invited and lectured during an IOA activity. For the students, as well as those who attended their lectures, this was an unforgettable educational experience to which Associate Professor Evangelos Albanidis also contributed.

The students who had previously visited the archaeological sites of Athens, Nemea, Epidauros and Mycenae and relevant museums, now had a complete picture of Greek civilization and the conditions under which the idea of competition had taken shape in Antiquity.

The high level of papers and courses also continued during the second lecture series by Professors Holger Preuss, Jeffrey Segrave, Kazuo Uchiumi and Vassil Girginov, who explored subjects related to the modern Olympic Games, focusing on the economic, social and educational parameters of the Games.

During the third lecture series the professors of sport philosophy and ethics Heather Reid, Leo Hsu and Sigmund Loland presented their studies and research work on the educational, therapeutic and humanitarian mission of sport in modern society.

Furthermore, Ms Dora Palli, Deputy Director of the International Olympic

Truce Centre, presented as a guest lecturer the IOTC's work and educational activities.

Only the students' papers are published in the Seminar's proceedings, according to the initial idea of offering young researchers a platform for publishing their research work and original papers.

The Proceedings of the 18th Seminar contain 35 papers of young people from 28 different countries, thus reflecting a multicultural approach to the phenomenon of the Olympic Games. They also constitute an interdisciplinary educational resource for the study of the Olympic Movement and the intercultural documentation and recording of the undertaking. Through the professors' lectures and the dialogue with students answers were sought to questions such as to what extent the knowledge of the history of the ancient Olympic Games can contribute to our understanding of the modern Olympic Movement or to what extent can the modern Olympic ideology guide our understanding of the ancient Olympic Games. With respect to the sociological facets of the Olympic Movement, issues related to the finances of the Olympic Games, the bidding procedure, the legacy of mega sports events were discussed. The questions of the Games' commercialization, as well as the idea of amateurism were also considered.

The professors' lectures led to intensive discussion on Pierre de Coubertin's ideas regarding international understanding, patriotism, internationalism, the ideal of beauty and aesthetics in sport and the religious elements, which Olympism contains.

With respect to the philosophical and ethical aspects of the Movement, participants had the opportunity to discuss issues related to the purposes of philosophy and sport, the divisive subject of doping in sport, questions of justice and fair play, the development of virtues, the joy found in effort, Olympism in Asia, Olympic education, etc.

The students' brilliant presentations contributed significantly to the enriching of the Seminar's educational work.

On behalf of the Ephoria of the IOA, we want to express our warmest thanks to the professors, the students, the students' coordinator and the staff of the IOA

and the Hellenic Olympic Committee who created the conditions for a successful educational activity.

We also extend warm thanks to the IOC and its President Dr Jacques Rogge for his unrelenting support to the IOA's educational work.

Finally, we thank the Hellenic Olympic Committee for its continuous support to the IOA's educational mission, despite the financial crisis.

Prof. Konstantinos GEORGIADIS
IOA Honorary Dean

**Opening Ceremony
of the 18th International Seminar
on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students
ANCIENT OLYMPIA, 5th September 2011**

ADDRESS AND OPENING
of the works of the Seminar
by the President of the International Olympic Academy,
Isidoros KOUVELOS

Dear friends and participants of the 18th International Seminar for Postgraduate Students,

It's a great pleasure for me to welcome you to Greece, the country that gave birth to the Olympic Ideal and has made the maxim "a healthy mind in a healthy body" a way of life by disseminating to the rest of the world Olympic Values like fair play and excellence.

I am particularly happy because, during my first term as the President of the IOA, I have the honour to welcome at the historic site of Ancient Olympia young students from various countries of the globe who devote their studies on the Olympic phenomenon.

The International Olympic Academy under the auspices of the International Olympic Committee, with its administrative headquarters in Athens and its facilities in Ancient Olympia, represents a milestone in the history of the modern Olympic Movement. It is the first and unique educational institution for Olympic education and remains the cultural center of the Olympic Movement. The Olympic Academy is closely linked to the Greek landscape. Its geographical location was chosen to be Olympia, next to the archaeological site. This is a decisive factor for its ideological identity, further enhanced by the fact that this same location was chosen as the resting place for Pierre de Coubertin's heart in a special commemorative stele.

This Seminar is a major event for the Academy for many years as it offers

an opportunity to young people to meet at the sacred place of Ancient Olympia and debate philosophical issues in a place where memory and history awaken our senses.

Unfortunately last year, the economical crisis that struck Greece made impossible this important gathering. However, this year, together with the celebration of the 50th Anniversary of IOA, it would have been unacceptable not to organise such a Session.

The IOA's scientific contribution is internationally acknowledged. Many people have worked for this result, among them prominent Greek and foreign scientists. And so today we can proudly say that the Academy with this specialized postgraduate seminar, which has been operating for 18 years now and with its International Postgraduate Programme (Master's Degree) which will begin its third Academic Period in a few days, is aiming at the development of young scientists from all over the world specialized in the field of Sport, Olympism and Olympic education.

The IOA's strong presence and unquestionable recognition in the international scientific and broader academic community is the outcome of its significant work with outstanding results in the field of international cooperation with distinguished foreign university institutions and research centers. The objective of the Academy's international activity is to promote its educational and research work, encourage scientific achievement, attract prominent scientists, develop and improve the quality of the services it provides in the field of teaching, research and education.

I believe that this Session's theme "The Olympic Games and the Olympic Movement: Past, Present and Future – An Analysis from the Historical, Philosophical and Social Perspectives" and with the Special Topic: "50 years of Olympic Education" is extremely important and your conclusions will be distributed to IOC and the rest of the Olympic Institutions.

Dear friends, I am really disappointed that I could not be present in this opening ceremony due to heavy duties far from Greece. I would like to wish every success to the works of this Seminar and I am convinced that you shall all have an opportunity to express your views and consider different aspects related to the dimensions of Olympic education perspectives, especially for the future generations.

Students' Papers

- The opinions of the students do not necessarily reflect those of the International Olympic Academy.
- Out of respect for multiculturalism and diversity of scientific research, we do not intervene in every student's personal way of presenting his/her bibliography and footnotes.

OLYMPIC IMAGERY IN PERICLES' EPITAPHIOS LOGOS

Teresa YATES (USA)

Some of the crucial values of the Olympic Games, and in Greek athletics generally, are reflected in those found in Pericles' description of the Athenian citizens in his *epitaphios logos* in Book 2 of Thucydides' *Peloponnesian War*¹. Pericles was one of the leading Athenian citizens in 431 B.C., and as such he gave this funeral oration in honor of the Athenians who had died in the first year of the war against Sparta. In this oration, Pericles defines the excellence of Athens as well as of the individuals who had taken place in the war, and he uses specific themes and vocabulary that would have evoked images of athletic competitions. In doing so, he describes the qualities that are embodied by the competitors, more specifically the victors, who participated in the Olympic Games and other similar athletic contests. It is significant that Thucydides, through Pericles, neglects to mention that this oration would have been accompanied by games, and nevertheless uses imagery and vocabulary that is suggestive of the qualities of the participants of athletic games².

There is an important distinction that must be addressed regarding the speaker of this funeral oration. While Pericles was an historical figure, and by all accounts did give an *epitaphios logos* in Athens after the first year of the Peloponnesian War, it is important to understand that Thucydides is the author of this

1. *Thuc.* II.35-46.

2. Hornblower (1991) 292-3, 315.

speech. There is a great deal of controversy in modern scholarship about how close Thucydides' version is to what Pericles actually said. Harding believes that "the chances are good that Thucydides heard the funeral oration and actually reproduced in large part what Pericles spoke", but refrains from commenting further on this statement³. Rusten also believes that since this speech would have been a major event of the war, it would have been "subject to the same standards of factual accuracy as any other event"⁴. Rusten does, however, qualify this statement by citing Thucydides' methods of writing speeches, saying that Thucydides claims that what he wrote "was 'keeping as closely as possible to the general content of what was actually said'", yet Thucydides also admits that "he has composed the speeches to include 'more or less what has to be said about the respective situations'"⁵. Other scholars believe that the truth falls somewhere in between. Chambers, for example, believes that the funeral oration "is what Pericles might have said, compounded with what Thucydides would have liked him to say"⁶. Hornblower points out that it is next to impossible to compare this oration to other speeches of the same type, and that it is difficult to say how much of the speech is Pericles' and how much is Thucydidean invention⁷. It is perhaps most productive to read Pericles' speech with Thucydides' own comments on the composition of his speeches in mind.

Thucydides' failure to mention the accompanying games is significant because of the athletic allusions that occur throughout the speech. Hornblower claims that "Thucydides' omission of the whole topic is deliberate and (in view of the choice

3. Harding (1973) 3. This unqualified comment is interesting, especially since it is followed by this statement, "we can assume that Thucydides makes his characters speak in the ways in which he himself was trained or influenced and that he is always trying to have them say what is most appropriate for the occasion". Harding (1973) 3. This seems to directly contradict what was said before, since Harding fails to recognize the possibility that Thucydides may have altered Pericles' speech through a personal agenda.

4. Rusten (1989) 8.

5. Rusten (1989) 8. (ὥς δ' ἂν ἐδόκουν ἐμοὶ ἕκαστοι περὶ τῶν αἰεὶ παρόντων τὰ δέοντα μάλιστα εἰπεῖν, ἐχομένῳ ὅτι ἐγγύτατα τῆς ξυμπάσης γνώμης τῶν ἀληθῶς λεχθέντων, οὕτως εἴρηται.) I.22.1, trans. Rusten.

6. Chambers (1957) 81.

7. Hornblower (1991) 294-5.

of words in the present passage) defiant”⁸. After having praised Athens’ ancestors and its pure form of democracy, Thucydides sets up Athens as an “education for Hellas” and something to be admired⁹. Education included laborious training, as stated by Thucydides, and athletic training and military training were also closely linked¹⁰. Starting at childhood, the Athenians were groomed athletically, although prowess as an athlete was seen as a negative thing in a man who lacked military skill¹¹. By neglecting to explicitly mention the games that would have accompanied the *epitaphios logos*, it seems as though Thucydides is focusing on the athletic prowess of the Athenians as it would have related to its military capability. He utilizes the athletic imagery in a military context to show a dual focus on the honor of the polis – both militarily and athletically. Since the occasion for the funeral oration was a military one, Thucydides focuses on the military aspects of the soldiers and their education. By including the athletic undertones, he illustrates that the Athenian youth were allowed a proper respite from the labors of military training, which he calls “a more relaxed way of life”, and include “games and festivals throughout the year”¹². This way of life, however, does not make the Athenians any less willing to engage in military endeavors; on the contrary, the implications of Thucydides’ words makes it seem as though the respite from labor is beneficial and makes them more willing and able to fight. Furthermore, it implies that the activities in which the Athenians took place were athletic activities, which were athletic exploits that not only honed their athletic skills, but also brought further honor to the *polis*.

As stated previously, Thucydides portrays the city as something which inspired amazement, as the games would have been. Many of the athletic competi-

8. Hornblower (1991) 315.

9. *Thuc.* II.41.1 (ξυνελών τε λέγω τήν τε πᾶσαν πόλιν τῆς Ἑλλάδος παίδευσιν εἶναι”; *Thuc.* II.39.4. “καὶ ἐν τε τοῦτοις τήν πόλιν ἀξίαν εἶναι θαυμάζεσθαι καὶ ἔτι ἐν ἄλλοις).

10. *Thuc.* II.39.1.

11. Miller (2004) 148.

12. *Thuc.* II.38.1 (Καὶ μὴν καὶ τῶν πόνων πλείστας ἀναπαύλας τῇ γνώμῃ ἐπορισάμεθα, ἀγῶσι μὲν γε καὶ θυσίαις διαιτησίαις νομίζοντες, ἰδίαις δὲ κατασκευαῖς εὐπρεπέσιν, ὧν καθ’ ἡμέραν ἡ τέρψις τὸ λυπηρὸν ἐκπλήσσει). (“Furthermore, we have provided for the spirit the most plentiful respites from labor by providing games and festivals throughout the year as well as attractive surroundings for private life, a source of daily delight, which drives away cares”. Trans. Lattimore).

tions would have drawn great interest, but the Olympic Games, taking place as they did every four years, would have drawn exceptionally large crowds from all over Greece. Thucydides describes the city as something worthy of wonder, especially when he claims that

“We leave our city accessible to all and do not, by *xenelasia*, prevent anyone from either listening or observing, although some enemy might benefit by seeing what we do not hide, because we do not put more trust in contrivance and deception than in the courageous readiness for action that come from within”¹³.

During the Olympic Games, there was a truce in effect between all the city-states, and the games “promoted international (that is, inter-*polis*) communication and understanding”¹⁴. Thus, people even from opposing city-states would have been able to get together and experience the same excitement in watching a member of their *polis* compete in a Pan-Hellenic competition. There is the same tolerance in Athens even during times of war; they did not try to keep other citizens out of the *polis* simply because they were not direct allies. Athens, according to Pericles, is a city that is skilled enough in warfare and has the right positive attributes that it can afford to be seen by enemies in times of war. The system of government, the citizens, the city itself, and even its women, have such virtue that it is a city to be admired¹⁵. Athletes in the Olympic Games, and indeed in other games, were also seen as people who were worthy of admiration, which is attested by the victory odes that were composed on their behalf, as well as by the parties that they organised for their followers¹⁶. Thus, not only does Pericles

13. *Thuc.* II.39.1. (Διαφέρομεν δὲ καὶ ταῖς τῶν πολεμικῶν μελέταις τῶν ἐναντίων τοῖσδε. τήν τε γὰρ πόλιν κοινὴν παρέχομεν, καὶ οὐκ ἔστιν οὔτε ξενηλασίαις ἀπείργομέν τινα ἢ μαθήματος ἢ θεάματος, ὃ μὴ κρυφθὲν ἂν τις τῶν πολεμίων ἰδὼν ὠφεληθεῖν, πιστεύοντες οὐ ταῖς παρασκευαῖς τὸ πλέον καὶ ἀπάταις ἢ τῷ ἀφ’ ἡμῶν αὐτῶν ἐς τὰ ἔργα εὐψύχῳ).

14. Miller (2004) 216.

15. Thucydides speaks about women in II.45.2, saying “τῆς τε γὰρ ὑπαρχούσης φύσεως μὴ χεῖροσι γενέσθαι ὑμῖν μεγάλη ἢ δόξα καὶ ἥς ἂν ἐπ’ ἐλάχιστον ἀρετῆς περίῃ ἢ ψόγου ἐν τοῖς ἄρσεσι κλέος ἢ”. (“Your renown is great through keeping up to the standard of your basic nature, and if your reputation has the least circulation among men, whether for virtue or in blame”. Trans. Lattimore).

16. Spivey (2004) 129-130.

set up Athens as a *polis* that is reliant upon its own strength and resistant to any attempts at subterfuge by the enemy, but also as a *polis* that is worthy of admiration by its neighboring *poleis*, as it would be had one if its members emerged victorious from an athletic competition.

There are many similarities between Pericles' *epitaphios logos* and the *epinikia*, or victory odes, which were written about the victors in athletic competitions. The athletes who participated in the Olympics did so on behalf of their *polis*, in the same way that the Athenians were fighting with the Lacedaimonians on behalf of Athens. The subject of these victory odes, of which Pindar was perhaps the most famous ancient writer, was "the victor who left home to compete as an equal [and] returned as an exceptional, almost heroic, figure"¹⁷. Similarly, those who took place in the war are fighting heroically for the preservation of the city, and Thucydides describes them as such in different ways¹⁸. There is also some similarity between the contents of the funeral oration and the *epinikia*. The poet sang "of the victor, naturally, of his past achievements and future hopes as much as of the occasion for the poem"¹⁹. Thucydides does the same things; he begins in section 36 by discussing the ancestors of the Athenians, whose bravery made it possible for the Athenians to live in a free *polis*²⁰. He also urges the citizens who lived through the first year of the war to continue to defend the city in the same way as those who died²¹. Thucydides put a great deal of emphasis on the positive attributes of the city and citizens, and implores the citizens to continue to defend the city.

There is also a great deal of athletic vocabulary in the final section of Pericles' speech. He compares the honor that those fighting in the military would get with the prizes and glory that an Olympic victor would have gotten:

17. Golden (1998) 81.

18. E.g. "Καὶ οἶδε μὲν προσηκόντως τῇ πόλει τοιοῖδε ἐγένοντο; And so fared these men, worthy of their city" (Trans. Lattimore.) *Thuc.* II.43.1; "ἀ γὰρ τὴν πόλιν ὕμνησα, αἱ τῶνδε καὶ τῶν τοιῶνδε ἀρεταὶ ἐκόσμησαν"; "For it is their virtues, and those of men like them, that have given honor to the qualities I have praised in this city". (Trans. Lattimore.) *Thuc.* II.42.2.

19. Golden (1998) 81.

20. *Thuc.* II.36.1-2.

21. *Thuc.* II.43-45.

“In words, as much as I in my turn could say suitably in accordance with the custom has been said, and in deed, these have been honored in burial now, and from this time the city will rear their sons at public expense until they are of age, conferring on both the dead and their survivors a beneficial crown for contests such as these. For it is among those who establish the greatest prizes for courage that men are the best citizens”²².

In this speech, Thucydides uses words such as crown (*stephanos*), contest (*agōn*), courage (*aretē*), and prizes (*athla*). Thucydides’ use of the word *aretē* is to be expected, because excellence was an ideal that all Greek men were thought to strive for. This idea of excellence is a theme that runs through the whole speech, and was similarly “used of the victors at the Olympic Games; the few contestants who won were said to have ἀρετή, while the rest of the participants were scarcely acknowledged”²³. Those who fought in the war strove for excellence in the same way that athletes did, and both parties did so in order to gain honor for their *polis*.

The other terms that Thucydides employs that have athletic connotations are *stephanos*, *agōn*, and *athla*, all three of which were part of the basic structure of every athletic competition. The *agōn* was the contest between the athletes, and in reference to the Olympic Games, “can be accurately described as ‘competition entries’”²⁴. The idea of war as an *agōn* is also found elsewhere in the speech, and thus gives an image of the war as a competition in which the glory of one’s *polis* can be gained and honor will be duly given out to the victors. The term *athlon* has dual meanings in an athletic context, since it can “connote any sort of fight or contest” in which “the expectation of reward is firmly attached”²⁵. An *athlon* initially denoted the prize for which the athletes competed, and could have ei-

22. *Thuc.* II.46.1. (Εἰρηται καὶ ἐμοὶ λόγῳ κατὰ τὸν νόμον ὅσα εἶχον πρόσφορα, καὶ ἔργῳ οἱ θαπτόμενοι τὰ μὲν ἤδη κεκόσμηται, τὰ δὲ αὐτῶν τοὺς παῖδας τὸ ἀπὸ τοῦδε δημοσίᾳ ἡ πόλις μέχρι ἥβης θρέψει, ὠφέλιμον στέφανον τοῖσδε τε καὶ τοῖς λειπομένοις τῶν τοιῶνδε ἀγώνων προτιθεῖσα· ἄθλα γὰρ οἷς κείται ἀρετῆς μέγιστα, τοῖς δὲ καὶ ἄνδρες ἀριστοὶ πολυτεύουσιν.) Trans. Lattimore.

23. Scanlon (2002) 11.

24. Spivey (2004) 11.

25. Spivey (2004) 74.

ther had a symbolic value or a real value.²⁶ In the context of Pericles' speech, it seems as though the *athla* are symbolic, as the use of *stephanon* in the receding sentence indicates. A *stephanos* was the crown or garland given to the victor of an athletic competition, and although it held no monetary value, "figuratively, this was a regal honor".²⁷ The same way that the crown symbolically honored those who were victorious in athletic competitions, the funeral speech, which would have been accompanied by funeral games, honored the dead. In this section of the speech, "Pericles emphasizes that the prize for defending one's country (τῶν τοιῶνδε ἀγώνων) has practical value. ἄθλα below (placed first for emphasis) continues the metaphor, which is perhaps suggested by funeral games held for the Athenian war dead"²⁸. These three terms, as integral parts to athletic competitions, were deliberately employed by Thucydides in order to call to mind the virtues of the military as well as the honors they would have won for their victory.

The final word of Pericles' speech, *apite*, is also packed with athletic associations; he says to the audience, "and now, after each of you has made full lament for his own, you must depart"²⁹. Lattimore's translation of *apite* ("you must depart") does not impart the full force of the command, and should instead be translated as "Go away!" or something similar³⁰. This seems to be an abrupt send to Pericles' speech, but in fact, *apite* both effectively ends the speech and continues the athletic allegory³¹. The command *apite* was used in athletic competitions to signal the beginning of a race – similar to the modern "on your mark,

26. Miller (2004) 11.

27. Spivey (2004) 125.

28. Rusten (1989) *ad loc.*

29. Thuc. II.46.2. (νῦν δὲ ἀπολοφυράμενοι ὃν προσήκει ἐκάστῳ ἄπιτε). Trans. Lattimore.

30. Hornblower mentions the possibility of ἀποχωρεῖτε for ἄπιτε.

31. Hornblower claims that *apite* was "a conventional *envoi* after a funeral speech", yet only gives one example for this claim – Arrian's *Anabasis Alexandri* (VII.10.7) [Hornblower (1991) 315]. Mikrogianakis also mentions this instance of *apite* at the end of a speech, but claims that it is different because of the whole tone of Alexander's speech. Alexander's speech conveyed a sense of "strong disapproval", which is directly at odds with the "deeply friendly" tone of Pericles' *epitaphios logos* [Mikrogianakis (2004) 135]. Thus it seems as though the use of *apite* in Arrian's *Anabasis* is not the same as in Pericles' speech.

get set, go!”³². Mikrogiannakis asserts that the use of *apite* is an athletic-political signal, which shows the crowd that the speech has come to an end, and the time for action has begun³³. This follows along with the main idea of Pericles’ speech – the dead have been honored and Athens has been shown worthy of continued protection by its citizens. Thus, those listening are instructed to uphold its glory, just as an athlete running in a race, for example, would hear the command “*apite!*” and immediately begin working toward victory, and therefore the glory of his *polis*.

Thucydides, instead of directly referencing the funeral games that would have accompanied his speech, includes athletic imagery in his speech that speaks both to the importance of athletics and of the military in ancient Greek culture. Since the occasion of Pericles’ speech was a military one, it is appropriate that the content of the speech is focused on the military exploits of Athens during this time. The athletic allusions show that the Athenians, in athletically training from their youth, are well equipped not only in military aspects. Since victories in both military campaigns and athletic competitions brought about honor for the victor’s *polis*, and both required a great deal of physical training, it stands to reason that there would have been metaphorical connections between the two. Thucydides’ focus on military victory shows that there was more at stake in military campaigns than in athletic competitions, although similar skills would have been necessary in both. The end of his speech exhorts the citizens to go about securing honor for the city in the same way that an Olympic athlete would try his hardest to honor his city once the starting signal had been given.

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NATIONAL IDENTITY NARRATIVES IN THE VANCOUVER OLYMPIC WINTER GAMES 2010¹

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1. Introduction

The specific meaning that sport assumes in different places produces opinions, attitudes and motivations likewise. The background of winter sports – a “strange world” for Brazilians⁴ – provide a potential field to this investigation about national identity narratives, their formative complexity and the different manners of socializing which mark Brazilian society.

The interconnection between sport and communication is part of this study's aim which intends to analyze the elaboration of national identity narratives within the Brazilian team participation in the Olympic Winter Games (OWG) of Vancouver (2010).

1. This paper is part of a larger research (a master's thesis) developed at “*Universidade Federal do Espírito Santo*”, [Federal University of Espírito Santo] in Vitoria, Brazil.

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4. See Otavio Tavares et al., “*Sports, Media and Brazilian identity in the Winter Olympic Games (2002-2006)*”. (Paper presented at the International ISSA & ISHPES Congress, Copenhagen, Denmark, 31 July – 5 August, 2007).

Specifically, this research is a continuity of previous studies developed by Tavares, Soares e Bartholo (2007) which analyzed the Brazilian printed media coverage of the last two editions of the Winter Games (Salt Lake City 2002 and Turin 2006). These studies were aimed to identify and discuss the different strategies used by the printed media to narrate Brazilian team participation in the Winter Olympics, with reference to sport, media and national identity.

In general, it was shown that Brazilian media had difficulties in establishing an “iconic sign”⁵ between Brazilians and the Winter Games, in other words, a link of identification between the narrated event and the audience for whom it was addressed.

Brazilian press, toward a set of sports which are not popular in Brazil and the absence of widely recognized athletes in this scenery, mobilized an “identity grammar” organising and addressing particular “meanings” to those “new” sports and athletes in order to establish an identification link.

Although textual interpretations are important for analyzing national identities, they are not enough to achieve the discursive elaborations that occur at other moments of the communicative process, such as: between athletes in the competitions venues, media workers, sportive administrators, sponsors, as well as the public efforts in the production of meanings.

In fact, the construction of “identities” refers to a necessarily contextualized linkage, which might be based in symbolic oppositions (differences). Thus, it was added to this analysis an ethnographic dimension which made possible to access: (1) Brazilian athletes’ narratives who participate in the 2010 Winter Games and their relations to media presentations (*in situ*); (2) the audience’s attitudes and reactions in the competition venues in relation to Brazilians’ participation.

Sport, media and identity have been analyzed in different knowledge fields among the Humanities and Social Science. Some studies⁶ point that researches about the associations between media and sport, which consider the identifica-

5. See Stuart Hall, *Da diáspora: Identidades e mediações culturais* (Brasília: UFMG, 2003).

6. See Andrew Billings, “*Olympic Media: Inside the biggest show on television*” (London: Routledge, 2008); and also Margaret Macneill, “Estudos de Mídia do Esporte e a (Re)produção de identidades”, *Brazilian Journal of Sport Science* (1), 2006, 28.

tion/identities' relations might contribute to the comprehension of the politic, social and cultural impact and relevance that those identifications – conceptualized by Hall (2006)⁷ as relational, contingent, performative, positional, productive, plural, etc. – have on societies.

Thus, the questions which motivated the current work are: How is the construction of the Brazilian national identity engineered by the media in a set of sports that can hardly be associated to Brazil? And how Brazilian athletes, in turn, elaborate their national narratives (who are we?) concerning national identity?

Some propositions about the context guided the current analysis:

- The comprehension of the Olympic Games as a “ramified cultural performance” event, of global proportion, founded in an ideologically construct complex that materialize periodically in a context that involves the genres: spectacle, festival, ritual and game;⁸
- The cultural performances as moments which are not dissociated of daily life and, thus, in which day-to-day elements are dramatized, emphasized or diminished, as pointed by MacAloon (1984)⁹;
- The Olympic Games as a mass phenomenon widely mediated by the medias, in a context of reciprocity between media and sport through diverse social spheres. This media does not only broadcasts the Games, but, in a certain way, produce them and became, as pointed out by Billings (2008), one of its main axis;

It is also necessary to take in account:

- The non-linearity of the communication process, which is made of different, but, connected moments; and the importance of the meaning references in the codification and de-codification process, as argued by Hall (2003);

7. See Stuart Hall, *“Identidade cultural na pós-modernidade”* (Rio de Janeiro: DP&A, 2006).

8. This conception was first proposed by John MacAloon, *“Rite, drama, festival, spectacle”* (Philadelphia: Institute for the study of Human Issues, 1984). It inspired later analysis such as Arne M. Klausen (ed.), *“Olympic Games as performance and public event”* (New York: Bergham Books, 1995). Through this conception it is claimed that the Olympic Games are the prototype of spectacle and function as a secular ritual in the modernity.

9. See also Roberto DaMatta, *“Carnavais, Malandros e Heróis: a sociology of Brazilian Dilemma”* (Rio de Janeiro: Rocco, 1997).

- Identities as social constructions always in process, plural and multifaceted, made of symbolic oppositions as discussed by Hall (2006);¹⁰
- The ethnographic work as a process that starts in the research question and goes along the practical and existential plan, as demonstrated by Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) and DaMatta (1978)¹¹;

Through these and other theories, it was delimited the following specific objectives for this study: (1) identify and discuss the printed media strategies to narrate the Brazilian participation in the 2010 Winter Olympic Games; (2) analyze the athletes' identity narratives and their relations with media; (3) compare the national identity narratives elaborated by the media coverage in 2010 with previous analysis; (4) describe and discuss the audience's attitudes and reactions concerning Brazilian participation in the OWG based in the ethnographic report.

1. Procedures and theoretical-methodological approach

The qualitative approach of information obtained from the current study covers the sense of seeking to understand a complex phenomenon, linked to dynamic behaviors and processes experienced by social actors, without the need to employ statistical analysis¹².

The research material for the current study is drawn from: (1) national printed media coverage; (2) interviews with Brazilian athletes who took part in the Vancouver Games; (3) and the direct observation of the context.

Used as media sources were the Brazilian daily newspapers *O Globo* (OG) and *Folha de São Paulo* (FSP), because both are nationally published and are considered the most influential newspapers of Brazil. A Canadian newspaper

10. See Denis Cuche, "A noção de cultura nas ciências sociais" (Bauru: Edusc, 2002).

11. Martyn Hammersley and Paul Atkinson, "Ethnography: Principles in Practice" (New York: Tavistock Publications, 1995); and Roberto DaMatta, "O ofício do etnólogo, ou como ter 'Anthropological Blues'", In Edson Nunes, "A aventura sociológica: objetividade, paixão, improviso e método na pesquisa social" (Rio de Janeiro: Zahar Editores, 1978).

12. Roberto J. Richardson, "Pesquisa Social: Métodos e Técnicas" (São Paulo: Atlas, 2008).

was also analyzed (The Globe and Mail), in order to verify the existence of possible narratives about Brazilian participation.

The interview technique chosen was the guided type, which, according to Richardson (2008), allows the interviewee the opportunity to discuss their experiences from the focus proposed by the researcher.

1.2 The analytical task with the media sources and the fieldwork

The communicative processes contribute and work as differentiation processes for developing groups' and/or individuals' identities once media vehicles are, according to Billings (2008), the main channels through which the ostentation of symbols and national identities circulates.

Based on this perspective, these differentiation processes were analyzed in the current study by examining Brazilian national narratives in the printed media, in a "strange" sportive context to national culture. For doing so, Hall's analytical model was used¹³.

Epistemologically, Hall's theory lies in the critique to the traditional interpretation of the communicative process in which communication is comprehended as linear. The main idea is that the media already captures a discursive universe as it seeks to process in its production, "[...] definitions of the situation from other sources (other discursive formations) within the broader socio-cultural structure and policy from which the media itself is a differentiated part"¹⁴. Thus, there is not a "starting point" in this process and, therefore, to operate with an analytical model that seeks to overcome a linear concept requires dealing with joints and not with individual moments.

Thus, for analyzing the identity narratives through codes run in the Brazilian printed media about the Winter Games, the message is comprehended in this study as multi-referential, not fixed.

In regards to ethnography, the current work is in corroboration with Hammersley and Atkinson (1995), who claim that fieldwork is not a distinct or isolated

13. Hall (2003).

14. Hall (2003, p.389).

stage of research. In fact, it is understood that in many ways the analysis begins in the formulation of the problem, occurs during the field work, and continues during the process of writing reports, papers, etc.

In an attempt to systematize the fieldwork, it was considered the observation of aspects punctuated by Hammersley and Atkinson (1995, p. 185) who suggest detailing: (1) the space – the place or places; (2) the actors – the people involved, (3) the activity – the set of acts that people perform, (4) the objects – the objects present and their position; (5) attitudes – people’s particular actions, (6) the events – the relationship and set of activities that people perform; (7) the time – the sequence of events; (8) goals – things that people try to accomplish; (9) feeling - the emotions expressed.

2. National identity narratives in the Vancouver games

According to anthropological theory and the definition of cultural performance, the Olympics are understood as a moment of collective dramatization, which makes us realize how we define ourselves as a culture (s) or groups as well as to identify which collective myths we dramatize to ourselves.

Thus, we explored, through athletes’ discourse and media narratives, the intersections, admittedly temporary, which produce “performative” identifications –as indicated by Hall (2006)– or, in other words, places us as subjects in a given context. In this peculiar case, it is interpreted in a context of “radical alterity”¹⁵.

In a plural and global “stage” which brings together many dimensions –as suggested by MacAloon (1984)–, athletes are “actors” submitted to a complex set of relationships that drive different ways of presenting and differentiating themselves.

The media, in turn, is a channel of elaboration and circulation of such identity constructions in a social dynamic that involves the local-global dialectic.

15. See Doiara S. dos Santos and Otávio Tavares, “The Olympic Winter Games and Brazilian Participation - The Question of National Identity in the Media Coverage”. In Robert K. Barney, Janice Forsyth & Michael Heine (eds.). *Rethinking Matters Olympic*. Investigations into the Socio-Cultural Study of the Olympic Movement. London, ON: International Centre for Olympic Studies, 2010.

However, Brazilian athletes' participation in the Winter Olympics of Vancouver was not the main reference in the establishment of a local-global dialectic.

It was possible to notice that the recent achievement of the right to host the Summer Games in 2016, by the city of Rio de Janeiro, directly influenced the construction of national narratives in the Brazilian media framing about the 2010 Games¹⁶.

It was a common feature in both Brazilian newspapers the dislocation of the narratives from the sport-competitive event to the organisational experience. It was emphasized, repeatedly, the importance of the organisational exchange for sport authorities and Brazilian politicians who were in Vancouver 2010. The following article entitlement itself, published on the opening ceremony day in Vancouver, illustrates this dislocation: "*Brasil vai a Vancouver de olho nos Jogos de 2016*" [Brazil goes to Vancouver with an eye in 2016].

The article quotes an interview with the sport executive superintendent of the Brazilian Olympic Committee, Mr. Marcus Vinícius Freire, who argued on how Brazilian international image changed because Rio is the hosting City of the 2016 Olympics:

The October 2nd date (when Rio was chosen the Summer Olympics hosting city of 2016) changed completely the international vision about Brazil [...] *We are not 'mongrels' anymore. Now, we are French Bulldogs, everybody wants.* For London 2012, for example, we were invited by England for acclimatizing with them. Germany also wants to receive us before the Games¹⁷.

It is interesting to notice how the executive sport superintendent assumed the "mongrel complex" ("*complexo de vira-lata*"), which was already analyzed as part of the formative complexity of Brazilian national identity (by the Brazilian anthropologist, Roberto DaMatta). This expression, first used by the Brazilian journalist Nelson Rodrigues in the 1950s, expresses the way Brazilians see themselves in the world, in other words, an inferiority complex.

16. Rio de Janeiro was chosen the 2016 Olympic Games hosting city on October 2nd, 2009.

17. *O Globo*, 12 February 2010, p.32.

Leave the “inferiority condition” to become a “French Bulldog”, in the narrative, refers to the idea that competitions like the Olympics dramatize the possibility of an equality between Brazil and the so-called developed countries, even outside the competition field.

In a media culture that praises the high performance sports –as pointed out by MacNeill (2006)– the absence of competitive Brazilian athletes did not favor a linkage between Brazilian and the Winter Games. Thus, the dramatization of equality did not occur from the athletic excellence performance perspective, but, from the competences that led the Brazilian city to be chosen the hosting city of the 2016 Games.

Athletes did also engender discourses which dramatized equality, especially concerning the ceremonies¹⁸:

A2 – The feeling is very good, I am Brazilian, I was Born in Brazil,
I live in Brazil [...] I think it is everyone’s dream to represent your
country in the Olympic Games [...] Other nations knowing us [...],
you put your nation among the big, among the best [...]

The athlete perceives in the issue of representation a way to change Brazil’s position in relation to other nations, placing it “among the best”. This discourse, somehow, implies dramatizing equality, even though it is temporary.

In fact, the Olympic ceremony is a moment that, as illustrated by MacAloon (1984), the structural identities of individual, nation and humanity oscillate and coexist in a ritualistic dimension of the Games. But, in the end, it stands out the notion that we share the same condition: we are human beings. In a certain way, it is recognized that out of that “stage”, there is a living reality of social hierarchies between cultures and peoples, while in the Olympic Games such hierarchies are sublimated.

The concept of national representation is an important aspect of the identity constructions both from the athletes’ and the media’s perspective. In this interaction, keywords like “honor”, “emotion” and “respect” are interconnected.

18. Athletes are quoted as Athlete number one (A1) and Athlete number two (A2).

When taking in consideration the two forms of expression of the Brazilian collectiveness, it is possible to see the remarkable fluctuation in the speeches of athletes with regard to Brazil-as-a-nation (modern, technological, which is represented in the Winter Olympics), and a definition of the country they represent as a society:

A1 – It is a cheerful country, people work hard, they are fighters that even with all the difficulties, can put a smile on the face and go on with the problems and solve them without losing the joy of living [...]

A2 – Brazil is wonderful! People are very happy, they have a very cheerful mood, and it is a people who have sympathy. When I'm away I miss Brazil, I miss home, I miss to feel like I am at home [...] I like living with people who are happier, without being too formal [...]

The athletes' speeches above emphasized Brazil as a society that, in corroboration with DaMatta (2003, p. 43)¹⁹, despite its huge inequalities, has an inexhaustible joy in living. Interestingly, as pointed out by DaMatta (1997), the symbolism of joy as a feeling that is representative of the Brazilian people, cordial virtues (such as sympathy, loyalty and hospitality) that glorify those people's lifestyle, is related to aspects learned in the intimacy, learned at home with the family.

The "trusted home", as pointed out by DaMatta (2003), suggests an ideology linked to the body and blood kinship. "Home" is the area in which the Brazilian sees himself/herself as a person (the subject of social relations). And this is a reference to the traditional pole system.

A2 also makes reference to the "feeling of being at home", which seems to reflect another dimension of this ideology. It refers to a manifestation of a peculiar characteristic of Brazilian sociability.

The athlete mentions "the happier people" (without being too formal – A2). This seems to be associated with, in a certain way, the tendency to informality

19. See Roberto DaMatta, "Em Torno da Dialética entre Igualdade e Hierarquia: Notas sobre as Imagens e Representações dos Jogos Olímpicos e do Futebol no Brasil", *Antropolítica Journal*, (1), 2003, 14.

verified in the analysis of the “cordial man” analyzed by Holanda (1995), with a preference for relationships based on the “person” not on the “individuals”, as indicated by DaMatta (1997).

In A1 speech it is possible to explore other relationships of Brazilian identity. It can be noticed, somehow, that Brazilian society manifests itself capable of combining the modern civic side of the world (despite all difficulties – A1) with the traditional and cultural dimension which reveals how bright and capable to live Brazilians are, as pointed out by DaMatta (2003).

Final considerations

It was found that hosting the 2016 Summer Games, an international competition with such value and symbolic meaning, is an achievement which ensured Brazil (in the examined discourses) a “new” relationship with other countries.

Thus, based on the theatrical metaphor, we can say that on the “stage” of the Vancouver Olympic Winter Games (which was an international scene), Brazil played a “new” role that is no longer limited to mere “casual” participation, but, to the observation of the organisational experiences of the Vancouver Organising Committee.

The Olympic Games’ peculiar configuration, with different dimensions, understood as cultural performance event, collaborate to the construction of great expectations of hosting cities (and their countries), in an attempt to ensure the size and grandeur of the event, along with its festive atmosphere, the competitions and celebrations. If we consider that the media already captures a discursive universe, as Hall (2003) points out, this expectation might have influenced the framing of the 2010 Games as an experience to be observed.

The “good” and/or “bad” example of Vancouver in the framing of the Brazilian media, may represent a concern with social, organisational, operational and logistical problems to which Brazil (as a “modern nation”) invests in its identity narratives and its dramatization of a modern and technological “host nation” of the 2016 Games.

THE OLYMPIC GAMES, GLOBALIZATION AND HERODOTUS' *HISTORIES*

Kourtney MURRAY (USA)

At the outset of his *Histories*, Herodotus states his intention “to preserve the fame of the important and remarkable achievements produced by both Greeks and non-Greeks...”¹. In light of this goal, one might assume that both the achievement of Olympic victors and the success of the Olympic Games themselves would be positively portrayed in Herodotus’ work. Indeed, even a superficial reading of the *Histories* would suggest that the historian viewed the games at Olympia as a triumphant crystallization of Hellenic strength and virtue. Lucian, writing in Greek some six centuries after Herodotus, most aptly demonstrates a perceived harmony between Herodotus and the Hellenic spirit of the Olympic Games in his *Herodotus or Aetion*. In this work, Lucian does not merely claim that Herodotus looked favorably upon the Olympic contests – rather, he considers the goals and the achievements of the *Histories* to be so intimately entwined with the ideals and the influence of the Olympic Games that he depicts Herodotus giving the first public reading of the work at the games themselves. “The great Olympic Games were at hand, and Herodotus thought this the opportunity he had been

1. This and all following translations of Herodotus’ text are Robin Waterfield’s. At the outset of *my* text, I would like to thank all the participants of the 18th International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students, whose important and remarkable achievements it was my honor to experience in Olympia in September 2011. My most heartfelt thanks are extended to Dr Thomas Scanlon and Dr Wendy Raschke, whose advice, support, and encouragement were as precious to me as a crown of laurel.

hoping for. He waited for a packed audience to assemble... then he recited his *Histories* and so bewitched his audience... In a single meeting he won the universal approbation of all Greece”². In this one reading, Herodotus entranced Greece in its entirety with his “Persian Wars in Ionic”, and in doing so became a very unique sort of Olympic victor.

In this episode, Lucian demonstrates why it is so natural to associate Herodotus with the Olympic Games. This father of history was the first to immortalize the triumph of the Greeks over the Persians. The very qualities which helped propel the Greeks to such an unlikely victory over the Persians were those which the Olympic Games celebrated – Greek unity, physical strength, and a special kind of virtue. Thus, in celebrating the Greek win over the Persians, Herodotus truly was depicting the sort of *agon* that took place in Olympia – albeit one on a much larger field, with much greater stakes, and with a competitor who would inflict a fate much worse than a symbolic death should he have won.

Yet a closer reading of the *Histories* reveals that Herodotus does not simply laud the Greek victory over the Persians. In fact, his portrayal of the war was so nuanced and so often unfavorable to the Greeks that Plutarch would ultimately write a defense of the Greeks entitled *On the Malignity of Herodotus*. In that work, Herodotus goes nowhere near Olympia, but is instead reviled as a *philobarbaros* and a venomous fly intent on poisoning the rose of Greek victory. And while Plutarch does not specifically mention the Olympic Games, his characterization of Herodotus’ approach encourages one to realize that the historian does not withhold his penetrating gaze from even this subject. Indeed, just as the *Histories* consistently present critical analysis of the actions of the Greeks, so also does Herodotus’ depiction of the Olympic Games include a certain ambivalence. In this paper, I will be using close readings of three passages from the *Histories* as a way of exploring Herodotus’ complex view of the Olympic Games. That perspective, I argue, will help elucidate his greater portrayal of the Persian Wars and may also illuminate his attempts to prevent the Greek civil wars he saw looming on the horizon. Ultimately, Herodotus’ treatment of the Olympic Games as part

2. 1-2.

of the larger project of his work demonstrates a dynamic attitude towards athletic contests that itself reflects a new understanding of a world comprised not only of Greek-speaking competitors.

It is the Olympic Games of 480 that figure most prominently in the *Histories*. Yet it is only upon analysis that their significance becomes apparent; Herodotus himself calls no attention to the uniqueness of a festival taking place in the middle of the Persian invasion. Instead, he virtually buries the event amidst a long narrative detailing the aftermath of the battle of Thermopylae. Furthermore, he portrays the games from the perspective of the Persians: Xerxes and his army see the event as they are travelling through Greek territories, and, confused by the display, ask Arcadian mercenaries what they are witnessing. “[They] replied that the Greeks were celebrating the Olympic festival... The Persian next asked what the usual reward was for winning, and they told him about the garland of olive that was given as a prize”³. One Persian, Tritantaechmes, behaves exactly in the manner one would expect of bloodthirsty barbarian to whom Greek excellence was as foreign as the Greek language when he jocularly exclaims “...what sort of men are these you have brought us to fight? They make excellence rather than money the reason for a contest!” Another Persian, however, seems to recognize the superiority the Greeks display in struggling for excellence rather than money – Xerxes himself, upon hearing Tritantaechmes’ words, consider them “the mark of a coward”. The king himself makes no comment about the games, but his feelings toward Tritantaechmes suggest his words would certainly have been less mocking.⁴

If one ignores Xerxes’ sentiments in this passage, Herodotus’ use of the Olympic Games here appears very much in harmony with the portrayal of Greeks and barbarians provided by his contemporaries⁵. On the one hand, the manly, austere, and independent Greeks compete for an olive crown – a deceptively

3. 8.26.

4. For an interesting counter-example of how people might react to the sort of athletic contests the Persians witnessed, see Lucian’s *Anacharsis*, which will be discussed at greater length below.

5. Much scholarship has been devoted to the stereotypes used by 5th century B.C.E. Greek authors to describe and characterize the Persians; for the purposes of this paper, I am relying on E. Hall (1993) and J. Gammie (1986).

unglamorous prize, and one which reveals its worth only upon understanding it as a symbol of excellence. On the other, the effeminate, profligate, and slavish Persians completely fail to recognize the virtue of such contests and instead are motivated by a barbaric greed. Yet while some readers of Herodotus (such as Lucian) would be content to accept this interpretation rather than destabilize such a comforting dyad, Xerxes' reaction to Tritantaechmes' insult must be considered. Why would Herodotus depict the king of the Persians – a figure one would expect to most embody all the vices of his people – as sympathetic to and understanding of Greek motivations and goals?⁶ Furthermore, Xerxes not only understands the value of *arete*, but also realizes that its absence signifies cowardice. He thereby comes to embody a view of the Persians that one would expect to be held by a Greek. This unexpected alliance between Xerxes and the Greeks indicates that Herodotus is here using the Olympic Games not to support his unqualified admiration of the Greeks, but rather for a more complicated purpose.

Before further examining Xerxes' unexpected affinity with the spirit of the Olympic Games, it is worth exploring what Herodotus himself emphasizes as the defining characteristic of the contests. He does not mention the religious aspect of the games, nor does he praise the devotion and athletic ability of the competing athletes – in fact, none of the qualities which modern scholars identify as the ideological mechanisms behind the Olympic Games are acknowledged. Instead, he distills all the pomp, the ceremony, and the goals of the Olympic Games into one overarching concept – that of excellence (in Greek, *arete*). That Herodotus is here deliberately using the Olympic Games to emphasize this particular quality rather than simply reflecting a common understanding of the nature of the games is demonstrated by the failure of other authors to associate these games strictly with such a quality⁷. Thus, Herodotus' depiction of the Olympic Games

6. It may perhaps be argued that in this particular passage, Xerxes does not positively identify with *arete*, but rather simply notes the unpleasantness associated with its absence. At 7.237, however, Herodotus also depicts Xerxes displaying some reverence for the concept of *arete* – furthermore, he is the only Persian to be depicted doing so in the *Histories*.

7. In particular, Lucian's *Anacharsis* provides an interesting example of another way in which Greek athletics may be portrayed – as a form of education whose greatest reward is not *arete*, but rather 'reputation', *doxa* (10).

as, above all, a contest unified by and devoted to *arete* requires special attention. His most obvious use of this quality is as a means of distinguishing the noble motivation of the Greeks from the greedy desires of base men, such as Tritantachmes. Xerxes' respect for this quality, however, suggests that Herodotus' *arete* cannot be limited to the Greek character.

Unfortunately, unlike Plato and his contemporaries, Herodotus does not feel it is necessary to explicitly define the term *arete* in order for him to use it effectively in his *Histories*. Instead, his reader is forced to gather the implications of the word from the instances in which Herodotus uses it to describe a particular action. And while Herodotus uses the concept of *arete* with different semantic import throughout his work, an understanding of how and when he uses it in relation to the Olympic Games might provide a better understanding of his view of the role the games, their relation to warfare, and their place in the environment of civil strife among the Greek territories of the late fifth century B.C.E. In this particular instance, Herodotus identifies *arete* as the goal for which all Olympic victors strive. Furthermore, it is compared specifically with wealth and revealed to be a significantly more noble reward. From that context, one might infer that *arete* refers to the ineffable glory and pride felt upon achieving pre-eminence among a field of one's peers and in front of people with whom one shares a language, a culture, and shared respect for sport⁸.

While this reward seems to be limited to the brave and the virtuous, Herodotus does not allow us here to see this *arete* as necessarily Greek. Instead, Herodotus suggests that *arete* is an excellence that is shared by disparate peoples, and, in doing so, potentially hints that the Olympic Games may provide a common ground for uniting not only Greeks, but men of a certain superior character. Indeed, this passage is significant in that it suggests –however fleetingly– a way by which similarly nuanced Persians and Greeks might ultimately come together not for warfare, but for contests of excellence that serve to unite them rather than further divide them. That Herodotus might try to use the Olympic Games as a

8. This is, of course, a very simple definition for a word that has many nuances, both for Herodotus and his contemporaries. For the purposes of this paper, however, I would argue that it is sufficient. For a further exploration of the semantic import of this word, see Finkelberg (2002) and Miller (2004).

stage for such a reconciliation is not as radical as it might seem – in fact, it was not so much before Herodotus' time that these games took on the responsibility of unifying all the Greek-speaking people⁹. One could argue, of course, that the Olympic Games were unifying people who already shared a language, a religion, and a culture, and that there is no way that Herodotus would expect a foot-race and a discus to unite peoples as disparate as the Persians and the Greeks. But, in this passage at least, what seems most fundamental to the Olympics is a shared concept of excellence. In emphasizing this ideal, and in demonstrating that it might extend to peoples living outside of Greek lands, Herodotus uses this episode to look forward to a time when the Olympic Games would be not only Pan-Hellenic, but Pan-Anthropic.

That *arete* is the ideal goal of the Olympics and is a means of uniting otherwise bellicose people in a noble display of healthy competition is further suggested by Herodotus' anecdote concerning an actual Greek participant in the Olympic Games. In this instance, however, Herodotus does not portray the ideal – instead, he criticizes the character of an all too real man who chose personal gain and money over *arete*. The ramifications of such a sacrifice of the ideal are nothing short of civil war. These lessons are encapsulated in the figure of Tisamenus. This wily character is introduced in Book Nine of the *Histories* when he is called upon to offer the religious sacrifices for the Greeks before the battle of Plataea¹⁰. Herodotus proceeds to relate Tisamenus' unique relationship with the Olympic Games: upon finding out from the oracle at Delphi that he would be granted children once he was triumphant in five contests, Tisamenus competed in the pentathlon of the Olympics. In spite of the oracle's pronouncements, however, Tisamenus was triumphant in only four of the five events. Thereupon, the Spartans sought his assistance as a war-general, believing that the contests he was meant to win were not athletic, but rather martial. Tisamenus does agree to

9. Kyle (2007) provides a cogent analysis of the development of the Olympic Games, in particular in chapters 5-7. He uses archaeological evidence to suggest the games began as a regional contest and only in the 6th century B.C.E. took on the role of Pan-Hellenic unifier with which they came to be so strongly associated.

10. 9.33

fight for Sparta, and does achieve the five victories prophesied by the Pythia – but only after Sparta offers him much money and social privilege.

As in the case of the anecdote about Xerxes, here also there seems to be a rather simple interpretation of this episode, and one which may support the argument that Herodotus uses the Olympic Games to highlight the ideal characteristics of Greek champions: Tisamenus, only barely frustrated in his attempt at Olympic glory, channels his athletic prowess into martial endeavors and thereby achieves success for the Greeks in the Persian Wars. Yet there are enough oddities in this episode to suggest an altogether different interpretation, and one which ultimately compliments the more complicated assessment of the role of the Olympic Games and their relationship to Greek warfare. First, one must ask why Herodotus chose to discuss Tisamenus' participation in the Olympic Games in the first place – as has often been noted, those who achieve second place (as Tisamenus did in the pentathlon) rarely are acknowledged by Greek authors. Furthermore, in competing in the games, the athlete was not motivated by a desire for *arete*, but rather by a desire for progeny – he thus gives lie to Herodotus' earlier claim that Greek athletes were single-mindedly devoted to the olive crown and all the virtue it represented. Finally, Tisamenus' athletic skill was not necessarily essential for achieving martial success – he went on to guide Sparta to military success not through feats of physical strength, but instead with his skills as a diviner.

Knowing what sort of contests Tisamenus would ultimately help Sparta win may explain why Herodotus included his Olympic background in this episode. Tisamenus did first guide Sparta to victory against the Persians at Plataea. After that struggle, however, he was pivotal in leading Sparta against her fellow Greeks – in the four subsequent battles, Tisamenus oversaw the defeat of Tegeans, Argives, Arcadians, Mantineans, Messenians, Athenians, and Argives¹¹. Thus, this figure –who was motivated by selfish desires at the Olympic Games– was a key element in Sparta's pursuit of its own goals of self-interest at the expense of Greek unity. One is forced to wonder if, had Tisamenus been the sort of athlete

11. 9.35

who instead strove only for *arete*, he would have also been the sort of man who would so readily assist in efforts to destroy other Greeks who also believed in such a virtue. But not only does Tisamenus not acknowledge the importance of *arete* – he also consistently makes money and power the motivations for his actions. In doing so, he resembles no one so much as the Tritantaechmes whom Xerxes judged to be a coward. From such a perspective, in fact, it is much less surprising that Tisamenus would play such a key role in conquering his fellow Greeks. If *arete* is a virtue that can unify disparate peoples, the desire for money is a vice which can foment strife even between those who share a language, a religion, and a culture.

In addition to creating this dichotomy of *arete* and greed, the Tisamenus episode also compels readers of the *Histories* to question the relationship between the Olympic Games and warfare. The connection between athletics and warfare in ancient Greece has been the subject of much literary and scholarly attention¹². Among ancient authors, Plato and Lucian argue that athletic contests are appropriate training grounds for war; much later, Judith M. Barringer sees in the very artwork adorning the temple of Zeus at Olympia a triumphant affirmation of the positive relationship between warfare and the Olympic Games. In the *Histories*, however, these two types of *agones* have a more complicated relationship. In addition to his portrayal of Tisamenus, Herodotus introduces the possibility of the clash between Olympic ideals and wartime realities through the figure of Phayllus – a man who may have been a participant in the Olympics, but who instead achieved glory in battle¹³. Shortly after Herodotus depicts Xerxes admiring Olympic athletes, Phayllus makes his appearance on the shores of Salamis: “...the only [colony] to send help to Greece in her time of peril was Croton, which sent a single ship under the command of a man called Phayllus, a three-time victor at the Pythian games”¹⁴. What is most interesting about this brief reference to Phayllus is what Herodotus does *not* say: he describes Phayllus as a successful athlete,

12. In particular, Kyle and Barringer represent two different perspectives on this topic.

13. Professor Thomas Scanlon brought Phayllus to my attention in the course of providing me much invaluable assistance in this project.

14. 8.47

but he makes no mention of his participation in the Olympic Games. It is left to Pausanias to explicitly point out that Phayllus never was victorious at Olympia¹⁵. Given the tendency of successful athletes to travel to all the Pan-Hellenic games, it is not unreasonable to suppose that Phayllus would have participated in the Olympic Games of 480 had not the battle of Salamis intervened.

It is clear, however, that Phayllus achieved the excellence which the olive crown symbolized through his participation in warfare rather than in athletics. Pausanias describes a statue of him at Delphi –a form of recognition not afforded to any of the victors of the games of 480– and in his *Alexander*, Plutarch notes that the young king himself sent prizes to Croton as a form of homage to Phayllus' dedication to the Greeks at a time when all other Italian colonists had abandoned her¹⁶. Herodotus himself does not go out of his way to praise Phayllus, but his mention of him is telling. First, by describing Phayllus as a victor in the Pythian Games, he acknowledges his athletic background and thereby points to the personal sacrifice Phayllus made in going to Salamis. Second, he indicates that Phayllus was unique in choosing to go Salamis in defense of the Greeks. The combination of these two topics forces one to acknowledge those athletes who did not put aside their desire for personal achievement to come to the aid of their fellow Greeks. In particular, the Greeks who failed to assist the Spartans at Thermopylae but who instead participated in the Olympic Games of 480 –the very games which Xerxes would observe– seem subject to censure in comparison with Phayllus¹⁷.

It is perhaps in this context that the role of the Olympic Games in the *Histories*

15. Pausanias describes Phayllus thus: "There is a statue at Delphi of Phaylus of Crotona. He won no victory at Olympia, but his victories at Pytho were two in the pentathlon and one in the foot-race. He also fought at sea against the Persian, in a ship of his own, equipped by himself and manned by citizens of Crotona who were staying in Greece" (10.9.2).

16. Pausanias' description of Phayllus is found at X.9.2, Plutarch's is from *Alexander* 31.

17. Though Herodotus does not explicitly associate this group with Phayllus, he does specifically mention these athletes and thereby, I would argue, allows for such a comparison: "The Spartans sent Leonidas and his men on ahead... Later –that is, after celebrating the festival of Carneia, which was holding them up– they planned to waste no time... In fact, the rest of the allies were also planning to do more or less the same: the Olympic festival happened to coincide with these events, so they all sent only an advance guard... That was their intention, but meanwhile the Persians drew near the pass..." (8.206-207)

is most compelling, if not the most ambivalent. Herodotus refuses to unequivocally address the relationship between the ideals of the Olympic Games and the harsh reality of the Persian War, but his work does juxtapose those athletic contests with martial struggles in a way which demands his reader question the relationship between the two. While some Greeks were celebrating their Hellenic identity in athletic contests with one another, others were fighting alongside each other for the very survival of that way of life. And though Herodotus never condones one activity over the other, his use of the word *arete* may provide some clue as to how he felt these two things could work together.

It must be noted that Herodotus never explicitly uses the word *arete* to describe Phayllus. Nevertheless, he does often use it to describe deeds very similar to those performed by Phayllus in coming to the defense of the Greeks at Salamis – that is to say, feats of bravery accomplished against daunting odds specifically for the purpose of aiding one's fellow Greeks¹⁸. Of the twenty instances in which Herodotus uses the word *arete* in the *Histories*, no fewer than eight times does this word refer to the excellence displayed by a Greek warrior fighting selflessly on behalf of his fellow Greeks. Thus, through his participation in the battle of Salamis, Phayllus arguably demonstrates the same sort of *arete* that he would have had he competed in the Olympic Games of 480. Furthermore, when one compares the manner in which *arete* functions in battle with its role in the Xerxes episode, one striking similarity must be noted: in both instances, the quality of *arete* unifies in the Greeks. In the case of the Olympic Games, Greek men come together to achieve *arete*; in war, *arete* drives a man to fight on behalf of his culture, language, and way of life. That Herodotus does not explicitly use the word *arete* to describe Phayllus is curious; in light of this analysis, however, perhaps his exclusion of the word was a way by which he attempted to avoid further dividing the Greeks into those who would praise Phayllus at the expense of those who did participate in the Olympic Games. In a nuanced manner appropriate to the delicacy of the subject, Herodotus attempts to use Phayllus to remind his

18. The eight instances in which *arete* specifically refers to assisting Greeks in battle are at 5.49, 7.154, 7.225, 8.1, 9.21, 9.28, 9.70, and 9.71.

readers of the importance of Greek unification, whether that be through sport or through battle.

In using the Olympic Games as a way of promoting Pan-Hellenistic feeling and therein forestalling the civil wars looming on the horizon, Herodotus is not unique among his contemporaries¹⁹. What is unusual, however, is that the unity Herodotus sought to promote was not limited to Greek-speaking peoples, but extended to what he recognized as the civilized world. Yet given the expressed purpose of his work, his broader aims are perhaps less surprising. Herodotus' goal was to commemorate the remarkable deeds of both Greeks and non-Greeks, and, in doing so, he acknowledged that the virtue of *arete* transcended Greek language, thought, and culture. It was under the aegis of this excellence that he sought to create a harmony that would prevent not only the Peloponnesian War, but any war between men with a common understanding and appreciation of each other's character. In doing so, Herodotus foreshadowed many scholars of the modern Olympic Movement – writers and thinkers who do not use *arete*, but concepts of friendship and diplomacy to justify participation in Olympic Games in times of war²⁰.

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19. "It was, however, the dreadful Peloponnesian War and later internecine wars in the fourth century that moved poets, sophists, and orators to call for Panhellenic peace and unity, and to associate such ideas with Olympia and games in general". Kyle 128-129.

20. As early as 1949, these virtues were evoked to justify the modern games by W.M. Hugill, who himself was quoting W.M. Sloane, the first American representative to the International Olympic Committee, and who defined the modern Olympic Idea as "first to create and strengthen bonds of friendship, such ought to exist, among all civilized nations, by frequent peaceful intercourse..." (36).

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FOREIGN AND OLYMPIC TERMINOLOGY IN ITALIAN FOOTBALL

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In the present research we consider Italian football and its foreign and Olympic terminology. It is known that the impact of the Greeks on sports terminology is influential and considerable. Although sport and sports events such as the Olympic Games are considered mostly social phenomena, we are going to analyse the way in which the football events are described by the journalists, as the language of sport is a popular and a vast variety of modern language.

The main motives of this article are the technical terms used by journalists in the Italian football column. We will take a closer interest in the written football journalism variety. The paper presents the Italian football, its multiple aspects and its characteristics as a special (or sectorial) language¹. As all the special languages, the football language makes use of the collocations. Although, simultaneously, when the technical languages such as the Physics' language, the Informatics' language, the sectorial languages "(...) do not have their own specific lexicon, or, more precisely, have a very small specific lexicon (...) but derive frequently from the common language or from other special languages"². In other words, secto-

1. In this paper we refer to the term used by A.A. Sobrero (1993: 238-239): *lingue settoriali* meanwhile Gaetano Berruto (1976: 68-73) uses the term *subcodes (sottocodici)*. Another Italian linguist, Ilaria Bonomi (2002: 184) in reference to that type of languages uses a definition of *special languages (linguaggi speciali)* and Lothar Hoffman uses the term *Subsprachen* (sublanguages) and *Fachsprachen* (specialist sublanguages, professional languages). See also Anna Szemberska (2010a).

2. Alberto A. Sobrero (1993: 239).

rial languages import words and expressions from above-mentioned varieties (for instance, neosemantisation). This is mainly due to the fact that “The sectorial languages’ messages are spread mainly through the media”³, so the minor specialisation of their lexicon and numerous contacts with the common language “are due to the necessity to be understood by numerous and different users”⁴.

The aim of this article, in which we also consider the popularity of football press in Italy, is to analyse the linguistic and semantic features of Italian football column since the language contributes the most to the distinctiveness of sport⁵.

As a linguist and, more precisely, an italianist, I will focus my attention on Modern Italian and on Italian football column. The variety of football language, as we are going to observe, is considerable. On this richness contribute above all: – compound nouns – result of the economy of the language, i.e. *match ball*, *match winner*, *play maker*, *team manager* – among other things juxtapositions of two nouns. The structure modifier+head of compound is proper to English and propagated by that language in the Italian one, so that in Italian we have such nouns as *calciomercato* – *transfer market*⁶. In this example the first element modifies or describes the second one, telling us what kind of object or person it is, or what its purpose is meanwhile the second word identifies the object or person in question. Compound nouns affected by English influences can also be formed using the following combinations of words: N+V (*calcio-dipendente*, *Inter-dipendente*, respectively *football-addicted*, *Inter-addicted*). Notice that the two parts of a compound noun may be written in three different ways:

1. two words joined together: *calciomercato*
 2. two words joined using a hyphen: *calcio-samba* (samba football)
 3. two separate words: *Zidane team*, *calcio spettacolo* (football show)
- Olympic and, as a result, international terminology (internationalisms-

3. *Idem*.

4. *Idem*.

5. Wojciech Lipoński (2009: 19).

6. *gazzetta.it*, May, 4, 2011, <http://english.gazzetta.it/Football/04-05-2011/del-piero-juve-agreement-reached-801077031580.shtml>.

words borrowed from one language to other languages, having the same meaning)⁷,

- loanwords (Anglicisms predominate, other languages-source of loanwords are: Spanish, French, German),
- professionalisms - words, expressions or phrases with a limited range of usage within a professional group⁸, professional lexis such as *assist*, *cross*, *foul*, *striker*, *tackle*.

The specificity of Italian football as a sectorial language is also affected by neosemantisation (*street corner* – *corner*)⁹.

Although, as we've already said, an important part of Italian football lexicon are Olympic terms such as *atleta*, *stadio* (once a unit of measure), nowadays, in our opinion these terms may be considered internationalisms. Notice that there were two ways of integration of the Greek terms in the Italian language: through the Latin and due to the direct contact with the Byzantine world¹⁰. It is distinctive that the aforementioned part of Italian football lexicon is originated from the Greek and English languages and has been subsequently accommodated into the syntactic and morphological structures of Italian.

The present research includes the articles – comments of the matches of European football clubs in European Champions League published in the on-line version of the *La Gazzetta dello Sport*¹¹ in the period 1997- 2010 (*gazzetta.it*. to 1997 dates back the Internet version of that daily entirely dedicated to sports and sports commentary). Not as ancient as the Olympic terminology is Italian football terminology. Actually, the first scientific Italian studies on this important sector of Italian lexicon date back to 1939¹² (Giacomo Devoto's paper relative to the special languages and in particular to the language of Italian football column).

What appears interesting is that Yiannakis and Yiannaki (2009: 10) claim that it's due to the mathematical structure of the Greek language that it can be

7. *PWN Great Loanwords Dictionary* (2003: 555).

8. *Encyclopedia of the Polish Language* (1978). See Jan Ożdżyński (2009: 47).

9. Jadwiga Kowalikowa (2009: 65).

10. Giovanni Battista Moretti (1996: 52).

11. According to Riccardo Gualdo (2007:71) the most sold and the most popular sports daily in Italy.

12. Giacomo Devoto (1939: 17-21).

“depicted geometrically”. In fact its prefixes, as we are going to see through our analysis, are *mega-*, *micro-*, *auto-*, *anti-*, *tele-*. Among those we enumerate also *syn-*, *tera-*, *nano-*. That feature explains the popularity of the Greek terms or prefixes in the science language:

- preciseness, univocity – the terms are mostly¹³ univocal
- associativeness, they are well-known (also subconsciously)
- frequent use of metaphor
- they are easy to combine.

To sum up we could say that the greeceness in language, the greeceness of the (Greek) language, means internationalness, means being understood by most of the interlocutors or readers. Although the Greek-originated words are less obvious than for example Anglicisms, are already morphologically and syntactically integrated in the Italian language.

In fact in our analysis we have observed the following terms typical of Italian football (some of them due to the creativity of the journalist) and we have divided them in seven types: Nouns (hereinafter referred to as N), Adjectives (A), Prefixed Nouns (PN), Prefixed Adjectives (PA) or Suffixed Adjectives (SA) and Suffixed Nouns (SN), Prepositional Expressions (PE) and Verbs (V) or Collocations (C).

Nouns (N):

- ✓ *acrobata* - (masculine singular noun): used in expression *to have the qualities of an acrobat*.
- ✓ *agonismo* (gr. agonismós – fight, competition, agón – derivative of ágein – to lead, to guide) – *competitive spirit, competitiveness*.
- ✓ *atleta* (masculine singular noun) – (gr. *athlitis*) – who performs sports, a person who takes part in a sporting competition. The word dates back to the Mycenaean period and is considered the most ancient word to be used for a person who practices a sport¹⁴.
- ✓ *sindrome* (gr. *syndromé* – competition, contest, composed of *syn* – to-

13. An exception is the neosemantisations.

14. See Thomas Yiannakis & Soteria Yiannaki (2009: 10).

gether and a derivative of *drómos* – run): *full-belly syndrome* – being fulfilled, satisfied (also precociously).

- ✓ *stadio* (masculine singular noun) – (gr. *stadion*) - an ancient Greek sporting discipline, a 192.27 m. foot race. The athlete practising the race was called *stadiodromos* – a unit of measurement for distance (length, width, height) – today – the place where the football match or a sporting events take place¹⁵.

Adjectives (A):

- ✓ *atletico* – of the athlete.
- ✓ *ciclopico* – of a cyclope, enormous, huge, cyclopean: *impresa ciclopica* (a mammoth task), *superiorità ciclopica* (a cyclopean superiority).
- ✓ *energico* – energetic – a derivative of gr. *enérgeia* – strength, a compound noun: *én* - in, *érgon* – work.

Prefixed Nouns (PN):

- ✓ *anti-* (partita) *antistress* – an antistress game – the game that swaps away the stress accumulated.
- ✓ *auto-* *autorete* (feminine singular noun) = *autogol* (masculine singular noun) – used both to designate an own goal; *autostima* (feminine singular noun, self-esteem).

We also notice here a considerable quantity of intensive Greek prefixes (*pre-fissi intensivi*):

- ✓ *maxi* – the biggest (possible): *maxiofferta* – the biggest offer, the biggest richable offer.
- ✓ *maxisfida* – literally the biggest challenge in reference to the game between two best clubs.
- ✓ *mini* – very small: *miniofferta* (a very small offer, in reference to the amount of money proposed by a club to buy a player), *miniabbonamenti*

15. See op. cit., p. 11.

– mini season tickets, *minipartitella* – minigame – a match of very little significance.

Suffixed Nouns (SN):

- ✓ *-logo* (gr. *logos* – literally, word, speech), an expert, a scientist in + a subject, a science: *calciologo* – an expert in *calcio*, or rather in football, a *juventinologo* – an expert in Juventus football club.
- ✓ *-poli* – etymologically *-pólis* in compound nouns signifies “city”, in nouns related to a scandal, signifies “city of+the scandal”: *Moggiopoli* – the scandal related to Luciano Moggi, an ex general director of one of the Italian football clubs. In this context, its significance is similar to that one of *-gate* (*Clintongate*, *Berlusconi gate* used seldom by the press). To notice that once it used to be employed with a playful shade, nowadays its use has become large.

Prefixed Adjectives (PA) or Suffixed Adjectives (SA):

- ✓ *polivalente* – used about a player whose value is multiple.

Prepositional Expressions (PE):

- ✓ *in acrobazia* – gr. *akróbatos* - a person who tiptoes; gr. *ákros* - situated high.

Verbs (V) or Collocations (C):

- ✓ *ipotecare il risultato* – gr. *hypothéke* – the act of putting (*tithénai*) under (*hypó*) – to consider a result easily realizable or to treasure it.

As we can see, Italian, as most Modern European languages, has borrowed a considerable part of its vocabulary from the Greek which remains a rich source of sports but also common and useful terminology. Anglicisms and foreign words from other important European languages are scarcely a new phenomenon in Italian, as attest such long-established examples as *atleta* and *stadio*. Linguists are of the opinion that cross-linguistic contamination between close or relatively

close neighbours seems inevitable¹⁶. Once those words were a common background, meanwhile in the last several decades the phenomenon has taken on a different dimension, as it is about changing linguistic needs¹⁷ and sharing the phenomena which take origin in other linguistic communities.

An important aspect of the foreign words to notice is that frequently those words from other language systems are not translated into Italian. It happens in case of following words or expressions: *aplomb* (cold blood), *atout*, *enfant prodige* (the prodigy), *élite* (of football), *in extremis* (Latin), *oranje* (literally the oranges, in reference to the shirts of the players of the Netherlands' national team), *saudade* (a kind of nostalgia, Portugal), *Seleção* (Brazilian national team), *volée* (a series)¹⁸. The other most numerous language-source of loanwords, after English and French are Spanish and Iberic languages (the fact is evidently tied to the popularity, success and results obtained by the Spanish clubs in European football competitions): *blaugrana* – vermilion-navy blue, the term is Catalan, colours of Barcelona football club, Barcelona football club itself, its players, *clasico* – the classic (game), a match between Barcelona and Real Madrid, eternal rivals, *los blancos* (The White, referring to Real Madrid players' colours), *aficionado* (fan)¹⁹, *camiseta* (shirt), *desaparecido* – literally, disappeared, (who was) made disappeared; used in Cuba in reference to the persons persecuted by the regime of Castro, here in reference to a player who plays rarely, *el pibe de oro* (golden boy), *goleador* (top scorer), *goleada/goleata* (a victory with numerous goals scored by the winner team), *ikurriña flag* (the flag of the Basque-Land), *liga* (Spanish Premier League), *merengue* (literally, meringues, referring to the colours of the shirts of Real Madrid's players), used also as an adjective: *a merengue player*, *to do the ola* (the so-called *Spanish-wave*)²⁰, *samba* (Brazilian Portuguese)²¹. Other foreign words are *harakiri* (Japanese), *slalom* (Norwegian), though English remains the

16. See Christopher Rollason (2005: 39).

17. About changing linguistic needs see Anderman, Rogers (2005: 20-21).

18. See Anna Szemblerska (2010b: 7).

19. Ormezzano (1997: 29)

20. See Szemblerska, op.cit., ivi.

21. *gazzetta.it*, March, 11, 2010, http://archiviostorico.gazzetta.it/2010/marzo/11/Scholes_delizioso_Nani_vola_ga_10_100311023.shtml.

most influential: *dribbling*, *pressing*, *forcing*, *cross*, *assist*, *turnover*, *Red Devils*, *big match in Premier [League]*²², *flop*²³. As we can observe, the main source of Italian football column's foreign words is English. However, also other European languages, such as Greek, French enrich Italian with such usages as *agonismo*, *aplomb*.

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A BRIEF HISTORY OF OLYMPICS IN TURKEY

Fatih DERVENT (TUR)

The Birth of the Modern Sports in Turkey

The Olympic journey of Turkey in itself started with the birth of modern sports in the country. The transition to contemporary sports in the Ottoman Empire that had closed its doors to the entire world for years until Tanzimat (Administrative reforms) started in the year 1839 in schools which were the gateways of the Ottomans to the western world.

Teaching modern sports in Turkey started in the early 1860s at Robert College where American teachers were teaching and also in the late 1860s at Galatasaray High School (Mekteb-i Sultani – Sultan’s School) where the academic staff was composed of French teachers. The core of the Field Day event that was started in 1864 at Robert College was athletics competitions. Similar competitions were later held in other schools as well (İstanbuluoğlu, 2008).

The French gymnastics teacher Monsieur Curel transformed a large area into a gym as soon as he started to teach at Galatasaray High School in 1868. Owing to his innovative efforts, gymnastics and fencing courses were added to the curriculums of Middle School (Rüştiye) in 1869, Medical School (Mekteb-i Tıbbiye) in 1870 and High School (İdadi) in 1877 by the order of the Ministry of Education (Fişek, 2003). Another French gymnastics teacher who started to teach at Galatasaray High School after Monsieur Curel, Monsieur Moiroux also taught at the Military High School (1874).

Gymnastics teachers Martinetti and Stangalli discovered Faik Ustunidman who is one of the milestones of Turkish sports while training at the Galatasaray High School's rhythmic gymnastics hall. Faik Ustunidman was so sharp at gymnastics lessons. Due to his great performance, he was appointed as a gymnastics teacher at Galatasaray High School by Stangalli's offer. He had brought up so many Turkish athletes who later became themselves gymnastics teachers at his private gymnastics hall which he opened at Beyoğlu together with Stangalli. He also wrote a book named *Riyazat-ı Bedeniyye* (Discipline of Gymnastics) about gymnastics which was published in 1899; considered as the first of its kind in the country. Besides the work carried out in schools, the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) Sport Branch in Istanbul also helped the promotion of modern sports. These sport branches quickly spread among the foreigners in the Ottoman Empire and non-Muslims in the European part (İstanbuluoğlu, 2008).

Although the Ottoman Empire wasn't represented in the first Olympic Games which were held in Athens in 1896, a group of athletes whose names are Hristo Yanaki, Murad, Tamberof from Izmir were selected by the sports clubs of the city. And they departed from Izmir to Piraeus to attend the first Olympic Games (İkdam Newspaper, 1896). Also a Turkish wrestler named Koç Mehmet departed to Athens to attend the first Olympic Games but he was not accepted to the games because the Ottoman Empire was not a member of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) (San, 1985). Meanwhile five countries that participated in and won medals at the first Olympic Games also were not members of the IOC. Participants of the first Olympic Games, England and Denmark both established their National Olympic Committees in 1905 (Koryürek, 2003).

In fact the years after the first Olympic Games, not only attending Olympic Games but also coming together even for a sport event was not allowed in the Ottoman Empire that was ruled by Sultan Abdulhamit II; which is why the Ottoman Empire did not attend the 1900 Paris Olympic Games. Also neither newspapers nor people of the country even made mention of that great sport event, the 1900 Paris Olympic Games (Koryürek, 2003). The Ottoman Empire also did not participate in the Olympic Games held in St. Louis because of the long distance.

Coubertin's Visit to Turkey

Selim Sırrı Tarcan who had graduated from Galatasaray High School, then Military Engineering School, started to work as a gymnastics teacher in İzmir where non-Muslim citizens and foreigners were overabundant. After he had returned from İzmir to Istanbul, he met Monsiuer Juery who is an important name of the National Olympic Committee of Turkey.

As far as Selim Sırrı Tarcan wrote in his book entitled "New and Old Olympics" that was published in 1948, Baron Pierre de Coubertin who is the founder of Modern Olympics sets out for a world tour in the summer of the year 1907 to gain new members for the IOC. And he decided to visit Istanbul to promote the ideals of Olympism to the Ottoman Empire. Before starting out for this tour, he writes a letter to his friend Juery at Galatasaray High School asking him to introduce him to a Turkish athlete when he arrives in Istanbul. Monsiuer Juery introduces Baron de Coubertin to Selim Sırrı Tarcan who was then teaching fencing gymnastics and fencing at the Royal Engineering School (Muhendishane-i Berri Hümayun) today's Istanbul Technical University. During his stay in Istanbul at Tokathyan Hotel, Coubertin asks Tarcan to establish the Ottoman Olympic Association. But under the circumstances of the year 1907 he was not allowed to found the association because of the political situation of the Ottoman Empire at the time. Therefore, the Ottoman Olympic Association could not be founded in 1907 but then Coubertin appoints Tarcan as his representative (İstanbuluoğlu, 2008).

There were not any documents about the world tour of Coubertin and his stopover in Istanbul in the IOC's archives (Koryürek, 2003) and also in the NOCT Library. Selim Sırrı Tarcan even himself did not mention his meeting with Coubertin in his published books and radio interviews which were later published in a book. Sport historians Cem Atabeyoğlu and Haluk San explained that during a research for the first Turkish athletes who had taken part in Olympics, they visited Selim Sırrı Tarcan at his home and during their interview he explained to them that Coubertin had come to Istanbul (İstanbuluoğlu, 2008). Atabeyoğlu (1997) said that:

When I learned that Aleko Mulos of Kurtuluş Sports Club participated in the London 1908 Olympic Games, I went to Kurtuluş Sports Club. The manager of the club was a friend of mine who had participated in the 1906 Intermediate Olympiads. I don't remember his name now, but he also told me that Aleko Mulos had accompanied Coubertin during his Istanbul trip and therefore Coubertin invited him to the games.

Selim Sırrı Tarcan was not the first Turk who met Coubertin. When the second president of the National Olympic Committee of Turkey Hasip Bayındıroğlu was attending the Paris Agriculture Academy in the late 1880s, he met with Coubertin during his fencing exercises and the two became close friends. Hasip assisted Selim Sırrı Tarcan during the foundation of the Ottoman Olympic Association.

Meanwhile, not only International Olympic Association members attended the 7th session which was held on 9th - 14th June 1905 in Brussels but also many representatives from non-member countries were also invited to the meeting so Mihran Kavafyan Effendi, who was representing the country in charge of affairs in the Brussels office under the Ottoman Embassy in Paris, also attended the meeting together with over 200 participants from 21 countries (İstanbuluoğlu, 2008).

Foundation of the National Olympic Committee

Sultan Abdulhamit II declared the Second Constitutionalist Period on 24th June 1908 in Monastir and Istanbul. After the proclamation of the new constitution of the Ottoman Empire the founding of associations was allowed. Selim Sırrı Tarcan began to work for the establishment of the Ottoman National Olympic Association. As he was a teacher, he appointed Ahmet İhsan Tokgöz as the president of the association while Tarcan became the Secretary General of the association, which was founded by Tarcan in 1908.

Ahmet İhsan Tokgöz wrote in the Servet-i Funun magazine's 889th issue dated 5th October 1908 which was published daily after the Second Constitutionalist Period:

As our readers know, Baron de Coubertin, the notable French who revived the modern Olympic Games, visited Istanbul in July last year and appointed Selim Sirri Beg, one of our gymnastics masters, as the representative. Selim Sirri Beg declared in a courteous letter that he kept his promise and founded the National Ottoman Olympic Association, of which he appointed me as the president, Asaf and Cevat Rustu Beg as the members, and himself as the secretary general and he also stated that he had applied to the Ministry of Internal Affairs for the registration of the association.

The National Ottoman Olympic Association was first represented at the IOC in 1909 at the Berlin Session by Selim Sirri Tarcan who had been accepted in the International Olympic Committee in December 1908. He also attended the 1910 Luxembourg, 1911 Budapest, 1912 Stockholm, 1913 Lausanne, 1914 and 1924 Paris and 1925 Prague Sessions. At the 1911 Budapest Session, the Ottoman Empire was officially accepted to the membership of the IOC. Thus the Ottoman Empire became the 13th member (İstanbuluoğlu, 2008). On 16th January 1924 the National Olympic Committee was approved as a commonwealth establishment by the council of ministers (TMOK, 1988).

The First Turkish Athletes in the Olympics

Aleko Mulos accompanied Baron Pierre de Coubertin during his Istanbul trip and Coubertin invited him to the 1908 London Olympic Games. That made him the first Turkish athlete who participated in the Olympic Games (Kahraman, 1995).

Tarcan made some announcements in the newspapers such as *İkdam* and *Sabah* to find athletes and sponsors for the 1912 Olympic Games. Even though he could not find a sponsor, two Armenian origin youngsters Vahram Haret Papazyan and Mıgırdiç Mıgıryan applied to participate in the Olympics. While they were taking the necessary documents from Tarcan, the two Robert College students realised that they had to go to Sweden on their own.

The financial condition of Mıgırdiç Mıgıryan who founded Raffi the first athlet-

ics and gymnastics club in Istanbul was good. However, Papazyan had to find a source.

Vahram Papazyan was a member of the Armenian Ardavast Club which had several branches so he first applied to this club. Administrators of the club tried to find money that was needed for his trip to Stockholm. They organised a night at the Greek theater in Arnavutköy. A play called Devoted Sailor was performed in Turkish before members of the palace and even women from the palace and also Vahram Papazyan had a role in the play. With the money earned from this night and his savings, a return ticket to Stockholm was bought for Vahram Papazyan. They went to Stockholm by their own financial means. The two young athletes arrived in Stockholm after a difficult voyage (Üstel, 2004).

When Turkish flags waved in the Stockholm Olympic Stadium in 1912 for the first time, Vahram Haret Papazyan and Mıgırdıç Mıgıryan became the first athletes in the Olympics who were sent by the National Ottoman Olympic Association. Vahram Papazyan participated in 800 and 1500 meter competitions in his Crescent-Star uniform. But he was eliminated in the elimination round of 800 and 1500 meter runs. In his letter sent from the US in 1954, while recounting his memories, he says that he was leading the series of 1500 meter run until the last meters but fainted because of the excessive excitement. His teammate Mıgıryan came in 7th in right and left hand shot putting and became the first and at the same time the last Ottoman Empire athlete who had his name written in the Olympic log. He also became the holder of the first unofficial Turkish record in athletics (İstanbuluoğlu, 2008).

Vahram Haret Papazyan's and Mıgırdıç Mıgıryan's Stockholm adventures thus came to an end. However these two athletes had a higher honor than their ranks in competitions; they were the first athletes sent to the Olympic Games by the Ottoman Olympic Association.

Settling in Canada in 1922, Papazyan was appointed as the head of the Armenian Gymnastics Association there. Papazyan who had always boasted for being the athlete that represented Turkey in the Olympic Games until the end of his life, visited Turkey very frequently.

First Medals

The 1924 Olympic Games which were held in Paris is the first games in which the young Turkish Republic participated. Foreign coaches, one from United States for athletics, one from England for football and one from Hungary for wrestling, were invited to the country to train the athletes for the Olympic Games (Üstel, 2004). However, Turkish athletes did not manage to win a medal in the 1924 Olympic Games. Turkey participated in the 1928 Amsterdam Olympic Games which were the second games for the country. 40 athletes won a fourth, a sixth, an eighth rank and two seventh ranks in competitions and they had their names written in the Olympic Log.

The 1936 Berlin Olympic Games were the first games where Turkey won its first medals and also the first games in which Turkish female athletes participated. Ahmet Kireççi in freestyle wrestling took the third place in wrestling and became the first athlete in the Turkish Olympics history who won the bronze medal. And Yaşar Erkan in Greco-Roman wrestling won the first gold medal of Turkish Olympics history. Yaşar Erkan tells memories about winning the gold medal in his book in the following words (Atabeyoğlu, 2003a):

While our flag was being raised, I couldn't hold myself and burst into tears. Having our flag raised before a hundred and twenty thousand people and Hitler and make them listen to our national anthem was the most beautiful and the greatest pleasure.

The founder of the Turkish Republic, Mustafa Kemal Atatürk sent a message to Berlin for the first gold medal of Turkey's Olympic history:

You are a small man, but you fulfilled an important work for the country. Now your name is engraved in the history of Turkish sports. Long live Yaşar!

While two of sixty Turkish athletes won a medal in the Berlin Olympics, 9 more were able to have their names written in the Olympic log. The 1936 Berlin Olympic Games had another value for Turkey. Halet Çambel and Suat Aşeni

were the first female athletes to represent Turkey (Aripınar et al., 2000). They participated in the fencing competition and even though they did not win any medals, they deserved great honour by showing the self-esteem of Turkish women for the first time in Olympic Games.

After World War II, the first Olympic Games were held in London in 1948. Turkey participated in the Olympic Games with 68 athletes which is more crowded than Athens 2004 where we participated with 66 athletes. Ruhi Sarialp who competed against the most selective athletes of the world won the third rank in the Olympics with a ranking of 15.02 in triple jump. Sarialp is the first athlete who won a medal in athletics and has been the only Turkish athlete who won a medal in the Olympics in the history of Turkish sports until Eşref Apak in hammer throw in Athens 2004 (İstanbuluoğlu, 2008). Following is the story about the first bronze medal:

We woke up in the morning and went to the Wembley Stadium. My coach Naili Moran and I were standing near the sand pool and were very excited in front of the empty stadium. An Englishman approached towards us. He said his name was John and he was steward in the stadium, then he asked; Hey Turk! Are you excited? Before I answered him, he went on and said; Listen to me now. My father's grandfather and Turks fought shoulder to shoulder in Crimea. My grandfather was very excited when they were about to enter a combat. Realizing this, a Turkish soldier gives a coin to my grandfather and asks him to put the coin under his tongue as soon as the combat broke out. He says: This coin will keep you away from too much excitement and at the same time it will protect you. So my grandfather did what the soldier said and returned home safe and sound. Then he gave me one penny and asked me to put it under my tongue during the competition. I did what he told to me.

Sarialp had never separated this coin from his Olympic medal (Atabeyoğlu, 2003b).

The Turkish freestyle wrestling team won four gold medals, one silver and

one bronze medal. Turkey's success by winning the champion titles in 4 of 8 weights and getting 50% of the gold medals is still unsurpassed except for the 1980 and 1984 boycotted Olympics. Russians equalized our record by winning the gold medals in 5 of 10 in the 1972 Munich and the 1976 Montreal Games and also 4 of 8 weights in the 2000 Sydney Olympics. Russian and Americans 7 of 10 respectively in Moscow 1980 which was boycotted by many countries and in Los Angeles 1984 that was boycotted by the Eastern Block countries.

Professionalism Problem

Aids made for the wrestlers who put their marks on a great success in the 1948 London Olympic Games and to Ruhi Sarialp who won Turkey's first Olympic medal in athletics caused great problems and damages to Turkish sports before the Helsinki 1952 Olympic Games. Wrestlers Nasuh Akar, Gazenfer Bilge, Halil Kaya and Yaşar Doğu as well as Ruhi Sarialp were excluded from the Helsinki Olympic Games group by Danyal Akbel, General Director of Physical Training and President of the National Olympics Committee of Turkey. Burhan Felek was suspended from the membership of the Central Counseling Board and Secretary General of the National Olympics Committee for a while. Reşit Saffet Atabinen, representative of the IOC in Turkey resigned from his duty. Later Burhan Felek, as he was declared not guilty, was restored to his former duties. Upon this, Danyal Akbel, President of the Turkish Olympics Committee and General Director of Physical Training had to resign. The Olympics Committee was terminated and a new one was formed. Upon these developments, the IOC decided to exclude Turkey from the games until an independent National Olympic Committee of Turkey was established. Turkey could only participate in the Helsinki Games by special permission (İstanbuluoğlu, 2008). Nevertheless Turkey won two gold medals and one bronze medal in freestyle wrestling.

First Dual Olympic Gold Medallist

Turkish wrestlers repeated the same success they had in the 1948 London Games in the 1960 Rome Games once more and won 50 percent of the gold medals with 4 gold medals and 2 silver medals. The Greco-Roman wrestlers achieved their best success ever in the Rome Olympics. Turkey had three champions in Greco-Roman style for the first and last time with Müzahir Sille, Mithat Bayrak and Tevfik Kış. Mithat Bayrak became Turkey's first dual Olympic Gold Medallist in Greco-Roman style.

A Medal that Came After 36 Years

After 36 years Turkey won another medal outside wrestling in the 1984 Los Angeles Games where the Soviet Union and Eastern Block countries did not participate. Total of 48 athletes, 2 of which were women, only managed to win 3 bronze medals in Los Angeles. The medals won by Eyüp Can and Turgut Aykaç in boxing meant a lot, because after Ruhi Sarıalp's medal in 1948 in triple jumping, these were the first medals we won apart from the ones in wrestling (Üstel, 2004).

First Olympic Record Holder

The 1988 Seoul Olympic Games had its first Turkish Olympic Champion outside wrestling and also the first Turkish Olympic Record Holder. Naim Süleymanoglu, lifted respectively 145 kg, 150.5 kg, and 152.5 kg in snatch; 175 kg, 188.5 kg, 190 kg in clean and jerk, and 320 kg, 339 kg and 342.5 kg in total breaking nine world and six Olympic Records and he was nicknamed Pocket Hercules (İstanbuluoğlu, 2008). Naim Süleymanoglu drew the attention of the entire world by lifting 10 kg more than three times of his weight. Winning his first Olympic Champion title at the age of 21, Süleymanoglu was going to succeed to be on the cover of Time magazine. And he was going to win more gold medals in the 1992 and 1996 Olympic Games (Atabeyoğlu, 2004).

First Medal in Women

In the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games, Hüllya Senyurt bypassed the first round without making any match in judo. After losing against her French opponent in the 3rd round, she beat Argentinean Mariani, Italian Tortora and Venezuelan Villapol thus winning the third round, she became the first woman who won a medal.

Turkey had its first Olympic Champion in women in the Athens 2004 Olympic Games. Weightlifter Nurcan Taylan won the gold medal by lifting 210 kg in total; winning the gold medal in women by breaking the two world and five Olympic records in 48 kg (Üstel, 2004). The words she said after winning the gold medal were really interesting:

This was a very late medal for Turkish women. I won it, put my name in history and stopped the time.

İstanbul Candidacy for the Olympic Games

Hosting Olympic Games provides billions of dollars revenue through the direct investments made as well as indirect benefits. There are also achievements in social and cultural areas.

From Turkey's point of view, it is fact that such achievements are needed maybe two times more than others. Winning the organising of Olympics will certainly affect Turkey's international expansion, integration, promotion and even civilian life and interior system positively and this will be one of the most crucial opportunities with regard to cultural, economic, social structures and naturally sports of the country (İstanbulluoğlu, 2008).

The Grand National Assembly of Turkey had unanimously passed the law on 30th April 1992 entitled "Law for Olympic Games to Be Held in Istanbul". Not only financial and political guarantees are ensured thanks to the law, but also the Olympic Agreement of IOC is taken into the Turkish law system to make it powerful as a law and thus IOC rights are being assured at the highest level.

Istanbul became the candidate city for the Olympic Games four times during the years of 2000, 2004, 2008 and 2012 Olympics. Turkey was not short-listed for the 2000 Games and the 2004 games. For the 2008 games Beijing won the bid. And Turkey is also preparing for the bidding process for the 2020 Olympic Games with great commitment.

Turkey has been and will be working hard to host Olympic Games. For this cause, every aspect of winning the Olympic Games honour is being extended. The facilities continue to grow, human resources development is extending. The idea of “Olympism” by way of entering the school curriculum is being promoted.

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NUTRITION AND DIET OF ANCIENT AND MODERN OLYMPIC ATHLETES

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Introduction

Athletic performance is determined by a variety of factors including biological (genetic), behavioural, socioeconomic, cultural and environmental. Nutrition and diet, one of the environmental factors that can be totally controlled by the individual, affect athletic performance (Grandjean, 1989). Optimal nutrient and dietary intake is important to sustain athletes' daily activities and the key contributing strategy to enhance performance during training and competition (American Dietetic Association & Canadian Dietetic Association, 1995). Further, proper nutrition can make the difference in athletic performance when all other factors are equal (Grandjean, 1989).

The relationship between proper food-nutrition and athletic performance dates back to antiquity, as ancient athletes were concerned about their eating as well. In the first Olympic Games (776 B.C.), the winner of the only sport event, footrace or stadion, Koroibos from Elis was a cook (Walker, 2004). Also, at about 450 B.C. a Greek long-distance runner called Dromeous of Stymphalos proposed that athletes may increase muscle strength and improve their performance by consuming meat (Leaf & Frisa, 1989).

This study aims at identifying the nutritional and dietary habits of ancient and modern Olympic athletes on the basis of historic and scientific data regarding elite athletes. Since relevant data are scarce for Olympic athletes per se, it was assumed that almost all elite athletes become Olympic athletes at some point of their career.

Nutrition and Diet of Ancient Olympic Athletes

Greek and Roman writers described diets of Olympic athletes (Grivetti & Applegate, 1997). According to Granjean (1997) numerous descriptions of special diets and particular foods used by Greek athletes as early as 580 B.C. have been found. Greeks and Romans were mostly vegetarians and usually ate cereals, fruits, vegetables (green and dried), legumes, fruits (fresh and dried) and wine (diluted with various proportions of water) (Simopoulos, 1989). The most common meat in Greece was that of goats, while in Italy was that of pigs in the form of either pork or bacon. Beef was eaten in some occasions especially after a sacrifice, as cows were used mainly as working animals. Milk was produced from sheep and goats (Simopoulos, 1989).

Further the diet of both Greek and Romans involved fish (fresh and salted) and poultry. Butter was replaced from the olive oil, as the latter was the main source of domestic lighting. Then wheat was the main of the grains which were used for human food by the end of the fourth century B.C. So, bread which arrived at this time, had more advantages in comparison to porridge due to its easy handling, transport and durability. However, its arrival did not stop the existence of porridge and pulses in people diet at this time. In addition, spices and herbs were used for medical and health reasons at these ancient times (Simopoulos, 1989).

The earliest description about athletic diet is that of the Greek athlete Charmis of Sparta, who was eating dried figs for his training. According to Diogenes Laertius, Greek athletes ate dried figs, moist cheese and wheat through their training (Grivetti & Applegate, 1997). As Simopoulos refers (1989), in early days the food of athletes involved a simple regimen of porridge, cheese, figs and meal cakes, while meat was only eaten occasionally. This eating pattern changed over

the years and focused mostly on meat. Pythagoras was the first to train athletes on a meat diet with Eurymenes being the first of them (Grivetti & Applegate, 1997). According to Pausanias this meat diet was introduced around the middle of the fifth century B.C. (Grandjean, 1997) with the Greek long-distance runner called Dromeous of Stymphalos being the first athlete of eating meat as part of his training diet (Grivetti & Applegate, 1997). Also according to Pausanias and Athenaeus the diet of a Greek wrestler, Milo of Croton, involved huge amounts of meat (9 kg/day) as well as bread (9 kg/day) and wine (8.5 lts/day). However, the validity of this report must be suspected, as Milo's total energy daily intake would have been 57.000 kcal/day. This is extremely large quantity.

As the food historian called Francine Segan refers, an ancient Olympic victor of several competitions in running had only meat in his diet.

Except meat, other diet tips followed by athletes at this ancient time included eating dried figs while avoiding bread before the event (Walker, 2004). Along with meat, alcohol has a long history of documented use in the Olympics as alcohol consumption during training and competition has been reported (Grandjean, 1997). Epictetus refers that desserts and cold water were avoided from the Olympic victors and wine was taken sparingly (Grivetti & Applegate, 1997).

Then, according to Philostratos, the early athletic diet involved bread made from barley and wheat and meat like flesh of oxen, bulls, goats and deer. In later years of the ancient athletics, however, athletic diet was gradually based on white bread sprinkled with poppy seeds, fish and pork, and this nutritional scheme was deprecated by Philostratos (Grivetti & Applegate, 1997).

At the ancient Olympic Games, which were held in Olympia, Greece for over 1000 years, victorious athletes were given more than meals. They received for rewards pieces of ravani and spicy sweet cakes, which are still eaten today (Simopoulos, 1989).

Nutrition and Diet of Modern Olympic Athletes

With regards to the modern Olympic athletes nutritional habits survey data are sparse. It has been noted that even few American scientists carried out dietary

analysis of athletes or working populations in the 1900, none had studied Olympic athletes' diet and nutrition at this time. A dietary analysis of seven selected members of the crew teams from Harvard and Yale Universities at this time revealed that the daily nutrition intake of these athletes consisted of 15.6 % protein, 40.7 % fat, 44.2 % carbohydrates and 4085 kcal energy (Tipton, 1997).

In the 1908 Olympic Games the only information about Olympic athletes' nutrition was about alcohol. More specifically, alcohol consumption by Olympic athletes at these times has been reported, with marathon runners to drink cognac in order to improve their performance (Grandjean, 1997). Also, based on these reports, at least one German 100 km walker drank 22 glasses of beer and half a bottle of wine during competition (Whorton, 1982).

In the 1928 Olympic Games, even though Olympic athletes were studied no dietary analysis and examination was carried out (Tipton, 1997). Then, according to the first paper written by Paul Schenk (1936), in the 11th Olympic Games at Berlin (1936) athletes based their diets on meat by consuming two steaks per meal, sometimes poultry and about $\frac{1}{2}$ kg of meat daily (Grivetti & Applegate, 1997). The pre-competition meal often consisted of one to three steaks and eggs, supplemented with meat-juice extract. However, some athletes consumed regularly carbohydrates highlighting the importance of this type of nutrient on athletic performance.

More specifically, Olympic athletes from England, Finland, and Holland ate porridge, Americans ate shredded wheat or corn flakes in milk, Chileans and Italians ate pasta and Japanese a pound of rice daily. The average daily intake of Olympic athletes at this time reported as 320 g for protein, 270 g for fat and 850 g for carbohydrate with some athletes consuming 7300 kcal/day. Schenk compared the above data with the daily intake of a 70 kg man, which involves 118 g of protein, 56 g of fat, 500 g of carbohydrate and 3000 kcal recommended energy intake per day, based on Voits calculation (Grivetti & Applegate, 1997).

A second paper published by Schenk (1937) involves data about the eating patterns of 42 out of 49 national Olympic teams that ate in the Olympic village at this time. For example, the food of American athletes involved mainly beefsteak, average daily intake of 125 grs of butter or cotton oil, three eggs, custard for des-

sert and 1.5 lts of milk. In addition, the eating pattern of the American athletes involved *ad libitum* consumption of white bread, dinner rolls, fresh vegetables and salads while in contrast with other Olympic national teams limited consumption of sugar.

A third paper about food patterns adopted by the Olympic athletes in these Olympic Games has been written by Mary Egle (1937). According to her data, the average intake of six Olympic teams (England, Germany, Italy, Western Europeans, Japan, and United States) consisted of about 15.7 % protein, 35.8% fat and 48.7% carbohydrates. Also, she referred that some Olympic athletes at these games had 6700-7300 kcal energy intake per day (Grivetti & Applegate, 1997).

According to survey, the diet of athletes in the Helsinki Olympic Games (1952) was of high energy and included an average energy intake of 4.500 kcal, with 40% carbohydrate, 20% protein, and 40% fat (Tipton, 1997). In recent years, the dietary intake of Olympic athletes of both sexes consisted of protein, fat and carbohydrates in percentages of 14.8%, 32.8%, and 50.5%, respectively (Grandjean & Ruud, 1994). Another study on 419 elite endurance, strength, and team sport athletes, including Olympians, showed mean energy intake varied from 12.1-24.7 MJ (2892-5903 kcal) per day and 6.8-12.9 MJ (1625-3083 kcal) per day for males and females respectively. Also, the average consumption from carbohydrates was 40 to 63 % while 35 % or less the average fat consumption. Protein intake could meet the Dutch recommendations. Further, bread/cereals and dairy food groups were the main energy sources (van Erp-Baart, et al., 1989).

The official menu of Olympic athletes in the Atlanta Games (1996) was characterized by a large variety of food, such as fresh vegetables and dips, fruits, cheeses and breads, salads, pasta, rice and fruit salads, soups, meat and seafood, hot vegetables, desserts, and beverages (Grivetti & Applegate, 1997). The primary objective was to provide nutritious and conducive to sports performance food. This was the first time that high starch, low fat menu with one vegetarian menu option at each meal period was mentioned. However, according to some comments by Australian athletes, after these games, the menu still failed to meet their need for high carbohydrate and low fat foods (Pelly et al., 2009).

The menu pattern used at the Atlanta 1996 Olympic Games was also fol-

lowed in the Sydney 2000 Games. In order to develop the menu, the advice from expert panel of 10 Australian sports dieticians was taken about the dietary requirements of athletes from a range of different cultural and sporting backgrounds. More specifically, the final menu involved a high proportion of high carbohydrate and high protein menu items and two thirds of all menu options were low in fat. Further, according to survey, the provision of adequate meat, pasta, rice, vegetables, salads, fruits, and snacks in the main dinning hall reported by 414 athletes (Pelly et al., 2009).

Nutrition and Diet of Contemporary Elite Athletes

As it has been referred above, there are not published data about the nutrition and diet of modern Olympic athletes. However, there are published data about the nutritional habits of contemporary elite athletes of different sports. So, given that most of the elite athletes take part in the Olympic Games as well, this data information becomes valuable in identifying and assessing the nutrition and diet of contemporary Olympic Games athletes.

A study by Chen et al., (1989) which recorded the nutritional habits of 37 elite athletes from four teams (gymnastics, swimming, throwing, weightlifting) showed that: i) average energy intake was 2300-5900 kcal/day, ii) about 20% was the protein intake and 40% the fat intake for the majority of these athletes and iii) about 37% was the average carbohydrate intake, iv) sufficient mineral intake for most athletes while insufficient intake for some vitamins was found.

A study by Farajian et al., (2004) investigated the dietary intake and nutritional practices of 58 elite Greek aquatic athletes, and revealed that i) the mean energy intake for males and females was 14.3 MJ (about 3418 kcal) and 8.5 MJ (about 2032 kcal), respectively, ii) the mean carbohydrate intake for males and females was 361g/day (41.8% or 4.5g/kg body weight/day) and 248g/day (48.4% or 3.8g/kg/day), respectively, iii) the mean protein intake for males and females was 146g/day (17.4% or 1.8g/kg body weight/day) and 88g/day (17.5%

or 1.4g/kg/day), respectively, iii) the mean fat intake for males and females was 153g/day (40%/day) and 79g/day (33.9%/day), respectively.

These data suggest that athletes of both sexes had high intake of fat while low intake of carbohydrate in their diets. Further, quite high percentage of these athletes of both genders could not meet the dietary reference intake for some vitamins (B-complex, vitamin D, antioxidants) and minerals (calcium, iron, magnesium). For example, 71% of the males and 93% of the females had insufficient intake of at least one of the antioxidant vitamins (including vitamins A, C, and E) and this was related to inadequate fruit and vegetable consumption. Another example is that 61% of males and 85% of females could not meet the dietary reference intake of magnesium (Farajian et al., 2004).

In another study carried out by Schroder et al., (2004) on 55 elite basketball players of the 1st Spanish Basketball League showed that i) the mean energy consumption was 17.7 MJ (4230 kcal), ii) the mean carbohydrate intake was 424.2g/day (4.6g/kg/day) (40.3%), iii) the mean intake of protein was 211.3g/day (2.3g/kg/day) (19.7%) iv) the mean intake of fat was 185.3g/day (2.1g/kg/day) (39.0%). Furthermore, intake of protein, fat, minerals and most vitamins was higher than the daily recommended intake, while the intake of carbohydrates and vitamin E could not meet the guidelines. In addition the mean fluid intake per day was 3126 ml with water as the preferred beverage accompanied by milk, commercial sport drinks, carbonated beverages, juices, beer and non-alcoholic beverages. 66% of these athletes reported that consumed particular foods mainly spaghettis and rice accompanied by meat, salad and fruit, before competition while 10% after competition.

Then, a study of Onywera et al., (2004) on 10 elite Kenyan runners showed that: i) the mean energy intake was 2987 kcal/day, iii) the daily intake of carbohydrate was high (76.5% of total energy intake), while the daily intake of fat quite low (13.4% of total energy intake), iv) the protein daily intake was 10.1%, v) the fluid intake was modest (1113 ml water and 1243 ml tea) vi) milk, sugar, bread, boiled rice, boiled potatoes, porridge cabbage, kidney beans and ugali contributed to 88% of total energy intake while meat only to 1% of total energy intake.

Conclusions

Based on the previous discussion a number of conclusive remarks can be made:

- 1) The importance of diet and nutrition in athletic performance has been mentioned since antiquity.
- 2) The main food of early ancient Olympic athletes was mainly based on cheese, dried fruit, bread made from barley and wheat, while later meat was the main food of them, with some athletes like Milo of Croton following a meat-heavy diet.
- 3) A high consumption of meat was adopted by the early modern Olympic athletes, with characteristic example that of the 1936 Berlin Olympic Games.
- 4) Over the last 100 years the dietary intake of modern Olympic athletes has been characterized by a decrease in fat and an increase in carbohydrates and protein consumption.
- 5) As a general conclusion, it appears that, even though the topic was almost equally important over time, the nutritional and dietary habits of ancient and modern Olympic athletes have been quite different.

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IS THE ATHLETE “RIGHT OR WRONG”?: GENDER REGULATION IN OLYMPIC SPORT

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In 1968, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) implemented its first chromatin test to ensure the separation of men and women in athletic competition. Fearful of a male biological advantage and influenced by Cold War tensions, the IOC tested 3,500 female athletes at the Mexico City Olympic Games to confirm “correct” categorical placement. Tellingly, not a single male experienced a similar check. As chairman of the IOC commission on doping Sir Arthur Porritt explained, “there is a very simple test to determine if the athlete is right or wrong”¹. Porritt’s notion of a gendered “right or wrong” –representative of the IOC’s ideology and pertinent only to female athletes– signifies a belief in biological difference and simultaneously demonstrates an intolerance for gender flexibility. Olympic gender verification tests attempted to distinguish between the “right” athletes, those deemed appropriately feminine, from the “wrong” athletes, those deemed inappropriately masculine². This essentialist assumption underlined the

1. *The Washington Post*, “Sex, Doping Tests Set for Olympians”, May 9, 1967.

2. Eleanor Metheny: “Symbolic Form of Movement: The Feminine Image in Sport”, *Connotations of Movement in Sport and Dance: A Collection of Speeches about Sport and Dance as Significant Forms of Human Behavior* (Iowa: WM. C. Brown Company Publishers), 1964. In this piece, Metheny outlines sport deemed “wholly appropriate”, “may be appropriate” and “not appropriate” for women. According to Metheny, appropriate female sport is: “aesthetically pleasing”, utilizes manufactured devices or light objects. Inappropriate female sport involves resistance of an opponent or of a heavy object.

IOC's gender policing in competition and allowed for the continued use of gender verification tests until the 2000 Sydney Games.

Three years after terminating sex tests, the IOC finalized a policy for transsexual athletic participation in the Olympics. The appearance of and responses to several elite male-to-female transsexual athletes prompted the medical committee to hold hearings about the possible inclusion of transsexual competitors for the 2004 Athens Summer Games³. After months of prolonged conversation, the IOC created the Stockholm Consensus, outlining very specific rules stipulating transsexual performance. This policy mandated sex reassignment surgery, legal recognition from country of origin and hormone therapy "appropriate" to the new gender.

With the Stockholm Consensus, the IOC became the first international, multi-sport federation to establish such gender qualifications. Immediately upon the policy's release, the committee's medical director Patrick Schamasch expressed his true opinion on the matter. He rationalized the IOC's gender policy stating that "any sport may be touched by this problem", and later explained that it was designed "more to protect the athlete who has not been sex reassigned"⁴. Similar to Porritt's assertion in 1968 of the necessity of gender verification to identify the "right" women, Schamasch's belief in the Stockholm Consensus as vital protection against a potential "problem" illustrates the IOC's negative view of gender malleability and an underlying belief in masculine superiority in sport.

The IOC's gender verification tests and the Stockholm Consensus both were grounded in essentialist notions of biological difference. This paper argues that the IOC, guided by an assumption of masculine biological advantage, created

3. Renée Richards sued for legal access to the women's professional tennis tour in 1977. Almost a decade later, the United States Golf Association and the US Ladies Professional Golf Association instituted a "female at birth" policy in response to Charlotte Wood's amateur success. Conversely, Women's Golf Australia welcomed Mianne Bagger in 1999 with other European tours following suit in 2004. In the wake of the Stockholm Consensus, several sport authorities enacted mirror policies, notably the USGA and the International Association of Athletics Federation. The LPGA maintained the "female at birth" prerequisite until 2010.

4. *China Daily*, "IOC Embraces Transsexuals, May 18, 2004. http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/english/doc/2004-05/18/content_331620.htm; *San Francisco Chronicle*, "Olympics' Transgender Quandary", June 14, 2004.

two policies which each served to police gender. Rather than accept gender variance or a gendered spectrum, Olympic sex testing and the transsexual athletic policy upheld sex-segregated competition predicated upon patriarchal beliefs. These gender limitations consequently extended the discourses of innate masculine advantage in competition, degraded women's talent and forced female athletes to "prove" their womanhood. By justifying both gender verification and transgender restriction as imperative for fair play –and with evaluations required only of women and male-to-female transsexuals– sport authorities constructed female athletes as suspicious, unnatural oddities.

Gender Verification Testing

Cold War fears infiltrated all facets of culture. Panic about the possibility of atomic warfare between the U.S.S.R. and the U.S. consumed global attention and severed the world along the ideological "Iron Curtain". Although direct confrontation between the two "superpowers" proved avoidable, the countries clashed on the periphery –notably engaging in conflicts in Korea and Vietnam– resultantly extending the hostilities internationally⁵. Not surprisingly, sport emerged as a contested arena. Therefore, as the preeminent global location of athletic competition, the Olympics came to be viewed as a forum to demonstrate national superiority. Accordingly, during the "Cold War Olympics" the medal count gained increasing importance; when the U.S.S.R. surpassed the U.S. –largely due to the USSR women's victories over the femininity-burdened American women– alarm ensued⁶. Anxieties over masculinized, "unnatural" Eastern European women led to claims of male masqueraders and culminated in sex testing. Thus the IOC's initial demands for gender verification stemmed from the conviction that muscular, athletic females were either abnormal or men. This fundamental ideology

5. For a discussion of the Cold War on the "periphery" see Melvyn P. Leffler, *A Preponderance of Power: National Security, the Truman Administration, and the Cold War* (Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 1992).

6. Alan Guttman, "The Cold War and the Olympics", *The International Journal*, 43:4 (Autumn 1988), 554-568.

illustrates the essentialist, patriarchal assumption of women's physical inferiority, reaffirming the societal belief in the incongruence of womanhood and sport.

During the Cold War, images of unapologetically strong Eastern European female athletes flooded the U.S. and generated worries about the loss of femininity, the end of fairness in sport and the invasion of male masqueraders in women's competition. In the U.S., female athleticism still remained an oxy-moron as patriarchal middle-class norms maintained that slender-stature, passivity and grace constituted acceptable womanhood; muscular-builds, aggression and power, on the other hand, raised concerns. Thus the strength of the Soviet women concerned American men. As historian Susan K. Cahn explained, "the presence of powerful women athletes struck at the roots of male dominance in American society – the seemingly natural physical superiority of men"⁷.

Consequently, female athletes in the U.S. received recognition for beauty and femininity, not for physicality or athleticism. Such media coverage, in the words of historian Linda D. Williams, "provide a highly stereotypical feminized view – one that tends to sexualize, commodify, trivialize and devalue (through marginalization) women's sporting accomplishments"⁸. This focus on appearance in place of skill trivialized women's sporting experiences and simultaneously deterred physical training. For example, *Washington Post* journalist Bill Jauss dismissed the talent of the U.S. Olympic female competitors and instead happily described their physical attributes in preparation for the 1956 Melbourne Games. "While gold medals are the sole quest of our gals in the Olympic Games this month in Australia", he declared, "they are almost a cinch to figure well in the beauty department". The piece, entitled "U.S. Girls add Beauty to Olympic Games", continues with a description of the "gals'" feminine appearances, disregarding actual athletic accomplishment⁹.

7. Susan K. Cahn, *Coming on Strong: Gender and Sexuality in Twentieth-Century America* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1994), 207-208.

8. Linda D. Williams, "Sportswomen in Black and White: Sports History from an Afro-America Perspective", in *Women, Media and Sport: Challenging Gender Values*, (ed) Pamela Creedon (London: Sage Publications, 1994), 36. Although Williams focuses primarily on recent research, her assertion of feminized caricatures emerged previously and were rampant in the mid-twentieth century.

9. Bill Jauss, "U.S. Girls add Beauty to Olympic Games", *Washington Post*, November 11, 1956, C3.

In a similar fashion, William Barry Furlong of *The New York Times* despaired in 1960 about the increasing female interest in sport. He lamented, "it is difficult to determine whether the change signals a decline in civilization or a rise in womanhood – or both". Yet, to Furlong, "it is not the girl's watching that is worrisome; it is their competition"¹⁰. His concern stemmed from he described as "The Image" – the innate beauty, passivity and grace of women. Hence, "it is felt that by plunging into certain sports, women tend to destroy The Image". Furlong favored swimming and tennis – sports "in which the muscles are stretched instead of knotted" – over "sports that demand a woman combat her natural grace". According to the article, Olympic competition should "let the women engage in the muscle-stretching sports and leave the muscle-bunching sports to the men"¹¹. By emphasizing and caricaturing the feminine countenance, sportswriters such as Furlong hindered American women's athletic development.

Additionally, several journalists negatively contrasted the muscular, "masculine" Soviet women with the weaker –yet more aesthetically pleasing, "feminine" – American athletes. Again as an example, Jauss continued his piece with an evaluation of beauty:

Everyone has heard of the Russian woman athletes... Most of the Russian woman athletes are far from pretty. They're masculine looking, big-limbed, hard-faced girls, with the legs and biceps of an all-america fullback. In contrast, our woman athletes, especially the swimmers and gymnasts, score as well in anatomy statistics as they do in the times and distances of their events¹².

Jauss's depreciatory statement that "everyone has heard of the Russian woman athletes" served to paint the women as comical abnormalities while his ridicule of their physical appearances constructed them as monstrosities. Furthermore, Jauss purposefully employed the image of a fullback, a position in American football, for

10. William Barry Furlong, "Venus wasn't a Shot-Putter: More and more of the Fair Sex are Competing in Sports", *New York Times*, August 28, 1960, SM14.

11. *Ibid*, SM14.

12. Bill Jauss, "U.S. Girls add Beauty", C3.

football was a popular sport without a female counterpart. This calculated comparison explicitly likened the U.S.S.R. women to men. Such sentiment pervaded U.S. reports and led to fears of Eastern European male masqueraders.

To prevent male inclusion in female categories, in the 1966 European Championships in Track & Field the first sex test was implemented. As professor Ian Ritchie has pointed out, “it was track and field in particular that female Soviet athletes had been most successful, most visible, and most derided”¹³. Western bias and national pride therefore led to a physical examination test which required all female competitors to march naked in front of a panel of physicians. Humiliated by public nudity –but not by the unwarranted fears of male infiltration or the required adherence to cultural ideals of femininity– female athletes demanded a different gender examination.

The IOC responded in 1968 with a buccal smear test. In place of the “nude parade”, the buccal smear test analyzed cells from the participant’s cheek to determine chromosomal makeup. As a trial run, the IOC required that of the 288 female athletes at the Grenoble Winter Games, one out of every five undergo the test. Although many in the U.S. embraced the sex test as a tool to ensure fairness and prohibit male masqueraders from competition, some critiqued the selection process as too arbitrary. According to the *Washington Post*, Olympic officials felt that random selection “did nothing to solve the problem since it still left too many of the girls unchecked”. This “problem” in the words of one anonymous official, would best be solved if they tested “the most obvious” of the athletes¹⁴. Clearly “the most obvious” implied those females who did not subscribe to Western notions of femininity – the muscular Olympians from Eastern Europe countries.

As a result, the IOC officially adopted the chromatin test for all female athletes in the 1968 Mexico City Summer Olympics. Thus, as previously noted, 3,500 female athletes underwent the gender verification test. The fears of masculinized, Soviet woman coupled with the lack of a parallel test for men illustrate the deep-rooted assumption of masculine physical superiority. While the IOC intended

13. Ian Ritchie. “Sex Tested, Gender Verified: Controlling Female Sexuality in the Age of Containment”, *Sport History Review*, 2003 Vol. 34:1, 87.

14. *Washington Post*, “At Grenoble: 1-in-5 Test of Sex said ‘Ludicrous,’” February 3, 1968, D1.

to “scientifically” prove biological difference and therefore verify sex-segregated competition, the idea of a simple gender binary proved egregious. As sociologist Sheila L. Cavanagh and queer theorist Heather Sykes argued, the IOC utilized sex tests to locate and justify a biological dichotomy, but repeatedly failed. “The IOC tried to make a categorical gender binary self-evident through medical technologies”, they explained, “but each version of the test revealed subtle differences between male and female genders, as opposed to clearly delineated ‘opposite’ sexes”¹⁵. Biological anomalies, like Androgen Insensitivity Syndrome, caused individuals to fail.

While the reasoning behind the sex tests stemmed from an assumption of a clear division between men and women, the chromatin identifiers actually demonstrated a gender spectrum. Nevertheless, the continued practice of gender verification –through the 1996 Atlanta Olympics– did perpetuate the ideology of a gender binary as sport authorities maintained sex-segregated competition and dismissed any athlete who fell between the two circumscribed gendered categories. In addition, as only female competitors had to “prove” gender, sex testing reaffirmed the patriarchal ideology of women athletes as oddities.

The Stockholm Consensus

Almost four decades after its acceptance of gender verification tests, the IOC again sought to draw a line between male and female competitors. The Stockholm Consensus served as a proactive attempt to address the potential “problem” of transsexuality and to offer female athletes “protection”. Similar to the segregated athletic spaces enhanced by gender verification tests, the Stockholm Consensus diminished any possibility for gender fluidity in Olympic competition and instead created amended gender definitions which forced transsexual athletes into a specific category. In addition, the IOC worried that unrestricted inclusion of transsexual athletes –namely male-to-female transsexuals– would create an unfair athletic environment, a debate clearly shaped by an assumption

15. Sheila L. Cavanagh and Heather Sykes, “Transsexual Bodies at the Olympics: The International Olympic Committee’s Policy on Transsexual Athletes at the 2004 Athens Summer Games”, *Body and Society*, vol. 12: 3 (2006), 81.

of masculine innate advantage. Finally, by mandating strict regulation of transsexual athletes and requiring individual investigation, specifically of male-to-female athletes, the IOC once again cast female athletes as deviant and required verification of their womanhood.

The Stockholm Consensus divided transsexual athletes into two groups. One set of stipulations referred to individuals who had undergone sex-reassignment surgery pre-puberty; for these individuals, the Stockholm Consensus allowed them to compete in the resultant gender division without restriction. For the other group, the IOC established a narrow set of regulations. First, the Stockholm Consensus stated that the individual must undergo sex-reassignment surgery and change external genitalia. The second requirement varied upon country of residency, but all transsexual participants must have received legal recognition of assigned sex by “appropriate official authorities”. Finally, transsexual athletes must administer hormone therapy “appropriate for the assigned sex... in a verifiable manner and for a sufficient length of time to minimise gender-related advantages in competitive sport competitions [*sic*]”¹⁶. In addition, the Stockholm Consensus stipulated that each transsexual athlete undergo individual investigation prior to competition.

Although the Olympic Games strive for international unity, the Stockholm Consensus demonstrated a Western, elite bias. The Stockholm Consensus discriminated against individuals from poorer, less-industrialized nations. In the words of Cavanagh and Sykes, the Stockholm Consensus provided a “very narrow definition of transsexuality which... excludes a large segment of the international transsexual community”¹⁷. For several transgender athletes who so desire, surgery remains an impossibility. Sex-reassignment is expensive, thus making it attainable for only affluent athletes. In addition, several countries do not have the necessary medical background or scientific technology to perform the operations and sex-reassignment for female-to-male transsexuals has yet to be perfected. Furthermore, the status of genitals in sport holds no significance other than for classification purposes. Legal recognition by “appropriate official authorities” is

16. International Olympic Committee Medical Commission, “Statement of the Stockholm Consensus on Sex Reassignment in Sports”, 2003, http://multimedia.olympic.org/pdf/en_report_905.pdf.

17. Sheila L. Cavanagh and Heather Sykes, “Transsexual Bodies at the Olympics”, 78.

also problematic. Transsexuals outside of the U.S. and Europe have difficulty changing legal status. Even in the U.S., recognition varies state-by-state. Finally, hormone levels "appropriate for the assigned sex" is disputable as no one standard exists. The use of conservative medical criteria diminished accessibility for many transsexual athletes and completely excluded intersexed competitors.

In addition, by deploying the discourse of fairness, the IOC reified patriarchal assumptions and simultaneously constructed female athletes as irregular. The rationalization that the Stockholm Consensus maintained a level playing field stemmed from –and consequently reaffirmed– essentialist fears of biological advantage. Concerns with male-to-female athletes exhibited this bias and furthermore cast suspicion on powerful, "manly" female athletes; the extension of this ideology preserved the significance of acceptable femininity.

The Stockholm Consensus diminished the possibility for gender malleability and instead created Western, elite-derived definitions which forced transsexual competitors into a specific category. In attempting to solve the "problem" of transsexual athletes, the IOC's policy reified the gender binary, maintained patriarchy and fostered images of transsexuals as cheaters and strong female athletes as deviant.

Conclusion

Maintaining an adherence to the notion of fair play, in 2011 the IOC announced new possibilities for gender distinction in Olympic competition. Unlike the past attempts to distinguish men and women based upon anatomy, the proposed regulations would segregate males and females according to testosterone levels. The IOC's projected restrictions again focus on women, seeking to identify and bar females with "hyperandrogenism", a condition in which an individual produces high levels of testosterone¹⁸. Banning hyperandrogenism women embraces a

18. Joanna Marchant, "Women with High Male Hormone Levels Face Sports Ban", *Nature*, April 14, 2011. Accessed May 1, 2011, <http://www.scientificamerican.com/article.cfm?id=women-high-male-hormone-levels-sports-ban>.

gender dichotomy as natural and correct. Similar to the gender verification tests and the Stockholm Consensus, the IOC's prospective plan undermines female athletic talent and shapes women competitors as in need of confirmation.

The images of powerful Soviet women in the midst of the Cold War raised concerns of male masqueraders while recent accounts of unrestricted male-to-female transsexual athletes in elite competition sparked fears of an unfair athletic environment. Gender verification tests resultantly sought to separate the "wrong" masculinized female athletes from the "right" overtly feminine women. Almost forty years later the Stockholm Consensus aimed to "protect" female athletes from male-to-female transsexuals. Both examples illustrate the continued Western assumption of male athletic prowess and the complementary belief in female physical weakness. Through sex testing and the Stockholm Consensus, the IOC provided the necessary credence to limit female athleticism.

Additionally, because only female athletes underwent gender verification tests and male-to-female athletes received the greatest negative attention, the IOC shaped female athletes as deviant. Because only female athletes required verification –male-to-female transsexual athletes on a case-by-case basis– the IOC perpetuated the notion of the female athlete as an unnatural oddity. The IOC's gender policies maintained sex-segregation, resultantly encouraging patriarchal assumptions and creating the image of female athletes as abnormal.

Finally, as the IOC is the beacon of international sport authority, the organisation's gender policies exist as the ultimate authority on gender regulation. Several individual athletic federations followed suit in 1968 with mirroring gender verification tests. In the wake of the Stockholm Consensus, other sport organisations implemented strict transsexual policies which followed the IOC's template. As the leading authority of international competition, the IOC reaffirmed and continues to perpetuate the patriarchal ideology of masculine biological dominance and the ideology of athletic womanhood as abnormal.

EVOLUTION OF ART HISTORY PRESENTATION OF STRENGTH AND HUMAN BODY THROUGH THE EXAMPLE OF DAVID

Ana POPOVCIC (CRO)

Introduction

When considering the term strength, one must be careful to consider that it may account for either the physical or spiritual. Oftentimes, these two concepts directly oppose one another. Throughout history, one concept has usually predominated, while the other was neglected or even denied. These periods, where either the spiritual or physical held favor, have rotated cyclically; yet the highlights of every culture and civilization is characterized by a harmony between these two extremes.

This paper will explain the evolution and the subsequent changes in conception of the human body and the perception of strength as they are depicted in the presentation of the Old-Testament's King David during the Middle Ages, the Renaissance and Baroque periods. Truly a painting (or sculpture) is worth a thousand words, not only in its descriptive value but also in its symbolic significance (Janson, 1995), and because of that, studying art helps in understanding the evolution of human culture in the easiest and most direct way.

Middle Age philosophy considered earthly life to be temporary, and that real life begins only after death, i.e., the afterlife. Middle Ages are also known as "The Age of Faith", and during that period man's purpose was to serve God. Life was looked upon as a journey, and the focus of life was on the afterlife because there

were no guarantees in the present life. The life of highest value was the contemplative life, one devoted to God. The passive virtues such as compassion, suffering, and humility were highly regarded. Thus, the human body represented an impediment that chains the spirit and prevents it from reaching its true existence. Therefore the body needed to be neglected or even destructed, so that the spirit may take form.

The Renaissance period, together with Humanism revived the ancient Greek understanding of earthly life as the only true existence, and human body as an ideal of beauty. According to the ancient Greek idea – the body sustains the spirit and therefore needs to be taken care of and trained so that there will be *Mens sana in corpore sano* (Mudrinić, 1932-1938). As the first society to focus on nude subjects, Greek sculptors attempted to depict man in what they believed was the image of the gods and so would come to celebrate the body by striving for verisimilitude or true – likeness (realism and naturalism). Not only did the Greeks celebrate the human form in their art but also in everyday life, and one of the favorite topics for sculptors was that of the hero-athlete.

A work of art is the statement itself and a separate and self-contained reality which has its own ends and responds to its own imperatives; however, it also express the “genius”, the basic qualities of the civilization that produced it. Therefore it is possible to interpret the change in the relation of physical and spiritual strength, from the chosen art presentations.

David

The David personage from the Old Testament is the Israeli king, the ancestor of Christ, a hero, a prophet, a musician, a sinner and a repentant. He is represented in art history as a young man with a sling, a king, a bearded old man with harp or a prophet with a volume. David is one of the most depicted characters in the Christian iconography (Lexicon of Western Christianity’s iconografics, litugics and symbolics).

The story of David has occupied the minds of biblical critics and fired the im-

agination of artists over the years. David's status as founder of a dynasty of kings is highlighted in Jewish and Christian traditions and his multifaceted personality has found expression in many and varied artistic forms, which makes him a perfect example for studying the evolution of art history presentation of human strength.

Middle Age presentation of David



Fig. 1. King David playing on the Lyre, surrounded by four Musicians, 13th Century.

David appeared in medieval Christian art from the third century, often as a prefiguration or “ancestor” of Christ. Typology, the technique of interpreting a character from the Hebrew Bible as a New Testament figure, was a popular practice in medieval art. Characters were typified as both figures and events. Beginning around 1200, Byzantine art gave birth to the Cycle technique of depiction; favorite biblical stories, including the ones in the books of Samuel and Kings, were painted in multiple scenes enclosed in frames. Telltale elements crept into the cycles, betraying fea-

tures of daily life. For example, in one English Psalter (prayer books containing Psalms; according to tradition, David is the author of Psalms), David is portrayed playing the organ. Pictures of David adorn many illuminated medieval Psalters, in most – praising God by playing the harp or lyre. According to Middle Age philosophy, his strength lies in the supernatural, divine (in other words – spiritual) characteristics. His physical strength is completely neglected, and to emphasize the spiritual component, he is most often represented as an old man. Carolingian Psalters before the year 1000 show David in typological fashion as a symbol of Jesus, surrounded by his four musicians, Asaph, Heman, Ethan, and Jeduthun, representing the four Evangelists.

Renaissance presentation of David

In Renaissance Florence, David became the political symbol of the city. Fifteenth-century Florence, controlled by the wealthy and powerful Medici family was rich and powerful, but still a small state that was often threatened by the Papal aspirations. For this reason the people of Florence chose Judith and young David as symbols of their state (Blake McHam, 2001). The two biblical personages symbolize the triumph of the small and physically weak that is righteous and moral. Judith, being inferior because of her gender, manages to outwit and behead the enemy, King Holofern, and from the vast number of biblical stories about the life of David, the one chosen is the Goliath episode. When Israeli king Saul took his army in battle against the Philistines, the Philistine leader, giant Goliath, offered to resolve the conflict with one single fight. Young David volunteered, refused the armor offered by Saul, and took his sling and five stones from the ground. He killed the Goliath with the first stone, took his sword and beheaded him.

Donatello's David



*Fig. 2. Donatello
David c 1430.*

Donatello's (1386-1466) sculpture of David (cca 1430) is the first life-size nude statue since Classical times. He achieved a balance between Classicism and the realism by presenting a very real image of a boy in the form of a Classical nude figure. Although Donatello was inspired by Classical figures, he did not choose a Greek youth in his prime as a model for his David. Instead, he chooses a barely developed adolescent boy whose arms appeared weak due to the lack of muscles. Bronze is an appropriate medium for the statue: its smoothness and gleam accent David's feminine grace and delicacy (Schneider, 1973).

After defeating Goliath, whose head lies at David's feet, he rests his sword by his side, almost too heavy to handle. It seems almost impossible that a young boy like David could have accomplished such a task. His pose

is relaxed and he indicates Goliath's helmet with a sword held in his right hand. David's nudity, framed by hat and boots, is further stressed by his complacent expression and air of narcissistic introspection, but he also seems a little skeptical of his deed as he glances down towards his body (Fichner-Rathus, 1995). Apparently, David's intellect, faith and courage made up for his lack of build.

Earlier representations of the triumphant David are rare, and he was usually portrayed typologically as an ancestor of the Virgin (Janson, 1957). Iconographic transformation in the depiction of David appears to have occurred at the end of the fourteenth century or in the early fifteenth century. Janson has related Donatello interpretation of the hero to a change in Florentine political attitudes around the turn of the century. He argues that the need to portray David as a military hero rather than as a prophet explains the transfer of the sling to his right hand with the resulting emphasis on triumph. With the iconographic alterations, the statue became a political rather than a religious symbol.

Verrocchio's David



Fig. 3. Andrea del Verrocchio David. 1st half of the 15th Century.

Andrea del Verrocchio (cca 1435-1488) was the most important and imaginative sculptor of the mid-fifteenth century. He made a sculpture of David in the second half of the 15th century, and this figure of the youthful David is one of the most beloved and famous works of its time. In Verrocchio's David, a strong contrast to Donatello's treatment of the same subject is visible. Although both artists choose to portray David as an adolescent, Verrocchio's brave man "appears somewhat older and excludes pride and self-confidence rather than a dreamy gaze of disbelief" (Fichner-Rathus, 1995).

Donatello balanced realistic elements with an idealized classically inspired torso, whereas Verrocchio's goal was absolute realism in every detail. "Donatello's graceful pose had been replaced in the Verrocchio,

by a jaunty contrapposto that enhances David's image of self-confidence" (Fichner-Rathus 334).

Michelangelo's David



Fig. 4.
Michelangelo
Buonarroti
David 1504.

The most famous sculpture of David is the one made by Michelangelo Buonarroti (1475-1564) in the early 16th century (1504). Michelangelo's reputation as a sculptor was established when he carved his David at the edge of twenty-seven from a single piece of relatively unworkable marble. Unlike the David's of Donatello and Verrocchio, Michelangelo's David is not shown after conquering his enemy. Instead, he is portrayed as a "most beautiful animal preparing to kill-not by savagery and brute force, but by intellect and skill" (Fichner-Rathus, 1995). Cast over his shoulder is David's sling, and the stone is clutched in his right hand, his veins in chief anticipation of the fight. Michelangelo's David depicts the ideal youth who has just reached manhood and is capable of great physical and intellectual feats, which is part of the Classical tradition (Fichner-Rathus, 1995).

Besides that, the sculpture of David is more than 5 meters tall (517 cm). To anyone who knows the story of David and Goliath, an obvious paradox arises from a statue of David that is as big. The mythical figure of David is supposed to be the giant-killer – yet, in view of his size, Florentines spontaneously called this David the Giant – Il Gigante. With that, the whole meaning of David's victory is altered. No longer does he represent a fable whose moral is "the bigger they come, the harder they fall". As Marcel Brion wrote: "Michelangelo's David is like Perseus and Siegfried, whose prowess was the result of their own strength and courage; they would have scorned to appeal for help, even from God" (Brion, 1940). Michelangelo's David is a result of change in the understanding of world and God. He possesses no supernatural powers – neither divine strength nor divine foresight. The Middle Age human, helpless before God and Destiny, who prays for salvation after death, gives place to a self-conscious, Renaissance *homo faber* – a maker of his own destiny.

A trivia connected to this sculpture is that recent scientific research discovered an anatomic mistake on the sculpture. Michelangelo's David is missing a muscle on the right side of his back, between a spine and a shoulder. A flaw is not a result of a mistake done by the artist, for Michelangelo himself complained (in one of his letters) about the anomaly of the marble which prevented him to mould the muscle (Lorenzi, 2004). Regardless of this imperfection (which is not even a shortcoming, for art is more than just an imitation of nature), this work of art represents a moral strength and dignity expressed by the classical beauty of a vital human body in perfect harmony of physical and spiritual strength.

Baroque presentation of David

Bernini's David



Fig. 5. Gian Lorenzo Bernini
David. 1624.

The sculpture of David from the early 17th century (1624), made by Gian Lorenzo Bernini (1598-1680) is notably different from those of Donatello, Verrocchio and Michelangelo. Bernini emulated neither Donatello's triumphant boy victor nor Michelangelo's posturing adolescent. His hero is full-grown and fully engaged-both physically and psychologically-as he takes aim and twists his tensed, muscular body a split second before sling-ing the stone, grasped in his left hand. David stands alone, but Goliath is envisioned directly behind the viewer. It is the anticipation of violent action that heightens this confrontation as David's latent power is momentarily arrested (Scribner, 1991). Present in this sculpture are three crucial characteristics of Baroque art: motion, a different way of looking at space (spiral, in opposition to frontal and sideways) and the introduction of the concept of time. Donatello and Verrocchio depicted David at rest after he killed Goliath, Michelangelo, by contrast, presented David before the battle, with the tension

and emotion evident in every vein and muscle. Bernini does not depict David before or after the fight. Instead, he shows him in the process of the fight. This represents the element of time in his work. The viewers are forced to complete the action that David has begun.

Bernini's statue is faithful in most aspects to the biblical story: David is swinging the slingshot toward Goliath, while the armor he chose not to wear – lies at his feet. Because, Goliath is at some distance from David at this point in time, his figure is not included in the statue. It appears that Bernini saw importance in being familiar with the biblical scenes one is depicting through art. Yet, the harp, which lies on the ground, and is half covered at David's feet – is not a part of the biblical description of the fight. It is rather a symbolic image, symbolizing David's artistic talents as a musician, which he had to leave behind, neglect somewhat, when he chose to volunteer to fight Goliath. The fact that the harp is only half covered, parallels David's story in the Bible, since David returns later in his life to his destiny as an artist. The Bible indeed tells us that David left music only for a period of time, to fight Goliath and save the people of Israel from the Philistine threat; and later in his life returns to it, as the Biblical text reveals.

Caravaggio's David



Fig. 6. Caravaggio *David with the Head of Goliath*. c.1610.

In the 17th century, renaissance exaltation with the classical idea of human being the centre of the world, gave place to yet again more spiritual understanding of existence. Caravaggio's David is neither classically nude, nor classically strong. He is, again, depicted after the battle, but he lacks the satisfaction of the victory.

For all its obvious theatricality (which is very typical for baroque period), the painting is surprisingly muted: David seems to contemplate Goliath with a mixture of sadness and pity, and he appears to be subject to conflict and guilt. According to contemporary sources, the

severed head is a self-portrait, but although the identification can be doubted, the disturbing image communicates a tragic vision. Not long after the David was painted, Caravaggio killed another man in a duel, which forced him to spend the rest of his short life on the run (Janson, 1995).

Conclusion

The idea of strength has vacillated throughout history. In a certain period of ancient Greek civilization, man sought the harmony between body and soul. This concept was largely neglected or misunderstood by the Romans, who instead emphasized man's physical strength. During the long period of the Middle Ages, men favored the spiritual components, and thus denied the material existence of this world. The human body even represented an impediment that chains the spirit and prevents it from reaching its true existence. The Renaissance period once again favored classical ideas; harmony between the physical and the spiritual is venerated, and the human being was considered in his entirety. The aspiration for harmony was once again disturbed by the Reformation and Counter Reformation, which emphasized the spirit, but the onset of the Modern Age marked a slow return of the physical – notably the birth of modern sport in England. Surely the greatest moment of this harmony, is the turn of the 20th century with Pierre de Coubertin and the Olympic movement. Coubertin's concept of Olympism which is a philosophy of life that combines in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind (The Olympic Charter) is the essence of this perfect harmony. Whereas the Ancient Games were part of a cult to the honor of Zeus, a key goal in their modern version ought to be to worship human greatness and possibility.

Today the harmony between spiritual and physical is once again disturbed in the way that the physical component prevails in the contemporary society. That is closely connected to contemporary patterns of happiness-seeking via consumption, and our focus on the material.

When analyzing this evolution, it is clear that the most progressive moments of

human civilization are the periods when man not only sought harmony between the physical and spiritual, but also derived inspiration from the complimentary nature of the two ideals.

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**“IOA: 50 YEARS OF OLYMPIC EDUCATION –
FUTURE PERSPECTIVES”
GERMAN INFLUENCES ON THE ACTIVITIES OF THE IOA**

Katharina SCHORR (GER)

As we all know, the IOA is a high level International intellectual and pedagogical centre of Athletics and Olympism, where each year several sessions are held. It is intended to teach young people from all over the world the Olympic values. This article wants to show the stony paths its founders had to go and have a look at the extraordinary people who overcame all difficulties.

The following enumeration should give a brief overview of important dates.

- 1875: under the supervision of Ernst Curtius the excavation of ancient Olympia became systematic. Abandoned in 1881.
- 1925: Coubertin was giving up the presidency of the IOC and founded the “Educational World Union” and 1926 the “international Office for Sports Education”.
- 1927: Coubertin, Chryssafis and Ketseas discussed the creation of an annual sport festival in Olympia.
- 1934: cooperation between Diem and Ketseas concerning the realization of the torch relay (1936 Berlin Olympics).
- 1935: resumption of the excavations until late 1941, interrupted by WW II.
- 1936: “Olympic Youth Camp” with an international attendance of over 1000 students.

- 1937: Diem was appointed director of this International Olympic Institute (suggested by Coubertin).
- 1937: Coubertin died (2nd September) his heart was transferred to Olympia in March 1938.
- 1939: the HOC become responsible for the establishment of an IOA and the IOC took on the patronage.
- 1945: letter to Avery Brundage, containing the proposal of the foundation of an Academy in the United States.
- 1946: Ketseas was elected member of the IOC.
- 1949: 43rd IOC Session in Rome – presentation of the Memorandum, unanimous decision by the IOC.
- 1952: excavation was recommenced (with the exception of the stadium), Emil Kunze, director of the German archaeological institute in Athens.
- 1957: DSB made an appeal to spend money for the Carl-Diem-donation to excavate the ancient stadium. The excavation started in spring 1958.
- 1961: excavation finally completed.
- 1961: following the IOC-Session in Athens the 1st session took place (22nd June – 30th June).
- 1961: HOC passed the statutes of the Academy (2nd October) and elected an Ephoria (executive body of the IOA) in January 1962.
- 1962: 13th December Diem died.
- 1964: in memory of Carl Diem a great German delegation took part at the IOA.
- 1965: Ketseas died.
- 1966: Prince Georg Wilhelm of Hanover was elected President of the IOA.

Introduction

The IOA nowadays is an undisputed institution within the Olympic Community and far beyond these limits. As is true for most beginnings the process of founda-

tion of the IOA was not an easy one and for a long time was about to fail. We owe the existence of the IOA in its present form to the infinite engagement and the untiring effort of will of only a few people. On the occasion of this year's topic "IOA: 50 Years of Olympic Education – future perspectives" this paper is intended to have a look at the spiritual fathers, the basic ideas, the pioneers and their educational intentions. Besides I want to show the significance of the engagement of Germans for the process from the idea to its realization.

Spiritual fathers, history of the IOA and the German influences

According to Müller (1998) one of the spiritual fathers of the academy was Pierre de Coubertin. He is the creator of the new era of the Olympic Movement. Without him the Olympic Games would not have been reborn. Inspired by the ancient Games and the philhellenic movement during the 19th century and the archaeological discoveries at Olympia it was his aim to realize a physical and moral renewal to reach perfection for mankind on the basis of a sports education which he named "the Olympic idea" and "Olympism". Therefore he planned to put Olympism on a scholarly basis. His aim to perfect character morally by means of a sports education covering likewise body and soul of the human beings remained unaccomplished during his lifetime. Therefore, after having given up the presidency of the IOC in 1925, he founded the "Educational World Union" and the "International Office for Sports Education".

But his longing for the foundation of a Centre of Olympic Studies by creating an Olympic institution at which questions related to Olympic matters could be addressed after many difficulties and set-backs finally fulfilled.

Pappas (1979) mentioned that in 1927, during a visit to Olympia, Coubertin discussed his ideas and concerns regarding the future of the Olympic Games with John Chryssafis (chief executive for physical education in Greece) and his assistant John Ketseas. Coubertin was invited by the Greek government to attend the unveiling of a commemorative stele, which was created to honor Coubertin's merits to revive the Olympic Games.

Since the preparations for the Berlin Games Coubertin was in permanent contact with Carl Diem who was a fervent disciple and adopted his ideas. From now on he strongly engaged in their realization.

Both were united by their educational disposition, the enthusiasm for arts as well as their concept of a modern humanism. For Diem the aim and object of the academy lay as well in the resumption of the antiquity, an “Elis” of modern age, as in the realization of Coubertin’s idea to establish a scientific basis for the Olympism (cf. Diem, 1967).

Before the Berlin Olympic Games, as Secretary General, Diem organised a “congress for physical education” and a “sport student camp”. Especially this event provided a comparable model for the future academy.

In the year 1937 Diem in his function as head of the newly founded International Olympic Institute (IOI), developed Coubertin’s thoughts and ideas further. This institution was founded with the task to document Coubertin’s papers as well as the history of the Olympic Games. Coubertin himself had the idea for this institute and begged the German Government for help half a year after the Berlin Games.

In the year of his death he wrote in a letter to the German Government:

“I have not been able to carry out to the end what I wanted to perfect. I believe that a Centre of Olympic Studies would aid the preservation and progress of my work more than anything else, and would keep it from the false paths which I fear”.

This wish was granted by the German Government and the institute was seated in the “Haus des deutschen Sports” in Berlin. For Diem the scientific historical work was just one aspect to bring alive the ideas for the educational work. For him the fulfillment of this task meant to create an institute in Olympia.

On the 2nd September 1937 Coubertin died. In March 1938 Coubertin’s heart was transferred to Olympia. According to Lennartz (1997) Diem needed the support of Greece to achieve his plan of an Olympic Academy and at this occasion Diem told his personal friend Ketseas about his idea of the foundation

of an Olympic Academy in Olympia which would be a permanent institution and would bring the Olympic ideals closer to the youth of the world.

Both knew each other since the torch relay of the Berlin Games and as mentioned above, Coubertin and Ketseas, during Coubertin's last visit to Olympia in 1927, had already discussed the construction of a centre for Olympic studies. Soon both got together and worked on the realization of the Olympic Academy.

To keep Coubertin's ideas alive, they started a thirty-four year lasting effort to establish the International Olympic Academy during which they defended the project with enthusiasm.

Soon after their professional cooperation Diem and Ketseas designed an abstract for a three month course in 1939. They took their idea to the Hellenic Olympic Committee (HOC) who approved it and included the creation of an academy in their programme. The IOC appreciated it also. In October 1939 the HOC was officially in charge of the establishment and running of an IOA. So he and his Greek friend Ketseas already planned the formation of an IOA before World War II. But it did not happen. During the years the proposed plans like the suggested sites or the time periods for the Academy changed. Their cooperation resulted in the presentation of a plan for the foundation.

Diem wrote:

"They will live together in tents like sportsmen of old, and enjoy the simple communal fare of Sparta... They will gain living experience of harmony resulting from lofty physical mental and artistic discipline, which will be of value later in their social tasks. This annual course will bring together sports teachers, artists and young scientists, who will train together in the ancient stadium".

To provide the conditions for an institute in Olympia, Lennartz (1997) says, that right from the beginning for Diem the resumption of the excavations of the Olympic Stadium in Olympia was directly linked to the foundation of the academy. Already during the 19th Century there were several German archaeological campaigns in Olympia which ended in the last decade of the century. With the Berlin Games the interest in the resumption of the excavation of the site of

ancient Olympia aroused again. Due to Diem's efforts and the German Government the excavations could start again.

Shortly after the Olympic Games in Berlin he visited Greece to study the ancient monuments but mainly to plan the excavation of Olympia and most important of the stadium. The German government provided the necessary money. Diem wrote:

“On the 15th of October 1936, the pickaxes and spades began their work again in the sacred grove of Olympia and from then on the work has continued under the supervision of German experts. The work was entrusted to the German Archaeological School in Athens...”.

But the breakout of World War II shattered the plans for the foundation of the IOA as well as the continuation of the excavations which were stopped in 1942.

The war was barely over when the conceptual work was continued. In 1946 Ketseas was elected member of the IOC. This was a further step forward towards the foundation of an academy. A Memorandum was made and submitted to the 43rd IOC Session in Rome. It was unanimously assented by the IOC.

“An Olympic Academy is to be founded by the Hellenic Olympic Games Committee, if the IOC agrees to take it under its high protection. The purpose of the projected Olympic Academy is to spread the education and training of young men to become worthy heralds of the Olympic ideals. To achieve this purpose, the Olympic Academy would invite yearly to Greece, chief officials of the Olympic institutions, experts and young students from all over the world, for a two months special institution, to take place during the vacations of high schools and Universities...”.

Furthermore Carl Diem resumed his plans for the foundation of an academy and the excavations in Olympia immediately after the end of the war, but financing it was a problem. The excavations were recommenced in 1952 but with excavating only the temples. The provided means were not sufficient for the

excavation of the stadium. Therefore the German Olympic Association brought into being the “Carl Diem Foundation” which collected money and made the continuation of the excavation of the stadium in 1957 possible. On the occasion of the completion of the excavation of the ancient stadium by German archaeologists in 1961, Diem and Ketseas used the IOC session in Athens to arrange a test-course.

Carl Diem wrote:

“I look upon this course as an experiment in another respect, too, and I appeal to your youthful strength. We want you to consider the Spartan way of life to which we have «sentenced» you as a romantic charm. We don’t want you to find it an inconvenience to sleep in tents, wash in fountains and eat in the open air. Sportsmen may accept the amenities of our age as agreeable, but should be noble-minded enough –the Greeks call this virtue *Megalopsychia*– to renounce them when the word “Olympia” rings out. Otherwise the victors of those days – Koroibos, Pantakles, Chionis, Arrhachion, Milon, Theagenes, Ladas, Leonidas, Melankomas, Varazdates, and whatever other names they bore would laugh at us from the grave. For we have found everything in our excavation at Olympia, warm and cold baths, a house for the Hellanodics and priests, a hotel for guests of honour, but none for the competitors. They lived in tents and ate from the roasting spit”.

The first session was led by Dr. Kleanthis Palaeologos (GRE) and professor Franz Lotz (GER). Though the number of the participants was comparatively small, this test was a great success. People from 24 different countries took part. They all lived together in tents, trained together in the old stadium, had discussions about problems of antique and modern sport issues and visited the classical monuments in Peloponnese, Attica and Athens (cf. Müller).

Shortly after the first session, at 2nd October 1961, the HOC decided to continue the work of the IOA at yearly sessions and ratified a first, provisional set of statutes. One year afterwards the Greek Dr Otto Szymiczek became Dean of the

Academy, John Ketseas became the first President. To organise the academy and plan the programmes of the sessions, a seven-man council (Ephoria) was founded; its members were elected by the HOC for a period of four years.

Barker (1996) wrote that Diem did the main work for the organisation of the 1st session and on its Contents. He died in December 1962. Shortly before his death, in July 1962, he attended the 2nd Session. Here he was honored by Ketseas with a medal for his merits for the support of sports and above all for the promotion of the Olympic idea. At this session Diem gave a lecture, consisting of three speeches about the Olympic idea (cf. OAR 1962).

According to Müller (1998) after a period of stagnation in the number of participants the 4th session, whose official opening ceremony was held on the Pnyx in Athens for the first time, brought a significant increase in the number of participants. This session was dedicated to the memory of Carl Diem which was underlined by the presence of the German NOC president Willi Daume and Diem's wife Liselott Diem. Willi Daume held a speech in remembrance of Carl Diem.

The 5th session was dedicated to John Ketseas who died in April 1965. At this time the IOA was no longer a provisional institution, though the participants still lived in tents. Permanent buildings were being planned as Ketseas had wished. Also the concept work was improved by conducting the seminar work in discussion groups for the first time. This leads to a great increase of the output from the study sessions. In the first decades the largest groups of participants came from Austria and Germany.

The influence and meaning of the Germans are also shown in the election of HRH Georg Wilhelm von Hanover as leader of Ephoria in 1966. He was an expert in education and pedagogy and a former elite sportsman. To support the work of the IOA, the IOC founded a permanent commission in 1967, the "IOC Commission of the IOA" which exists till today.

Thereto the HOC President Papathanassiadis said:

"As soon as the International Olympic Academy was formed, we asked for moral support of the International Olympic Committee,

which took the International Olympic Academy under its wing and formed the International Sub-Committee for the I.O.A. This undertook the task of giving the I.O.A. moral support and of strongly recommending all National Olympic Committees throughout the world as well as institutes of higher education to send students so that all countries in the world should be represented at the Sessions of the Academy...”.

The main task of this commission is: to follow up the activities of the IOA, to contribute to their success, to receive the periodical reports of the sessions and to keep the IOC informed of the results obtained. Prince Georg of Hannover said:

“The International Olympic Academy has the responsibility to join in the efforts of the IOC to solve the many problems. This includes the study of the history and development of the Movement, of the ideals of the various periods and the attempt to find an interpretation for our times. The young generation must know of the complexity of the various questions the IOC has to solve, and the IOC is interested in hearing the opinions of the young. The Academy provides the possibility for all concerned to exchange their views in an atmosphere of mutual respect and tolerance, which is the main condition for all academic work”.

G.W. von Hannover saw his task in his four year term as IOA president in the concentration on the educational aspects of Olympism. He also initiated the work in seminar groups as well as the creation of an annual topic for every Session. So from 1967 on each IOA session has had a central topic. The first one was Olympism and track and field coaching. Furthermore he used the example set by great Olympic champions to influence IOA participants. Therefore he invited Olympic champions each year. In 1966 he started with Emil Zapotek.

Although the first buildings were finished in 1967, the lectures still took place in the open air. They now were simultaneously translated into the Academy languages Greek, French and English.

In memory of the founders Carl Diem and John Ketseas a memorial stone was unveiled at the beginning of the 7th session. The inauguration of the 2nd building phase was a further step to the completion of the Academy.

In the following years Coubertin's intention to enlighten the deeper meaning of the Olympic idea and its possibilities for the education of young people could be fulfilled at least partially by the consolidation of the NOAs and the IOA. Over the years it has become an Olympic studies centre which is open to all with interest in the Olympic ideal.

Since 1970 the centre has staged programmes for journalists, educationalists, coaches, sports medical officers and NOC officials. From its formal inauguration in 1961 on, the IOA, by organising regular sessions for students, administrators and scholars from all over the world provided an institution for the Olympic education and the promotion of Olympic ideals. Today it is regarded an indispensable centre for discussions about major issues in relation to Olympism, the Olympic Movement and international sport in general. Besides it provides a possibility to exchange and develop ideas concerning these topics.

Especially during the early years the German and Greek involvement was dominant.

The success story of the IOA is also due to the efforts of some further Germans like Liselott Diem, Hans Lenk, Werner Körbs and more.

German Consultants at the IOA

Besides lectures by Carl Diem in the years 1961 & 1962, there are other German consultants who enriched the early IOA sessions till 1969.

Franz Lotz, Director of the Institute for Physical Education of the University of Würzburg was one of the two directors of study groups during the 1st session and he summarized the first course in his report "looking back and looking forward" (cf. OAR 1961).

Emil Kunze, head of the excavations, gave a lecture about the excavation of the ancient Olympic sites (cf. OAR 1961).

Werner Körbs, Principle of the Cologne Sporthochschule had attended the 1st Session 1961. In 1963 he came back as a lecturer. By his speech "Information regarding the Gymnasium – Gathered from Hellenistic Papyri of the early Ptolemaic period" he discussed his remarkable investigations of papyrus rolls from the third century and the first half of the second period. His investigation threw a new light on the role of sport education in ancient Greece. In the year 1964 he brought a new subject into the discussion and spoke about "Physiognomy and Coaching". The subject of his lecture in 1966 "Ancient Olympia and the modern conception of Amateurism" led to heated debates. Especially concerning the question of compensations for lost educational opportunities, the views of the German, English and French students differed enormously (cf. OAR 1961, 1963, 1964 & 1966).

In his speech "Values, Aims and Reality of the modern Olympic Games" Hans Lenk, Assistant Prof. of Philosophy at the Technical University of Berlin and first Olympic Gold Medallist who held a speech at the IOA in 1964, referred about the problems and the future of the Olympic Games (cf. OAR 1964).

Right from the beginning of the IOA, Carl Diem's wife, *Liselott Diem*, was an active participant of the IOA and took part in the whole development. In 1964, being a Professor of the Cologne Sporthochschule, she was one of the first female lecturers. She gave a lecture about the female role in Olympic sports where she underlined the continuous improvement of the performance of women in the Olympics (Olympic Sports for Women – Evaluation of declarations) and the history of the modern Olympic Games. In this lecture she compared different quotations from Carl Diem and Coubertin (Ceremonies – a contribution to the history of the modern Games).

In 1965 she held a speech about the subject "The optimum Age for learning techniques in Sport". In addition she distributed three characteristic texts of Pierre de Coubertin in French, English and German to the different languages' groups.

In 1966 she described the beginnings of the new Olympic Games and Coubertin's problems with their realization. Later she described the great involvement of Willibald Gebhardt, who promoted the German participation (seventy years of Olympic Games – In memoriam of Willibald Gebhardt). In the observed

period her last speeches in 1968 and 1969 bore the titles “The educational value of law and rule in children’s play and in the Olympic Games” and “The ideas and ideology of Pierre de Coubertin” (cf. OAR 1961, 1964, 1965, 1966, 1968 & 1969).

Conclusion

As shown above, the first idea for the foundation of an institution which provided the spreading of the Olympic values was born by the founder of the New Olympic Games, Pierre Coubertin. He had a vision of a centre of Olympic studies that would contribute to the education of the young people all over the world by holding lectures and doing scientific work. While he was alive, he was able to find engaged followers of his ideas and ideals. Because of this fact, although he didn’t live to see his dream come true, it didn’t die with him.

Besides others, first to mention is Carl Diem, who spent endless efforts to fill Coubertin’s ideas with life and make them come true. His example and engagement caused other Germans to continue his work for the welfare of the IOA, so that we, nowadays, can say that the existence and development of this institution was also thanks to Germans. By their engagement they had a great influence on the intellectual development as well as on the physical existence of the IOA.

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PERSPECTIVES FOR THE ORGANISATION OF OLYMPIC GAMES BY LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES

Jorge Mario MARROQUIN MENENDEZ (GUA)

At present day, twenty nine editions of the summer Olympic Games have been held; from these twenty nine editions just five have been organised at the American continent; four of them by north American countries (United States and Canada at the games of Saint Louis in 1904, Los Angeles in 1932 and 1984 and Montreal in 1976) and just one by a Latin American country: México in 1968.

Hosting the Olympic Games provides a city, or country, with the chance to highlight itself on the world stage but not just in a sporting sense. Organisers of this important event create a legacy in infrastructure, vital to develop sports but besides that create a legacy in the minds of the spectators and television viewers around the world.

Another important aspect to be considered is the growth of tourism and the creation of employment opportunities for lots of people.

As a great notice a second Latin American country located in South America has been successful at the bidding process to organise the 31st edition of the Olympic Games in the year 2016: Brazil. Rio de Janeiro has the huge responsibility to demonstrate worldwide that it is capable to organise an event with high quality standards and through that to open the doors to some Latin American cities with emerging markets like Sao Paulo, Santiago or Buenos Aires that has presented its candidature to organise this important event four times previously. It is important

to note that emerging markets are nations with social or business activity in the process of rapid growth and industrialization.

Facts

It is widely known that host cities have to spend millions of dollars at the bidding process for Olympic Games with no guarantee of being awarded the prize; in fact this process has evolved into a substantial business involving considerable financial commitments. Every city that is bidding for the Olympic Games has to spend considerable time, energy and resources assessing the financial, economic and social viability of the event. Amazingly, it has been published that bid costs range between thirty and forty nine millions dollars, huge amounts that not every country can afford. Due to the fact that the host city is elected seven years before the beginning of the games some cities initiate the process as long as fifteen years in advance. It demands extensive planning and the support of central governments. More important... The organisation costs are quite higher.

On the other hand, the International Olympic Committee as the rights owner of the Olympic Games is looking always to find cities and countries capable to host an event successfully and by this, to enhance the image of the event and sports in general. The word “success” in this case has to be related to economic, technologic and safety issues. Services needed to operate such a big event include transportation, seating, catering, freight, lightning and media services. A big task to be accomplished...

Considerations

At first instance China, India and Russia had been considered as the three more important emerging markets; nevertheless it is important to note that México and Brazil are ranked as the fourth and fifth place respectively. In addition sixteen Latin American cities are located among the sixty five more important cities according to the analysis made by MasterCard executives.

According to this analysis Santiago de Chile is ranked in the fifth place at this modernity and global influence indicator mostly by its strong income due to ex-

portation of copper, quality wines, wood, fish, shellfish, minerals and agriculture products.

Among the best positioned cities in the financial, economic and commercial aspects are Mexico City (7), Sao Paulo (12), Buenos Aires (13), Rio de Janeiro (36), Brasilia (42), Recife (47) and Curitiba (49). Other important cities with a rapid growth are Monterrey, Santo Domingo, Bogota and Medellin.

These facts show that Latin American cities could be very competitive at world stage in a few years and for that reason could become strong bidders for big sport events such as the Olympic Games.

It is important to mention that some countries have been organisers of more than one edition of this important event: United States (four editions) and countries like Greece, France, Germany, Australia and England (two editions). In addition, besides Australia, every edition of the Olympic Games has been held in the Northern Hemisphere.

One of the main interests of the International Olympic Committee should be the organisation of the games worldwide. Under these circumstances, Latin American Countries and mostly those located at the south hemisphere have a great chance to become organisers.

Rio de Janeiro is already at the world stage; will this feat be repeated...

Bidding for the Olympic Games

The bidding process for sporting events and particularly Olympic Games involves the need to understand what is involved in the process of putting a coherent bid together and how to deliver an event successfully.

It is widely known that cities such as London and Rio de Janeiro have spent millions of dollars on the bidding process for the 2012 and 2016 Olympic Games but now after being selected by the International Olympic Committee as host cities, both will have earnings much higher than those of every organising committee of any of the previous Olympic Games held before.

Latin American countries must understand that bidding to host the Olympic Games is a reciprocal process undertaken on one side by right owners (IOC)

seeking cities or countries wishing to organise the best games ever done, and on the other side by cities with the commitment and ambition not only to fulfill all the requirements but besides that, to improve products, services and safety standards for athletes, media and spectators worldwide. Revenue generation through tourism and the creation of employment opportunities before, during and mostly after the event must be major factors in the decision to host.

Local authorities wishing to bid should follow three important stages:

Firstly gaining the city council's approval, secondly get the total support of the central government and then thirdly making a competitive and convincing bid to the International Olympic Committee in the hope of gaining acceptance as the winning bid to officially host this important event.

Budgetary issues

It is important to note that there are two major financial issues to be considered: The cost of the bidding campaign itself and the cost of staging the event.

Bid costs range between twenty eight (28) and forty nine (49) million dollars for the Olympic Games. And there are also significant costs incurred at the pre-bidding stage.

Cities hoping to stage the 2010 and 2012 Olympics had to pay the IOC more than half a million dollars for the right to bid for the games. Coupled with new restrictions on promotional advertising by candidate cities, the move could discourage no-hope bids from cities only interested in getting international publicity.

For the 2010 Olympics, each candidate had to pay \$100,000 to enter the first phase. The cities that made the final cut had to pay an additional \$500,000 to stay in the race. And these are costs that have to be covered before the event is even staged.

Independent sport management consultant Jon Wigley has firm views on what should be in a bidding document: "The candidate city must give the greatest attention to the preparation of a very detailed budget, which no doubt the rights owner will wish to have presented to them. Beyond the obvious costs and revenues, it is also advisable to have economic impact studies prepared".

According to UK Sport's Director of international relations and mayor events John Scott, the cost of an event such as the Olympic Games rarely is estimated at bid stage. "This is especially true in multi-sport events, and is a reflection of the nature of this business. It is also a reflection of the rising standards that are required by sport for the staging of this global event", he explains.

Concerning the cost of staging the event it is enough to say that the Olympic Games of Beijing, China in 2008 had a cost of more than 41,000 million dollars; almost three times more than the final budget of Athens 2004.

Delivering a successful event

The smooth operation of the Olympic Games requires careful preparation, professional conduct by the event management staff and officials as well as robust financial planning.

Latin American Countries must understand that the prestige of an event requires that it should be conducted so that the public, both at the event and watching on television, can appreciate the significance of all that is happening at any one time.

The procedures should be seamless and the timing maintained to perfection. The event organiser's responsibilities include:

- Providing world-class competition venues with outstanding media facilities. General details about proposed sport venues must be provided by candidate parties with proper anticipation.
- Providing first class hospitality facilities for the event in which the commercial affiliates and VIP guests can be entertained to the highest level.
- Providing first class facilities for the athletes.
- Ensuring the technical integrity of the event.
- Providing appropriate telecoms and broadcasting infrastructure.
- Staging an event that will bring prestige and credit to the host city and the country in which the event is staged.
- Promoting the event to the widest possible audience and taking every step to fill the competition venue with spectators for every session.

- Providing a sponsorship/licensing vehicle which maximizes the investment of the commercial partners.

Planning and attention to detail are key to running an event smoothly and successfully. An important consideration is that Latin American countries can learn from the experiences of previous organisers from North America, Asia and Europe.

Facilities and services

The larger that Olympic Games become in size, the bigger is the demand for the services needed to operate them including transportation, seating, catering, freight, lighting, media services and technology.

The number of meals served each day in the Olympic Village grew from 35,000 in Barcelona in 1992 to almost 50,000 in Sidney. There were 2,100 official cars on hand in Barcelona, compared with 4,700 in Sydney, an increase of 124%.

Technology budgets in Sidney totaled \$770 million and law enforcement officials in Australia performed 250,000 games-related vehicle searches and oversaw 8.5 million trips through airport-style metal detectors – and that was prior to the September 11 terrorist attacks of 2001.

The stage management of a major sports event like the Olympic Games requires careful planning and adherence to a detailed script.

The technology needs of this event are wide and varied and involve detailed coordination between a number of parties.

For the Olympic Games there are generally two responsible parties for the provision of technology: the organising committee and the host broadcaster.

Challenges involved in servicing the Olympic Games include moving sports equipment and infrastructure as well as the movement of the people attending the event in whichever capacity, be it athletes, the media, spectators or corporate affiliates and their guests.

The seating capacity of a sports venue must be sufficient to not only hold a large number of spectators, but also a number of accredited athletes and officials and other persons accredited for the organising committee.

Sponsorship

Sponsorship in the Olympic Games is an effective way for advertisers to associate their brands or identities with the values represented by sports. In turn sponsors can provide the cash necessary to keep the event running to the standards that television viewers demand.

It has been demonstrated that around 70% of sponsorship money flows to sport and within that, 80% of sports sponsorship is estimated to be spent on the top sports events, among them, the Olympic Games.

Organising committees must work hard in order to guarantee the benefits that sponsors expect: Increased product awareness, improved corporate image, product positioning, enhancing and advertising campaign, client entertainment, tax benefits, employee motivation.

It is very interesting to know that Olympic Games increased its sponsorship revenues by almost 600% from a 1988 rights accumulation figure of \$95 million to the 2000 Sidney Olympics \$550 million.

Currently, the worldwide average cost to acquire official rights to the Olympic Games is \$55 million per official partner and sponsorship contributes more than 40% of Olympic marketing revenue.

Public relations

The International Olympic Committee will want to see that the organising city has public support. Similarly it is important that the event receives the maximum publicity available to both promote the sports and the commercial affiliates that partly fund it.

Latin American countries could employ the services of specialist Public relations companies with previous experience in Olympic Games.

There are some reasons why organising committees use external Public Relations companies. Firstly for objectivity; people who have invested a lot of time within the Olympic Games have completely different perspectives to someone who has not been involved but have lots of ideas; that means a more realistic view can be taken and a broader picture seen.

Secondly, if the PR Company has been involved at previous games, then it is a proven case of being able to deliver results and as a consequence, a successful event.

Broadcasting

Organising committees must be aware that the Olympic Games are increasingly presented with new opportunities to license their rights across a wide range of platforms. These include: Analogue television, digital television, analogue fixed media such as video-tapes, digital fixed media such as CD-ROM and DVD, on-line digital media including the broadband and wireless internet.

Ticketing

Ticketing is an important revenue stream for sports venues and one that is estimated by industry sources to be worth more than broadcasting rights revenues by several billion dollars worldwide, and worth 45% of aggregate rights income to the sports industry.

A hierarchy of ticketing prices can provide a venue with increased revenues and profitability based on selling seating and boxes, depending on the spectator's view and access to facilities.

Organising committees that struggle to fill venues may also consider giving away free tickets to some social groups to boost attendance and add to the atmosphere of an event, particularly when it is being televised.

Corporate hospitality

Corporate hospitality at the Olympic Games can provide companies and sponsors with the opportunity to entertain current and potential clients and customers and to build relationships at what can be prestigious, powerful and exciting occasions.

Hospitality provides sponsors in particular with the opportunity to showcase their contributions to the staging of events, thus enhancing their image by com-

municating to customers and potential customers the quality of their products and services.

Corporate hospitality can be a legitimate and successful business tool when used appropriately by organising committees.

Managing legacy

Countries and cities have various reasons to organise a huge sports event such as the Olympic Games. These can range from improving the image of the city and putting it firmly on the sporting map in terms of attracting future events or creating a positive economic impact from increased tourism, to building venues and facilities that will ultimately enhance the health of a nation and lead to the development of new sporting stars.

Latin american economic growth

Doing business in Latin America has changed quite drastically in recent years. A few years ago military and nationalistic governments established high customs barriers in order to protect national industry and attempt to create a strong industrial infrastructure.

In some areas this method helped, but in others it had the opposite effect: Rather than helping industry improve through new technologies and by emulating the progress seen in highly developed countries, it proved to be a way to avoid competition and keep alive unproductive industries.

In recent times, Latin America has experienced a wave of democratization and open-mindedness in government, and many countries have started to see the world in a new way. Today, the direction of these governments is toward a free market, modernization, globalization, monetary stability, etc. Moreover, the establishment of common market areas such as North American Free Trade Agreement (US, Canada, Mexico) and Mercosur (a similar agreement among Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, Venezuela and Paraguay) are greatly affecting business activities in Americas.

The opening of the markets in Latin America has produced good consequenc-

es. The best organised companies, ranging from very small to very large, began to modernize a few years ago in preparation for foreign competition. Those companies are now able to face today's situation and to compete as equals.

What is happening now is a quick transformation of the business community in terms of foreign trade. Industries that until a few months ago were only producing and selling their own products are growing with the commercialization of imported products, in most cases in joint ventures with the exporter. The products are in the same line but are of a higher quality and are produced with more speed and versatility.

The openings of the markets in Latin America are irreversible. These are exciting and challenging times. For the American businessman, things look promising, because he already understands the meaning of free trade, competition, a stable economy, and, of course, hard work.

Emerging market economies in Latin America are expected to grow 6% annually during the 2010-2011 period having a growth higher than Asian countries.

Sports industry has big opportunities under these conditions. Organisation of big events can be possible and support of central governments is not difficult to find.

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OLYMPIC VALUES, DANCE, CULTURE. THE EXAMPLE OF FLAMENCO

Tereza VRBOVÁ (CZE)

Background

I come from the Czech Republic, a central-European country. I highly value and am very fond of Czech culture, cultural heritage, traditions, customs, language, traditional music and dance. I was a member of several folk dance groups in different localities; I have been involved in several folk bands. However, or maybe just because of this, I have always liked travelling and getting to know different countries and their culture; I have always been interested in the local music and dances and enjoyed the “internal stories behind” the formation and origins of the dances. About eight years ago, a friend of mine, who studied Spanish philology, brought me to a class of flamenco led by a Spanish dancer (an Erasmus student in our faculty at that time). Flamenco captured me. At first, I was probably fascinated by its exotic aspect, but the more I got to know it, the more I was eager to be able to dance and understand it. Flamenco eventually showed me the way into the Spanish culture, language, and people.

When I was about to finish my Master’s degree and thought about my Ph.D. topic, I was having a meeting with my prospective supervisor and we talked about a vast theme of interculturalism and globalization. I realized that dance can be a very good example of intercultural spreading and fusions, especially dances with cultural backgrounds. It is not only the dance that can travel, enrich and

develop around the world, but also can the dancers, spectators and other people involved. I have concluded, by watching my dance colleagues and friends, as well as from my own experience that dance can make a person be interested in a wider background (as culture or history) of the dance. I do believe that dancing (dances of different nations) can lead to better understanding of different cultures and societies, decrease xenophobia, and widen people's horizons. Dancing thus does not only enable one to profit from doing a physical activity, but also brings these social, cultural and ethical benefits to the people.

In compliance with the Commission for Culture and Olympic Education of the International Olympic Committee, I strongly agree with the idea of regarding culture as one of the pillars-dimensions of Olympism. I also believe that dance, as one of the cultural elements, can help the (not only Olympic) ideas of mutual respect, appreciation, understanding, tolerance and friendship come into existence.

In my presentation I would like to focus on flamenco, an Andalusian traditional dance – one of the cultural phenomena which can make people educate themselves. It seems to me that just the fact that I (not being a Spaniard) am presenting this demonstrates how culture, physical activity and education can work well together.

Flamenco

First, I would like to anticipate that I am using the term “Gypsy/Gypsies” when describing the history and origins of flamenco. Someone might suggest that it would sound more politically correct to use the term “Romani people” or similar, however, I will keep (without any kind of connotation) the first stated term for one reason – the Spanish language, which is a key one as far as the subject of flamenco goes, uses the term “*gitanos*”.

Understanding, perceiving and (dis)like of flamenco does not depend much on one's musical or dance knowledge, but on each person's sensibility; because flamenco is a musical-dance form where emotions play greater role than some

aesthetic criteria or dance technique. So great flamenco artists need to be able to reach and touch the feelings and emotions of the spectators.

Flamenco songs (or at least most of them) do not have the structure that most of us are used to listening to (verses, refrain etc.). They can be labeled as tunes, usually of several parts (verses) which do not necessarily have to be interrelated, accompanied by a guitar and eventually by dance, which is to emphasize the feelings (sadness, pain, or joy) being expressed by the singing.

The singing is the very core of flamenco. The singers usually begin (joyful songs and dances form only a minor part of flamenco) with some painful cry (lament), which reflects their ancestors' pains, hard lives, and great existential difficulties. It is like crying towards a vast, overwhelming eternity for the very first time. Singers use this initiative cry (*quejío*) as a voice preparation, as well as "tuning" the audience into the story of the song.

Even the slow and sad songs often finish in a faster pace, singers often rising from their chairs as if they were in a trance. Nowadays the guitar is an inevitable part of flamenco; it is the one indicating the rhythm, being followed by singers and dancers eventually. There can be more instruments involved, such as percussions, flute or string instruments, but the guitar cannot be missing. The songs themselves feature the very essential themes: life, death, poverty, love, their joys and sorrows. Their form is closer to folk interpretation than to poetry of well-educated class. Flamenco is a result of a mixture of different music cultures, which appeared in Andalusia and were usually transmitted by oral way only.

History of flamenco

Flamenco history only dates from about two hundred years ago; within last 50 years this worldly valued phenomenon has been studied and looked after more consciously.

The art of flamenco is being labeled as a Gypsy (*gitanos*) art. The Gypsies did have a strong influence on what flamenco looked like. However, if they were the

only creators, how would it be possible that there is no flamenco home elsewhere but in Spain, Andalusia?

Flamenco's origins and exact time of creation has not been (and probably will never be) designated. Different authors (for example Alvarez, Arbelos, Grande, Manzanares) essentially agree that Gypsies did not invent flamenco (they were not the only creators of it), but their arrival in the Iberian Peninsula had some great impact on flamenco birth and development.

In flamenco music, entering the world in 18th century, not only marks of Gypsy music, but also of Jewish, Arabic, Spanish and Old-Andalusian music can be detected. Nowadays it is sometimes characterized as "world music" and there have been serious attempts to get the flamenco recognized by the UNESCO as World Cultural Heritage.

Gypsies' arrival to Spain dates back to the middle of 15th century. King of Aragón Alfonso V. granted them entering his lands in a document from that period. The new inhabitants of Spain have come from Indian Punjab, which they were leaving between 8th and 9th century, and during their journey they passed through Persia, Middle East, Egypt, Greece, Hungary and France, from where some of them led to Spain. Some of their typical cultural features were colorful clothing, dance and music abilities, unknown language they used and a fact that no written history of the people had existed.

When the Gypsies came to Spain, they did not have any own particular music heritage, but what they did have was an unusual ability of interpretation. Thus they gradually adopted and transformed melodies and songs of the people they shared their living areas with. This new music might also have mixed with Arabic and Jewish rhythms and melodies. So the Gypsies have created a new art, based on Andalusian folklore, which eventually ceased to be folklore and became flamenco.

In 1492, when Granada (as the last area in Spain) was conquered by the Catholic Kings Ferdinand and Isabel (*Los Reyes Católicos*), all the people who were not Catholics and were not willing to convert had to leave the country. This was also applicable to the Jews. The Jewish influence in flamenco can be detected till these days; some tunes and melodies sung during Jewish *Yom Kippur* holiday sound much alike some tunes and cries of flamenco *siguiriyas* melodies.

Also the Arabic influence in flamenco can be detected – both in music and lyrics, referring to the period of Arabic hegemony in Andalusia (before 1492):

<i>A los moros que te vayas</i>	Go to the Moors
<i>a renegar de la fe.</i>	To give in the faith
<i>Tengo que marchar contigo</i>	I also have to go with you
<i>a renegar yo también.</i>	To reject it.

Muslims, Jews, and all other non-Catholics were not tolerated in Spain after 1492. Those who stayed were supposed to leave not only their religions, but also cultural habits and traditions. But no one can change or prohibit peoples' cultures by law. So it is very likely that the traditional (music) elements of different cultures survived in flamenco music despite the military/political defeat of the respective cultures.

The term flamenco

There are three mostly considered theories about the word “flamenco” and its meaning. The first one deduces it from an Arabic word *felahmengu*, which means “singing of a lonely peasant”.

The second theory, usually less supported, connects flamenco with a bird which, during its wedding dance, makes particular steps similar to the steps of an Andalusian Gypsy dance.

Finally, the third theory refers to original inhabitants of Flanders, well-known as very good singers at the Spanish Royal Court; that is why later on the Spaniards called a good singing: “flamenco”.

Flamenco in literature

The first references on flamenco in Spanish literature, although not named as such at those times, can be found in texts from 17th century, by authors Lope de

Vega (he mentions a particular dance style in Andalusian way) and Cervantes (he describes the Gypsy role in folk dancing).

Colonel José de Cadalso y Vázquez describes in his work Moroccan Letters (*Cartas marruecas*), written approximately in 1780, a gathering with music and dance near the city of Cádiz, which is very similar to what is today labeled as a flamenco party (*fiesta flamenca*).

The first occurrence of the word “flamenco” in its nowadays meaning is to be ascribed to George Borrow, who used it in his book *The Zincali - An account of the gypsies of Spain*, first published in London in 1841. He used the term for labeling the Gypsy people, not their music though. George Brown wrote other books on Gypsy topic later on, *Lavengro* (1851) and *The Romany Rye* (1857).

Serafín Estébanez Calderón, folklorist, writer and flamencologist, in his masterpiece from 1846 Andalusian scenes (*Escenas andaluzas*) ennobles habits and traditions of Andalusia and also describes events with flamenco elements. Calderón describes a fiesta in Triana, a gypsy neighborhood in Seville, including a detailed description of places, people he talked to, their clothing, songs they sang, dances and musical instruments.

Another outstanding literary person who was promoting flamenco, especially the primary singing (*cante jondo*), was a Spanish poet of the beginning of the 20th century Federico García Lorca, with cooperation of a composer Manuel de Falla.

Evolution of flamenco

Flamenco beginnings date from the mid-18th century until the mid-19th century. At that time Gypsy communities grew on the edges of Spanish cities in the south (Seville, Cádiz, and Jerez de la Frontera) where Gypsies gathered to sing and dance together at various celebrations and holidays. This first period is mostly characteristic by two main features: the creation (the first quite stable forms of flamenco musical forms were being created) and intimacy (at that time flamenco was a totally private matter, occurring at family parties or friends' gatherings). The singing was the first flamenco element; guitar was initially used only to in-

dicate the tune; later the guitar parts more elaborated and eventually dancers joined the singers and guitarists.

The curiosity and interest that were evoked by numerous parties and celebrations with till-then-unknown singing and dancing stimulated commercializing of flamenco. People wanted to watch flamenco and were willing to pay for it, if not allowed to participate in the private events. Thus the second evolutionary period of flamenco started; some bars and pubs became “singing cafés” (*cafés cantantes*).

In the mid-nineteenth century flamenco begins to professionalize. Silverio Franconetti, a flamenco singer, founded the first Café Cantante in Seville in 1842. In this “golden age”, flamenco, especially the dancing, becomes more and more popular among the people. The guitar establishes as the accompanying instrument. All artists were motivated to get better and better, invent new steps and improve their technical skills; the better they were, the more money they could earn. The public performances and competing among the artists improved flamenco generally. Flamenco is also achieving wider recognition beyond the borders of Spain. Flamenco developed from the very vocal form, through an accompanying guitar, to complicated musical and dance performances.

In the third evolution period, between 1920 and 1950, flamenco declined. The term “flamenco opera” (which had nothing to do with an opera, but the name was used because of tax purposes) is used to characterize the term of the greatest fall off the original, raw “gypsy singing” (*cante jondo*). Not the quality or purity of flamenco was the main goal to achieve, but the attractiveness and profit were the most important ones. Big companies were established to perform all over the country. Eventually, prominent flamenco artists, who, at least in the beginning of the era, could guarantee certain level of authenticity and quality of flamenco, were gradually leaving the companies because they did not like the way flamenco was presented. Flamenco (for efforts to achieve the greatest possible commercial success) was losing its artistic quality. Fans of the original (or pure) flamenco were therefore hiring artists for private performances when they wanted to enjoy the flamenco in the way it used to exist.

In the 1980's a new flamenco (*flamenco nuevo*) appears. The very nature

of flamenco, its diversity and multiplicity of cultures, from which it sprang up, has been facing a new challenge. Flamenco was destined to be open to new interpretations and directions – both musical and dance. Flamenco deals with a dilemma: how to retain its purity, and yet be able to enrich it with new elements of other styles.

Flamenco nowadays (and in the future)

What is also changing and evolving is not only flamenco itself, but the people who dance it – not only performers/artists (and it is applicable to singers, musicians and dancers), but also those who dance it for pleasure. There are many schools of flamenco (mostly of flamenco dance) in Andalusia and other Spanish cities (Madrid is one of the outstanding examples), designed not only for Spanish dancers, but also for foreigners. The schools offer other courses very often, usually language courses or history classes, so people coming from abroad can really learn about and live the Spanish culture, they nearly have no choice but wider their horizons of perceiving Spain and its elements.

Someone could say that all the fuss over flamenco has been nothing else but a good marketing move to bring more tourists to Spain. Well, maybe it is partially true. But even if it is the case, is there anything wrong about it? Flamenco is nothing artificial; it is an inherent and genuine part of the Spanish (Andalusian, in particular) culture. If there can be crowds of tourists eager to spot the Carnival in Rio de Janeiro in Brazil, experience the white nights in Norway or Sweden, meet Santa Claus in Finland or raft down the rivers in Slovenia, why could not they come to Spain because of their interest in flamenco?

Dancers from Japan, Australia, Germany and Sweden may meet together in one classroom. They dance together and of course then they talk to each other, they may even stay together while participating in the course. So people (out of Spain) involved in flamenco do not only share and exchange their cultures with the Spaniards, but also they interact with other foreigners, from different countries, who they share their enthusiasm for flamenco with.

It is also possible to attend courses of flamenco dance in foreign countries, for example in the Czech Republic, led both by local (Czech) dancers and Spanish teachers. Flamenco is very popular in Japan, Germany, France or Canada today. So one can stay in his own culture and learn a foreign dance.

I have interviewed quite a few flamenco dance students and teachers – both in Spain and in the Czech Republic, and talked to Spanish people about the fact that many foreigners learn and also perform flamenco nowadays. There are some Spaniards who do not believe that flamenco could be well done (or even performed!) by anyone from abroad; some of them even get somehow offended by the fact that foreigners try to intrude into something which is exclusively and obviously Spanish. But most Spaniards I talked to were very happy and proud of the fact that there is such a great interest in Spanish culture all over the world – thanks to flamenco.

Most of flamenco dancers appreciate the temperament, emotions and elegance of the dance movements. They often say that they had not found the suitable way of expressing themselves before, that they really enjoy the emotions going out freely (or at least the possibility, if not the requirement, to let them go out). On the other hand the dancers usually struggle with coordination of separate movements, because flamenco dance is quite demanding in these terms, they find it hard to acquire different rhythms (not the usual one-two or one-two-three-four ones) and a complex technique of the dance. They very often ask themselves “Why do we suffer? Why do we do all this?” but at the same time they are usually able to give answers: “Because it is rewarding. Because I love Spain and want to know it better. Because I have noticed I act differently in everyday situations, as it fills me with energy. I need an opportunity to get rid of the stress”.

To manage flamenco to a certain level might be very difficult for foreigners, because it IS a part of a specific (foreign) culture, not only a difficult technique, but once again – mastering flamenco usually is only one of the achievements the dancers want to enjoy. They might enjoy performing, they might enjoy dancing, and they might enjoy the costumes they perform in. Nonetheless, if they really want to be good at flamenco, they need to go to Spain. To watch flamenco, to

learn it, to practice it, to dance it, to experience it. To wander around, listen to people talking in Spanish, see the places songs sing about, getting to know the Spanish history, which is reflected in flamenco songs, participate in informal flamenco fiestas.

Flamenco teachers who teach flamenco as local dancers in particular countries have already showed their enthusiasm for Spain when they have been studying flamenco; they are happy to pass their experience on their students and encourage them to do the same as they did.

Spanish flamenco dance teachers who teach foreigners flamenco in Spain generally appreciate and value the courage and enthusiasm of “non-Spaniards” for flamenco. For some teachers, being involved in flamenco was designed from their early childhood; some others did not take part till their late teens; so they realize that doing or loving flamenco is not a question of age or number of years. Most of the flamenco teachers I talked to admitted that they could travel a lot and get to know different countries due to flamenco and that they were very happy and grateful for the fact. As they are getting in touch with different cultures or their representatives, they realize how many differences there are among them and how difficult it might be to behave appropriately at the beginning, but with enthusiastic and understanding people around (sharing similar ideas, open to new experiences, ready to meet challenges), it is always possible. Thus being in a strange culture with their own dance does not have to be an unpleasant experience.

What flamenco audiences can watch nowadays, are different fusions of flamenco and jazz, salsa, modern dance, tribal dances, world music... Nevertheless, the singer-guitarist-dancer trinity is also still out there (and hopefully always will be). But even when the musicians play saxophone, piano or flute, even when the dancers wear jeans or sportswear, one can immediately see and recognize that it is flamenco. So it really looks as if flamenco has found the way through the globalized world – how to spread, fit into different countries but not lose its characteristic and specific features. It is being loved both by traditional lovers of the phenomenon and by young audiences, both by Spaniards and foreigners. It brings people to Spain; it brings Spanish performers and teachers to foreign

countries. Thus it serves as the meeting point (or bridge) of many different cultures. That is nice, isn't it?

Flamenco can serve, in my opinion, as a very nice and suitable example of balancing body and mind, sharing cultures while keeping their specific features, mutual understanding and cooperation; just as the Olympic Charter mentions. It is a physical activity, but at the same time it has very strong cultural features.

Conclusion

As I said at the beginning, I like and appreciate Czech (especially Moravian) traditional dances and music very much. I wish I could talk about how Czech folklore is spreading all over the world and connecting people from different countries together. Well, it is, but definitely not as much and intensively as in the case of flamenco. But if flamenco has found the way, there might be a chance for cultural elements from different countries, too! So let's keep, care for, cherish and spread our dances, let them interact, let them bring people from different countries together! Let's dance!

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THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND THE ENVIRONMENT: KEY MILESTONES EN ROUTE TO LONDON 2012

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It has been asserted that since the Olympic Games' inception in Ancient Greece, the Games have been associated with the worshipping and protection of the environment (Balderstone, 2001). From this, a somewhat fractured relationship between sport and the environment seemed to have grown. This paper will explore how the association between the environment and the Olympic Games has grown within the context of the Summer Olympic Games over the past twenty years by utilising the examples of the Barcelona 1992, Sydney 2000, and London 2012 Games. It will attempt to build upon the work of Chappelet (2008) who investigated the environmental implications within the context of the Winter Olympic Games, and will provide a commentary up until London 2012.

Despite some earlier episodes of environmental consciousness within the context of hosting the Olympic Games during the 1960s and 1970s (London East Research Institute of the University of East London, 2007), not much attention was paid to the correlation between environmental concern and the Olympic Games. Moreover, these apparent environmental improvements did not occur within an Olympic vacuum. Arguably it was not until the re-birth of environmental issues in the 1970s and 1980s and the emergence of the concept of "sustainable development" that these issues were paid more attention. Therefore, it is necessary to provide an overview of the progressions made within both the

Olympic realm as well as society with respect to the environment more generally, in order to understand the Olympic Movement's stance on this area today.

The concept of "sustainability" and "sustainable development" first emerged with the publishing of *Our Common Future*, otherwise known as "The Brundtland Report" in 1987 by the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, 1987). This report stated that sustainable development was "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (UN-documents.net, 1987, p. 1). This document called for "a new era of economic growth – growth that is forceful and at the same time socially and environmentally sustainable" (WCED, 1987, p. xii). In 1992, Rio de Janeiro was host to the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, alternatively referred to as the "Earth Summit". This conference brought together delegates from most of the world's countries and pursued an agenda headlined by sustainable development. The adoption of Agenda 21 also occurred at the "Earth Summit" and provided a blueprint for national governments, and regional and local organisations on sustainable development (Lück, 2008). In 1999 following an invitation emerging from the conference to adopt their own Agenda 21, the IOC replied to this request and formally adopted its own Agenda 21. The IOC's implementation of Agenda 21 enabled the exhibition of the Olympic movement's alleged promise to ensure the protection of the environment, in addition to the pursuit of sustainable development (IOC, 2010).

For several years it has been argued by advocates that the hosting of the Olympic Games impacts hugely and contributes to a lasting legacy for host cities (Furrer, 2002). A key consideration during the bidding process to host the Olympic Games now, is how the Games hosts intend to leave behind a legacy. The IOC first registered the significance of legacy, environmental protection and sustainable development in 1994 at the Centennial Olympic Congress in Paris. These concerns were formally introduced into the Olympic Charter in 1996 (Olympic Review, 2005). The 13th aim of the IOC included in the Olympic Charter now reads, "to encourage and support a responsible concern for environmental issues, to promote sustainable development in sport and to require that the

Olympic Games are held accordingly” (IOC, 2007, p. 15). However, this has not always been the case and for many years the Olympic movement avoided mention of sustainability. Furrer (2002) contends that this may be because of the contradiction in terms between “sustainability” and “development” that an Olympic context presents. The Olympics in short consist of a two-week event gathering together thousands of athletes and spectators in a relatively small space, which costs billions of pounds to stage. This appears to contradict what sustainable development represents; a fairer and more equitable distribution of economic, social and environmental resources and benefits (Furrer, 2002). This raises the question as to whether the Olympics can ever be truly sustainable, and whether efforts to limit negative environmental outcomes of the Olympics are made in vain?

Now we can begin to see the environmental “thread” weaving throughout the IOC’s and the Olympic Movement’s history, it is important to demonstrate how these environmental strategies and agendas have played out in the actual hosting of the Games. Further, this may help one to comprehend the environmental position that the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games have arrived at. This paper will now briefly investigate the environmental promises, tangible realities and new developments that have occurred during the Barcelona 1992, Sydney 2000, and London 2012 Games.

Barcelona 1992 Summer Olympics: The Regeneration Games

Through past developmental failures (Montreal 1976 and Los Angeles 1984), Barcelona is believed to have re-instilled the desire to utilise the Summer Olympics as a means of urban regeneration and destination promotion (Gold and Gold, 2008). The rejuvenation that took place in Barcelona is often deemed as the “model” for effective Olympic-led regeneration. It is worth noting that the infrastructural improvements that took place were part of a city-wide strategy, which used the publicity and popularity of the Games to showcase these transformations (Oxford Brookes University, 2010). In terms of environmental

developments, the hosting of the Barcelona Games coincided with the “Earth Summit”, and as a result the IOC invited all National Olympic Committees and International Federations to sign the “Earth Pledge” which prescribed the Olympic Movement to “contribute, to the best of their ability, to making the Earth a safe and hospitable home for present and future generations” (IOC, 2005, p. 43). Despite the timely hosting of the Games with respect to environmental preservation, environmental protection did not feature as a key focus of their bid (London East Research Institute of the University of East London, 2007).

As a result of years of neglect under the Franco regime, Barcelona was a derelict industrial settlement full with dilapidated factories and warehouses (London East Research Institute of the University of East London). The primary objectives behind the organisation of the Games were to not only pursue the goal of sporting excellence, but to also initiate huge urban transformations in order enhance the magnetism and appeal of the city as a destination (Brunet, 2005). A total of fifteen new venues were constructed, with the main competition centre built around the pre-existing facilities of Montjuïc Park (London East Research Institute of the University of East London, 2007). In addition to Olympic-themed venues, the beaches were substantially extended and made accessible for public-use, the subway system was expanded, a ringway road system was constructed, and public spaces were created (Garcia-Ramon and Albet, 2000).

In terms of whether or not these venues are sustainable has had mixed success. Keeley (2006) explicates that whilst the Olympic sailing dock, Porto Olímpico, has perhaps stood the greatest test of time with the port now being home to a collective of yacht owners, and food and drink outlets. Other Olympic venues such as the Horta Velodrome, and the Olympic Stadium have not done so graciously with them being close to abandonment, and in £33 million debt respectively.

Whilst it is deviating from the aim of this article to discuss the environmental implications of the Winter Olympic Games, it is necessary to briefly discuss the developments emanating from the 1992 Albertville and 1994 Lillehammer Games. The first two Winter Olympic Games of the 1990s, signalled a change whereby the IOC and Olympic Organising Committee’s developed “an aware-

ness of the importance of environmental questions, and then to tackle the issue of sustainable development” (Chappelet, 2008, p. 1891).

The 1992 Games were unique in the sense that the venues were incredibly regionalised, taking place across 13 resorts and over an area measuring 1657 kilometres square in Albertville and the Savoie region of France (Cantelon and Letters, 2000). At a quick glance the Albertville Organising Committee could be seen to be making environmental progress with the relocation of the cross-country tracks on the Les Saisies site, as a consequence of the need to preserve turf-beds in higher-altitudes. Additionally, great care appeared to be taken when building the motorway between Chambéry and Albertville in order to shield the fragile and delicate surroundings (Chappelet, 2008). Despite this, Cantelon and Letters (2000, p. 300) contend that the Albertville Games “will go down in history as an environmental disaster”. Albertville’s environmental failures caused the IOC a great amount of embarrassment; environmental demonstrations during the opening ceremonies, and negative media coverage of the poor environmental record of the Games, led to the prioritisation of environmental sustainability in the eyes of the IOC (Weiler and Mohan, 2008).

In contrast, the 1994 Lillehammer Games is historically renowned as the first “green Games” or the “white-green Games” due to its promotion of sustainable practices and its environmentally-conscious approach (Olympic.org, 2010). The Lillehammer Games were instrumental and the first of its kind and led to the adoption of the environment as the third pillar of “Olympism” in 1994 (MacKenzie, 2006). As a result of public outcry with respect to environmental issues and the hosting of the Olympics, environmental principles were officially adopted (Holden, MacKenzie and VanWynsberghe, 2008). Fawcett (2010, p. 23) believed that arguably the most important contribution that the Lillehammer Games made was that it “opened the IOC’s eyes to the importance of green issues, and started the entire Olympic Movement down the path to sustainability”. Following on from this, an environmental theme became an official requirement for all bid documents in 1995, and the 2002 bid cities were the first to be officially evaluated according to this (Holden *et al*, 2008).

Sydney 2000 Summer Olympics: The “Green” Games

The Sydney 2000 Olympics are often charged with bringing the concept of sustainable sport to the forefront of public attention both in Australia and globally (Cashman, 2006). Similarly Smith and Westerbeek (2004) contend that the Sydney’s “Green Games” represented a shift in attitude towards the ways in which mega-sporting events are organised. The race to host the 2000 Summer Games took place in an optimal climate for bid cities to latch on to the idea of environmental protection. Sydney were awarded the 27th Olympiad on 24th September 1993, two years after the environment was included in the Olympic Charter and one year after the UN Conference on Environment and Development, collectively bringing together different industry sectors, governments and communities from around the world in the pursuit of advancing international environmental agendas. Moreover, it is important to note that the adoption of Agenda 21 took place one year prior to the hosting of the Sydney Games. This was an instrumental milestone with respect to the Olympic Movement’s shift towards environmental promotion, and according to the United Nations Environment Programme (2010) the “Green Games” of Sydney were one of the fruits stemming from this.

From the offset Sydney made grand environmental claims which was encapsulated concisely by Bruce Baird Minister of the Sydney Olympic Bid in 1993 when he claimed that “No other event at the beginning of the 21st century will have a greater impact on protecting the environment than the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney” (Cited in Lenskyj, 1998, p. 175). The Sydney Games were the first Olympics to officially incorporate the IOC’s environmental agenda (London East Research Institute of the University of East London, 2007).

The notion of Sydney as the “Green Games” developed from the design competition it held in 1992 for the Olympic Village which called an environmental design to be incorporated. Five winners surfaced which subsequently worked collectively on the actual Olympic Village, one of which was Greenpeace Australia. The Environment Committee was born out of this alliance which went on to create the Sydney Games’ Environmental Guidelines (Powerhouse Museum,

2003). Resulting from this eco-friendly bid was the Games becoming known as the “Green Games” which was then utilised as a promotional tool in the lead up to and for the duration of the Games (Powerhouse Museum, 2003).

Perhaps the most controversial debate surrounding the environment and the Sydney Games is concerned with the remediation of the 760 hectare Homebush Bay site. The Homebush Bay site, former state abattoir, Navy armament depot, brickworks, landfill and industrial waste dumping ground, was home to most of the Olympic facilities (Beder, 1993). Potential was seen in the development of clean-up technologies in order to remediate the site, which in turn would benefit the environment and be a profitable venture (Kearins and Pavlovich, 2002).

London 2012 Summer Olympics: The First Sustainable Olympic and Paralympic Games?

Continuing the environmental trend, grand claims about the “green” power of London 2012; David Higgins, chief executive of the Olympic Delivery Authority (ODA) expressed, “Ensuring a sustainable approach to building the Games will help ensure London 2012 is remembered not only as two weeks of fantastic sporting action, but also as the greenest games to date” (BBC, 2007, p. 1). The overarching aim of the London 2012 bid which was presented to the IOC was to make London “The first sustainable Olympic and Paralympic Games” (London 2012, 2009, p. 5). According to the London 2012 Sustainability Plan (2009, p. 67), the concept of sustainability was at “the heart of every stage of the London 2012 programme”. In order to help demonstrate and achieve this, the London 2012 bid adopted and modified the “One Planet Living” concept which was originally created by the World Wildlife Fund (WWF) and Bioregional and re-branded it as “Towards a one planet Olympics”. This approach contends that if we continue living and following the consumption patterns that we are currently pursuing in the UK, then we would require three planets worth of resources. Therefore we need to alter our way of living in order to stay within the earth’s current regenerative capacity. To help achieve this, the Games have attempted

to utilise existing facilities where feasible, only build permanent venues where they will serve a long-term purpose after the Games, and for everything else build temporary structures (London 2012.com, 2010).

Further to this, based upon the “Towards a one planet Olympics” approach, a sustainability plan was created for London 2012 and incorporated the following five themes; climate change, waste, biodiversity, inclusion, and healthy living (London 2012.com, 2010). In 2007, resulting from a promise made during the bidding phase for the Games an independent body, Commission for a Sustainable London 2012, was set up to monitor and ensure that London delivers a sustainable Games, which was a first for any Olympic Games (Commission for a Sustainable London 2012, 2010).

The ever-developing political agenda of environmental sustainability and how this has translated into the hosting of the Olympic Games has been demonstrated throughout this article. Such are the grand claims of the Olympic circus that it has been asserted that as a display of human capabilities, the Games harness the potential to advance the agenda of sustainability (London 2012, 2009). Declarations such as these have arguably paved the way for the ambition to make London the first truly sustainable Olympic event. Neuburger (2009) argues that the London Games and its seemingly far-reaching and large-scale environmental proposals will provide a model for future Games in terms of bid cities and international sports organisations. This is seconded by a progress report emanating from the 8th IOC World Conference on Sport and Environment in 2009. This report contended that effective and early delivery of schemes and programmes concerned with the five sustainability themes mentioned above would enable LOCOG to “address new issues and develop ground-breaking initiatives” (IOC, 2009, p. 12). Some of the environmental successes to date include that 98% of waste from the construction of the Games, has been recycled or reused, exceeding the original target of 90% (Olympic Delivery Authority, 2010; Commission for a Sustainable London 2012, 2009). Also, the publishing of “The London 2012 Carbon Footprint Study” marks the first time a host city of any major event has attempted to measure the carbon footprint throughout the duration of the project (London 2012, 2008).

Perhaps one of the most visible attempts/achievements to reduce the environmental impact of the London Games is through the construction of the 80,000 seat Olympic stadium in Stratford, East London. It is the most lightweight Olympic Stadium to have ever been built, using approximately half the amount of steel that can be found in stadia of similar proportion (London 2012, 2009; Commission for a Sustainable London 2012, 2011). It has been speculated that in an innovative attempt to reduce the environmental impact of the Metropolitan Police Service, seized guns and knives have been recycled and made into metal girders for the Olympic site (BBC, 2010). Further, the stadium is the first in Olympic and Paralympic history to offer adequate seating capacity during Games time, and then provide a smaller multi-purpose venue post-Olympics. This has been achieved through the construction of a permanent 25,000 seat stadium with a removable 55,000 seat extension (London 2012, 2009). This has emanated discussions as to whether a portion of the seating may be recycled and passed on to Chicago when it was bidding for the 2016 Summer Olympic Games (Booth, 2008). Booth (2008, p. 1) described this as “the first step in a new approach to the Games” which had the potential to be a cost-saving strategy, as well possibly enabling poorer countries to host the Games. Despite this proposal of a novel and unique initiative, it has been asserted that the Atlanta 1996 Summer Olympic Games proposed a similar initiative in which capacity of the Olympic stadium was to be reduced from 85,000 seats to 45,000 seats. Furthermore, materials from this were to be reused and recycled, for example the surface of the Olympic running track was to be donated to a nearby university (Forum, 1996).

However, the environmental positives of the construction of the Olympic Stadium may have been recently undermined with the two English Premiership football clubs, Tottenham Hotspur and West Ham United vying to take over the ground post-Olympics. The bid put forth by North London club, Tottenham Hotspur, proposes to demolish the £400 million stadium and then rebuild one more suited to the clubs needs. The environmental consequences of which has been heavily condemned by former Mayor of London, Ken Livingstone, who asserts that the carbon cost and environmental footprint of such an action is “horrendous” and “not acceptable”. Consequently, this would also damage the ath-

letic legacy which was previously promised by London's Olympic bid committee (Williamson, 2011, p. 1). Interestingly, IOC President Jacques Rogge elucidated that with respect to this debate, "The position of the IOC is very clear: this is not our business. The IOC has no say on what is going to happen with the London stadium" (Radnedge, 2011). This is perhaps not what one would expect to hear from the leader of an organisation striving towards creating sustainable legacies.

As time goes by we, as a society, anticipate further environmental successes and failures. So far the Games have come under "green" fire for the abandonment of plans to build a 120m-high wind turbine in the Olympic Park, after the preferred contractors withdrew as the health and safety measures in the original design were longer feasible. This was a huge blow to the potentially green credentials of the Games, as the turbine was expected to significantly contribute to the Olympic site's 20% target of deriving energy from renewable sources (Sherman and Hamilton, 2010). Additionally, the demolition of the 100-year old Manor Garden Allotments in October 2007, which enabled the construction of a 4-week walkway has seemingly contradicted London attempts to be a "Green" Olympics (BBC, 2008; Das Gupta, 2007; Slavin, 2006). The current economic climate and the immovable deadline of the Olympics presents a potentially destructive concoction as environmental commitments may be sidelined with pressure of exceeding budgets and not meeting construction deadlines (Ryan-Collins and Sander-Jackson, 2008). With just over eighteen months on the countdown clock until two weeks of sporting excellence, we wait to see whether the protection of the environment will be a price too big to pay.

Conclusion

In conclusion this paper attempts to offer a brief insight and illustration of the relationship and developments between the Summer Olympic Games and the environment, through the Barcelona 1992, Sydney 2000 and London 2012 Games. Whilst the Barcelona 1992 Summer Olympics did not strictly address environmental issues, it did provide a successful model of city-wide regeneration.

Between the Barcelona Games and the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympics were the “green” success of the Lillehammer 1994 Winter Olympics, and the modification of the Olympic Charter to incorporate environmental protection as an aim integral to the Olympic Movement. The Sydney 2000 Summer Olympics on the other hand prioritised environmental concerns, and is subsequently renowned as the “Green” Games. The Games incorporated environmental organisations from the offset and attempted to clean up a chemically contaminated for the construction of venues. These two events have been instrumental in shaping and informing London’s approach to environmental sustainability, and already London has exceeded targets and caused controversy with the scrapping of plans and contradictory legacy debates.

Whilst the Barcelona and Sydney Games’ have demonstrated either voluntarily or through required action some environmental consciousness, they have also seemed to have fallen short in the same standing. We are starting to see in real time how London will be played out and whether or not it will be the first ever sustainable Olympic and Paralympic Games, or whether this will be a figure of LOCOG’s imagination.

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LEGACY OF MEDIA SERVICES IN THE BEIJING OLYMPIC GAMES

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Introduction

The thesis is concerned about media services of the modern Olympic Games, taking the Beijing Olympic Games as an example. Because it was the first time to hold the Olympic Games in an oriental socialist country, many measures that in the past had not been carried out, had to be taken at the Beijing Olympic Games. The thesis attempts to give a description of media services during the Beijing Olympic Games, based on the political and social background, to probe into the value of what the Beijing Olympic Games had done. In consideration of China's particularity, the way to inherit the legacy of media services in Beijing Olympic Games should be analysed.

There is a special form of competition in the modern Olympic Games between the various media, as well as the competition between the athletes in the contest arena. The media have deeply involved in the process of history of the modern Olympic Games, so more and more influence and infiltration has been extensively made while the media have gradually developed. The former IOC President Juan Antonio Samaranch once divided all the sports into two catego-

ries whether suitable for television broadcast or not. Currently, there are three commissions which are in direct relation with the media in all of the 25 special committees of the International Olympic Committee, which are the Press Commission, the Radio and Television Commission and the TV Rights and New Media Commission. "As a cultural symbol, large-scale sports events have become an information resource in the chain of social transmission, which are needed to discover, develop, and expand continuously"¹. As the representative of the large-scale sports events, the Olympic Games are in necessary need of the media to achieve discovery, development and expansion of the information resource during the organisation and operation of the Olympic Games. So, with the continuous improvement of the status of the media, media services have become one of the most important aspects in the operation and management of the Olympic Games.

It was the first time that the number of journalists was more than the athletes in the Olympic Games in Montreal in 1976, which highlighted the growing importance of media services. By now, the journalists involved in the Olympic Games had been even several times as many as the athletes (table 1), and the media coverage affected directly the people's judgment whether the Olympic Games was successful or not. However, due to great differences between the host cities and national conditions such as social and political systems, economic development levels and cultural backgrounds, the Olympic media services showed different characteristics. Because the Beijing Olympic Games was the first time held in an ancient Eastern socialist country, there were many new measures that were never used in the previous Olympic Games. This article attempts to portray the media services in the Beijing Olympic Games, to analyse its unique value based on the political and social background in China, and to summarize its universal contents convenient for transmission in the successive Olympic Games.

1. Ren Guangyao, Zhu Zhenghong: The transmission of large-scale sports events: taking the World Cup in Germany as an example, *News Front*, August, 2006, P27.

Table 1: Number of Athletics and Media in Olympiads from 1980 to 2008

Time	Host City	Athletics	Media	Different Media
1980	Moscow	5872	5615	Print media 2685 Radio & TV 2930
1984	Los Angeles	7616	9190	Print media 4327 Radio & TV 4863
1988	Seoul	9581	11331	Print media 4978 Radio & TV 6353
1992	Barcelona	9368	12830	Print media 4880 Radio & TV 7950
1996	Atlanta	10332	15108 5000(Non-Games-accredited)	Print media 5695 Radio & TV 9413
2000	Sydney	11116	16033	Print media 5298 Radio & TV 10735
2004	Athens	10500	21000 10500(Non-Games-accredited)	Print media 5500 Radio & TV 15500
2008	Beijing	11468	21608 30000(Non-Games-accredited)	Print media 5600 Radio & TV 16000 Internet 8

1. Brief history of media services in the Olympiads

Since the Olympic Games in Athens in 1896, the media services had run through the history of the Olympic Games. Resulting from the practice of media services having been taken for more than 100 years, when the Beijing Olympic Games was held, a relatively mature pattern of media services in the Olympiad was formed.

There were 12 journalists in the first modern Olympics in 1896. The organisers of the event attached great importance to the role of the media, who established the foundation of specification of media services for the following Olympics. Although there was not a media services organisation in the Olympic organising committee at that time, journalists as distinguished guests attended

many activities such as the return banquet held by the Greek royal family after the Olympic Games.

In October 1911, in the period of preparation for the Olympic Games, it was the first time for the Stockholm Organising Committee for the Games of the X Olympiad to establish a special committee responsible for issues on media services in modern Olympic history, which was called Press Committee. Media services had been on the agenda of the Olympic Organising Committee, and had been put into its overall planning.

The word “Press Services” was initially used in the official reports in the Amsterdam Olympic Games in 1928.

The idea of media services was much clearer to the Organisers of the 1936 Berlin Olympics, and a relatively complete organisational system had been formed. When the Olympic Games in 1932 just ended, based on the experience of the last two Olympic Games, taking into account the complexity and difficulty of the media services, organisers identified four guiding principles for the media services, and planned the following for the first time in the history of the Olympiad: priority to the major news agency and the proportional distribution of the number of journalists in different countries. 1,800 journalists’ documents were distributed and the objects of media services were added by the television for the first time in the Olympic Games.

Press Services Section was formally established in the Rome Olympic Games in 1960, as the fifth sector in the organising committee. There were four departments of the Radio and Television Affairs office, technical services (including newsletters, press center, journalists’ center), secretariat (including the official announcement, the project center, language services, photography group, transportation), press registration and accommodation, established of 700 work staff. From then on, media services organisation system of the Olympics was formed, and a new historical stage of operation and management of media service began. A new relationship between the Olympic Games and the media was also marked in the 17th Olympic Games that television rights were sold to the television networks for the first time. The Italian television RAI conducted a live broad-

cast for totally 96.5 hours, and almost all Western European countries achieved live coverage².

In 1964, the Press Commission in the International Olympic Committee was established, absorbing the impressive sports journalists in the world's major news agencies and other news institutions to participate in³. The Commission proposed specific recommendations of media services to the IOC Executive Board, in order to provide the best working conditions for staff journalists and photographers.

It was the first time to bring a journalist quota system that the total quota was allocated to each National Olympic Committee by the IOC into practice and use the electronic data processing (EDP) in the time of journalists' registration in the Munich Olympic Games in 1972. In addition, the TV institutions were divided into the television broadcast rights holders and non-broadcast rights holders for the first time⁴. The organising committee also provided dedicated press center, television center and radio center.

Based on the successful Los Angeles Olympic Games, from the Seoul Olympic Games, the organisation and management of media services had become a relatively stable pattern. After the Seoul Olympics in 1988, the core work of the operation and management of media services was mainly responsible by two departments, namely the media operation and the Olympic host broadcasting organisation.

2. Contents and characteristics of media services in the Beijing Olympic Games

Media services had been continuously attached much importance by the International Olympic Committee. It specifically states in the 49th Article "Media Coverage of the Olympic Games" of the 5th Chapter "The Olympic Games" of

2. Composed by International Olympic Committee, translated by Liang Lijuan. International Olympic Committee for a century. Beijing: Olympic Press, 1998:345.

3. Editorial Committee of the Olympic Encyclopedia. Olympic encyclopedia. Beijing: Olympic Press, 2000.

4. Verdier, Michèle. *The IOC and the press*. Olympic Review, 1996 June-July: 65-66.

“Olympic Charter”: “The IOC takes all necessary steps in order to ensure the fullest coverage by the different media and the widest possible audience in the world for the Olympic Games”⁵.

The “Action Plan of Beijing Olympic” specifically states: “Good conditions should be provided for news media. To ensure that the journalists can make a fast, efficient, accurate and successful coverage of the Olympic Games, good working environment should be created, and comprehensive and timely information and first-class services should be provided for the domestic and foreign news media.”

From the preparation, according to the principle of “treating the media nice”, organisers of the Beijing Olympic Games had taken a number of practical and effective measures to ensure quality, personalized service for the media. The “Regulation of interview in China for the foreign journalists during the Beijing Olympic Games and its Preparatory Period” was officially published by the Chinese government on December 1, 2006, and put in force on January 1, 2007. On the basis of the regulation, the Beijing Organising Committee for the Olympic Games compiled the “Service Guide of interview for foreign journalists during the Beijing Olympic Games and its Preparatory Period” (hereinafter referred to as “guide”), which was officially published on May 9, 2007, giving specific guidance to media services in the Beijing Olympics. It was the further specific efforts that the publishing of the “Guide” by the Chinese Government and the Beijing Olympic Organising Committee was to facilitate foreign media organisations and foreign journalists to report the Beijing Olympic Games. More than ten categories of items that both accredited media (Rights Holding Broadcasters, accredited print media, photography media) and the non-accredited media (visa applications, customs procedures, travelling interviews, staff hired) generally concerned about were covered in the “Guide”. For each category, the “Guide” attempted to explain the relevant provisions from the users’ perspective.

In addition, the “Guide” also announced the service mechanism of the Beijing Organising Committee for the international media, which was called “one-

5. International Olympic Committee. Olympic Charter [M]. Beijing: Olympic Press, 2001:83.

stop” service. This was a comprehensive 24-hour service mechanism provided specifically by the BOCOG Press Center, cooperated with 29 departments all over the country, which represented and coordinated the relevant institutions of the Chinese government to accept and assist to solve all kinds of requirements of administrative approval and service provision for the various media. On July 1, 2007, “one-stop” service for the media during the Beijing Olympic Games and the Preparatory Period was officially launched in the Beijing Olympic Press Center. It had been working until October 17, 2008. The “one-stop” service mechanism mainly provided high-quality and convenient services for the domestic and foreign journalists so that the Beijing Olympic Press Center became the reception center and the front desk for the journalists reporting the Beijing Olympic Games all over the world. Services were provided mainly for the resident and temporary-interview correspondents of foreign media and media in Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan, as well as the mainland journalists. The specific contents of services included: the first was to accept the interview applications of foreign reporters and visa applications of foreign reporters who made temporary coverage in Beijing. The second was to provide a warm reception for the media. The journalists could apply for the report by telephone, fax, mail and personal interview, and the Press Center would be in charge all the time. The third was to assist and arrange for the report of the Beijing Olympics, to help journalists contacting with the interviewees, or to provide the relevant contact information for the journalist to interview them directly. The fourth was to provide life services for the journalists. For example, a foreign journalist without accommodation, if he proposed the requirements, the accommodation, catering, tourism and other projects could be arranged by the Press Center.

Conforming to fundamental standards in the “media guide” of the IOC, on the basis of the experiences of the efficient operating system of media services in the past Olympic Games, the Beijing Olympic Games created some new methods used in media services, which brought a number of “No. 1” in the world in the history of the Olympic Games.

Firstly, the largest Main Press Center and the largest international broadcasting center in the Olympic history. The Beijing Olympic Main Press Center and In-

ternational Broadcast Center belong to the same architectural complex, located in the central area of the Beijing Olympic Park, with a total construction area of 63,000 square meters, close to the National Stadium “Bird’s Nest”, the National Aquatics Center “Water Cube” and the National Stadium. It is convenient to come to seven venues such as the National Stadium, the National Aquatics Center, the National Stadium and et cetera from the Main Press Center, taking 10 minutes to arrive at the Olympic Village, and only 10 minutes driving to the media village.

Secondly, the main press center was used both in the Olympic Games and in the Paralympic Games for the first time.

Thirdly, the most offices rented by the most media institutions in the Press Center. There were 110 offices leased by 144 media institutions. These two figures both reached the most in the Olympic history.

Fourthly, all of the TV broadcast by high-definition TV signals. It was the first time in the Olympic history that the global television coverage of all 28 matches and the opening and closing ceremonies was broadcast with high-definition TV signals and surround-sound of 5.1 channel. The Beijing Olympic Broadcasting Co., Ltd (BOB) was established to serve the world’s Radio and television institutions. During the Beijing Olympic Games, the BOB provided 5,400-hour broadcast signals viewed by more than 40,000,000 audience for the Olympic broadcast rights holders.

Fifthly, for the first time, the Olympic Games was broadcast live through the new media of the internet and the cell phones.

Sixthly, the simultaneous interpretation services were supplied with the most languages in the Olympic Games. Eight languages such as Chinese, English, French, Spanish, Russian, Arabic and et cetera were provided in the Beijing Olympic Games.

Seventhly, it started to provide for the accredited journalists with the wireless Internet access, the IC cards of the Olympic broadband, wireless INFO access and other modern technical services in the Main Press Centre and venue media center.

Eighthly, it began with the real-time audio and video interview services at the mixed zone in the eight key venues in the Beijing Olympic Games.

Ninthly, it was the first time in the Olympic history to carry out the security policy from the “clear areas” to the “clear areas” on the media shuttle bus system. According to it, if the accredited journalists moved between the venues by the media shuttle bus, security checks were only needed once, which greatly facilitated the travel of journalists.

The remarkable operations of media services in the Beijing Olympic Games provided the convenience to the maximum extent for the journalists from various countries’ media in work and life, which achieved the recognition and praise by the global media.

3. Value of media services in the Beijing Olympic Games

3.1 To contribute to a successful Beijing Olympic Games

That the IOC president Jacques Rogge evaluated the Beijing Olympic Games as “truly exceptional Games” was in close relation with the remarkable media services.

The chief task of the media is to deliver information. So the goal of media services is to ensure the journalists to complete the coverage through the provision of press conferences, interview opportunities, network information platform, facilitating conditions and so on. The Beijing Organising Committee for the Olympic Games had done a lot of work in the media services. Therefore, various types of quick and accurate transmission of the news was the primary goal of the media services in the Beijing Olympic Games. It was incredible that all kinds of news about the Beijing Olympic Games could be transmitted as quickly as possible and as accurately as possible without the media services. Although the inaccurate and injustice reports “with colored glasses” on China still appeared in the foreign media from time to time, after all, more and more extensive and positive news were reported by the international media, which tremendously influenced the public evaluation of the Beijing Olympic Games and China.

The idea of “Green Olympic Games, High-tech Olympic Games and People’s Olympic Games” of the Beijing Olympic Games achieved the cross-cultural communication by the world media. The digital media services fully reflected the connotation of the High-tech Olympic Games. Modern three-dimension communication system including satellite communications, mobile communications and high-definition digital TV broadcast system were set up, making the media from around the world get access anytime and anywhere to the affordable, rich, personalized information services through safe, convenient, fast and efficient channel as long as the media was within the area of media services, which greatly facilitated the media, and set an example for the successive Olympic Games.

3.2 To promote the spread of China’s image in the world

It was conventional that various countries and regions took advantage of holding large-scale sports events such as the Olympic Games to glorify their national image.

Without a doubt, the important mission of the Beijing Organising Committee for the Olympic Games was to promote external communication vigorously, in order to introduce a good image of Beijing and China by the chance of the Olympic Games. In the process of the Beijing Olympic Games and the Preparatory Period, excellent media services gave assistance to the foreign journalists to understand what a real China should be from its cultural tradition and social status quo in depth.

3.3 To advance the standards of media services in the Olympic Games

In 1999, so as to further standardize the organisation of the Olympic Games, the International Olympic Committee began implementing the transfer of knowledge (TOK) programme, which was, the Olympic Organising Committee selling all of its knowledge to the International Olympic Committee through signing commercial agreements. Accordingly, it was the first time to carry out the Olympic Games Knowledge Services (OGKS) in the Sydney Olympic Games in 2000. After that, the knowledge and ideas related to the Olympiad, especially the valuable man-

agement experience and lessons in the bid, preparation, organising, summary after the events, and et cetera developed extensive communication in the world's Olympic family, and all Olympic Organising Committees were trained professionally and comprehensively with more than twenty fields of transportation, environmental protection, health, security, venues, marketing, of course, and also of media services for sure. These had to depend on the continuous improvement of a variety of the IOC technical manuals, in which the standards of the organisation of the Olympic Games were constantly refined, and the standards were also modified in the practice of the Olympic Games, which established a series of criteria of the Olympic Games.

Many new measures of the media services in the Beijing Olympic Games were popular. After the Beijing Olympic Games, the IOC would further revise some technical manuals related to media services such as the "Radio and Television Technical Manual", the "Print Media Technical Manual" and others according to the summary of the practice of media services in the Beijing Olympic Games. So the standard of media services in the Beijing Olympic Games would exert an influence on the successive Olympic Games, which would promote standards of the media services.

4. Inheritance of the legacy of the Beijing Olympic Games

4.1 Achievement

4.1.1 Achievement in China

In November 2006, the State Council issued the "Rule of interview in China for the journalists of foreign countries and Hong Kong, Macao, Taiwan during the Beijing Olympic Games and its Preparatory Period", which was one of the few policy documents in the declared text form about news coverage of the Beijing Olympic Games. The 6th article is that it is required for the foreign journalists' interview in China in the future only to achieve the consent of the organisations and individuals to be interviewed, not to apply for it and get the official

approval. The 7th article also makes it clear that foreign media can hire Chinese citizens through foreign service units to assist with their reporting. The new regulation actually relaxed restrictions and extended the range of interview for foreign journalists in China. On October 17, 2008, after the Games, the State Council promulgated the “Regulation of Interview for Resident News Institutions and Correspondent in China”. The new regulation fixed the main principles and spirit of the rules as a long-term legislation, to ensure wide open access for the foreign media. It is one of the most immediate influences of the media services of the Beijing Olympic Games undoubtedly.

4.1.2 Achievement in Olympiads

SOHU.com as the sponsors of Internet contents services and CCTV.com as the Internet and mobile broadcaster in the Beijing Olympic Games became the representatives of the new media broadcasters, which indicated that it was a milestone that the IOC and the Olympic Organising Committee started to provide media services for the new media. The new media was more vigorous in the Olympic Winter Games in Vancouver two years later. More than 100 websites were authorized to report it; mobile platform coverage reached 6,000 hours; the amount of browsing www.vancouver2010.com was 275,000,000, far exceeding the record of 105,000,000 in the Beijing Olympic Games; 78,000,000 people visited the official website; the number of website page-view only on Feb. 24, 2010 was 9,185,306, more than the record of 8,797,614 on Aug. 11, 2008 in Beijing Olympic Games.

4.2 Problems

Media services had become one of the important legacies of the Beijing Olympic Games. Beijing is the capital of an oriental developing socialist country with long history and profound civilization. Compared with other host cities, there are many differences between China and other countries in political background, economic environment and cultural traditions. From the perspective of them, other Olympic host cities (e.g. London) can not duplicate the Beijing's pattern

completely. There are still many problems if Beijing's pattern will be applied to the operation and management of media services in the succeeding Olympic Games. Therefore, it needs to take the part with universal value as the basis, revising in the practice to supplement with what and how to put it into use. Actually, it is not very significant to have the new measures used again, but to understand the ideas of media services in the Beijing Olympic Games, such as humanism, convenience, efficiency, and comprehensiveness.

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CORPORATE GOVERNANCE ON THE NATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEE OF THAILAND

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Introduction

The Olympic Games is by far the most admirable competitions among athletes and the most spectacle sports tournaments among sports fans. The Olympic Games is built on their very core values when the games bring together people around the world to witness one of the amazing sports events in the world. It is a congregation of respectful and excellent athletes from all around the world. Over the century of the Olympic Games, three core values, i.e., excellence, friendship and respect, are ingrained not only in the Olympic Games but also in every sports competition all around the world.

The immense role of the dissemination of Olympic values and promoting and overseeing the Olympic Games falls on the shoulder of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) which is a decision-making organisation regarding the Olympic affairs. Though a huge responsibility lied upon the IOC, the IOC alone cannot operate and function at this successful level. The National Olympic Committees (NOCs) from various countries need to provide considerable support to the IOC, and the accomplishment of the IOC's objectives can be achieved only if the NOCs work efficiently and effectively.

The NOCs perform various functions and provide significant contribution to

promote sports in a country. Thailand is one of the IOC members. The missions of the National Olympic Committee of Thailand under the Royal Patronage of H.M. the King (NOCT) include supporting and promoting amateur sports and physical education, sending delegated athletes to international competitions, providing welfare and education for athletes and coaches, organising a sports museum, and coordinating with different organisations¹. With these many functions and responsibilities, the efficient management of the NOCT is highly essential. Effective management of the NOCT will lead not only to the increasing number of junior athletes and national athletes and the success of our national athletes in major international sports competitions, but also to gear Thailand to be a healthy society using sports as a means to this end.

In business, it is often argued that effective management is caused by competition. The term “creative destruction” coined by Joseph Schumpeter² has continuously been proven through time that the most effective and innovative firms will thrive. Without competition, there is no real incentive and need for firms to be effective and efficient. Firms can do whatever they want bearing few or no consequences. Many sports governing bodies, e.g. the IOC and the NOCs, however, have no competition and, thus, are a monopoly. Yet, they are organisations that need to be most effective.

In this paper, I will argue that corporate governance is the solution to make the NOCs and the IOC to be most effective by using an example of the NOCT. Corporate governance (CG) can be loosely defined as to how to institute integrity to organisations/industries. Similar to business, the IOC and the NOCs need to instill integrity to their members no matter who they are or what role they take. A cleverly tailored corporate governance process employing control from both top-down and bottom-up will provide a necessary means to make the NOCs or, in this paper, the NOCT become well managed.

1. http://www.olympicthai.or.th/eng/01about_mission_e.html

2. Joseph Schumpeter (1883-1950) was a famous Austrian economist who briefly served as an Austrian Minister of Finance and a professor of economics at Harvard University.

Corporate Governance in Sports Governing Bodies

Since the turn of the century, corporate governance (CG) has become a very serious issue due to the collapse of several big companies. CG pertains to explicit rules, laws or procedures, and implicit cultures in which and by which an organisation operates and controls. Issues of good governance arise when there is a conflict of interests between different parties in an organisation (Hart, 1995). It aims to protect minor shareholders from the appropriation of major shareholders or managers in a company (Claessens & Fan, 2002, Mitton, 2002). A good established CG practice is believed to offer a solution to scrupulous management (Cato Institute, 2003).

CG for sports governing bodies, especially the IOC and the NOCs, is a very serious issue for three obvious reasons. First, since the IOC and the NOCs are organisations which need to balance the interests of many different types of parties. The IOC needs to find a mutual agreement or interest from an individual (e.g., athletes, coaches, referees) to a country (e.g., NOCs or Olympic bidding countries) and from a nonprofit organisation (e.g. International Sports Federations or UN agencies) to a profit organisation (e.g. sponsors or broadcasting companies). The NOCs have the same burden as the IOC but at a smaller scale. With this difficult task, a conflict of interest can easily occur, e.g. the Fasel case in 2009 where he was reprimanded by the IOC³, or possible concerns for two sponsorship agreements of the South Korean bid for the Olympic Winter Games in 2014⁴.

Secondly, the IOC and the NOCs are monopolistic organisations in their domain. The right to decide which country will host the Olympic Games belongs only to the IOC, while the right to send athletes to participate in the Olympic Games belongs only to the NOCs. Because of its monopolistic nature, the need for good CG is extremely important because without competition, the need for

3. <http://www.insidethegames.biz/sports/winter/ice-hockey/9522-fasel-reprimanded-by-ioc-over-conflict-of-interest>

4. <http://www.sportsfeatures.com/olympicsnews/story/47667/ioc-issues-statement-on-possible-conflict-of-interests>

improvement, adaptation, or effective management is minimal. This may lead to ineffective management of the IOC, unfair and/or dangerous competitions. Lastly, CG is highly essential for the IOC and the NOCs because of the role bestowed upon the IOC and the NOCs. It is the task of the IOC and the NOCs to encourage, support, and use sports as a tool to promote peace, fair play, health, and social equality among different races and genders.

Fridman (1999) and Zakus (2000) argued for the immediate needs of corporate governance and of management paradigm shift for the IOC. The Governance in Sport Working Group (2001) provided a guideline for good governance. The guideline includes nine principles, as follows:

1. *The role of the governing body* pertains to how sports governing bodies (SGB) govern their stakeholders to the best interest of their sports domain. The role of SGB, thus, includes how SGBs enact, establish, and enforce rules of the games as well as promote and represent its sports.
2. *Structure, responsibilities, and accountability* are roles and responsibilities of groups of SGBs.
3. *Membership and size of the governing body* pertain to the number and qualification of members of SGBs and how SGBs operate.
4. *Democracy, elections, and appointments* deal with the process of acquiring members of SGBs.
5. *Transparency and communication* cover how SGBs communicate with their members. Thus, it provides a good indicator showing the quality of good governance.
6. *Decisions and appeals* pertain to how the procedures that SGBs settle disputes and derive their decisions as well as the process of appeals.
7. *Conflicts of interest* ensures that every member of SGBs act to the best of their interest. Hence, clear demarcation is encouraged.
8. *Solidarity* deals with how SGBs appropriately distribute their financial revenue. As a result, it is very important to the development of sports.
9. *Recognition of other interests*: SGBs are required to recognize other special interest groups which may affect the decisions and interests of SGBs.

Instead of nine principles, Burger & Goslin (2005) summarized that seven values were required in order to successfully have good governance sports organisations. Seven pillars of good governance for sports organisations include: 1) fairness, 2) accountability, 3) responsibility, 4) transparency, 5) social responsibility, 6) independence, and 7) discipline.

The National Olympic Committee of Thailand under the Royal Patronage of H.M. the King

The National Olympic Committee of Thailand under the Royal Patronage of H.M. the King (NOCT) was established on June 20, 1948, was granted his Royal Patronage by His Majesty King Bhumipol Adulyadej on December 26, 1949, and was unanimously approved formal recognition by the IOC on May 15, 1950.

The structure of the NOCT consists of one executive committee, thirteen commissions performing various assigned responsibilities, the International Olympic Academy of Thailand and the Olympic Athletes Club. According to the Olympic Charter, the members of the executive committee are elected from the general assembly of the NOCT. The members of the general assembly include 32 representatives from sports organisations, one IOC member, two Olympic or retired Olympic athletes, and ten representatives or nationals of Thailand who can reinforce the effectiveness of the NOCT and render distinguished services to the cause of sport and Olympism.

Corporate Governance on the National Olympic Committee of Thailand under the Royal Patronage of H.M. the King

The conduct of the NOCT is required to follow the Olympic Charter strictly; otherwise the IOC can take appropriate measures to act upon possible misconducts performed by the NOCT. Hence, several rules governing the NOCT and their members follow the Olympic Charter, for example, the composition of the NOCT, the recognition of the NOCT members, the acquisition of the NOCT ex-

ecutive committee, the responsibility of the NOCT executive committee, and the general operations of the NOCT. With a clear and well establish charter to govern itself, the NOCT can perform its required tasks, roles, missions, and responsibilities effectively and efficiently. As a result, the NOCT acts upon the guidelines provided by The Governance in Sport Working Group in 2001.

Moreover, the NOCT has divided its tasks, roles, and responsibilities to thirteen commissions. The thirteen commissions include:

1. Office of the Secretariat Commission is mainly responsible for monitoring and assisting the operations of the NOCT.
2. Olympic Solidarity Commission is mainly responsible for planning and developing a financial strategy of the NOCT for Olympic Solidarity received from the IOC.
3. Marketing and Privilege Commission is mainly responsible for reviewing and studying possible sponsorships to finance the NOCT.
4. Sport for All Commission is responsible for promoting sports practice for public interest.
5. Rules and Laws Commission is responsible for drawing up rules and laws governed by the NOCT.
6. Information and Technology Commission is responsible for collecting and circulating important and interesting news, statistics, and knowledge relating to sports, the Olympic Movement, and Olympism.
7. Sports Commission is responsible for sending delegates to participate in the international competitions.
8. Medical and Science Commission is responsible for planning for appropriate intervention of medical doctors and sports scientists during the preparation phase of athletes before competitions to ensure maximum benefit for athletes and the NOCT.
9. National Sports Associations and Media Relationships Commission is responsible for coordinating with sports associations and media.
10. Internal Audit Commission is responsible for auditing the budget of the NOCT.

11. Technical Development Commission is responsible for finding, training, coaching, and maintaining international competitions medallists.
12. Women and Sport Commission is responsible for promoting sports in women and for ensuring gender equality in sports.
13. Policy, Monitoring, and Evaluation Commission is responsible for policy making, monitoring, and evaluating policies of the NOCT.

The demarcation should render the NOCT to be highly productive. It is obvious from Thailand's past Olympic history that Thailand has been slowly and steadily developing its achievement in the Olympic Games and the Asian Games. However, the success of Thai senior athletes is far lesser than the success of Thai athletes at junior level. In the 2010 Youth Olympic Games in Singapore, Thailand won four gold medals and ranked 14th of the medal table, but in previous Olympic Games Thailand has never enjoyed more than three gold medals in a single Olympic Games, and the best place for Thailand was 25th in Athens 2004. This problem is widely recognized in Thailand where Thailand has excellent junior athletes but few elite senior athletes. Good corporate governance would provide a solution to the problem.

CG relates to how an organisation morally operates in its challenging situation. Personnel are one of the most critical factors, if not the most important factor, affecting good CG. Though the NOCT has its clear demarcation and delegates its tasks to thirteen commissions, several commissions are chaired by the same person. As a result, the intended demarcation has little effect. For example, Office of the Secretariat Commission, Olympic Solidarity Commission, and Marketing and Privilege Commission are chaired by the same person. Sports Commission and Internal Audit Commission are also chaired by one person. Technically, several commissions can be chaired by one person. Three problems can occur when one person chairs several commissions. The first problem is ineffectiveness. Given the huge responsibilities of each commission, it is hard to see how these commissions can be run at their most effectiveness. Secondly, the NOCT lacks accountability because the commissions shared by one person may quarrel about their real responsibilities among commissions. Lastly, conflicts of

interests may occur more easily because of more power obtained from chairing more commissions.

This problem may arise because Thailand does not have enough pool of interested and qualified candidates for being a chair. This can be resolved by promoting the significance of Olympism to our next generation. Moreover, poor transitions from junior level to senior level can result from poor coordination and limited future career for Thai athletes.

Moreover, several members of the NOCT executive committee have been a member for quite some time. The need for new generations is intense. Thailand is now in the transition of chairman or president of sports organisations from the old generations who often are retired military generals or bureaucrats to new generations who often are successful businessmen and entrepreneurs who have passion in sports and are more adept to changes. The research Foreman (2006) found that sports organisations are less effective if managed by elder board members and meet infrequently. Fortunately, the NOCT executive committee will soon consist of executive members from young generations who are passionate in sports. Though they are inexperienced, effective and frequent meetings help them understand the rules of the games.

Equally important with personnel, structure is another area that the NOCT lacks because it does not have a clear organisational structure and authority or means to exert its influence on its members as it may hope for. While the IOC can exercise its full authority on the NOCs, the NOCT cannot exert full authority on its sports organisation members due to several reasons. The first reason is the conflicts of interest. The NOCT has several responsibilities, but the most important one is to send athletes to participate in international competitions. The NOCT does not have a full responsibility in selecting delegations. The process of selecting delegated athletes rests upon sports organisations which is varied from organisation to organisation. Many sports organisations do not establish certain rules or criteria in the selection process, while some sports organisations often suddenly change their selection criteria without any prior notice and reasonable explanations. This is, of course, an act against good governance. The NOCT can only reprimand the wrong-doing sports organisations at best. It is argued that

with certain number of notices given by the NOCT, the NOCT should reserve its right not to send delegates from sports organisations to participate in major international competitions. By doing so, the NOCT reduces the possibility of obtaining more medals from competitions which is against the interest of Thai people, but by not banning wrongdoing sports organisations, the NOCT cannot promote the principle of CG on sports organisations and may even promote wrong doings.

Therefore, the NOCT should find its role between sports organisations members and the Sports Authority of Thailand (SAT) which acts as a government agency providing funding for sports organisations. The NOCT may act as a consultant to or work collaboratively with the SAT during the funding process for its sports organisations members. As a result, the NOCT can exert its influence on sports organisations. Without its clear structure and means to exert its influence on sports organisations, it is unlikely that sports organisations will hear from the NOCT no matter how good the advice the NOCT offers. With the drawbacks on its personnel and structure, the NOCT cannot hope for their best outcome. Good practice of corporate governance, i.e. by selecting qualified candidates, developing a clear organisational structure, and establishing and strictly enforcing rules, is required for the NOCT.

Olympism offers not only a way to best practice in CG but also an effective management in the NOCT. The core values of excellence, friendship, and respect emphasize on the need of brilliant personnel with a strong passion, and promote better working culture among organisations through mutual understanding and expectation. Without a doubt, Olympism is the fundamental of good governance.

Conclusions

The needs for CG have never been greater, especially for the IOC and the NOCs. In a highly competitive and morally deficit economy, several regulations are enacted to ensure the best possible practice among business corporations. However, the IOC and the NOCs are a monopoly in their sports domain and in a

highly profitable industry. They are not required to change from competition however they are required to reform according to their very core value which is integrity. As a result, the urgency of CG for the IOC and the NOCs is more intensified to set up examples for business corporations.

The NOCT, as a member of the IOC, needs to practice CG to ensure the maximum benefit of their stakeholders who mainly are athletes and the citizens of Thailand. The Governance in Sport Working Group (2001) established nine statements of principle for good CG of which the NOCT can mostly follow. However, I found its limitations on the practice of CG due to personnel and structure. The NOCT lacks enough qualified and interested candidates, and it does not have a clear organisational structure which can exert influence on its members. As a result, the practice of CG is somewhat limited. The solution to the problems is to promote Olympism to the next generation and develop a role among different partners so that the NOCT can exercise its authority with appropriate measures to wrongdoers.

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THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT IN THE QATARI SOCIETY - QATAR NATIONAL VISION 2030 & QOC'S SPORT SECTOR STRATEGY

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The Role of the Olympic Games in Constructing a Healthy Community in Qatar

Historical Background

Participation of Qatari national teams in international, regional, and continental competitions in the mid-1970s prompted the need to establish the Qatar Olympic Committee (QOC). Consequently, the QOC was founded on 14 March 1979 and joined the international, continental and regional committees as follows:

- 1980: International Olympic Committee; and
- 1981: Olympic Council of Asia.

The first QOC Board of Directors was formed as follows:

- H.H. Sheikh Abdullah Bin Khalifa Al-Thani (President);
- Mr Rashid Bin Hussain Al-Nuaimi (Vice-President);
- H.E. Sheikh Abdullah Bin Ali Al-Thani (Member);
- Mr Sultan Bin Khalid Al-Suwaidi (Member);
- Mr Mohamed Bin Hammam Al-Abdullah (Member);
- Mr Ahmed Bin Ghanem Al-Rumeihi (Member);
- Mr Mohamed Nasser Al-Nuaimi (Member); and
- Mr Yousouf Al-Saai (Member).

Since its establishment, the QOC has been successively led by five Presidents, as follows:

- H.H. Sheikh Abdullah Bin Khalifa Al-Thani (1979-1991);
- H.E. Sheikh Mohamed Bin Khalid Al-Thani (1991-1993);
- H.E. Sheikh Mohamed Bin Fahad Al-Thani (1993-13/7/1995);
- H.E. Sheikh Saoud Bin Khalid Al-Thani (1995-2000); and
- H.H. Sheikh Tamim Bin Hamad Al-Thani (2000-Present).

Participation

The participation of Qatar in the Olympic Games as well as in Asian and Arab Games is shown hereunder.

The Olympic Games are known all over the world from its two symbols (its logo [the five interlocked rings] and the Olympic flag). Some of the aims of the Olympic Games are to increase the physical and moral features of humanity through sport, deepen the spirit of friendship and understanding amongst youth, and build a community which has a stable and safe world. The QOC plays a major and positive role in developing and progressing the community of Qatar. The QOC aims to deepen the meaning of sport and its importance in building its community in all branches through health, social development, and cultural sport.

The QOC guarantees results through its Sport Affairs Department (SA Department) that has four branches:

- Sports clubs;
- Sports federations;
- Sports activities; and
- A branch in technical affairs (which handles multi-game delegations).

The SA Department at QOC performs multiple tasks under the general policy of the QOC. This is related to the sport activities at different levels. The sport level among national teams is relatively high; however it varies at the public level. Public health is encouraged among members of the community as a way to reach physical fitness and psychological health.

At the first level, the SA Department is committed to cooperating with sport

federations and clubs and supporting their activities to increase the level of Qatari sport to world levels. The second level is concerned with the promotion of sport and its correct concepts as well as its positive implications on individual and societal health. The department tries to integrate the various members of the community in sport activities by attracting new groups to practice sport through different programmes and activities for adults, youth, men, and women.

One of the genuine interests of the SA Department is the promotion of sport culture and Olympic principles through the publishing of leaflets, which educate people about sport culture in its different aspects. These aspects are related to public health and physical fitness or sport knowledge on a local and international level.

The department is interested in scientific research in the domain of sport practice, in addition to researching problems that are related to health and their relationship with sports fitness. In addition to SA Department, there are four other important departments in supporting the activities:

- Public Relations and Marketing Department;
- Finance Department;
- Human Resources Department; and
- Engineering Projects Department.

About Sport for Life

The Qatari people love sport and the QOC is committed to providing opportunities for all in the community to participate in sport-related activities that contribute to the physical and spiritual health of individuals and communities in Qatar and around the world. The investment that the QOC is making in athlete and venue development, sport bodies and community programmes will ensure that Qatar maintains the progress and success of the nation in the future.

The sector is organised according to two important documents:

- QOC Strategic Plan 2008-2012; and
- National Development Strategy 2011-2016 (which is the first quartile phase of implementation of the Qatar National Vision 2030 for all ministerial entities in the country).

Sports as an Inspiration for an Active and Healthy Community

Qatar will work on creating and improving the spirit of tolerance and positive dialogue with others on the national and international levels.

The National Vision of Qatar 2030

Qatar hopes to create a safe and stable community and is intensely committed to building a progressive future for its people. Making this happen is dependent on strengthening the role of the family and guaranteeing the safety of its citizens in their homes, jobs, and local communities. As for the second step, the State seeks to guarantee over the long term the basic needs of families and their financial resources to guarantee physical and psychological health for the community and individual through sports and culture. As for the physical activities, which have a central role in enriching individuals' lives, participating in the Olympic Games has a role for health and joy as well for all who participate from players, coaches, volunteering, observers and responsible parties. Sport activity shapes a coherent element which strengthens the culture and social shape of the community on the one hand for the local community and on the other hand for the international domain. Qatar had the international evaluation and optimization in the Olympic Games recently and is continuing on making efforts through the Olympic-recognized federations in Qatar, clubs, and in other strategic allies to provide sport venues and entertainment, hosting international events, and communicating the benefits of sport and physical activity. The QOC will continue its focus on the Olympic Games as one of the ways to face the challenges which come from the overwhelming increase in the size of the population and its role in changing cultures. The QOC also ensures that Qatar participates in the Olympic Games and that the society maintains an active way of life to improve hygiene, build international friendships, and improve relationships with all countries of the world.

The sport sector shapes the most important element in social improvement and plays a big role in improving the life of citizens by saving the way of active life and improving sport activities. Qatar will go on its sport policy to achieve specific

results, through carrying out five main sports projects and the government will do the following:

- Acculturating citizens with the importance of a healthy and active life, increasing the chances for those from all ages to participate in physical activity;
- Providing suitable and comfortable sport facilities for everyone;
- Increasing the number of talented athletes and improving the ways of identifying them; and
- Improving the chances of success in the Olympic Games.

The First Sectoral Outputs

The first sectoral outputs include:

- Increasing community participation in sport and physical activity;
- Improving health and an active life through sport; and
- Increasing youth programmes to improve participation in the Olympic Games.

Ways to achieve an active and healthy life include aims to:

- Obtain basic information about ludic behavior in the community of Qatar; and
- To increase the participation in the Olympic Games and the physical activities for women, men and children.

The Second Sectoral Outputs

The second sectoral outputs include:

- Improving and completing sport facilities for public and private use;
- Providing sport facilities and facilitate access to them by the public;
- Developing a master plan to improve the sports facilities.

The specific aim is to make a master plan for high performance and recreational sport facilities and to maintain a database related to them.

The Third Sectoral Outputs

The third sectoral outputs include:

- Improving the level of sport in Qatar to reach for the stars
- Extensive plan to improve sports skills.

The specific aims are to:

- Develop models to improve sport skills, especially for women and the disabled; and
- Establish a national database for athletes.

A project for identifying the pathways of high performance athletes has been established that also includes the strategic management of coaches and technical officials.

Sports Acculturation

Sports acculturation is a main element in any sport community that improves sport progress. This acculturation is necessary to identify the elements integral to success in all areas. Qatar is looking forward to spreading this knowledge of sport amongst its youth and educating it on the vital role of sports in improving the community. The strategic and sectoral plans include many expected outcomes that clarify the importance of sporting culture. Increasing the participation level of women and the disabled in sport is a strategic aim. The expected results include:

- Increased understanding of the sport benefits amongst women;
- Effective participation of more women in organised and public sports;
- Reduced chronic health issues for women;
- Increased recreational options for the disabled;
- Increased knowledge of the meaning of Olympism;
- Increased number of participating youth in the sport programmes;
- Increased knowledge of the benefits of sport activities amongst children;
- Acculturating individuals about sport and participating in a healthy way of life through increased exposure to the QOC tagline *Sport for Life*;

- Organising cultural change;
- Renewing the vitality of the Qatar Olympic Academy;
- Increasing confidence in and commitment to Olympic morals amongst students, teachers, parents, women and community; Increased cooperation between sport federations and health institutions as appropriate places to advertise sports as a healthy life choice to reduce crime and strengthen the community;
- Disseminated concepts that focus on the environment, sport, women, anti doping, and supporting sports for all; and
- Strengthened role of physical education and improved sport culture in schools;
- Strengthened sport heritage through support for traditional sports, neighborhood sports, and e-games;
- Increased number of local competitions for rally and cycling and other sports that can be practiced on sand;
- Improved data, laws, and facilities;
- Stressing the local sport identity through organising annual competitions for traditional sports; and
- Increasing the ability to participate in e-games in the community and local representation in the international competitions.

The Expected Results

- Statistics and annual reports that include participation rates in competitions with associated medals, names of team members, and officials results;
- New, clear policies based on detailed analyses of historic results for each sport, club, federation or any other local group;
- Special database for sports, including biographies of athletes, events, relevant organisations, federations and any other historical information;
- Cooperation with universities to achieve a research programme in the domain of sport; and
- Sports research/information centre specialized in students affairs.

SPORT STRATEGIC PLANNING IN LATVIA

Signe LUIKA (LAT)

After the renewal of independence in Latvian sport there have been noticeable events. It is difficult to say, how large is the contribution of the state, the sportsmen and their relative persistence, but strategic planning in Latvia has a documental start in the year 2006.

Strategy is a structured complex of the aims, tasks and activities together with the model, how to realize them.

The process of strategic planning can be characterized as consisting of three large stages:

1. The formulation of strategy;
2. The realization of strategy;
3. The evaluation of the results and their control.

The stage of strategy formulation forms the basis for strategic planning; therefore all following activities depend on the results of the first stage. The process of strategy formulation consists of the following parts:

1. The analysis of present and future situation, finding out expectations of the society, the evaluation of the perspectives of the development and possible threats;
2. The formulation of vision;
3. The defining of the priorities;
4. The defining of the tasks [3].

Leiks defines that strategic planning means becoming aware of the present

situation, gathering information, identifying the desirable future, and make decisions, bringing it closer [5].

Long-term strategy is necessary due to two main considerations:

1. To coordinate today's political decisions with the aims of state long-term development;
2. To create in the society confidence and belief in the possibility of future growth and life quality improvement; this, in its turn, will secure policy makers serious support in all layers of the society in order to form civic consensus and cooperation [3].

Latvian Cabinet of Ministers on 09.10.2001 ratified the Basic Statement for Policy Planning, in accordance with which was carried out strategic planning of Latvian sport. This document distinguishes the following policy planning documents:

- basic statement;
- programme;
- plan;
- conception.

Strategic planning of Latvian sport can be characterized with the help of two documents: basic statement and programme.

Basic Statement is the policy planning document, in which are included basic principles of government policy, the aims of the development and priorities in a definite sphere.

The Basic Statement is worked out for the formation of new policy, as well as in the case if the policy of the corresponding sphere is not clearly defined or it is necessary to make essential changes in maintained policy. In the Basic Statement should be carried out the evaluation of the influence on state budget.

The Basic Statement includes also the directions of activities for reaching the aims set forth and indicators, characterizing the reaching of the aims, necessary for the evaluation of the introduction of the corresponding policy. In the project of the Basic Statement can be outlined also variations of activities. Together with the formulation of the results, if possible, are provided also the indicators of reaching them for the evaluation of the corresponding policy.

Programme is the midterm policy planning document in a definite sphere, determining the aims, main tasks and results to be reached in the development of the sphere and what is worked out for the realization of Basic Statements, confirmed by the Cabinet of Ministers.

In the financial plan of the Programme is identified existing finance from state budget and additionally necessary finance for the realization of the activities of the Programme [7].

The realization of Latvian sport strategic planning can be analyzed in three stages:

Stage 1: the formulation of the strategy

Although the Law of Sport was confirmed in 2002, the first sport policy planning document “Basic Statement for Sport Policy in the period from 2004 to 2009” was ratified by the Latvian Cabinet of Ministers on September 15 with The Regulation Nr. 632. This document was worked out to determine long-term aims and main directions of activity in the policy of the sphere of sport, form united state policy in the sphere of sport, put in order planning system in the state, making it more effective and strengthening connection with the planning of state budget, as well as form more effective system of reports, evaluating policy.

“Basic Statement for Sport Policy in the period from 2004 to 2009” includes:

1. Problems, for the solution of which it is necessary to implement united government policy.
2. Basic principles of sport policy.
3. Goals and aims of sport policy.
4. Expected results of the policy.
5. Directions of activity.

In this document is defined that the goal of Latvian national sport policy is to develop healthy, physically and mentally developed personalities by addressing the following key issues:

- insufficient state support in the organisation of children’s school team

tournaments, as well as children and youngster insufficient involvement in sport classes and activities;

- insufficient number of sports facilities in the country as a whole, especially bad condition of school sports facilities or the lack of them, both in urban and rural areas;
- lack of sport managers and highly qualified sports specialists in schools, sports schools and sport organisations;
- lack of qualified sport medicine specialists in athlete health care and medical surveillance activities;
- incomplete support system of top athletes and sport teams in the country, insufficient provision for qualitative studies and training opportunities in higher education institutions;
- insufficient state support for the activity of sport clubs and state recognized and registered sport federations, societies and associations;
- insufficient state social guarantees for outstanding athletes, sports specialists and coaches;
- lack of public understanding about sport for disabled and limited access to sport facilities for people with special needs [8].

Also, in this Document is defined, that the goal of Latvian sport policy is to form healthy, physically and mentally developed personalities [8].

Stage 2: the implementation of the strategy

To carry out activities, defined in the “Basic Statement for Sport Policy in the period from 2004 to 2009”, the Latvian Cabinet of Ministers on October 31, 2006 with The Regulation Nr. 838 ratified the “National Programme for Sport development in the period from 2006 to 2012”. The Programme includes:

1. Most essential indicators for the characterization of the fulfillment of the Programme, indicating the number per year:
 - The number of people, involved in physical activities;
 - The number of prepared high class sportspersons;
 - Built and renovated sport objects;

- The number of people with disability involved in sport, who have reached highly valuable results.
2. Main tasks for reaching the results of the Programme. In the Programme are set forth 5 tasks, reflected in the following parts:
- *Children and Youth sport*: normative acts, investigations and information, the system of sportsperson preparation and competitions, health care and social guarantees.
 - *High achievement sport*: normative acts, investigations and information, the system of sportsperson preparation and competitions, health care and social guarantees.
 - *Sports for all*: normative acts, investigations and information, the system of sportsperson preparation and competitions.
 - *Sport for people with disability*: normative acts, investigations and information, the system of sportsperson preparation and competitions, health care and social guarantees, education and further education, international cooperation.
 - *Sport complexes*: normative acts, the development of sport buildings, institutional system.

Subtasks of each task are reflected in the following indicators:

- The direction of activity in Basic Statement.
- Time of implementation.
- Finances (in lats) for the implementation of subtasks of budget in 2006 and additional financing in the period from 2007 to 2012.
- Responsible/involved institutions.
- Planned result [6].

Stage 3: the evaluation and control of the result

To carry out the implementation of the document of strategic planning “National Programme for Sport development in the period from 2006 to 2012”, the Ministry of Education and Science in 2009 has worked out the informative statement “Intermediary Informative Statement about the Fulfillment of the Programme

for National Sport Development in 2006-2012". In this document is analyzed the fulfillment of the Programme for National Sport Development in 2006-2012 according to its parts in the time period from 2007 to 2008. The results are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2 [2]

The part of the Programme	Fulfillment according to programme	Possible to fulfill, but additional financing is necessary	Not possible to fulfill due to lack of financing or its reduction	Total
Children and youth sport	19 (63%)	3 (10%)	8 (26%)	30
High achievement sport	20 (86%)	-	3 (13%)	23
Sport for all	11 (91%)	-	1 (8%)	12
Sport for people with disability	15 (88%)	-	2 (11%)	17
Sport complexes	9 (75%)	-	3 (25%)	12
TOTAL	74 (78%)	3 (3%)	17 (18%)	94

Table 2 confirms that the tasks set forth in "National programme for Sport development in the period of 2006-2012" have been almost completely realized.

The analysis of strategic planning in Latvian sport policy was complicated due to the fact that no institution –either governmental or non-governmental– performs recording and analysis of the indicators of "National Programme for Sport development in the period from 2006 to 2012". The information accessible in the Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 [4]: Sport statistics from Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia in year 2006-2009

Indicator	2006	2007	2008
Sport teachers or lecturers	1929	1896	1715
Coaches	1499	1573	1487
Sport managers	692	724	702
Sport employees - specialists	4120	4193	3904
The objects of sport complexes	2960	3039	3077

For carrying out its activity statistical information about sport is also summarized by the society “Latvian Council of Sports Federations”, but only according to the following indicators:

- The number of occupied persons in corresponding sport;
- Sportive achievements;
- Government financing allocated to the kind of sport [1].

But it is very important to analyze also other indicators – the number of sport schools and number of students and trainers, the number of new sport facilities and new parts of sport facilities, and also the national budget of sport.

The statistics about the number of federations, occupied persons and youth is summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: The number of federations, occupied persons and youth in year 2006-2009

	2006	2007	2008	2009
Federations	63	68	71	74
Occupied persons	98 831	97 948	105 407	100 745
Youth	59 484	60 470	64 238	59 886

As it is summarized in Table 3, the number of federations in year 2006-2009 grows all the time but the count of occupied persons and the count of youth in the year 2009 decreased in comparison with year 2008.

In period from year 2006-2009 the most successful year for Latvian athletes was year 2007. A detailed summary of sportive achievements is reflected in Table 4.

Table 4: Awarded places in World and European championships in 2006-2009

	2006			2007			2008			2009		
Places	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
WCh	2	3	2	8	4	5	3	1	3	4	6	3
ECh	4	9	3	4	7	3	9	4	8	2	4	10
WC	2	-	1		1	1	-	1	3	-	1	1
EC	1	1	2	1	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-

In the period of year 2006-2009 was the Olympic Games in Turin and Olympiad in Beijing. For the Latvian Olympic Team the most successful was the

Olympiad in Beijing where the Latvian Olympic Team got all sets of medals. Awarded places are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5: Awarded places in Olympic Games in year 2006-2009

Places	2006 Turin	2008 Beijing
1	-	1
2	-	1
3	1	1

An important indicator of development of sport is statistics about sport schools which is summarized in Table 6.

Table 6: The number of sport schools, number of students and trainers and number of types of sport in sport schools in 2006-2009 [9]

School year	Sport schools	Students	Trainers	Types of sport
2005/2006	73	31 772	1168	37
2006/2007	73	31 891	1173	38
2007/2008	77	32 161	1282	38
2008/2009	76	31 327	1199	38

As it is summarized in Table 6, in school year 2008/2009 the number of students and trainers are decreased in comparison with school year 2008/2009.

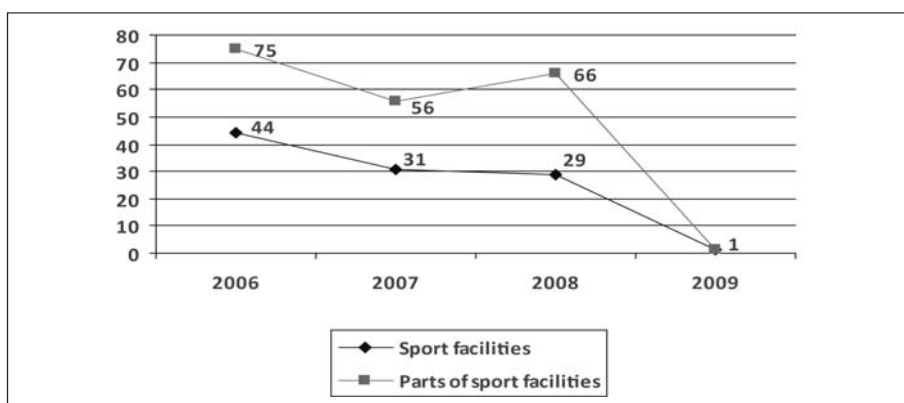


Figure 1. The number of new sports facilities and parts of sport facilities in year 2006-2009 [9]

For development of sport one of the most important factors is infrastructure. Statistics about new sport facilities and objects in period 2006-2009 is summarized in Figure 1.

As it is summarized in Figure 1, in year 2006-2009 the number of new sport facilities and parts of sport facilities are variable but the worse situation was in year 2009 where there was only one new sport facility and one new part of sport facility.

One of the main factors for sport development is national budget for sport. The dynamics of national budget for sport in year 2006-2009 is summarized in Figure 2.

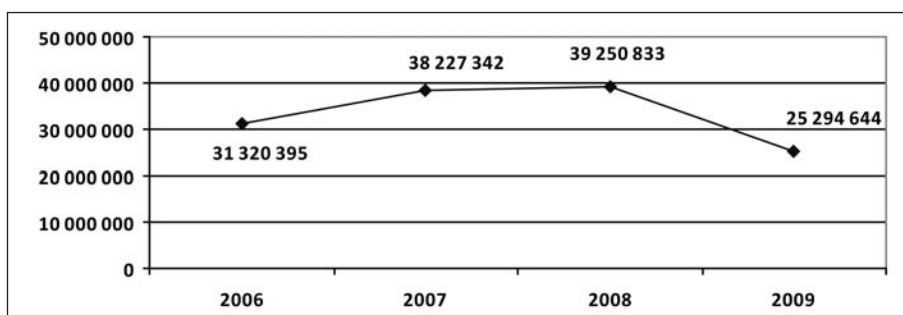


Figure 2. National budget (EUR) of sport in 2006-2009 [9]

The Figure 2 shows that national budget of sport was very mutable – in year 2008 in comparison with year 2006 it increased by 25% but in year 2009 in comparison with year 2008 it was less than 36%.

Evaluating the impact of the strategic planning document “National sport development programme for 2006-2012” on the development of sport in general, was carried out the survey of the officials of National sport federations. The Latvian National Sport Federation (further in the text: *sport federation*) has the right to manage and coordinate the activities or in the sphere of activity in the country, therefore sports federation leading managers are the ones who best understand the situation in sport. On this basis, was carried out the survey of sports federation leading managers - General Secretaries or presidents to find the views of these officials about the realization of the “National sports development programme for 2006-2012” in the period from 2006 to 2009. The survey took

place from December 2010 until March 2011. The questionnaire asked about the impact of the National sport development programme on the overall development of sport in the period from 2006 to 2010, the impact on the development of particular branches of sports, the factors that significantly affect the sports federation work, etc. Data were processed with the methods of mathematical statistics. The study found that the “National sport development programme for 2006-2012” has partly contributed to the development of sport in the country. The distribution of respondent answers is shown in Figure 3.

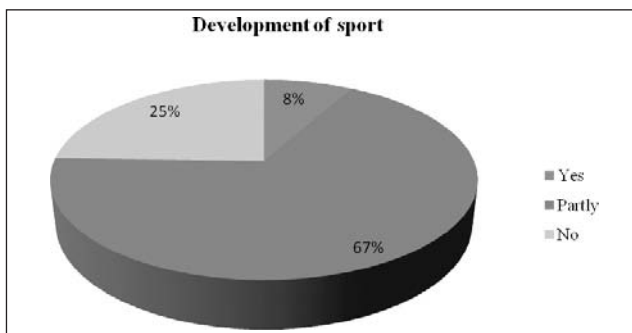


Figure 3. Views of the officials of sport federations about the influence of “National sport development programme for 2006-2012” on the development of sport.

As shown in Figure 3, 67% of sport federation leading managers consider that the National sport development programme has partly contributed to the development of sport in Latvia, 25% of respondents hold the view that this document has not promoted the development of sport in Latvia, and 8% believe that it has promoted the development of sport in Latvia.

Analyzing sport federation leading managers views on the development of particular branches of sport, were obtained the following results: in the period from 2006-2009 in such branches of sport as “top level sport” “child and youth sport” and “mass sport” there has been partial progress, but in “sport for disabled” there has been no progress.

Sports federation officials had the opportunity to express their views about solving the problems identified in strategic planning documents. The obtained information indicates that there is still:

- insufficient number of sports buildings;
- shortage of qualified specialists in sport medicine;
- insufficient child and youth involvement in sport;
- lack of sport managers and highly qualified professionals;
- incomplete top level athlete and sport teams support system in the country;
- insufficient state support for the activities of sports organisations in the country;
- insufficient state social guarantees for outstanding athletes, sports professionals, coaches;
- insufficient public understanding about sport for disabled.

None of the problems is considered to be solved.

Sport federation officials were invited to prioritize factors affecting the work of federations. As affecting factors were offered: federation management, work of sport specialists, national sport policy, accessibility of sport facilities and financial resources. The obtained results are summarized in Figure 4.

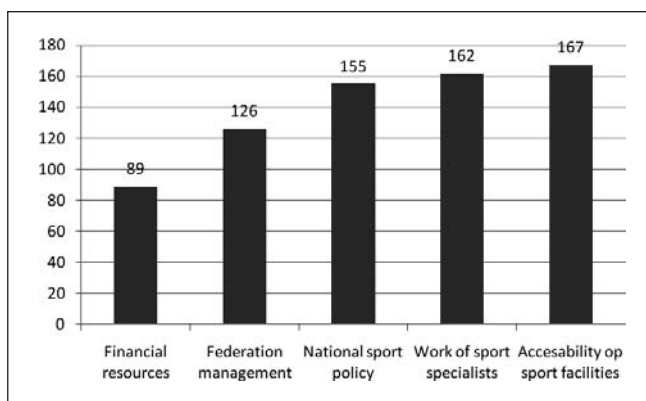


Figure 4. Factors affecting the work of sport federations

As shown in Figure 4, sport federation leading managers as key factor influencing the work of the Federation mention financial resources, second is “federation management”, which is followed by “national sport policy”. As factors least of all influencing the work of federations are mentioned “work of sports specialists” and “accessibility of sport facilities”.

Conclusions

1. Latvian sport development strategy is worked out in accordance with theoretical insights of management.
2. Tasks set forward in the “National sport development programme 2006-2012” are almost completely realized; however, 67% of sport federation leading managers consider that the National sport development programme has partly contributed to the development of sport, 25% of respondents hold the view that this document has not promoted the development of sport in Latvia, and 8% of respondents believe that it has contributed to the development of sport in Latvia.
3. The state does not support the obtaining of statistical indicators, characterizing the development of sport, and it makes it difficult to evaluate reaching the aims of sport policy. Sport federation leading managers consider that in such branches of sport as “top level sport”, “children and youth sport” and “mass sport” there has been partial progress, but in the “sport for disabled” there has been no progress.
4. With the worsening of the economic situation in the country, government funding for sport has been dramatically reduced. This is also the leading managers’ point of view about the main factor affecting the development of sport, as the second factor is mentioned: “federation management”, which is followed by the factor “national sport policy”. In their turn, as the factors least of all affecting the work of federations are mentioned: “work of sports specialists” and “accessibility of sport facilities”.

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EVALUATE SUSTAINABILITY OF OLYMPIC GAMES AND OTHER SPORTS MEGA-EVENTS

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Over the past decade, the sustainability of the Olympic Games gradually became a major issue. Mega-events such as the Olympic Games definitely have a large impact on the city, its inhabitants and the region. Hosting the Olympic Games deeply modify the shape of the city, and bear economic, social and environmental influences. Driven by environmental protection and sustainable development awareness, the IOC revised its charter and included this following mention:

“(Mission and role of the IOC) to encourage and support responsible concerns for environmental issues, to promote sustainable development in sport and to require that the Olympic Games are held accordingly”.

In 1996, the IOC adopted its own Agenda 21 to encourage members of the sport movement to actively participate in sustainable development. More recently, the IOC sustainability policies and recommendation number 19 from the IOC Conference in Copenhagen in 2009:

“The Olympic Movement fully embraces the importance of embedding the key values of environmental protection, development and

sustainability within the Olympic ideals” and “As a part of this commitment... the IOC should accelerate the integration of sustainability principles in the hosting of Olympic Games to safeguard their status as a premier event”.

Evaluate sustainability

Since then, to assist the Olympic Games Organising Committees, the IOC has been developing the OGI (Olympic Games Impact) with the help of the AISTS (International Academy of Sports Science and Technology). The Vancouver 2010 Olympic Games were the first Games compelled to undertake several OGI studies as part of their Host City Contracts with the IOC. Among the four mandatory reports, Vancouver already handed out two of them.

Indeed, this programme requires the host city to collaborate with an independent research team in order to analyze the social, economic and environmental indicators and to publish their results four times in a row during the period that lasts from the bid process until two years after the Games are completed. The OGI covers a wide area of impacts, which are assessed by the use of 126 indicators (44 economics, 34 environmental and 48 socio-cultural indicators).

Recently, London 2012 came up with a new sustainability reporting framework: the GRI (Global Reporting Initiative). It includes 74 indicators dispatched in fields such as economics, environment, labor practices, human rights, society, and product responsibility. This tool aims at quantitatively defining the impact of the Olympic Games over a long period of time.

However, this contribution would not try to analyze the impact of the Olympic Games through the many indicators that have already been developed to assess sustainability. It would rather suggest a different approach namely: to carefully examine through a model of public policy evaluation the adequacy between the outcomes, the expected sustainability and the resulting one.

More precisely we should argue that there might be several sustainable ways to host Olympic Games rather than a unique one. Therefore the Olympic Games

organisers together with the public authorities should rather make use of various criteria and related strategies in order to make decisions that are both efficient and sustainable for a specific situation: given Games in a given country inside a given region. Hence, to analyze the results of their decisions –the impact of their choices in term of sustainable development– we should evaluate their action as a particular policy.

Olympic Games and other sports mega-events as a public policy

This approach is based on a model of public policy developed by Knoepfle and published in Knoepfle, Larrue and Varone (2002). This suggests to consider a public policy as a whole characterized by the definition of a given public issue, actors, resources and undermined with a causal hypothesis and hypothesis for interventions.

A public policy is defined as followed by Knopfle & al. (2002):

“A public policy constitutes an inter-connected structure of decisions or activities, intentionally coherent, carried out by various actors –public and at time private– whose resources, institutional adherences and interests vary, with a view to resolving, in a targeted way, a problem politically defined as being collective. This structure of decisions and activities gives rise to formalized acts, varying in terms of constraints, that aim to modify the behaviors of social groups who are at the origin of the collective problem to be resolved (target groups) in the interest of those social groups subjected to the negative effect of the said problem (final beneficiaries).”

As demonstrated by Olivier Mutter (2007) in detail, the Olympic Games can be considered as a public policy whose main characteristics are:

1. The definition of a public problem to be solved;
2. The presence of specific actors: political administrative, target groups, final beneficiaries, those who derive benefit and those suffering harm;
3. The cycle of a public policy;

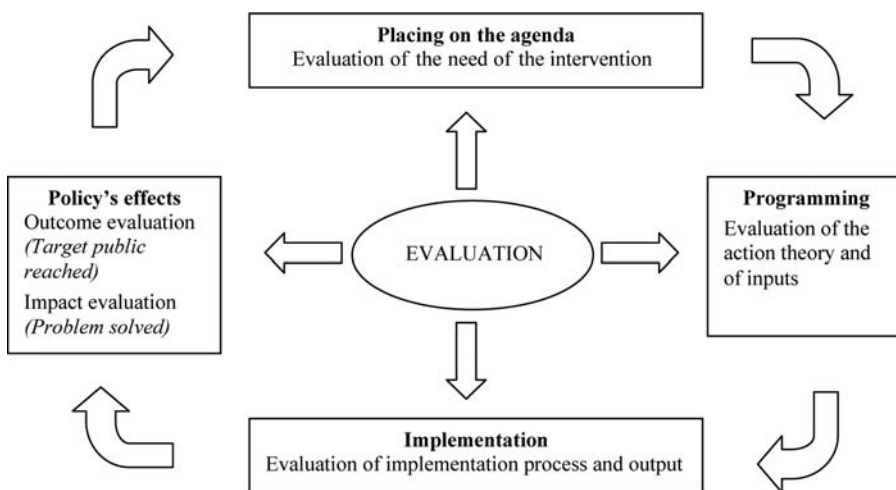
4. Public problems that are solvable bear different types when considering the collective benefits that result from the overall exercise of organising the Olympic Games: urban development, sport facilities, marketing for the territory, tourist promotion, infrastructure development, political marketing.

According to Knopfel & al. (2002), the public policy can be conceptualized as cycle moving from a public problem to the evaluation of the public policy implementation.

1. Placing on the agenda: definition of the problem.
2. Programming: formulating the policy and the political programming, i.e. the choice of objectives.
3. Implementation: adapting the policy's programme to the concrete situations encountered.
4. Evaluation: determine the results and effects.

Evaluation of a public policy

More specifically, we argue with Horber-Papazian (2009) that the evaluation can occur at each stage of public policy.



At this point, we should clarify the specificity of the evaluation in relation to monitoring. Both of these practices use indicators, but they are two distinguished methods with different goals. Concerning these two approaches the logic is different. In the case of monitoring (or reporting), the method is to present all the indicators required to manage a project, whereas in the case of evaluation, the method is to select the indicators that highlight the features to analyze.

Monitoring is based on a set of indicators systematically collected throughout the project process. The indicators are defined on the basis of target sets and objectives, and are used to grab a part of reality. The monitoring will provide useful information on an ongoing basis and so will provide a possible improvement of the project. This should definitely work as a valuable tool for project management¹. The monitoring may highlight the dysfunctions, but it is unable to determine the causes.

Whereas monitoring is descriptive method, evaluation is the answer to a proper question. Instead of a description of the reality, it is but an explanation. According to Horber-Papazian (2010) an “evaluation is a process that allows to systematically determine consistency, relevance, efficacy, efficiency and effectiveness of either projects or public policies. It also allows to highlight the reasons and factors explaining the results”.

Within this model, three different kinds of results are taken into account:

- *Outputs* are products or services provided by the public administration. These are the effective results of the implementation of the public policy.
- *Outcomes* are the (intended or not) effects of public policy on the behavior of target groups.
- *Impacts*² are (intended or not) effects of outputs on the issue to be solved.

Effect evaluation should consist in taking care of the following five notions³:

1. *Effectiveness* analyzes whether the outcomes conform to the expected

1. Shapiro Janet.

2. Terminology according to the Horber – Papazian model (2010).

3. Knoepfle & al. (2002 : 251).

ones. It measures the degree of matching between the policy objectives and the behavior of target groups. One of the dimensions of this evaluation is causal. This evaluation provides answer to the following questions: Do the outcomes break out as expected, or not? Do the outputs produce the expected effects on the target group? The effectiveness also involves comparing the way the consequences to the target groups should with the behavioral changes induced by actually implementing the policy. In this case, the evaluation compares two states of the world: namely the ideal world to the real one. Moreover the latter dimension of the evaluation is normative, because it takes into account the discrepancy between *what is* and *what should be*.

2. *Efficacy* relates the observed impacts to the objectives. This evaluation compares the expected impacts to the ones that occur in reality. It provides an answer to questions such as: Is there a real change as the final beneficiaries of the policy are concerned? Were the right things done to get the expected result? This evaluation also admits both a normative and a causal dimension. Indeed evaluating efficacy requires a causal reconstruction of the relation between public policy and social reality.
3. *Allocative efficiency* compares the impact with the committed resources. This evaluation may be seen as a cost-benefits analysis. This evaluation provides answer to the following questions: Could the same impact have resorted of less resource? Could we get an improvement of the impacts keeping the same resources? According to Knoepfle & al. (2002: 257) "the evaluation of allocative efficiency only matters once the degree of effectiveness has been established".
4. *Pertinence* concerns the link between the objectives and the issue to be resolved. This evaluation is the most closely related to politics, for a policy is only relevant when the objectives are tailored to the problem.
5. *Productive efficiency*: compares the outputs to the inputs. In this kind of evaluation the effect on the society or on the environment are completely evaluated. The reason for that is the major emphasis on the cost-services computation.

By taking into account the different stages of a public policy, this kind of model has the advantage of providing multiple objects of evaluation. Some of these objects of evaluation are briefly outlined below⁴.

<i>Stage of public policies</i>	<i>Evaluation's objects</i>
Placing on the agenda (evaluation of the need of the intervention programme)	Nature of the needs and the problems requiring an intervention
	Identification of the target group and the final beneficiaries
	Resources necessary and existing
	Feasibility, appropriateness and acceptability of an intervention
	Adequacy between the objectives and the problem to be solved
Programming (evaluation of the action theory and of inputs)	Adequacy between the causal hypothesis and the problem to be solved
	Adequacy between the resources (input) and the problem be solved
	Adequacy between the intervention programme and the problem be solved
	Adequacy between the public policy and the representations of different actors
	Consistency of the intervention programme
Implementation (evaluation of implementation process and outputs)	Adequacy between the implementation actions and the problem to be solved
	Adequacy between the outputs and the intervention programme
	Operational efficacy (adequacy outputs – operational objectives)
	Operational efficiency (adequacy outputs – inputs)
	Effectiveness (target group reached)
Policy's effects Outcome and impact evaluation	Behavior modification of the target group
	Political efficacy (problem solved)
	Political efficiency (cost – problem solved)
	Indirect effects (unexpected, unintended, negative or positive)

The availability of indicators for all stages of the public policy cycle implies the development of a robust information system before the event we want to evaluate takes place but also during and after.

4. Horber – Papazian (2010).

Evaluate sustainability of Olympic Games and Sports mega-events through a model of public policy

We now come to a second part where the leading questions will be: For what reasons is it better to assess the sustainability with this public policy evaluation model? This requires to investigate the limitation of other models and numerous advantages brought by the evaluation of public policies?

Let's come back to the evaluation proposed in the GRI. As we mentioned earlier in this article, the GRI is a tool aiming at quantitatively defining the impact over a long period of time. This reporting is used as well by multinational companies as by organising committees of Olympic Games. The purpose of these sustainable reports is to “provide a balanced and reasonable representation of the *sustainability performance* of a reporting organisation – including both positive and negative contributions”⁵.

By considering only the sustainability performance, GRI indicators cover mainly the description of the outputs and the impacts of the project. On this basis, it is possible to make normative diachronic or synchronic comparisons. For instance to benchmark “performance with respect to laws, norms, codes, performance standards”⁶ (normative comparison) or to compare “performance within an organisation over time” (diachronic comparison) or “between different organisations” (synchronic comparison). All these comparisons are descriptive. Of course, they provide information which enable adaptation and improvement over time. They make a valuable decision support tool. Anyhow without any design of evaluation that makes use of some of these indicators, it seems impossible to test the causal link between the outputs provided and the effects observed.

The model of public policy evaluation allows by the use of an evaluation design to reconstitute the logic of the programme (the objectives set, the inputs, the measure taken to implement it, the outputs, the outcomes and the impacts⁷). On this basis, the central questions of the evaluation are defined and a causality

5. Global Report Initiative, p. 3.

6. Idem.

7. European Commission.

model⁸ elaborated. To test the hypothesis of the causality model, each concept must be translated into indicators. The empirical verification must highlight links between the various variables by using different ways of comparison.

By analyzing how inputs, outputs, outcomes or impacts are connected, this kind of evaluation may highlight unexpected situations. For instance: output without impact, impact without outcome or outcome without impact.

Proving the causality is difficult to establish, but data comparison allows to underline several correlations.

To draw a conclusion of the comparison between monitoring sustainability and evaluate it as a public policy, we should notice one of the most important aspects of public policy. The main characteristic of public policies lies in solving problem and hence in changing behaviors of target group. This design involves an evaluation more complex than a simple monitoring of project outputs.

We argued with Mutter (2007) that Olympic Games can be considered as a public policy.

And as a matter of fact Olympic Games can be seen as a ten year public policy for the host territory. So why don't we evaluate it with adapted tools?

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8. According to Horber Papazian 2009, causality model is the schematic expression of an explanation. The model establishes a causal link between independent variables and dependent variables. These links form hypotheses.

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CHANGING THE PERCEPTION OF HOSTS THROUGH OLYMPIC GAMES – A SIGNALING APPROACH

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Introduction

Staging mega sport events (MSE) like the Olympic Games or the FIFA Football World Championship brings tangible and intangible effects for the host. While there is controversy whether the monetary impact is positive for the host (Matheson 2009; Heisey 2009; Baade & Matheson 2004; Késenne 1999; Crompton 1995; Getz 1994), a broader consensus exists on the potential positive effects of intangible factors induced by staging a MSE (Szymanski 2002). The most prominent intangible effect is the free promotion for the location (Preuss 2007a; Chalip & Costa 2006), which can be used as a signaling tool for the host and effect the host's perception as, for example, a business location or tourist destination by aiming at the reduction of informational deficiencies with regard to potential investors, visitors and other relevant target groups. Further, building up symbolic capital, which is based on honour, prestige or recognition, by using costly signaling can also be a goal of staging a MSE.

The author has collected and analysed Internet news reports on the 2008 Beijing (n=780) and the 2010 Vancouver Olympic Games (n=380) in the context of signaling theory. This was done using a quantitative content analysis and

a coding frame, revealing interesting patterns in the media coverage and differences between the news coverage from the host nations and other areas of the globe (USA, Europe, Africa, Asia and the rest of the world). These results are interpreted and discussed in the signaling context, with the focus of the analysis of the news reports on the 2008 Beijing Games being on news reports in English language for a more international reception and the focus of the Vancouver analysis on German news reports, taking a closer look at the reception in a more confined geographical and cultural area.

Research questions are, firstly, what are the foci of the signaling-related media coverage of both the 2008 and the 2010 Olympic Games? Secondly, the relation of positive and negative news reports on these signaling-related topics will be analysed, giving insight on the effectiveness of these signaling endeavours.

Literature Review

This study is based on a quantitative content analysis of Internet news reports about the Olympic Games 2008 and 2010 (see Berelson, 1971; Krippendorff, 2004). However, the intention is not to analyse the content in terms of sport coverage, but the information produced about China and Vancouver/Canada as a potentially interesting place for tourists and foreign direct investments.

In the past some research was done on media content analysis of Olympic Games (Moragas Spà, Rivenburgh, & Larson, 1995; Schantz & Gilbert, 2001), however, the author could find only a few studies (Bladen, 2008; Finlay & Xin, 2008; Horne, 2008) and one research proposal (Luo et al., 2008) on Beijing 2008, with none of them focusing on signaling.

The special focus on signaling through a mega (sport) event is not new. Due to the great worldwide interest in the Games and the “media hype” (Preuss, 2007b), Olympic Games provide an important public relations opportunity. In earlier times, one motivation to stage the Games was to demonstrate the superiority of a political system. The communist regimes of the 1970s and 1980s as well as the German Reich in 1936 saw the Games as a chance to prove the superiority of their systems (Krüger,

1972; Riordan, 2007; Riordan & Arnaud, 1998). More recently, the motivation has been to announce or demonstrate major changes in the host city and country to the world. For example, Munich wanted to show that West Germany had rid itself of its Nazi past (Daniels, 1996; Guttman, 2002). South Korea wanted to showcase its modern, high-technology national industries and replace its image as a developing country (Denis, Dischereit, Song, & Werning, 1988). Australia used the Games to enhance the tourist image of Australia as a whole and not just of Sydney (Morse, 2001) and was keen to raise its international profile as “being more than merely a good source for raw material” (Parker, 2001, p. 9). Finally, Beijing was keen to demonstrate the growing importance of China to the world economy by delivering “High-Tech Games” (Lin, 2004) as well as to demonstrate its great cultural past, which is of high interest for tourism. Further, Vancouver, British Columbia and Canada as a whole have also tried to leverage the attention on the Winter Olympic Games of 2010, which is at the moment being further analysed by the author in cooperation with Benoit Seguin from the University of Ottawa. Even though these previous examples seem to use the Olympics for signaling purposes, none of them were ever analysed using signaling theory as the foundation and theoretical framework. This is where this study comes in and breaks ground by analysing the use of major sport events as a signaling vehicle for the host city and nation (Preuss & Alfs, 2011)

Not much research is available regarding costly-signaling through mega sport events. Clausen (1997) first mentioned a kind of event signaling as a strategy to use cultural events to signal information about a place. Kurscheidt (2006, 2009) and Preuss (2007a, 2007b) later investigated sport-event signaling in greater detail. Garcia (2007) also focused on Olympic Games signaling, but only indirectly on the production of cultural symbolic capital. Preuss and Alfs (2011) were the first authors to publish a paper specifically on these signaling activities in the context of mega sport events, focusing on the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games.

Theoretical Framework

The main theory behind this study is signaling theory in its different forms (costly signaling and signaling to reduce informational deficiencies). Signaling is used

in many fields and aspects of life. It refers to sending out signals to convey information about otherwise hard to observe qualities of the sender in order to minimise the information asymmetry between the better informed sender and the less informed receiver or to accumulate symbolic capital with the receiver. There are many disciplines of science using signaling theory, such as information economics (Akerlof, 1970; Jensen & Meckling, 1976; Rothschild & Stiglitz, 1976; Spence, 1973), business and marketing (Boulding & Kirmani, 1993; Cai, Duxbury, & Keasey, 2007), anthropology, biology and evolutionary science (Bliege-Bird & Smith, 2005; Cronk, 1994; Getty, 2002; Nur & Hasson, 1984; Palmer & Pomianek, 2007; Zahavi, 1975), and sociology (Bourdieu, 1977; Mauss, 1924; Veblen, 1899/1994).

Signaling is a way to bridge situations of asymmetric information between a better-informed sender and a less informed receiver by sending signals to convey not directly observable qualities or to produce symbolic capital with the receiver.

This study will focus specifically on two of the previously identified signaling theories, in order to show how China used the Beijing Olympics to signal information to target groups, particularly tourists and decision makers of international corporations and how the situation in Vancouver 2010 differed from the situation in Beijing 2008 and how these differences are reflected in the analysed signaling patterns. Firstly, parallels to the reduction of information asymmetry as used in the principal-agent-theory by Spence (1973), who first explained the theoretical framework in his Job Market-Signaling example, are drawn. Secondly, the author will draw attention to the costly-signaling theory developed in particular in anthropology and sociology (Bourdieu, 1977; Veblen, 1899/1994; Zahavi, 1975). These two forms of signaling theory will be described in a more detailed fashion in the following section.

Signaling theory is an essential part of the principal-agent theory described by Jensen and Meckling (1976). A fundamental aspect of the principal-agent theory is the information asymmetry between a better-informed agent and a less-informed principal. The principal does not exactly know the intention and the motivation of the agent. Agent and principal have an overall common aim, however the agent does not only want to maximise the principals benefit, but also his

own. In the signaling approach, the agent can send signals to convey otherwise hardly observable qualities and information to the principal and thereby lower the probability of an adverse selection. However, it is only beneficial for the agent to produce a signal if the advantage of the production of signals is greater than the costs to produce it, while the opposite is true for the competitors (Picot, Dietl, & Frank, 2005), which is also called a separating equilibrium (Spence, 1973).

Another type of signaling theory is the costly-signaling theory, which was first mentioned by Veblen (1899/1994) and later published in the context of theoretical biology by Zahavi (1975). Also called handicap principle, this theory describes the use of costly signals, which are supposed to be hard to imitate because of inherent signaling costs, to reliably convey information about the sender. The sender has to invest significantly into these signals and the less they are of use the more trustworthy they are. An example from biology for costly signals are large antlers on deer, which are hard to maintain and can be seen as a potential risk to the owner. So, being able to maintain such large (not useful and therefore risky) antlers signals eligibility for being a potential mate or ally (Palmer & Pomianek, 2007). Veblen (1899/1994) and Bourdieu (1977) illustrate costly signaling by saying that conspicuous expenditures are a strategic action designed to build up and accumulate symbolic capital.

Whenever communication in the context of mega sport events is not based on facts but on overall public relations messages, such as showing the superiority of a political system, the strength of a country or its development, costly-signaling can be observed quite often.

Research Design and Method

This study is based on a quantitative content analysis (Krippendorff, 2004; Berelson, 1971), in this case a quantitative analysis of Internet news reports using a coding frame.

The data collection was done using “Google Alerts”. This service sends daily e-mails with links to internet news reports on –in this case– the keywords “2008

Beijing Olympic Games” and “2010 Vancouver Winter Olympics”. In the settings used for this study, the “News” setting was chosen, sending only links to news reports on the topic. The news reports are sorted using a variation of the Google Page Rank algorithm, prioritising the ones most linked to and most read, representing a good measure for the subjective relevance to the internet users. The reports were collected between 4 weeks before and after the events, generating $n=780$ (Beijing) and $n=380$ (Vancouver). These news reports were analysed by their central topic and whether they were positive/neutral or negative. The results were interpreted in the signaling context, relating them to the three signaling dimensions mentioned before (reduction of information asymmetry for business and for tourism; building up of symbolic capital). Since the assortment of news reports by Google Alerts concerning the content is not given, because the selection is based on the links from other pages to each news report, this analysis is not representative of the overall content that was given by all news reports. Neither the overall number of news reports, nor the overall number of reports on a specific topic can be detected. However, using Google Alerts, the English Internet news reports which were presumably most viewed and positioned in locations well linked with other pages were collected (see also Preuss & Alfs, 2011).

The collected news reports were coded and distributed by four categories: date, origin, topic and judgement of the topic (positive/neutral vs. negative). The origin of the news reports was differentiated between the host, North America, Europe, Africa, Oceania including Australia, Asia/Middle East and the rest of the world. The topics of the news reports were sorted into 27 categories, providing precision, exhaustivity and exclusivity (Bortz & Döring, 2006).

Results

The results are laid out in the following chapter. First, all collected news reports were sorted in to different categories according to their topic or topics. Out of the news reports on the key words “Beijing Olympic Games 2008” ($n=780$), most were sport-related news ($n=303$), followed by news reports on other or non-

Olympic topics (n=263). The remaining 182 news reports were on signaling-relevant topics, with 81 on business-related information asymmetry, 47 on system criticism, 30 on tourism-related information asymmetry and 24 on issues related to costly signaling. The collected news reports on the 2010 Vancouver Games using the key words “2010 Vancouver Winter Olympics” (n=380) showed a similar pattern with 213 news reports on sport-related topics, 72 on non-Olympic or other topics and the rest of the news reports on signaling-related topics with a distribution of 44 on business-related information asymmetry, 41 on costly signaling, 21 on tourism-related information asymmetry and 13 on system criticism. A summary of the news reports collected and the categories concerning the topics provides a good overview (Table 1).

Table 1: News Reports collected and the allocation to the signaling and the other categories

#	Category	Content	N (Beijing)	N (VAN)	Category related to signaling theory
1	Sport	Sport-related news	303	213	logically the central messages of the Olympics and will not be analysed
2	Costly signaling	High Tech; architecture; great organisation	24	41	related to costly signaling (Symbolic Capital)
3	Information Asymmetry: Business	Business climate; people; organisational skills; security	81	44	related to reducing Information Asymmetry concerning the host as a business location
4	Information Asymmetry: Tourism	Tourism; people; environment	30	21	related to reducing Information Asymmetry concerning the host as a tourist destination
5	System criticism	Freedom of Press; Human rights; Natives	47	13	related to positive or negative criticism on the host
6	Others	Others and non- Olympic	263	72	Not related to the Olympics / categories – not analysed

Clearly, most news reports collected either had something to do with sport or with topics not related to the signaling categories. These news reports were not analysed in more detail. The author focused only on the signaling-relevant categories, which are laid out in figures 1 and 2.

Figure 1. Relation of the signaling-relevant Internet news reports in the context of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games.

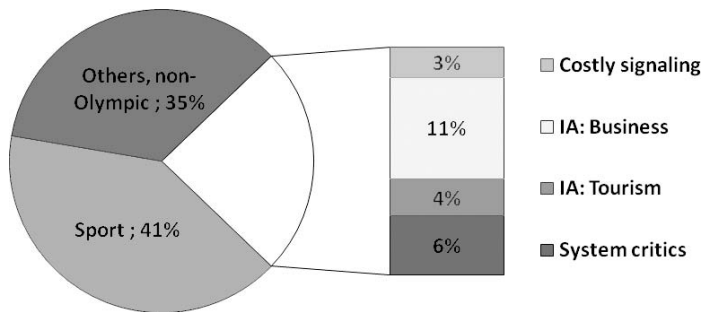
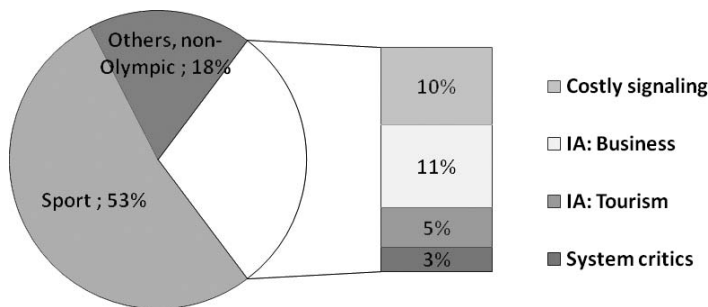


Figure 2. Relation of the signaling-relevant Internet news reports in the context of the 2010 Vancouver Games.



It is clearly visible, that out of the signaling-relevant news reports collected for the 2008 Beijing Games, the highest percentage is on business-related information asymmetry with 11% of the overall collected news reports, followed by six per cent on system criticism and four per cent on tourism-related information asymmetry and three per cent on costly signaling, respectively. These cumulated

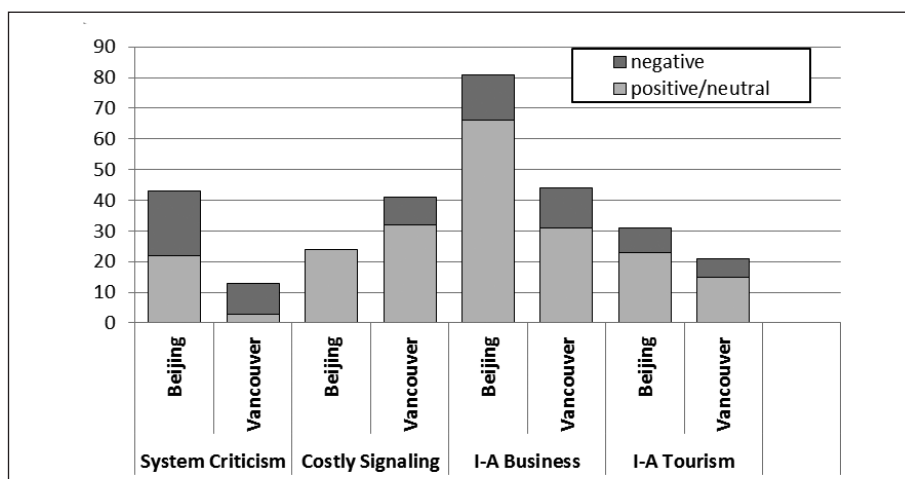
results include all collected news reports from all sources, not differentiating between the different origins.

Looking at the results for the Vancouver 2010 Games, the spread of the news reports amongst the categories is as follows: eleven per cent of the collected reports are on business-related information asymmetry topics, followed by ten per cent on costly signaling topics. Five per cent of the collected news reports were on tourism-related information asymmetry and three per cent on system criticism (see Fig. 2).

Putting the results of these two analyses in comparison and adding the judgment of the topics by the news reports, several similarities and differences can be observed. First of all, for both Olympic Games, the main focus of the signaling activities is on the reduction of information asymmetry for business target groups. For both events, the share of news reports on this category is the highest. The judgment of these news reports in for both Games is also similar, with most of the news reports judging the topic positive or neutral. The system criticism category, which includes all news reports about human rights including freedom of speech and freedom of press, and news reports on the (negative) treatment of the native population, is the category with the highest percentage of negative news reports for both the 2008 and the 2010 Games. For the 2008 Beijing Games, about half of all reports in this category were negative, including many reports about the treatment of minorities in China and the oppression of the freedom of speech and human rights in general. For the 2010 Vancouver Games, news reports on in this category dealt mostly with the inclusion and treatment of Native Americans in the context of the 2010 Games the anti-Olympic movement in general, since at the time of the data collection the application process of Munich for the Winter Games 2018 was in an intense phase and some opposition from the German population, especially from Garmisch Partenkirchen, used the media attention on Olympic Winter Games to publish news reports on the German application process. The costly signaling category is in both cases the category with the highest percentage of positive/neutral judgment news reports. For the 2008 Beijing Games, not one negative news report was detected. On the contrary, all news reports dealing with this topic did so in a positive way, highlighting the great venues

and the fast construction of the necessary infrastructure, for example. As far as the 2010 Vancouver Games are concerned, slightly more than 20 per cent of the news reports in this category were negative. Accordingly, almost 80 per cent were positive or neutral. Looking at the news reports from the category on decreasing the information asymmetry for tourism-related target groups, a high degree of similarity can be observed between the two analysed events. Around one quarter (25%) of the news reports within this category were negative and the rest either positive or neutral. Negative news reports within this category included reports on the environmental situation in Beijing, the mentality of the local population and landscape and scenery of the host area (see Fig. 3.)

Figure 3. Comparison of the relations between positive/neutral and negative signaling-related Internet news reports on Beijing 2008 and Vancouver 2010.



Discussion

The 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing and the 2010 Olympic Winter Games in Vancouver created an enormous media hype and many news reports all over the world. Many of them were related to signaling in all three analysed contexts (costly signaling, information asymmetry business & tourism).

The results illustrate that mega sport events, such as Olympic Games and

FIFA Football World Cups, can be used by the host to signal towards exterior audiences. This can help to change the image of the host and the perception of certain aspects of the host city or nation. This is not new for mega sport events, but has never been analysed before in the context of signaling theory. For example, in the case of the Beijing 2008 Games, the focus of this signaling was on the reduction of information asymmetry for business-related target groups like potential investors and business partners, followed by news reports criticising the system or aspects of it, for example freedom of speech and the treatment of Tibet. The situation of China and its centralised government enabled the host to coordinate the sent signals in a way it would not be possible in democratic societies, where there are several stake-holders involved who all can send their signals independently.

Taking advantage of the world-wide media attention to these mega sport events, “free riders” can also use signaling to try to reduce information asymmetries on topics not linked to these events. In China 2008, this was related to Tibetan conflicts as well as the attacks on the Olympic Torch Relay and other human rights issues in order to criticise the Chinese politics. This abuse of the Olympic media hype was also observable in Munich 1972 where Palestinians killed 11 Israeli athletes, in Sydney 2000 where there were many reports published on the treatment of Aborigines, and in Atlanta 1996 where news reports about the situation of the African American population were communicated. In the German Internet news reports analysed in the context of the 2010 Vancouver Winter Games, the main focus of these “free riders” was on the Munich 2018 application, which was heavily discussed in the German media at the time. Accordingly, the effectiveness of the signaling efforts for the host has to be determined more closely, since negative news reports may dampen the effect of the positive ones. However, the results show that in the daily ten best linked English news reports the positive news outweighed the negative news. It is in particular to be seen that even the reports on system criticism were not completely negative.

Limitations and Future Research

One aspect that has been criticised in this study is the selection process of Google Alerts and Google News, which delivers daily emails with links to the top 10 news reports on certain key words. This selection of news reports cannot be used to analyse the overall content of all Internet news reports on a subject, but it can very well be used as a tool to identify and collect those news reports most linked to and most read, which correlates with the highest subjective importance to readers and users of the Internet and therefore have the highest importance and impact.

Also, the coding process has to be optimised in the future, since the Beijing 2008 analysis was only done by one person, which can be regarded as subjective to a certain degree. For the Vancouver analysis, three different people coded the news reports, which showed, that there are individual differences in the perception of the news reports and their messages. Accordingly, it can be said, that it is not only important what is sent by the signal senders (in our case the host), but also –and even more importantly– what is received by the relevant target groups.

In the future, a closer look at the signal sending side, which is the host or the combination of stake-holders on the side of the host is necessary. This will be done for the Vancouver Games in cooperation with Benoit Seguin from the University of Ottawa. Further, analysing the next mega sport events like the 2012 Summer Games in London and 2014 in Sochi will be of high interest. This all should lead to a “best practice” guide for using mega sport events to change the perception of the host. Another interesting application of this body of knowledge is the combination of signaling and nation branding in the context of mega sport events. This is also being worked on by the author and Brendon Knott from Cape Town University, South Africa, in order to analyse the nation branding effect of the FIFA Football World Cup 2010 in South Africa.

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STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT FOR MARKETING IN EGYPTIAN SPORT ASSOCIATIONS – PROSPECTIVE STUDY

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Introduction

Due to the economic recession that hit the world the last two years; furthermore, the important decrease in government funding towards Egyptian sports Associations in recent years has left sport leaders with fewer choices than to consider alternate means of financial support. Marketing and sponsorship are new phenomena which appear as a magic solution. The tremendous growth of sponsorship has led to the misuse of the term “sponsorship”. People often use the term interchangeably with other terms like marketing, sport marketing and promotions.

Despite the fact that the Egyptian sports Associations arguably have had success in marketing themselves and generating commercial revenues through selling some sponsorship rights, sport marketing has developed at a slow and random pace. That was as a consequence of the nature and concept of sponsorship ambiguity in the sports environment in Egypt as well as the lack of awareness about rights and duties among the three stakeholders groups (sponsors, sponsees and agencies).

It is clear that sporting events have always been and are now more popular, not only among spectators, but also among sponsors. The Olympics, the recent

FIFA Soccer World Cup, Swimming Competitions, Motorsport, and Tennis are all given great prominence. As a result, sponsorship's importance as a marketing communications tool has increased significantly in comparison to traditional advertising aims, some researchers argue that "a sponsorship agreement is capable of producing a sustainable competitive advantage for a firm". This has placed additional pressures on measuring its effectiveness. Accountability is of paramount importance within business and especially within the marketing domain. Both parties (sponsor and sponsee) within a sponsorship relationship are interested in how the level of sponsorship affects key performance goals.

These and other events associated with the changing nature of sponsorship highlight the relevance of exploring the focal inter-firm exchange. From modest beginnings where a strategic rationale in support of the investment was a rarity, large-scale sponsorship relationships are now activated to achieve corporate and brand positioning objectives on a national, international, and global scale. The term "sponsorship-linked marketing" (Cornwell, 1995; Cornwell, Roy, & Steinfeld, 2001) depicts the strategies of firms like Nike, MasterCard, and Vodafone, which use sponsorship as a centerpiece of their communications strategies. Extending this concept further, Chadwick (2007) argues that the transactional view where sponsorship is restricted to an exchange of money and rights is now a thing of the past. In 320 Farrelly recent years, sponsorship has shifted from a marketing tool to a business platform where the need for strategic collaboration and mutually beneficial outcomes for both the sponsor and sport property is seemingly more vital.

This study captures the views of the sports marketing and sponsorship in Egypt trying to frame the future challenges for sport marketing in Egypt and future research should investigate each of the factors identified in this study in more depth; provide some recommendations to a strategic management model for sports marketing in Egyptian Sports Associations through prospection of sports industry in general and Egyptian sports associations in particular using SWOT analysis.

Literature Review

Cornwell (1995) defines “sponsorship-linked marketing as the orchestration and implementation of marketing activities for the purpose of building and communicating an association to a sponsorship”. Cornwell and Maignan (1998) also state that “sponsorship involves two main activities: (1) an exchange between a sponsor and a sponsee whereby the latter receives a fee and the former obtains the right to associate itself with the activity sponsored, and (2) the marketing of the association by the sponsor. Both activities are necessary if the sponsorship is to be a meaningful investment”. A sponsoring organisation can thus use and exploit the association with the sponsored object. Sponsorship objectives are varied (Farrelly & Quester, 2005a) and may relate to a range of brand and strategic objectives, however, there are often other motives (e.g. to maintain staff/channel member morale, having a profile relative to competitors, etc).

Bennett (1999) illustrated that “sponsorship is a powerful device for communicating with spectators at sporting events, and ...with team supporters who watch matches at home on television. Sponsorship appears to be effective not only for enhancing brand awareness and recall, but also for creating among supporters perceptions of widespread use of sponsoring firms’ products”. Madrigal (2000) illustrated that brands can significantly benefit from the strong emotions elicited by sport. Effective sponsorship arrangements can successfully tap into a consumer’s psychological connectedness with a sports team.

K. Almogi (1986) referred that the development issues are one of the main concerns of officials and leaders in various areas of life in Egypt; there is no doubt that the contribution of scientific research in issues of society is inevitable. Through renewed minds and scientific treatment of these issues, Egypt kept pace behind progress and development.

The increased burdens on the public budget of the State, which led to weak financial funding from the government had a great impact on the lack of financial capacity of the sports associations to do their duties and activities as best they could either on a local or an international level.

Pitts & Stotlar (2002) refer to the changes that have occurred to government

policies towards the sport led to the development of economic institutions' care for sports organisations around the world. In the United States of America, sport is funded through the private sector. But in Canada, Europe, Asia and many developing countries, governments are the main source of funding, and in times of economic hardship and during economic crises the governments tend to reduce support for the sport and demand that institutions, companies and even individuals together fill this gap in funding.

In this regard they stress that funding is vital and essential in various institutions, whether those institutions are non-profit or commercial enterprises; it must first provide financial resources to help them manage their activities efficiently and effectively and thus achieve the desired objectives and to ensure continuity and stay on the market, which is characterized by strong competition.

As seen (S. Shalabi, 2004) that the emerged of the marketing rights for sports organisations at the present time is the magic word that tends it to everyone, and there is much talk in of athletes responsible that marketing is the way of clubs and sports organisations to accomplish their marketing and economic objectives, within the requirements of globalization. It became clear that marketing can; but must play an important role in the management and major sports organisations in general and particularly in civil and governmental sports organisations, in light of the retreat of government funding.

In the opinion of H. Hamdi (1998) sports marketing is a kind of marketing that is affected by some of the elements like the political and economic system of the State; as there is a big difference between the sports marketing in the State, which depends on a market economy, where the sport is not supported by the governments. And the systems that depend on the state system, which rarely directed by the sports marketing and sports which, rely on governments in all aspects of exchange. Therefore (K. Darwish & M. Hassanein, 2004) insure that marketing is most importance and complex functions in sports organisations.

A. Mustafa (1994) also finds that marketing plays a key role in the strategic planning process in the organisation, as marketing reveals and evaluates the market conditions. Workers are concerned by the assessment of the opportunities

and threats surrounding environment as well as that; marketing submit the necessary information for each of the other functional areas in the Organisation.

F. Shusha (1999) argues that one of the most critical responsibilities which face the administration process is securing the survival and the continuation of the organisation to sustain its growth, profitability and stability in the long, medium, short and immediate terms. This requires forecasting of the environmental department to determine expected changes in the external environment; thus helping to identify opportunities, threats, strengths and weaknesses of the internal environment and assess the impact of future environmental factors on the organisation to determine the appropriate decision to deal with it, and then securing that need to be expected and explored in advance.

L. Fahey & R. Randall (1998) pointed that; no one dares to say that tomorrow will be a similar day; evidence of this, that today is very different from yesterday. Although that manager who drowns during planning a simplified strategy, assuming that tomorrow will be an extension of the line which is a link between yesterday and today, they cling to this belief especially when facing a hard situation.

It is also affirmed by both Garyhand & CK Parahalad (1994) that the need to crafting strategic architecture as a plan to identify future opportunities and what should be manufactured today to acquire the means necessary to gain a share of the proceeds future in the era of competition for the opportunity. The strategy is a mean to development, maximize resources and maximize shortages strategy; also they pointed out that the future must not only imagine, but be constructive.

According to Thiodor & Lifith (1994), the success and sustainability of any action requires compatibility with the future. He believes that the future will change everything around us, he pointed to the difficulties which may face the prediction accuracy of future events.

Despite the difficulties that may impede attempts to prospect and predict the future, but we find Dr. Ahmed Aboulmagd in his introduction of the book «Future Shock» for the writer A. Toffler –the Arabic version– (1990), had pointed out that the progress of new human societies and their ability to handle general problems associated with the rapid economic, social and complex development; is proof of the ability of those communities to imagine the future, prepare for it,

and planning for the future expectations and how to deal with it... The time lapse between the present and the future is about to vanish, if we never put a foot right in the future, the ability to overcome this shock is fraught with risks.

A. Toffler (1990) says, "The prediction of possible expectations is only a part of horizon time conversion for planners. The whole community should feel more about tomorrow, so we must expand our understanding of the future, and we must add art imagination to the discipline of science".

Toffler also pointed quoting Christophe Bertram –The Institute of Strategic Studies in London– about the concept of forecasting the future which is "predict the future is not to examine alternative choices, but is a presentation of the available choices".

Absolutely, no one can identify the future, but we can only reorganise our thoughts and deepen our assumptions and try to match them with the expected probabilities, and this is not an easy or simple task. In spite of that; we must erase from our imaginations that the future is completely unknown. But we should be motivated by the difficulties we face. This prompted the researcher to attempt to understand the future of sports marketing in Egyptian sports associations, try to predict its future, put scenarios to face the future and be ready for it. All this will be according to strategic management approach which guarantees success and continuity in all sporting activities. By this, the sports industry in Egypt will be more attractive for investments by monitoring the opportunities and threats of the future marketing of sports federations, monitoring the strengths and weaknesses which may help overcome funding problems faced by Egyptian sports associations and modeling a sample vision for the marketing strategic management in Egyptian associations to achieve the best use of available marketing chances and get ready to face all threats and prospective challenges. We hope to achieve the Egyptians' dream of reaching the global sport by meeting with the developed countries in a certain point in the future. Not just simply to walk on their fault and the transfer of their experience development in sport, this makes us not only dream of their competitions but progress on them.

Methodology

The purpose of this study is to design a strategic management model for sports marketing in Egyptian Sports Associations through prospection of sports industry in general and Egyptian sports associations in particular. And to gain insight among those who invest in the Egyptian sport property (sponsors) and those who are responsible for protecting and manage it against the threats of ambush marketing and clutter in the marketplace (sponsees) and those who used to play a mediating role which is impacting the sport sponsorship in Egypt.

This study utilized a modified Delphi technique (pre-questionnaire and three rounds) to determine the various scenarios of marketing sports in the future. An open-ended pre-questionnaire was mailed to 179 experts. These experts were randomly selected among 500 experts with at least 10 years of experience in sports media, sports administration, government and/or academics. A total of 144 persons completed the pre-questionnaire. And 12 from the cream of the sports experts in Egypt responded to 24 questions (3 rounds) analyzed the environments which are described above, the respondent's judgment as to the probability and the impact of the proposed expected events. Using a Likert Scale measurement, the respondents were then asked to qualify the kinds of impact (very positive to very negative) and their importance on sport marketing (very significant to not significant).

A qualitative design involving in-depth interviews was chosen for several reasons. Qualitative studies are an appropriate means of knowledge production where the subject area is broad and complex (Zaltman, LeMasters, & Heffring, 1982). A method that develops deep insights to uncover participants' tacit knowledge was required. Another reason was that in-depth interviews and case studies have been used successfully to study sponsorship and related issues on numerous occasions in the past (Berrett & Slack, 1999; Farrelly, Quester, & Greyser, 2005; Long, Thibault, & Wolfe 2004; Thibault & Harvey, 1997).

Given that the literature has focused primarily on the consumer side of these issues, it is felt that a significant contribution to the literature can be made by expanding the scope of analysis. In this regard, a major, three-part study involv-

ing both primary and secondary data was undertaken. First, to gain an in-depth understanding of the factors underlying the future of sport marketing and sponsorship among Stakeholders in Egypt, in-depth expert interviews were conducted with five individuals responsible for overseeing all aspects of marketing and sponsorship activities related to the Egyptian sport property ones (the researcher's extensive work in the industry was helpful in securing interviews). These individuals represented various groups involved within Egyptian sport sectors: Egyptian Football Association (EFA), Egyptian Olympic Committee (EOC), Organising Committees' for 2009 FIFA U20 World Cup, and Egyptian sport clubs senior management of League entities and Clubs (League entities and Clubs have separate sponsors). The individuals selected were the highest ranked individuals responsible for marketing within their respective groups and are clearly experts in their fields. Second, in-depth expert interviews were conducted with four executives responsible for the management of all aspects of sport sponsorship for four Egyptian sports associations' partners and the largest sponsors of sport in Egypt including major brands such as: Pepsi, Itisalat, Ceramic Cleopatra, and Egypt Air. Third, in-depth expert interviews were conducted with three participants represents marketing and sponsors agencies. Most participants were at the high administrative level for marketing department in their companies.

One-on-one interviews took place in the month preceding the 2009 FIFA U20 World Cup, with approximately half being conducted in person with early interviews informing latter, enabling the collection of a richness of data specific to the in-person setting. The others were conducted by phone with early interviews informing call as well.

Respondents knew the matter for discussion was the future of sport marketing and sponsorship among Stakeholders in Egypt hence questions were phrased in a nondirective manner. A brief interview guide was used to assist with the interview. It contained grand tour questions (e.g. "What is your insight toward the future of sport marketing and sponsorship in Egypt?") to ensure the interviewees could tell their own story, and prompts to assist with probing and consistency across interviews.

Data was collected using a semi-structured questionnaire that had open-end-

ed questions. Prior to the initial interview, the researcher developed a specific questionnaire for each of the three stakeholder groups (sponsors, sponsees and agencies) and the overall calculation of the future of sport marketing and sponsorship to investigate the future scenarios among sport sponsorship stakeholders. The questionnaire was developed following a comprehensive review of the literature and suggestions from experts in the field. Resulting from the responses of early study participants, the list of interview questions was modified slightly to incorporate some of the developing themes. With the consent of the interviewees, the discussions were tape recorded and subsequently transcribed. Moreover, in order to increase the validity of the data, documentary evidence was obtained from the Egyptian sports associations' marketing plans, global marketing research, sponsor recognition programmes and other official documents from The Egyptian Sport Council.

Table 1. Demographic profile of Interviewees.

Firm	Industry/ Organisation	Position/	Sponsorship Management Experience	Interview Method
Sponsor (S1)	Telecommunication	Marketing Manager	10 years	Telephone
Sponsor (S2)	Airline	Advertising Manager	14 years	In-person
Sponsor (S3)	Soft Drink	Marketing Manager	11 years	In-person
Sponsor (S4)	Ceramic	Sales Manager	7 years	Telephone
Association (O1)	Football	Vice President	18 years	In-person
Association (O2)	Football	X-Treasure	14 years	In-person
Association (O3)	Tennis	President	9 years	Telephone
Club (O4)	AlAhli	Marketing Manager	22 years	In-person
Club (O5)	AlZamalek	Marketing Manager	12 years	Telephone
Agent (A1)	Advertising Agency	Vice Manager	16 years	Telephone
Agent (A2)	Advertising Agency	Marketing Manager	11 years	Telephone
Agent (A3)	Advertising Agency	Marketing Manager	10 years	In-person

Findings

A number of key issues around marketing and sport sponsorship in Egypt were identified by interviewees and are presented here. Respondents were asked a broad question about their insights toward investing in sponsorship and the relationship itself. This is consistent with discussions in the literature about understanding relationship philosophy as a way to identify underlying motives for investment and expectations about performance, roles, and responsibilities (Hoffmann & Schlosser, 2001).

The analysis led to 24 possible events that best capture the future challenges (Table 2) facing the Egyptian sports industry. One of the most important issues identified was the need to modify general association laws in sports and youth field. It is suggested that the current laws are preventing the commercialization of the sports industry in Egypt. For example, the law provides experts. The fact that sporting events have traditionally been free of charge for the public may cause some problems if a new economic model is pursued. A number of issues related to the important economical events faced in Egypt. It is projected that government while it was confirmed that sport marketing would play a significant role in finding new sources of revenues in the future, the biggest challenge identified by the respondents was the lack of expertise in this field. Hence, the development of sport management/marketing curriculum in Egyptian Universities may contribute to the development of sport marketing. These results framed the future challenges for sport marketing in Egypt and future research should investigate each of the factors identified in this study in more depth.

Table 2. Proposed Events

Identification Number	Events
<i>1-Legality and Laws factor</i>	
1-A	Modify general association laws in sports and youth field.
1-B	Enact laws to protect sponsors and investors rights in sports field.

1-C	Modify sports associations and clubs laws.
1-D	Give more incentives in tax laws for sponsors and investors in sports field.
1-E	Make it easier in custom laws for sponsors and investors in sport field.
<i>2-The political factor</i>	
2-A	Decentralization of sport system.
2-B	The Egyptian society has a vibrant democratic system in place.
2-C	Egyptians recognized the importance of being engaged in the political process.
<i>3-The cultural factor</i>	
3-A	Modify consumer culture for sports productions.
3-B	Accept the idea of paying fees to watch sports events.
3-C	Sport is an integral part of the Egyptian culture.
3-D	Expansion of private sports TV and newspapers which follow certain clubs.
3-E	Increase the awareness of the sport role in the development and prosperity of the society.
3-F	The culture of sports for good health, recreation and spending spare time.
<i>4-The social factor</i>	
4-A	The importance of sport for all people from all ages.
4-B	The interest of all society levels with sport (sport for all).
4-C	Spread of aristocratic sports (golf, tennis, riding horses, squash...etc) in high society levels. Increase of government financial support to these sports because of the financial support of this level to them.
4-D	The interest of compact sports is only in medium levels or lower in society
<i>5-The economical factor</i>	
5-A	Expand towards capitalism
5-B	The champions of sports have a great role in the society.
5-C	Stop government finance support for sport.
5-D	Increase sport investment.
5-E	Spreading of private clubs
5-F	Increase awareness about the importance of activities for young teams and sport champions.

One of the most important issues was a complete agreement on modifying general association laws in sports and youth field (event 1-A); the current laws are not capable of developing sports industry in Egypt; this point had a high positive impact and high probability too. This was confirmed by Hassan Sakr- president of national sports council in Egypt- in an interview at Al Ahram newspaper on August 14th, 2007. 1-B and 1-C refer to the importance of enacting a protection law for sponsors' rights. In addition 1-D and 1-E refer to the positive side of modifying taxes and customs laws in the field of sport.

The third factor refers clearly to the sports influence with 2-A, 2-B, and 2-C. These responses may affect on decision making and elections in clubs and sports federations. All 2-A, 2-B, and 2-C responses have a position impact and medium probability.

The cultural factor has a special importance for the experts that appeared clearly in 6 responses surrounding consumers' cultures (3-A), accepting the idea of paying money to watch events (3-B)-this did not exist before, and increasing the awareness of sports importance (3-C), (3-E), and (3-F). Also, experts expected that clubs will be more aware of having sports newspapers and private media channels; as this will increase the future marketing chances which will lead to sponsors attraction.

This factor (cultural) talked about different social levels' behaviours towards sports practice. The experts' responses confirmed that all social levels are interested in practicing sports; this is an important marketing chance which we should prepare ourselves for it from now to make the best use of it.

As a matter of fact, the economical factor is the important factor which experts stop by it in their future expectations. One of the most important responses is about the government funding for sports institutions (5-C); it has large probability; but the experts disagree about its impact (positive or negative). Some sports experts in Egypt confirmed in Almasry Alyoum newspaper on August 8th, 2007 that Egypt has no marketing experiences which can qualify it to make use of available opportunities to fund sport. So, they consider it a negative impact. Others consider it a positive impact.

Also, one of the important issues which experts give it a positive impact and

high probability is future sports champions in Egyptian society (5-B) due to their role in developing Egyptian resources.

A common finding amongst all interviewees was that ambush marketing represented an attempt by a company to associate with a property without having the rights to that property. This view of ambush marketing is consistent with most definitions in the literature (Meenaghan, 1994; Sandler and Shani, 1993). However the researcher asked about the ethics or legal aspects of the practice, the researcher found that all (S) respondents prefer to deal with sport properties through agencies to secure more rights protection which is the most common problem in Egypt, especially with the lack of copyrights awareness.

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AN OUTLOOK FOR THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT THROUGH THE 100th ANNIVERSARY OF THE EGYPTIAN OLYMPIC COMMITTEE AND THE EGYPTIAN REVOLUTION OF JANUARY 25

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Introduction

Ancient Egyptians were very interested in sports and realized its importance. This is clear in Bani Hassan's monuments that showed ancient Egyptians practising many sports, well known to the modern world now. They even indicated physical fitness as an important criterion for taking the responsibility of ruling Egypt during the old kingdom.

Egypt's prominent status is not restricted to its ancient history, yet, it extended to the modern age as Egypt was the 14th country to join the International Olympic Committee in 1910. Therefore, Egypt has become the first Arab and African country to take part in Stockholm's 5th Olympic Games in 1912. In addition, Egypt was the first country to call for holding the first Mediterranean Olympic Games in Alexandria, Egypt in 1951. Egypt was the first country to call for a sportive tournament in the African Continent and soon after, the first African sportive tournament was held in Alexandria, Egypt in 1929. Furthermore, it was Egypt's initiative to hold and organise an Arab sportive tournament. The first Arab athletic tournament was held in Alexandria, Egypt in 1953.

The 25th of January revolution has its deep effects, not only on Egypt but also on the entire Arab world. It will have its effects on the Egyptian sports and will change the status of Egypt in all sports fields. This revolution has equipped youth with determination and enthusiasm, the very two components necessary for sports success. The following pages will briefly discuss and suggest some recommendations that will certainly help boost the level of the Egyptian sports and to promote Olympic education in Egypt.

History of the Egyptian Olympic Committee

Towards the end of the 19th century, foreign communities, in Egypt, established several clubs with social and sports services included. This system dominated Alexandria, Port Said and Cairo at the beginning of the 20th century.

Sports clubs of the foreign communities in Egypt were the dominant majority (26 clubs) with huge capabilities, rich persons and foreign diplomatic delegates to support and protect such clubs. Therefore, these clubs formed a system to join them in sports competitions. In 1908, the Mixed Federation for Sports clubs was established in Alexandria under the presidency of Mr Angelo Bolanaki to spread and manage various games and sports all over the country. Most members of this federation were not Egyptians and the federation held all the sportive Egyptian competitions from 1908 to 1910.

Angelo Bolanaki was the first athlete in Egypt to take part in international competitions in 1903. He participated, in Athens and Izmir, in the 100m running championships and held a world record. Consequently, he was announced champion of three continents as he won six consecutive championships in one month in Alexandria, Athens and Izmir.

After retirement, Angelo Bolanaki established the General Sports Club in Alexandria, which turned into the Sports Union in Egypt in 1910 under the patronage of Khedive Abbas Helmi II and Prince Omar Toson. Conte Pierre De Coubertin nominated Angelo Bolanaki to represent Egypt in the International Olympic Committee.

On June 13th, 1910, the Egyptian Olympic Committee was established in Alexandria under the patronage of Khedive Abbas Helmi II. Egypt participated in the Stockholm Olympic Games in 1912 with one fencer; Ahmed Hassanain.

On June 23rd, 1914, the Olympic flag appeared for the first time over Al-Shatby sports court in Alexandria during the festivities of the 20th anniversary of the Egyptian Olympic Committee, six years before its official use in the Olympic Games tournament that was held in the city of Infers in 1920.

Since 1914, there were serious calls to Egyptianize sports federations, dominated and controlled by non-Egyptians, and to establish independent Egyptian federations for each sport, away from the control of the Mixed Federation. These claims became stronger after the Infers Olympic Games in 1920. All Egyptian sports clubs agreed to establish an Egyptian federation at the beginning of 1921-1922 sports season. In 1921, rules and regulations of the Egyptian Football Federation were issued on December 3rd, 1921. This federation had worked successfully for three years until it faced the problem of international representation as the Mixed Federation was the sole authority for international representation. This problem ended after a meeting of representatives of the Mixed Federation and the Egyptian Federation. At that meeting, the title of the Mixed Federation was changed into The Egyptian Federation of Sports Clubs. In addition, the Mixed Federation renounced the authority of supervising football in Egypt to the Egyptian Football Federation according to an agreement signed by both parties. This provided the Egyptian Football Federation the right of international representation.

The Egyptian delegation to the Paris Olympic Games 1924 was under foreign administration as the international representation stayed at the hands of the Egyptian federation of Sports Clubs – the joint governing body of sports other than football. The case was the same at the Amsterdam Olympic Games 1928 as the administration of Egyptian sports activities was Egyptian in football while other sports were mere bodies of no significant achievements. After the Amsterdam Olympic Games, the Egyptian federations became numerous and went towards full independence away from the control of the Egyptian federation of

Sports Clubs. These federations constituted a firm front that refused to involve in the Egyptian Olympic Committee. This led to dissolve the committee in 1929.

At the beginning of 1930, Egypt received an invitation to the 10th Olympic Games in Los Angeles in 1932. As the Egyptian Olympic Committee was dissolved in 1929, sports federations were invited to a meeting on February 18th, 1932 to make a decision concerning the invitation. They decided to refuse the invitation based on the refusal of representing Egypt internationally with a foreign person.

The victory Egypt won gave the Egyptian federations the right to Egyptian representation. This problem lasted for two years until the decree of establishing the National Committee of Egyptian sports and the Egyptian Olympic Committee on May 9th, 1934. At the conference of the International Olympic Committee, Athens on May 17th, 1934 the International Olympic Committee acknowledged both Egyptian committees and nominated Mohamed Taher Bacha as a member in the international committee and its representative in Egypt. Mr Bolanaki was transferred to Greece.

From that date on, Egyptian federations participated in the Olympic Games and made many achievements.

Table 1. Egyptian Achievements in Olympic Games

Olympic Games	Number of participants	Number of medals	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Games
Stockholm 1912	1					Fencing
Anvers 1920	22					Fencing, Athletics, Gymnastic, Football, Weightlifting and Wrestling
Paris 1924	34					Athletics, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Football, Fencing, Cycling, Shooting and Fine arts
Amsterdam 1928	31	4	2	1	1	Weightlifting, Wrestling, Football, Fencing and Diving

Olympic Games	Number of participants	Number of medals	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Games
Los Angeles 1932						Egypt received the official invitation to participate in the Games. But Egypt boycotted it because of the Olympic representations as there was no IOC Egyptian representative in Egypt.
Berlin 1936	65	5	2	1	2	Athletics, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Football, Fencing, Basketball, swimming, Boxing and Diving
London 1948	114	5	2	2	1	Athletics, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Football, Fencing, Basketball, swimming, Boxing and Diving, Gymnastic, Water polo and Rowing
Helsinki 1952	118	1			1	Athletics, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Football, Fencing, Basketball, Swimming, Boxing, Diving, Gymnastic, Equestrian, Water polo, Rowing and Shooting
Melbourne 1956						Egypt participated only in Equestrian events and did not participate in any other events because of the tripartite
Roma 1960	78	2		1	1	Athletics, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Football, Fencing, Boxing, Diving, Gymnastic, Equestrian, Water polo, Rowing and Shooting
Tokyo 1964	93					Athletics, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Football, Fencing, Boxing, Diving, Gymnastic, Equestrian, Rowing and Shooting
Mexico City 1968	31					Water polo, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Boxing, Diving and Fencing,
Munich 1972	28					Boxing, Wrestling, Athletics, Swimming and Basketball
Montreal 1976	38					Boxing, Basketball, Weightlifting, Wrestling and Volleyball
Moscow 1980						Egypt did not participate in these Games because of the soviet invasion to Afghanistan to be united in solidarity Islamic countries.
Los Angeles 1984	114	1		1		Swimming, Diving, Rhythmic swimming, Athletics, Boxing, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Fencing, Judo, Modern pentathlon, Shooting, Yachting, Football, Basketball and Volleyball
Seoul 1988	55	1		1		Athletics, Boxing, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Swimming, Judo, Modern pentathlon, Shooting, Fencing, Table Tennis, Equestrian, Basketball and Taekwondo

Olympic Games	Number of participants	Number of medals	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Games
Barcelona 1992	82	2			2	Equestrian, Taekwondo, Boxing, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Swimming, Judo, Modern pentathlon, Fencing, Shooting, Table Tennis, Football, Handball and Hockey
Atlanta 1996	29					Boxing, Judo, Rowing, Handball, Shooting, Swimming, Weightlifting and Wrestling
Sydney 2000	89					Archery, Athletics, Boxing, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Swimming, Judo, Modern pentathlon, Shooting, Fencing, Table Tennis, Equestrian, Handball, Cycling, Taekwondo, Rowing, Gymnastic, Volleyball and Rhythmic swimming
Athens 2004	96	5	1	1	3	Water polo, Judo, Modern pentathlon, Boxing, Taekwondo, Shooting, Rowing, Equestrian, Archery, Fencing, Short swimming, Rhythmic swimming, Handball, Athletics, Weightlifting, Wrestling and Hockey
Beijing 2008	103	1			1	Judo, Modern pentathlon, Boxing, Taekwondo, Shooting, Rowing, Equestrian, Archery, Fencing, swimming, Athletics, Weightlifting, Wrestling, Handball, Gymnastic, Table Tennis, Volleyball and Badminton

Sport before and after the 25th January Revolution

Egyptian youth were the originators of the 25th January Revolution. President Obama said, “We should raise our American youth to become like the Egyptian youth”. Youth are the cornerstone of any sport. Therefore, the Revolution helped them develop and refine core values like citizenship, sense of belonging, enthusiasm, tolerance, the will to change, liberating thought and freedom of expression.

Sports before the 25th January Revolution

Autocracy and domination of corrupted administration over all the state’s sectors negatively affected Egyptians greatly. This was clearly reflected in sports as administrative corruption led to corrupt leaderships in all sports sectors, federations

and clubs, along with youth and sports governorates responsible for the majority of sports activities.

Corrupt leadership led to unqualified personnel to take over sports committees and federations. They were completely incapable of preparing well-established training plans (techniques – training loads – psychological preparation ... etc). This affected Olympic champions negatively and decreased Egypt's share of medals. Sports media was wrongfully used to mislead Egyptians away from their essential issues rather than focusing on the necessary sports needs. Instead, it was used to enhance political conflicts among Arab nations. This, in turn, affected cultural and economical relationships negatively. These relations are considered the main support of any serious investments in the sports field.

On the other hand, talented athletes have not received the necessary care in talent identification nor preparation of physical education curricula, teachers nor coaches in a way convenient for dealing with such talents. This led to abstention of talents to take part in sports. On the other hand, certain team sports obtained a lot of care compared to others, while individual sports were neglected to the extent that these sports were called "martyr games" although these sports can increase Egypt's share of Olympic medal as a single player can have more than one medal while a team of 20 players can only have one medal. In addition, individual sports have achieved several Olympic medals while team sports have not achieve any medals for a very long time although team sports have the largest share of government expenditure, compared to individual sports.

Expectation of sports after the 25th January Revolution

The 25th January Revolution gave the Egyptians new moral and aesthetic values. These values have a positive effect on sports leaderships in Egypt. The following are some of the effects of these values on Egyptian sports.

Tolerance

The 25th January Revolution called for tolerance. This is consistent with the

Olympic Movement principles indicating; “Only amateurs can take part in Olympic Games. Those amateurs involve equally without any racial, religious, social or political discrimination in an atmosphere filled with justice, brotherhood, love and peace”. This was clear in the movement of Egyptian people during the revolution as Egyptians of all levels, backgrounds and religions stood together to achieve goals of the revolution.

Citizenship and Affiliation

According to the Olympic Movement’s principles “Only citizens of the country are allowed to represent their country in the Olympic Games under their national flag”. This revolution improved the sense of affiliation and sacrifice to remove corruption and to improve Egypt’s status in the Olympic Games.

Freedom of Expression

The Egyptian youth expressed themselves democratically during the revolution and this has had positive effects on administrative and training aspects of sports.

Assessment and Evaluation

Coaches, now, have become capable of evaluating their athletes with transparency and the same is true for athletes. This can be done through positive dialogue between the two parties to achieve their joint goals.

Technology

It is acknowledged that the 25th January Revolution was a technology-based revolution as rebels contacted each others via “facebook” social network. This increased the interest with this type of web sites among athletes, sports administrators and coaches to make use of such technologies to improve sports.

The Spirit of Excellence

CNN stated, "For the first time in human history, we see rebels cleaning the streets after their revolution". This indicates that the 25th January Revolution provided the Egyptian youth with the spirit of excellence.

Democracy

After the 25th January Revolution, I expect that the upcoming elections of sports administrations and board will be transparent, without any forgery or falsification and free of all kinds of threatening.

A Future Vision for Sports in Egypt

Olympic Education

Coubertin says, "Athletics and the Olympic Games are the manifestation of the cult of the human being, mind and body, emotion and conscience. Will and conscience, because these are the two despots that fight for domination, the conflict between them often tearing us cruelly apart, because we must achieve equilibrium".

By Olympic education, we mean the dissemination of Olympic values, aims and culture in schools and universities through practicing sports.

The main aim of the Olympic Movement is to build a safe world through educating youth how to practice sports without any discrimination of any kind and according to the Olympic spirit based on mutual understanding, friendship, cooperation and just competition.

Sports work on educating basic values and skills like self-confidence, teamwork, communication, inclusion, self-control, respect and just competition. Physical education and sport have positive effects on educating young children as physical education is considered an integral part of general education.

The following are recommendations in this respect:

1. Physical education should be a major subject in all educational stages including a historical background of the Olympic Movement.
2. Coordinating between faculties of physical education and schools to hold festivals forums and workshops.
3. Establishing a fixed day each month (the Olympic day) so that schools of each governorate meet to participate in sports activities.
4. Publishing recent news of the Olympic Movement on wall journals in schools.
5. Organising competitions among students to prepare research papers in different Olympic subjects.
6. Supporting sports modals through meetings among young athletes and Olympic champions.
7. Forming a joint committee with the ministry of education, including experts in Olympic affairs to prepare perspectives and documents concerning the Olympic Movement's history and values.
8. Preparing a manual for Olympic education and culture to help disseminate the Olympic principles and values among students.
9. Preparing special sports events for students with special needs.

The Role of the Egyptian Olympic Academy in Olympic Education

The Egyptian Olympic academy is the oldest Olympic academy in Africa, dating back to 1978. The academy plays a prominent role in the dissemination of Olympic values and culture. The following are recommendations for improving the academy:

1. Develop modern curricula for students.
2. Develop modern training courses suitable for the labor market.
3. Establish a fixed system for evaluating instructors.
4. Add new specialized training courses in the Olympic Movement.
5. Employ young instructors in the academy.

Sports Management

Management plays a major role in physical education and sports on all levels of sports and educational associations and sports teams. It is necessary for achieving sports aims and objectives. The following are recommendations for improving sports administration in Egypt:

1. Develop rules and regulations according to fixed schedules to include systems of organising championships and preparing new Olympic champions, along with accurate regulations for sponsorship and professionalism consistent with international regulations.
2. Improve the systems of sports marketing to provide the necessary financial support for sports associations.
3. The State's strategic plan should include a specific strategy for championship and preparing champions.
4. Devise long-term plans for champion selection in all sports associations.
5. Long-term plans should not suffer from negative effects due to changes in sports leadership.

The Discovery of Talented People

Sports achievement in any country is measured by championship results. Poor results of national teams in Egypt raised the concerns of sports leaders and officials. It is important to identify talents, based on scientific methods to overcome this problem and to make major Olympic achievements.

Schools are the main source of talents in sports as different students with different anthropometric measurements and different psychological inclinations may be suitable for different types of sports activities. Therefore, it is important that talent spotters should visit schools regularly to identify talents. The Ministry of Education in collaboration with the committee of faculties of physical education sector and the national council of sport put a framework for the project of talent identification in schools.

Provisions of this framework indicate that students spend 4 hours per week

in sports clubs or centers near their schools to facilitate the spotters' visits and provide students with courts and equipment.

Improving the Talent Schools

Talent schools in Egypt are under supervision of the National Council of Sports. These schools achieved above average results during 2009-2010 in athletics, wrestling, weight lifting and boxing as students of these schools competed for high ranks in Arab and African championships. But those students did not reach the finals of Olympic Games, except for "Fadl Fayez Said" (javelin) who ranked 7th in the Singapore Olympics for Youth 2010. The following recommendations are to improve these schools:

1. Coordinate among Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education and the National Council of Sports to overcome problems of students' exams and punctuality.
2. Provide foreign experts to train coaches and players in different sports.
3. Schedule international events and training camps.
4. Prepare entertainment programmes for students to avoid tedium of training.
5. Involve businesspersons in funding such schools.
6. Overcome economic and social problems facing players and establishing good levels of salaries and rewards.
7. Provide science-based administration.
8. Provide and apply science-based long-term plans.

The Olympic Champion Project

This project is one of the most important projects for talented athletes who can win Olympic medals. The role of this project is not restricted to winning a medal as Olympic champions may suffer from psychological problems that may lead them to retire. An example of this situation is "Karam Gaber" who won a gold medal in wrestling in the 2004 Olympics and failed to reach quarterfinal in the

2008 Olympics, and the Egyptian federation of wrestling could not control this situation. The following recommendations are to improve this project:

1. Sponsorship of the Olympic champion should not be less than 8 years.
2. Allocate enough budget for preparing one champion per year totally (600,000 to 800,000 pounds).
3. Sign a contract between the player and the project to guarantee the player's rights and obligations.
4. Regular evaluation of the technical level of the player. The player may be dismissed from the project in case of not achieving target goals in two consecutive evaluations.
5. Prepare executive plans by the technical staff showing evaluation intervals and target goals during 4 years.
6. Monitor and evaluate the technical, administrative and medical staff through rates of achieving goals according to plans and programmes.

The Sports Selection Map

Many researchers tried to explain the excellence of Kenyan and Ethiopian runners in long races compared to European runners. Results indicated that this excellence is due to environmental factors as daily life in Kenya requires young children to run 20km daily to go to school. Studies on brothers and sisters indicated that effects of genetics on sports were nearly 20% while environmental effects reached 80%.

The Egyptian record of Olympic medals showed that since the first involvement until the 2008 Olympics, Egypt won the following medals: one gold, two silver and two bronze in wrestling - one silver and one bronze in Judo –five gold, three silver and two bronze in weight lifting– one silver and four bronze in boxing.

Egypt excelled in individual sports, and especially in self-defense sports that need muscular strength and endurance. If we consider the geographical division of Egypt, we can easily indicate that most of those champions were from north-

ern Egypt. This indicates that this geographical sector is characterized by anthropometric measurements suitable for self-defense and endurance sports.

If we look at Upper Egypt, we will find similarities with Kenya and Ethiopia. Therefore, upper Egyptians can participate in long races. However, because this part of Egypt was not visible to the sports leaderships, talents of this part were not used correctly.

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THE SOCIAL, SPORTIVE AND ORGANISATIONAL IMPACT ON THE ARGENTINIAN SPORT SINCE THE BEGINNING OF THE YOUTH OLYMPIC GAMES

Juan Gregorio DE ARMA (ARG)

Introduction

The Youth Olympic Games are part of a new stimulus generated by the IOC to encourage sports and cultural development worldwide. These games express the determination of the Olympic Movement to promote youth participation through the teaching of the excellence of the Olympic values friendship and respect.

In such circumstances, given the acceptance that the proposal has generated, and due to the massive demonstrated participation, we have decided to analyze which have been the effects these Youth Olympic Games (YOG DNA) have had in Argentina in the social, sporting and organisational levels.

Argentine sport is in a time of Revival, not only because of the new looks provided from government agencies, which have the power to administer, manage and study the problem policy of our sports, but also due to the commitment of the Argentine Olympic Committee to set up the discussion at the national level in order to incorporate Olympic education in the school curriculum.

The Youth Olympic Games

Vision and Spirit

The vision of the YOG is to inspire the youth of the world to participate in sports and to adopt the Olympic values by achieving a balance between sport, culture and education. This fact has no less importance in the structure of the IOC. The Commission for Culture and Olympic education has been working intensively on the culture of sport and its consideration as a fundamental education in our society.

Zhenliang He, honorary member of the IOC Commission for Culture and Olympic Education says “it is to know that competing is not the first dimension of Olympism, but it is the sports, in all the wealth that it represents”¹.

The mission of the YOG is to serve as a catalyst in these areas through the Olympic Movement and to encourage young people to play a more active role in their communities. These games were first born on an idea by IOC President Jacques Rogge, president at the time of the European Olympic Committees in 1989. With a divided social political situation he considered that a youth competition would help solve the problem and organise the Youth Olympic Festival in Brussels 1991.

Spirit of the YOG

The YOG represent much more than a global sporting event, Rogge said, “They are a tool to educate young people and teach Olympic values, a healthy lifestyle, and welfare and social responsibility. They are not miniature Olympics. YOG recreates many of the symbols of the Olympic Games, i.e. the podium, the flame and values, but they have their own identity that is reinforced by the creative approach of sporting competitions”². The YOG is the first new demonstration that the IOC has organised since the first Winter Olympics of 1924 and it heralded a new era for youth sports around the world. This bill passed unanimously by the 119th IOC

1. Zhenliang He, foro mundial de educación cultura y deporte, Barcelona (2004).

2. Rogge, Jacques. *Olympic review*, April-May-June 2010, p. 29, issue 75 (2010).

session in Guatemala City in July 2007, was very well received by elite athletes like Yelena Isimbayeva twice high jumper Olympic champion who says “I think YOG are an ideal tool to inspire young people around the world to make amazing things through sport”³. Swimmer Michael Phelps gold medal record obtained in an Olympic Games, has agreed to be ambassador of the YOG saying “one of my goals is to promote swimming and to encourage more young people to lead a healthy and active lifestyle... Participate in the YOG will allow me to encourage young people around the world to participate in sports and through this they can get in touch with boys and girls from another cultures. The YOG will be a great lesson in sports and life”.

Objectives of the YOG

- Gather and celebrate the best young athletes in the world.
- Offer a unique and powerful introduction to Olympism.
- Innovate the education and debate on the Olympic values as well as the challenges of society.
- Share and celebrate the cultures of the world in a festive atmosphere.
- Reach youth communities around the world to promote Olympic values.
- Raise awareness of sport and provide a platform for the different initiatives of the Olympic Movement.
- Be a demonstration at the highest sport level internationally.
- Encourage participation among young people.

Characteristics of the YOG

The Youth Olympic summer and winter games are held every four years alternately. The Summer YOG are held the same year as the Olympic Winter Games and vice versa. The organisational requirements of the YOG are considerably below those required by the Olympic Games. The first edition which was held in Singapore 2010 was attended by 3600 athletes and 1460 officials, compared to the 10,500 athletes who participated in the Summer Olympic Games. On the other hand, 1000 athletes are considered to be participating in the Winter

3. Isimbayeva Yelena. *Olympic review*, April-May-June 2010, p. 24, issue 75 (2010).

YOG which will take place in the city of Innsbruck in 2012. Young talents from all over the world whose ages ranged between 14 and 18 gathered to compete in 26 Olympic sports. Some sports were held with mixed competitions or with teams formed by athletes from various National Olympic Committees, while others were developed in different formats such as in Basketball 3x3. The YOG is not only a sports event but it also has a Cultural and Education Programme (CEP). The IOC intends to present the Olympism and the Olympic values to young people through play and fun, trying to increase awareness on important issues like the benefits of a healthy lifestyle, the fight against doping and the role of athletes as ambassadors of the sport in their communities. The CEP has conducted workshops, community projects and cultural and educational activities so that youth participants could learn about important issues like the environment. The CEP has included two major initiatives: the Youth Ambassadors programme and the programme of young reporters. The first programme NOCs have appointed youth representatives from 18 to 28 years to join the delegation of their country and encourage their athletes and any others interested in them. The young reporters, 26 young journalists around the world and 4 from the host country had the opportunity to live with the athletes in the Olympic village and report on the YOG after having received specialized training from experienced sports journalists.

The logo type of DNA YOG

It's more than a logo; it is a mark that includes the rings which represents the attitude and freedom of youth; it is the DNA of the Games, it is their seal of approval and it will be a hallmark registration, the hallmark of the YOG.

Infrastructure

The YOG in Singapore have made very significant features around the infrastructure that was used; they can be divided into:

- *Facilities:* The infrastructure and service levels to be used in the YOG should be tailored to target them and ensure appropriate conditions for

young elite athletes. The sports facilities will be in town and no new facilities will be built, encouraging the use of existing multi-purpose facility. The main press center will also be included at the facility; there will be a number of places for workshops and forums based on the cultural and educational programme of the YOG.

- *Youth Olympic Village:* The Olympic village will provide the youth with a capacity of 5000 persons (2000 for the Winter YOG). The existing facilities can be used, remodeled or new residential housing can be projected, or a series of campus-style facility may be projected or a block of hotels. The town is the center of the YOG and an excellent place for young people to meet and share experiences and culture between them.
- *Transportation:* no need to upgrade road and rail infrastructure, as the transportation system of the YOG will be based on a shuttle service for all accredited persons.

Sport impact of the Youth Olympic Games 2010 on Argentina

The sport is a recreational activity and personal growth, made by the body motor skills and immersed in proper regulation. Sport creates obligations, encourages the intellectual and physical personality, while offering real opportunities for social integration. Sports are an important social force that affects all levels of society and consists of millions of participants. They, themselves, in their specific roles are cementing their own dreams, hopes and expectations. For this reason and many others we cannot have any doubts about the formative nature that sports values generate in the youth. Argentina is a country with a long Olympic tradition that dates back to 1894 when the Argentine educator Joseph Benjamin Zubiaur subscribed Paris with Baron Pierre de Coubertin, the founding charter of the International Olympic Committee. Since then Argentina as a nation, has been represented by the Argentine Olympic Committee (COA) participating in the Summer Olympics and Winter Olympics with great enthusiasm and great commitment, and it has been preparing our athletes to try to keep up to date with

such an important event. It is no doubt in this context that the adoption by the 119th IOC Session held in Guatemala, which has approved the creation of the Youth Olympic Games, has been received with great satisfaction.

The sporting context of Argentina is suitable for the insertion of the new Olympic project, since from the Ministry of Sports of the Nation, through its strategic sports plan 2008-2012, specifically the sports development plan as chronological stage between 14 and 18, is consistent with the age of the athletes participating in the YOG. This defines why the governmental agency understands that sports development "... is an intermediate state between sports participation and high performance base. Furthermore this is a process in which athletes can be included, involved and continue with many successful possibilities towards the path to high performance sport"⁴.

In this way the state in conjunction with civil society and market organisations, commits to create appropriate and sustainable conditions in different regions and communities across the country. The athletic approach to sports development stage by the institutions and responsible sports coaches will be critical for our future athletes so that they will come better prepared to the Olympics, without forgetting that they are in a formative stage. This should mark the educational way of life as athletes of the future. The Olympic spirit and values should be guaranteed in sports training. There will be different ways of approaching the Olympics depending on the country the athletes come from. There are those whose main aim is to go racing and the only valid result is a medal, there are those who face the challenge with the aim that their athletes experience benefits and privileges that will transmit an appointment to seek Olympic medal in an Olympic game and finally there are those countries that have such a call to experience the unforgettable experiences that are collected daily, without having a great hope in the young participants with a view to the future. Argentina is among the countries of the second group mentioned because in the international context we are in a second or third level in terms of results. The strategy is raised subjected to Argen-

4. Ministerio de Desarrollo Social, *Secretaría de deportes Argentina*. Plan estratégico del deporte Argentino 2008-2012, P. 11 (2008).

tina reality, based on the achievements of Singapore 2010 which should be the priorities of sports in this phase. In the Summer YOG in Singapore Brian Toledo (javelin) won the gold medal; women's hockey and men's volleyball (silver), while Fabian Maidana (boxing) and Lucas Guzmán (taekwondo) won the bronze medals. Here Lautaro Díaz from Cordoba Argentina won the bronze medal in the mixed team triathlon.

Invariably the creation of such sports and cultural competition has changed the landscape planning of sport in a development stage. They should occupy a central place within the objectives in order to get a place. While the YOG goal of qualifying for each sport is made by the IOC together with the International Federations (IF) its main aim is to ensure the participation of the best athletes respecting the principle of universality used in all competitions and championships disciplines of the world youth championships or the official youth classifications used to classify the summit meeting.

It is important to highlight that all four team tournaments are there in the Olympic programme for the YOG (football, handball, hockey and volleyball); they are involved in a national team by continent and there is a sixth team representing the host country or it might be proposed by the IF and will be approved by the IOC. Each NOC (National Olympic Committee) will be limited to two teams, one male and one female who will compete in four team sports. Consequently, the programming of the different training periods will be disturbed by this new calendar. The commitment of leaders and coaches to achieve greater success or reasonable goals sets the training standard.

The role of the media

The media occupy a privileged place in modern society; it is undoubtedly a formidable amplifier of the positive or negative events that happen in any society. Sports is certainly a big business for large, medium and small chains, multimedia, which are represented in greater consumption of social sports. The role of the media on the transmission of different massive world events is surprising. You

can reach via current technology anywhere in the world; it is clear that there must be appropriate technology. The press, radio and television, coupled with virtual links can provide the most enjoyable stories about the effort and dedication of an athlete. Nevertheless negative spaces are used by competitors to generate conflict to ensure higher levels of audience and sales of newspapers appealing to the consumer morbidity.

The Argentina society is success-oriented in terms of sporting results. On rare occasions is approved a result that does not appear in positions of privilege, being few, those heroic attitudes related to athletes that generate a sense of achievement in the spectators even though there may be disadvantaged sports. Sporting success and achievements are those that occur against opponents and consecrated opponents. When the competition is uneven, hard fought victory is more appreciated than when it is easy and a simple victory. Such is the case of adult male handball held in Sweden in January 2011, where Argentina won the No. 12 ranking, a historic event for the national sport. In this show the telecast and the impact of the achievements got during the classification were overcrowded. Such was the impression of the epic sports, that the main national newspapers showed photos and results for several days on their cover as well as the radio and media published on the Internet. It is extremely ironic that handball, even though it is a popular sport in our country does not rank high on the preference of the viewer or newspaper readers.

The media transmit all types of messages to diverse audiences, which is why they acquire a superlative power in the formation of opinion of those who consume these products. Therefore the responsibility of sound transmission can not be ignored. Nancy Rivenburgh professor of communications at the University of Washington at the World Forum of Education, culture and sport in Barcelona 2004 states that "the media convey messages of war more than of peace and that there should be more discourse space in the media to promote it"⁵.

The impact of the gold medal in javelin in Singapore 2010 obtained by the Toledo Braian athlete, 62 years after the gold obtained by Delfo Cabrera in the

5. Rivenburgh Nancy "foro educación cultura y deporte" Pág. 161 (2004).

Olympics marathon in London in 1948 has been multiplied by all the national media to such a point was the importance of the retransmission that the President of the Nation Dr. Cristina Fernandez de Kirchner in a speech to the nation stated “I want to finish with the other story of the other Argentina. I want to finish (the speech) with the history of Brian Toledo”⁶; thus it has to be the media’s main commitment to be accountable for what they publish. Will they be partners in the transmission of the Olympic values?

Social impact of the Singapore Youth Olympic Games 2010 on Argentina

The IOC president says “the sport has become an integral part of society worldwide. Sport is a unique and indispensable tool for achieving sustainable development and it is an instrument to promote peace, culture and education by offering hope and opportunity, especially to the younger ones”. It is no doubt that sport helps to strengthen systematic core values of individuals. Sport and physical education teaches essential values and life skills including self-confidence, team work, communication, inclusion, discipline, respect and fair play. Sport and physical education also provides psychological benefits such as reducing depression and improving concentration.

The social environment that a systematic practice of sports provides, offers an opportunity for all people who practice it to do something productive with their idle time; it is a central aspect problems of adolescents in Argentina. Many of our teenagers have no opportunities due to a lack of interest or multiple social economic factors and sports is proven to ward off space for our children in situations of violence, drugs or crime. Brian Toledo’s case is extraordinary. Olympic champion in the javelin in Singapore YOG 2010, he grew up in a poor family in the town of Marcos Paz, a town on the outskirts of Buenos Aires city. Being the son of divorced parents his mother did whatever was at hand to raise him and his brothers. His mother said: “Brian needed to eat healthy, but we had no money.

6. Viva Review, *Diario Clarín*. Buenos Aires Septiembre 2010.

We went with the kids to walk through the farms around here. When the owners saw me they filled a bag with vegetables. Then she managed to do a little something more. At that time I did everything, cleaned houses, sold balloons”⁷. Brian lived in a wooden shack of seven meters by five which had been built by his mother and uncle. In those conditions and studying in fourth year of primary school, he met a physical education teacher Gustavo Osorio who has been his coach, mentor and guide and who helped him in the process of growth ever since. The Brian Toledo sports tour began in the sports games of the Province of Buenos Aires and then participated in the national game called “Evita” in honor of who was the wife of President Juan Domingo Peron.

Based on the achievements obtained, there begins to be a change in the consideration of the sports structure of this athlete; it is there that his projection as elite athlete begins to take shape, getting different achievements at South American level at the junior. Besides the place where he was living, a new brick house, three times the size of the old one was built with money from the Province of Buenos Aires and the Municipality of Marcos Paz. A very important fact is that, in spite of the different offers, Brian did not want to move from his neighborhood, he was identified with the community that helped him, he had a respect for his origins, and they are strong enough to interfere with his personal goals. Brian is an excellent student, he was champion of his school and he was proposed by the directors of the Argentine Olympic Committee as a champion of the delegation which left for Singapore. The responsibility of fulfilling the expectations that all national sports universe reposed in him could not be hidden. Once returned to Argentina with the gold medal around his neck he was known by Argentina society as an athlete who could demonstrate once again that the values of sport mentioned above helped him to face adverse conditions and emerge stronger. He has been after the experience in Singapore an ambassador in the Argentina Olympic spirit.

There are countless possibilities that sport offers in terms of solidarity, friendship and equality of opportunity. However, there is extensive literature that at-

7. Viva Review, *Diario Clarín*. Buenos Aires September 2010.

tacks the systematization of sport at schools, as it is considered classicist, not inclusive and lost class time as the physical education teachers participate a lot in competitions with their students. This position has divided and continues so, even though with less force, the area of teachers of physical education and sports in Argentina.

The benefits that sport offers in all its forms, social, educational, to those who practice it may be included in multiple factors of happiness, harmony and positive and unavoidable physiological impacts. We can not forget that Brian Toledo like many other Argentine athletes who have not been able to participate in the Games in Singapore 2010, have begun their sporting stage and acquired passion and love for the sport in elementary school. They have found in sports opportunities for progress not only economic but with a better quality of life and habitat of social and cultural development. At the same time the Argentine government must provide its citizens the right of sports according to their virtues, based on law 20655 which sets targets in its article one in the following paragraphs:

- a) The use of sport as an educational factor intervening in the formation of man and as a resource for recreation and relaxation of the population;
- b) The use of sport as a factor in physical and moral health of the population;
- c) Promoting the practice of sports competitions in an attempt to achieve high levels of the same, ensuring that representations of Argentine international sports are the true expression of cultural and sporting hierarchy in the country. The Singapore Games marked a before and after in the life of Brian Toledo. He has been able to move to a house with basic amenities, he has had social recognition, but surely it has not changed his spirit of sacrifice, commitment and dedication to the task even having grown up with unsatisfied basic needs.

Development of the Argentine Sports

In the framework of the Law 20,655 called “law of sport”, a national management structure will be created to coordinate and support sports. On one side to

achieve such a framework in municipal support, meeting the needs which the community can not achieve, and on the other hand in private, to ensure the piece of advice and support they require.

The Argentine sports system is guided according to the policies emanating from the secretary of the nation's sports under the Ministry of Social Development, according to the guidelines of the law cited above. It is important to express that chapter three of the Law provides in article seven the creation of the National Sports Council (CO NA), composed of representatives of the Ministry of Sports, agencies created by this law and institutions national representative of the entire amateur and professional sport. Their basic functions will be:

- Assist in the coordination of sporting activities throughout the nation and provinces.
- Contribute to developing plans, programmes and projects related to the promotion of the sports, elevating them to the relevant authority for approval and implementation
- Assist institutions engaged in the practice and development of sports in their technical, social, economic aspect and also in their infrastructure

La Republica Argentina has an area, 2,780,400 km²; this is the second largest state in Latin America, fourth in the American continent and eighth in the world, considering only the area subjected to effective sovereignty. Based on this situation the "law of sport", provides in article nine, the creation of the Regional Council in order to balance the potential of the provinces attached, taking into account the population, the sporting level, the infrastructure of the individual states and means of communication between them, as was established by regulation.

The council worked briefly between 1989 and 1991, being put back into operation in November 2010, with the conviction to complete the statement of the law.

The National Sports Secretary sets off plans and programmes for the development of national sport, whose vision is to aspire to reassess a culture of sport and physical activity which will be able to recognize the multiple benefits generated by their practice in the country's development. Under these guidelines a strate-

gic plan was defined for the Argentine Sports (2008-2012) composed of three operational plans:

- National Plan for Social sports
- Land Sports Plan and National Representation
- National Plan for Sport development

For the purposes of the study of this work we will focus on the national sports development plan which concerns on the study of the previous year and the various problems that arose at that stage of sports training as the base for high performance. Based on the difficulty of the generational change in elite athletes, a problem that relates to the need for innovation and strengthening of the organisations that comprise the Argentine Sports System.

The sports development is the platform on which athletes receive and build the different training stimuli which are a fundamental basic tool to achieve their best in the later stage of athletic performance. Understanding the importance of this stage is to think about a long term sports in which the planning and the results are not due to chance or for having a litter of talented athletes who can get results, but because they will be able to generate a homogeneous development. This will reduce uncertainty and will make more predictable, verbose and serious sports.

The Secretary of the National Sports understands that sports development “... is an intermediate state between basic sports participation and high performance sports. Since this is a process in which athletes can be included, involved and stay potentially successful in their transit to the road to high performance sports. “In this way commits the state in conjunction with civil society and market organisations to generate appropriate and sustainable conditions in different regions, communities and sports institutions”⁸.

The chronological stage between 14 and 18 will be then the ones who will obtain the benefits of the sports development. This age is consistent with the pro-

8. Ministerio de Desarrollo Social, Secretaria de deportes Argentina. Plan de Desarrollo Deportivo 2.008-2012. (2008).

visions set by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) who agreed to create the Youth Olympic Games (YOG).

The strategic aim of sports development plan

- To promote an innovative model of public management of federal sports development, based on the criteria for participation, territoriality.

Specific objectives:

- Consolidate a national Sports Development policy oriented to strategic sports
- Optimize the management on Sports Development, between Secretary of Sports, provincial and national and provincial federations.

The programmes and projects that arise tend to attack the problems that gave rise to the implementation of it. These include:

- *National sports development*
 1. Regional Development of sport centers.
 2. Sports Development Centers.
 3. Regional Games.
 4. Argentine Sports games.
 5. Selection and recruitment of sporting potential.
- *National sports development in schools*
 1. Sports Development Project in the Middle School (within the grounds of the National Sports Training Center).
 2. Regional schools Headquarters Project.
- *National knowledge management programme applied to sports development*
 1. National Training Network Project, Update and improvement of Human Resources Applied to Sports Development.
 2. Distance Learning Project.
 3. Research in Sports Project.

The role that the Argentine Olympic Committee has in the structure of Argen-

tine sports system is of utmost importance today. Without detracting the previous efforts, the one at present has proposed an active part in the discussion of Argentine sports.

Forming a modern, effective management plan which will be able to cope with the various challenges that arise at national and international levels. One of the first challenges was the nomination at the 122nd Session of the International Olympic Committee, held on February 10, 2010 in Vancouver, Canada. The City of Buenos Aires was chosen to host the 125th Session of that body in 2013. It won Kuala Lumpur by 58 votes to 31. This will be more than a simple session, because there will be chosen the headquarters to host the Summer Olympics of 2020, and also who will be elected successor to current President Jacques Rogge just to mention some of the various topics that are usually part of the agenda.

The AOC in conjunction with the national state through the Ministry of Sports has decided the creation of a figure which has come to change the reality of sport performance in the Republic of Argentina through the Enard (Ente Nacional sports performance).

ENARD (National High Performance Sports Centre)



Argentina has successful international sport teams in Football, Volleyball, Rugby, Basketball, and Hockey on wheels, Women's Hockey, just to mention some of them. But the economic and financial structures are infinitely inferior to the sports results. This is a key point to solve in our country, because the budget of the Ministry of Sports Nation is insufficient to achieve sports development which will be at the level of regional and international sporting powers.

Based on this situation Enard has been created as a legal entity state of public law, whose main aim is to manage and coordinate specific financial support for the implementation and development of high performance policies.

It has enacted the Law 26,573 which regulates the operation of such entity to manage the resources allocated in the law affecting exclusively:

- a) Provide scholarships to athletes engaged in sports activities and competitions as required under regulations of this law.
- b) To supplement the grants from the Ministry of Sports of the Nation to cover the expenses required for participation in international sporting events stated in the official calendar of the relevant International Federation which are included in the annual budget, approved by the Executive Board.
- c) Resolve technical fees affecting the coaches and high performance.
- d) Hire specialists in Sports Sciences and acquire the necessary elements for the training of athletes.
- e) Provide financial support for the organisation of national and international competitions to be held within the territory of Argentina.
- f) Ensure medical care coverage of athletes, coaches and managers covered by this law.
- g) Pay the maintenance costs of the doping control laboratory, under the Ministry of Sports of the Nation.
- h) Implement measures leading to support for Paralympic athletes.
- i) Implement plans, programmes, projects through public or private, national, provincial, municipal or autonomous city of Buenos Aires suited to these tasks. They can not exceed the ten percent (10%) of funds raised annually.

The AOC and National Secretary's Office are founding partners with the rights and obligations incumbent upon it. The essential fact of this law is clearly established on the financial regulations established in Chapter VI, Article 39, which reads:

- a) The product of one percent (1%), applied on the price of the fee that cell phone companies bill their customers, net of VAT.
- a) The proceeds of the contributions, donations, grants and contributions made by individuals or legal entities, public or private and all the resources that may provide the Federal Government.

The resources allocated are exempt from tax payments or national rates.

One of the key management Enard is the granting of scholarships. This proceeds as follows:

1. Athletes qualified for the XVI Pan American Games 2011:
 - a) Nominal rated Individual Sports.
 - b) Individual Sports by country.
 - c) Team sports.
2. Sports athletes which have not yet had their qualification can get to qualify for XVI Pan American Games 2011:
 - a) In individual sports.
3. Athletes who are able to classify for the games of the XXX Olympiad London 2012.
4. Athletes rated for the games of the XXX Olympiad London 2012.
5. Young promises: athletes who are fit to future talent.
6. Technical improvement grants for coaches.

There is no doubt that the economic sustainability of Enard is changing the preparation of our athletes, but it is even more generating a significant change in the training of young athletes in conjunction with the sports development plan established by the Secretary of Sports of the nation which establishes a different context when planning the Argentine sport. In this sense the YOG allows us to think of important roles of our young athletes and the training of our coaches to keep up in such circumstances.

Olympic Education

The Argentine sports system is evolving favorably towards professionalization of structures, both in the management bodies that carry out various programmes and also the ones concerning the educational university with courses in sports management. In this regard, the Argentine Olympic Committee has undertaken an innovative approach in the region in order to insert a formal educational teaching of Olympism within the educational environment. The inclusion of Olympic

education is well advanced within the Province of Entre Rios, and there are talks to develop it in other provinces such as Buenos Aires, Chaco and Santa Fe.

Rationale implementation of Olympism in the Argentine school curriculum

The proposal is based on the guidelines instituted in the Olympic charter (updated 2007). This statute outlines the fundamental principles, standards and legislation implemented in the International Olympic Movement, and is framed in the context of national educational policy, ruled by the current Law on Education No. 26 206 (of 2006), paying attention to paragraph (g) which ensures the respect for the rights of boys/girls and adolescents within the educational environment which was established by Law No. 26,061.

Taking into account the nature of our presentation, it is necessary to highlight the intrinsic substrate that encourages education and training in the Games, both in the ancient tradition and the modern version. On this respect we have selected some illustrative quotations taken from Coubertin's thinking:

The rebirth of the Olympic Games was proposed to enable them to better meet the educational values of sport in the modern world.

"Olympism tends to concentrate as a beam of light, all those moral principles that promote human perfection".

"Holding the Olympics is to celebrate the history... Requiring people to become friends might be childish, but asking for respect is not impossible or unrealistic, and in order to respect each other, it is necessary to increase their awareness".

"Regardless of the direction given to politics and the world economy, the future will depend on the direction that is given to education".

"Athletic Education exercises at least the same action on the moral over the physical... and if one side builds muscle, it also builds character and will, to say it briefly, it produces men... Physical Education seeks to develop the whole person".

“Olympism blends, like a halo, all those principles that contribute to the betterment of mankind”.

As an epilogue to this series of entries we have selected a quote from Dr Jacques Rogge, President of the International Olympic Committee:

“It is vital to the Olympic Movement, the educational values of sport as a means of creating and promoting true understanding of the people of the world’. The international character of the Olympic Movement, which increases over time, can transmit these values to the world”.

The formalization of a set consisting of three core values that sustain and strengthen the Olympic vision was approved during the IOC Session (2007):

- *Excellence*: means giving and being the best you can be in game and in life. What matters is not only to win but to participate, to progress according to personal goals and enhance the strong partnership of the body mind and spirit.
- *Friendship* is the value that is at the heart of the Olympic Movement, as it aims to perceive the sport in the mutual understanding between people and countries around the world.
- *Respect*: includes respect for one’s self, one’s body and others, people, sports, regulations, and the environment. Directly linked to sports, respect means fair play and fight against doping and everything that runs counter to ethical principles.

School is the educational environment, and the curricula of the different subjects are the theoretical foundations for achieving this purpose. Therefore, the curriculum areas that you can access through the Olympics and various forms of approach can vary considerably. Among them are:

- Complete course or lecture series.
- Special Education Day.
- Workshops.
- Conferences.

- Project “ethical and civic training for Olympics”.
- Mini Olympics, with special emphasis on Fair Play.
- Art Competitions: painting, poetry, music, drawing, photography, literary essays, and other subjects inspired by the values of sport.
- Journalism Students: with notes and studies on the Olympics, and student participation in school sports.
- Exhibitions of photography, stamps, pins, small sports museum.

The project’s significance lies in making a varied and multidisciplinary work-oriented towards Olympics, the Olympic games and sports with concrete suggestions for teachers who are going to develop the different subjects. The Olympics can interact with the educational system, to share knowledge and resources jointly, leveraging the respective, cultural, social, symbolic and economic human value. Olympic education conceived as relational space, conceptual, evaluative and attitudinal where the sports is a means to build better people, better organisations, better societies better communities. Where everybody conventional and disabled people will be able to improve by setting their own personal goals discovering their talents and recognizing their limitations.

Activities to date

- Signing of agreement with the Governor of the province of Entre Rios (2010).
- 1st Congress of Physical Education and Sports in school age (April 2010).
- Training sessions for future trainers in 2 days (May 2011).
- Publication of the Olympic education journal, with a guide for teachers.
- Editing DVD as theoretical support for the training.

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HARNESSING THE “TWITTER OLYMPICS”: THE USE OF NEW MEDIA FROM VANCOUVER 2010 TO LONDON 2012

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Introduction: What is “New” about New Media?

Recent transformations in media production and delivery demonstrate a model of communication that is shifting from a “one-to-many” mass audience paradigm, to a “many- to-many” era. These changes are characterized by the convergence of broadcast and print media, internet technology and mobile equipment and wider adoption of broadband, and trends towards participatory media cultures, signified by user generated content and multiple platform audience experiences (Jenkins, 2006:2). Such changes have had a dramatic effect on institutional communications policies, notably in terms of what the ‘best practice’ is in order to interact with an existing audience which have become promoters, communicators and appropriators of a brand’s intellectual property (McQuail, 2007:18).

The International Olympic Committee (IOC) has taken bold steps towards embracing digital media within their existing communication and media strategies, demonstrated in October 2009, when one of their core themes at the 13th Olympic Congress being devoted to the “Digital Revolution”. Previously, the Olympic partners had driven innovation in such areas. For example Samsung’s

"Wireless Olympic Works"¹ launched during the Athens 2004 Olympic Games, showcasing early advances in mobile internet, designed to help ATHOC officials and Games organisers to access important, digital information on the move. Similarly, Beijing 2008 may be regarded as the first truly digital games, thanks to media partners such as the BBC and NBC, who introduced full online and HD coverage of the games, revolutionizing the way in which the sport was experienced by their audiences. Indeed, it is reasonable to claim that, from Games to Games, sponsors aspire to achieve greater "personal bests", as do the athletes. Yet, the IOC Congress brought the IOC's work in this area to the foreground. Martin Sorrell's recommendations towards a digital revolution spoke about the power of improved broadcast quality and reached out to the potential of utilizing participatory media (such as social networking platforms such as Facebook and Twitter) and actively encouraging Olympic fans to recount their experiences of previous games by advising the release of archival clips on video-sharing platforms on YouTube to encourage fan-generated content through remixing and responding.

Furthermore, in correspondence with the launch of the redesigned website, Olympic.org, Sorrell recommends that the IOC begin to increase public access to their archival database. He describes this process as being a permanent move from linear media technology, such as a one-off broadcast of Olympic events, to an on-demand linear (the ability to replay that broadcast) to a community focused, on-demand experience, where audiences use the repeats of individual broadcasts to bond through with a consistent dialogue. In this case, the website is an important asset to the brand as it increasingly becomes the first port of call for official communications about events, news and educational information about the Olympic Movement.

Sorrell introduces this proposed online community as "a new wave of social coverage", such as President Obama's much documented social media campaign on the run up to being elected (Qualman, 2009:61), or Nike encouraging niche communities around urban running and trainers which are digitally enabled by

1. http://www.samsung.com/us/news/newsRead.do?news_seq=2003&page=1

Apple's iPods – for them, the Olympic website should be considered a hub in which new and existing audiences can use to form a bond with the movement.

The IOC and the Internet

For over a decade, the IOC have had an presence on the Internet, which ranges from the official, promotional/educational portal of Olympic.org, to the showcasing bidding hosts' websites which offer a digital glimpse into the personality of a city and lays out a public presence of how hosting an Olympic Games can benefit the local and national community of the hopeful nation. Furthermore, the successful organising committees begin to use their website to build content and information at least 6 years before their Games are due to start (Moragas & Kennett, 2005:3). It is hard to imagine how an Olympic Games, like the forthcoming London 2012 Games, would function without a sophisticated and multi- platform web presence to guide visitors and sports fans along the process of building an Olympic city. Incidentally, it has been only as recent as March 2011 where we have started to see the web address of games post-Athens 2004 being redirected to an Olympic.org archive containing selected text, image and video highlights of the action from the events. Nevertheless, content relies on an edited decision which does not necessarily include the emergence of Web 2.0 and social media audience generated content. There is a synergy between how the IOC archives Games-time activities generally and how it negotiates the emergence of many more new social media platforms that are likely to emerge. Questions of governance and resource management are central to these matters. This raises questions about how the blurring between broadcast and participatory media could be genuinely captured and utilized by a traditional organisation such as the IOC. If the IOC is to harness such outputs from websites such as Twitter, then we must understand how the digital archiving process works within the mega event context. One way in which this can be done is by looking at what the subsequent media partners and organisations have done during the recent Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympics and what is planned for the forthcoming London 2012 Summer Olympic Games.

The media context

It is widely understood that the financial implications of the Olympic infrastructure is heavily reliant on the revenue negotiated through the sponsorship from the Olympic Programme (TOP) and the broadcasting rights of events (IOC Marketing Factfile, 2010:6). This has remained the case since the IOC's financial crisis in the 1980s, allowing for corporations to carry the bulk of the cost of delivery. Therefore, the quickening evolution of the new media landscape and their subsequent effects emerging technologies have had on how media content is produced, distributed and managed is something which has research relevance for the IOC; namely how the exclusivity of access afforded by being an Olympic partner is maintained within a space which is inherently non-linear and completely decentralized in its approach to narrative dissemination.

Furthermore, the proposed transformation of communication technologies, the media population during games time has diversified. For example, since Sydney 2000, there has been the emergence of host city sponsored, non-accredited media centre providing facilities and access to visiting journalists/bloggers without IOC media accreditation (Miah, Garcia & Zhihui, 2008:453). More recently during the Vancouver Winter Olympics, as well as a British Columbia government hosted centre, there were at least three declared independent centres that were acknowledged and formalized prior to the Games, to report stories from within Vancouver and the surrounding region. The space each organisation occupied had differing access to media production facilities, from providing physical space for resources and to meet face to face and for discussions to existing purely online, choosing not to subscribe to physical representation of their institution.

This paper will now address aspects of Olympic media and its infrastructure from within the context that new media participation has had a direct influence on the Olympic Games in how it is situated and communicated within this space. It assesses the online activity of four different types of self-proclaimed media organisations by the Vancouver Games and will consider whether new, non-professional, alternative and online forms of media involvement can continue to develop and outside of the IOC's media agenda. Finally, it will argue on behalf

of a new media infrastructure for the Olympic Games, beginning with London 2012, which draws from the benefits of citizen media reporting as a direct challenge or complementary form to existing mass media. Whilst much of this can be related directly to changing creative labour practices within larger organisations –and have a bearing on mega events in general– the Olympic Games are a focus because of the nature of data collection gathered during the period of the 2010 Olympiad and is situated within a wider study of the new media landscape of the UK during the run up to London 2012.

Vancouver 2010: The Twitter Olympics

During the Vancouver Winter Olympic Games, there were at least 6 types of media venue in operation during the games time period. The Vancouver Organizing Committee (VANOC) provided at least two of these venues, namely the Main Press Centre (MPC) and the International Broadcast Centre (IPC), which had several build-for-purpose facilities across the geographical locations of the events (such as in downtown Vancouver and the winter sports resort of Whistler). Further to these facilities, there was also a host province led non-accredited media centre, British Columbia International Media Centre (BCIMC) which provided a space and a set of resources for visiting international journalists who may or may not have received IOC official accreditation for the official media venues. In addition to this, there was also a substantial and independent social or citizen media representation within these Games time space. Indeed, the Olympic Review which followed the Vancouver Games cited them as being “The First Social Media Olympics” (2010:10). Yet, as mentioned previously, the IOC’s official articulation of this phenomena concerned the use of user-generated content within controlled and organised circumstance. This included IOC controlled Flickr (a photo sharing website), Facebook and Twitter sites that selected particular threads and narratives which suited the dominant messages that the Vancouver Games wished to be represented by. Regardless of this, there were at least three pre-confirmed independent media centres or organisations that had no formal accreditation with the IOC, VANOC or the host

province established ahead of the games beginning. They provided locational support or resources, or a form of accreditation for journalists or citizen reporters to act as media workers 'on the ground' during this transformative time. There are two examples which will be used within this paper, W2 Arts and Culture House, a community media centre which were situated in the Downtown Eastside of Vancouver, crudely referred to as "Canada's poorest postcode"; and True North Media House (TNMH), an entirely online self-accredited media centre, that provided media pass templates for anyone to print and laminate, in order to access stories and activities which could be shared and uploaded via personal website and blogging platforms. What, BCIMC, W2 and TNMH had in common was the intention to cover alternative stories which emerge during Games time, which official journalists and media reporters might not have the motivation nor ability to cover due to their roles relating to sports-only access. Furthermore, the low-cost of energy to self-publish through the use of digital and mobile technologies has afforded the ability for those who may not be identified as "official" journalists to capture, upload and share content that rarely gets covered during past Games (Tapscott and Williams, 2008). It could be argued that the prerogative of the alternative reporter can be one that need not ever concern the coverage of sport, nor compete with the exclusive access given to those who can afford to secure the media rights in their country - instead, they have the opportunity to illustrate the complex and rich circumstances of an Olympic city during this intense period of competition.

From this, with reference to London 2012 specifically, Caplan (2010) argues that the battle of the narrative and legacy for these Games has already begun online, through the use of web and mobile protocols by individuals and the official London Organising Committee (LOCOG). By accessing photography around the event locations, he looks at the formal, informal and protest movements around the Olympic Games. There are not just staged and prepared photographs, but mobile snapshots, equipped with geographical data, which have been "shot from the hip" and shared quickly across social media platforms. This builds a layer of additional data across the city which cannot be seen unless you understand and know where to look. Therefore, Caplan states regardless of the viewpoint of the Olympic Games, the motivation for embracing the protocols is one of legacy

and participation – a legacy of history, a legacy from development and done so through participation within the networks. Furthermore, he discusses how the act of rebellion or narrative hijacking can not happen with just one or two objects, such as the casual image. There needs to be a “mobbing” effect to change any sort of dialogue around the mega event. That is, the informal capturing of images and wider digital content from citizens is rarely going to have an effect on the wider Games communication framework, but instead generate a wider set of messages, from different parties affected by the Olympic Games. This can spread in a multitude of ways and to multiple individuals and groups, both online and offline. He argues strongly about the importance of the online in the construction of a mega-event and how pro and anti groups –and the shades in between– have common themes in their delivery, where the only way to use the protocols is to agree on the process of network participation and a legacy of their activities – be it a financial, political or a social legacy (Caplan, 2010:32).

Returning to the Vancouver case, to assess the evolving media environment, two major dimensions of this phenomenon must be considered. Firstly, it is necessary to explore how those within the case networks identity themselves and with each other, either through the content that they have produced for an online audience or the ways in which they use media rhetoric to strengthen the authority of their reporting and of their position. Second, it is important to assess what opportunities arise through participation as an organised citizen media network, and how this may have an effect on their ability to analyse or critique narratives and events.

Accredited Media

Miah, Garcia and Zhihui (2008) articulate the present of accredited media as those who that adhere to the IOC’s guidelines that determine who an official journalist can be; enabling “privileged access to Games venues and exclusive right to report the official competitions” (Miah, Garcia and Zhihui, 2008:452). In the case of Vancouver, the accredited media were those who had access to the MPC and/or IPC, and therefore had varying degrees of access to venues and/or

Olympic Broadcasting Service content between 12th February and 1st of March, 2010. Accredited media concerns those organisations that have purchased the exclusive rights to sports coverage or journalists, freelance and/or who belong to organisations that have been approved to report on the games in this manner. In addition to custom built media venues, it is common for some organisations to construct their own dedicated olympic studios to accommodate larger volumes of staff. For instance, the Canadian broadcaster CTV constructed a studio in downtown Vancouver, one part of which had a street-facing window that actively encouraged local audiences to gather around their facilities to be captured on screen. This made the physical media infrastructure become part of the Olympic festival experience in its own right, creating new forms of Olympic venue within the Olympic city (Miah & Jones, 2011).

In addition to accredited media, there were also several official VANOC channels across social media platforms such as Twitter, Facebook, Flickr and YouTube – the first for an Olympic Games and building on Sorrell's recommendations from the congress in the previous year. The accounts were used to specifically share up to date news about the sporting events, encourage engagement around particular events and athletes, and midway through the games, on the 18th of February, 2010, the IOC's head of Social Media, Alex Huot, hosted a "blogger's only" party at Yahoo!'s popup headquarters in Vancouver, to announce that fan photographs could be shared, non-commercially, using an official Olympic group on Yahoo! owned Flickr.com. This was a major step for the IOC, as previously cease-or-desist letters were sent to those who captured copyrighted images, such as the Olympic rings and of the sport, asking fans to remove them or face legal action. This can only be the start if we are to make predictions towards London 2012's social media engagement strategies.

Non-Accredited Media

As Miah, Garcia and Zhihui articulate that when the term "non-accredited" is discussed in reference to Olympic media, we are discussing a journalist or media or-

organisation who may not have access to accredited media sources, but still has an accreditation of sorts from the established Centre, “so they are not simply unaccredited or completely external to the Olympic organisational framework” (Miah, Garcia and Zhihui, 2008:453). The non-accredited centre is usually funded and constructed by the host city’s governance structure - normally a local or provincial council. During Vancouver 2010, this was the British Columbian Provincial Government that kitted out the downtown University of British Columbia (UBC) campus with media equipment and resources, for local and visiting journalists and media outlets to report on stories out-width of the official sporting remit.

By receiving accreditation to the BCIMC, the non-accredited person received story ideas and press releases with a focus on tourist, cultural and localised topics. They could also gain access to press conferences that were being held within the UBC space. There was a distinct overlap in content between the accredited and non-accredited space, especially when it came to notable individuals who were visiting the centre. For instance, torch bearers such as Arnold Schwarzenegger ran with the torch for the purpose of official accredited media, before participating in a press conference about environmental issues with the Pacific Rim at the BCIMC. Although stories had a different perspective to those provided within official spaces, there were still plenty of access given to journalists within this area.

Independent Media: Physical Space

One of the independent media centres mentioned previously was W2 Culture and Media House, situated in the Downtown Eastside (DTES) of Vancouver. W2 is part of a wider cultural hub for the area that focused on using arts and creative technology to improve community cohesion within the local area. During the Vancouver Games, they provided a media centre with facilities for independent journalists and hosted cultural events, online broadcasting and art and media focused conferences (creativetechnology.org, 2010).

Although home to a variety of independent media outlets, such as rabble.ca, [freshmedia](http://freshmedia.org), indymedia.org and Vancouver Media cooperative (<http://vancouver.org>).

mediacoop.ca/) there were also a number of volunteers which acted on behalf of W2 to produce content for the centre. Like VANOC, they were also using twitter, facebook, flickr and youtube to capture and share content relating to their interpretation of the Games time period. One notable example was that of Fearless City Mobile, a grassroots collective of those who resided in the DTES, who used 40 donated mobile phones with video and data sharing capacity to capture their own perspectives of the Vancouver Games, whilst acting as "human rights documenters" (<http://fearlesscity.ca>: 2010). These outputs were screened in eight live public spaces across the city, turning the spectacle into another venue, much like CTV's window into the television studio.

The stories captured those within and connected to W2 served a purpose to collect and generate a searchable database of geo-locative content which could be accessed throughout the local and international community online. Much like Caplan's argument, the independent and citizen media outputs were designed to capture an Olympic narrative through use of digital protocols.

Independent Media: Virtual Space

Similarly, the final case study concerns True North Media House, an online project that was designed to grow an Olympic media centre using social media platforms only. The website encouraged participants to sign up using a web form, detailing name and website address. They were then guided to edit, print and laminate a pre-designed media pass, finishing the process of accreditation. The pass linked to a set of guidelines and objectives of the collection, focusing on the requirements to create and publish content that would be useful to international "media creators", offer a platform for lesser-known athletes, cultural Olympiad and community groups and showcase Vancouver a "new media innovator and entrepreneurial hub", setting the ground work towards future Olympic Games (True North Media House, 2010).

The group supplemented their online interaction with a range of self-governing activities including "tweetups", photo-walks, field trips and outings with

international journalists. Additionally, some TNMH participants managed to gain accreditation to the BCIMC, allowing for them to pull in additional content from the press streams generated by the non-accredited centre. During the course of the games, TNMH moved from a social media experience to a full blown media outlet, at least when it came to gaining access to particular areas. The blurring between the “official” and the blogger was maintained through the way in which content was shared and posted. There was no one space that dealt with what was being published; instead, articles on individual websites and social media profiles were being aggregated into a page using a syndication protocol, which TNMH called a “firehose” of content. The instance that a self-accredited TNMH reporter could, indeed, gain access to media events such as sponsorship parties and press briefings, such as the previously mentioned, official Flickr event, could be one that is unique to Vancouver. Nevertheless, it raises questions about what exactly is required from an individual in order to be considered as “media” during an intense period of activity such as the activity generated at an Olympic Games, within an Olympic City.

Conclusions

It would be a mistake to characterize media change as being an inherently “new” thing, not least because it has been taking place on an ongoing basis for at least a century (Naughton, 1999:269). One might even say that change is a defining condition of media culture. Nevertheless, through the discussion of even a small area of the media diversity present at the Vancouver Games, we can already see a transformation in how Olympic Media is being considered and how it is being delivered, by both those who are “accredited” by the IOC and those who are situated on the periphery. Furthermore, we are seeing how media spaces can be used as events in their own right, making the experiences of being within an Olympic host city being something where media is at the heart of the city’s narrative and identity. Lastly, the use of embedded geographical data within media created by mobile devices used to produce, capture and distribute social media

content, is creating an invisible layer of data, which represents the city in a communal, decentralised fashion. Therefore, if the IOC is to begin to take further steps beyond the simple broadcast of existing narratives on new platforms, which may or may not stand the test of time that the IOC has managed to achieve, they must be thinking in terms of an Olympic Games being more than a media event, but instead a media festival, engaging directly with the citizens who are sharing the media content, regardless of what they might be communicating.

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RESEARCH ON OLYMPIC EDUCATION FOR INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING: “BEIJING MODEL”

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Introduction

It has been generally acknowledged that multiculturalism is the wealth and power of the Olympic Movement, which what reflects in the practice of the Olympic Movement, is the education for international understanding. During the period of the Beijing Olympiad, the Olympic Education Programme for international understanding was developed jointly by the BOCOG and Beijing Municipal Commission of Education, based on the successful experiences of “One School One Country” models of the former Olympic host cities/countries, combined with the characteristics of Beijing/China. In this paper, I would like to cover three key aspects: firstly the development of the Olympic education programme for international understanding will be briefly introduced, and then theme exchange activities focused on reflecting the idea of the education for international understanding will be analyzed, finally the value and influence of this programme will be explored.

1. Development of Olympic Education Programme for International Understanding in the Beijing Olympiad

Based on the comprehensive investigation on the value of the Olympic Movement

and the experiences of the former Olympic host cities, the goal of Olympic Education for international understanding has been presented as follows: to popularize the Olympic knowledge and Olympic spirits among Chinese youth, enhance their understanding of the Olympic Movement, widen their international vision, strengthen the communication among the youth around the world, promote the international consciousness of equality, peace and development, and deepen the understanding of the youth around the globe toward Chinese culture.

An important feature of Beijing's Heart to Heart exchanges was that they implemented the form of matching "one school" to "one country", pairing one school with each member of the international Olympic family, and conducting "one to one" cultural and educational exchanges with every single member of the Olympic family. The programme aimed to carry out multicultural dialogues with all the world's peoples and to build a bridge of exchange and interaction among the youth of the world. From more than 2,200 primary and secondary schools, the BMCE selected 210 schools and paired them with the 205 members of the international Olympic family. The concrete methods were: evenly distribute the countries (or regions) according to the five continents among the eighteen districts and counties, and then have each district or county education commission organise the schools to sign up to "claim" the partner country or territory.

In order to make this programme closer to the students, name and logo collection campaigns were conducted among Beijing primary and secondary students. Hundreds of names and thousands of logos were created through the active participation of the students. Through several rounds of strict selection by the experts, "Heart to Heart" International Partnership Programme (or for short 'Heart to Heart' programme) was finally determined. This name is characterized by the traditional Chinese cultural symbol, possessed the same meaning as the Beijing Olympics' Slogan, "One World One Dream": under the Olympic flag, children and youth around the world, side by side, hand in hand, heart to heart, together share the Olympic values of mutual understanding, friendship, solidarity, and fair play in the equal and harmonious atmosphere.

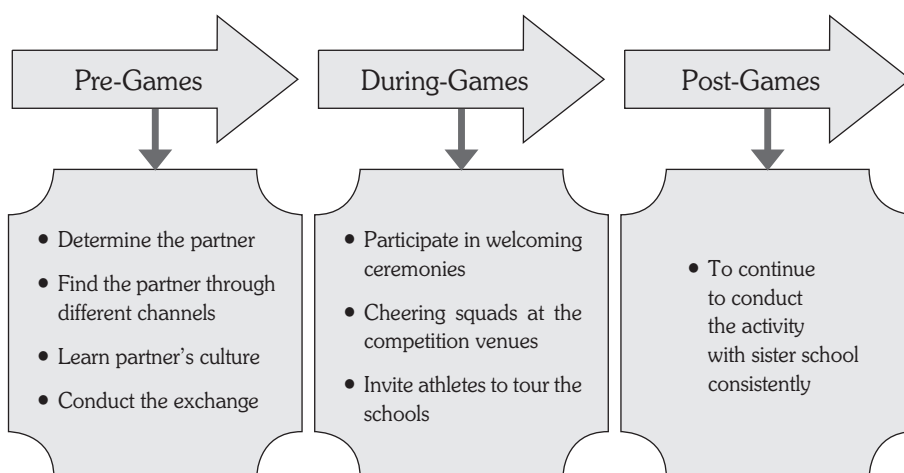
The logo was named the "Heart to Heart Flower" (see figure 1).



Figure 1. Logo of Heart to Heart Partnership Programme

The design is composed of five Chinese characters for “heart” (心) shaped like a flower blossom bursting into bloom, which illustrates the main theme of “Heart to Heart”. The coloring utilizes the five colors of the Olympic rings, and the combination of five “hearts” expresses that, inspired by the Olympic spirit, the people around the world share the common aspiration for the happiness of humankind. It also heralds a coming era of global unity and harmonious development; the combination of the five “hearts”, with their lively shape, as if the flower blossom is bursting into bloom, expresses the heartfelt wish of the peoples of the world for peace, friendship, and progress.

Figure 2: Main Contents of Heart to Heart Partnership Programme



The goal of Heart to Heart programme is to popularize the Olympic knowledge and Olympic spirits among Chinese youth, enhance their understanding of the Olympic Movement, widen their international vision, strengthen the communication among the youth around the world, promote the international consciousness of equality, peace and development, and deepen the understanding of the youth around the globe toward Chinese culture.

The Heart to Heart programme is divided into the periods of pre-Games, during-Games and post-Games, each of which consist of different activities, which can be seen in figure 2.

2. Theme Exchange Activities Focused on Reflecting the Education for International Understanding

2.1 Pre-Games Theme Exchange Activities

2.1.1 To learn about such knowledge as the physical geography, social customs, culture, history of the partner

- 1) The Heart to Heart schools carried out learning activities revolving around the subject of the partner countries and regions. The teachers and students of each Heart to Heart school mobilized multiple strengths, utilizing the internet, libraries to contact with people from the partner country or territory living in Beijing to search out information on their partner's geography, history, national flag, national anthem, etiquette and customs, which were used to create newsletters, web pages, and poster displays.
- 2) To integrate information about the partner country or territory into daily pedagogy at the school. Many Heart to Heart schools integrated the information about their partner into the school's regular pedagogical activities and –with the precondition that they would not increase the student's course load– were able to deepen the student's master of knowledge about the partner country or territory at multiple levels. For example, Yungang Primary School in Beijing combined the study of history, geography, politics, art and other

courses to develop hand-in-hand activities with “Senegal” and organise Olympic Heart to Heart activities.

- 3) Using culture weeks and art festivals as a vehicle to learn about the partner countries and regions. In its daily activities each Heart to Heart school utilized the hosting of culture weeks and art festivals on the theme of the partner country or territory to learn about the other party, such as “China-Germany Art Festival” “Czech Culture Week” “Norwegian Culture Week” and others.
- 4) Invite officials from the embassy in China and foreign exchange students to introduce information about the country and its language. Many Heart to Heart schools utilized methods such as inviting officials from the embassies in China and foreign students to the school to allow their students to understand the culture and language of the partner country. Some partner country ambassadors and consul-generals came to the Heart to Heart schools to introduce information about their country and teach its language and writing. The ambassador to China from the Eastern Republic of Uruguay, Mr. Luis Almagro Lemes, frequently visited their partner school –Dongfang Decai School in Beijing– to teach the Spanish language and introduce Hispanic culture. He was appointed an honorary teacher at the school.

2.1.2 Exchange activities with the sister schools of the partner countries or regions

Exchange activities between the sister schools included the Heart to Heart school visiting abroad and hosting the sister schools in visits to China. For example, a total of more than twenty Heart to Heart schools, including Beijing Number Eight Middle School, Shunyi District Mount Niulan Number One Middle School, and Beijing Number Nine Middle School, travelled abroad to visit their sister school and carry out various kinds of exchange activities, and in addition entered into discussions about mutual collaboration and exchange activities between the schools. Nagano Susobana Primary School in Japan, Adolf Gustav Grammar School in Estonia, Ressu Upper Secondary School in Finland, South Iceland Comprehensive Secondary School in Iceland, and altogether more than twenty overseas sister schools visited their sister schools in Beijing. The exchanges be-

tween the schools gave the students the chance to gain a personal experience of multiculturalism and friendship without borders.

2.1.3 Exchange activities carried out between heart to heart schools and embassies

The exchange activities carried out between Heart to Heart schools and embassies included visits by the ambassador to the school, visits by the school to the partner country's embassy in China. Since 2006, nearly 100 ambassadors and consul-generals to China have visited their respective Heart to Heart schools and carried out different kinds of exchange activities with the students, including ambassadors from Slovenia, Lithuania, and Uruguay. More than 60 Heart to Heart schools, including Beijing Hongzhi Primary School and Beijing Primary School, accepted invitations from their partner country's ambassadors and associated officials to visit the embassy in China and carry out exchange activities with the embassy personnel.

2.1.4 Exchange activities carried out between heart to heart schools and leaders and officials

Such exchange activities included visits by political leaders and high-ranking officials from the partner country to the schools, visits by officials from the Olympic Committee of the partner country to the schools, and visits by the Olympic delegations to the schools.

Before the Games, the Heart to Heart schools hosted more than twenty national political leaders and their wives, including the former Prime Minister of Japan, Yasuo Fukuda and his wife; Deputy Prime Minister of Great Britain, John Prescott; Prime Minister of Aruba, Constituent Country of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, Nelson Oduber; President of Cyprus, Dimitris Christofias; President of Bulgaria, Georgi Parvanov; First Lady of the Republic of Vanuatu, Hanson Kelekele; and President of Sierra Leone, Ernest Bai Koroma.

More than twenty presidents of National Olympic Committees visited Beijing's Heart to Heart schools, including Juan Antonio Samaranch, Honorary Life Member of the IOC; Jacques Rogge, President of the IOC; Philip Craven, Presi-

dent of the International Paralympic Committee; Sebastian Coe, President of the London Olympic Organising Committee; and Minos Kyriakou, President of the Hellenic Olympic Committee.

2.1.5 The Typical and Highlight Case: 2007 Beijing Good Luck Heart to Heart Summer Camp

The typical and highlight case is 2007 Beijing Good Luck Heart to Heart Summer Camp. In order to push forward the connections between the Heart to Heart schools and the members of the Olympic Family, in August 2007 BOCOG and the BMCE hosted the “2007 Beijing Good Luck Heart to Heart Summer Camp”. Over 300 teachers and students took part, from 34 Heart to Heart sister schools in seventeen countries and regions, including Greece, the U.S., Finland, Latvia, New Zealand, and others. The Heart to Heart summer camp strengthened the friendship and multicultural understanding between youth in China and abroad and also allowed the youth of many different countries and regions to deepen their understanding of the Beijing Olympics, Beijing, and China.

The students were deeply moved after experiencing the camp. *“The people with different nationalities, languages, colors and races are gathering in Beijing for the same beliefs and dreams. Enjoyment, smile, communication, study and passion are going along with us during those 6 days. We have built many a pure and beautiful bridges, wishing our friendship lasts for ever”* (Zhang Kexin, Student from Hongzhi Middle School of Beijing). *“Though we are born with different colors, languages, and habits, we are still able to communicate with each other agreeably. This camp has enabled me to understand the true meaning of ‘One World One Dream’, and also realized that each country possesses its own unique culture; and that it is the distinction and diversity of culture that has formed all the nationalities around the world”* (Li Jingyun, Dongzhimen Middle School of Beijing).

Through hard work the Heart to Heart Partnership Programme achieved the substantial success, which reflected by the facts that Beijing’s 210 Heart to Heart schools linked up with 204 members of the international Olympic family, established sister school relationships with schools in 161 countries and regions, and

carried out various educational exchanges and interactions between the young people and between the schools and teachers.

2.2 During-Games Theme Exchange Activities

2.2.1 Participating in Welcoming Ceremonies at the Olympic Village

Participating in the welcoming ceremonies for the athletes at the Olympic village was one of the indicative activities of the Heart to Heart exchange programme during the Olympic Games. The full participation of the Heart to Heart schools made the traditional ceremony to welcome the athletes into the Olympic village more cheerful and cozy, and also gave the athletes from the Olympic delegations of the different countries and regions a chance to formally meet the teachers and students from the Heart to Heart schools, with whom they had already had long-term contact but whom they had not yet met face-to-face.

From July 27 until August 9, 2008, teacher and student delegates from Beijing's 210 Heart to Heart schools and 36 school song troupes took part in 62 welcoming ceremonies for the delegations of 204 countries and regions. During the ceremony the students sang the Heart to Heart theme song. These welcoming ceremonies brimming with warm feelings gave the athletes from the different countries and regions a sense of the sincerity of Beijing's students. This also helped large numbers of teachers and students to participate in and learn from the sacred Olympic ceremony, and to experience the charm of world multiculturalism. For example, Australian Prime Minister Kevin Rudd sang together with the students during the entry ceremony and then took a photo with them. President of Mauritius Anerood Jugnauth and his wife greeted the students from their partner school, Chaoyang District Zuojiashuang Number Two Primary School, at their flag-raising ceremony.

2.2.2 Holding exchange activities during the Games

The highpoint of Beijing's Games-time Olympic education activities were the invitations to the Olympic delegations of the partner countries and regions and hosting of their visits to the Heart to Heart schools. Some Olympic delegations

drew up a plan to visit their partner school even before they arrived in Beijing, and contacted the schools after their arrival to discuss concrete arrangements for the exchange activities. Face-to-face exchanges gave the Heart to Heart teachers and students a chance to meet foreign Olympic athletes up close, and at the same time provided the people from the partner country a chance to experience the warmth of the Chinese people and colorfulness of traditional Chinese culture. Government leaders and Olympic delegations from many countries and regions visited Beijing's Heart to Heart schools during the Olympics.

More than 20 international government leaders visited the Heart to Heart schools, including the president of Cyprus and the head of state of San Marino. These high-ranking officials from various countries displayed their friendship toward the Chinese people during these activities, and truly embodied Olympism's ideals of equal participation, friendship and peace. For example, on August 13, 2008, the president of Cyprus, Dimitris Christofias, and his wife visited Haidian District Zhongguancun Number Four Primary School along with their Olympic delegation. The president toured the school grounds and played ping pong with the students. He said that being together with the students was his happiest day during his attendance at the Beijing Olympic Games. The Heart to Heart Partnership Programme made him feel very happy, and he hoped that the students would grow up into citizens possessing creativity, who would exert their efforts on behalf of friendship between the people of the two countries.

In addition, Beijing's Heart to Heart schools successfully hosted visits by more than twenty Olympic delegations, including Puerto Rico and Gambia. The members of the delegations were moved by the warmth of Beijing's children, and were thrilled by seeing their "hometown friends" in Beijing. The Heart to Heart school teachers and students tasted the profound joy of sports, and experienced how precious friendship and peace are. While visiting his partner school, Changping District Huilongguan Central Primary School, along with his Olympic delegation, Papua New Guinea's minister of sports borrowed the lyrics of the Heart to Heart theme song to elaborate on the theme slogan of the Beijing Olympics: the Beijing Olympics put forward the slogan of "One World, One Dream", but the Heart to Heart schools pursued the "Dream of One World, One Heart".

During the Olympics the teachers and students of the Heart to Heart schools also accepted invitations from the partner country to take part in activities that they held in Beijing. This enabled the students to further taste the warmth, friendship, and colorful and diverse cultures of other countries, which enriched the Games-time activities of Beijing's Olympic Education. For example, on August 8, 2008, at the invitation of Ukraine's embassy in China, teachers and students from Mentougou District Dayu Number Two Primary School, along with the premier of Ukraine and the ambassador to China, attended the ceremonial unveiling of a statue of the famous Ukrainian poet Taras Shevchenko in Chaoyang Park.

The above such face-to-face exchanges gave the Heart to Heart teachers and students a chance to meet foreign Olympic athletes up close, and at the same time provided the people from the partner country a chance to experience the warmth of the Chinese people and colorfulness of traditional Chinese culture. In addition, the teachers and students of the Heart to Heart schools also accepted invitations from the partner country to take part in activities that they held in Beijing, which enabled the students to further taste the warmth, friendship, and colorful and diverse cultures of other countries.

2.2.3 Spectating at the Olympics and Cheering for the Athletes

Based on the content of the Olympic Education Games-time activities, teachers and students from Beijing's Heart to Heart schools formed all kinds of cheering squads and went to the different Olympic venues to cheer on the athletes from their partner country. They decorated themselves with the Heart to Heart logo; wore the team uniforms of their partner; waved the flag of their country or territory, the school flag of their sister school, and the logo of the Heart to Heart Partnership Programme; and used their partner's language to cheer on the athletes. During the Beijing Olympics, preliminary and final rounds in 22 sports featured a lineup of spectators who were Beijing's primary and secondary school students, and the meticulously organised Heart to Heart school cheering squads formed an attractive sight at the semifinals and finals for volleyball and football.

Cheering for the partner delegation at the competition venues gave large numbers of teachers and students a chance to taste the atmosphere of excitement

at the Olympic Games venues, and also contributed to the students a real experience of sharing in the passion, joy, and mutual respect of the Olympic Games, in multiculturalism, the fighting spirit, and the pursuit of excellence.

3. Influences of Olympic Education for International Understanding in the Beijing Olympiad

Influences of Heart to Heart Activities have been reflected generally from two perspectives on education for international understanding in Beijing and China and the Olympic Movement.

The influences of the first aspect can be summarized that Heart to Heart Activities have accelerated the internationalization process of education in primary and secondary schools in Beijing/China; that Heart to Heart Activities have fully promoted the education for international understanding and peace education of primary and secondary schools in Beijing/China; and that Heart to Heart Activities have broadened the students' international visions and their capacity of international communication, and simultaneously aroused their love for domestic history and culture.

The influences on the Olympic Movement have been indicated that the experiences of Heart to Heart can be passed down to the Olympic host cities and Youth Olympic Host cities in the future; and that Heart to Heart activities have, to some degree, widened the contents of Olympic education for international understanding, and enriched the concepts of multiculturalism of the Olympic Movement.

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OLYMPIC EDUCATION IN THE SYSTEM OF VOLUNTEER PREPARATION

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The Kuban State University of Physical Education, Sports and Tourism (KSU-PEST) is one of the leading Physical Education universities of the Russian Federation according to the estimates of the Ministry of Sport, Tourism and Youth Policy Administration. This opinion is based on the result appraisal of the long-term university members' achievements in many directions of its professional work including preparation of highly skilled specialists, research, sport, educational work and also the big contribution to the advancement of the Olympic values on the basis of the authorship educational technologies focused on various target groups (preschool children, schoolchildren, students of high schools, working youth, adult population, influence figures, young athletes, sport elite). The active help in this work is rendered by the South Russian Olympic Academy (SROA) created in 1989 which members were numerous participants, coordinators and lecturers of the International Olympic Academy.

The special actuality of the Olympic Education application in the Krasnodar region student educational process is caused by the election of Sochi city as a Host City of the XXII Olympic Winter Games and the XI Paralympic Winter Games of 2014 which influenced on the increasing requirement of a modern labor market in the qualified specialists, mobile to the change of work character, development of new technologies that is impossible without the formation of pro-

fessional competence of the studying youth based on the principles of humanistic orientation knowledge and the Olympic education integration.

The given cognitive component of the services and hospitality field specialists' preparation, according to the opinion of the leading experts, is a sum of ideas and the values of the Olympic Movement which not only confirms the universal importance of this world phenomenon, but also forms the basis of special knowledge, helping to get into the spirit of Olympism and to provide professional service during the Olympic Games.

The professional component of the Olympic education supposes integration of the certain sum of knowledge about the organisational particularities of the Olympic Movement to the decision of problems connected with servicing during the Olympic Games into professional training of Services Department students. The decision of this complicated problem in the higher educational establishment of a sports profile is only possible upon condition of providing of continuity of ideals and values of Olympism in the formation of the general and professional preparation of the specialists.

The work in the given direction helps to give youth knowledge and skills within the framework of the state educational system and also to generate the system of valuable orientations in the field of physical education, sports and the Olympic Movement. The problem of student choice of an active living position on the basis of social and personal self-determination is becoming a reality.

The Olympic education – the pedagogical activity which purpose is youth inclusion in the humanistic ideals and values of Olympism is the way to solve the given problem.

As the honorable Vice-President of the Russian Olympic Committee (ROC), the professor V.S.Rodichenko (2008-2010) marked that nowadays there is still an obvious discrepancy between a high level of sport development and low level of introduction of ideals and values of Olympism in the children and youth educational process. This means that it is necessary to modernize the Olympic Education system in the aspect of preparation for the Olympic Games.

Considering that the major work during the XXII Olympic Winter Games and the XI Paralympic Winter Games of 2014 in Sochi will fall on the hospitality and

service industry, the priority role in the specialist preparation will lie with the Services and Tourism Faculty. In this connection the basic directions of the educational process modernization are distinguished which will be considered later.

1. Formation of the professional competence

For the practical mastering of the material Social and Cultural Services and Tourism Department of the KSUPEST together with the Centre of Employment Assistance constantly cooperates with the leading enterprises of the hospitality field providing training and work by occupation for all students.

2. Formation of the linguistic competence

Learning of foreign languages is a very important point in the preparation of highly skilled services and tourism field specialists. As the official languages of the IOC are English and French and the working languages are German, Spanish, Russian and Arabic, the basic emphasis in the training must be made on these foreign languages. The members of the Foreign Languages Department actively work in this direction, having shown interest in the preparation of specialists in the context of serving the Olympic Games. They make the offer to the staff of the Services and Tourism Department to develop the joint programme of linguistic competence formation of the future services field specialists.

3. Formation of the Olympic knowledge foundations

The educational-methodical complex, presented in Table 1 of the discipline “Organisation and serving the Olympic Games” has been developed on the basis of the collected material, which represents educational-methodical materials set and discloses ideals and values of Olympism based on the ROC and SROA recommendations, in which theoretical and practical aspects of the formation of the International Olympic and Paralympic Movements organisational structure

are considered, the role of the service and hospitality industry in the preparation and holding of the Olympic Games. Within the context of the discipline also designated is the study of the exhibits of the archaeological museum “Gorgippia” in Anapa city; acquaintance with Sochi city; video review “Ancient Olympia”, “The Olympic Games in Ancient Greece”, “How we were winning Turin”; film preparation about the activity of the SROA and its President - Professor A.G.Barabanov is planned.

Table 1. The content of the discipline “Organisation and serving the Olympic Games”

No	SUBJECT OF THE LESSON	Number of hours				
		TOTAL	Lectures	Practice	Seminars	Self-guided work
1.	Mythology and history of the antique Agonistics	10	2	2	1	5
2.	Organisational bases of the Olympic Movement	10	2	2	1	5
3.	ROC and Olympic Academies of Russia	10	2	2	1	5
4.	The Sochi 2014 Organising Committee and its activity	10	2	2	1	5
5.	Service of athletes, venues and sports facilities	14	2	4	1	7
6.	Specificity of service in the Olympic Village	14	2	4	1	7
7.	Hospitality industry in the infrastructure of Sochi	16	2	4	2	8
8.	System of professional training for the Olympic Games personnel	16	2	4	2	8
TOTAL		100	16	24	10	50

The aim of the given educational-methodical complex is improvement of the discipline teaching quality, implementation of science and practice last achievements in the educational process, promoting effective learning by students of the instructional material, and also formation of the professional competence. These

results have allowed the University Administration to plan this discipline with the content insignificant corrective of didactic units for third-years students of all specialities entering into the structure of the Service and Tourism Faculty.

Thus, the implemented programme essentially supplements practical preparation of specialists for serving the Olympic Games that was gradually generated in the separate scientifically well-founded technology which basic elements are the Olympic Education, communication competence and trainings at the Olympic objects.

4. Formation of the information competence

In 2008 the educational-methodical textbook “The Phenomenon of volunteering in public life” was developed which acquaints students with the history of social volunteering and the Olympic volunteers, with volunteer movement development and existing volunteer organisations. Manual preparation “Organisational particularities of serving the Olympic Games” comes to the end in which the mythology and history of the antique agonistics, genesis of the Olympic ideology, formation and structure of the International Olympic system, activity of the IOC, IOA, ISFs, OCOG and ROC, the Olympic Games (including participation of the Russian and Kuban athletes), Russian Federation legislation on the Olympic Movement, volunteers and contactors work, specificity of serving the Games, Olympic Village operation as a cross functional hospitality industry complex will be presented.

At the same time under the intersubject communications realization with the Biomechanics and Computer Science Department of the disciplines “Information and computer support in the services and tourism field”, “Techniques and technologies in the services and tourism field” and “Informational technologies in the services and tourism field” the students are offered constantly to get acquainted with the information which has been laid out on the official websites of the Olympic Movement: www.olympic.org (IOC), www.paralympic.org (IPC), www.ioa.org.gr (IOA), www.olympic.ru (ROC), www.paralymp.ru (RPC),

www.sochi2014.com (the Sochi 2014 Organising Committee) and to give analytical reviews.

5. Feedback provision

For the realization of this direction it is necessary to hold the annual competition “Experts of Olympism”, to invite sponsors for the provision of worthy prizes to students-winners. Upon termination of the discipline students are offered to pass a test by which results the level of their Olympic education will be revealed.

6. Application of the generated skills in practice

In 2008 for the purpose of the specialists preparation coordination for serving the Olympic and Paralympic Games the university Innovative and Olympic Programmes Department has been opened. One of its activity directions is application in practice of a project method based on the realization of sports, social and Olympic volunteer works. Thanks to this activity university students take part in the visiting of nursing homes for the aged, assist in the organisation and holding of health days, various sports events, carry out the work in kindergartens and schools on a voluntary basis.

The proof of university staff and students’ involvement in the international volunteer movement is the studying of the Museum of Sports Glory of Kuban archives spent in 2010. It is established that all serious scientific-methodical work which is now conducted in various directions of volunteer movement is based on the long-term experience of the organisation of various volunteer actions. In museum archive are found original exhibits and the documents confirming participation of:

- 150 students in the Opening Ceremony at the Games of the XXII Olympiad of 1980 in Moscow;
- 50 students in the theatrical performance of the Opening Ceremony at the I Goodwill Games of 1986 in Moscow;

- 40 students in the theatrical performance of the Opening Ceremony at the III Goodwill Games of 1994 in St. Petersburg;
- 28 students as volunteers (assistants to Krasnodar region teams) at the I World Youth Games of 1998 in Moscow;
- 25 students as volunteers at the International Sports Youth Games of CIS, Baltic countries and regions of Russia of 2002 in Moscow.

Besides in the active of university volunteers is the annual service of the international competitions on more than 20 kinds of sports and support of the regional teams. At the same time the University Administration always attached great value to the socially important volunteer projects which include:

- annual organisation by university students forces of health and fitness and sports-mass work with children, teenagers and youth at the athletic fields according to the places of residence during the summer vacation period;
- animation service and safety control work of resting people at the Azov-Black Sea coast;
- rendering assistance to pupils of preschool educational institutions, pupils of comprehensive schools in the organisation of sectional groups work of various sports;
- work directed towards the prevention of bad habits and drug dependence in the youth environment;
- participation in liquidation of consequences of emergency situations (oil-fuel spill disaster in Sea of Azov, forest fires in the Central Russia, flooding in Tuapse area);
- help to pupils of children's homes and also to veterans of the Great Patriotic War, of work and sports.

Thanks to this work the University is one of the recognized leaders among 14 High Schools of Physical Education of the Russian Federation in the field of the volunteer activity organisation that was repeatedly marked by the Ministry of Sport, Tourism and Youth Policy Administration.

At the same time in the conditions of preparation of Russia for the holding of the XXII Olympic Winter Games and the XI Paralympic Winter Games, the

Sochi-2014 Organising Committee experts noticed many times that for the decision of problems which volume is increasing with each month in a geometrical progression it is a long-felt need of attracting not only new staff members, but also volunteer assistants.

In 2010 the “Russian Volunteer Centres” contest was announced among educational institutions. Only three High Schools subordinated to the Ministry of Sport, Tourism and Youth Policy of the Russian Federation have submitted application forms for the participation in it and only one of them – KSUPEST has entered into the number of 26 awarded the honor to open on its base an Olympic Volunteer Centre in the area of “Event Services”.

Understanding the necessity of volunteer movement development as a special direction of voluntary service to a society was a basis of conducting serious research work on the given subjects.

As a result in 2006 the University won the grant of the Russian Humanitarian Scientific Fund for the project development “Social-pedagogical aspects of the formation of volunteer preparation system for the forthcoming XXII Olympic Winter Games and XI Paralympic Winter Games of 2014 in Sochi” (V.G. Minchenko, D.A. Kruzhkov, M.V. Koreneva, O.V. Shpyrnya, S.I. Akimova, 2006-2009).

After the IOC Session in Guatemala the Sochi-2014 Organising Committee became the unique legislatively fixed structure which is responsible for the organisation and holding of the XXII Olympic Winter Games and the XI Paralympic Winter Games of 2014 in Sochi which began an active work on the development of the methodical support and become the originator of the volunteer preparation and their base training.

Cooperation of our University with the Sochi-2014 Organising Committee has begun practically at once. In the University were held scientific-practical conferences:

- “Public relations in sport: education, tendencies, the international experience” (2007-2010);
- “On the way to the XXII Olympic Winter Games and the XI Paralympic Winter Games” (2008);

- “Healthy world by the eyes of volunteers” (2009);
- “Modern aspects of personnel training for the Olympic and Paralympic Games: Vancouver – London – Sochi” (2010) during which were discussed the perspectives of our participation in the volunteer preparation.

Many questions of the volunteer preparation and other educational programmes’ organisation which are developed and realized in our University have been coordinated with experts of the Organising Committee.

In 2008 the university volunteer centre was opened which concentrated its activity in sport, social and Olympic directions.

The basis of the centre’s effective work consists in the scientific-methodical approach to the organisation of its activity. Since April, 2008 the project “Volunteer School” is successfully realized.

The purpose of the given programme is students’ attraction, volunteer activity propagation, formation of abilities, knowledge and skills necessary for volunteer work and also increasing of students’ professional competence.

Programme tasks:

1. To open a volunteer movement role in a modern society to students;
2. To show attractiveness of volunteers’ functions performance during various events;
3. To provide guidance on service technologies of various events;
4. To teach to work in a team, to perform the functions of volunteer group leaders.

Requirements to the level of course mastering

The course consists of two basic sections – basic, general for all three directions (54 hours), and specialized, considering features of social, sport or Olympic volunteering (72 hours each).

The complete course includes besides lectures and practical training, the block of independent and creative work which provides writing and presenting the project work in groups (5-6 persons).

The training programme was developed for the university students of various faculties who will work as volunteers of various functions and after that must *know*:

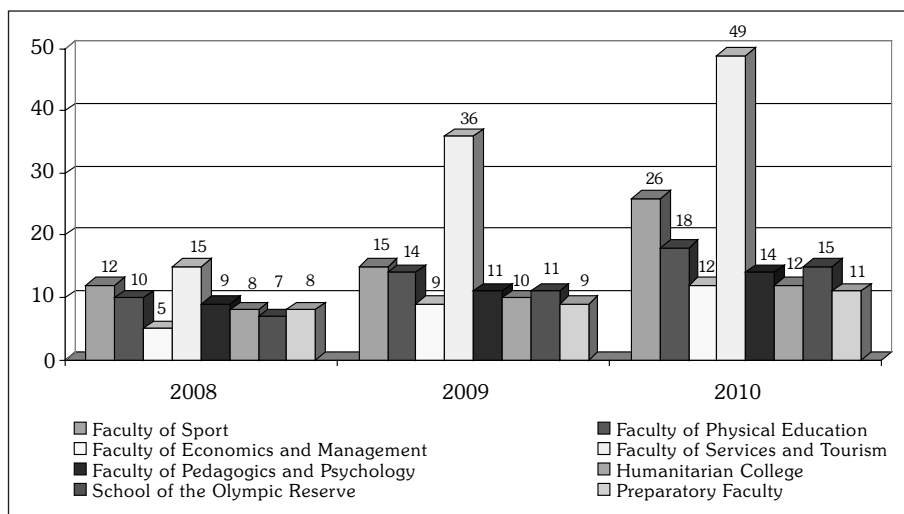
- the history of the international volunteer movement;
- modern condition of the movement in Russia;
- the rules of getting the volunteer book;
- the role of volunteers in the modern society;
- the functions of volunteers at different sport events;
- the work of volunteers in the Olympic Movement.

Must *know how to*:

- use acquired knowledge in practice;
- perform main volunteer functions at different sport events including the Olympic Games;
- use formed abilities and skills for serving test events of the Sochi-2014 Organising Committee.

The dynamics of listeners' quantity is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1 – The dynamics of listeners' quantity of "Volunteer School"



Thus, for three years at "Volunteer School" 346 students have received training preparation who mastered the basic ways of the voluntary work organisation and have received personal volunteer books.

In Table 2 the content of the basic section is presented.

Table 2. The content of the basic section of "Volunteer School"

No	Content	Number of Hours		
		Total	Lectures	Practice
1	The history and world tendencies for the volunteering development	6	2	4
2	Volunteering in Russia at the present stage, rules of getting personal volunteer book	6	2	4
3	Psychological-pedagogical aspects of volunteer activity	18	6	12
4	Communications and team-building in the system of voluntary service	18	6	12
5	Health and safety at the realization of voluntary projects	6	2	4
Total hours:		54	18	36

As an example in Table 3 the content of the specialized section for volunteer preparation of the Olympic direction is presented.

Table 3. The content of the specialized section for volunteer preparation of the Olympic direction

No	Content	Number of Hours		
		Total	Lectures	Practice
1	The public-state system of the Olympic education in the Russian Federation	6	2	4
2	The concept of the Olympic education of the Sochi-2014 Organising Committee	6	2	4
3	Organisation and servicing the Olympic Games	18	6	12
4	Bases of the theory and service technique of the Olympic objects	12	4	8
5	Specificity of work with spectators and visitors of the Olympic Games	6	2	4
6	Techniques and technologies of servicing the Olympic Village	6	2	4
7	The Olympic Ceremonies and animation service	6	2	4
8	Specificity of servicing Paralympic Games and visitors with life-support restriction	12	4	8
Total hours:		72	24	48

Practical training is held mainly with the use of business games, methods of active training and application of information technologies. The closing stage is working out and presenting of volunteer social project in small groups (5-10 students).

For the purpose of checking the efficiency of the project "Volunteer School" the degree of the University volunteers' involvement in service of the large events holding with the assistance of the Sochi-2014 Organising Committee with total number of participants of more than 100 persons has been analysed.

In June, 2010 in Sochi was held the official Debrief of the XXI Olympic Winter Games and the X Paralympic Winter Games in 2010. In its service 20 volunteers involved in 6 functional directions have taken part that has made 33.3% of total quantity of the involved volunteers.

In August, 2010 the youth camp "Region-93" was organised in the Krasnodar region. The main subject was volunteerism. According to the recommendation of the Organising Committee which coordinated the work of the camp, more than 40 hours were connected to the Olympic education. The successful work of the event helped to organise 20 students-volunteers who got practice at the Debrief.

In October, 2010 for the first time in the history of the movement "Generations for peace" the 7th peace-making camp was decided to be held not in the territory of the Arabic countries, but in Russia, in Sochi. 15 from 35 students were representatives of our university and provided information support, linguistic services, the organisation of educational-training process on sports disciplines during the event.

In February, 2011 in Sochi was held the Alpine Ski European Cup – the first test event at the first Olympic object of 2014 – "Rosa Khutor" Ski Resort. In this event 35 university students took part – 25 of the general profile and 10 with specialized ski preparation that has made 50% from total quantity of the declared volunteers.

The special place of the Olympic volunteer centre at the KSUPEST proves to be true that it will be officially opened personally by the Prime-Minister of the country Vladimir Putin and the president of the Sochi-2014 Organising Commit-

tee Dmitry Chernyshenko one day before the rest of the 26 centres are supposed to be opened (May 14, 2011) marking 1000 days prior to the beginning of the XXII Olympic Winter Games of 2014 in Sochi.

Analyzing the early presented data it is possible to be visually convinced that the share of university volunteers is steadily increasing at the events of the Organising Committee. For the half-year period the quantity indicators of involved volunteers increased from 33.3 to 50%.

It speaks about the positive motivating effect of the project "Volunteer School" and a high potential of the university Olympic volunteer centre which, we hope, will render the feasible help in the holding of the XXII Olympic Winter Games and the XI Paralympic Winter Games of 2014 in Sochi at the highest level.

It is necessary to notice that, despite the obvious voluntary character, volunteer activity has all the features of the professional work, and, therefore, the further volunteer preparation should be organised according to the scientifically-proved algorithms of professional training that demands the further perfection of work and activity of the university Olympic volunteer centre.

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WHEN OLYMPISM MEETS CONFUCIANISM – THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND ITS EDUCATIONAL VALUE IN THE CHINESE CONTEXT

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1. Introduction

The purpose of the study is to understand the Olympics from the Chinese perspective. More specifically, this study investigates how possible the Olympic Movement can promote moral development and civic education in the Chinese context. In the post-Beijing Olympic Games era, it is time to reconsider the Olympic Movement's legacy in China. Based on Coleman and Putnam's perspectives on Social Capital, this study examines benefits of the Beijing Olympic Games to China both at the individual and societal levels.

2. Theoretical foundations

For Coleman (1990), social capital is a form of human capital which “inheres in the structure of relations between persons and among persons” (Coleman, 1990: 302). Although social capital is mainly at the individual level for Coleman (1990), he believes that social capital can contribute to younger generation's development in a community or a country. This has actually linked social capital at the individual level to that at the societal level. Putnam (1993b: 35-36) defines social capital as “features of social organization, such as networks, norms, and trust,

that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit”, and thinks that it is positively related with the quality of democracy (Putnam, 1993a). Putnam’s distinction between bridging and bonding social capital networks is then analogized by Uslaner (2002) as norms of generalized and particularized trust. This can be applied to understand what forms of social capital have been constructed after the Beijing Olympic Games and what educational value it has brought to China.

3. Research Methods

Papers about the Beijing Olympic Games are first reviewed to delineate a broad picture. Text analyses about the Chinese government reports and media reports are then performed. With the aforementioned basic knowledge, three focus groups, with 13, 15, and 16 Chinese scholars and experts respectively, have been done while 15 interviews are conducted with Chinese government officers, their next generations (nicknamed as 太子黨 *taizidan*, meaning “princes’ club” in Chinese) professors, PhD students, and specialists in relevant industries. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that not all of them are pro-government supporters, which means contrasting or even conflicting ideas are expected in the following section where findings and discussions with debates will be presented. Given that responses can tell interviewees’ background and thus help readers to draw a broader picture and understand better, sentences cited below will be initiated as P, G, S, E, and T while they are from professors, government officers, PhD students, experts/specialists in relevant industry, and next generations of government officers (*taizidan*) respectively.

4. Findings and Discussions

It is generally believed that the Beijing Olympic Games has proved how successful the convergence of ancient Greek and Chinese philosophy could be, and such convergence can be illustrated in the following three aspects.

4.1 Chinese people's reflection of Confucianism after the Games

The Games has offered an opportunity for Chinese people to rethink about their own sports history and philosophy. While talking about if Confucianism is for or against sports, different comments can be found.

Confucianism has a negative impact on Chinese sports. For example, Confucianism emphasizes more on philosophy than techniques (重道輕器), and thus prefers the pen to the sword. This has hampered sports development. Confucian ethics damaged sports impartiality and people's recreational needs; Confucianism which values more the group than the individual also depresses people's potential and creativity of sports; the doctrine of the mean (中庸) is again oriented to strangle the bold spirit of sports adventure spirits. (P5)

Confucianism is supportive of sports. Rites, music, archery, riding, writing, and arithmetic are the six classic arts. Among them, rites and music constrain people not to fight, but since fighting is inevitable for human beings, then archery is introduced as an alternative. This is a perfect combination of martial spirits and morality. Courtesy in the traditional feudal system can permeate into the initiation and development of sports culture. With the generalization of archery, sports, the extreme of fighting, war, can be avoided. This actually coincides with the Olympic spirit. (G2)

The emphasis on yielding in Confucianism can be thought as a competition for honour and a courtesy match. This echoes to Huizinga's (1950:55) comment "in ancient China almost every activity took the form of a ceremonial contest" and "We might call it an inverted boasting-match, since the reason for this display of civility to others lies in an intense regard for one's own honour" (Huizinga, 1950:66). As stated by Confucius "The Junzi (the students of virtue or ideal persons in Confucianism) has no contentions. If it be said he cannot avoid them, shall this be in archery? But he bows complaisantly to his competitors; thus he as-

cends the hall, descends, and exacts the forfeit of drinking. In his contention, he is still the Junzi” (君子無所爭，必也射乎，揖讓而升，下而飲，其爭也君子).

However, if Confucianism encourages sports, why does sports culture disappear in China these centuries and Chinese were even sneered as “sick men of East Asia”? As mentioned by Giles (1911), ancient Chinese used to play sports which had disappeared for a long time. This again contradicts the idea that Confucianism encourages sports. A possible explanation is the political change in China since Qin Dynasty (221-207 B.C.) and the instrumentalization of Confucianism by the ruling class since Han dynasty (202 B.C. – 220 A.D.).

After Han Dynasty, Confucianism is used to serve for the state apparatus. The centralized political power in the Empire is not happy to see its people so physically active since that may lead to militant spirits and thus threaten the regime. (S6)

In order to survive or not to infuriate those in power, scholars tend to protect themselves and interpret classics of Confucianism in a safer way. For example, in Tang Dynasty (618-907 A.D.), we’ve got a doctrine “Achievement is founded on diligence rather than recreation” (業精於勤荒於嬉). In Ming and Qing Dynasty (1368-1644 A.D. and 1644-1912 A.D. respectively), the eight-essay examination has strengthened Chinese’s physical inactivity. (P7)

It can be concluded that after the Games Chinese people start to reflect their own sports history. Since they have proved that the original and classical Confucianism (before Qin Dynasty) is supportive of sports and should not be linked to shame and disaster confronted by Chinese from 19th century, it is high time for the revival of Confucianism.

4.2 Revival of Confucianism

The Beijing Olympic Games had to some extent led to the revival of Confucianism in China after its Cultural Revolution. Early in 2011, a statue of Confucius has been erected on Tiananmen Square in Beijing. This is significantly important

as Tiananmen is the symbol of power in China. Two more examples raised in the focus groups can illustrate the revival of Confucianism after the Games.

Have you noticed our opening ceremony? No Marxism and quotations of Mao Ze-Dong are cited. Instead, “all human beings from around the world are our brothers” (四海之內皆兄弟) and “Isn’t it happy that there is a friend come from afar?” (有朋自遠方來, 不亦樂乎) are broadcasted to billions of spectators around the world. We want to show the world the best of Chinese culture, the essence of Confucianism. (T5)

Yu Dan’s books about Confucianism are very popular with millions of copies sold. This is perhaps for the first time since the Cultural Revolution that books about traditional culture can be best sellers. (S8)

Not only so, many Chinese politicians refer to Confucianism in various occasions. (E2)

From the perspective of civic education, it can be concluded that the Games has stirred the revival of Confucianism in China. Will such moral development influence the relationship between China and the Olympics? Will China’s interaction with the outside world be changed?

4.3 China and the Olympics

4.3.1 *The Olympics to China*

Some of the participants in the study are anti-Chinese government but some are not. The former come mainly from those who work in social movement NGOs in China, with missions ranging from AIDS prevention to poverty relief. Although both camps admit that staging the Games helps the regime to consolidate its power and legitimacy, they have quite different interpretations about the rationale.

It is just a show for Chinese government to show off its power and thus find legitimacy for itself. Can you imagine how much we have

spent only in the opening ceremony? With a small proportion of it we can solve many problems in the countryside. (S8)

I partially agree with S8 because staging the Games can transfer the attention of the whole country from internal problems to a greater dream, the Olympic Dream of Chinese people. You can say that Chinese government is trying to escape problems inside the country, but actually the event has indeed brought our sense of achievement and group awareness for cohesive force. This is not only beneficial to the regime itself, but also to the society at large. (E4)

E4's viewpoint is correct. As Dr. Sun Yat-Sen (Father of the Nation) observes, Chinese do not cooperate very well. Staging the Games can give us an opportunity to keep walking and make our dreams come true because now we have a shared vision. (G1)

Overall, citizens in China (at least Beijing) had been baptized by the event and transformed to a new generation of the "New China". Besides, equal rights to women are also a gift from the Olympics to China. Chinese society used to have the tradition where male is valued more than female. As discussed by Brownell (2008), Chinese women's sports participation and their success in the Games have shaped women's status in China. Moreover, the gender construction in the sports world has proliferated to other aspects in this country. Gender stereotypes and inequality are also diminishing after the Games, especially when so many female athletes have proved that they can be successful not only in the game, but also in their daily personal life.

4.3.2 China to the Olympics

Compared to the divergent ideas about what the Olympics have brought to China, interviewees agree that China has shared much to the Olympics.

People around the world need to celebrate this moment because I think our opening ceremony is the perfect combination of sport and art has been achieved. (E8)

The Games have provided a platform for encounters between Olympism and Confucianism. It is a great experience for people from different cultures. (T3)

After the Games, our ancestors' wisdom has revived. We've got an ideal for world peace (世界大同) and Confucius taught us the concept of "human and nature as one" (天人合一). Now we have the chance to add these on top of the Olympics tradition. I feel proud that we do not only get something from the Olympics. (P9)

In Brown's (2008:192) term, this is "a green sports philosophy that could be a new contribution to Olympism". However, although overlapping educational ideals of Olympism and Confucianism can be found as "everyone has right for sport" is part of Confucian argument, more concerns have been raised about how to prolong and deepen the influences of Olympism in contemporary China. Social stratification, especially in wealth gap and ageism, is quite serious at this moment and "Sport for All" could be one possible measure to examine the convergence of Olympism and Confucianism in contemporary China. As mentioned by Ren (2006), "our knowledge and practice in sports are based on a society composed mainly of younger generations and tend to marginalize the elderly". Since China needs to face challenges of population ageing and poverty in its rural area, implications to the Olympics can be concluded from China's "Sport for All" strategy and its efficiency to solve the problems.

4.4 Resolution of disputes between the IOC and China?

4.4.1 2008: Turning point in contemporary Chinese history

The Fundamental Principle # 5 in the Olympic Chapter (2004: 9) is "Any form of discrimination with regards to a country or a person on grounds of race, religion, politics, gender or otherwise is incompatible with belonging to the Olympic Movement". However, it is also true that there exists a political dispute between the IOC and China about the status of Taiwan (named as "Chinese Taipei")

by the IOC or “Republic of China” by itself) and U.S. government’s role in the game. How do Chinese interpret the history after the Games?

The reason why Chang Kai-Shek’s Nationalist Party (Kuomintang) can still survive in Taiwan is because of U.S. Government’s political, economic and military support. I do think our controversy over Taiwan problem with the IOC is just a good example of U.S. Imperialism. They just do not want to see a growing and unified China. (G4)

G4’s conclusion is right but I also think that Taiwan problem is complicated because U.S. Empire and Japan’s interferences. Taiwan is part of China so this is the internal affairs of our country. Other countries do not have right to intervene us. (P3)

These two comments are typical when Chinese think about Taiwan, but after the Games the cross-strait political tensions had been dissolved; how do they explain the change?

4.4.2 Peace constructing and conflicts appeasing

For historical reasons, Chinese tend to construct their self-identity based on how the West (especially U.S.A.) and Japan consider them (Brownell, 2008). Taiwan, as a Japanese colony before 1945 and deeply influenced by U.S.A. after 1945, is always a core concern for Chinese. In terms of political impacts the Games can have to China internationally, Taiwan is still a hot topic for them.

Another significant achievement during and after the Games is that our compatriots in Taiwan look upon us differently. They now understand that we are a lovely motherland who is growing up with both hard and soft power. We have proved that we are changing and we hope they can treat us not as an enemy, but as a kind brother who can give them what Japan and U.S.A can not offer. After all, we are from the same family. (G6)

I think political issues should be dealt with humour. Yes, we used to

have bad relationship with Taiwan, but that is because of misunderstanding for political and historical reasons. Now many things have changed. Staging the Games can persuade Taiwanese that we, Chinese on mainland China, have changed to a better direction. I believe they are smart enough to understand the reality. (S10)

Although many other factors can help to explain the friendly relationship between Taiwan and China after 2008, Chinese interviewees' answer also implies that Olympism and Confucianism can co-operate quite well as both are characterised in the promotion of peace. Similar to the findings when discussing other afore-mentioned topics, interviewees have a big debate in this regard. More specifically, those in the opposites are willing to listen to each other and think more about different voices which they were unhappy to hear before, demonstrating again the Chinese's democratic accomplishment has been advanced after the Games.

5. Conclusions and Suggestions

It is self-evident that a New China has emerged after the Beijing Olympic Games, demonstrating that Olympism and Confucianism can work together well with their mutual merits. Based on the findings, this study suggests that the authorities concerned in China should try to link sport with culture and education in the era of China's peaceful rise if the Beijing Olympic Games is considered not just an event.

5.1 How possible can sport change the world?

5.1.1 Mutual understanding

As stated in the Olympic Chapter (2001) "Olympic spirit...requires mutual understanding with a spirit of friendship, solidarity and fair play", in general participants acknowledge that staging the Games helps Chinese understand the outside world and vice versa. However, it seems not so possible for the outside world

and China to accept each other only because of one Game, but the mutual understanding is visible up to date. Staging the Games indeed provide more opportunities for Chinese people to understand others in the global village. While interacting with the outside world (especially the Western), Chinese people are aware of obvious concerns from these “foreigners”. They know that after capitalization, the world shows solicitude for the democratization in their country. Their answers vary in terms of democracy in China; some of them even think Chinese do not care about democracy at all. But they believe that the revival of Confucianism indeed provides another route for China’s rise and construction of world order.

5.1.2 New world order: revival of Confucianism with China’s peaceful rise

The West concerns more about changing China through the Games while Chinese are more interested in changing, or at least having the West learn something from them. Although most interviewees doubt if they can really embed something new into the outside world, they generally agree that it is exactly what the Chinese should make efforts in the post-2008 era. If the West finds it hard to accept 100% pure Chinese stuff so quickly, then maybe “not-so-authentic” version of Chinese stuff could be the compromise at this stage. This is in line with the doctrine of the mean (中庸), the core value of Confucianism. Moreover, since GANEFO (Games of the New Emerging Forces) in the 1960s is at least a successful case for developing countries’ voices to be heard by the IOC, it is also expected that China’s networking with his partners in the developing world can be an alternative for him to be a member, or a new leader in the world.

5.2 Democracy is possible, but with Chinese features

As can be seen from the findings, contrasting or even conflicting viewpoints are collected in this study while debates are actually found in the focus groups. This is a symbol that Chinese have got used to multiple voices and accept critical ideas against their government. But this does not mean that jasmines can survive or even bloom in China. While they admit that the seeds of democracy have been

cropped with the preparation and staging of the Games, what matters though, is how the seed will grow up in the future.

The reviving Confucianism can find its niche here.

A dilemma for China at this moment is that Communism has lost its capacity to inspire the Chinese but the Western liberal democracy belief is not thought as a popular or doable political solution by the Chinese. Instead, while revival of Confucianism can be found among Chinese government officials, intellectuals with unique perspectives, as well as ordinary people, it is highly expected that Confucianism, as the main principle to govern the country for almost two thousand years, would very likely be the country's ruling political thoughts. On one hand, it overlaps some Western values inherited from the ancient Greece; on the other hand, it is respectable and has its long-lasting history in this country. It can therefore be taken as the greatest common divisor between Communist China and Democratic West.

To sum up, social capital among Chinese after the Games can be found in their daily life interaction at the individual level such as shared language, shared norms, sense of belonging to a group or community, and tolerance to those with different ideas. Moreover, at the societal level, cultural shocks after contacting with the West have brought the Chinese changes not only in hardware such as architecture and infrastructure, but also in software such as organisational standards, self-confidence based on which a not-so-distorted self-identification may be found. After realising their Olympic Dream, the Chinese have a new wish- to be a member of the global village and contribute to it, according to the wisdom of the Confucianism.

5.3 Suggestions for future research

5.3.1 Reflection about methodology

Instead of choosing between the two polar opposites (pro- and anti- China), the researcher tries to be neutral just to report and analyze what is collected in the field. Readers from different backgrounds are encouraged to think critically but respect sympathetically why these Chinese interviewees have such ideas,

although readers are also entitled to decide to what extent they agree or accept such ideas. Diverse interpretation and implication generated by readers from various initiatives are expected by the author since triggering more conversations in this regard is one aim of this study.

Readers may also find selection bias in this study as all the interviewees and participants in focus groups are either government officers in high positions and managers from relevant industries or well-educated professors and students, which is a small proportion of Chinese population. However, if they understand the political, economic, and socio-cultural context in China, they will believe that sampling is acceptable since the state and market are basically controlled by a combination of these groups: government officers and their next generations (*taizidan*), professors, experts/specialists in relevant industry, and PhD students (especially for those studying abroad) who will then become government officers, professors, experts and specialists. Given such institutional environment, it is estimated that a general trend in China can be concluded from the participants' expression. However, it does not mean sampling in this study is a perfect one. Since contrasting responses are collected, future studies can use purposive sampling and snowball sampling to recruit those with different political background and thus disparate opinions to further investigate the rational and implication for such diversity in China.

5.3.2 Further investigation topics

Topics such as "Sport for All", child abuse, women's sports, sports for the elderly and people in the rural China are covered in this study, but not with so much attention. Future researchers are therefore encouraged to investigate how these issues are dealt in contemporary China since they provide an alternative to observe how the Olympic Movement helps to promote moral development and civic education in the China. One possible solution may be the cross use of Olympism and Confucianism since they are complementary in some aspects- the former focuses on fair play in competitiveness with individual social capital being emphasized while the latter values more on community awareness when highlighting social capital at the societal level.

Another important issue which is raised by the interviewees but is out of the main theme in this study is doping. Here are not talking about anti-doping as a moral advancement. Instead, they care more about use of Chinese traditional medicines and worry this will be another battle where China and the West would have very different viewpoints. China has its own long-lasting medical knowledge but the West knows little about it. The legalization of Chinese traditional medicines is therefore linked to anti-doping and can also be a topic worth investigating in the future.

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THE DEMARCATION PROBLEM IN SPORT

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Introduction

In everyday language we use terms as “game”, “competition” and “sport” almost indiscriminately, sometimes synonymously. But researchers are trying to use language more accurately and try to distinguish between the various activities.

Using the same terminology is somewhat problematic, not just academically, but also practically. For example if games are sports, we have problem with activities such as board games, card games and more. If sport is competition then how we should treat those angry birds’ championships held around the world?

Therefore, we should first track back to origins of the word “sport” and the meaning behind it. I allowed myself to open with citation from often used Wikipedia:

“Sport” comes from the Old French desport meaning “leisure”. American English uses the term “sports” to refer to this general type of recreational activity, whereas other regional dialects use the singular “sport”. The Persian word for sport is based on the root bord, meaning “winning”. The Chinese term for sport, tiyu (体育; 體育) connotes physical training. The modern Greek term for sport is Αθλητισμός (athlitismos), directly cognate with the English terms

1. The “Introduction” and “Areas of sport” paragraphs are based on report made by the committee for updating the definition of sport in Israel, in which the author participated as a guest expert.

“athlete” and “athleticism”. The oldest definition of sport in English (1300) is of anything humans find amusing or entertaining. Other meanings include gambling and events staged for the purpose of gambling; hunting; and games and diversions, including ones that require exercise (Wikipedia, 2011).

Areas of sport

English writer Joseph Strutt (1801) in his book “The sports and pastimes of the people of England” using the concept of sport to emphasize the competitive facet of the leisure pursuits of the English People. Strutt usually addresses sport for activities that strongly involving rivalry and competition, here are a few citations:

“He was also exceedingly fond of hunting, hawking, and other sports of the field...”

“...the sons of citizens and yeomen had also their sports resembling military combats...”

Other meanings of sport also possible:

...Burton, in his Anatomy of Melancholy, published in 1660, gives us a general view of the sports most prevalent in the seventeenth century. “Cards, dice, hawkes, and hounds”, says he, “are rocks upon which men lose themselves when they are imprudently handled, and beyond their fortunes”. And again, “Hunting and hawking are honest recreations, and fit for some great men...” (Strutt, 1801).

Dancing is there called a heathenish practice, and said to have been productive of filthy gestures, for which reason it is ranked with other wanton sports unfit to be exhibited (Strutt, 1801).

Another popular activity at that time described by Strutt is Bull and Bear-baiting, a fight between well trained dogs and bear and it also named sport.

Based on his three hundred pages fundamental work we can notice that

sports are activities involving a certain level of arousal, pressure, and uncertainty but not always connected with any physical exertion and sometimes can be performed by external devices.

Facets such as uncertainty and conflict also emphasized by adventure literature from 19th century, with books like: *Sport in the Crimea and Caucasus* (Wolley, 1881) and *A Sportsman's Eden* (Wolley, 1885) mainly describing hunting adventures and struggle against wild nature. In sport philosophy uncertainty and pressure of contest mentioned as key factors in understanding the essence of sport (Kretchmar, 1995).

Another important lesson we can learn about sport from classic British literature is some kind of equality of chances as accented by Kipling (1894) in *Jungle Book*:

“Man is the weakest and most defenseless of all living things, and it is unsportsmanlike to touch him”.

“To kill a naked cub is shame. Besides, he may make better sport for you when he is grown”.

From the aforementioned we learn that sport has much in common with games: both activities not vital for surviving neither productive, they aim at enjoyment and fun, share some goals, rules and amount of uncertainty. Sociologists like McPherson, Curtis and Loy (1989) point out that sport are some more formalized, defined by clear criteria of achievement as shown by Guttman (1978):

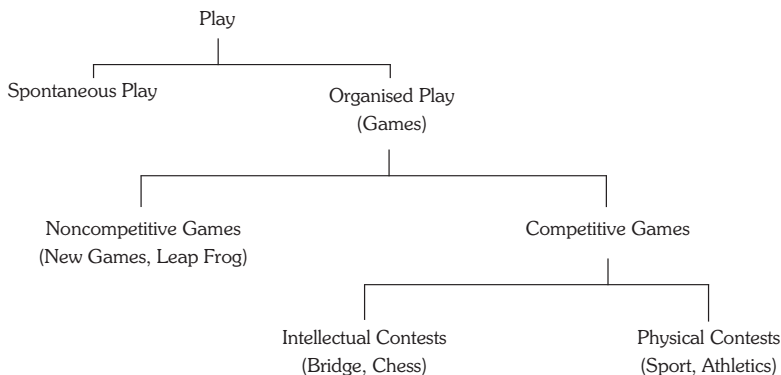


Figure 1. Guttman's Classification of Games

Harris and Park (1983) also make an effort to divide games from sport:

... sports are seen as a special type of game involving highly codified rules, large scale use of the body, use of skills acquired through specialized training, and public display before an audience. A number of scholars... identify physical prowess, disciplined training and highly developed specialized skills as major attributes distinguishing sports from games.

Two major problems emerge from the aforementioned attempts to separate games from sport:

The first is some kind of bond between sport and physical exertion that immediately breaks down by nowadays reality with games such as chess and bridge officially recognized as sports by the IOC. The second is scholars' argument that sports share higher levels of competition, regulation, specialization, formalization, etc. This one also fails the reality test with card games and computer games share the same characteristics, with table football also known as futsal makes efforts to get the IOC recognition for sport.

At this point we should emphasize that recognition as sport is a matter of great importance for broad spectrum of activities. It enables to receive funding on the national level, permit using sport facilities, enter educational systems to recruit new participants, etc. So there is no surprise that even a traditional bar game such as darts has pretensions to become recognized by the IOC (The Guardian, 2006).

The late philosopher Carl Popper engaged somewhat similar problem he called "demarcation problem" – distinguish the science from pseudoscience, between science and religion, while many different disciplines claimed to be a scientific. His efforts lead to a few widely agreed criteria that scientific method must follow, nevertheless the boundaries between science and non-science continue to be debated (Resnik, 2000).

Of course national governments can't wait until scholars will solve the demarcation problem in sport, ministries of sport around the globe must draw clear boundaries between sport and non-sport activities while more and more organi-

sations fighting their rights to receive funding as sport. Those practical solutions need to be examined.

Definitions of sport

The Australian Sports Commission (ASC) has a long-established definition and criteria for recognizing which activities are defined as sports and which sporting bodies are recognized by the ASC as National Sporting Organisations (NSOs) and National Sporting Organisations for people with a Disability (NSOD). The ASC defines “Sport” as: “A human activity capable of achieving a result requiring physical exertion and/or physical skill which, by its nature and organisation, is competitive and is generally accepted as being a sport” (ASC website, 2011).

ASC anchors the sport to physical exertion and/or physical skill. ASC stands behind its definition as Bridge and Chess that are recognized by the IOC are not recognized as sport in Australia due to the absence of physical dimension in them, while Frisbee and Darts are recognized by the ASC and not recognized by the IOC.

Russian Federation law defines sport as:

Part of physical culture, historically rooted in the form of competitive activity and the special practice of preparing people to compete (Regulations on the All-Russian registry of sports, 2001).

Then Legislature sets definition for common Russian term “sport type” or “type of sport”:

An integral part of sport, which is based on systematic training and participation in competitions in order to achieve the highest performance. As a result of training irreversible negative changes should not happen in the athletes systems of the body. The distinctive features of sport are: environment of activities, used inventory - without protective equipment, rules of competition - the basic principles (Regulations on the All-Russian registry of sports, 2001).

Finally sport discipline is defined:

An integral component of sport type, which includes one or more types of competitions (Regulations on the All-Russian registry of sports, 2001).

As we see the Russian Legislature put some extra efforts to settle issues around sport. Examination of registry of recognized sports reveals that 159 sport types are included there, activities such as: model aircraft and ship-modelling contests, capoeira, paintball, checkers and much more, are all recognized as sports. As a result we can not find correlation between the sophisticated definitions and registry of recognized sports.

The German Olympic Sport Confederation (DOSB) opens its own definition of sport with paragraph about how difficult to define what is sport. And indeed the DOSB definition is pretty sophisticated, 133 words were needed to draw a line about activities that are sport (DOSB website, 2011), while the Australians did it with 30 (fig. 2).

Although those sports are not part of the medal programme on the Olympic Games, most of them are recognized by the IOC. Once more we can notice nebulousity around Chess – Germany and Russia included it in sport registry, ASC did not. Angling (Fishing) inclusion into the sport list is also interesting.

Sport England follows the Council of Europe's European Sports Charter 1993 definition of sport, from Sport England website:

The sports councils do not decide what is and what is not a sport. There are many different opinions as to what constitutes a sporting activity and the Sports Councils do not have their own definition of sport. However, we operate a recognition process to establish which sports we may consider working with. When deciding whether to recognize a sport, the Sports Councils look to see if it meets the Council of Europe's European Sports Charter 1993 definition of sport and if the sport is well established and organised within our jurisdiction" (Sport England website, 2011).

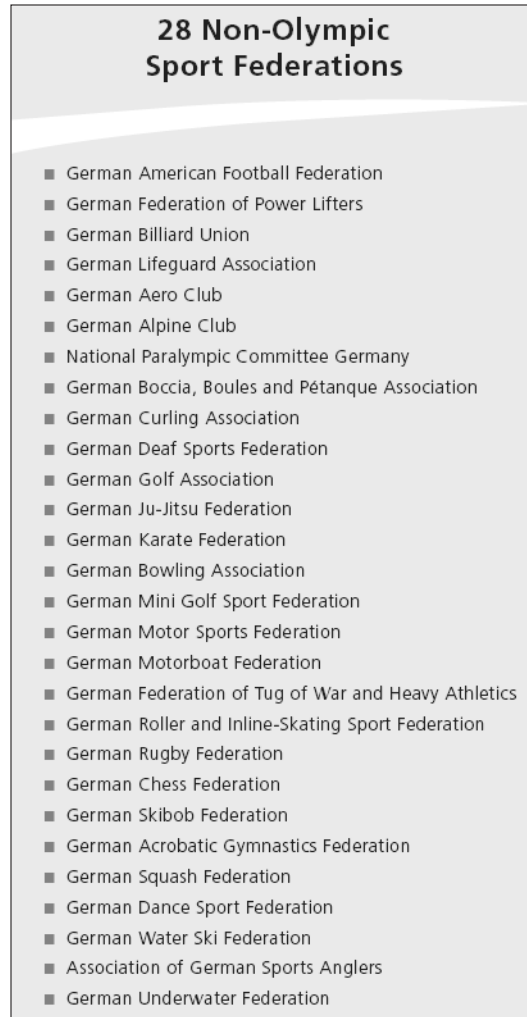


Figure 2. DOSB recognized sports (DOSB, 2011)

Here is the European Sports Charter 1993 definition of sport:

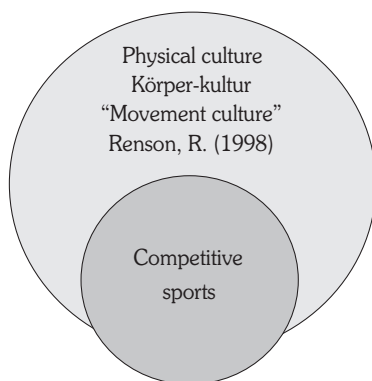
Sport means all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organised participation aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being forming social relationships or obtaining results in competition at all levels (Irish Sport Council website, 2011).

Worth to mention that games like rounders and quoits are recognized sports in England. The British Model Flying Association is a recognized sport National Government body although the relation to aforementioned physical activity is not clear. There are more interesting activities in the registry (for details see: Sport England website).

We can notice that there is certain level of chaos about definition of sport and boundaries around it on a national level, countries define sport in different ways and recognize different kinds of sports, sometimes particular recognition going against their own definition.

Lebed (2003) summarized two different approaches toward sport as seen in figure 3:

German Russian approach toward sport



English American approach toward sport

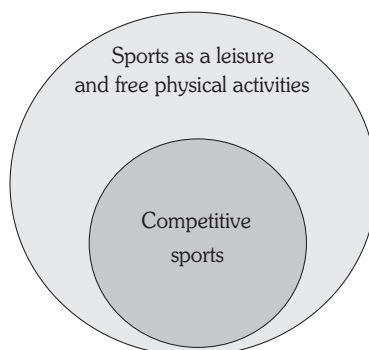


Figure 3. German and Russian approach toward sport versus English American as shown by Lebed, F. (2003).

On the International level more than 100 sports are represented by SportAccord also known as General Association of International Sport Federations (GAISF). SportAccord mission:

“SportAccord is the umbrella organisation for both Olympic and non-Olympic sports as well as organisers of sporting events. One of the main objectives is to unite and support international sports federations by encouraging and facilitating knowledge sharing and by

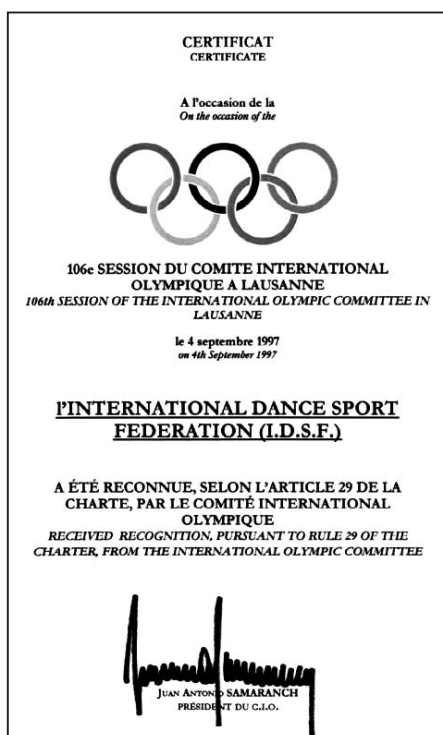
providing expertise in relevant areas. SportAccord aims to promote its Members and to increase their visibility by establishing various multi-sports games that group together similar sports and put them on a worldwide stage” (SportAccord website, 2011).

However there is no definition of sport by SportAccord, one criterion is:

“A written declaration justifying that the sport or activity which they control does not conflict with or is not in rivalry with an already existing Member of Sportaccord” (SportAccord website, 2011).

The main purpose of such adaptive criterion (sport or activity) is not to chain the organisation to any definitions and agreements.

The IOC recognizes an activity as sport by receiving its International Federation (IF) into the family of Governing Bodies, here is an example of such invitation given to International Dance Sport Federation in (IDSF) 1997 (fig, 4).



There are many administrative rules that IF must follow to enter this honorable family; however there is no definition of what is sport in the Olympic Charter (Olympic Charter, 2007).

At first sight it may look a little surprising that the IOC, a pharos for all sport organisations and athletes around the world not dwell on conceptualizing the essence of sport, but let's try to summarize what we saw until now and then make a judgment.

Figure 4. IDSF recognition by IOC (IDSF website).

Demarcation problem in sport, bypass by IOC

Sport on an amateur level is not part of occupation, transportation or home production. It is leisure time/recreational activity, it must involve physical and/or mental exertion, it can also be oriented on manipulating an external device. Sport has considerable overlap areas with games and physical activity, but it is not full one (fig. 5).



Figure 5. Overlapping areas between sports, games and physical activity based on current review.

As mentioned before and shown on figure 5, some sports (e.g., shooting, model flying, etc) are not games and not sufficiently physically active.

It therefore is clear that the solution for the demarcation problem will be a sharp tool that enables to cut out the sport activities without touching the others. To the best of our knowledge no scholars neither practitioners found such a tool. The absence of a gold standard about sport makes it reasonable to evade attempts to define it,

and shift the efforts toward another direction.

Some scholars look at sport as an important agent of socialization, and these of course include the sociologists. They seek and emphasize the values or benefits that sport brings to society. From that kind of perspective each national and international institution that manages sport may first define its vision, mission or role, values it seeks to achieve, even before trying to define sport. The IOC thoroughly details this in “Fundamental Principles of Olympism” (Olympic Charter, 2007, p. 11) and later on in “Mission and Role of the IOC” (Olympic Charter, 2007, p. 14-15). Further reading of the IOC Charter lead us to number of recognition criteria:

The IOC may recognize as NOCs national sports organisations, the activities of which are linked to its mission and role. The IOC may

also recognize associations of NOCs formed at continental or world level. All NOCs and associations of NOCs shall have, where possible, the status of legal persons. They must comply with the Olympic Charter. Their statutes are subject to the approval of the IOC (Olympic Charter, 2007, p. 16).

In order to develop and promote the Olympic Movement, the IOC may recognize as IFs international non-governmental organisations administering one or several sports at world level and encompassing organisations administering such sports at national level. The statutes, practice and activities of the IFs within the Olympic Movement must be in conformity with the Olympic Charter, including the adoption and implementation of the World Anti-Doping Code. Subject to the foregoing, each IF maintains its independence and autonomy in the administration of its sport (Olympic Charter, 2007, p. 57).

As we see the IOC estimates the marginal utility of each organisation or activity toward Olympism, and recognizes only the sufficiently developing and promoting ones.

Conclusions

We set out to analyze the complexity of the definition of sport – demarcation problem. The term that was originally introduced by Karl Popper, who for decades tried to find a way to draw lines around science and separate it from pseudo-science disciplines. In both cases sufficient level of agreement on the basics exists but the boundaries continue to be debated. Different countries may have different perception of sport due to local tradition and culture.

The IOC and other sport organisations may evade facing the demarcation problem in sport by concentrate on contribution of proposed activity toward the organisation's vision, mission, role and values the organisation seeks to achieve.

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FROM RHETORIC TO ACTION: COMPARING OLYMPIC EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN BEIJING AND VANCOUVER

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Introduction

“Olympic education” is the educational mandate of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), and refers to the broad range of Olympic-related educational programmes conducted by various institutions during each Olympic period. In this paper, the promotion of Olympic education is explored as a joint endeavor of the IOC, International Olympic Academy (IOA), National Olympic Academies (NOAs), Olympic study centres and institutes of higher education around the world (Naul, 2008).

Despite the fact that the term “Olympic education” did not appear within contemporary research and scholarly works until the past few decades, the Olympic Movement’s commitment to education stems from its founder, the Frenchman Pierre de Coubertin, whose initial goal of revitalizing the modern Olympic Movement was to employ a system of competitive sports to propel educational reform in response to the deep-rooted political and social crises in his native France (Kidd, 1996; MacAloon, 1981; Weber, 1970). In this sense, the modern Olympic Movement cannot simply be seen as a system of competitive sporting events, but rather as a broadly educative and developmental project on a global scale.

Within the growing body of scholarship on numerous aspects of the modern Olympic Movement, however, less attention has been paid to Olympic education. In contrast, this research paper will examine the aspirations and practical development of Olympic education. This paper has been inspired by the urgent realization that Olympic education is more important than ever before as a result of the ever-worsening situation of physical inactivity among children and youth, the deepening crisis of social inequality in terms of participation in sports and physical activities, and the general ineffectiveness of formal education in many societies. Responding to this, Olympic education, with its unique ideals and pedagogy, is expected to serve as a powerful force to foster new ideas and well-rounded qualities in youngsters. This research paper will begin with a brief literature review that investigates the historical and contemporary aspirations of Olympic education, followed by a comparative analysis of the Olympic education programmes conducted by the recently concluded Beijing and Vancouver Olympics, and examine how the Olympic values have been transmitted into practice. Finally, I will conclude with the major successes that have been achieved by Beijing and Vancouver, and briefly address the problems and concerns of their educational programmes. The major question I will pursue is whether the IOC's agenda of Olympic education has really been conducted as the Olympic Movement intends in the national education systems in China and Canada, whether it has been sustained after the Games, and whether it has been beneficial to the children and youth who received it.

The Aspirations of Olympic Education

The original aspiration of Olympic education can trace its historical roots to the father of the modern Olympic Movement –Pierre de Coubertin– and his ideology of Olympism. Coubertin's stature has always been connected to the fact that he was the one who propelled the establishment of the IOC in 1894 and organised the very first modern Olympic Games in Ancient Olympiad, Greece, two years later. However, the essential driving force that inspired Coubertin to revitalize the

ancient Greek sport festival has often been neglected – he was first and foremost an educational reformer. Indeed, Coubertin was a radical critic of the educational conditions of his time; he criticized traditional education for its repressive teaching methods and overcrowded curriculum, and considered it “too weak to make significant contributions to the education of modern citizens” (Wassong, 2006, p. 220). Therefore, young Coubertin went on study trips to Germany, England, the United States (Naul, 2008; MacAloon, 1981; Müller, 1998, 2000, 2009) and Canada (Kidd, 1996) in the 1880s and 1890s. Sports and physical games had become a distinctive feature in the British and American elite, male-only, private schools and universities as well as some state schools during that time (Naul, 2008), which largely contributed to Coubertin’s belief that amateur sport can be used as an educational means to strengthen a country’s national integrity and buildup its international strength (Wassong, 2005).

Likewise, for Coubertin and those who helped him establish the modern Olympic cycle, the Olympic Games were designed to be a sports and culture based educational movement, through which young adults from all over the world gather together, with the ultimate goal to “enhance human development and generally make the world a better place” (Kidd, 1996, p.83). In Coubertin’s oft-quoted retrospective article “The philosophical principles of modern Olympism” (1935), he offers his basic interpretations of the nature of Olympism:

- (1) A religion of sport (the *religio athletae*)
- (2) An aristocracy, an elite (but egalitarian and meritocratic)
- (3) Chivalry (comradeship and rivalry-suspension of exclusively national sentiments)
- (4) Truce (the temporary cessation of quarrels, disputes and misunderstandings): “... to interrupt their struggles for a moment in order to celebrate loyal and courteous muscular Games” (p. 582).
- (5) Rhythm (the Olympiad) “the Olympic Games must be held on a strictly astronomical rhythm, because they are the quadrennial celebration of the human springtime, honoring the successive arrival of human generations” (p. 581).
- (6) The young adult male individual.

(7) Beauty-artistic and literary creation.

(8) Peace, promoted by mutual respect based on mutual understanding.

Although some of Coubertin's expressions seem tied to the ideals of his own time, his conceptions of Olympism are still considered the rudiments of Olympic education. Also, Coubertin's values have been reflected in modern manifestations in the educational context and the efforts to define Olympism by contemporary sports and education scholars from a broad range of social and cultural backgrounds. Most researchers (Arnold, 1996; Binder, 2000, 2001; Binder & Guo, 2004; Geng, 2007; Grupe, 1996; Kidd, 1996; Pei, 2008; Ren, 2009) interpret the aspirations of Olympic education based on the fundamental principles in the *Olympic Charter*, and elaborate on these aspirations from various perspectives. Commonly, they share an ideological consensus that stresses the unity of body and mind, as well as harmonious human development, with the same goals of promoting the common interests of humankind, such as peace, mutual understanding and friendship. They call for sports for all and emphasize participation in physical activities as a basic human right. Additionally, in their works, they espouse joint values, such as fair play, exceeding limits and striving for excellence. Most importantly, it is widely acknowledged that all of the humanistic values are carried out through the pedagogical method of sports and physical activities. To this end, it is the original ideology of Olympism and the following academic conversations that constitute the theoretical foundation of contemporary Olympic education.

The term "Olympic education", however, does not occur in Coubertin's own writings; instead, he initially used "sporting education" in a book he published in 1922, *Pédagogie sportive* (Müller, 2004). It is widely acknowledged that "Olympic education" first appeared in the work of the Olympic Movement and the research of Olympic scholars in the 1970s (Müller, 1994, 2004, 2009). A large number of studies followed, written by sports and education scholars from a range of social and cultural backgrounds. There is no single, unified definition of Olympic education; generally speaking, scholars have examined two broad categories of learning: the experiential learning-by-doing of participating in sport in an Olympic context, and formal learning about the Olympic Movement, its

values and programmes within the context of an institutional programme. In the first category, Naul (2008) refers to Olympic education as a pentahedron consisting of the spirit of Pierre de Coubertin, a cultural task for school sports, didactic objective for physical education, value education for everyday life, and Olympic learning within social milieus. In the second use of the term, Ren (2009) refers to Olympic education as an educational activity that takes youth as its main target group and uses sports to disseminate the Olympic values carried out during the Olympic period.

Olympic Education Programmes in Beijing

The Beijing 2008 Olympic Games drew worldwide attention because the Games were staged in the world's most populous country with unique social and cultural backgrounds. Also, it was only the third time the Olympic summer games have been held out of the West (after Tokyo 1964 and Seoul 1988). It is claimed in the *Beijing Olympic Education Report* that the city has fulfilled its promise in the bidding contract by spreading Olympic ideals to 400 million Chinese children and youth and conducting the largest scale Olympic education campaign in history. To a large extent, the aspirations of Olympic education, promulgated on the IOC's website, enshrined in the Olympic Charter and taught through a variety of ways in Olympic academies and schools around the world, are considered as the guiding principles and ultimate goals for Olympic host cities when planning and conducting Olympic education programmes. However, since these aspirations of Olympic education originally came from outside China, there was much speculation about what impact the Olympic values would possibly generate on China's social milieu and Chinese youngsters.

Likewise, the ever-worsening situation of physical inactivity among children and youth, the deepening crisis of social inequality in terms of participation in sports and physical activities, together with the problematic educational system and the virtually failed educational reforms in China, awakened people to the fact that they needed to take the Olympic education rhetoric into serious

consideration. Responding to the call, I argue that the values and inspirations that Olympic education advocates outline a theoretical framework to underscore some of the critical problems in reference to sport, physical activity and education within Chinese society.

The Olympic education project in China was conducted in correspondence to one of the three main themes of the Beijing Olympic Games, the “People’s Olympics” (the other two are the “Green Olympics” and the “High-tech Olympics”). Interestingly, the initiation of Olympic education also started from the “people’s efforts” long before the official implementations. Consequently, I divide the Beijing Olympic education project into two parts: the official Olympic education programmes and Olympic education activities carried out by a volunteer group at the grassroots level.

The official endeavor can also be called government-sponsored Olympic education. A project named *Beijing School Olympic Education Action Plan* was launched in December 2005 by the Beijing Municipal Education Commission, which initiated the official Olympic education campaign. Related institutions were established later in succession to cooperate with the Communication Department of BOCOG, taking the responsibility to plan and implement Olympic education programmes in schools, from elementary schools all the way to universities. Atypical example is the Beijing Olympic Education Standing Office¹. According to Shen Geng (2007), the director of the Olympic Education Standing Office, the official Olympic education programmes consisted primarily of four pillars: Olympic Education Model Schools², Heart to Heart Sister School programme, Olympic Volunteer Education, and Olympic for all. In addition, an Olympic education research and training programme for teachers, aiming to foster talented Olympic education intellectuals and facilitate Olympic education activities also played a key role in the overall Olympic education practice in China. Many scholars have

1. The Beijing Olympic Education Standing Office was setup by the Beijing Municipal Education Commission in 2005 to implement the Olympic education programmes.

2. In December 2005, BOCOG and the Ministry of Education worked out the Beijing 2008 Elementary and Secondary School Olympic Education Programme and designated 536 Olympic Education Demonstration Schools nationwide, with 200 of them in Beijing, aiming to promote good examples and push forward the implementation of Olympic Education across the country.

given the name “The Beijing Model of Olympic Education” to the combination of the four pillars, the various Olympic education programmes, the integrated organising system, and the research seminars on related topics.

Theoretically, China’s Olympic education history can be traced to as early as 1993, when Beijing first bid to hold the 2000 Olympic Games. A college level textbook entitled *Olympic Movement* edited by Ren Hai was published, which is often described as the initiation of Olympic documentation in China. However, with the city losing the bid, the textbook was never employed in the school curriculum. The actual practice of Olympic education did not proceed until 2001, after Beijing’s successful bid to host the Games. The original attempt was primarily led by the grassroots Olympic education promoting team founded by Pei Dong-guang, a professor at the Capital Institute of Physical Education. The team was made up of 40 people, including PE teachers, students and voluntary citizens, and it pioneered Olympic education practice in China in 2001, four years earlier than the official programmes. Since Pei had worked as a PE teacher for ten years before going to Canada to study the Olympics, he felt Olympic education would shake up traditional physical education and bring new ideas into Chinese schools. Thus, he decided to spread Olympic knowledge and Olympic values, starting from primary and secondary schools in Beijing. It was in late 2001 that the very first school-based Olympic education trial run was initiated in Yang Fang Dian Central Primary School, with inadequate financial backup, little authoritative support and limited social recognition. The grassroots Olympic education promoting team managed to hold four sessions of mini Olympic Games, develop soft sport equipments and design a series of Olympic knowledge panels, thanks to the financial and physical support from each individual voluntary team member. After years of endeavor, the school achieved tremendous success in Olympic education practice and set examples for the government-led Olympic Education Programmes that followed.

Olympic Education Programmes in Vancouver

Unlike China, Canada, as a powerful Western country, has always been an ac-

tive figure in the history and development of the modern Olympic Movement. Although Canada has a proud record of both participating in and organising the Olympic Games, some pointed social problems concerning participating in sports and physical activities still exist. Inequality and inequity penetrate almost every aspect of sport and physical activity participation, and they cause social problems. Socio-cultural studies (Beamish, 1990; Brohm, 1978; Donnelly & Harvey, 2007; McKay, 1992) show that white males from upper and/or middle classes with high and stable financial abilities generally have more opportunities to participate in sports and physical activities than their female, visible minority and working class counterparts. Further, health issues such as diabetes, obesity and the sedentary lifestyle are becoming increasingly critical within Canadian societies. It is generally believed that a lack of regard for sports, physical activity and education has contributed to this problem. Kidd (2009) notes that 87 per cent of Canadian children and youth do not engage in physical activities sufficiently to experience the adaptations necessary to healthy growth and development. In this sense, hosting the Vancouver winter Olympics and spreading the Olympic values are believed to have both a traditional basis and an essential future mission for the Canadians.

Normally speaking, the scales of Olympic winter Games are usually not as significant as Olympic summer Games in a variety of ways, such as the number of sports events, the number of participant athletes and coaches, the media coverage, and so forth. However, the Vancouver 2010 Olympic educational programmes stood out as part of the continuous Canadian trend in the history of conducting Olympic education, building on Montreal 1976 and Calgary 1988. To date, limited academic literature has been released to the public concerning Vancouver's Olympic education programmes. The majority of the data employed in this paper are collected from the official website of the Vancouver 2010 Olympic winter Games³ and the official website of the Canadian Olympic school program⁴.

3. http://www.vancouver2010.com/more-2010-information/education-programs/feature-programs/the-canadian-olympic-school-program_34030Bh.html

4. <http://www.olympicschool.ca/default.aspx?PageID=1000&LangID=en>

The Vancouver Olympic education programmes were launched by the Vancouver Organizing Committee for the 2010 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games (VANOC), with support from the BC Ministry of Education and representatives from 13 ministries who are responsible for education in Canada (the official website of the Vancouver 2010 Olympic winter Games). With joint contributions from dedicated education administrators, sports experts, VANOC officials and trustees, Vancouver successfully conducted marvelous and multi-dimensional Olympic education programmes in the province of British Columbia (BC), which extended to other parts of Canada as well. In general, Vancouver's Olympic education project primarily included the internet-based programme EDU, 28 feature programmes and the Canadian Olympic school programme.

EDU is an on-line, bilingual educational portal designed specifically for the Vancouver Olympic education project. With numerous educational resources developed by teachers and non-profit associations, this website⁵ provided various webcast series and school kits for students in BC and all over Canada to learn about the Vancouver Games and the Olympic values. Different from the traditional education means, the web-based programme EDU created an interactive communication and linked it with school curricula and students' interest. On one hand, students and teachers were able to obtain Olympic-related knowledge from the website; on the other hand, they also had the opportunity to post their own Olympic learning experiences, share their stories and present exciting programs that initiated by themselves with their peers in other parts of the country.

Moreover, 28 feature programmes were launched by VANOC, covering various aspects of the Vancouver Olympic and Paralympic Games. Building on the three main themes of sports, culture and environment, these feature programmes allowed students and teachers to access, learn and personally involve with the Olympic elements, such as the mascots, torch relay and the Olympic Truce (the official website of the Vancouver 2010 Olympic winter Games).

The Canadian Olympic Committee and VANOC launched an Olympic school programme, aiming to engage students from grade 2-12 and inspire them with

5. www.vancouver2010.com/edu

universal values that the Olympic Movement highly espouses. For example, at the elementary school level, students would learn about the values of fairness, excellence, leadership, respect, goal setting, dealing with pressure and personal growth through the stories of Olympians. Each story was available at three different reading levels: bronze (grades 2-3), silver (grades 4-5) and gold (grades 6-7). The lesson plans linked to language arts learning outcomes and would help students explore and internalize these universal values (the official website of the Canadian Olympic school programme).

Conclusion

In summary, Olympic education represents a novel form of global education, which “aims to cultivate qualified citizens of the ‘global village,’ to help them break through the various limitations of their respective societies, to impress the seal of a world citizen on top of the existing identity of a national citizen” (Ren, 2009, p. 47). In this sense, Olympic education emerges in the vacancy of a global education and offers a counter-balance by presenting the nation within a world system. The Olympic educational ideals promote balance among children’s school work, morality and physical activity by arguing for strong and healthy bodies with beautiful minds. Therefore, Olympic education is believed to be influential on students’ attitudes and understandings of life, their values of sports and beauty, and ultimately their moralities and personalities. Most importantly, the exhilaration of hosting the Olympic Games, together with the market-oriented appeal of the Olympic symbols, makes Olympic education more interesting and attractive to students. For this reason, the social and educational needs coincide with the need of the Olympic Movement and IOC’s requirements for conducting Olympic Education Programmes in the Olympic host cities.

Beijing and Vancouver have both conducted diverse and distinctive Olympic education programmes. A number of factors contributed to this outcome and these factors share some common grounds regarding implementing Olympic education approaches. Firstly, both host cities relied on a steering organisational

structure, including officials from the government and NOCs, provincial education ministries as well as local and national participant schools, to implement Olympic education programmes. A comprehensive Olympic education project would never have been carried out on a large scale without the collaboration of the above mentioned institutions and individuals. Secondly, thousands of volunteers, including PE teachers, university students and local citizens, helped with the design and implementation of the programme. This involvement provides solid foundation for the transition from Olympic education theories to practice. Moreover, many of the Olympic education teaching materials in schools included interdisciplinary information and they were cross-indexed to the relevant school subjects. Finally, the innovation and creativity of individual schools made the Olympic education programmes more diverse and colorful.

To be sure, the Olympic Education Programmes have achieved tremendous success by bringing vitality and dynamism to the host cities and infusing new ideas to the local children, but there is very little follow-up research identifying the educational legacies of these programmes. What we know at this point is that most Olympic education programmes gradually died out over time after the Games were concluded. BOCOG and the Beijing Olympic Education Standing Office were disbanded in November 2008 (Brownell, 2009), and the EDU website was removed from the internet. Arguably, it may take decades to identify the actual educational legacies generated from these programmes. Future research is expected to prolong the Olympic education effect, and educators and teachers should seek new ways to stimulate students' interests and propel educational reforms, as Olympic education did. While numerous critiques point to the costly stadiums turning into white elephants after the Games, I call on future research to focus more on the educational legacies of the Olympic Games and ideally to seek ways to make Olympic education both more beneficial and more sustainable.

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EDUCATION AND OLYMPIC IDEA. OLYMPIC PEDAGOGY: THE EXAMPLE OF ACTIVITIES OF A SECONDARY SCHOOL IN RACOT VILLAGE AS A PATRON OF POLISH OLYMPIANS

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I like to believe in the sturdiness of an enterprise that begins modestly.

Pierre de Coubertin

Introduction

Carrying out a great experiment in the field of school education, first of all requires the involvement of people with passion, intuition and developed empathy. The educational experiment which takes place in the Secondary School in Racot village as a patron of Polish Olympians, confirms the strength and depth of the Olympic principles; they are spreading throughout the world and the thought seems to be the cradle of European culture.

Participation and unification under the symbol of five circles on the Olympic flag, enables to keep the harmony and peace for the common voice of the noblest of human impulses. The concept of Olympic education embraces spiritual greatness, generosity and a desire to overcome our own inhibitions as a pure instinct. As long as we all work together effortlessly in realization of truths that are present in us, we will once again bear the defeat. Olympic education became the inspiration to write a thesis, which aimed to present the educational activity

of Polish Olympians Secondary School in Racot village in the widest possible approach. In order to give a better emphasis to the issue I am going to focus on the activity of the Olympic Club “Jantar” at Polish Olympians Secondary School in Racot. This dissertation is addressed particularly to tutors and teachers whose professional work does embrace no achievements in the field of promotion of Olympic ideas. Drawing attention through highlighting the elements of Olympic education may be presented as a valuable source of educational methods and means of working with pupils.

Assumption of Olympic Pedagogy

Summarizing briefly the fundamental ideas which the educational programme of Polish Olympians School in Racot is based on, it is worth mentioning its derivation. It turns out to have its roots in Rugby, a British school run by Dr. Thomas Arnold.

Education in Europe, in the early nineteenth century, was characterized by excessively intellectual school system. Sport was a pioneering method of teaching in English schools. It was used to shape and strengthen the positive qualities of human personality. Knowledge and experience in working with young people inspired Baron Pierre de Coubertin, the historian, social activist and reformer of the nineteenth century French school. The gist of the reform programme was supposed to be included in “la pedagogie sportive – Sport Pedagogy. The ultimate objective was to be the “rebronzer la France par le sport” – France needed to be revived via sport, France as we know was plunged into doubt after losing the war with Prussia in 1871.

Coubertin was the first personality in France who saw an opportunity in sport. In his opinion, sport was to revive the physical and biological potential of the country, because at that time it practically did not exist. Coubertin’s ultimate desire was raising generations of “better” French via modern methods and means, social reforms, inspired by the examples of the Anglo-Saxons. The need for vigorous and consistent teaching of physical education broke into society and the

general opinion was eventually accepted. It was believed that “body exercise was helpful in physical development and was the best moral protection and simultaneous opportunity to enhance and capture the best traits of personality”. [De Coubertin, after Młodzikowski, 1994].

The main tool in the concept of the reviver of the Olympic Games - Pierre de Coubertin to create a timeless Olympic movement is the issue of sport. In preface to his *Pedagogie Sportiva* he formulates the definition of sport as unforced and habitual cultivation of intense muscles exercises, caused by desire of progress, with no anxiety to go up to risk. In this context, taking the self-initiative, persistence and consequences in seeking perfection as well as disdain of danger or deceit have fundamental and primary significance.

In this context, the concept of independent initiative, perseverance and consistency in the pursuit of perfection as well as despising danger or deception are of essential and primary importance. They influence the following aspects of human life – the social mechanisms, because sport makes to co-operate in order to achieve the desired objectives. Sport also affects mental abilities as well, whose development is essential to an effective cooperation. Coubertin assumed that voluntary participation in sport is to bring to live in harmony and mutual respect through the development of intellectual abilities, personality, morality and conscience. According to his way of thinking, the impact of sport is also noticeable within the morality of a person; influences the young body and multilaterally in various directions.

The ability to express natural expression of movement of young people through participation in physical exertion is according to him a factor that diminishes routine and boredom, which are generally observed phenomena in urban communities.

Olympic Education in Racot

Currently, the distant and forgotten legacy of Baron Coubertin was revived in Racot thanks to the Olympic initiatives by the then physical education teacher – Wojciech Ziemiński. “Racot Coubertin” injects the Olympic spirit to everyone around him. Thanks to his tenacity and organisational skills, the small village

population of 1,300 inhabitants in Wielkopolska in less than 30 years has grown and become “the capital of the Polish Olympic Movement”.

Olympic action in the first place is directed to students of Racot School, although the ideas and Olympic themes encounter a wider audience of local community. Wojciech Ziemniak applied a method of “organic work” in his teaching. By instilling certain values at a young age, the objective is achieved: the development of a young person holistically, embraces needs of lower and higher level, needs of the body and spirit.

An established educational programme based on the definition of Olympism assumes that the task of the teacher - educators is to show the good and bad aspect and create a way of life based on the joy founded in physical effort. The educational programme is based on the various courses: Polish, history, civics, as well as biology and geography. Such combination of subjects gives a sense of unity in the education of pupils and students and contributes to better collaboration. Students are treated in a subjective way, and participate in an active way in the educational process as providers, not just passive recipients, or passive observers. The realization of the programme requires the relevant methods of active and interactive activities that increase students' engagement in work on their own.

They require teachers and students to be very persistent in the achievement of a common goal, often via compromise. As a result of these means and undertakings, the young student is active, enterprising, and is able to express oneself through one's thoughts and views, assertive but listening to others.

The School Educational Programme implemented in the Polish Olympians School says, referring to the Olympic Charter, that:

Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy found in effort, the educational value of good example and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles.

[Olympic Charter, Fundamental Principles of Olympism]

The school prepares students for self-determining living and dealing with

problems, and developing self-efficiency and effectiveness in action. It provided positive values that can be a way of life, and not just for athletes but for every human being. This appears to be a vital skill in adult life. Education in the spirit of Olympism increases the opportunity to students' self-realization, moreover, awakens the need for self-improvement, deepening knowledge of youth about the world and mankind.

The school cares about both students and teachers to obey the following principles:

- ✓ implement fair play in life and in sport
- ✓ striving for higher goals
- ✓ achievement of good virtues: honesty, truthfulness
- ✓ respect towards universal and ethical principles
- ✓ acting with open mind and tolerance

The popularization of the Olympic meets the expectations of students against hypocrisy, brutality and corruption in the modern world. Young people realize that the implementation of fair play principles in everyday life is often very difficult, but certainly will try to make use of them in their personal lives, work, contacts with other people. In the future adult life, competition will not be a hostile confrontation to win at any price, because previously they had the opportunity to personally touch this issue and understand that it is a different story. Selfishness gives way to the solidarity and altruism; respect for each other will become a way of being.

Olympic education is achieved through various means of influence on young trainee and the entire local community. Action shall be taken together by all teachers, particularly teachers and parents. The experience of the joy in sports, participation in the spirit of fair play in various forms of physical activity, starting from games and activities or the cross country events are generally available not only to children but adults as well.

Olympic Club “JANTAR”

The Olympic Club “Jantar” works in the school at the Gymnasium since 1987. It was established on the basis of the School Sports Club “Jantar”. Both these

institutions through long-term activity and cooperation with Racot schools affect not only students' mental and psychological development, but first of all physical. This cooperation is based primarily on educational and cognitive effects. Promotion of the Olympic idea is undertaken through meetings with the Olympics, the Olympic contests, the Olympic themed trips, visits to National Olympic Committees, as well as trips to national and international competitions, including the Summer and Winter Olympic Games.

Sports student life after classes is possible thanks to access to sports facilities, as well as a variety of equipment. Support in the form of organisation and finance is mainly provided by parents and adherents of the Club. Students indulge in various forms of physical activity, participate in games and activities adjusted to their age, level of fitness and the interest in sports.

Voluntary participation in the events generally available to them produces positive attitudes in young people and encourages them to take active part in the wider physical culture. Organising sports activities is aimed at comprehensive development of physical and mental fitness of youth. The process affects creation of the specific traits of character and reflection of students' personality, which is the primary goal of education in the spirit of the Olympic idea. It all may coexist with development and the possibility of their passion.

Thanks to the atmosphere by the surrounding of the residents of Racot and the neighborhood under Wojciech Ziemniak, young people can experience full support from their teachers and are constantly stimulated to further work, noting the positive effects of their efforts while pursuing their own ideas. The joy and satisfaction of children appears to be every positive for the future and their continued active participation in promoting the Olympic concept of physical culture is highly appreciated. The whole event is possible thanks to the experienced and competent members of the Board of School Sport Club "Jantar".

Olympic Chamber

A special place in the Gymnasium is the Olympic Chamber. The history of the Olympic Chamber goes back to 1988, when President of the Olympian Club

Wojciech Ziemniak received the first Olympic souvenir in the form of “Olympic receiver” used to listening to commentators in five languages, sent by prof. Wojciech Lipoński from the Summer Olympics in Seoul. Attached to it is the letter where he praised Wojciech Ziemniak for the promotion of the Olympic idea, and this event sparked in a young teacher aspiration to subsequent voyages as far as Olympic Games are concerned.

The major exhibit in the Olympic Chamber is the Olympic Torch from the Hellenic Olympic Committee (the torch which was lit at the Summer Olympic Games in Mexico City in 1968). The other major display is a cup received from IOC president Juan Antonio Samaranch. There are also:

- book collections,
- uniforms donated by sports athletes,
- medal collections,
- souvenirs, toys, pennants, chronicles of the club edited since the beginning of the Club,
- chronicles from sports events or gatherings of the school sports club.

Olympic Race and Spring Cross-Country

Every year there are two widely available for children, youth and adults cross-country events. The first held in April is called spring cross-country, the second conducted in September is called this Olympic race – they both are evoked by the consciousness of the local municipality.

The first Olympic race was organised in 1994, ushering in a great “tradition of running” lasting to this day. Every year in September, at the beginning of the school year Racot turns into a “mecca of various sports”. The small town attracts and invites participants from schools, Olympian clubs, orphanages, educational centers from the whole country. Parents of children of Racot and surrounding areas take part in the events as well.

Running is for everyone – there are no restrictions concerning age, sex, fitness level. The 5 km route goes through the surrounding green areas. The only prerequisite to start the race is a will to participate. You do not run after the vic-

tory – the most important part is the race itself and the following words are the motto of the race:

“If you stood at the start, you already won, even if you ran the last”
The spring cross-country races, however, organised for high school students from the district are the turning point of the celebration of School’s Patron Days. They are held at the beginning of April. On this occasion, the school carries out an Olympic Knowledge Contest (referring to the problems of the entire Olympic Movement), Olympic County Competition at Mathematics and County Recitation Contest of Olympic themes. Cross country race competitions are undertaken in regards to sex and age. The very end, the last kilometer belongs to tutors and teachers they are trying to compete and face one another.

The common accent for the sport events is carrying out the opening and closing of Olympic ceremony based on the ancient Olympic ceremony. The ancient ceremony is revived: the ceremony of fire and bringing the Olympic torch, drawing the flag on a flagpole. All this evokes a message of peace, freedom and equality, and to disseminate the meaning of the concept of “*kalos kai agathos*”, which is the legacy of the ancient Greeks.

Meetings with the Olympians

Taking into consideration the popularity of all sports events Racot seems to be a special place where many famous Olympians and athletes, representatives of the sport at the highest level, activists of provincial and local levels as well as scientists, and many other eminent figures connected with the sports movement come to Racot. Promotion of the Olympic idea among students in Racot is performed through meetings with Olympians and athletes who have not yet had the opportunity to represent themselves at the Olympics. The concept is very simple: a good athlete is a pattern to follow, the model for a young man whose personality is being shaped.

Olympic patterns function here as the basis of personal designs in the modern sports movement. Meetings allow children direct contact with the unattainable-on-daily-basis idol, to talk face to face, to obtain answers to questions. Such

a possibility is presented to a young man that really is at the same level as an outstanding athlete, he starts to believe in his own abilities and skills. What is more, this continues to increase self-esteem and self-confidence. Direct contact between youth and the Olympians reveals the status of normality in such eminent persons and cultivates the belief that there are also likely to succeed, as a consequence of their own work and input. The fact that the idol is talking to the ordinary student and does not want anything in return confirms the modesty of athletes; it is a reflection of their respect for others, concern about the sport development among future generations.

Establishing meetings with the Olympians is conducted to reveal the need to liberate the pupils to present them a higher purpose and consistent progress towards their implementation. However, the goal of the meetings with paraolympians is the integration of the youth with disabled people; to overcome barriers in dealing with people with various disabilities. Additionally, they can serve as role models in difficult situations who have overcome adversity. Meeting young people with disabilities teaches sensitivity, evokes a desire to help other people, an altruistic approach to life, to destroy a demanding attitude towards the people around them.

In the years 1984-2010 Secondary School the name of Polish Olympics of Racot was visited by a great number of 157 sportsmen and Olympians. Among them there were: 94 Olympians, 43 of these were medallists, including 18 who received the gold. Among those invited are 21 paraolympics – 18 of them are paraolympic medallists, of which as many as 11 won the gold medal. There were also local and national athletes - 42 people.

Unofficially, in my opinion, the “top 10” of athletes of Racot are:

1. Irena Kriszteinstein-Szewińska
1. Robert Korzeniowski
1. Anita Włodarczyk
1. Wojciech Fortuna
1. Mateusz Kusznierewicz
1. Renata Mauer – Różańska
1. Szymon Ziółkowski

1. Tomasz Kucharski i Robert Sycz
1. Władysław Komar
1. Józef Grudzień

Expedition to foreign countries

The concept of expeditions to national and international shows in its form surpassed the wildest expectations of the President of SCS-u. Groups were equipped with whistles and a banner in the national colors, with painted faces, loud cheer in sports stadiums around the world. The nature of the trip is threefold:

- In the first group are mainly trips to the Olympic Games;
- The second group of tours, are expeditions along with the “Olympic Trail” to the cities where the Olympic Games were held and visits to the National Olympic Committees;
- The third group of tours, are travels organised in reference to World or European Championships in different sports disciplines.

The aim of the work of education during each trip is to develop a proper aspect of a fan and enjoy it, deriving fun from the joyful atmosphere. Participation in various sports competitions and events makes student observe and learn the cultural behavior. Young people see the beauty, the effort of athletes in pursuit of the championship. They appreciate athletes for the effort they put in, a lot of work in the pursuit of improvement and perfection. Thanks to such attitude young people have an Olympic role model to follow and imitate.

The culminate point of the Olympic Movement activity are expeditions of a group of fans to the summer and winter Olympic Games. The first trip took place in 1992 to Summer Olympic Games in Barcelona. Since then, the Olympic Club supported Polish athletes eight times on the greatest sporting level. No other Olympic Club in the world can boast about such a well-organised group of supporters who are already recognizable in the sports arenas all around the world.

Combining trips with visits of the Olympic cities – taking into consideration not only historical aspect but ludic as well, appears to be more attractive to young

people. It helps to acquire knowledge about the world and ourselves, it allows you to explore the world through direct contact with the real world. Each trip entails enlightening experience, brings new emotions to life of the participants and knowledge that will shaped their consciousness and build adulthood and maturity.

Summer Olympic Games in Barcelona (1992)

The stay in the capital of Catalan was full of valuable experiences because of the outstanding charm and special atmosphere of the city. Visiting Barcelona, enjoying the works of Gaudi, walking along the main promenade Las Ramblas and the area of medieval architecture had a great impact on all participants. It was very impressive.

Winter Olympic Games in Lillehammer (1994)

The establishment of contact with the Hellenic Olympic Committee was very beneficial for the Olympic Club in Racot, as it lead to participation in the Olympics in Athens (2004), but also a visit to the International Olympic Academy in 1995. Thanks to the efforts of the President Mr Ziemniak many students had the unique opportunity to visit the headquarters of the great scientific center of the Ancient Olympia Academy, which is unusual movement since the International Olympic Academy authorities tends to protect the access to their collections.

Summer Olympic Games in Atlanta (1996)

Doping incidents involving Polish Athletes in the 1996 Games had lots of media coverage. As a positive result, thanks to American and satellite television stations members of Racot Club gained fame and popularity, and were known as “the kings of fans”.

Winter Olympic Games in Nagano (1998)

Faraway in Japan, children of Racot for the first time met the president of the International Olympic Committee – Juan Antonio Samaranch and the President of

Poland Aleksander Kwasniewski. The presence of Polish children in Japan also had also a strong and positive influence on the Club and its development.

Summer Olympic Games in Sydney (2000)

Participants of the expedition to Australia visited the capital city and the building of the Australian Parliament in Canberra. They had the privilege to be hosted by the General Consul of the Polish Republic in Sydney. Additionally, they visited a school in the village of Greta, after World War II there were camps for Polish refugees. Besides, the further attraction that they met was a stay in Melbourne, where they visited such facilities as the Olympic Museum and Grand Slam Australian Open at Melbourne Park.

Summer Olympic Games in Athens (2004)

The whole group was greeted by the Polish Ambassador to Greece. However, the biggest attraction was a cruise including a visit of three of the Saronic Gulf islands of Hydra, Aegina and Poros, and sunset at Cape Sounion.

Winter Olympic Games in Turin (2006)

During the expedition there was enough time to explore places such as the Cathedral and the replica of the Shroud of Turin, the town of Mola, a museum of cinematography and a museum of Egyptian art.

Summer Olympic Games in Beijing (2008)

Taking the opportunity of visiting China, the youth visited the Chinese wall, the Olympic Museum, Chinese Museum and the Temple of Heaven. Polish fans gained access to the biggest Olympic institution in Beijing – the National Stadium under the name of Bird's Nest. It drew Polish attention since it is an interesting architectural project. Apart from that, there were many cultural attractions such as the opera or traditional Chinese theater. In addition, residents of Racot were welcomed by the Ambassador of Polish Republic in Beijing.

Winter Olympic Games in Vancouver (2010)

32 fans from Racot had a great opportunity to share an extremely important moment, what I mean is winning a second gold medal in the history of the winter Olympics, after 38 years of absence. In addition, a group of supporters of the president of the Racot Olympian Club headed by Wojciech Ziemniak was invited by General Polish Consul in Vancouver Krzysztof Czapla. Polish and Polish-American youth in large numbers visited the Polish Consulate because of the summary of the contest under the name of "Polish Famous sportsmen". The meeting included a performance by Polish pianist Katarzyna Musial and exhibitions of Polish Sport and Olympic Poster from the Museum of Sport and Tourism prepared by Lena and Victor Chorobik from Vancouver.

Summary and conclusions

Olympic pedagogy gradually becomes a very important educational center that may help in solving many problems that we struggle with in the Polish educational system. Coubertin's concept seems to be a perfect solution to a difficult situation that present teachers are facing. It is proved that physical exertion prevents negative emotions, helps to diminish level of aggression and violence at school. It has beneficial impact on young people and their lifestyle. Moreover, it draws our attention to healthy way of living. It may surprise that there are no smoking pupils in front of the school building. The problem with alcohol or drugs practically does not exist at school. Such factors as motivation and encouraging attitude of teaching staff and parents, the involvement in School Sport Club "Jantar" and a Olympic Club under the same name are the keys to success.

Olympism in Racot is of both educational and intellectual importance. Wojciech Ziemniak formed a new quality of physical education on the basis of Olympic pedagogy. Taking care of your physical fitness is strongly related to concern for the spirit. According to the concept of "*kalos kai agathos*", there is a beautiful balance between physical and spiritual beauty. Physical exertion perfectly fits the description of higher needs such as needs of self-realization or self-development.

In young people grows into the need for improvement, making the high targets. Youth yearn for self-perfection, self-improvement. They strive to climb a ladder of targets they set.

Quite a high percentage of students graduate from the school (80%), and continue education on higher level, which means going to university in the future. A desire to self-development and self-improvement was instilled in them from the very beginning of their education. The activities of the Club are the quintessence of Olympism on Polish territory. Thanks to Wojciech Ziemniak's attitude Coubertin's concepts are still cultivated with passion, which shed light of hope that the students of Racot school will pass the same values to their children, grandchildren, great-grandsons and in this metaphysical way the Olympic torch will enlighten the education of future generations. The unappreciated role of Olympic education seems to be an empty gap when it comes to general education. It can bring intangible benefits, which are yet unexplored. Olympism in Racot fills in a gap in the Polish education system; responds to the urgent need to introduce innovative methods and means of influence. Changes are steps towards into new quality, a catalyst for evolution, a better way to explore magnitude of human capacities. Focusing on children is fully justified, because as Maria Montessori said "children are the best part of humanity".

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PROMOTE OLYMPIC EDUCATION BY MAPPING ACTIVE STAKEHOLDERS

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The work is related to the special topic for the 18th special session for postgraduate students “IOA: 50 Years of Olympic Education – Future Prospects”.

The aim of this study is mapping of main stakeholders involved in promotion of the Olympic education. The research project has three phases:

As a first step will be presented to the IOA participants three patterns of sport system:

- a) centred on National Olympic Committee,
- b) lead by national Government,
- c) run by Local Authorities.

Through interviews will be asked participants which pattern is more near to their national system.

In the second phase, through a questionnaire, will be collected data on agencies working in the field of sport, the aim is to define the presence or absence of a promoting policy of Olympic education.

The final phase involves focus groups for defining a map of active stakeholders in promotion of Olympic education at national level.

The report is a part of a phd study and results will be compared with Life

Long Learning Project Sport, a European project run by European Observatoire of Sport Employment (EOSE).

Overview of Italian context

Over the recent years, in accordance with a general policy of decentralization, the sport system has undergone a process of renovation. The central government plays a role in the Italian sport system, limited as an administrative supervisor, through a sub secretariat and the control of the Ministry of Treasure (see fig. 2.2). The administration and management of sport is under the responsibility of the National Olympic Committee (CONI). A National Ministry of Sport and Youth was only established from May 2006 to February 2008. Regions have competencies for the sport for all; the other local authorities (municipalities and provinces) are responsible for the construction, planning, design and often the management of sporting facilities.

CONI is a public, non-governmental body playing both the role of a Ministry of Sport and a Confederation of Sport Federations. CONI managers and the Executive Board are elected by the Sport Federations, the Italian members of IOC, and the representatives of coaches, athletes and the local branches of the sport movement. There are local branches of the National Olympic Committee either at regional (21 regional CONI committees) or provincial level (105 provincial committees), administered by elected volunteers. CONI uses the revenue of the lotteries to finance its activities (either for supporting elite and promotional sport) or to provide subsidies to the National Sport Federations; since 2002 it is also receiving variable state support to fund elite sport.

The Sport movement is represented by 43 National Sport Federations (many as multi-disciplines) and another 19 mostly non-Olympic federations called “Associated disciplines (DSA)” with a lower status and limited funding. The National Sport Federations are private bodies with public relevance. The Italian Olympic Committee also recognizes another 14 national bodies expressly responsible of

the promotion of sport and sport for all activities (Entities for the promotion of sport- EPS).

Active Participation in sport in Italy is reported involving 17 170 millions of people in 2008: this rate is significantly higher compared to the 70's and 80's but quite stable since 2000. An additional 16 200 citizens participate in some kind of physical activity. Older age and younger age groups continue to increase in the participation rate, while there is stagnation in 11-19 age group and younger adults. Sedentary people have increased 3.2% from 1995 to 2006.

Participation rates increase with social status and level of education. The members of clubs affiliated to National Sport Federations are 4,189,000, and 926,000 technicians, managers, administrators and officials. 71,350 clubs affiliated to the National Sport Federation are currently active. Their trend is decreasing in the last 10 years. Informal and self – organised sport is constantly increasing.

In the year 2008, Italy was the 5th country in the world according to the number of medals in the Olympic games (494 medals in total). In the Olympic Games 2008 in Beijing, Italy ranked 9th in number of medals, and 15th in the winter games in Vancouver 2010.

Top level sport and related talent identification and support policies are under the responsibility of the National Olympic Committee and of each individual Federation. All the existing specific programmes for talent development and identification are conceived, and implemented directly by the NSF by own resources. There are no specific agreements with Ministries of Education and Labour concerning top level sportsmen/women.

About the professional sport: after the 1981 law, only clubs constituted as a stock company (Società di capitali) may sign contracts with professional sportsmen. The following sports are considered professional by law: football (first three leagues), basketball (first two leagues male), cycling, boxing and partially motorcycling. Following the European model, in the competitive sports, teams are promoted and relegated in relation to their performance. Professional leagues exist in Football, Rugby, Basketball, Hockey, and Volleyball.

The global Sport and Sport related industry has an economic value of more than 31,6bn euro (Nomisma 2004), corresponding to 2.5% of the national GDP.

This percentage is stable compared to previous data collected in 1990 and 1996. Totally, 67,362 sport companies are active, with an increase of 200% in the last 12 years.

Sport funding in Italy is basically provided by three fundamental players: the public sector, the private actors (families and enterprises), and the voluntary sector. The most relevant source is private financing that amounted to more than 10,440 billion euro in 2004, while total public financing was about 2,500 millions. Local communities are more important than the central state in financing sport, even if their financial resources for sport have greatly decreased since 1994. The private funding of the families increased from 63 percent to 88.6 percent and corporate financing has remained quite stable in relative terms.

It can be estimated that 390,000 workers are employed in the sport sector in Italy considering only those who have a primary occupation. Additional 600,000 workers are active in sports related professions and –in general– in the sport industry even without any directly sport related competence. Rate of increase in sport employment in the last decade has been higher than in other sectors (1-2% per year), but most of the jobs in the sector are not stable, neither well paid, and career opportunities are very limited. Women employment is increasing (32.7% in 2005) and part time occupation decreasing (17.8%).

Both for sport and sport related occupations the access to the profession is not regulated by law, except for skiing instructors and other mountain professionals (law 91/81). To work as a coach in a club belonging to the sport movement or in a Federation, a qualification from a National Federation is generally required. No formal education is generally required to work as sport manager.

Social dialogue is very limited since there are very few constituted representatives of the social partners, with the only exception of football.

Regions have competence for vocational training in Italy, whereas education is a general matter for the State. A 1998 law completed the process of transferring competences for vocational training to the regions. However, the central government leads the education and training system through Ministry of Education, University and Scientific Research, which regulates the sector directly till diploma

and indirectly till degree course. The starting age of schooling is six years, the mandatory age is 18 years¹.

Referring to official national statistics (Istat 2006) it can be maintained that participation in the school-based general education system is high. Around 70 % of students obtain the State diploma (maturità). According to the Isfol, a lower proportion of students has participated in initial vocational training in the strict sense (regional VET and apprenticeship), but increasing that proportion is one of the main points of the process of reform and dynamic development currently under way. It is worth noting that in January 1999 it was decided to increase the duration of compulsory school education from eight to nine years and compulsory training until the age of 18 was introduced.

The ministry regulates University system through disbursement of funds and specific laws. University courses are aligned to the process of Bologna.

There is no relation in Italy between the sport VET system and the national VET system (Regions are in charge for VET) and there is no National Qualification Framework. Vocational Education and training in sport in Italy is mostly under the responsibility of the CONI and of the National Sport Federations: those are bodies competent to deliver qualifications and set rules. The only relevant exception is the qualification of skiing instructors and mountain guides that is delivered by the regions in conjunction with a specific body of the skiing federation. Sport Federations are also the key training providers.

There are however multiple training providers active in the field. The role of the regions is increasing since they have by law the competency for vocational training, with an increase of training programmes and regulations at the regional level. 37 Universities are also active in the field, delivering bachelor degrees in sport science and master degrees in sport management, adapted physical education and sport coaching, normally with limited impact on the labour market. Private bodies, including professional associations are also active in the training market (e.g. diving, sailing, golf, etc.).

152 training programmes are currently reported:

1. law 53/2003 not yet completely applied, 16 in fact.

- 27 programmes of Level I (by 15 different providers)
- 23 programmes of Level II (by 19 different providers)
- 27 programmes of Level III (by 23 different providers)
- 38 of level IV (by 30 providers)
- 37 of level V or V+

As critical points, the following aspects can be reported: there is no difference among training for voluntary or professional workers and the key principles of Copenhagen declaration and EQF – Framework (Including the European dimension, recognition of competences and qualifications, validation of informal and non-formal learning, quality assurance) are not significantly implemented. Afterward, there is no external quality assurance system, and no general procedures to recognize non formal and formal learning. CONI is developing a new National Qualification System for coaches, based on a competence framework and including a credit point system.

All the above mentioned critical points determine negative effects on the qualification of sport operators. Indeed, over-qualification is widely present and so are skill gaps and skill shortage. In addition, an over-matching among training course provided by Coni/Nsf's and Universities can be highlighted.

Both for sport and sport related occupations the access to the profession is not regulated by law, with the exception of skiing instructors, mountain guides and few other operators (law 91/81). In order to operate as a coach in a club belonging to the sport movement or in a Federation, a qualification from a National Federation is generally required. Therefore, excluding the internal training path of each Nsf, there are not specific procedures for certifying qualifications and skills in connection with the public system of general education and vocational training.

Without referring to a clear and well-defined process of recognition, it can be generally maintained that, no formal education is required to work as sport manager or fitness instructor.

Finally, the limited social dialogue among provider agencies, representatives of workers (there are very few) and national institution must be considered as a point of weakness for the whole sector.

The study of the Italian context has been driven mainly in the direction of Sport (and its impact on the society) and Education and training. The choice has been done, according to the EOSE analysis (fig. 1) carried on the actual impact that sport makes to society and by the fact that in this contribution Education and Training play a major role, whether we are talking about elite level sport, welcoming visitors to a country or using a given sport to engage disadvantaged groups.

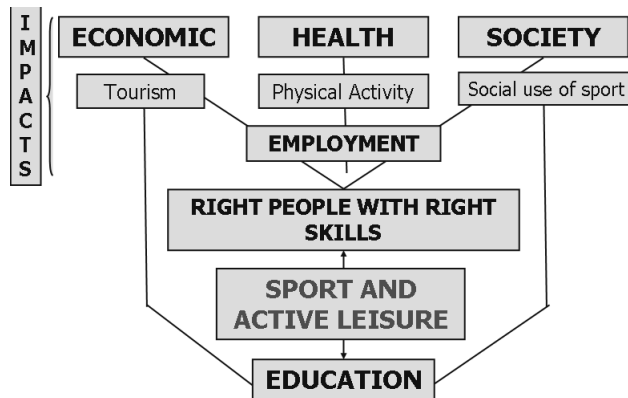


Figure 1: Sport and Active Leisure sector and its potential (EOSE, 2009).

In this way we identified, in the Italian context 20 relevant stakeholders, divided in seven groups:

- Sport movement
- Employers
- Employees and Professionals
- Users
- Education and training providers
- National qualification authorities
- Government

Stakeholders are represented, in the following diagram, according to their relationship with the groups and, in the figures 2 and 2.1 according to their position in the network. In figure 2.2 stakeholders are represented in the whole Italian sport system. After the list and the collocation of the stakeholders will be presented the esteem of the value of their impact on some identified factors, and that of the consistency of the relationships they have inside the network.

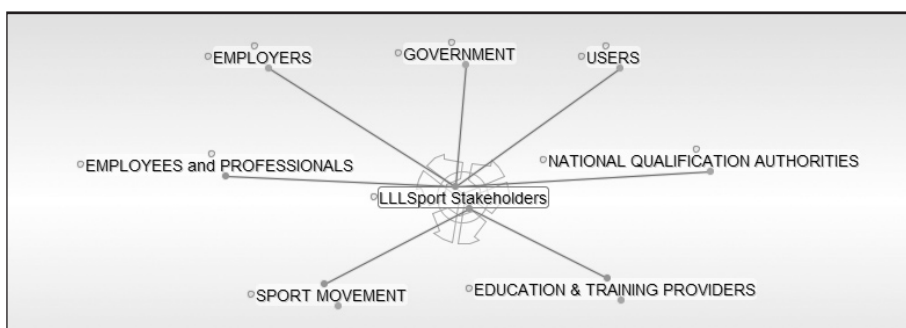


Figure 2: The seven group of stakeholders.

Table 2: List of Italian relevant stakeholders and their correspondence with the 7 groups

Stakeholder	Description	Group
CONI	Italian Olympic National Committee, organism charged by law to manage sport (and NSF) in Italy	Sport movement E&T Providers
NSF	National Sport Federations	Sport movement E&T Providers Employers
Sport consumers	Event consumers and media consumers	Users
Students	Higher education and vocational training	Users
Employees and professionals	Employees and professionals	Employees and professionals
Clubs	Engaged in any kind of sport and active leisure	Employers
Commercial	Activities like swimming pools, gym. fitness etc.	Employers Sport movement
Sport facilities	Management of sport facilities and related sport event activities	Employers
CENSIS	Research institute for social economics affairs supported by government	National qualification authorities
Italia Lavoro	Public Institute for employment	National qualification authorities
ISFOL	Public institute for development of vocational training for workers	National qualification authorities

Stakeholder	Description	Group
Sport for all	Organised and free activities for sport and active leisure	Sport movement
Military sport	Military sport clubs	Government Employers
Welfare ministry	Welfare ministry	Government
Education Ministry	Education Ministry	Government
Municipalities	Municipalities	Government Employers
Provinces	Provinces	Government
Regions	Regions	Government
Private schools	Private schools	E&T Providers
Universities	Universities	E&T Providers

In the following figure 2.1. the position of stakeholders is graphically represented by groups.

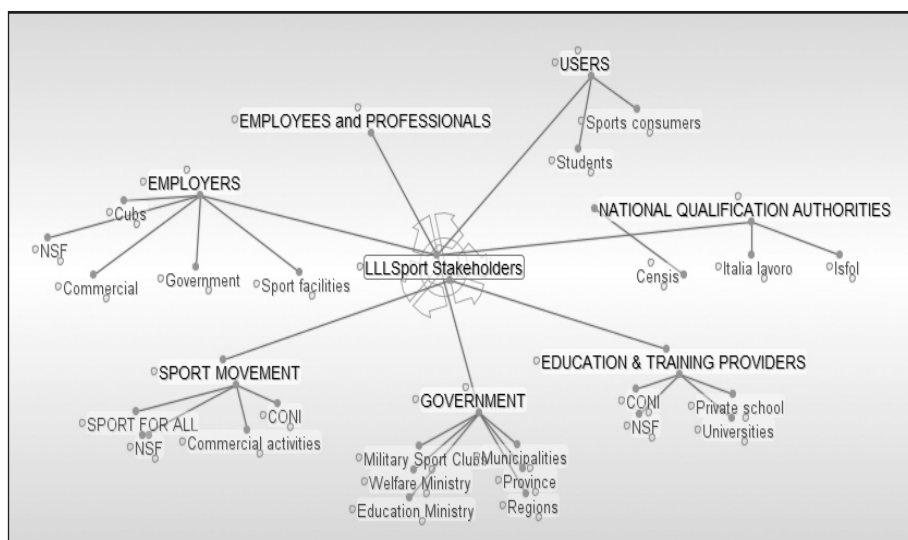


Figure 2.1: Stakeholders represented according to their relationship with the seven major groups. Beccarini 2010.

In the following figure 2.2. the position of stakeholders is represented in relationship with the whole Italian sport system.

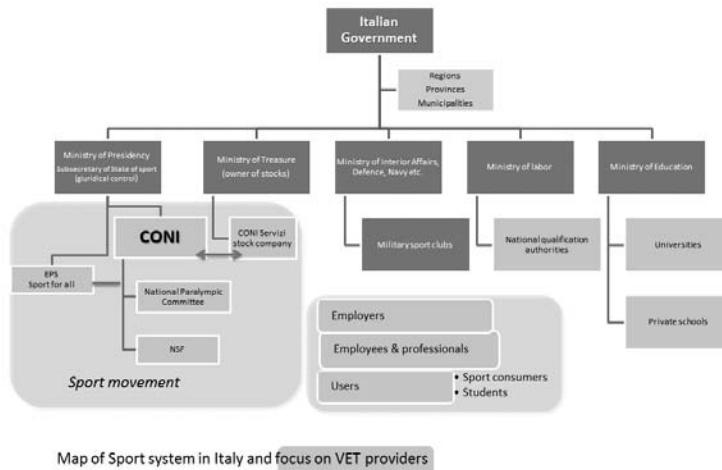


Figure 2.2: map of the Italian sport system and focus on vet providers Beccarini 2010

In order to better explain the value of the stakeholders' activity in Italy we have tried to consider the value of their impact on some factors identified as relevant in the Italian sport sector. The evaluation has been carried on by an esteem based on personal experience, interviews and a questionnaire whose proposition it is not finished yet (Beccarini, 2010).

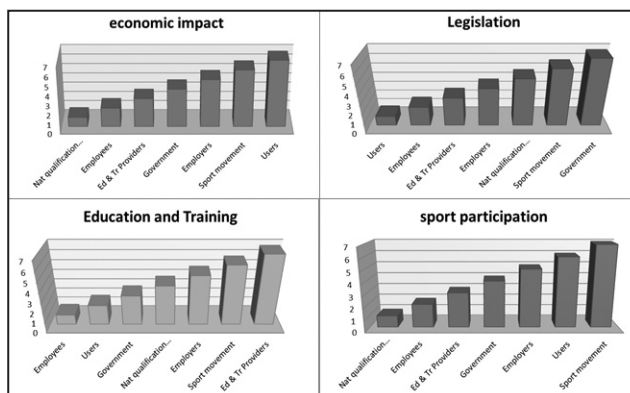


Figure 3: Esteem of the value of stakeholders' impact on 4 factors (ranking).

Another important element to explain the dynamism of the stakeholders, and consequently, their relevance in the network, can be represented by the study of the communication flows among them. In the figure 4 are designed the areas that, according to our opinion, are closely involved in a process of communication. In order to have a more precise idea on the consistency of these flows, a questionnaire has been structured with the aim to understand the quantity and the quality of the communication of the stakeholders in connection with the following factors:

- ✓ Contracts/Agreements;
- ✓ Common activity;
- ✓ Info/documents/data sharing;
- ✓ HR sharing;
- ✓ Financing.

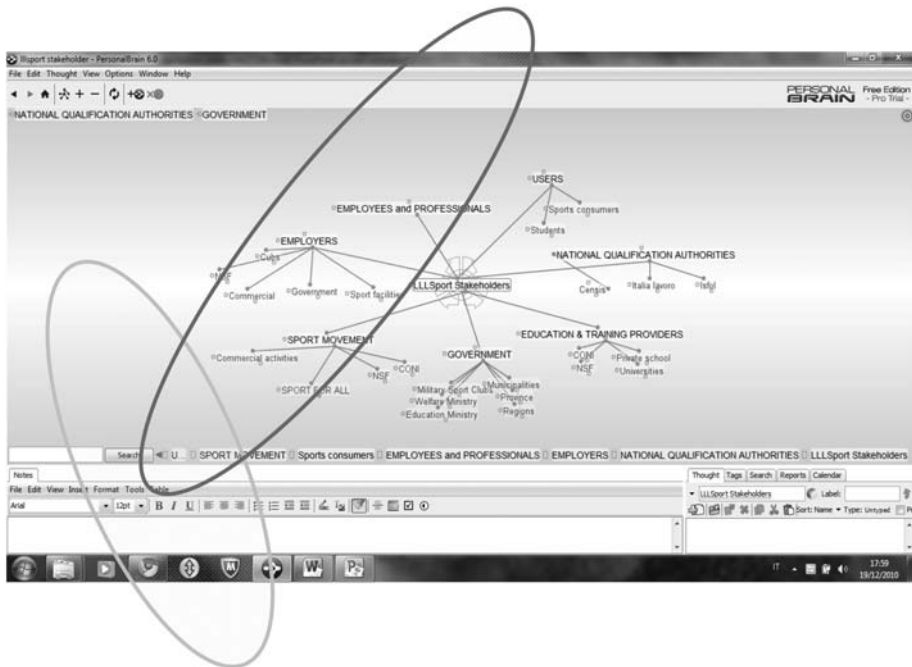


Figure 4: Esteem of the areas of communication inside the network.

Over recent years, those stakeholders involved in the analysis presented a good dynamics with positive flows of communication and interactions. However, the creation of a well-situated and operative network embracing all the main actors of the system is far to be achieved. In light of that, one of the actions undergone by the National Ambassador was the establishment of a “table of consultation” involving all the main stakeholders: CONI, NSF’s, national authorities, Universities, etc. The table started its activities during a meeting organised in Roma-Tor Vergata (November 2010).

In order to better explain the value of the stakeholders’ activity in Italy we consider the value of their impact on some factors identified as relevant in the Italian sport sector. The evaluation has been carried out by interviews and a questionnaire, the work is still underway. Another important element to explain the dynamism of the stakeholders, and consequently, their relevance in the network, can be represented by the study of the communication flows between themselves. In order to have a more precise idea on the consistency of these flows, a questionnaire has been structured in order to understand the quantity and the quality of the communication of the stakeholders in connection with the following factors:

- ✓ Contracts/Agreements;
- ✓ Common activity;
- ✓ Info/documents/ data sharing;
- ✓ HR sharing;
- ✓ Financing.

Over recent years, those stakeholders involved in the analysis presented a good dynamics with positive flows of communication and interactions.

Through the data collected we plan to identify widespread dissemination patterns of Olympic education by analyzing the degree of effectiveness in relation to the sport system within which they operate. The hypothesis of work is to demonstrate the need of international dialogue on policies for dissemination of Olympic education by means of national organisations involved.

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AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE REASONS WHY KARATE DOES NOT QUALIFY AS AN OLYMPIC SPORT

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Introduction

The concept of physical activities has long been regarded as a means for human development [1]. A society can bring about a revolution in sports, popularize it, and advance people's awareness and understanding regarding the benefits and values of sports providing that people consider sports as an essential part of human life and deem sports activities necessary [4]. With the growth and development of the social framework of sports, it is possible to deduce important and consistent interpretations from sports; for instance, sports for amusement, for better health, sports with the purpose of acquiring defensive and offensive fitness, and sports as a cultural element or even as a religious or mythological value [4].

Among these sports, martial arts with a history of more than 2000 years have attracted millions of people throughout the world including children, adults, or even old people [2]. Karate as a branch of martial art, though not being an Olympic sport, has a special place among people of the world. The importance of

1. The paper was presented by Javad Vakili, participant at the 19th International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students.

karate in enhancing physical abilities has been proven, in various studies [10]. Moreover, some researchers have reported positive psychological effects including reduction of aggression and hostility among karatekas [3 & 6]. How people receive a specific sport is a very important factor for realizing the needs and views of the people of that society and assessing the influence of sports on their spirit. According to the findings of Tuck, Merson, and Bami, the main reason for engaging in sports is to be healthy [4]. Spinoza, the president of the International Karate Federation, underlined the necessity for a union between styles and considered the variety of styles and the disparity between them as problems hindering karate from entering the Olympics. Since the International Olympic Committee is looking for popular and attractive sports, it is necessary for the International Karate Federation to pay attention to the public tendencies and interests. In order to make a decision in this regard, valid feedbacks must be obtained regarding the tendencies, interests, and difficulties of karatekas. The variety of karate styles –whether traditional or modern, formal or informal, controlled contact or full contact– is one of the reasons why people are inclined toward this sport. Thus, an awareness regarding the status quo of karate styles and the reasons behind tendencies and changing styles is of the most importance. Moreover, it seems necessary to examine whether or not there is a technical or qualitative difference between the various styles of karate. Lack of sufficient information regarding the status quo has made it difficult to take a reasonable and fundamental action with regards to the condition of different styles. Thus the purpose of the present research was to investigate into the reasons why karate does not qualify as an Olympic sport, with an emphasis on the variety of styles and the reasons behind choosing or changing styles.

Research Methodology

The present research is descriptive. The population of the research includes the karatekas of Tehran City who were active in karate clubs. The number of karatekas exceeded 25000 who were active in 300 clubs. To determine the statistical

sample, of the 300 clubs present and active under supervision of Tehran Karate Committee, 40 clubs were randomly chosen and 581 karatekas who were active in these clubs voluntarily filled out the questionnaires. According to Cohen & Krejcie's table, a sample size of 377 was sufficient.

Materials and Methods

A questionnaire was designed to collect data necessary for the research. Since there seemed to be no other questionnaires with regards to karate, a questionnaire was designed and compiled for the first time ever with the assistance of the officials, coaches, athletes and families. It contained 14 questions and 15 minutes was the time considered for answering them. For those subjects who were under the age of 12, parents were permitted to assist them in answering the questions.

After collecting the questionnaires, the obtained data were processed using SPSS software. Descriptive statistics were used for data analysis and the inferential tests chi-square and Kruskal-Wallis were applied to compare relevance and difference of measured variables between groups. The significance level of the test was set to $\alpha=5\%$.

Reliability of the Questionnaire

In order to assess the reliability of the foresaid questionnaire, these questionnaires were filled out by 15 subjects at two levels with an interval of one week, and using test-retest method, the reliability was computed to be $r=0.87$. Considering the fact that the coefficient of determination was $r^2=0.76$, we can assert that the present questionnaire was consistent and reliable.

Findings

Regarding the factors influencing individuals' tendency toward karate, figure 1 showed that achieving vivacity and liveliness as well as maintaining health were of the most important reason with the overall frequency of 38.3%. Parents and families' recommendations with 17.7%, achieving defensive power with 13%,

and watching martial arts movies with 11% assumed other ranks in the table. Doctors' orders and physical education teachers' recommendations were of the least frequency with 0.2% and 0.7% respectively.

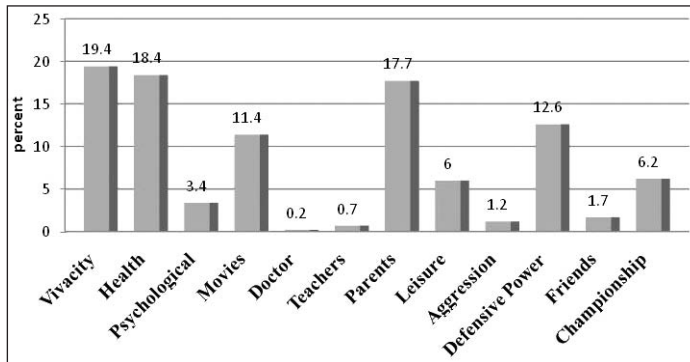


Figure 1. Factors Influencing Individuals' Tendency Toward Karate.

Of the determinants of choosing karate styles, in first priority, prior knowledge of the style (30.2%), club's distance (28.1%) and random choice (15.9%) were the chief priorities and had the most influence (Figure 2). Moreover, in Figure 2, karatekas considered others' recommendations as the main reason for choosing their styles in second priority. But judging based on the two priorities, the result reveals that on the whole other's suggestion is the most important factor in choosing of style.

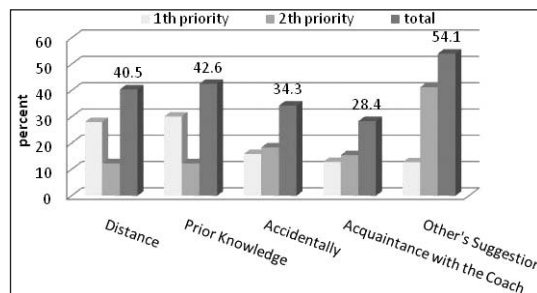


Figure 2. Factors influencing the choice of style.

Regarding the reasons behind irregular attendance at training sessions, the frequency of each of the factors is presented in Table 1. In general, 64% of the

participants attended in training sessions irregularly. As we can see in Table 1, karatekas considered homework assignments, financial problems, and job responsibilities as the main reasons for not attending exercise sessions regularly with 29%, 15.4%, and 12.7% respectively. But the sum of the three priorities in Table 1 revealed that among the options of homework assignments, financial problems, lack of facilities, had the most influence on the irregular attendance of karatekas at training sessions with 36.6, 32.6 and 32.3 respectively.

Table 1 – Reasons of the irregular attendance of karatekas at training sessions.

	1st Priority	2nd Priority	3rd Priority	Total Score
Homework	29.0	4.1	3.5	36.6
Financial Issues	15.4	10.7	6.5	32.6
Job Responsibilities	12.7	6.1	3.2	22
Distance from the Club	9.5	2.2	2.7	14.4
Disagreement of Families	1.9	3.6	7.3	12.8
Lack of Facilities	5.4	19.4	7.5	32.3
Laziness	2.2	5.1	5.4	12.7
Coaches' Technical Proficiency	7.6	4.1	4.3	16
Lack of a Clear-Cut Exercise Program	5.7	10.2	7.8	23.7
Training Schedule	1.9	9.2	9.7	20.8
Lack of Motivation	1.1	9.2	9.7	20
Training Injuries	3.5	4.1	4.6	12.2
Physical Difficulties or Weaknesses	0.8	4.6	8.9	14.3
Lack of Tournaments	3.3	2.6	9.7	15.6

Investigating the reasons behind the irregular training of the subjects in different age levels revealed that there is a significant difference between karatekas in choosing a priority ($p=0.000$). In the under 14 years group, about 50% of the subjects reported doing homework assignments as the main reason for their irregular attendance; in the 14-21 years age group, about 29.6% of subjects considered homework assignments as the main reason, 15.5% considered job responsibilities and 12.0% considered their distance from the club as the main

reasons for their irregular attendance at training sessions. While in the above 21 years group, 22.5% of the individuals reported financial problems, 16.7% reported job responsibilities, and 15.0% reported homework assignments as the most important factors.

Regarding the reasons of karatekas for changing their coaches, about 39.2% of the subjects had changed their coaches. As we can see in Table 2, 25.4% of subjects considered lack of attentiveness on the part of the coach and 11.4% considered the behavior of the coach and distance from the club as the main priorities for changing their coaches. While in the second priority, 17.2% of subjects changed their coaches due to successive losses. In the third priority, 11.5% of subjects changed their coach due to his behavioral characteristics. But the sum of the three priorities was as follows: on average, 44.3 subjects changed their coaches due to lack of attentiveness on the part of the coach; 33.8 subjects due to successive losses; 35 subjects due to their distance from the club; 30.8 subjects due to behavioral characteristics of the coach; 28.3 subjects due to the poor technical proficiency of the coach; 25.3 subjects due to lack of facilities and 22.6 subjects due to impossibility to contact the coach.

Table 2 – Reasons for changing coaches.

	1st Priority	2nd Priority	3rd Priority	Total Score
Behavior of the Coach	11.4	7.9	11.5	30.8
Technical Proficiency of the Coach	9.6	10.6	8.1	28.3
Lack of Attentiveness	25.4	9.3	9.6	44.3
Successive Losses	10.1	17.2	6.5	33.8
Distance from the Club	11.4	13.2	10.4	35
Coach Absenteeism	6.6	7.9	8.1	22.6
Lack of Facilities	11.0	6.2	8.1	25.3
Friends' Recommendation	1.8	4.0	1.2	7
Training Schedule	1.3	8.4	5.4	15.1
Monthly Payment to the Club	1.8	5.3	10.8	17.9
Technical Shortcomings of the Style	3.1	4.8	10.0	17.9
Cancellation of the Club	5.7	4.4	10.4	20.5

Regarding the reasons of karatekas for changing their styles, 49.1% of the

participants of the present research had changed their style. In their first to third priorities, these individuals reported inopportune training schedule, lack of style-specific tournaments, and remaining at the same belt level as the main reasons for changing their styles with the frequency of 16.1%, 14.7%, and 14.3% respectively. But judging based on the three priorities, the result reveals that on the whole, style-specific tournaments, lack of constant attentiveness of the coach and inopportune training schedule obtain the scores of 33.2, 30 and 28.1 respectively. The results related to the reasons why karatekas change their styles are presented in Table 3. As seen, technical shortcomings of the style is less important for changing their styles (18.9 points).

Table 3 – The reasons for changing karate styles

	1st Priority	2nd Priority	3rd Priority	Total Score
Friction between Individuals in the Club	7.0	1.9	9.1	18
Inopportune Training Schedule	16.1	5.3	6.7	28.1
Successive Injuries	11.9	4.5	5.6	22
Incongruity between Physical Condition and Style	10.9	4.5	5.6	21
Lack of Attentiveness of the Coach	7.7	14.0	8.3	30
Lack of Style-Specific Tournaments	7.4	14.7	11.1	33.2
Technical Shortcomings of the Style	8.1	6.4	4.4	18.9
Promises of the Opposite Style	2.1	0.3	1.2	3.61
Friends' Recommendations	9.1	4.2	3.6	16.9
Distance from the Club	6.7	10.2	6.0	22.9
Intensity of the Exercises	5.6	6.4	9.1	21.1
Technical Deficiency of the Coach	3.5	8.3	5.6	17.4
Coaches Recommendation	2.1	8.4	4.4	14.9
Lack of Proper Management of the Style	1.8	6.0	6.3	14.1
Remaining at the Same Belt Level	-	2.6	14.3	16.9

Investigating the tendency of karatekas toward different sections of training, no significant difference was observed between the karatekas of controlled contact and full-contact styles ($p=0.32$) and both groups were equally interested in

different sections of training. The priorities for different sections were reported as: kumite with 49%, kata with 31%, kihon with 14%, and physical fitness with 7% (figure 3).

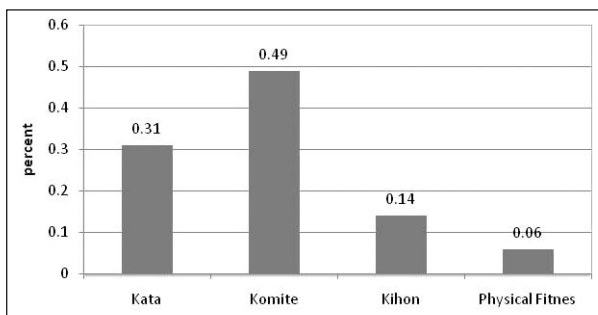


Figure 3. Karatekas' Tendency to Participate in Different Sections of Training.

Investigating the participation of different age groups in different training sections, the general tendency was toward kumite in all the age groups (figure 4).

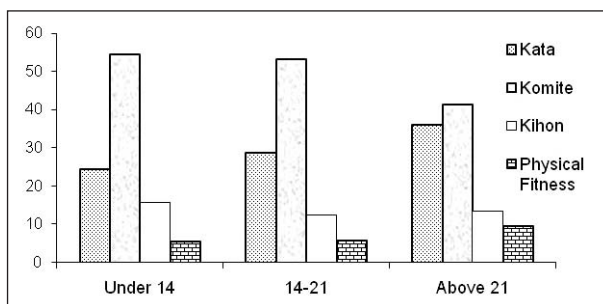


Figure 4. Karatekas' Tendency in Different Age Groups to Participate in Different Sections of Training.

Discussion and Conclusion

Answering the question “what are the factors influencing individuals’ tendency toward karate”, achieving vivacity and health was reported as the main factor. This result shows that despite the appearance of karate which is known as a sport of combating and fighting, these factors do not contribute to the tendency

and attraction of individuals to this sport; rather the sportive aspect of karate as a means for achieving vivacity and health is taken into account. Studies carried out in this regard have revealed that having a good and happy time, correcting and improving skills, and having a well-built body are the main reasons children participate in sports activities [5].

There are other factors influencing individuals' participation in karate exercises at various age groups, such as achieving defensive power. In order to realize the above goals, that is achieving health and increasing defensive power, karate coaches must take into consideration improving physical power, teaching self-defense, strengthening the strokes, and applying karate skills as if it were the time of combat; moreover, karate coaches, whether of controlled contact or full-contact styles, must make plans for realizing the said objectives in a way as to pay attention to physical fitness as well as technical and tactical swiftness. Further, the results have revealed that beside the aforesaid factors attracting individuals toward karate, watching martial arts movies has also been influential, but it did not contribute in any way to the regular and methodical attendance of individuals at training sessions.

According to the results, subjects regarded various factors as important in their choice of style of which we can mention prior knowledge of the style, being in the vicinity of the club, random choice, prior acquaintance with the coach, and others' recommendations. Almost 30% of subjects were fully aware of the variety of styles, while others were either unaware or to some extent aware of the matter. Answering the question of "the most important factors influencing their choice of style", subjects chose two options based on priority, which revealed that generally, almost 70% of the subjects have chosen their style without any prior knowledge. We can outline the results as follows:

1. It appears that in a large city like Tehran, distance is a huge problem. Some of the subjects chose their styles based on the distance to the club and in clubs which were in their vicinity, only certain styles were taught.
2. Friends are of the most important factors that affect the socialization process of individuals, and the younger generation, due to setting up coteries, might have chosen their styles based on their friends' recommendations. As the results re-

vealed, generally the tendency toward a specific style is not due to the nature of the style itself or its quality or advantage; rather some environmental factors such as friends' suggestions have influenced the choice of style. The variety of styles or changing them has turned into a promotion tool in the hands of those who try to introduce a new style or patent it as their own, which leads to the marketization of this sport and results in its diminution to personal interests. Therefore we can say that the process of policy-making of the Karate Federation must involve the union of the styles and unification of this sport.

Of the important results of this project we can mention that 39% of the subjects had changed their coaches; however, this number could increase to 50% in senior karatekas. This result is somehow disturbing and the results of this project should also be compared to similar project carried out for Taekwondo in order to deduce the effect of the variety of styles on the rate of changing coaches. Regarding the reasons behind this change, we can mention the lack of attentiveness on the part of the coach as an important factor. Thus, considering the role of coaches in the way exercises are performed, measures must be taken so that coaches with proper behavior and with technical proficiency would be able to constantly attend to and encourage their subjects and manage to maintain their protégés and prevent them from ever deciding to change their coaches. The noteworthy point is that there were some other factors reported by subjects as factors influencing their change of style. These factors revealed that the quality of the styles is not that much influential in attracting the individual; rather holding regular style-specific tournaments and obtaining a belt in that style has a significant effect on subjects' decision to change their styles. Similarly according to the results, these factors were reported to be most important in style changing. Therefore, recommendations and suggestions must be presented in this regard [9 & 11].

Tendency toward kumite was the highest among karatekas of the controlled contact or full-contact styles in all age groups. Kumite is a training exercise procedure in which offensive and defensive techniques acquired in kata is put into practice against a rival. It seems that this greater tendency is due to the nature of karate and due to the will to acquire defensive power, so that the individual can put the techniques they have acquired into effect in combat with a rival. After

kumite, there has been a greater tendency toward performing kata. In “Shotokan Karate”, Masatoshi Nakayama showed that advancement in kumite is directly dependent upon progress in kata, for these two are complementary and if the techniques of kata are mingled with those of kumite, one cannot expect any progress in it [7 & 8]. Yet we must note that the rules of karate competitions have provided room for an individual with no progress in basic skills to assume a position on the championship podium. Officials of the International Karate Federation must take this notion into account.

Regarding the reasons behind irregular attendance at exercise sessions, 64% of subjects attended irregularly. In the under 14 years group, homework assignments had the most effect with 50%, showing that the load of homework assignments for children involves them very much in studying, with respect to this frequency in the 14-21 age group with 30%. In the above 21-years group, financial problems were reported the most important factor with the frequency of 22%. Regarding the reasons for such irregular attendance among karatekas, we can say that for individuals in the 14-21 years group, distance from the club has been most problematic, indicating that those under 14 years can without any problem commute to the club with the support of their parents; however for those between the age of 14 to 21, who are beginning to become independent and do their tasks on their own, this matter can be problematic. Of course we should not disregard the fact that these individuals may be getting ready to take the university entrance examination and time is most importance for them. On the other hand, distance from the club will waste much of the time of those above 21 years of age. In this age too time gains special importance, for people in this age need to spend their time dealing with the affairs of everyday life and prepare for the future.

Acknowledgement

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THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT AMONG STUDENTS IN LITHUANIA

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History of the Olympics shows that Olympic sports unifying sport with culture and education, have been seeking to create a lifestyle based on taking a delight in every effort, the educational power of a good example as well as holding in respect global ethics. The Olympic sports have always impacted and are still impacting upon the development of the world society and it is one of the most lasting cultural values of humanity^[6]. In 1960 A. Camus claimed that the context where it is possible to learn ethics is exactly sports activity. Not accidentally for a long time (up to now) Physical Education and later on sports have played the main part in forming a character and propagating patriotism^[12].

Olympism is a set of principles, ideas, visions and challenges. Coubertin described it in not completely systematic terms as a philosophy of life with the principles of a cult of effort, eurhythmics and a love of exercise, but also as a state of mind^[9].

According to P. Coubertin, sports as well as education through sports should help in building the better and peaceful world; there shouldn't exist any racial, religious or political discrimination of nations; labour has been appreciated (only amateur athletes may serve the purposes of education); paying respects to rules and competitors; the beauty of fight. "In the Olympic Games the most important thing is to participate but not to win and all that matter is that the beauty does not come to victory but in the process of fight"^[2].

In 1913 in the Olympic Congress at Lausanne, Pierre de Coubertin dared to speak up for the opportunity of Olympic education at the university but stayed unappreciated among his colleagues – the members of the International Olympic Committee who approved only of the prosecution of Olympic Games and consolidation of sporting contacts. He was engaged in being heard by multitude. According to Olympic pedagogy the worshipping of body and sports should be celebrated not only four times a year “It should be practiced in everyday activity”.

Sport is an important part of culture which has a huge educational impact. Pierre de Coubertin chose sport as a mean of education. He seriously believed that sport, in other words, with voluntary and constant efforts to improve, may be effectively applied to the purposes of education: self-knowledge, self-control, a sense of systematic work, abidance by rules, the development of nobleness and honour ^[7].

Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining the qualities of body in a balanced whole. Will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create the way of life based on the joy of effort, the educational value of good example and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles ^[1].

Nowadays the process of education is based not only on the development of mind and intellect but also of the body. The Olympic education means physiological education. With the help of it children and youth are supposed to understand that the durability conditioned by sport enriches other goals of life and helps to find their own place in a society. This is the basis of the activity of the association “Sport for all”.

In the day schools of sport and universities it is encouraged to build the feeling of belonging as well as the responsibility of a team spirit. Both the Olympic Games influences human feelings and sports days at schools and universities are an important part of their life and should agree with educational functions. They create a great opportunity to negotiate art and music, one of the esthetic sides of sport that leads to the development of a harmonious personality. It was one of Pierre de Coubertin’s Olympic education statements - the harmony of art, music and sport.

Neither of Olympic ideals is so apprehensible as a noble game for which the term *esprit chevaleque* is applied by Pierre de Coubertin ^[8]. In the programme of Olympic education the most careful attention is paid to the honourable, honest and noble competition. Honest behaviour including respect should become every person's obligation as well as intolerance to deception and immoral behaviour. Each person should understand the meaning of the principle of the noble game and accept it of his own free will.

The introduction of youth with the development of the Olympic Movement, the history of Olympic Games, the most important statements of the Olympic Charter would help them be aware of the sense that Olympic education is concurrent with the general and cultural education of youth as it solves the same problems with the help of specific means and influences over culture of youth behavior and its civil, ethnic, social maturity. Nowadays the Olympic Movement and education have achieved the new expression containing plenty of values which are common in every country ^[5].

Due to Olympic education children, youth and adults may acquire knowledge of:

1. The Olympic Games and Movement, its history, aims and objectives, the main ideals and values of the Olympics;
2. Sport and its types, methods and means of sportive preparation leading to impressive results;
3. Humanistic, social and cultural potential of sports, its role in healthy lifestyle, its place in the system of the means warranting person's physical education, his positive impact on moral, aesthetical culture of communication;
4. General concept of humanism, its basic ideas, ideals and personalities, values of people correlation ^[11].

The Olympic Movement among students is not widespread. The research done by professor Konstantinos Georgiadis shows that Olympic programmes are integrated in barely 18.7% of universities of Europe. There is a need to inspire and heighten the awareness of students, encourage positive approaches and collaboration, develop a critical, intellectual personality. The aim of the Olympic

Movement is to conduce to the establishment of the more peaceful and better world, develop students in the spirit of Olympism which demands reciprocal understanding, friendship, solidarity and sporting gesture. It is important students to get acquainted with the ideals of Olympism which are oriented towards humanistic values concerned in sport. Introduction to the development of the Olympic Movement, the history of Olympic Games, the basic statements of the Olympic Charter would help students better realize the meaning of Olympic ideas as well as the necessity of its implementation ^[4].

In Lithuania there is an attempt to expand the Olympic Movement through non-formal education. Lithuanian Students Sports Association organises Lithuanian youth Olympic festival in which all higher schools are involved. The main ambition of the festival is to involve as many students as possible in the Olympic Movement. Sports contests are held in every higher school. At the Olympic festival final the toughest teams and sportsmen of the higher school are delegated. Sportsmen of team events (basketball 3x3, football 5x5 and volleyball 4x4) who have won first-second- third place at the second stage qualify for the finals in the contest of the Olympic festival. All participants are allowed to compete in tug-of-war, weightlifting, darts, orienteering, arm-wrestling, cross-country race and third stage festival. At the fourth stage there is "a celebration of sport and art" at the festival closing day ^[13].

At the Olympic festival closing day the best contestants of higher schools are awarded. The higher school having a win over the most number of first places gets a cup and a diploma from the Ministry of Education and Science; the higher school that has taken the second place gets a cup and a diploma from the Physical Education and Sports Department near Government of the Republic of Lithuania, the higher school that has taken the third place gets a cup and a diploma from the Lithuanian National Olympic Committee. In addition to these awards, the rest of higher schools that participated at the Olympic festival receive thank you certificates from the Lithuanian Students Sports Association.

This year Olympic Games of Vilnius Pedagogical University have been held for the sixth time. Such an idea came from the University of Tartu as it has organised Olympic Games of students for many years. The event is going to be-

come an international one because the Physical Culture University of Belarus has already announced its intention to participate. The spirit of Olympics and also its conception are being intensified between students and lecturers by this sports contest. There is an attempt to broaden a mass of sport in VPU and also teach students how to spend their leisure time purposefully. Both amateur sportsmen willing to participate in any sporting event and just curious onlookers come to this competition. Not only has the community of the university taken a delight in the festival but also the common people living in neighborhoods by the university. All faculties and institutes of the university take part in the opening parade of the Olympic Games.

Each year all participants of the festival are welcomed by the godfather of the Games, the dean of the Faculty of Sports and Health Education Audronius Vilkas, VPU rector, an academician Algirdas Gaizutis and other distinguished guests from LTOK and LOA.

The honour of carrying the VPU Olympic torch and a flag is given to the most eminent sportsmen of the university. In most cases VPU students – Olympic champions light the VPU Olympic flame, for example, Vida Vencienė (1988 m. Calgary), Lina Kačiušytė (1980 m. Moscow), Romas Ubartas (1992 m. Barcelona). Also one of the participants in the name of sportsmen takes an oath to contest by fair means and achieve results, meanwhile the arbiter of the contest in the name of referees takes an oath to judge worthily. The quests of the festival as well as entrants are welcomed by the appearance of lecturers, workers together with students of the university and other guests.

There are frequently eight events in the programme of the competition. All events take place at same time. There are efforts to try to relate them with the ancient Olympic Games. The contestants may take their choice from a horseshoe and a log throw, a triple jump, gladiators' battle, chariot racing, little football, tug-of-war, frisbee. Lecturers and workers of the university are supposed to play darts.

Horseshoe throws

The competition is personal. Participants throw a horseshoe to the target from the marked place. The most amounts of points (10) are scored when the horseshoe surrounds an iron stick which height is 25 cm. The stick stands on the mat (1 x 1 m) marked in squares. If the horseshoe hits the first square, seven points are scored, if the second one- five points, the third one- three points. There are three throws, after which points are scored up. The winner becomes the one whose total sum of points is the highest. The distance from the marked place to the stick is 3.5 m. There are two trial throws and three valid trials.

Log throws

The competition is personal. Participants throw the log with both hands as far as possible in any way from the place they stand. Each participant has three trials. The best result is scored as a valid trial.

Triple jump

The competition is personal. Each participant has three attempts to place the hands holding the two plastic bottles filled with sand. Each participant has three jumps. The best result is scored as a valid jump.

Gladiator's battle

The competition consists of team events. The team includes a boy and a girl. The competition is held in the circle of 6 m diameter. Two opponents from different teams fastened around the edges of the rag have to push the competitor out of the circle. The length of the rag is 2 m.

Chariot racing

The competition consists of team events. The team includes two boys and one girl. The girl sits in the chariot. The boys have to drag the chariot to the home

stretch. The length is 100 m. The time is recorded when the boys overstep the home stretch. The start is made in two teams at once.

Mini- football

The competition is held according to the rules of little football. The change of players is not limited. Players score goals (2mx3m). After semi-final and final are finished, three players from each team kick penalties of 7 m. If the result is deuce, the penalties are kicked by one player at a time from each team until the first mistake.

Tug-of-war

The competition consists of team events. The team includes three girls and three boys. The system of competition realization will turn out after the applications of teams.

Frisbee

The competition is personal. The Frisbee is thrown in a chosen way. The time is recorded from the moment it is released from the competitor's hands to the moment it touches the ground. The aim of the task is to keep the Frisbee in the air as long as possible. If the Frisbee touches any obstacle, the time is stopped immediately. The Frisbee is thrown in one direction. Each participant has three trials. The best result is scored as a valid trial.

Competition darts for the lecturers and staff.

All champions and prizemen receive VPU Olympic medals and diplomas of the Lithuanian National Olympic Committee. Champions are decorated with garlands of laurels.

Many Lithuanian universities participate in SELL students' games. SELL is open Students' Games organised by four Baltic countries – Finland, Estonia, Lithuania, and Latvia. A lot of students come there not only from those countries but also from Russia, Italy, Greece or even China. Each year the competition is held in a different country. SELL Games host country has the right to choose

which kind of sports will be organised in the competition. At the Opening ceremony the flag of SELL students' contest is run up, the Olympic flame is lit, students' hymn is sung. The festival is similar to student Olympic Games which unify students of universities from various countries ^[14].

The Lithuanian Olympic Academy is amplifying the idea to organise Olympic students' events to the extent of Lithuania and also Baltic countries. Only purposive work is able to gain future perspectives. That is a kind gesture as such events attract plenty of students' attention.

Olympism, as a social philosophy, and the Olympic Movement, as a set of ideas, structures and competitions, are twentieth century phenomena ^[10].

Although Olympic names are preserved by the Olympic Charter, such public events help students who have not reached an advanced level understand the sense of responsibility towards the team and the university. The same names let us identify the spirit of Olympics and also feel the opening ceremony itself. The most important thing in that ordinary students are longing for this tradition of Olympic festival which is a great motivation for them to participate in it.

Therefore Olympic Education and the Olympic movement should be integrated not only into schools among schoolchildren but into universities as well. Personalities leaving the universities will be able to propagate the Olympic Movement not only among children but also in the groups of adults. Sport should become a part of our life and so Olympism attracts more people, especially in contemporary society^[3]. School and university sports days form community of thoughts and responsibility for collective feelings. Both the Olympic Games impact on human feelings and school or university sports days are an important part of one's life and should suit educational functions. They allow a possibility to combine art and music, one of the artistic sides of sport, including a harmonious development of a personality. Being in harmony with art, music and sport is the basic statement from Pierre de Coubertin's Olympic education.

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INITIAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT IN HUNGARY UNTIL 1914

Annamária MECSÉRI (HUN)

The beginning of the Olympic Movement in the world and in Hungary

The Olympic Games was first mentioned in Hungary in the 16th century by Ladislaus Zalca (or László Szalkay) in the so-called Szalkay Code. In the following centuries well-known Hungarian professors, writers, politicians also referred to the great games of the Ancient Greece. One of the best-known is poet Dániel Berzsenyi who brought on the resurrection of the Greek gymnastics.

The main newspapers of the reform era in the 1840s also had articles about the Olympic Games as a model to be followed in the educational reform. Sport and physical education gradually became an everyday issue through the Olympics.

In the 19th century there were attempts to resuscitate the ancient Olympic Games all over the world. Hungary was on top of this initiative. In the 1880s patronizing sportsman Lajos Vermes held competitions in Szabadka and Palics (both now Serbia) and called them “Olympic Championships”. They became famous international competitions and were held in every few years until World War I.

In the end of the 19th century the resurrection of the Ancient Olympic Games was an issue, and there was a man who became leader of the initiative: French Baron Pierre de Coubertin. He gave a lecture on the Olympic Games in 1892 at University Sorbonne, trying to circulate the Olympic Idea. Two years later he organised a great international conference in Paris, where the main topic

was the Olympic Games. The audience supported the idea, and the final voting about the resuscitation passed unanimously. That also meant the foundation of the International Olympic Committee as an establishment independent from the national governments aimed to control Olympic issues. The constitution of the organisation was also formed called the Olympic Charter with the principle to organise the Olympic Games every four years. 15 persons were elected to be charter members, including Hungarian Ferenc Kemény, the only one being chosen in his absence.

Kemény was a high school teacher and headmaster. He became good friends with Coubertin in Paris in the 1880s where they learnt together and already planned the revival of the Olympic Games. Kemény became an international activist of the Olympic Movement. He tried to circulate the Olympic Idea in newspapers and even in the school. He was in touch with Coubertin, they had correspondence, for example in April 1894 Kemény received a letter from Baron de Coubertin, in which he was asked to make a register about the main sport- fencing- and gymnastic clubs in Hungary and Austria. This contact and friendship and Kemény's hard work in Hungary made him earn to be elected as member and Vice President of the International Olympic Committee in his absence on 23rd June 1894 in Paris.

Hungarian role in the first years of modern Olympic era

There was a Hungarian relation of the first modern summer Olympic Games in 1896 as well. As far back as the foundation of itself in June 1894, the IOC passed a resolution about the date and the location of the first modern Olympic Games and decided that Athens would host it in 1896. But unfortunately the Greek Prime Minister announced that because of the treasury problems he was against the Games. That is when Ferenc Kemény suggested: Budapest could host the Games as part of Hungary's millennial celebrations commemorating the founding of the state 1000 years ago. But in the end without instruments, institutions and experience the Hungarian Government dropped the idea of the

organisation. However Coubertin used this Hungarian attempt to inspire Greece, and it was successful. And yet, Hungary was so close to host the very first modern Olympic Games.

In the meantime, the invitation arrived to the 1896 Athens Olympic Games. In Hungary, Ferenc Kemény urged the formation of the preparatory committee, which was also supported by the National Gymnastic Association and the Hungarian Athletic Club.

The next important step was the foundation of the Hungarian Olympic Committee, which happened on 19 December 1895. Originally, the official name of the organisation was Hungarian Committee of Preparation to the Olympic Games. The first President was Albert Berzeviczy, and Kemény became the first secretary. It was the fifth National Olympic Committee in the world, only the French, the Greek, the Australian and the American committee was formed before ours.

In these decades the Kingdom of Hungary was not independent; it was part of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. In almost every issue Hungary was dependent on Austria; it could not make the important decisions alone and did not have separate organisations. That is why it was remarkable that in Olympic matters we had a separate committee, because it represented the Hungarian freedom and independence.

In the spirit of preparation, test competitions were held in athletics, gymnastics and swimming in March 1896. Finally seven athletes went to Athens to the Games. The Hungarian delegation was the first one to arrive in Athens. The leader of the team, Kemény had been honored twice: he was chosen to be member of the jury and he was asked to salute the sponsor of the Olympic Stadium, Georgios Averoff in the name of foreign participants. He also received state honours from King George I.

The Hungarian sportsmen were welcomed warmly by the hosts. They competed in 15 events in 7 sports. In spite of the write-downs of the home press, Hungary competed successfully. Furthermore, the first Olympic competitor ever to be called on start was runner Alajos Szokoly in the qualifying heat of the 100 m. He finished third in this event, getting Hungary's first ever Olympic medal.

Our next medal was won by marathon runner Gyula Kellner being the only not-Greek finisher in the event. He originally finished in fourth place, but third-place Velokas confessed he travelled part of the distance on a wagon, so his place went to Kellner.

11th of April was an important day for Hungary. Alfréd Hajós finished first in the 100 m freestyle swimming, and became not only Hungary's first ever Olympic champion, but also the first ever swimmer Olympic champion in the world. Unfortunately it was the Austrian, not the Hungarian national anthem which sounded.

Hajós planned to participate in the next event – the 500 m – but he couldn't as there was a too short period between the two events, and he could not enter, however he participated and won the 1200 m event organised later that day. Hajós – the “Hungarian Dolphin” – had to tallow his body as the sea water was so cold. He decided to give the race up, but he continued and finally finished first, and so became two times Olympic champion.

In November 1899 the HOC had been restructured and from that time on it worked as National Olympic Great Committee. It is important to note that it was not a permanent committee yet; it was formed only before the Olympic Games to help in the preparation and in financial matters.

The second Olympic Games were held in Paris in 1900. It was less ceremonial as it was only an assistant programme of the world expo held in the same year there. The games lasted more than 5 months; there was no connection between the competitions, so these were anarchic and chaotic Olympic Games.

In these “exhibition games” Hungary got 5 medals including one gold in track and field by Rudolf Bauer in discus throw. This event was held in a public park with a great old oak in the middle of the throwing sector. So in these Games the point of the throwing was not only to throw longer but also not to hit the tree... Bauer was the best of it, and became the first Hungarian Olympic champion in athletics. Swimmer Zoltán Halmay got two second places. The fencers held their own; but the best of them could not participate in the Games, because it was forbidden by the Monarchy military administration.

Development to a permanent Hungarian Olympic Committee

Another significant change in the turn of the century was the resignation of Berzeviczy in 1904. It was because he was chosen to be Minister for Culture, in which position he kept helping the Olympic Movement. Later that year the regulation of organisation and operation was created. It summarized the intentions, the functions and the structure in 17 sections. It made the operation smoother, and it also was an important stage to stability and permanency.

Hungary was represented with just 4 athletes in the 1904 Summer Olympics in St. Louis, and yet became relatively successful with 2 gold, 1 silver and 1 bronze medal and placed fourth in the nation's medal table.

Zoltán Halmay became two times Olympic champion in swimming: he won the 50 yard and the 100 yard freestyle. In the 50 yard finals Halmay had beaten an American swimmer by a few inches, but the jury ordered them to re-swim, on which Halmay won by a significant difference.

Our fencers could have a chance for a good result – if they had had the chance to start, but the Austrian military administration forced them to start as Austrian-Hungarians, but it wasn't undertaken.

Baron de Coubertin was not at these games, so the IOC was represented there by the German Gebhardt and Ferenc Kemény. It was another sign of how important Hungary was in the Olympic Movement.

In the first years after the rebirth of the Olympic Games, the NOC of Greece has tried to reschedule the Games, organising them every four years. Yet, there has been only one Intercalated Games hosted by Greece in 1906, commemorating the 10th anniversary of the first Olympic Games. Nevertheless the IOC did not recognize these Games as official Olympiad, Hungary had a great success in Athens, again, achieving two Olympic championships. György Sztantics won the 3000 m walk race, and the Hungarian swimmers won the 4x250 m freestyle relay.

In the initial years the most decisive factors in the Hungarian Olympic Committee were the athletic and the gymnastic federation, and in the important issues there was opposition between them. They had confrontations with Kemény too

as they tried to him play down. They tried to take the better positions, but these battles were harmful to the committee. In 1907, as a result of these internal conflicts Kemény resigned as IOC- as well as HOC-member. With this selfless move Kemény could preserve the peace.

After Kemény's resignation the IOC remained without Hungarian member just for a short period: still in that year, Count Gyula Andrássy – who also became president of the HOC in 1908 – became member of the IOC.

In 1907 a new regulation of the Hungarian Olympic Committee was passed by Minister for Culture Albert Apponyi. After it the HOC was even closer to the permanent status.

After financial and other problems in Italy, the original host city of the 1908 had been changed from Rome to London. Great Britain had only a short period to organise the Games, and still, it had been the most perfect Games so far. Hungary was represented by more athletes than ever before, and had been very successful again. Our fencers – in spite of the fact that our soldiers still were not allowed to start – were absolutely the best: they won both the team sabre and the individual sabre events. Their superiority is represented by the fact that there were five Hungarians in the top six in the individual event. The victory of the team and Jenő Fuchs – who was welcomed by King Edward VII personally – and the team's victory was the beginning of the most magnificent series of the Hungarian sport. The third gold medal was won the same day by heavyweight Greco-Roman wrestler Richárd Weisz. There were more valued results by the athletes and the swimmers.

IOC Session in Budapest – successes in Stockholm

In the 1909 IOC Session another Hungarian, Gyula Muzsa was elected to be member of the IOC. This meeting was in Berlin, as well as the 1911 IOC Session was held in Hungary (23-27 May 1911), acknowledging the great results of the Hungarian Olympic Movement so far.

The patron of the event was King Francis Joseph I, represented in the meeting

by Archduke Joseph. The participants were welcomed by Prime Minister Károly Kheun-Héderváry and Lord Mayor of Budapest Károly Fülepp. The session decided on significant issues such as the programme of the Stockholm Olympics next year, and the reception of the modern pentathlon to the Olympic sports. The capital city arranged other programmes as well including an athletic, gymnastic and rowing competition on Margitsziget. It resulted in a very successful and internationally well-received session and gave a good reputation to the Hungarian Olympic Movement.

To express their satisfaction, the IOC awarded the King a great golden medal for the excellent organisation; while the Hungarian Athletic Club was awarded with the Olympic Cup. Baron de Coubertin was satisfied, too. In the closing ceremony he cheered the city of Budapest and instanced Hungary for other countries as a model to follow in the Olympic Movement.

The successful IOC Session inspired the Hungarian sport life, and sped up the preparation to the following Olympic Games, which began already in 1911, and in early 1912 the state finance was no longer a problem.

During the preparation to the 1912 Olympics, a problem occurred. The Monarchy diplomatic leaders in Wien disapproved the separate entry of the Hungarian and the Czech Olympic team in the opening ceremony. They wanted them to march in behind the Austrian flag and board. The Hungarian Olympic Committee and Baron de Coubertin protested at once, warning to the rule which says nations having separate Olympic Committee had the right to march in independently under its own flag and board. The protest was successful as Hungary could step into the stadium separately, on the other hand, the Czechs had to walk under the Habsburg flag and the board said "Österrike-Tschecher".

In Stockholm Hungary performed very successful again. We had over 100 participants in the Games for the first time. The team achieved 8 medals including 3 gold ones. Again, the fencers, who could take part in the Olympics without limits that time, were the base of the success. Jenő Fuchs repeated in the individual sabre, and the sabre team won as well. In the individual event it was a complete Hungarian show: again, 7 of the first 8 fencers were Hungarians, including

all three medallists. Meanwhile Fuchs became four-time Olympic champion. In the team competition Hungary had beaten the big rival Austria in the final.

The Hungarian fencers became very popular in Stockholm; a great audience including Gustaf V King of Sweden watched and admired them.

The third Olympic championship went to shooter Sándor Prokopp who originally travelled to the Games as a reserve. He won the 300 meters military rifle from three positions (originally called individual competition with army rifle) with almost a perfect performance (97 of 100 points).

The only negative was the poor performance of the athletes and the swimmers. These sports had been successful before, but in these Games our sportsmen weren't prepared enough to compete with the world progressing fast. The failure of the athletes also meant that the former significant role of the Hungarian Athletic Federation in the HOC had reduced.

The Hungarian national football team participated in the Olympics in Stockholm for the first time. Unfortunately our only game was a 0-7 defeat to England; however in a consolation tournament we beat Austria which had been an important sign of independence.

The nation had quite a good interest in the Olympic Games; everyone was waiting for the news from Sweden. The Olympics was a hot topic at home, not only in the newspapers, and people were glad of another successful Olympic participation. Officially, the HOC and the King also expressed satisfaction after the Olympic Games.

Next year there was a great change in the Hungarian sport administration: the National P.E. Council was formed by the minister for culture. Albert Berzeviczy was named as president of this organisation including 30 members.

The candidacy to the 1920 Olympic Games – summary

The great successes achieved so far were one of the motivations of Budapest's candidacy to the 1920 Olympics. It was supported by the whole country, including the King himself. After the application the planning of the Olympic Stadium

also had started. A special subcommittee of HOC was formed to choose the perfect place for it.

In the 20th jubilee IOC Session in Paris, 1914 the IOC made a decision about the host city of the Olympic Games 6 years later, and in the final voting Budapest had beaten Antwerp 21:7 and got the right to host the 1920 Summer Olympic Games! It wasn't an official decision, but following the previous practice, it almost always meant the real decision.

These Games could top the progress of this period off, but unfortunately, Budapest never had the chance to host the Olympic Games being the capital city of a defeated nation in World War I, as the role of the politics grew in the Olympic Movement. The IOC chose Antwerp to host the Games in 1920, and Hungary along with the other defeated countries was not even invited to take part in the Games. In the Treaty of Trianon following World War I Hungary lost two thirds of its territory and population, making the development of sport checked.

Since then Budapest stood as a candidate several times, however there wasn't a time when it had a real chance. Nevertheless, this era I presented became the background of Hungary's leading part in the Olympic Movement. And this leading role still exists today, in spite of the difficulties Hungary and Hungarian sport lived through in the 20th century.

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PHYSICAL ACTIVITY AND PREVENTION OF LIFESTYLE DISEASES

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Background

The Olympic Movement builds its activity on three values; excellence, friendship and respect. The value “excellence” refers to participating in sports and physical activity and making progress towards own personal goals and thereby benefiting for the healthy combination of a strong body, mind and will (The Olympic Museum, 2nd edition 2007). The Olympic Games is the most prestigious competition in the world and the Games can bring long-term changes to the host nation, for example in terms of new sporting facilities and increased focus on participating in sports (8). When London applied for the Games in 2012 they presented a report about how the Games would influence public health and health determinants, for example that the Games would make the inhabitants in London more physically active. Physical activity therefore is not only promoted by the values in the Olympic Movement, but also indirectly from hosting the Games.

The relationship between physical activity and health and well-being is well documented in several studies (13, 14). The last decades our society has become more adapted for inactivity and physical inactivity has become a nationwide problem, especially in the western countries. Physically inactive people are for example twice as likely to die from cancer or cardiovascular disease compared with persons engaged in moderate physical activity (4). An important strategy

to improve public health and prevent disease in the population is therefore to stimulate and encourage to higher levels of physical activity (11).

Because promotion of physical activity is an important public health priority, it is essential to have knowledge, and to continually update the evidence, about the association between physical activity and health benefits. The purpose of my paper is to give an overview about what physical activity is and the association between physical activity and some of the most common diseases, including cardiovascular diseases, type 2 diabetes, cancer, overweight and psychiatric disorders. In addition the importance of physical activity to improve public health will be emphasized.

Physical activity

Physical activity is defined as “any bodily movement initiated by skeletal muscles resulting in a substantial increase in energy expenditure beyond resting level”. This is a general term that encompasses many different terms such as exercise, sports, fitness, work, recreation, physical education and play (6). Exercise is not synonymous with physical activity, but is a subcategory of physical activity that is somewhat more limited. Exercise is physical activity that is planned, structured, repetitive and has a objective to improve or maintain physical fitness (6).

A person's physical activity level (dose) is determined by three dimensions, including frequency, duration and intensity (12). An increase in one or more of these dimensions results in increased activity level and energy consumption. Frequency indicates the number of times/sessions that one is physically active for a period of time; while the duration describes the amount of time (often in minutes) the specific activity is performed. Intensity of physical activity refers to how much energy the task requires and is often classified as light, moderate or vigorous (12). The recommended unit for absolute intensity is the metabolic equivalent (MET) which is defined as the ratio of the activity metabolic rate to the resting metabolic rate. One MET is approximately equal to 3.5 ml/kg/min of

oxygen consumption (24). Physical activity with moderate intensity corresponds with 3-6 MET.

Health is defined as a human condition with physical, social and psychological dimensions, and is related to physical activity in a dose-response relationship (13). For many health variables the relationship is linear, hence the greatest health gains are achieved among those people that have poor physical fitness and are not physical active. For other health variables it is more difficult to determine the dose-response relationship because it is not sufficiently investigated and because several confounding factors may influence the relationship between physical activity and health (1, 13).

Physical activity and Epidemiology research: History

In the mid-twentieth-century heart disease epidemic fueled an amount of large observational epidemiologic studies aiming to identify the determinants of heart disease so that preventive measure could be undertaken (24). These studies were the first investigations to develop methods for measuring physical activity and to methodically study the link between physical activity and diseases, and therefore a number of them were important to the development of the field of physical activity epidemiology. One of the milestone cohort studies in the field of epidemiological research in physical activity is the College Alumni Health Study by Paffenbarger Jr. and coworkers (20). Over 16 000 men between age 35-74 years attending Harvard Alumni were enrolled in the study and at baseline they filled out a questionnaire that covered daily physical activity and habits. After six to ten years 572 men had experienced their first heart attack and the risk of first heart attack was found to be related inversely to energy expenditure. Activities like stairs climbing, blocks walking, strenuous sports playing, and a composite physical activity indexes all opposed risk. Stratified comparisons of these data by age, smoking status, blood pressure and adiposity exposed that these potentially confounding factors did not account for the relationship between physical activity and first heart attack. Hence, the effect of physical activity is an independent factor. The study also demonstrated that ex-athletes retained lower risk of heart

attack only if they maintained a high physical activity index, as well as beginning moderately physical activity in middle age is not too late and can extend the life span (18).

By 1980s, the evidence indicating that physical activity was associated with reduced risk for heart disease was beginning to grow. Heart diseases were, and still are, the leading cause for death in United States and in the European Union, and therefore physical activity emerged as an important factor for providing public health. In the 1990s the evidence continued to amass, showing that low levels of physical activity was associated with increased risk for all-cause mortality, osteoporosis and mental health etc (24).

Assessment of physical activity

Physical activity can be measured using a range of different methods, but physical activity is a complex and difficult behavior to quantify accurately because it consists of several components, including intensity, frequency, duration, and total energy (21). To obtain more knowledge about how these components relate to different health variables, including establish dose-response relationship between physical activity and health, in addition to survey level of physical activity in the population, we depend on validated and accurate measurement methods for physical activity. Traditionally self-report of physical activity, mainly through questionnaires has been the most widely used measurement method for large epidemiological studies (12). The method has many weaknesses, including different understanding of questions and concepts, along with that one must rely on participant to accurate recall the appropriate level of physical activity because data often are collected retrospectively (23). To eliminate the problems associated with self-report of physical activity objective measurement methods, especially the accelerometer, has attracted increasing interest in recent years. Accelerometer is a waist-mounted instrument that provides detailed information about physical activity by measuring the body's movement, acceleration (18). The great advantage of objective measurement of physical activity is that they

don't rely on information provided by the participant and that they have real-time data collection.

Physical activity and prevention of diseases

Cardiovascular diseases (CVD)

CVD contributes considerably to morbidity and mortality all over the world and consist of all forms of heart diseases, including high blood pressure (hypertension), stroke and coronary heart disease (CHD) (14). Numerous prospective studies are available that shows the protective effect of physical activity on risk factors of CVD, in addition to a large number of studies that report that physical activity can be used as treatment for patient with heart diseases. One of the first studies that presented a relationship between physical activity and prevention of CHD was conducted on men working on the double-decker buses in London (19). The men were similar in many ways, but the conductors were inescapably physical active, walking up and down the stairs all day long, while the drivers were sedentary sitting behind the steering wheel. The study shows a much lower incidence of CHD (1.9 versus 2.7) in men working as conductors versus men working as drivers, and many studies have later reaffirmed the results (5). The INTERHEART study includes over 15 000 cases and 14 000 controls from 52 countries and it reports that people involved in regular moderate activities, including walking, bicycling and swimming, for $\geq$ four hours per week had significantly decreased odds ratio compared with people who were inactive (29). Finally, reviews shows that physical activity with moderate intensity at minimum 30 minutes per day should be adequate to reduce the risk for CVD (14).

Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus

The incidence of diabetes is increasing rapidly, with estimated 171 million people having the disease in 2000 (14) and 1.3 million new cases occurring in United States every year (2). The disease increases the risk of developing CHD by three- to sevenfold in women and two- to threefold in men and the economic costs of

both CVD and diabetes is enormous. Data from several large prospective cohort studies have shown that type 2 diabetes develops less often in persons who work out regularly (13, 14). In the Finnish study by Tuomilehto and coworkers (26) they randomly assigned over 500 middle-aged, overweight men and women with impaired glucose tolerance to the intervention group or the control group. The intervention consisted of individualized counseling aimed at reducing weight and intake of fat as well as increasing level of physical activity. The follow-up period was four years and the risk of diabetes was reduced by 58% in the intervention group. Physical activity also plays an essential part in the prevention of insulin resistance, pre-diabetes and gestational type 2 diabetes. Both aerobic and resistance training improve insulin action, but the exercise must be performed regularly to have chronic effects and benefits (7). Both observational and clinical trials indicate that the same amount of physical activity as for prevention of CVD is needed to reduce the incidence for type 2 diabetes (2).

Overweight and obesity

The epidemic of obesity is a worldwide problem, not only in the Western countries and the prevalence has for example increased with 74% between 1991 to 2001 in the United States (27). Obesity is associated with the development of several diseases, including CVD, type 2 diabetes and cancer (14). Increased physical activity is often recommended for weight maintenance and loss. The protective effects of physical activity on overweight are well documented and without the help of diet changes the effect is moderate (14). Littman and coworkers (16) examined how intensity, frequency, and type of physical activity were associated with weight gain attenuation over 10 years. Over 15 000 American adults, age between 53 and 57 years, were recruited and the study shows that increasing sessions per week of high- moderate- and low-intensity activities over 10 years were inversely related to weight gain after age 45. Obese women and men who participated in 75-100 minutes per week of fast walking gained 9 and 5 pounds less than people that didn't walk. It therefore seems like regular moderate intensity physical activity prevents some of the weight gain associated with

aging, but accurate how much physical activity that is enough to prevent weight gain is uncertain.

Osteoporosis

Osteoporosis is a major health problem for the ageing population and is a normal factor associated with societal disability. Bone mass is an important determinant of fracture risk and the incidences of osteoporosis fractures are especially high in North Europe and United States of America, primarily due to the climate that limits physical activity and provides less sunlight and therefore vitamin D (14). More than 60% of the variance in peak bone mass (PBM) is genetically determined, but the remaining variance is influenced by for example weight-bearing physical activity (22). High levels of physical activity during childhood and teenage years is an essential factor for adequate bone mass (14). A study by Fuchs and coworkers (9) investigated the effects of high-intensity jumping on hip and lumbar spine bone mass in 89 children between the ages of 5-10 years. The children were randomized into a jumping (100, two-footed jumps off 61-cm boxes) or a control group (non-impact stretching exercises) and both groups participated in the exercise intervention three times per week. After 7 months the children in the jumping group had significantly bigger changes at the femoral neck and lumbar spine than the controls. Maximizing bone mineral mass during childhood and adolescence can reduce the risk for fractures during teenage years and perhaps in the elderly (16). Therefore, regular weight bearing physical activity is basic for a healthy skeleton through life.

Cancer

The prevalence of different types of cancer is growing and about 40% of people will develop cancer at some time in their life. A majority of observational studies have stated that people that engage in regular physical activity have lower incidence for cancer (13). The evidence that physical activity has a protective effect for colon cancer is convincing, and this is probably also true for breast cancer. The positive effect on prostate, lung and endometrial cancer is weaker. A system-

atic review on the effect of exercise on different cancer biomarkers found small to moderate effect on improving concentrations of several biomarkers in the blood implicated in breast and colon cancer (28). It seems like physical activity exerts an independent effect on cancer risk, but due to many confounding factors this is not certain (13). Despite this uncertainty, daily physical activity is recommended throughout life as prevention against cancer development, but it is necessary to conduct more studies that include potential biological mechanisms and better measure of physical activity seen in the relationship of physical activity and specific cancer.

Psychiatric disorders

Depressive disorders and anxiety are major public health problems, and depression, emotional stress and anxiety are considered as risk factors for some diseases, including diabetes, hypertension and cancer (14). Depression is twice more prevalent in women than in men, and their cost to both the human being and the society are huge (17). There is growing evidence that individuals with a high level of physical activity are less likely of developing depression sickness than those with a low level of physical activity. The study by Lim and coworkers (15) examined factors associated with physical activity in an older population consisting of 8881 individuals aged 65+ years, and they report that physical activity was independently associated with better physical functioning and lower psychological distress. In addition changes in lifestyle, for example beginning with physical activity, can have great potential in treatment of psychiatric disorders, and it is shown that exercise interventions are associated with significant benefits for individuals with mild to moderate forms of depression as well as in reducing anxiety (17). Therefore, substantial positive effects on mental health can be gained by becoming physical active, but accurate how much activity that is needed is not certain.

Guidelines for physical activity

Already in the 1960s came the first recommendations for physical activity and it was based on the dose-response relationship between physical activity and different health outcomes (10). The recommendations in Norway are published by the Health Directorate and the recommendations for adults are as follows: Physically inactive adults are recommended to engage in at least 30 minutes of physical activity in moderate intensity every day. The activity could first be divided into smaller blocks with physical activity during the day, such as 5-10 minutes duration, but have since been modified to include continuous activity in minimum blocks of 10 min (3). American College of Sports Medicine (ACSM) and American Heart Association has developed the recommendations for physical activity in the USA and they are a little different than the Norwegian recommendations: All healthy adults aged 18 to 65 years need moderate-intensity aerobic (endurance) physical activity for a minimum of 30 minutes on five days each week or vigorous-intensity aerobic physical activity for a minimum of 20 min on three days each week (10).

But what is the level of physical activity in different populations, and are we active enough? A study in U.S. examined physical activity levels of children, adolescents, and adults (20+ years) using accelerometers (25). A total of 6329 individuals participated in the study and every one of them provided at least one day of accelerometer data. The study shows that men are more physically active than women and that physical activity declines with age. Amongst adults, adherence to the recommendation for physical activity (30 minutes with moderate physical activity, 5 times a week) is less than 5%. A similar study has been performed in Norway and then only 20% of the Norwegian population met the Norwegian recommendations of 30 minutes with moderate physical activity daily. Another study which describes the worldwide prevalence of physical inactivity was conducted between 2002 and 2004 and investigated the prevalence of physical inactivity in 76 countries. Almost 300,000 individuals aged 15 years or older were enrolled in the study and physical activity/inactivity was measured with the International Physical Activity Questionnaire. The results shows a world-

wide prevalence of physical inactivity at 21.4% (95%CI 18.4-24.3), being higher among women than men. The prevalence ranged from 2.6% (in Comoros) to 62.3% (in Mauritania), with a median equal to 18%. After weighting for the total population of each country, the worldwide prevalence of physical inactivity was 17.4%. Less developed countries showed the lowest prevalence of physical inactivity (18.7%), while physical inactivity was more prevalent among the most developed countries (27.8%).

Unfortunately, it therefore seems like a lot of individuals, especially in the Western countries don't meet the recommendations for physical activity and one out of five adults around the world is physically inactive. This is worrying when we know so much about the positive effects of physical activity and the negative effects of being inactive on different health outcomes. We therefore need to work hard with promoting health by increasing the incidence of factors that provide good health, and weaken the factors resulting in health risks so that we can improve conditions and public health in society. The strategy encompasses all people, both healthy and sick, regardless of the risk of disease. The goal is to stimulate people to become and stay physical active, so that we can increase the public health around the world.

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STUDY OF THE ASYMMETRY TO A POPULATION OF HIGH-LEVEL SPORTSMEN AND ITS CONSEQUENCES ON THE PHYSICAL COMPOSITION, THE MASS OF THE LOWER SEGMENT AND THE SOMATOTYPE

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Introduction

The “normal” man is symmetric though authors (Guillodo and Al. (1992), Bricot (1996) and Gagey (1995) recognize that 95% of the subjects observed are asymmetric. Fecteau (1996) insists on the strong relations between the manual laterality and some postural asymmetries. According to the authors Bourdiol (1980), Bruniquel and al. (1994), Dimeglio (1994), Laurent and al. (1994), approximately 10% of the men (people) have equal lower limbs, 80% have variations between 0 and 10 mm, and 10% beyond 10 mm.

Many studies assume a direct association between behavioral and morphological asymmetry through mechanically driven bone growth and remodeling (e.g., Steele, 2000; Lazenby, 2002). This hypothesis is strongly supported by observations of greatly increased asymmetry between the playing and non-playing arms of racquetball and tennis athletes (Jones et al., 1977; Krahel et al., 1994;

Ruff et al., 1994; Kontulainen et al., 2001; Kontulainen et al., 2002; Bass et al., 2002).

The greater dimensions of the dominant arm were also confirmed by studies where they tested the link between increased activity and greater muscle mass or an increase in the mineral values of the bones. Thus, it seems that directional asymmetry of the long bones may be caused by local factors, particularly mechanical forces (Ruff, Jones 1981). Detailed statement about skeletal indicators of handedness was published recently (Steele 2000).

Authors who have studied lateral asymmetry of the legs have confirmed that the left leg is heavier than the right but the results of differences in length are not uniform (Latimer, Lowrance 1965; Singh 1970).

The anthropometric characteristics, body composition and somatotype have been a subject of high interest for scientists and coaches. The matter was to know if the measures taken by the right-hand side or by the left-hand side could have important statistical incidences and therefore affect the results of the components of the body and somatotype of Heath and Carter (1990).

The aims of the present transversal study were:

- Our first objective was to shed light on the issue of the asymmetry observed in this population of high-level sportsmen and to compare the results obtained with those that we shall have recovered with the non sportsmen (practicing a low physical activity).
- The second objective was to know if this asymmetry has an influence on the calculation of the composition (of the weight of the body) (according to the classic method of Mateigka (in 1921) in comparison to the bioimpedancemetry), as well as on the somatotype and consequently if there are significant statistical differences between the dominant members and the non dominant members, which shows that this asymmetry would be in direct relationship with the practice of different sports.
- The third objective was to study incidence of this asymmetry on the mass and the power of the lower segment according to the various groups of sports.

Methods – Subjects

The study was realized on a sample (table 1) of adult male athletes (National teams or teams from the A1 division). The second experimental group consists of non sportsmen.

Table 1: Distribution by sporting group of our population.

One-sided sports or (asymmetric) acyclic	bilateral or cyclic Sports (Symmetric)	non sportsmen (n=55)
● Volleyball (n=80)	● Cyclists (n=18)	
● Basketball (n=19)	● Long distance race (n=15)	
● Taekwondo (n=12)		
● Jumpers (n=11)		
● Tennis (n=14)		
	Total (n=224)	

All the participants underwent the anthropometric assessment. But some subjects were not able to participate in the measure of the physical composition by the bioimpedancemetry and others in the squat jump test because they participated at different competition. Our population was distributed as follows: For the one-sided sports (acyclic or asymmetric) volleyball (n=59), basketball (n=09), tae kwon do (n=12), jumping (n=05). For the bilateral sports (cyclic or symmetric) long-distance race (n=15), cyclists (n=18) and the non sportsmen (n=28).

Methods

- *Anthropometric methods:* Each subject was measured by the same operator, according to the anthropometric rules defined by the International Congress of 1912 (Valois, on 1948). The measures were made according to the anthropometric basic techniques, Ross and Coll., (1982). The anthropometric traits were:
 - Stature (height). Taken against a height scale “System Martin”.
 - Body mass (weight) was measured with “Seca” weighing scale.

The limb length was indirectly measured on a subject in the erect standing position using a stadiometer. To illustrate the effect of the difference diameter or breadth, perimeter or girth and skinfold are measured on the right and left side.

- *Diameters*: biepicondylar humerus, bistyloid breadth, the hand, biepicondylar of the femur, bimalleolar breadth leg and the foot breadth. Measured with a small caliper.
- *The perimeters*: limb girth arm flexed and tensed, hand, thigh, calf and the foot. The muscle mass was also estimated using upper, medial and distales of each limb. Measured with tape.
- *Skinfolds*: biceps, triceps, subscapular, pectoral, hand, suprailiac, abdominal, upper-thigh and mid-calf. Using Harpenden Anthropometric Tape (10g/mm² precision).
- The body composition was obtained using:
 - Formulae proposed by Mateïgka (1921).
 - Bioimpedancemetry: this technique allowed us to measure the resistance of the body of the subject expressed in ohm (O). The used equipment is a bioimpedancemeter monofrequency bow(arc) 50 provided with a cable which connects in front of the device and of electrodes Sentry Ag/Ag Ag/Ag Cl that were of use to the calibration of this device.
- Somatotypes were calculated using the Heath and Carter method. Somatotype was calculated and analyzed with the software “Somatotype calculation” and analysis Sweat Technologies (2001) and by the method of the anthropometric somatotypes of Heath-Carter (1990).
- Muscle mass was also estimated using the equation of Zatsiorsky and Seluyanov (1981).
- Leg strength (vertical squat jump test) was assessed using an ergotest (with a precision in 1/1000s). Subjects performed first with both legs and afterwards with each leg to compare individually the explosive force of the lower limbs.
- Left and right handgrip was measured with a mechanical dynamometer.
- *Statistical analysis*: Analysis was carried out, firstly, by means of descriptive

statistics of the anthropometric characteristics, body composition and somatotype. Secondly, analysis of variances and multivariate analysis were also used to compare mean values of each measurement. SPSS version 11.0 was used for all analyses.

Results and Discussion

Globally, our results show that there are differences between the left and right sides of a bilateral trait which are often very small and subtle in favor to the dominant side especially in the asymmetric sports.

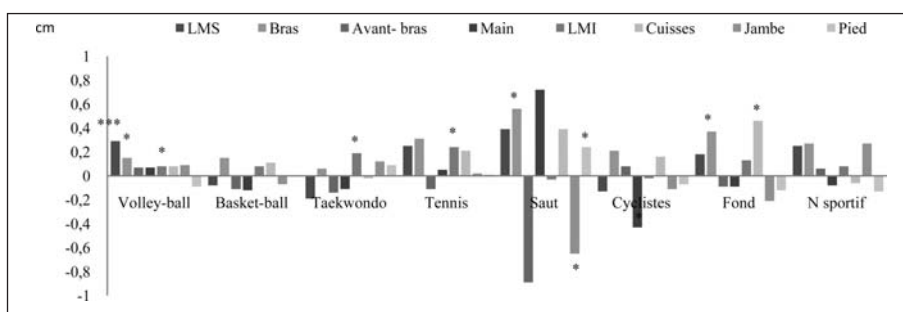
In asymmetric sports (volleyball, basketball, taekwondo, high jump and the tennis), a few significant differences were found between right and left sides for upper and lower limbs in the sample of taekwondo with the exception of the lower limb ($p < 0.01$). Highly significant differences ($p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$) were obtained in the sample of volleyball players for the upper limb, anthropometric heights, breadths, girth, the limbs lengths and the test of dynamometer. Basketball players also show significant differences in the upper limb, the breadth, perimeters and for dynamometer test. The jumpers also present asymmetries but less important ($p < 0.05$) for diameters, perimeter and skinfolds of the upper limb, however the lower limb shows significant difference in bicondylar breadth ($p < 0.05$) and at the length of the leg and the foot ($p < 0.01$). Significant differences were also observed in the sample of tennis players ($p < 0.01$) for upper limb especially for breadths and perimeters, while the lower limb showed significant difference for the iliac thorn, perimeter of the thigh, supraspinal skinfold and the length of the lower limb ($p < 0.05$).

In the symmetric sports: the long distance showed significant differences for the breadths, the perimeters of the upper limb and the lower limb, to the length of the arm and the thigh ($p < 0.05$). Highly significant differences ($p < 0.01$) were found in the upper limb for the breadths and perimeters of the arm, the skinfold and the length of the hand. The lower limb to present asymmetry in bicondylar breadth. In the sample of non sportsmen, as with skinfolds of lower limb and bi-

lateral traits anthropometric, no statistically significant differences were observed. However, they show significant difference ($p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.01$) in almost all the characters measured.

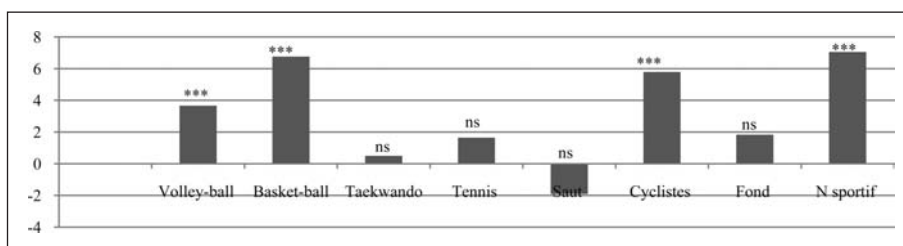
Graph 1 shows the results of limb length differences in different sample of sport. Highly significant asymmetries were found in the asymmetric sports in favor of the dominant side, (especially) in the volleyball players; for three limbs lengths: two for the upper limb ($p < 0.001$) for the length arm ($p < 0.05$) and one for the lower limb ($p = 0.01$). No (statistical) differences were found in the group of basketball players. In taekwondo and tennis players, an asymmetry is found ($p < 0.05$) only for the length of the lower limb lengths. The jumpers recorded a significant asymmetry ($p < 0.05$) for 03 lengths, forearm and foot in favor of the dominant side and that of the leg.

For the asymmetric sports, the cyclists present a significant asymmetry ($p < 0.05$) only for the length of the hand in favor of the non dominant side. The long distance racers show a significant asymmetry ($p < 0.05$) (in) the length of the arm, and the length of the thigh limb length differences in different sample of sport



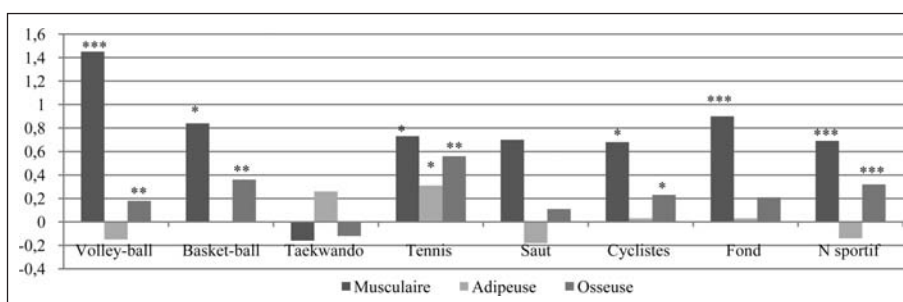
Graph 1: Limb length difference between dominant and no dominante side in sample of sport. LMS: upper length, LMI : lower length, * : The difference is significant in comparison of the two groups (* $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$)

Graph 2 shows the result of dynamometer test. Highly significant differences were found in the sample of no sportsmen, the basketball players, the cyclists and the volleyball players. The ANOVA applied to the test of dynamometer, allowed us a significant statistical ($p = 0.00$) asymmetry according to the practiced sport.



Graph 2: Representation of the average differences between right and left of the dynamometer test (kg). *** significant difference ($p < 0.001$).

The component of body weight (Graph 3) shows a highly significant difference in the muscular component between the dominant and non dominant side in the sample of the volleyball players, the long-distance runners and the non sportsmen ($p < 0.001$); the basketball players, the tennis players, the cyclists ($p < 0.05$). We also found significant differences in the fat component ($p < 0.05$) for the tennis players only. Additionally, we found significant differences in the bone component in the asymmetric sports: the volleyball players, the basketball players and the tennis players ($p < 0.01$) between the dominant and non dominant side. While in the symmetric sports the cyclists and the non sportsmen showed significant differences ($p < 0.05$) and ($p < 0.001$) respectively.



Graph 3: Distribution of body weight components by Mateigka model.

* : The difference is significant in comparison of the two groups

(* : $p < 0.05$; ** : $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; ns : non significant)

Table 2 shows the comparison between the body fat and the muscle mass according to Mateigka determined by the equation vs bioimpedancemetry, stu-

dent's t-test revealed highly significant differences ($p < 0.0001$) in the fat component for the non sportsmen only, while (there is no statistical) significant differences in the other samples (volleyball, basketball, tae kwon do, the jump and the long-distance race). Whereas for the thin mass, no significant difference was recorded to taekwondo players and jumpers, while highly significant differences ($p < 0.001$) for the volleyball players were recorded for the thin mass, for the non sportsmen and the long-distance race ($p < 0.001$) and for the basketball players ($p < 0.05$). We also find good correlations between both used methods, ($r = 0.73$) for the thin mass (kg) comparison between the method of bioimpedancemeter and Mateigka method, and $r = 0.66$ for the comparison of the fat mass.

Table 2. Comparison of the fat mass and the thin mass according to Mateika vs the bioimpedancemetry.

Sport	Fat Value	mass Signification	Thin Value	mass Signification
Volleyball	0.61	ns	7.34	***
Basketball	1.05	ns	1.96	*
Taekwondo	0.65	ns	1.15	ns
Jump	1.08	ns	1.55	ns
Long distance race	1.44	ns	2.08	**
Non sportsmen	28.28	***	2.79	**

* : significant difference between two samples

(* : $p < 0.05$; ** : $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; ns : non significant)

The somatoplots of the different groups of sports are shown in Figure 1. The somatotype attitudinal mean (SAM) for each sample is the average distance in three dimensions of somatoplots from their mean somatotype (it is a measure of right and left sides). No statistically significant differences were found in endomorphy and ectomorphy, but there were differences in mesomorphy ($p < 0.05$) for the tennis, and ($p < 0.01$) for the volleyball, the basketball, the cycling, the long-distance race and at the non sportsmen. The analysis of the variance revealed significant differences ($p < 0.05$) for the endomorphy only.

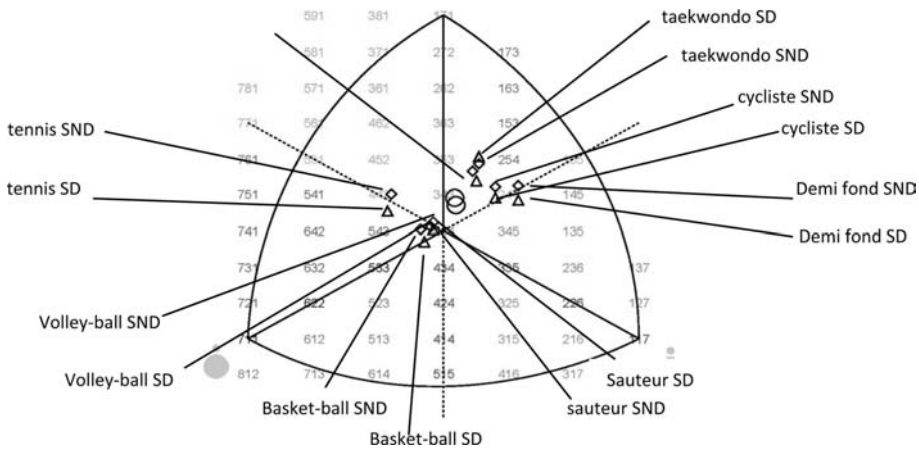


Figure 1: Somatocarte of different sport groups: dominant side (SD $\triangle$), no dominant side (SND $\square$)

The inter-relations between the values recorded by the segments masses (thigh, leg, foot) and tests of squat jump (flight time and height jump) are shown in table 3.

- Significant differences ($p < 0.001$) were found for the thigh mass (as well no dominant side (SND, $r = .88$) as (SD,) and present a very high link in flight time ($r = 0.89$ SND as $r = .87$ SD).
- As with the thigh mass, significant differences were observed of the segments of legs ($p < 0.01$) and are highly associated in flight time with two feet (dominant leg ($r = .064$) and no dominant leg ($r = .059$)). The correlation is also significant with the height jump in two feet ($p < 0.01$), with ($r = .55$ for the leg SND and ($r = .57$) for the leg SD).

Table 3: Correlations between the masses and the squat jumps test.

	Thigh mass SND	Thigh mass SD	Leg mass SND	Leg mass SD	Feet mass SND	Feet mass SD
Fly time SD and SND	0.88***	0.87***	0.59**	0.64*	0.77**	0.76**
Fly time SND	0.71***	0.74***	0.36	0.45	0.58*	0.49

	Thigh mass SND	Thigh mass SD	Leg mass SND	Leg mass SD	Feet mass SND	Feet mass SD
Fly timel SD	0.89***	0.89***	0.13	0.23	0.80***	0.66**
Height SD and SND	0.75***	0.73***	0.55**	0.57*	0.67**	0.68**
Hauteur SND	0.70***	0.71***	0.43	0.52	0.54*	0.49
Hauteur SD	0.84***	0.86***	0.32	0.43	0.69**	0.58*

SD: dominant Side ; SND: No dominant Side

In the second part of our study a multivariate analysis was made on the whole group. We made a representation of variables in 3 main factorial plans as well as a representation of the subjects according to the sporting groups in these two factorial (1.2) Figure 2-1 et 2-2 foregrounds.

The representation of the various sports on the same factorial plan shows that the tennis players and taekwondo is situated on the side where the asymmetry of the thigh diameter and the above iliac fold is the biggest, in opposition to jumpers.

The 2nd main constituent allows to set half a distance long races, volleyball players and cyclists to the tennis players and jumpers revealed an important asymmetry of the circumference of (the) feet to long distance race, cyclists and volleyball players.

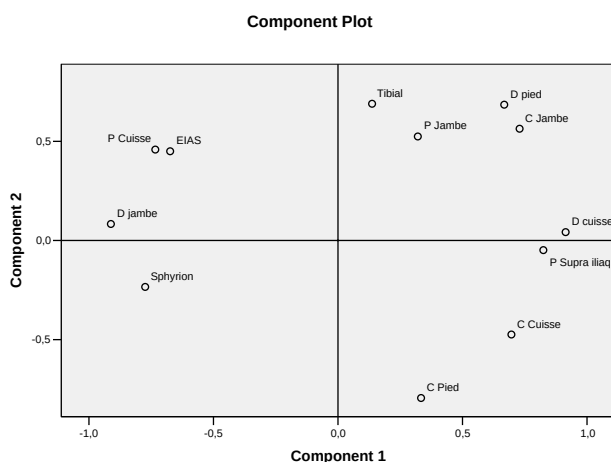


Figure 2-1: Representation of anthropometric traits according in these two factorial (1.2).

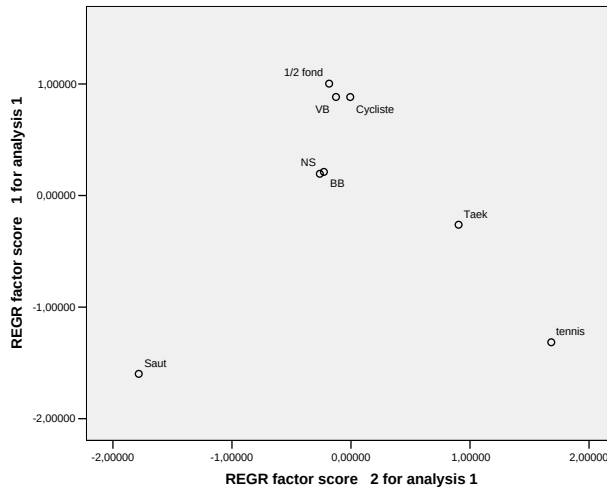
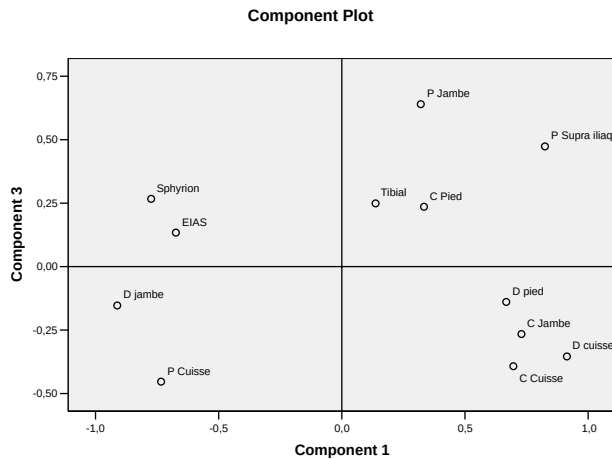


Figure 2-2: Representation of sport groups according in these two factorial (1.2).

The figure 3-1, 3-2 Representation in the factorial plan (1.3), shows an opposition taekwondo to the tennis players and the basketball players. We recorded an asymmetry in the breadth of thigh in Taekwondo. The 3rd component oppose the long distance race, volleyball players and cyclists to the jumpers and the tennis players. We note an asymmetry in the breadth leg and in the limb and fold of the thigh at the jumpers and the tennis players.



The figure 3-1: Representation of anthropometric traits in the factorial plan (1.3)

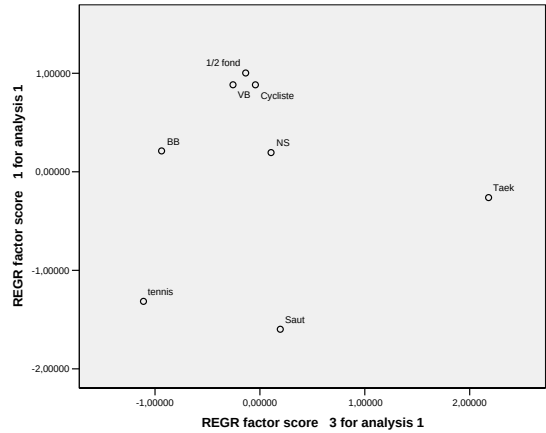


Figure 3-2: Representation of sport groups according in the factorial plan (1.3)

Analysis of the masses and jumps

The graphic representation in the factorial plan (1.2) shows that the VB and the jumpers are situated there where the asymmetry is the most important in opposition to taekwondo. Volleyball players and jumpers are characterized by an asymmetry in the height of jump and the mass of the leg. Taekwondo are characterized by an asymmetry in the mass of the foot.

The 2nd component shows an asymmetry in the mass of the thigh for the jumpers.

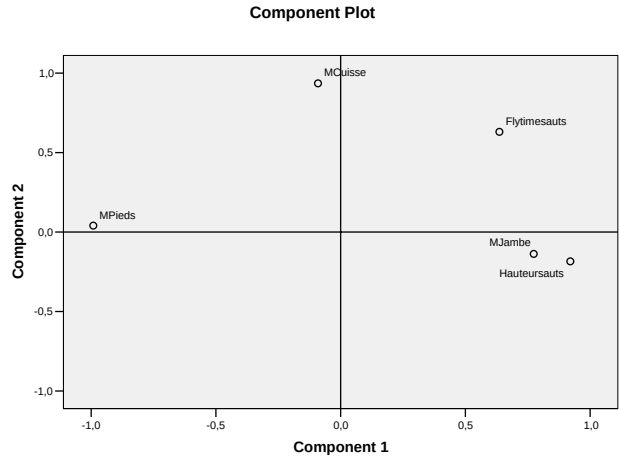


Figure 4-1: Representation of mass and fly time and height in the factorial plan (1.3)

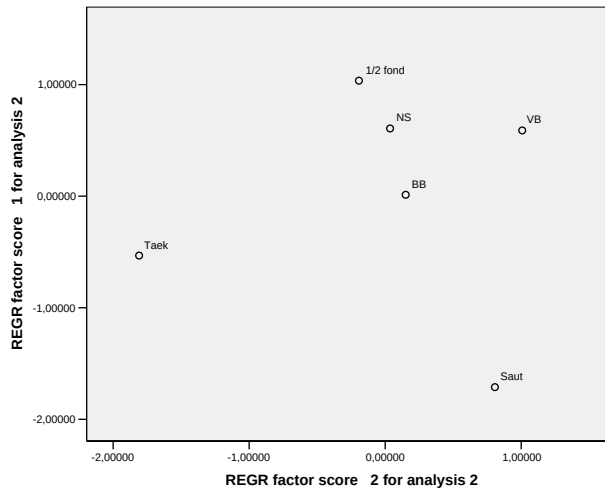


Figure 4-2: Representation of sport groups according in the factorial plan (1.2).

Conclusion

Many anthropometric traits in the most elite athletes and non sportsmen show an asymmetry. It thus affected the calculation of the components of body weight, as well as the calculation of somatotypes especially in mesomorphic component which is the most strongly related to physical activity. The test of dynamometer also showed a significant asymmetry. The inter-relations between the values recorded by the masses segments and tests of squat jumps present a significant very high link in fly time and the height of jump to two feet, and quite particularly for fly time as well for the side dominating that for the not dominant side.

At a high level of practice, sports with high intensity is not beneficial because it allows to develop asymmetries. Nevertheless with a high level of practice, we observed that some subjects managed to avoid this asymmetry; this could be explained by the fact that the training is led well, that the trainers encourage the bilaterality, necessary to compensate for the overload undergone by the passive and active driving device.

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CAFFEINE SUPPLEMENTATION AND METABOLIC MARKERS FOR ENDURANCE PERFORMANCE: SOME REASONS FOR WADA TO REVISE ALLOWABLE LIMITS AT INTERNATIONAL AND OLYMPIC SPORTING EVENTS

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*“Sport is motion, health and joy, but behind the greatest triumphs,
who knows whether doping took place?” (Catlin, et al., 2008)*

This study investigates the physiological mechanisms of caffeine as an ergogenic aid. The findings are applied to international and Olympic level sport, and consider whether the metabolic advantage elicited through caffeine consumption is cause for revision of its classification as a doping substance with regards to current WADA regulations. The study brings into question whether the advantage caffeine elicits violates the fundamental notion of WADA; preserving the values of Olympic sport and ensuring equality for all competing athletes.

Doping – an Overview

The practice of enhancing athletic performance through foreign substances has

1. Tina L. Skinner contributed as the supervisor of this honours project. The paper was presented by Mia Schaumberg at the 19th International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students.

been documented from the earliest Olympic Games and has involved many Olympic sports (Fraser, 2004). Greek athletes from the 7th-3rd century BC were known to consume specially prepared potions and exotic meats to improve performance; Roman gladiators were the earliest recorded users of stimulants and alcohol to overcome injury and fatigue (Grucza, 2006).

More recently, doping has also been explored for performance enhancement outside the sporting arena, with recorded use of amphetamines and ephedrines to increase stimulation of British and American soldiers, and doping with testosterone to maximise aggressiveness of the German Soldiers (Grucza, 2006).

Following successful doping practices during the Second World War, state-endorsed and politically driven steroid doping began in Eastern block countries during the Cold War. Blanket doping was imposed in 1974 and Olympic gold became an ideological victory. Doping was often carried out without the knowledge or consent of the athletes, some as young as 10 years of age (Brennan, 2004). Not only was this a major ethical and social concern at the time, but in the years following, some 10 000 former athletes continue to suffer physical and/or mental side effects (Deutsche Welle, 2006).

WADA's developing role in the fight against doping

The fight against doping in sports commenced as a result of the death of a Danish cyclist, Knud Enemark Jensen, during the 1960 Rome Olympics Games following his employment of doping practices (Becket & Cowan, 1979; Dirix & Sturbois, 1998; Catlin et al., 2008). Jensen's death brought to attention the endemic drug use by athletes such that in 1967 the International Olympic Committee (IOC) created the Medical Commission (IOC-MC) to combat the use of drugs in Olympic sports (Catlin et al., 2008).

In 1968 the IOC-MC implemented the first drug testing at both the summer and winter Olympics. During the 1970s, anabolic steroids became prevalent as a performance-enhancing drug, and were subsequently added to the IOC prohibited substances list in 1976 (Magnay, 2003). By the time of the 1988 Seoul

Olympics, technology for detecting doping was becoming more effective, and several high profile athletes tested positive to banned substances. Most notably, Ben Johnson of Canada, winner of the 100m track sprint, tested positive to Stanozolol (Magnay, 2003). The long and illustrious history of doping in the Olympics was cause for the IOC to develop an independent committee to coordinate the fight against doping (Fraser, 2004).

The idea of an anti-doping authority independent to the IOC was initially discussed as a result of a series of doping scandals contributing to a loss of confidence in the moral commitment of the IOC-MC to doping control. Incidents including institutionalised doping in the Tour De France and ‘loss’ of several urine samples following the 1984 Olympic Games (Hanstad et al., 2008) led to claims that preservation of the identity and ideals of the Olympic Movement in the public eye were too prominent on the IOC-MC’s agenda (Hanstad et al., 2008).

The universal nature of doping, combined with the clear need for an independent doping authority not answerable to the IOC led to the formation of the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) in 1999 (Catlin et al., 2008; Pokrywka et al., 2010). WADA’s primary goal was to promote and monitor anti-doping activities from a unified body, whilst harmonising the Olympic Movement anti-doping code via development of a single code applicable and acceptable for all stakeholders (Fraser, 2004). In 2004, WADA replaced the IOC-MC as the governing body of doping in Olympic sport, and published their first list of prohibited substances (McGrath & Cowan, 2008). Substances were required to meet a minimum of 2 out of the 3 criteria to be considered for inclusion into the prohibited list: (i) the substance/method could be performance-enhancing; (ii) its use could endanger the athletes’ health; (iii) its use was against the spirit of the sport (Pokrywka et al., 2010; WADA, 2011). The prohibited list has been continually reviewed and updated, with WADA indicating their intention to use an evidence-based system to justify substances and methods on the prohibited list (Hanstad et al., 2008).

The history of caffeine as an ergogenic aid

Caffeine is classified as a stimulant – “a chemical agent that temporarily arouses or accelerates physiological or organic activity” (USADA, 2007). From a sporting perspective, stimulants can provide an unfair advantage for an athlete, with increased alertness and diminished fatigue performance enhancing in many sports (Docherty, 2008).

Caffeine was first used as a stimulant in sport in the early nineteenth century and became very popular with endurance athletes in the 1970s (Houlihan, 2002). As a result of the reported misuse of high doses, caffeine was listed as a stimulant by the IOC-MC in 1984. Subsequent control of excessive caffeine use at international level sport, based on a maximum allowed urinary concentrations of 15µg/mL was imposed (McGrath & Cowan, 2008). The allowable urinary caffeine concentration was lowered to 12 µg/mL in 1985 following emergence of evidence suggesting caffeine’s purported ergogenic effects occurred at lower doses (Tarnapolsky, 1994). In the 1988 Seoul Olympics, Australian pentathlete, Alexander Watson, exceeded the allowable concentration of urinary caffeine and was disqualified from competition (IOC, 1988). Most recorded cases of caffeine doping arose from cycling sports, where a significant ergogenic potential has been noted (Van Thuyne & Delbeke, 2005).

However, in 2004 caffeine was removed from the WADA prohibited list, citing evidence of potential deleterious effects on performance with caffeine ingestion above the 12µg/mL threshold. It is also believed that caffeine is ubiquitous in foods and beverages, so reducing the threshold could create the risk of restricting athletes for social or diet consumption of caffeine (Kobritz, 2010; WADA, 2011). Finally, caffeine has been found to metabolise at very different rates among individuals, and the factors affecting this have not yet been determined (WADA, 2011).

Since 2004, caffeine consumption has not been restricted, despite a majority of scientific evidence indicating its ergogenic potential (Ganio et al., 2009). Caffeine is however, on WADA’s Monitoring Programme, which includes substances that are not prohibited in sport, but which WADA monitors in order to detect pat-

terns of misuse. The 2010 Monitoring Programme did not reveal global patterns of misuse of caffeine in sport, however, caffeine will remain on the Monitoring Programme in 2011 (WADA, 2011).

Even though WADA did not conclude global patterns of misuse of caffeine, caffeine use in international and Olympic sporting events has considerably increased following its removal from the WADA banned list in 2004 (Pokrwyka et al., 2009; Chester & Wojek, 2008). Several studies (Van Thuyen & Delbeke, 2005; Chester & Wojek, 2008; Pokrwyka et al., 2009) compared urinary caffeine concentrations before and after the withdrawal of the threshold limit. Pokrwyka and colleagues (2009) found that average caffeine concentrations in collected urine samples showed a significant ($p < 0.001$) increase in international level Polish athletes. Chester and Wojek (2008) found that UK elite athletes' intention to use caffeine to enhance performance was higher following its removal from the WADA prohibited list in 2004, however this was a self-reported measure. In contrast, Van Thuyne and Delbeke (2005) found that overall positive urine samples between the two periods remained constant; however there were significant ($p < 0.001$) increases in positive samples in cycling and weightlifting following removal of the ban. The authors concluded that the misuse of caffeine did not increase, but there was significant evidence for its use among Olympic level athletes and WADA's position on caffeine should be revised to maintain its role in preserving the ideals of Olympic sport.

In summary, caffeine use in international and Olympic level sport has arguably increased following the withdrawal of caffeine from WADA's banned list in 2004, suggesting that athletes are aware of its ergogenic potential and either use or have the intention of using caffeine to enhance performance in international level competition. This is cause for concern and indicates a review of WADA's stance on caffeine may be required to support their aim of creating an equal playing field and preserving the ideals of Olympic competition.

Metabolic basis for caffeine's ergogenic potential

Caffeine has been widely studied as an ergogenic aid for sporting performance (Doherty et al., 2004). With some exceptions (Butts & Crowell, 1985; Falk et al., 1990), evidence to date suggests oral caffeine ingestion improves exercise performance over varying intensities and durations (Costill et al., 1978; Graham & Spriet, 1991; Spriet, 1995; Graham, 2001) with most supporting evidence in exercise greater than 30 minutes duration (Graham, 2001). While caffeine literature strongly supports an ergogenic effect of caffeine, the physiological mechanisms of action are not completely understood, and several mechanisms have been proposed (Sinclair & Geiger, 2000; Doherty & Smith, 2005). Caffeine's purported ergogenic effect stems from a cellular level, with a growing body of evidence suggesting that the inhibition of adenosine receptors in brain tissue and peripheral cells is responsible for many of the physiological effects of plasma caffeine concentrations (Tarnapolsky, 1994; Dodd et al., 1993; Van Soeren & Graham, 1998; Graham, 2001; Doherty & Smith, 2005).

Metabolic markers such as blood lactate, glucose and catecholamines are indicators of changing metabolic processes occurring as a result of exercise intensity (Graham & Spriet, 1995), reflecting substrate metabolism, fatigue, recovery and exercise performance. Few previous researchers (Cox et al., 2002; Jackman et al., 1996; Graham & Spriet, 1995) have examined the effect of different doses of caffeine on metabolic and catecholamine markers in the blood. Previous research, as well as data collected in the authors' laboratory (unpublished findings, Schaumberg & Skinner, 2010) indicates elevated metabolic responses to exercise following caffeine supplementation. To what extent this metabolic response results in performance enhancement is yet to be determined.

To address the question of caffeine's ergogenic potential through physiological evidence, this paper examines the effect of caffeine supplementation on blood lactate, glucose and catecholamine concentrations during and after endurance exercise performance. Evidence is drawn from studies both within and outside the authors' laboratory. Whether the available physiological and performance-based evidence of caffeine's ergogenic potential provide sufficient justification for

WADA to revise allowable limits at international and Olympic sporting events is also considered and discussed.

Blood Lactate

Increased blood lactate concentrations during exercise have consistently been observed with caffeine ingestion (Gaesser & Rich, 1995; Laurent et al., 2000; Roy et al., 2001). However, elevated blood lactate concentration has rarely been considered a metabolic consequence of caffeine ingestion, but rather a result of inhibition of lactate clearance (Graham, 2001). In a study by Graham and colleagues (2000), caffeine consumption resulted in elevated blood lactate levels compared to placebo treatment; however, the causes of this increase were not inferred. The exact mechanisms by which elevated blood lactate occurs is still unknown (Roy et al., 2001), with suggested mechanisms including increased anaerobic energy production, and/or reduced splanchnic lactate removal (Graham, 2001).

In unpublished findings from the author's laboratory (Schaumberg & Skinner, 2010), increased lactate concentrations during a 40 km cycling time trial were noted following ingestion of 6mg/kg BW anhydrous caffeine consumed 1 or 2 h pre-exercise versus placebo. It was inferred that the elevated lactate response in the caffeine trials could be related to the plasma caffeine concentration, of which higher levels and therefore increased bioavailability may have facilitated larger anaerobic contributions to energy production. The resultant ability of caffeine to act upon the body's energy systems would potentially provide a competitive advantage during sporting performance.

Blood Glucose

Several studies have reported increases in blood glucose with caffeine ingestion (Graham, 2001, Graham & Spriet, 1995; Spriet et al., 1992; Woolf et al., 2008). Elevated blood glucose concentration is an indicator of substrate availability and metabolism, with reported increases occurring with caffeine ingestion as a result of epinephrine-stimulated hepatic glucose production and/or reduced muscle

glucose uptake (Roy et al., 2001). Consistent with previous research, significantly higher post-exercise blood glucose concentrations were found when caffeine was consumed one hour prior to exercise compared to placebo in unpublished findings from the authors' laboratory (Schaumberg & Skinner, 2010; Skinner et al., 2010). It was suggested that further research investigating blood glucose responses during exercise may provide useful insight into the metabolic effect of caffeine supplementation during exercise. Substrate availability and metabolism is a well-known limiting factor in exercise performance; as such, any substance that may enhance this availability and use could be considered a performance-enhancing substance and provide an unfair advantage in competition.

Catecholamines

It has often been observed that caffeine increases circulating epinephrine levels (Graham & Spriet, 1995), due to increases in sympathetic activity (Graham, 2001). However, the previously reported increased epinephrine concentrations observed were quite small and researchers have questioned whether this is of metabolic significance (Kovacs et al., 1998). Graham and Spriet (1995) found small but statistically significant increases in catecholamine and lactate concentrations with moderate ($6 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) and high ($9 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) caffeine doses, but not with low doses ($3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) compared to placebo. Jackman et al. (1996) examined metabolic and catecholamine responses to $6 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ caffeine and found significant increases in plasma lactate and epinephrine concentrations following short-duration high-intensity exercise compared to placebo. Research from the author's laboratory also reported significant elevations in epinephrine and norepinephrine concentrations following endurance exercise with the same dose of caffeine (unpublished findings, Schaumberg & Skinner, 2010). Increased circulating catecholamines elevate the body's physiological responses to exercise and may facilitate performance enhancement.

Rating of Perceived Exertion (RPE)

Several studies have demonstrated an increase in work output at a given RPE,

or more commonly, a reduced RPE at constant exercise intensity (Costill et al., 1978; Macintosh & Wright, 1995; Doherty et al., 2002; Birnbaum & Herbst, 2004; Doherty et al., 2004). Based on the results of a meta-analysis, Doherty (2005) found a 6% reduction in RPE during constant-rate exercise with caffeine supplementation which accounted for approximately 33% of the reported 11% improvement in performance. However, no corresponding difference between RPE of caffeine or placebo was found at the completion of exhaustive exercise, suggesting that effort sense and the fatigue experienced following 'all-out' exercise are the same regardless of treatment.

The suggested mechanism by which caffeine reduces the perception of work intensity is selective alteration in neuron activation threshold which may allow athletes to work at a higher intensity at the same perceived level of effort (Cole et al., 1996). A further explanation is an alteration to perceptual response during exercise allowing participants to centrally recruit and engage more motor units, which in turn would allow for an increased power output, as required during time-trial based protocols (Doherty & Smith, 2005).

A decrease in perceived exertion would increase an athlete's capacity to tolerate the discomfort associated with fatigue, and mask the perception of actual fatigue. The improvements in performance consistently reported in constant-rate tests continued to exhaustion may be explained through this mechanism of action.

Performance

In unpublished findings (Skinner et al., 2010), caffeine supplementation 1 h prior to exercise resulted in a statistically significant ($p = 0.002$) improvement of 70.5 sec over a 40km cycling time trial compared to placebo treatment. The 40 km cycle time trial was selected as the performance measure to provide applicable performance data for several Olympic sports, including road racing, mountain biking, track cycling and triathlon. These findings are consistent with previous research (Costill et al., 1978; Graham & Spriet, 1991; Spriet, 1995; Kovacs et al., 1998; Graham, 2001), demonstrating a clear ergogenic effect of caffeine during endurance exercise in well-trained athletes.

Studies have also noted performance-enhancement in shorter duration aerobic events, such as the 1500m run or activities of 5 minute duration (Graham et al., 1994; Spriet, 1995). In a meta-analysis of muscle contraction studies and caffeine supplementation (Astorino & Roberson, 2010), higher forces were produced in caffeine conditions versus placebo conditions. These events are more likely to be enhanced through psychological stimulation elicited through higher epinephrine levels (Williams, 1996). Literature therefore substantially supports caffeine's purported ergogenic effect, in exercise of varying intensities and durations.

Considerations for caffeine doping and detection

It has been hypothesised that the ergogenic effect of caffeine may be related to the circulating levels of caffeine in the body (Skinner et al., 2010). There are many individual factors that are known to influence, or suspected as having an effect on, caffeine metabolism and the appearance, half-life and clearance of caffeine in the blood, including body composition, training and hydration status, gastric emptying rates and whether the athlete has consumed a pre-race meal (Skinner et al., 2010). In addition, several foods may affect caffeine absorption and metabolism in the body (Magkos & Kavouras, 2005). Therefore, the appearance of caffeine in the urine may also be subject to inter-individual variability, which is of significance when considering the testing method employed by WADA. Alternative measures of caffeine consumption involve analysis of saliva and urine, both of which have significant measurement limitations. Urinary caffeine concentration has frequently been used by sports scientists to reflect caffeine consumption (Chambaz et al., 2001; Kovacs et al., 2002; Conway et al., 2003; Schneiker et al., 2006). However, current urine analysis is based solely on the 1–3% excreted as unmetabolised caffeine and does not account for the metabolites cleared by the kidney (Conway et al., 2003). Further development of valid and reliable non-invasive detection methods for caffeine concentration is required to enhance detection of athletes doping with caffeine with the intention of performance-enhancement.

Ethical and Social considerations of caffeine use in sport

From a health perspective, caffeine has documented potential side effects at high doses. A meta-analysis of the impact of coffee and caffeine on blood pressure indicated that consumption of > 410 mg/day caffeine produced significantly greater elevations in systolic blood pressure when compared to lower caffeine doses (Noordzij et al., 2005). Magkos and Kavouras (2005) reported evidence of potential side effects of caffeine at doses ≥ 9 mg/kg, such as gastrointestinal distress, dizziness, anxiety, irritability and an inability to focus. In addition, a very high intake of caffeine may impair reaction time and alertness, and negate any stimulatory effect of caffeine on performance (Hespel et al., 2006). Although several of these studies have reported side-effects of caffeine ingestion, there has been no evidence that caffeine administration negatively affects exercise performance (Graham, 2001; Desbrow & Leveritt, 2006). If both research and regulation do not inform athletes of the potential consequences of high doses of caffeine the “more caffeine is better” typical approach may place unaware athletes’ health at risk.

The use of agents that are specifically banned by WADA’s doping rules are considered unethical, however, the WADA doping legislation stipulates that any physiologic substance taken in abnormal quantity with the intention of artificially and unfairly increasing performance should be construed as doping (Williams, 1996). The consumption of caffeine through various mediums in doses greater than what would be found in a few cups of coffee prior to athletic competition could only be considered as deliberately attempting to gain an unfair advantage during competition, given the weight of evidence suggesting its performance-enhancing effect.

Olympic athletes have an important social responsibility to be healthy and clean role models for young people and junior athletes, and should be seen to promote the ideals and value of sporting competition at the highest level (Wong, 2003). The insidious way that drug-assisted sporting performance undermines the very ethos that sport (both from an amateur and international/Olympic level)

aims to promote, is a serious concern in society and WADA's role as the protector and preserver of the values of Olympic sport is under constant public scrutiny.

Conclusions and recommendations

WADA sources (WADA, 2011) state that a substance or method should meet a minimum of 2 out of the 3 criteria before it may be considered for inclusion in the prohibited list – (i) the substance or method can be performance-enhancing, (ii) the use of the substance or method can endanger the athlete's health and (iii) the use of the substance or method is against the spirit of sport. This paper effectively summarises the evidence relating to caffeine's ergogenic effect on exercise performance, potential health implications for individuals who consume caffeine at high doses and current evidence that caffeine consumption may be against the spirit of sport and the Olympic ideals. This growing weight of evidence raises questions whether WADA's limitation on caffeine consumption for international and Olympic events should be revised.

Alterations in blood lactate, glucose and catecholamines, as well as performance measures, occurring as a result of caffeine consumption indicate that caffeine's performance-enhancing effect is likely mediated through metabolic pathways. The increased metabolic response fairly consistently observed throughout the literature consolidates caffeine's reputation as an effective performance-enhancing substance. The significant ergogenic potential of caffeine identified in both endurance and power-based sports, and strong metabolic theories derived from randomised controlled trial studies of highly trained athletes support this ergogenic effect.

Evidence suggests that caffeine use in Olympic level sports such as cycling has increased following its removal from the WADA banned list. This has significant repercussions, both on the sporting field where issues of fairness and equality among athletes arise, and also within society. Of further concern is the growing evidence to suggest that the use of caffeine, particularly in uncontrolled, excessive amounts may endanger an athlete's health (Magkos & Kavouraz, 2005; Noordzij et al., 2005; Hespel et al., 2006). Increasing numbers of amateur

level cyclists and triathletes consume caffeinated supplements in order to gain a competitive edge (Desbrow & Leveritt, 2006). These supplements are readily available over-the-counter and are promoted as necessary and beneficial to performance (Wong, 2003). Socially, there is a reduced stigma with doping, as some performance-enhancing substances, such as caffeine, are acceptable under WADA regulations. Therefore, caffeine consumption may be against the spirit of sport and the Olympic ideals, which are promoted through society, and future research should identify the social implications of caffeine's removal in 2004, and the subsequent outcomes and implications.

Currently, few studies report urinary or plasma caffeine concentrations following exercise performance, likely due to the unlimited allowable intake of caffeine during international competition. Future research involving development of valid and reliable urinary detection methods will enhance our understanding of the relationship between urinary caffeine concentration and its ergogenic effect on performance. Subsequently, randomised controlled dose-response trials of highly trained athletes will assist the determination of allowable levels of caffeine ingestion with minimal or no subsequent performance-enhancement.

In conclusion, it has been considered whether the available physiological and performance-based evidence of caffeine's ergogenic potential provides sufficient evidence for WADA to revise allowable limits at international and Olympic sporting events. Future research should be aimed at determining an allowable urinary caffeine concentration associated with minimal or no ergogenic effect, consistent with WADA's anti-doping regulations. It was determined that although the ergogenicity of caffeine supplementation is evident in recent literature, further research is required to support or refute caffeine's inclusion on the WADA banned list.

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Conclusions

The conclusions are being published here in the form they were presented during the closing ceremony of the seminar.

ANCIENT OLYMPIC GAMES

- The ancient Greek Olympics can inform our understanding of the modern Olympics only in a limited sense.
 - The ancient games evolved at Olympia as the result of its status as a religious center (evidenced first by the presence of an oracle of Gaia on Mt Kronos and later by the temple of Hera [and Zeus, perhaps]) and its central location uninfluenced by any major *poleis*. Though Coubertin imagined a sort of *religio athletae*, the founding of the modern Olympic Games are only tangentially related to religion.
 - The number of events and the duration of the ancient games was significantly shorter than the modern games, beginning simply with a footrace and lasting for one day and ultimately developing into a five-day festival with a limited number of events, including footraces, chariot races, and the pentathlon. The ancient Olympic Games also included events that watchers of the modern Olympic Games could scarcely conceive of, most notably the sacrifice of one hundred oxen to Zeus (the *hekatomb*).
 - In discussing the lifestyle and career of ancient athletes, Professor Scanlon included some details about their diet. Roza Kouvelioti supplemented this presentation with her own research on the diet of ancient and modern Olympic athletes and observed that whereas ancient athletes were very interested in their diets as a way of improving their performance, the dietary habits of modern athletes have evolved according to changes in nutrition and diet.

- o The shared language of the Greeks, along with their common religion and culture, was an element which the ancient Olympic Games relied upon and celebrated. Anna Szemberska demonstrated how language continues to function as a tool of unification in modern sports in her presentation entitled “Foreign and Olympic terminology in football Italian”.
- o Some of Professor Scanlon’s more controversial arguments concerned the role of women in the ancient Olympic Games and his belief that women’s contests were held the day before the official (men’s) games began. Lindsay Parks Pieper connected the modern gender policies of the Olympic Movement to the segregation of the ancient games in her presentation entitled “Is the athlete right or wrong? Gender regulation in Olympic Sport”. She claimed that the current gender policies, particularly sex testing and the Stockholm Consensus, perpetuates the notion of female inferiority and is thus detrimental to women’s sport.
- Modern Olympic ideology can inform our understanding of the ancient Olympics in a broad sense.
 - o The image of the flame and the five rings immediately evokes the rhetoric and ideology of the modern Olympic Games; in ancient times, representations of Hercules, Zeus, Pelops, Apollo, Lapiths, Centaurs and seers clashed with one another on temples to represent the various strands of mythology which wove the narrative of the ancient Olympic Games. The ancient images, in part, demonstrate the competition between Elis and Pisa for hegemony over the actual physical site of the Olympics. Modern images can be seen as re-affirming the narrative of twentieth-century Olympism, yet post-modern imagery strives to collapse the dominant narrative and re-affirm individual identities. This fragmenting is reminiscent of the competing images in ancient Olympia.
 - o In the ancient Olympics, different city-states erected statues to publicize and emphasize their identity. Modern-day nationalism is realized in slightly more nuanced forms, as Doiara dos Santos aptly demonstrated in her presentation entitled “National Identity Narratives in the Vancouver Winter Olympic Games 2010”.

- o The manipulation of Olympic and athletic ideology was explored by Teresa Yates in her presentation “Olympic Imagery in Pericles’ *Epitaphios Logos*”. She discussed the manner in which one finds verbal images in Pericles’ funeral oration which have strong resonance with the visual images associated with the Olympics and explored how Thucydides used this rhetoric to advance his socio-political themes.
- o Professor Raschke displayed and analyzed the evolution of Greek art related to the ancient games from the Archaic period through the Classical period using examples from victory statues and temples, most particularly the Temple of Zeus at Olympia. Ana Popovic used similar methodology in her analysis of the images of David in her presentation entitled “The evolution of art history presentation of strength and the human body through the example of David”.
- Being in Olympia provides access to a significant element of the ancient Olympic Games, but doesn’t provide the complete international picture.
 - o There were games all over the Greco-Roman world, and a significant part of the first week was also spent discussing the various features of the games in Nemea, Isthmia, and Delphi.
 - o Professor Evangelos Albanidis looked at the games diachronically and observed both change and continuity in the games from their inception to their decline.
 - o Katharina Schorr’s presentation “German Influence on the Activities of the International Olympic Academy” was an illuminating exploration of the rocky path of the foundation of the IOA and the pivotal role of Germany in its success. She also introduced the spiritual fathers of the Olympic education movement, an international community of thinkers including Pierre de Coubertin, Carl Diem, and Ioannis Ketseas.
 - o While Professor Albanidis explored the existence of the Olympic Games in ancient Turkey, Fatih Dervent discussed the role of the modern Olympics in Turkey in his presentation “A Brief History of Olympics in Turkey”, including information about the contribution of minorities to sports in Turkey, the visits of Coubertin in 1907 and Carl Diem in 1933, Turkish

Olympic victors, Istanbul's bids for hosting the Olympic Games, and the importance of hosting the Olympic Games as a contribution to national sports, education, and the Olympic Movement.

- o The issues surrounding the occurrence of the ancient games at Olympia and the logistical realities of their organisation were explored by both Professor Raschke and Professor Albanidis. Similar issues were discussed by the ancient historian Herodotus; in her presentation "The Olympic Games, Globalization, and Herodotus' *Histories*", Kourtney Murray gave a brief overview of the historian's perspective and complicated the argument that the Olympic ideals were strictly a Hellenic phenomenon.
- Ultimately, the site of the ancient Olympic Games inspires its viewers with its austere beauty and evocative ruins; a modern viewer strives to understand it through a perceived continuity with the past but is continually alienated by a realization of distance and difference. Nevertheless, establishing parallels and relationships between the ancient and modern, both in terms of athletics and broader themes, is an act which satisfies and stimulates the curious and the open-minded.

MODERN OLYMPIC GAMES

The second week of the seminar from Monday, Sept. 12 to Saturday, Sept. 17 was about sociological aspects and the Olympic Movement. The lecturers were Prof. Dr Holger Preuss from Mainz (GER), Prof. Dr Jeffrey Segrave from New York (USA) and Prof. Dr Kazuo Uchiumi from Hiroshima (JPN).

Holger Preuss, one of the leading scholars of the economics of Olympic Games and a renowned expert on bidding for Olympic Games gave lectures about the bidding process itself, the role of the population in the bidding process and the legacy of mega sport events. Further, he held two workshops in the afternoon about the positive and negative sides of commercialization/sponsoring in the Olympic Movement and about how corruption works and can be reduced. Overall, we learnt that the bidding process is a very complex and expensive procedure, that only a certain number of cities realize. The role of the population in the bidding process is crucial –at least in open and democratic societies– since at least 70% of the population has to support the bid in order for it to be realized. Legacy also has to be looked at in a differentiated way. It depends on the perspective, since there are many stakeholders involved and a positive legacy for one group of stakeholders may be a negative legacy for another. Commercialization is important in order to keep the Olympic Games and therefore the Olympic Movement alive, but we also have to be aware about the potential risks of over-commercialization and the potential image problems that may arise with increased commercial interest involved. Corruption happens when the overall benefits (monetary, non-monetary) are larger than the overall costs (monetary

and non-monetary risks, opportunity costs), so measures have to be implemented accordingly in order to decrease the risk of corruption.

Kazuo Uchiyumi gave lectures about amateurism, which turns out to be an ideal that may not be compatible with reality anymore, since it is hard to define pure amateurism and it would discriminate against people that do not have the resources to practice their sport with no return in order to cover their cost of living. His second lecture was about nationalism, which has to be differentiated from patriotism and internationalism, which was proclaimed by Pierre de Coubertin and includes the affectionate love for one's own country combined with the respect and mutual understanding for other nations. The sport context provides an ideal arena for living those ideals of internationalism. His last lecture about sport for all in Japan underlined the importance of having a good sport for all programme in order to promote public health and an opportunity to relief the stress of a demanding working life. It shows that most European countries have a very developed sport for all system, whereas Japan has one that is a lot better than in most other Asian countries, but still not sufficient to satisfy the needs of the Japanese population.

Jeff Segrave gave a lecture about Coubertin's ideal of beauty, which showed that esthetics play a very important role in the presentation of the Olympic Movement and the ideal that a beautiful mind lives in a beautiful body. Therefore the Olympic Movement can be seen as a manifestation of art, sport, beauty, mind and body. The second lecture was about pivotal games in the Olympic history, which clearly showed that this is a matter of the perspective. Depending on the perspective, different games can be called pivotal. The last lecture was about religious characteristics of Olympism manifested in the examples of the opening ceremonies. Many elements (flag, five rings, Olympic hymn, athletes, torch, audience, oath and feelings) can be observed that resemble religious elements. During this week a guest lecturer, Dr Girginov, was also present and gave two lectures about the intended legacy planned by the organising committee of London 2012 and about marketing Olympic Ideals and the Olympic Movement.

The participants' presentations added to the overall variety and quality of this second week of the seminar. The topics were as follows:

- Prove how dance can bring people together from different cultures – fits with idea of Olympism – example of Flamenco.
- The London 2012 Olympics and environmental sustainability – evolution of the idea of sustainable development, the socio-environmental impact on host communities – including primary conclusions.
- Sport sponsoring in Egypt - Strategic management for marketing in the Egyptian sports federation and case study for sponsorship in the Egyptian football association, and some insights about the expected future for the sports environment in the next 5 years.
- Corporate governance in the Thailand National Olympic Committee – adopting good practices – use their position to influence other sports organisations to do the same.
- Olympic Movement in Qatar – National Vision 2030 and QOC's Sport Sector Strategy.
- Sport development in Latvia 2006 – 2009. The main conclusion: development of sport is dependant on the economic situation in the country.
- Using Mega Sport Events to change the Perception of the Host – Mega Sport Events can be used to change the image and the perception of the host of Olympic Games or FIFA football world cups. Signals can be sent through the enormous media attention and changes of the perception can be empirically detected.
- An introduction of media services in the Beijing Olympic Games. Media services are becoming more and more important in Olympic Games. Some new methods were used in 2008, and the impacts of the media services were summarized.

PHILOSOPHICAL AND ETHICAL ASPECTS OF THE MODERN OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

During the 3rd week, the main topic was sport, philosophy and education.

It gave us the opportunity to discuss different issues of the Olympic Movement from a philosophical perspective.

12 students presented their works about different topics related to the Olympic Movement.

This module lasted 6 days and was presented by the following lecturers:

Name	Country	Institution
Prof. Sigmund Loland	Norway	University of Sport Science, Norway.
Prof. Heather Reid	USA	University of Morningside, Ciudad Sioux, IOWA, USA.
Dr Leo-Hong Hsu	Taipei	Olympic Studies Centre, University of Yeh, Taiwan.

Philosophy, Sports and Education: Prof. Sigmund Loland

It was our great pleasure to have Professor Sigmund Loland from NIH, Norway, who is an expert in sport philosophy. He offered us four lectures. The first lecture was about the definition of the philosophy of sport and why we need it. He presented the different fields of philosophy, including metaphysics, ethics, epistemology, ontology and aesthetics.

We concluded that the modern view of philosophy is a critical and systematic reflection of the possibilities and limitations of rationality.

His second lecture was about the very controversial issue of doping. He argued that athletes who use performance enhancing drugs not only violate the spirit of sport but also risk their own health. He developed the theme of fairness and justice in another lecture. He outlined the theoretical framework of formal justice and the corresponding distributive norms and procedures.

The last lecture was about environmental issues in the Olympic Movement, with a particular focus on the first green games which was held in Lillehammer in 1994. He offered the theory of sustainability and the integration the Olympic Movement integrated within this. He pointed out quantitative ecology for future researches to focus on.

Philosophy and Ethics of Olympism and Sport: Prof. Heather Reid

The philosophical aspects of sport have been strongly related with the search of virtue (Areté). In that sense sport is a way of life based on the joy of effort and the respect for universal fundamental ethical principles. Olympism is a philosophy of life exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. To fulfill that goal every individual must have the possibility of practicing sport without discrimination of any kind. There have been changes in the philosophy of Ancient Olympic Games and the modern Olympic Games:

In Ancient Olympic Games the athletes competed for honor and respect, and the winner was awarded with an olive crown. In the modern Olympic Games, especially after the games held in Los Angeles in 1984, sports became an Industry and the winners and countries strive to win which sometimes loses sight of the original values.

Olympic education has an important role in the present times in order to preserve the philosophical, ethical and moral values of Olympism. The search of virtue is still alive.

Olympism and East Asia: Prof. Li-Hong Hsu

Dr Li-Hong Hsu has been involved in the Olympic education since 1993 when he was a young participant in the international session. After that he was a participant in the postgraduate seminar and a research fellow in the Olympic Study Centre in IOC. He therefore presents his works in a chronological way in our seminar.

Olympic Education, multiculturalism, and the inter-exchange between Confucianism and Olympism could be thought as his main concerns at this moment. The Olympic education in the East Asian context is actually a cross-cultural exchange in the name of Olympics. Based on this platform, the dialogue between Confucianism and Olympism can be possible. For example, the “University Mobility Asian Pacific” in East Asia is a programme similar to Erasmus in Europe. Dr Li-Hong Hsu thinks that the idea of Olympic education can be introduced to this programme.

However, while he has tried his best to introduce Confucianism as a philosophy from an ancient Chinese context, most of our participants from the West still find it hard to understand the ancient Chinese philosophy. More efforts and research are therefore of great importance so that more mutual understanding can be found in the future between the West and East.

Last but not least, Dr Hsu invites participants to join the launch of the Olympic Education Foundation (in the form of NPO) in Taiwan. This can be considered as his effort to transform his academic idea into practical application.

Students’ Presentations

We had 12 students’ presentations, drawing from different disciplines revolving around the modern Olympic Movement, such as Olympic education, the Youth Olympics, Olympic History and the governing of the Olympics. The theme of multiculturalism was shown through the presentations, with each presenter offering tremendous information from their own country.

EDUCATIONAL ASPECTS OF THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

The educational programme during this week was devoted to philosophical and moral issues of sport and Olympic values. The lectures were presented by:

- Leo Hsu - “An exploration of overlapping educational values on Confucianism and Modern Olympism”.

We considered the idea that Olympism is a Western product and not relevant to the Eastern Cultures. However, through the exploration of the ideals of Confucianism – such as tolerance and non-discrimination, ties were drawn between Confucius and Coubertan.

- Heather Reid “What is wrong with the Ancient Olympic Games”.

We explored several topics considered to be wrong within the Ancient Olympic Games. For example – violence, social hierarchy, nudity and eroticism. Heather discussed both sides of these issues – from a modern perspective looking in, but also from the Ancient Greek perspective to open our eyes as to how the Ancient Greeks thought. It was concluded that philosophy demands humility – we should be critical of the past and how the past influences our present.

The student presentations followed a health and sport sciences theme:

- Maria Hildenbrand – Norway. Physical Activity and Health – Prevention of Lifestyle diseases. She focussed on the benefits of physical activity in the prevention of diseases such as heart disease, cancer and diabetes.
- Fahima Lammari – Algeria. Asymmetry of elite athletes. Fahima pre-

sented data from her PhD study indicating that training leads to body asymmetry in some elite sportspeople e.g. volleyball, high jump and tennis players.

- Mia Scaumberg – Australia. Caffeine Use and WADA regulations. She discussed how caffeine enhanced performance through physiological pathways and why caffeine should be regulated in elite sport by the World Anti-doping Agency.

As the presentations of the students were connected with the health and physical activity, Roza Kouveliotti gave a presentation about nutrition and diet.

On Tuesday afternoon we attended a guest lecture about the Olympic Truce Centre, presented by Ms Dora Palli.

The fourth week was not only lectures and library, we also played football, volleyball, basketball, tennis, handball and frisbee .. almost.

The pool was not available so we went back to “curuta” for an entire day on the beach, it was the last free day after a long night at Zorbas, so physical activities were few and relaxing. We discovered new places around the academy with rafting and swimming in the Alfeus river. We also found new friends with the international social evening. I think it’s hard to describe our open air activities, perhaps images and music work better...

We want to thank the International Olympic Academy for this unique opportunity and all of you for being here today.

**Closing Ceremony
of the 18th International Seminar
on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students
ANCIENT OLYMPIA, 28th September 2011**

ADDRESS
on behalf of the Participants of the Seminar,
by Jorge Mario MARROQUÍN MENÉNDEZ (GUA)
and Mia SCHAUMBERG (AUS)

On behalf of the group of students of the 18th Postgraduate Seminar on Olympic Studies we want first of all to thank the International Olympic Academy for this unique opportunity and especially Mr Kostas Georgiadis and the tireless staff of the IOA for all of their effort and involvement during our stay in this beautiful venue.

The IOA has provided the perfect surroundings and environment for us to come together as a group from each of the five continents and 28 countries around the world in order to experience the Olympic spirit and to understand the environment from which the Olympics were born. We have had the opportunity to visit the most renowned archaeological sites of the ancient Pan-Hellenic Games and through the appreciation of history we had an unforgettable experience that set the stage for the weeks to come.

We have had the chance to live, work and socialize with world class professors, some of whom also began their Olympic journey in a session like this. By questioning and reflecting on lectures and presentations with topics ranging from History, Architecture, Economics, and Philosophy - we have had a valuable opportunity to better our way of thinking, presenting, and critiquing.

As a group we learnt the importance of considering all information when facing reality and the value of thinking critically in order to move forward in our respective fields.

As a group we have learnt tolerance, listening to other opinions and discussing ideas without disregarding them.

We have been exposed to many areas of Olympic Studies which has in turn widened our eyes to the big and complex field of Olympism in an environment free from the prejudices of race, religion, language, age, gender or political views.

The cultural diversity of this unique group of people has been the most valuable experience of all. Being a part of a group such as this is a once-in-a-lifetime experience that many people will never have the chance to do. We have made career-long academic contacts, but more importantly, we have made lifelong friends, and it is great to know we have somewhere to stay in nearly every corner of the globe, should we need it!

As young people from around the world we now have an obligation to bring our knowledge to the world, to spread the Olympic ideals and to share our research and ideas throughout our communities, our countries and abroad in an honest and direct way.

By doing this we can have an impact on the progress of the Olympic Movement in society and, who knows, maybe one day some of us will be back here to teach the next generation.

Regardless of the path we choose, whether we teach in schools or universities, or work in management or business, our shared values of fairness, joy of effort, peace and mutual understanding will always be with us.

ADDRESS
on behalf of the Supervising Professors of the Seminar,
by Prof. Heather L. REID (USA)

The International Olympic Academy is only 50 years old, but it carries on an ancient and venerable tradition. Ancient Olympia never housed a university; rather the festival itself functioned as a university: a place where scholars could gather safely every four years to exchange ideas and share their work with the pilgrims who had gathered here from Asia, Africa, Europe; every corner of Hellas.

The poet Pindar called Olympia “Mistress of Truth” and indeed the search for truth and understanding is as great a tradition of this place as the running of the *stadion* and awarding of the olive wreath. As professors, we have been privileged to come to Olympia in modern times to exchange ideas and to share our work with students and colleagues gathered here from Asia, Africa, Europe – and now America and Oceania: every corner of the Globe.

We have come here without pay to perform our professional skills in voluntary service to the Olympic community out of the shared love of wisdom and Olympic ideals. We have focused, like our students, not upon the external rewards we might gain from our studies, but rather upon the intrinsic worth of this shared scholarly and social experience. As Aristotle observed, this focus on intrinsic worth makes our activity more noble and the rewards of our experience here even greater.

So we must express our indebtedness, first of all, to the students who came, like us, to learn. But also to the staff working in the offices, cafeteria, housekeeping, and gardens, who made this great experience possible for us. It is here at the Olympic Academy, perhaps even more so than at the Olympic Games, that the true Olympic spirit is now experienced and preserved. We have been honored to serve her.

ADDRESS AND CLOSING
of the works of the Seminar,
by the Honorary Dean of the International Olympic Academy,
Prof. Dr Konstantinos GEORGIADIS

Dear Friends,

The 18th Postgraduate Seminar completes today its works, after 4 weeks of living together here in Olympia.

Many of you started a long trip full of concerns for the unknown, and the people you were going to meet. The concern may have grown stronger knowing that you were travelling to a country which faces an economical crisis.

Today after 30 days of living together, we all agree that these days were creative and enjoyable at the same time.

This seminar was a success thanks to you. All of you have shown respect towards the principles of the IOA, your fellow students, the IOA staff and your supervising professors. I would say that throughout this seminar you managed, in the best possible way, to experience the Olympism, showing tolerance towards the different as well as enjoying the shared moments of living together.

Moreover you presented in the social evenings, the culture of your countries and you willingly participated in the presentations of your colleagues.

Olympism is a living experience philosophy as you have witnessed yourselves during your staying here. On the other hand, on an academic and educational level, this year was a special year. Eminent professors were invited and had the chance to teach their specialized subjects into four main cycle courses and I believe that they have corresponded to your expectations through their high

scientific level as well as through the approaches and the dialogues you created with each one of them.

On the other hand, there is always your intellectual academic participation during the Seminar. From the very first day of the works with your full participation throughout the dialogues, with your questions as well as your statements, you have created in collaboration with your professors, the ideal conditions required for a high – level seminar.

Many of you already lecturing to universities, a great number are PhD candidates and others are post – doctoral students. All of the above have set the main field for the scientific success of the seminar.

On behalf of the Ephoria of the IOA, I would like to thank you wholeheartedly for your kindness, your respect, your tolerance, and your willingness to learn. This is one of the very few times that in the IOA we had the chance to teach such a great group of young scientists and I am more than certain that many of you, will pursue to continue a successful academic career.

My dear friends, Ahmed, Christian, Ibrahim, Angelo, Juan, Fatih, Ahmed Riad, Melanie, Maria (NOR), Sadie, Jennifer, Maria (RUS), Roza, Fahima, Chaipat, Chang, Signe, Jorge, Annamaria, Dominika, Elia, Ramune, Kourtney, Lindsay, Ana, Xiuying, Doiara, Mia, Katharina, Anna (POL), Chien Chun, Javad, Tereza (CZE), Jing, Teresa (USA) we would like to thank you very much for your participation in the 18th Postgraduate Seminar and we do hope that this will be a new beginning for your future.

You should take the principles you have followed in this secret place, back to your workplaces and to your countries. I do hope that you will keep alive the memory of the IOA. I would last, like to extend warm thanks to all the distinguished professors Prof. Scanlon, Prof. Raschke, Prof. Albanidis, Prof. Preuss, Prof. Segrave, Prof. Uchiumi, Prof. Reid, Prof. Loland, Prof. Hsu and Prof. Girginov, who contributed to the works of the Seminar, the IOA staff Panos Giannaras and Konstantinos Karadimas and Antonia as well as the coordinator Carolina.

I wish you all a safe journey back to your countries.

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