



INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY



Olympic Studies

23rd INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR ON OLYMPIC STUDIES
FOR POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS

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1–30 September 2016

Editor

KONSTANTINOS GEORGIADIS
Professor, University of Peloponnese
Honorary Dean of the IOA

ANCIENT OLYMPIA

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Ancient Olympia, 28th September 2016

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Commemorative photo.

FOREWORD

The International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students is a program which attracts the interest of postgraduate students worldwide. It was organized once more by the International Olympic Academy from September 1st to September 30, 2016 in the IOA premises in Ancient Olympia. The seminar is famous for creating a unique multicultural environment giving the students the possibility to advance their research and develop their knowledge on Olympic and sports subjects. The Seminar is organized by the International Olympic Academy aspiring to enhance the students' understanding and knowledge of all aspects of the Olympic Movement.

The 23rd International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students generated a magnificent experience for 22 participants, 11 men and 11 women from 17 different countries from all five continents.

The selection of the students was based on the qualifications, academic achievements, recommendation letters and research topics of the applicants nominated by their National Olympic Academies, their National Olympic Committees or by the departments of the Universities which collaborate with the IOA. Among the 22 students, 6 were PhD candidates, 8 Master's Degree holders and 4 Master's Degree candidates.

Ten eminent academic professors, specialized on Olympism and Sport, were the Seminar's supervising professors. The special topic of this year's seminar was: "Olympism in praxis: The environmental protection".

Once more, during the first cycle two of the most eminent professors in Ancient Greek Sport supervised the works of the seminar. Professor

Dr Nigel B. Crowther from Canada, who has done great research in Sport History, teaches at the Seminar during the last four years. Additionally, he teaches at the Master's Degree Programme. Furthermore, we were lucky to have again with us Dr Ingomar Weiler from Austria, who participates in the Seminar since its beginning offering voluntarily to the education of dozens of young scientists. Two recognized academic personalities whom we thank wholeheartedly for their offer to the educational work of the IOA.

The second cycle studied the modern Olympic Movement, the revival of the Olympic Games and the history of the modern Olympic Games. Professor Dr Konstantinos Georgiadis from Greece, Prof. Dr Karen Joisten and Prof. Dr Otto Schantz, both from Germany, talked about these subjects. Prof. Dr Karen Joisten was invited for the first time to the Seminar and approached the philosophical and pedagogical dimension of Olympism. Prof. Dr Otto Schantz, with great experience in subjects of the Olympic Movement taught subjects concerning the history of the Modern Olympic Movement and the Paralympic Games.

The third cycle was devoted on Olympic Education and the socio-political aspects of the modern Olympic Games. Prof. Dr Yannis Theodorakis from Greece and Professor Dr Otmar Weiss from Austria gave interesting and interactive lectures on these issues. Prof. Theodorakis presented to the students contemporary methods of teaching and pedagogical practices for multiculturalism, cooperation, diversity and generally the integration of groups and individuals like the refugees to the society. Prof. Weiss, eminent academic member of the University of Wien, presented issues related to the sociopolitical dimension of Sport.

The fourth cycle analysed the ethical and philosophical issues of Olympism as well as the athletes' rights in the modern Olympic Movement. Professor Dr George Karlis from Canada, Professor Dr Dimitra Papadimitriou from Greece and the IOC Member Dr Sam Ramsamy, from South Africa, captured the students' attention with their experiences and opinions on these issues. Professors Karlis and Papadimitriou have are renowned for their academic research on issues of sport management and marketing and they contributed a lot to the success of the seminar. I would like though to refer to the IOC Member, Dr Sam

Ramsamy, whose presence to the works of the seminar is an honor for the Academy. The experience of Dr Ramasmy and his contribution to sport, politics and human rights constitute elements that the students always find extremely interesting.

Like they do every year, the participants visited the archaeological site and the Museum of Acropolis, the Panathenaic Stadium, the Zappeion Megaron and the Olympic Stadium. During their journey, they visited interesting archaeological sites such as Epidauros, Palamidi Fortress, Mycenae and Nemea and had an overnight stay in the gorgeous city of Nafplion. The students visit the Pan-Hellenic sport centers in order to acquire knowledge, talk about and judge the importance of sport in ancient societies and make comparisons with the current situation.

During their stay in Olympia the students visited the archeological site and the museum of Olympia while on their return trip to Athens they visited the archeological site and the museum of Delphi.

The program of the Seminar, apart from the lectures, included also presentations of the participants' papers followed by discussion. These papers are published in the proceedings of the Seminar. Several papers come from the research interests of the students, are relevant to their master thesis or their PhD thesis and constitute new proposals and innovative research ideas. In the IOA premises in Ancient Olympia, the students also had the chance to use the IOA library and collaborate with the supervising professors in order to improve their scientific papers.

Apart from the academic lectures, the participants were practicing sports daily, organized social evenings, in which they presented their countries and cultures, and watched sports films. All these activities brought them closer to each other and created a team. This way the students experience Olympism and this experience will remain alive in their memories as a footing to create their own Olympic course.

During the closing ceremony of the Seminar, the participants were awarded with their participation Diplomas, signed by the IOC President Dr Thomas Bach, the HOC President, Spyros Capralos, the IOA President, Isidoros Kouvelos and the IOA Honorary Dean, Konstantinos Georgiadis.

The International Seminar for Postgraduate Students during its 23 years' course has educated several hundred young scientists from all over the world. Many among them became teachers in their countries and promoted the principles of Olympism to their students. Quite a few cooperate with their National Olympic Committees and their National Olympic Academies and have contributed to the creation of high standard programs of Olympic Education.

Once more we would like to express our gratitude to the IOA President, Mr Isidoros Kouvelos and to the members of the IOA Ephoria, to the IOC and the members of the HOC who support the IOA's operation by giving each year the possibility to young scientists who are involved with the Olympic issues to be educated and contribute in their turn to the creation of a better world.

Prof. Konstantinos GEORGIADIS
Dean, School of Human Movement and Quality of Life Sciences
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Honorary Dean of the IOA



STUDENTS' PAPERS

The opinions of the lecturers do not necessarily reflect those of the International Olympic Academy.

Out of respect for multiculturalism and diversity in scientific research, we do not intervene in each lecturer's way of presenting his/her bibliography and footnotes.

OLYMPIC GAMES' SYMBOLS AND THEIR ARTISTIC IMPLEMENTATION AT THE 1984 LOS ANGELES SUMMER OLYMPIC GAMES

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Introduction

Dance has gained more and more importance in our society. It is no longer an activity solely accessible to specific classes nor addressed to certain age-groups, as it was in the past – in Europe, for example, almost anyone has the opportunity to dance, regardless of age, gender or social status.

As a consequence of the Olympic Games' expanding media coverage, particularly since the 1960s, the Olympic Opening and Closing Ceremonies have become increasing popular and significant events (Steinbrecher, 2009; De Moragas Spà, Rivenburgh & Larson, 1995); indeed they can be characterised “as the ultimate global ritual, a media spectacle, an entertaining show” (De Moragas Spà et al., 2013, p. 83). As such, the number of dance performances in the context of Olympic ceremonies have also increased in recent decades. In fact, from a theoretical point of view, all Olympic Ceremonies can be perceived as theatrical dance performances with actors who rehearse and perform a show for the audience, accompanied by music and symbolic rituals like the Olympic Oath or the ignition of the Olympic Flame, which generate and stimulate Olympic sentiments among the spectators. In the following sections, the meaning and choreographic implementation of Olympic rituals and symbols in the Olympic Games will be examined, based on the example of the Los Angeles 1984 Summer Olympics.

Research questions and method

To date, this is one of the first studies which attempts to identify if and how dance performances have developed in the context of Olympic Ceremonies, and how the symbolic meanings of Olympism have been displayed through them. The research will focus on the symbolism of the Opening Ceremony in Los Angeles 1984. This ceremony will be examined, closely interpreted and analysed, as it illustrates various cultural and historic modalities of implementation.

For this study, the method of choice is a qualitative video-based analysis (Goldman, Pea, Barron & Derry, 2007; Seidel & Penzel, 2010). The different steps of the analysis will then be analysed as outlined by Mayring (2010).

Definition of the terms “symbol – symbolism”

Derived from ancient Greek, the term “symbol” is defined as a “distinctive mark”, an “indicator” or an “attribute” of something. Through various signifiers, like different processes, items or emblems, it is ensured that a specific meaning will be associated with the respective icon. These symbols are connected to a certain cultural, artistic, poetic, mythical, religious, philosophical, or political content. Therefore, each individual symbol is coded and accordingly signed with a suitable meaning, which is accessible at least to a particular part of society. A symbol thus represents content; it substitutes an object or item to which it refers and opens up its meaning.¹

In our society, for example, the five colourful, interlocking rings are always connected to the Olympic Movement and associated with the idea of the union of the five continents. Furthermore, they should symbolise the encounter of many athletes from all over the world at the Olympic Games (DOA, 2014, p. 15).



Fig.1: The Olympic Rings (DOA, 2014, p. 15).

1. Symbols should not be confused with formal tokens within the meaning of written or numeric bullets, which sustain no substantive meaning (Bußmann, 2002 – Symbol). For example, the number three as a mathematical character has, except for its mathematical significance, no substantive meaning. In a religious context, however, it has a more substantial importance because, in Christian faith, this number is understood as the Holy Trinity.

A symbol can and should be understood to carry a corresponding meaning regardless of culture, nationality, language, gender or age, while there should be a certain similarity between the form in which the signifier is visible and what it expresses – at least as far as possible. According to Ferdinand de Saussure, it is essential for a symbol:

that it is never completely arbitrary; it is not insubstantial, but to a certain extent, it inherits a natural relation between signifier and signified. The symbol of justice, the scales, could not simply be replaced by something else, such as a car (2001, p. 80 [translated by the author]).

Certain symbols, such as those that occur in religion, myth or art, often cannot be translated or interpreted rationally and are therefore always culturally or socially bound. That means that only members of a particular society, given their cultural, religious or political orientation, can interpret them correctly. According to Dietrich Ritschl, symbols therefore can be defined as:

products of conscious, mature cognitive achievements with representations in the form of words, operations or gestures. Symbols convey what otherwise cannot be articulated (1984, p. 22 [translated by the author]).

In this content, the symbolic intention of the Olympic Games can become more accessible, comprehensible and clearer through dance, which does not need language, selected words, statements or icons to illustrate the meaning it intends to demonstrate.

Olympic Ceremony and symbolism according to Pierre de Coubertin

Appropriate for the time (around 1900), Coubertin considered that the emotional part of a human being is more activated and mobilised by non-linguistic, pre-rationalised items, images, music (also in performed combination), and sensual arrangements than by words or speeches (Alkemeyer, 1996, p. 150). Thus, Le Bon had already voiced in 1895 that communities or groups of humans “only think in pictures and [...] are only influenced through images. Only those scare or seduce and become causes of their deeds” (1895, p. 51 [translated by the author]).

According to Coubertin, due to the possibilities provided by dance in this context, emotional engagement with the Olympic Games should occur mainly through sensory-aesthetic experiences (Alkemeyer, 1996, p. 147). Thereby, the

Olympic Ceremony should resolve the deficits in sensuality of Olympic Games policy. The Olympic Ceremony can therefore be understood as a symbolic total work of art, in which any society can be integrated. For Coubertin:

[a] center for common performances and pleasures [...] where people, not only of all ages and occupations, but also of all opinions and conditions, [can] come together to get a simple, clear and as a manner of speaking tangible idea' is needed (1966, OG 67 [translated by the author]).

Therefore, the symbolic staging of the Olympic Games is a sequence of performative-aesthetic elements, sounds and rhythms as well as ritual gestures within a sporty-religious repertoire (Coubertin, 1966, OG 150). The selection of elements, forms and motives are geared to:

[a] cult of the great and beautiful, the sublime and eternal. What already enjoyed prestige in the past, belonged to the legitimate taste and seemed to be able to evoke feelings of solemnity, sacredness, and historical depth, should mainly be applied (Alkemeyer, 1996, p. 149 [translated by the author]).

Therefore, the decisive factor for Pierre de Coubertin's selection is the "usage of a traditional and cultural-historical variety of shapes, a symbolic, pieced together capital" (ibid.).

The Olympic Ceremony integrates various verbal, aesthetic and body-language elements in a particular intended context that receives a representative character only within the Olympic Games and the associated content and symbolic structures. The symbols and rites only possess a meaning within this frame. The spatial, temporal and structural framework and structural order are given by the IOC, so that the symbolic actions and their arrangements, as well as the application of certain objects in the context of theatrical implementation and the objects and persons involved therein, are firmly determined and thus are irreversible (Alkemeyer, 1996, p. 196). Through these surrounding conditions, the Olympic Ceremony can happen at any time and any place in which a certain modification of the hosting nation permits a particular individuality, which was actually intended by Coubertin (DOA, 2014). The Olympic Ceremony thus illustrates the Olympic idea as a fixed sequence of symbolic and dancing activities, in which the respective organising country can integrate individual, cultural and historical content and in this way define itself with regard to the previous or upcoming Olympic Games in the hosting country.

Rites, symbolic structure and the performative implementation

In accordance with modern Olympic ideals as defined by Coubertin, the Games have their own symbols, which are invested with corresponding meaning. Hence, overall, the Olympic Games are regarded as a celebration in which people of all nations can be part of. Thus, the Opening Ceremony generally serves to set the tone for the Games and provides information regarding localisation, perception and identification as well as the designation of specific incidents of precisely these games (Alkemeyer, 1996, p. 200).

For example, the 23rd Olympic Opening Ceremony on 28 July 1984 in Los Angeles began with the “Los Angeles Olympic Theme” by John Williams (Schlüssel, 2001 p. 702). It was played by over 100 trumpeters and 20 kettle-drummers and opened the ceremony, which, according to Pieper, could not exist or even being imagined without the singing and music (1988, p. 43). During the song “Welcome”, specially composed by Robert Sherman and versed by Dean Pitchford (Schlüssel, 2001, p. 762), more than 1,200 actors first formed the Olympic Rings with white and golden balloons, transitioning to form the word “welcome”, as the first choreographic action with a symbolic background. As a symbol for success and as a distraction from the performers’ re-positioning, Bill Sooter became the centre of attention when flying over the show with a jetpack (or so-called rocket belt) as a “Rocket Man” and landing exactly on his place on the runway. A banner with the label “Welcome” was seen in the sky and supported this emotionally captivating gesture, which can also be identified as a demonstrative representation of American evolution. This demonstration is determined to be



Fig.2: Representation of the Olympic Rings with hundreds of balloons in LA, 1984.



Fig.3: Representation of the word “WELCOME” with hundreds of balloons in Los Angeles, 1984.

received even more positively by the audience because of the support of dancing performances, which were designed as a show and displayed welcoming and unity symbols. This welcoming gesture reached its climax when hundreds of balloons were let loose and flew over the stadium.

After this spectacular and media-hyped opening, the firmly held and prescribed determination of the Opening Ceremony by the IOC Protocol Guide followed, divided into the following content (DOA, 2014, p. 71 ff.; DSOM, 1999; Lenk, 1964, p. 20 ff.): welcoming the head of state, entry of the athletes, inaugural speech (of the president of the IOC, the OC, and the organising state), the Olympic Anthem and the Olympic Flag, the Olympic Fire, release of the doves, the athletes' oath, the national anthems, and, at last, the artistic programm.

The artistic program²

According to the IOC, after the end of the determined rites and symbols, the artistic program follows. Within these performances, the host country can present a huge range of cultural-historical features true to the motto: The more pompous and the more media attractive, the better and more emotional. Under this motto, dance performances are implemented through different dance styles and moves.

Unlike in recent Olympic Games, the offset artistic dance performances followed after the welcoming of the head of state, not at the end of the ceremony. Therefore, before the entry of the nations or the following opening words of the presidents, which are determined by the IOC, a historical drama of American culture entitled "Music of America" (Schlüssel, 2001, p. 762) was displayed and accompanied by music from an 800-man marching band, which used very precise positions while playing. They started among the audience, coming down the stairs while wearing white costumes with an image of the Olympic



Fig.4: Outline of the map of the USA by the marching band in Los Angeles, 1984.

2. The analysis of the symbolic meaning and the dancing implementation are outlined briefly within this work because this part is in progress.

Rings on their chests as a symbol for a common nation. This entire part can be seen as a musician-dancing performance, which ends with the band members in position showing the outline of the map of the USA.

In addition, the pioneer days were first performed through a choreography among this outlined map. Thereby, 300 actors used cultural-historic costumes, requisites, and dance forms, such as the square dance, to support the general historical account. This generated a festive atmosphere within the audience. However, it should be noted, that ethnic problems, which still prevailed in the United States at that time, were disregarded (Valérien, 1984, p. 24). Rather, they were overshadowed by the appearance of Etta James and the Gospel Choir as a part of the American culture, singing the song "When the Saints Go Marching in" by Edward Boatner. This performance, where a church was built of fouldards and benches for the dancers to sit on, showed the black gospel culture in the USA.

For the first time in the history of the Olympic Games, over 80 pianists played the "Urban Rhapsody" live, while supported by a dance performance. With the aid of the colour selection (pale blue) of the pianos and clothes, this generated a very elegant and sublime spirit, reminding the audience of Hollywood. In order to give the audience a final welcome, the crowning finale of this 1,500-person dance performance was accompanied by the song "The World is a Stage". To meet the requirements of the Olympic ideal (that every nation is welcome at the games), the audience was included in the performance of the Olympic Opening Ceremony for the first time. Under their seats were colourful plastic cards, which formed the national flags of the participating countries when they were raised up (Valérien, 1984,



Fig.5: Dance performance in Los Angeles, 1984 (Valérien, 1984, p. 12).



Fig.6: Raised up plastic cards in Los Angeles, 1984 (Valérien, 1984, p. 10).

p. 24). This can also be interpreted as a friendly gesture to all participating states and athletes from the different countries (ibid., p. 11).

The athletes' entry



Fig. 7: The entry of the athletes in Los Angeles, 1984 (Valérien, 1984, p. 26).

Since 1896, the welcoming of the host country's president is followed by the entry of the participating athletes, which can be seen as a first symbolic act through a performing implementation. Thereby, each delegation wears an official, differently coloured, outfit. At the Olympic Games in Los Angeles, the athletes wore costumes with a similar layout,

which indicated that they belonged to one nation on one hand (colour of their dress), but that they are part of a larger community on the other (similar layout). The shape and style of these clothes showed the equality of all participating athletes. As performative requisites, both the flag and the shield are provided by the OC and were all the same size in order to achieve equality. In a performing sense, the participating delegations entered the stadium in alphabetical order (according to the language spoken in the host country) and transferred the symbolic reference to the audience without using words, so that every nation could understand this symbolic intent. With the exception of Greece, which always enters first, and the hosting country, which enters last, this order prevents a preference of single participants or countries. In addition, an "imaginary bridge from the alleged origin of the Olympic Games up to the current scene is built" (Alkemeyer, 1996, p. 202 [translated by the author]).

Through the division into national units, qualified athletes³ become the representatives of their countries. The belief that everybody who participates, independent of origin, is part of a larger community is made clear by the fact that every nation enters with the same music and with the same length of their entry and with similar costumes. Thus, the athletes are awarded with a dual

3. Fundamentally, only athletes who are qualified for the Olympic Games and have been permitted to reside in the Olympic Village are allowed to participate in the entry.

identity: first as representatives of a nation, their nation, and second, as part of an international community that implies all nations at the same time (Alkemeyer, 1996, p. 201).

This part is also supported by a dancing performance by the White Flag Girls to welcome the athletes and to emotionalise the spectacle. The dancers wore white suits to represent the union of all participating nations. The form of the Olympic Rings was integrated with the help of specific positioning of the cast members, creating a retrospective to the beginning of this opening ceremony. The “Los Angeles Olympic Theme”, conducted by John Williams, accompanied this performance.

Through the general framework that was mentioned above and which is involved in the entry, the social, religious, ethnic or other differences and contradictions between the athletes can be faded out (Alkemeyer, 1996, p. 202). This artificially induced alignment of the differences allows not only a representative communality of all participants but also a mutual comparison on a purely athletic level, which regards the athletes as formally equal people within the competitions (ibid., p. 205).

The Olympic Flame – The Olympic Fire

The Olympic Flame was established in 1928 in Amsterdam and is the most succinct and evocative symbol of the Olympic Movement (Hörrmann, 1968, p. 43). Therefore, it can be seen as a revival of the Olympic spirit after a four-year break. The Olympic torch is a sign of peace and a recurrent connection between nations.

Altogether, this part of the Opening Ceremony is not overloaded with acting inputs or other entertainment effects. The focus is rather reduced to the running and the ignition of the Olympic Flame, so that the attention is on the actual act and its essential meaning.

National anthems

In Los Angeles, the International Children’s Choir sang the “Ode to Joy” by Ludwig van Beethoven after the Olympic Oath, instead of the American anthem (Schlüssel, 2001, p. 762). This can be interpreted as a further symbol of unity. Meanwhile, the artists re-entered the stadium, so that the audience could give

them the honour they deserved for their performative effort and applaud them for the performances at the Opening Ceremony.

As a sign of unity, both the athletes and the artists gathered until the end of the ceremony and were presented as the main actors of the ceremony for the audience. While they all grabbed their hands, the song “Reach Out and Touch” was performed by Vicki McClure in collaboration with the audience, which can also be interpreted as a final symbol of the common cohesion and unity. This common gesture and rhythmic movement to the music is also a performative expression and symbol of equality for all people, regardless of nation, belief, gender or origin. This symbolic presentation culminated in the background of motion pictures from all over the world. The audience saw happy people from India, China, Australia and so on, who were dancing together and celebrating the Olympic Games. As a final symbol of communality and joint participation, smaller versions of the national flags and of the Olympic flag, slid to the ground at the end of the Opening Ceremony.

The athletes left the stadium together with the artists and dancers after this very emotional and connecting gesture that ended in a joint dance movement: first, within the particular delegations; then, between all the athletes who were present in the stadium.

Conclusion

These Games and their aesthetic elements can be seen as an artistic competition against the massive show in Moscow in 1980, which are not present in these Olympic Games (Pinkall, 2012). The NOC hired the best entertainers and “created a show demonstrating the history of America through music” and dancing parts (*ibid.*). However, the analysis showed that the choreographical implementation supports the symbolic meaning of the Olympic Games as well as the cultural and historical intentions of Los Angeles and the USA. In summary, these efforts can be categorised as a huge show, which is able to implement symbolic meaning in the artistic Olympic Games presentations.

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SPORTS MUSEUM AND OLYMPIC EDUCATION IN CHINA

Yang LI (CHN)

Introduction

A museum, as a palace for elegant culture and art, takes the responsibility of cultural education and communication. Therefore, Pierre de Coubertin, who revived the Olympic Games, had the idea of creating an Olympic Museum. Coubertin believed that a museum could preserve the precious material and spiritual wealth that ancient and modern Olympic Games have left to humanity for thousands of years. He felt that a museum should not only be the legacy of the newly restored Olympic Games, but should also embody the ideals of Olympism. Former IOC President Juan Antonio Samaranch also attached great importance to the establishment of a sports (Olympic) museum, which would comprise a flagship of the International Olympic Committee's cultural policies; in addition, IOC President Thomas Bach has also suggested that Olympic museums are important institutions for protecting the heritage of the Olympics and inheriting Olympic values. Thus, the IOC always urges host cities to establish Olympic museums after the Olympic Games.

In fact, the development of modern Olympic museums and sports museums is accompanied by the development of the modern Olympic Movement and Society. Over the past century, the Olympic Games have left many documents that can be utilized and numerous historical relics that need to be protected, which lay the material foundation for the development of Olympic museums. In 1993, by the efforts of several generations, the International Olympic Museum was completed and opened to public. Since then, hundreds of thousands have visited the museum, which records the history of the Olympics, collects memories of sports and spreads the principles of Olympism to the public.

At present, there are more than 500 sports museums in approximately 80 countries. In essence, these museums have developed from serving a single function – hosting cultural relic collections – to organizing a variety of activities including research, education, recreation etc. Here the young generation can get to know the development of Olympics and sports, feel the solemnity and greatness of athleticism, share its spirit and be educated from it.

Like ancient Greece, China also had a long history of sport and numerous traditional sports activities, which played an important part in Chinese physical and spiritual education. Moreover, in recent years, China has made considerable progress in modern sports, laying a solid foundation for the establishment of sports and Olympic museums. Therefore, the establishment of China's sports museum combines elements of Olympic and Chinese traditional sport culture, while widely promoting the Olympic spirit and education.

The establishment and development of sports museums in China

The construction of China's sports museum started in the 1980s. In 1982, the China State Sports Commission established a Sport Culture Department which specialized in the collection of sports culture relics. In 1983, Li Menghua, the Head of the China State Sports Commission, declared at the China National Sports Conference that China would establish the Chinese National Sports Museum, which would open to the public in 1990, when the Asian Games would be held in Beijing. Finally, after the implementation of a 3-year construction plan, on 22 September 1990 – the day of the Opening Ceremony of the 11th Asian Games in Beijing – China's first National Sports Museum officially opened and welcomed its visitors. Chinese Vice Premier Yao Yilin and IOC president Juan Antonio Samaranch inaugurated the museum.

At present, the Chinese National Sports Museum hosts approximately 30,000 cultural relics and nearly 5,000 precious sports archive photos and pictures. Since its opening, it held more than 100 special exhibitions which have been visited by at least 3 million visitors, 100 IOC members and 20 chairmen of international associations. The Chinese National Sports Museum has indeed been playing a unique role to spread Olympism in the nation.

Actually, the Chinese National Sports Museum is not only a museum, but it also comprises a Department of the China State Sports Commission, which was

renamed as the General Sport Administration. The functions and responsibilities of the China National Sports Museum are the following:

1. Researching and formulating plans for the development of sports culture
2. Collecting, exhibiting and researching sports relics and document literature
3. Collecting, managing and using sports documents
4. Managing sports literature, artistic works and relevant activities
5. Creating a platform for stamp collectors
6. Organizing international sports culture programs etc.

Along with the Chinese National Sports Museums, numerous sports museums have also been established. Up to now, about 70 sports museums have been completed and started their activities and there are also some which are or under construction. One third of Chinese provinces and big cities have their own sports museums, including the Chinese National Sports Museum and its four branches, ten provincial sports museums, four sports museums in universities and colleges, five Olympic Games and Asian Games museums, and also three Olympic museums supported by Ching-Kuo Wu, a member of IOC Culture Committee.

Table 1: List of Sports Museums in China (incomplete data).

Type	Name of Sport Museum	Inauguration year
National Museum	China Sports Museum & Chinese Olympic Museum	1990
	China Sports Museum (Linzi Branch)	2004
	China Sports Museum (Nantong Branch)	2004
	China Sports Museum (Hangzhou Branch)	2006
Olympic Games and Asian Games Museum	Beijing Olympic Museum	2009
	Qingdao Olympic Sailing Museum	2008
	The Museum of Guangzhou Asian Games & Guangzhou Asian Para Games	2012
	Nanjing Olympic Museum	2014
Olympic Museum	Tianjin Dagon Olympic Museum	2009
	Samaranch Memorial Tianjing	2014
	Xiamen Olympic Museum	2008

Type	Name of Sport Museum	Inauguration year
University Museum	Chinese Wushu Museum (Shanghai Sport University) The Museum of International Table Tennis Federation (Shanghai Sport University)	2005
	Chinese Sport History Museum (Chengdu Sport University)	2011
	Chinese Red Sport Museum (Xi'an Sport University)	2011
	Archives Room of Hezhenliang and Olympic Movement (Beijing Sport University)	2013
	Olympic Education Museum (Capital Sport University)	2008
Local Museums	Shaanxi Provincial Sport Museum	2011
	Jiangsu Hezhenliang Memorial	2008
	Shanghai Sport Museum	2012
	Sichuan Provincial Sport Museum	1985
	Shanxi Provincial Sport Museum	2014
	Tianjing Sport Museum	2015
	Suzhou Sport Museum	2013
	Jiangsu Digital Sport Museum	-
Other	Jiangsu Wuhuan Sport Lottery Museum	2011
	Chongli Winter Sports Museum (Beijing)	2009
	China Duoba Sport Museum (Qinghai)	2012
	China Digital Basketball Museum	2012
	Chinese Paralympic Sports Museum	-
	Weifang Kite Museum (Shandong)	1989
	Jilin Winter Sports Museum	2009
	Chinese Taijiquan Museum (Henan)	2009
	Henan Shaolin Wushu Museum	2012
	Honours-Room of Chinese Women's Volleyball (Zhejiang)	-
	Tibet Mountain Climbing Museum	2008
	Jiangxi Red Sport History Museum	-
	Shenzhen McEwan Classical Golf Museum	2009

Olympic education activities of sports museums

China's sports museum major task is to record Chinese sport history and the development of the Olympic Movement in the country; in addition, they exhibit art pieces, documents, screen films and sell souvenirs. In general, these museums combine sports, art and culture to enhance the Olympic Movement and the Olympic spirit in the nation.

At present, activities pertaining to Olympic education are carried out by the China Sports Museum. They include the following:

Permanent exhibitions in the museum

Through its permanent exhibitions, the Sports Museum's major task is to promote Olympic education, by disseminating the Olympic spirit and popularizing Olympic knowledge in China. As a parent entity, its permanent exhibitions include themes such as "Olympic History and Culture", "Olympics and China", "Chinese Olympic Champion" etc. Apart from the Chinese Sports Museum, every provincial sports museum has similar permanent exhibitions, such as the "Tianjin Municipality and the Olympics" in the Tianjin Municipality Sports Museum, the "Sports Life of Ancient People in Shaanxi Province", the "Modern Sports in Shaanxi Province" and the "Olympic Champions in Shaanxi Province" in the Shaanxi Provincial Sports Museum. These exhibitions display the development of the Olympic Games in various places of China and highlight distinctive regional characteristics and features of traditional Chinese culture. As such, young people can learn a lot about the Olympics and their cultural sport heritage.

Spreading the Olympic culture

Through cooperation with institutions organizing important national and local events (Olympic Games, National Day, the National Games, the Asian Games etc.), the Chinese Sports Museum takes full advantage of its cultural relic collection resources by holding various exhibitions and activities themed on spreading China's sports achievements and popularizing the Olympic spirit and education. The Sichuan Provincial Sports Museum has been combining the Provincial Games and the sports culture since 2010. During the 11th

Provincial Games, the museum held a major photographic exhibition on sports achievements in Sichuan Province and a review of the Provincial Games' history, thus providing valuable organizational information regarding this event and further educating young athletes.

Promoting Olympic culture to communities and campuses

Utilizing their resources, various sports museums organize Olympic champions' visits to communities and campuses, in order for the athletes to interact with students and residents, share their life stories and communicate their understanding of Olympism. Furthermore, these champions also encourage people to participate in sports and inspire them to strive. On 8 May 2016, the launching ceremony of "Olympic Culture in China", an activity sponsored by the China Sports Museum, was held in the Beijing Middle School No. 101. Deng Yaping, an Olympic table tennis athlete, Deng Haixia, "the first center" of Chinese women's basketball, Song Xiaobo, the Chinese women's basketball former captain, Li Nina, an Olympic freestyle skiing champion, and Wu Jingyu, an Olympic taekwondo champion visited the school, met with students and spread the Olympic spirit.

Sport and cultural activities for children

As for children, games and experiential activities can help them understand Olympic culture in a joyful environment. The most successful example is an interesting project held by Xiamen City Olympic Museum, supported by Ching-Kuo Wu. On the Olympic Day, Xiamen City Olympic Museum organized a special sports meeting for children: the Mini Olympic Games. It included several interesting activities such as billiards, ice hockey, archery, bowling games etc. After experiencing these sports, children not only feel the joy of the games, but also learn rules and techniques which stimulate their interests in athleticism, experiencing the spirit and charm of sports.

China Sports and Culture Expo

Under the State General Administration of Sport leadership, the Chinese National Sports Museum is conducting every year an event entitled “China Sports and Culture Expo”. All sports museums participate in this annual exhibition, which is not only a platform for museums to communicate information, but also attracts the attention of a wide participation and the media. The program held includes traditional sports and culture exhibition, meet-and-greet with Olympic champions and sports stars, sports stamp collection and auction, sports artwork exhibition etc. This event is not only a significant contribution to the development of China sports culture but an important platform for Olympic education.

Ancient China Sports and Cultural Relics exhibition

On the eve of the Olympic Games Opening Ceremony in Beijing, the Beijing Capital Museum and Athens National Archaeological Museum introduced the sport and culture exhibition “AGON, the Spirit of Competition in Ancient Greece”. The 166 treasures coming from the homeland of ancient Olympic Games with a 2500-year history drew the interest of the Chinese audience and spread the spirit and values of Olympism. In 2013, Chengdu Sport University organized “Ancient China Sports and Cultural Relics” exhibition, which was hosted in multiple museums and held during large-scale sports events like the Nanjing Youth Olympic Games in 2014, the Traditional Minority National Games in 2015 and the National Youth Games in 2015. According to a survey, more than one million visitors visited the exhibitions. In this context, many relevant educational activities and events were held which further enriched the public’s Olympic education. Due to the excellent organization and success of this exhibition during the National Youth Sports Games in 2015, the organizer of the sports meeting – the Sports Bureau of Fujian Province – won the annual “Sport and Innovation” award issued by the International Olympic Committee.

In addition to the cultural relic exhibition, we also try to recover some ancient Chinese sports activities and hold meetings on ancient sports. For example, the Chengdu Sport University and the Jinsha Site Museum in Chengdu jointly held the “Ancient Chinese Sports Meeting” on 18 April 2016 to match up with the theme of ICOMOS, “Sports Heritage”. Events included Cuju (the ancient Chinese football), Mushe (the ancient Chinese bowling), archery, Touhu

(a game in which arrows are thrown into a pot), Jirang (a game of targeting and throwing), and shuttlecock. Due to the volunteers' splendid presentation, organization and explanation, the audience deepened their understanding of ancient sport and culture, and realized the significance of their ancient sport heritage.

The way forwards

In 2022, when Beijing will host the Winter Olympic Games, sport museums will have the opportunity to further contribute in China's Olympic education. To develop the Olympic education activities of sport museums, China has to further promote the construction of the new Chinese National Sports Museum and other kinds of sport museums, the participation of international institutions, focus on exchange and cooperation, and jointly hold sports and cultural relics exhibitions during large-scale sports events.

In general, with the support of the government, sports museums in China have a solid foundation and operate under favourable conditions. If we can pay close attention on planning and implementation, China's sports museums will contribute even further in Olympic education.

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THE PANIBERIAN ASSOCIATION OF OLYMPIC ACADEMIES: GENESIS, CONTEXT, INHERITANCE AND CONSEQUENCES OF ITS CREATION

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1. Introduction

The Spanish Olympic Academy was the driving force behind the organization of a meeting between the Presidents of the Olympic Academies of Peru (Rodolfo Cremer), Argentina (Alberto Echevarría), Portugal (Fernando Freitas), Ecuador (Norma de Justamond) and Spain (Conrado Durántez), in Madrid, on 20–25 June 1988. There, the idea of creating an Association of Academies with a common linguistic and cultural identity in order to promote Olympism among the countries of Ibero-American region was born (Durántez, 2012).

Our objectives were fundamentally two: the first was to spread the Olympic principles in neighbouring countries with which we had an obvious historical, cultural and linguistic affinity; the second was to promote Olympic knowledge in this region and, above all, to understand and communicate with each other in the same language (Durántez, 2012).

For Conrado Durántez, the idea of creating a Spanish-speaking working group facilitated the communication between its members and therefore the promotion of Pierre de Coubertin's philosophy and Olympic values (Tarín, 2013). The attendance by only the five countries mentioned above was due to the small number of Olympic Academies existing back then in the Ibero-American region – only nine in total.

I believe that more countries had been invited, but some of them could not come, since this meeting was arranged after a session in Olympia, and their delegations had to return to their countries of origin; perhaps, some did not sufficiently understand its significance (Durántez, 2012).

When Conrado Durántez tells us that the meeting was arranged after the visit to Olympia, he refers to the fact that many representatives of Spanish-speaking countries could take advantage of the return trip to the Academies Directors, since the travel expenditure was financed by the International Olympic Academy and thereby it costed less.

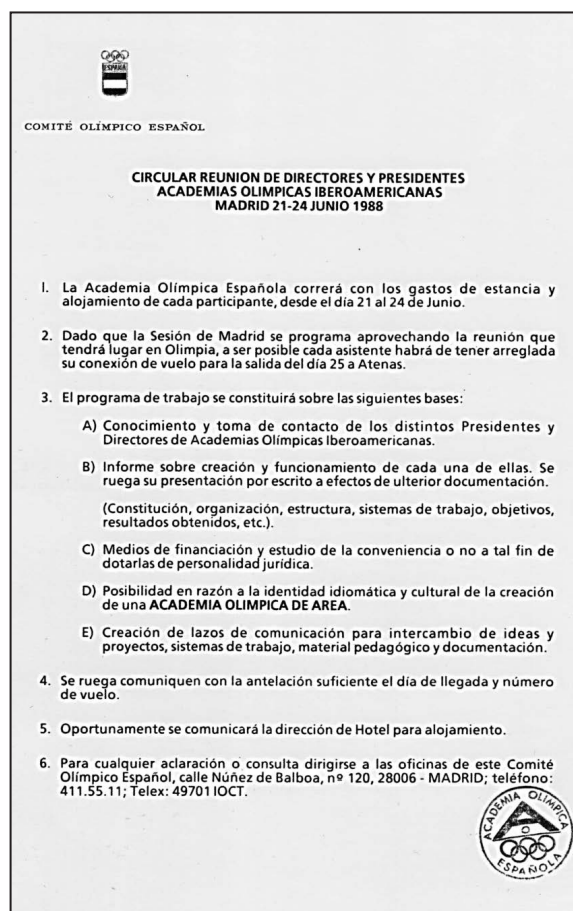


Fig. 1: Convocation Circular for the Ibero-American Congress of Olympic Academies.

The meeting, in which the creation of the Ibero-American Association of Olympic Academies (IAOA) was agreed, was a success and eventually led to the creation of Olympic Academies in multiple Ibero-American countries, such as República Dominicana (1980), Chile (1981), Argentina, Ecuador and Bolivia (1982), México and Uruguay (1983), and Perú (1984), among others. The importance of establishing these and other National Olympic Academies in Spanish-speaking countries, according to Durántez is:

There are 204 Olympic Committees around the world and there are only 137 Academies officially created, of which 40 are inactive. This is the reality and it is tragic because if the Academy is the school of Olympism, then each committee should have its own school. If these committees do not promote Olympism, they should not be even called Olympic Committees. They could be either a high competition Committee or a Committee for registration of athletes at the Games, but not Olympic Committees. Olympic means transmitting the Olympic principles, yet there are many Committees that have nothing to do with Olympism (Durántez, 2012).

For this reason, that first aim of promoting and supporting the Ibero-American National Olympic Committees, in accordance with the guidelines of the International Olympic Academy, is to establish new Olympic Academies within their region.

For the Guatemalan Olympic Academy, “the main value of the Association is the common language in which we can understand each other and the exchange of opinions and personal relationships among its members, especially in the biannual Congress” (Beltranena, 2016).

Pedro Cordoba (2016), President of the Olympic Academy of Puerto Rico, talks about how the Association was a way to protect and defend the common interests of the Ibero-American Olympic Academies within the Olympic Movement.

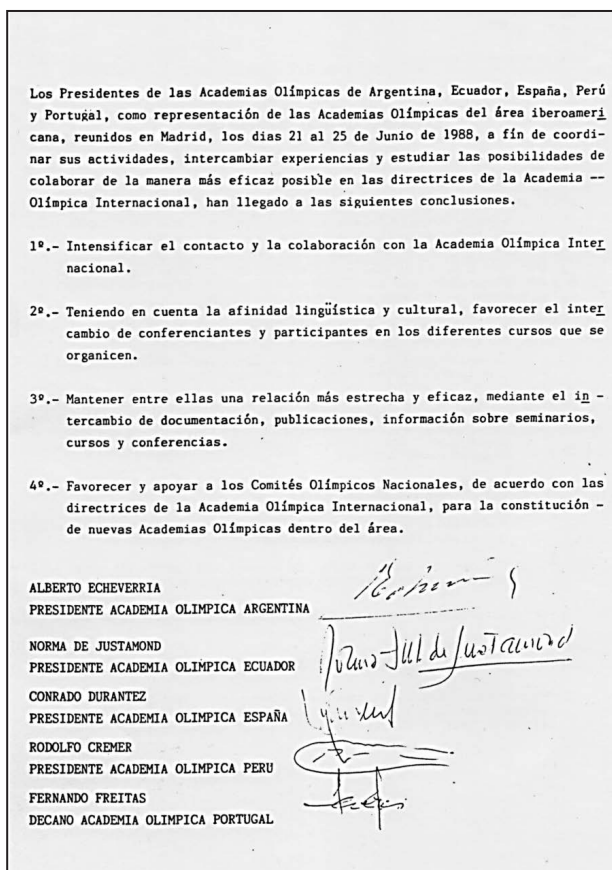


Fig. 2: Text of the resolutions adopted at the Ibero-American Congress of Olympic Academies.

2. Foundation Charter of the Association

Two years after the first meeting, on 4 June 1990, the fifteen representatives in the II Congress in Madrid signed unanimously the Foundation Charter, drafting and approving the Statutes.

Creating an association was no easy task, and institutional and economic support was requested from the Association of National Olympic Committees, the International Olympic Committee and the International Olympic Academy, raising suspicions of the then President Nikos Filaretos.

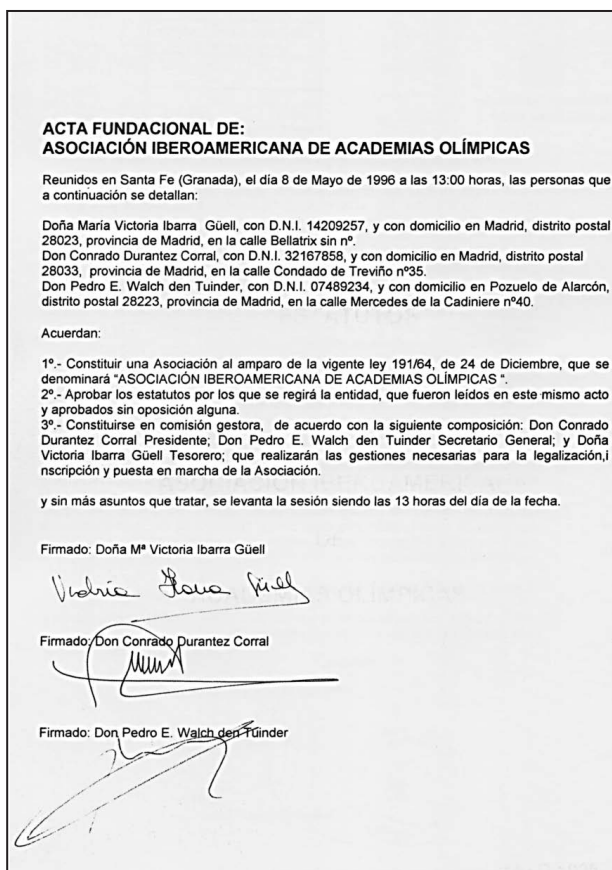


Fig. 3: Foundation Charter of the Ibero-American Association of Olympic Academies.

I had to speak with Filaretos because he feared that I could overshadow the International Olympic Academy. I insisted that I only wanted to promote this in my area. Then I tried to ask him for financial assistance. Initially some astronomical numbers were discussed, but we got nothing in the end (Duránte, 2012).

But the same misgivings were also felt by the Presidents of other National Olympic Committees, because they saw the creation of a National Olympic Academy in their countries as an institution that could overshadow them or take power away.

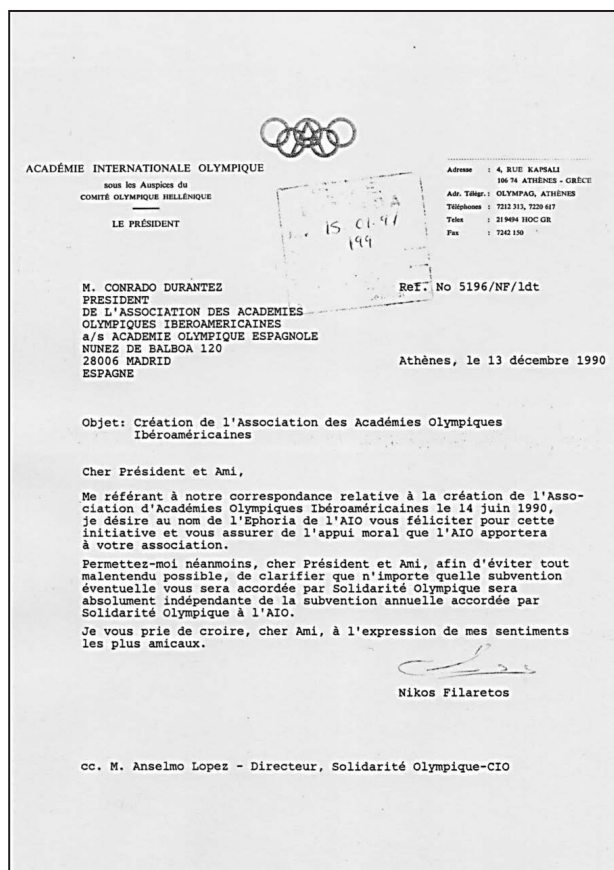


Fig. 4: Letter of Nikos Filaretos "delimiting economic competencies" with the IOA.

The manager or president of the Academy is a well-intended person who wants to spread Olympism and will also help on a task that the National Olympic Committees should do and they are not doing, and therefore it will be a benefit for both (Durántez, 2012).

Fortunately, the Presidents of the Olympic Committees in America, probably because they agreed with this objective, were discussing the idea of creating their own National Olympic Academies and had asked for help from Conrado Durántez that through the support of the Ibero-American Association of Olympic Academies boosted its creation and activity.

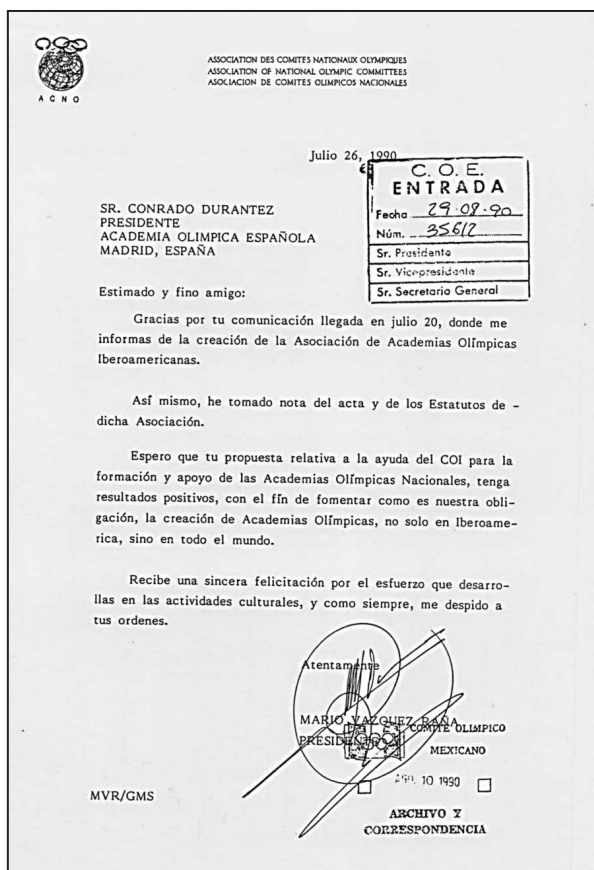


Fig. 5: Letter from Mario Vázquez Raña, President of the Association of National Olympic Committees, welcoming the foundation of the Association.

3. International recognition

It was in the V Congress, celebrated in Santa Fe (Granada) between 6–10 May 1996, where the Association was officially established through the corresponding Notarial Deed and, as a result, by the International Olympic Academy and the International Olympic Committee.

In this way, the Ibero-American Association of Olympic Academies became part of the institutions recognized by the International Olympic Committee, dedi-

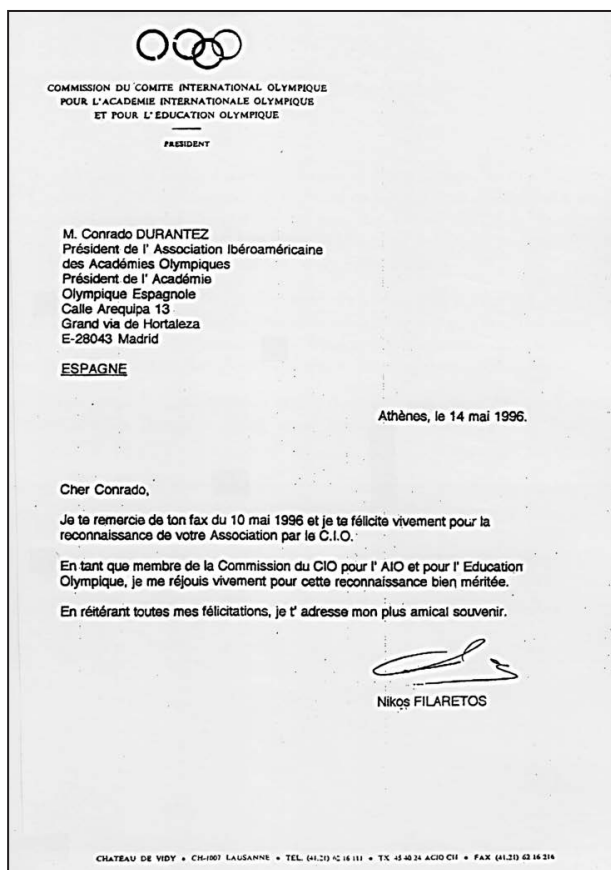


Fig. 6: Congratulatory letter from the President of the IOA, Nikos Filaretos, for the official recognition of the Association by the IOC.

cated to education and the spread of the Olympic ideal, among which are the International Pierre de Coubertin's Committee and the International Olympic Academy (Durántez, 2003). According to Conrado Durántez (2016), this is "the principal value of the Association, because it is the only existing Association of Olympic Academies, recognized by the IOC, that discusses the Olympic phenomenon using a common language as its the fundamental community instrument".

For that reason and taking advantage of the XI Meeting of the Association of National Olympic Committees in Seville between 2–4 June 1998, 24 Presidents of Ibero-American Olympic Committees signed a document requesting economic support by the IOC for the activities of the association:



Fig. 7: Letter from the President Samaranch congratulating the creation of the Association.

When we created the Association, I sent a letter to Samaranch and he gave us some modest economic help; I do not remember if it was two or one million pesetas per year, but we made the most of that money because we did things. When Mr Rogge came, he took off all grants and left us with nothing (Duránte, 2012).

This international recognition also led other countries in Africa, Europe or Asia to request assistance, in order to create their own Academic Associations. Nevertheless, until today, there is no other Association of Olympic Academies besides the Ibero-American.

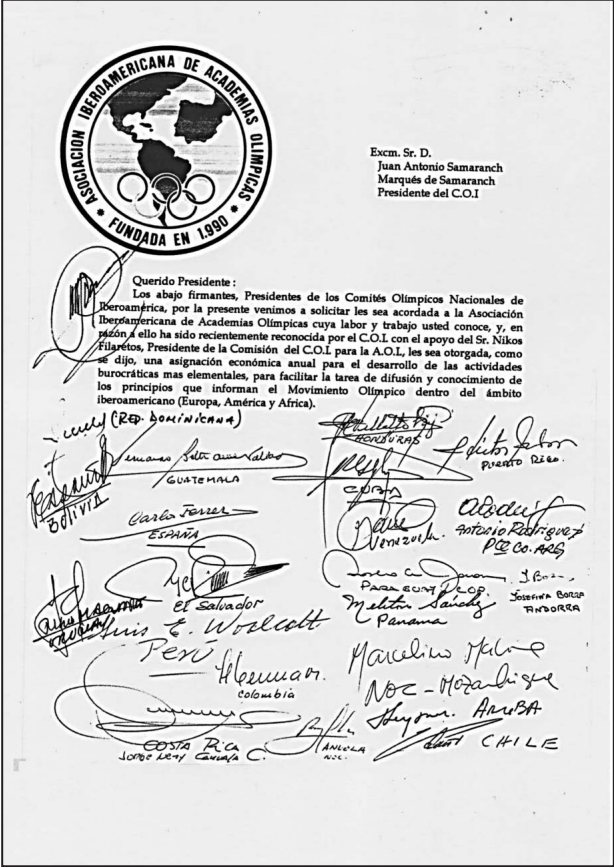


Fig. 8: Joint letter of Presidents of Ibero-American and Ibero-African NOCs requesting allowance for the functioning of the Association by President Samaranch.

4. The change from Ibero-American to Paniberian Association

In the IX Congress, celebrated in Leon from 7 to 12 July 2002, the Association changed its name from Ibero-American to Pan-Iberian, in order to integrate not only National Academies of America and the Iberian Peninsula, but also Academies of ancient Spanish and Portuguese colonies in Africa such as Angola, Mozambique, Sao Tome and Equatorial Guinea (Durántez, 2012).

We were called "Ibero-American", and it was a good name because the Association included Spain, Portugal and America; but when the Academies

of Angola, Mozambique, Sao Tome and Equatorial Guinea were created, it could no longer be called Ibero-American. Then it occurred to me in 2002, at the Congress held in Leon, to propose the name “Pan-Iberian”, that refers to all countries that speak Iberian languages (Durántez, 2014).

5. Main contribution of the Association to the Olympic Movement

Besides taking actions to fulfil the primary purpose for which it was born – to create and put into operation the Olympic Academies of all countries of the Iberian region (Spanish and Portuguese language) –, the Association has also continued growing from the five participant countries in the First Congress, to include 28 National Olympic Academies from Andorra, Angola, Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Spain, Guatemala, Equatorial Guinea, Honduras, Mexico, Mozambique, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Portugal, Puerto Rico, Sao Tome and Principe, Uruguay and Venezuela.

As Conrado Durántez (2014) tells us, the goal of spreading Olympism with which the Association was born is fully achieved, “there is no other part of a cultural bloc in the world that makes such a big Olympic broadcast”. Some of the new born Olympic Academies in America, operating under the Association, are now “among the finest in the world”.

The Association enables the Academies which are part of it “to meet and collaborate with the Associations from other countries and exchange views and experiences in pursuit of one goal: the promotion of Olympism and its values” (Zanassi, 2016).

In the same way, “the Association has become a bank of information and resources in which members exchange their writings, thoughts and Olympic literature, with Don Conrado’s book being the main reference on the subject” (Cordova, 2016).

In addition, according to Conrado Durántez, the greatest contribution of the Association has been Olympic-themed publications in Spanish, which are only those published by the Spanish Olympic Committee.

The main contribution is to provide Olympic-themed books, because people talk about Olympism and hardly anyone knows what Olympism is. Now we are on the task of producing publications (Durántez, 2012).

Fernando Beltranena (Emeritus Director of the Guatemalan Olympic Academy) told us that these publications help “to promote and expand the possibilities of cultural exchange, and the Association will continue to produce as many publications on Olympism and Olympic culture as possible” (Beltranena, 2016).

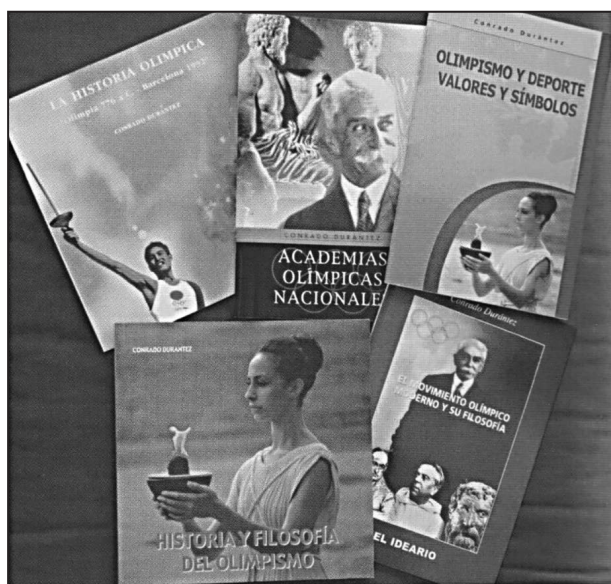


Fig. 9: Various publications of Olympic material printed by the Association.

6. Congress

The Pan-Iberian Association of Olympic Academies holds meetings every two years, during which member countries, for about four days, share opinions and participate in cultural visits in the location where the meeting is happening.

In our meetings, we can compare our work with other Academies, exchange new ideas and try to correct our deficiencies. If we need an expert on some Olympic theme, we have the support of the Association to contact and invite him or her to our activities (Cordova, 2016).

Below are the dates, locations and major aspects of the fourteen congresses held to date:

I: Madrid, from 20 to 25 June 1988. Initial agreement for the creation of the Association with the assistance of five delegate countries (Argentina, Ecuador, Spain, Peru and Portugal).

II: Madrid, 14 June 1990. Creation of the Ibero-American Association of Olympic Academies, during which seventeen members, Olympic Academies Presidents of Ibero-America, signed unanimously the Foundation Charter and drafted and approved the Statutes.

III: Madrid, from 12 to 16 May 1992. Appointment of the Board (President: Conrado Duránte, as a proposal from President of the Bolivian Olympic Committee, Roberto Nielsen; Secretary: Alfonso Navarro; and Treasurer: Victoria Ibarra Güell Baroness) and two area coordinators, one for America (Rodolfo Cremer) and one for Portuguese-speaking countries (Dr Hannibal Justiniano).

IV: Madrid, from 9 to 14 June 1994. Assistance of 16 Presidents of Olympic Academies and IOC President Juan Antonio Samaranch presiding over the session. Creation of the identifying logo of the Association and the republication of the book *Olimpismo y sus Juegos*.

V: Santa Fé, Granada (Spain), from 6 to 10 May 1996. The Association is officially recognized by the IOA and IOC.

VI: Antigua (Guatemala), from 23 to 26 April 1998. Attendance of 35 delegates representing 24 countries that formed the Association. A programme of conferences is inserted by Conrado Duránte (Pasado, Presente y Futuro de la Asociación Iberoamericana de Academias Olímpicas), Francisco Aguilar Chang (Campeones Olímpicos Iberoamericanos), Alfredo MacKenney (Volcanes de Guatemala), and Daniel Alarcón and Claudio Solís (El Juego de Pelota Maya).

VII: Vigo (Spain), from 3 to 7 May 1998. Five new National Olympic Academies (Angola, Mozambique, Equatorial Guinea, Panama and Cuba) created in the Iberian area during the last period and welcomed.

VIII: Huelva (Spain), from 6 to 14 June 2000. Inauguration of a street named after the Paniberian Association of Olympic Academies.

IX: León (Spain), from 7 to 12 July 2002. Reception of members of Congress in a special audience by the then Prince of Asturias and currently King Felipe VI, Honorary President of the Spanish Olympic Academy. The Association changes the name Ibero-American for Paniberian, to be renamed the Paniberian Association of Olympic Academies.

X: San Juan de Puerto Rico, from 20 to 23 May 2004. Attendance of delegates representing 26 countries.

XI: Sevilla (Spain), from 30 May to 4 June 2006. Attendance of delegates representing 20 countries. Removal of the financial grant to the Association by the IOC.

XII: Logroño (Spain) from 21 to 23 May 2008. Iconographic exhibition of Pierre de Coubertin in one of the cloisters of the Monastery of San Millán de la Cogolla, the cradle of Spanish language.

XIII: Lima (Peru), from 10 to 14 October 2010. Conrado Duránte's Conference about Juan Antonio Samaranch and Olympism, glossing the IOC President's figure recently deceased and highlighting his historic achievements.

XIV: Madrid, from 21 May to 4 June 2012. Conrado Duránte discloses among those attending the Treaty of Tordesillas agreed in 1494 by the Catholic Kings of Spain and the King of Portugal, Juan II, that it has a treaty of firmly Olympic values because it was one of the few that were set, not with the intention of ending a war, as it has historically been the most common purpose, but in order to avoid it, after the various perspectives that undoubtedly were bound to arise on new lands of the Americas.

XV: Ciudad de Guatemala (Guatemala), from 22 to 24 June 2013. Special Session on the occasion of the 150th anniversary of Pierre de Coubertin's birth.

XVI: Cascaís (Portugal), from 19 to 21 May 2014. Report about the various initiatives in education and promotion of the Olympic values in the respective countries by each of the delegations and discussions on future actions to be undertaken by the APAO.

XVII: Bogotá (Colombia), from 1 to 2 November 2016. Attendance of delegates representing the Olympic institutions in Europe, America and Africa.

The Pan-Iberian Association of Olympic Academies publishes biannually records of their congresses, in which the results of the works and interventions carried out are collected as well as the summary of activities during this period by each of the associated members. Likewise, an announcer Poster is printed out for each edition of the Association congresses.

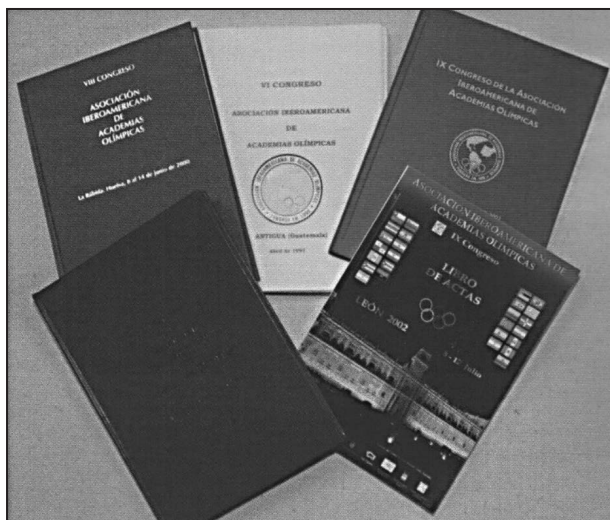


Fig. 10: Proceedings of the various Congresses containing agreements and subjects treated, as well as Olympic broadcast activities undertaken in the respective member countries.

7. The future of the Association

At present, the Panibarian Association of Olympic Academies is in good health and as Conrado Durántez says (2012):

I think the future is assured because it is an institution officially recognized and the day we, the Spaniards, will leave this, there will be someone behind who will take it and they will do well. It is a very cohesive group that is difficult to destroy, with common aspirations, a tradition, historical references, and during all these years we have organized recognized national activities in each of the member-countries.

The Association has made further progress towards “a final consolidation in which each member-country spreads the Olympic principles at school level, as well as promotes the creation of Olympic Studies Centres at Universities” (Durántez, 2012).

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DEVELOPMENT OF OLYMPIC STUDIES CHAIRS IN COLOMBIA

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Introduction

In Colombia, Olympic Studies Chairs exist and have been developing since 2010. The universities that have promoted these studies in the country are: Santo Tomas University (Bogota), University of Applied and Environmental Sciences (Bogota), the Military School of Cadets General José María Córdoba (Bogota), National Pedagogical University (Bogota), La Libre University (Pereira), National School of Sport and the Pontifical Bolivarian University.

The academic topics created by the Chairs are: Historical Aspects of Olympism; Modern Olympic Games; Olympic Values in Sport; The Colombian Olympic Committee, Sport and Environment; Women and Sport. The number of students participating in these courses is approximately 1,000 per semester.

Olympic Studies Chairs in Colombia

The Chair has been promoting Olympic values – such as excellence and friendship among young people in Colombia.

For the Colombian Olympic Committee and the Colombian Olympic Academy, the development of the Chairs of Olympic Studies in the country has been decisive, as it has been raising awareness and disseminating the Olympic values among university students.

The chair has six modules:

Module I (Origin of the Olympic Games)

- Ancient Olympic philosophy and its meaning
- Mythological origins of the ancient Olympic Games. Different versions: Pelops, Hercules, and the return of the Argonauts, the eagle of Zeus and others
- The Olympic Games, its origin and meaning. The Olympic Spirit. The Olive
- The Olympic Truce (776 BC)
- The Development of the Olympic Games. Competitions. Participants. Regulations. The Helanodices. The inclusiveness of the Olympic Games
- Olympic Values. Requirements to participate. The authorities of the Games. Type of venues
- Pindar's Olympian ode. Prizes and Distinctions. Sacred ceremonial of the athletes
- Other Panhellenic Games (Delph, Isthmian and Nemea). Meaning of each Panhellenic Games
- The end of the Games. Reasons of Theodosius to ban them (384 BC)

Module II (The Modern Olympic Games)

- Background. Sport organizations in England and the United States. The Franco-Prussian War. Thomas Arnold
- Baron Pierre de Coubertin. Henry Didon
- The international union of Physical Education. Sorbonne Conferences 1892, 1894. Dimitrios Vikelas and Georgios Averoff
- Development of the Olympic Games. Evolution until its current state. The symbolism in the original celebration in Athens (1896)
- The Olympic symbols: The Olympic Motto, Rings, Flag, Flame, Torch, Anthem, Oath
- Olympic Games as a pedagogical event for officers, coaches, coaching staff, athletes and the general public
- Olympic Games cancellation due to World War
- The Munich Olympics tragedy. Reasons and consequences

Module III (The International Olympic Movement)

- The International Olympic Committee. Organization
- International Sports Federations
- The Olympic Charter
- The International Olympic Academy. Carl Diem and Jean Ketseas
- Olympic Solidarity
- The Olympic Museum
- International Olympic events. Summer and Winter Games.
- Paralympics Games. The Youth Games Cultural festivals. Philately

Module IV (Olympism in Colombia)

- Colombian Olympic Committee. History. Organization. Social function in sports
- Colombian Olympic Academy. Educational function mainly in Olympic values
- Participation in the Olympic Games. Medals and achievements. The Colombian Olympic cycle
- Athlete selection, training and support
- National Sports Organization. Federations and leagues
- Relations with the National Government. Coldeportes, Ministry of National Education. Health and social protection. Ministry of Culture
- Relations to the media and society
- Participation of State and the Olympic Cycle
- Influence in schools and universities in order to promote sports
- National capacity to improve our sport performance in proportion with population size and national wealth

Module V (Olympism in Colombia)

- Olympic spirit and values
- Modern Olympic Truce. Can it be possible?
- Sports, culture and health
- Olympic sports, harmony and tolerance
- Sports and their contribution to international cooperation
- Sports and social sustainable development. Sports, mind and body

- Sophrology as a method to perfect and to discipline the mind of the Olympic athlete and their receptivity to values

Module VI (Challenges of the Olympic Movement in the XXI Century)

- Olympism and the culture of peace
- Olympism and a vehicle to eliminate discrimination
- Olympic Games and the ethnic, cultural and gender inclusion
- Olympism and the environment
- Main threat against the Olympic spirit (doping, stimulants and other illegal performance-enhancing drugs; educational deficiencies; match fixing/ manipulation; commercial interests; political interference; boycotts; media influence and social networks).

The first Chair was founded at the University of Applied and Environmental Sciences (Bogota) (UDCA) and its main activities have been the creation of a “committee elite” by experts in philosophy, history, economics, politics, scientific research, environmental studies and sport policies, all actively involved with Olympism.

Also, every semester the “Students Committee of the Chair” are in charge of numerous activities, such as the “Olympic Week” which includes competitions, the “Sport Trial” and the “Olympic Forum”, in which various sport leaders, Olympic athletes, scientists and artists participate.

Additionally, Pierre de Coubertin’s name was given to the UDCA’s main coliseum in his honor. This ceremony was attended by directors of the Colombian Olympic Committee, members of the Colombian Olympic Academy, the Heads of the University, partners from the different Chairs in the country as well as Mr Conrado Duránte, who is the director of the Ibero-American Olympic Academies. In this context, two special sessions were held, organized by the University and by the Colombian Olympic Committee respectively.

It is important to highlight that the most significant activity has been the “Olympic Literacy”, which is a project developed by the students of the Chair and it involves more than 1,500 people – from schools, high schools, communities and centers – in activities relating to various aspects of Olympism. Finally, since the UDCA is located in Bogota, it is possible to attend all the events organized by the Colombian Olympic Committee, such as social gatherings and talks.

The UDCA, as a member of the Colombian Olympic Academy, is also committed to the development of the International Chair of Olympism with the support of the Autonomous University of Barcelona, to promote cooperation between the Olympic Movement and universities, especially in the field of Social Sciences and the Humanities.

The university also spreads the philosophy of Olympism – a state of balance between body and soul, spirit and matter – proving with its work that the Olympic values go beyond the sport and are realized through a holistic education.

While Olympism is enjoyed by the students who are involved in physical activity, its historical and social evolution is highly ignored by large portions of the population, who are unaware of its values and inspiring principles. To tackle this problem, Olympic-related subjects – mandatory in the fourth semester – are being taught to 40 students every semester, four hours per week.

The University Santo Tomas (Bogota) promoted the Chair in 2010 and raised the interest of many students in Olympism, by teaching them its history, its spiritual dimension and its relation to Greek mythology, and by reflecting on the future of the Games. Additionally, topics such as the development of the London Olympic Games and the excellent Colombian participation at the Olympic Games in Rio 2016 were also highlighted.

The most relevant activities developed by the chair have been the participation at the celebration of Pierre de Coubertin (2013), attendance of social gatherings, visit of Conrado Duránte to the campus and the encounter of universities which hold a Chair of Olympic Studies.

Also in Bogota, the Military School Jose Maria Cordoba proclaimed the Chair in 2012 with the aim to stimulate the interest of Physical Education to the principles of Olympism, in order to promote values such as peace and respect for human rights and the environment, grounded in the work and ideas of Pierre de Coubertin.

Moreover, the Chair is involved in the domain of social sciences and the humanities through the academic module “Physical Education and Society”, which is taught for four hours per week to approximately 100 students.

Some of the most important activities were the visit of Conrado Duránte; obtaining the quota to attend the Session for sports leaders in Greece in 2015; the promotion and dissemination of unknown sports (Korfball, Fistball); and the World Games in Cali, Colombia, in 2013.

Subsequently, the National Pedagogical University (Bogota) proclaimed the Chair in 2013, teaching 60 students every semester. The most important achievement has been the creation of the Seeds Research group: Pedagogy – Memory of sport Practice – Integration of Academic Research Group and Academic Studios of Sport.

In the center of the country, in Pereira, the Universidad Libre held a conference in 2009 under the title: “Pierre de Coubertin and the Modern Olympic Games”. The aim of the Chair is to establish the subject of Olympic Studies in the curriculum of all academic programs targeting 350 students per semester.

In the west of the country, the Pontifical Bolivarian University inaugurated a similar Chair in 2013. The course offered on Olympism was elective and the most important activities then were an exhibition that included posters about athletes embodying the Olympic Spirit and inspiring approximately 80 university students and the preparation of degree diplomas, as well as the visit of the Colombian Olympic Committee members.

Finally, the National School of Sports (IU END) inaugurated the “Olympic Values” Chair in 2012, with the aim of studying Olympism as a transcendental element in the formation of a culture of peace thus supplying a privileged means to promote values that ensure peaceful coexistence, the validity of the right order, respect for human rights and the environment. Every semester, the Chair hosts approximately 180 students in a session of two hours per week.

The most representative achievements are: the realization of two Olympic social gatherings by the Colombian Olympic Committee, “The position of the city of Cali as sports capital of Colombia” and “Fair Play to the Planet, World Games Cali 2013”; these activities promoted social contact previous to the World Games of 2013. There was also a Philately and Olympism Workshop as well as the celebration of the International Day of Sport for Development and Peace in the years 2014, 2015 and 2016. Also, there was participation and attendance of meetings held by the Chairs of Olympic Studies conducted by the Colombian Olympic Committee; and finally, this year the Olympic Day was celebrated for the first time in the Valle del Cauca with the participation of IU END.

With the objective that the National Government has, through the Administrative Department of Sport, Recreation, Physical Activity and the

Development of Free Time (Coldeportes), which is to turn the country into a continental sports power, the Committee accelerated the development of sport in Colombia and has deployed a series of strategies that contribute to this process. for this reason, the strengthening of the Olympic Movement through universities with programs of Physical Education and Sports has been decisive.

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IMPORTANCE OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF VOLUNTARY SPORTS PROGRAMS WITH A SOCIAL APPROACH IN GUATEMALA

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Summary

Volunteering is becoming increasingly important in the world, aiming to involve civil society in the solution of various problems in various countries. In Guatemala there is a wide gap on issues of social inequality, lack of opportunities and limited access to education, triggering high levels of violence that affects the most vulnerable and those at risk of joining criminal groups: children and youth in marginal urban areas. In the following document, a solution to this problem is presented through the involvement of young athletes in sports volunteering by means of mentoring, focused on principles and Olympic values.

What is a volunteer

A volunteer is a person that is sensitized and solidary with the problems of the society around him and decides to assist unselfishly with the only satisfaction of knowing that he is contributing by doing a service to people in need or to society in general.

There are six types of volunteering, according to area of application: social, communal, cultural, environmental, citizen groups collaboration and international aid. Certainly the most widespread type in our society is the social volunteering.

The impact of volunteers in the world

Volunteering worldwide has proliferated as a solution to a governance deficit across countries; although there has been progress in human development matter, there is still a large gap to reach. According to the United Nations report of 2015

"Volunteerism is a powerful way to engage citizens to meet the challenges of development and can transform the pace and nature of it. Volunteerism benefits society as well as volunteers, strengthening trust, solidarity and reciprocity among people and creating appropriate opportunities for participation."

For development agendas to be possible it is necessary that people and civil society get involved to provide solutions to the various problems that exist. A report from the United Nations Volunteerism, highlights the ability of it to promote peace and development.

It is necessary to create environments and governments that give opportunities and support citizen participation so that these initiatives can have an impact. It is noteworthy that, through volunteering, excluded and marginalized communities social can be reached.

In this document we analyze the situation and vulnerability of youth belonging to criminal groups from an early age, also the different volunteer programs that exist in Guatemala, and the importance of implementing and strengthening programs of educational volunteerism to enhance the teaching of principles and Olympic values through sport.

Volunteerism has been part of the Olympic Movement since the beginning of the Olympic Games in the modern age, founded by Baron Pierre de Coubertin; however, its development is very prominent in the 80s and 90s.

According to a document prepared by Ana Belen Moreno of the Centre d'Estudis Olímpics i de l'Esport, UAB, Spain, titled "Volunteers, Global Society and the Olympic Movement":

Sports volunteers, including Olympic volunteers, provide an example of solidarity and selfless work, not only for the organization and administration of the Olympic Games, but also for the promotion of the spirit of service and solidarity in our present-day society as a whole.

It continues:

The importance of the Olympic Volunteer Movement lies in the following:

- *From the political point of view, it represents the uniting of individual energies into a common project, a new form of participation and the expression of a great public momentum.*
- *From the economic point of view, the Olympic volunteers lead to a major reduction in salary costs and, if adequate training is provided, the result could be a more-highly qualified population.*

- *From the cultural point of view, volunteerism involves basic education in multi-culturalism and solidarity.*

According to this document, volunteerism has always been part of the Olympic Movement and has primarily aimed to contribute to the development of sport events from different perspectives.

Current situation in Guatemala

Guatemala is a multiethnic, multilingual and multicultural country where indigenous Maya, Garifuna and Xinca represent more than 50% of the total population.

According to the Inter-American Commission of Human Rights (Chapter IV on the Situation of Indigenous People):

Indigenous people have been discriminated in Guatemala for ethnic reasons; they constitute a big part of the poor population or live in extreme poverty and are the majority in areas with the highest level of exclusion.

The exclusion of indigenous people is so high that approx. 40% of them live in extreme poverty and nearly 80% are suffering from poor literacy rates and have the lowest incomes in Guatemala.

The effects of violence and vulnerability of young people towards becoming criminals

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines violence as “the intentional use of physical force or power, either threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, a group or community, that causes or is likely to result in injury, death, psychological damage, developmental disorder or deprivation”. The phenomenon of violence has become a major concern for the Guatemalan population. In a UNDP study (2007), which conducted a survey in the municipality of Guatemala, 61.5% of respondents perceive violence as the main problem that affects them.

Violence has several “actors”. On one hand, people that are victims of violence, on the other hand, those who carry it out called victimizers and a third group, which has a high probability of also existing, called “Population at Risk”. Finally, there are also groups that are responsible for preventing and punishing these crimes.

It is believed that one of the ways to eradicate violence and prevent it is the conviction of those who commit it, as well as the formulation and application of laws that punish it.

However, this type of policies have not worked due to the fact that security and justice institutions have not been able to punish most of the acts of crime and furthermore promote the reintegration of offenders in society.

There are youth at risk of being criminals. The youth population at risk is defined by people who, due to various factors that have affected their lives, leads them to have behaviors that are harmful to themselves and their communities. Some risk characteristics are: living in urban or peri-urban poor areas; exposure to high levels of domestic violence; poor quality education, which self-expels them from the system; difficulty in finding employment; playing an “adult” role at an early age (for example, more frequently in common-law relationships and with children); and drug use.

Risk factors for the entry of youth in gangs in Central America

Risk factors	Gangsters (%)	Youth in risk situation (%)
Marital Status		
Single	65	83
Married	5	8
Common-law relationship	30	9
Children	42	17
Education (up to sixth grade)	65	90
Presently attends an education center	26	46
Father reads	91	97
Presently lives with:		
Family	70	90
Others	30	10
Bad memories from childhood:		
Violent family environment	45	25
Family abandonment	42	21
Death in the family	34	20
Abuse within the family	28	11
Family or a friend in a gang	34	13
Always gets together with friends as an activity	71	48

Source: Demoscopia (2007).

The study surveyed 595 gang members in five Central American countries. Also 608 young people at risk were surveyed.

Nowadays there are some state programs aimed to prevent violence and also some successful experiences implemented by civil society organizations. It must be added that despite the efforts made by the Ministry of Education, the school system still fails to retain students throughout their childhood and adolescence; also there is little access to the labor market. Two thirds of young people find work in the informal market only; this does not represent good opportunities for development and income.

The alternative to reduce violence is betting on prevention

The main axis upon which a policy of prevention should be built is found in the population vulnerable to become offenders: young people, especially men, in poor urban areas, subjected to domestic violence.

We must take into account the need to make efforts, especially in geographic terms: most problematic neighborhoods and municipalities. The former involves generating a support system to compile information on the offenders' motivations that will generate targeted actions with success. A World Bank study (2008) identifies a number of programs that could be implemented in this regard:

Remedial education programs and programs of continuous learning

- New models of job training for young people
- Supervised after-school programs
- Youth service programs
- Mentoring programs
- Education for life
- Specific support for young entrepreneurs

According to the World Bank study (2008), the implementation of specific policies for young people is necessary because they respond to different stimuli than the rest of the population. Factors such as peer pressure, the formation of identity and the need for independence have greater impact on young people than on children or adults.

Implementation of programs on sports volunteering as a way of promoting education, principles and values based on the Olympic Movement

It is necessary to involve young athletes to achieve full awareness of the current situation of the country's inequality and violence. It is also necessary to use their leadership and credibility, as well as utilize that being athletes allows them to transmit positive values to children and school pupils in vulnerable urban areas called "marginal" with the risk of being involved in criminal groups.

This is why volunteer programs must be created, with different teaching and learning processes through various resources available. The best antidote to fight against many of the problems that our society is facing is prevention.

Sergio Vargas, Project Coordinator of the Guatemalan Olympic Academy, has knowledge of these needs and has found that the various Sessions of the Olympic Academy were developed from an educational perspective on the Olympic Movement but have not been able to capitalize the implementation of those involved, as very few of the young people who have studied the issue that involves the development of the Olympic Movement in relation to Guatemala. Therefore, it seeks to encourage them to become part of the change and turn into positive agents for future generations.

Vargas talks about the visit that was held in Guatemala by Steve Mesler, Olympic medalist, who is also founder and creator of the educational program "Classroom Champions" in USA and CANADA. This program seeks for athletes that will become involved with the educational community through mentoring and aims at a role model to be played by young athletes using as basis the educational part of the Olympic Movement. Based on this "My Olympic friend" was created in Guatemala in order to promote principles and values through sport.

Currently, two types of programs are being developed: The first one seeks to create awareness in the child to know the Olympic Movement, and the other, which is major impact aims to involve the athlete directly in a classroom with regular mentoring visits, workingg on values and Olympic principles. These programs are currently on their initial phase and are soon to be developed in various educational programs in the country.

Conclusions

Volunteering has the ability to involve civil society in the solution of various problem in countries worldwide.

We may conclude that volunteering must involve young athletes in various volunteer programs in order to contribute to the building of a better and more peaceful society.

Preventing violence is the best antidote for building a better society; this is why it is important to reach and educate young people and children who are most vulnerable and at greater risk.

Young athletes play a major role as role models in society and must make use of this advantage in order to contribute to the development of a better country.

The basis of Olympism is essential for education through sport and its implementation through dynamic ways is necessary in order to improve the level of acceptance in children and young people under constant monitoring and interaction.

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THE *DOMESTIQUE* CYCLIST AND THE SACRIFICE

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Introduction

Road cycling has some very unique characteristics regarding the way in which victory is achieved. These particularities are due to the way in which athletes compete in this sport. The most famous form of race is the “tours”, where athletes travel long distances through commonly used roads linking towns and villages, situated between the highest mountains and lowland roads at sea level.

Popular among Europeans, as it originated in this continent, cycling has competitions with such a long tradition that they have become true monuments and an institution in contemporary sports. Among the most prominent events, “Giro d’Italia”, “Vuelta de España” and especially the “Tour de France” stand out – in fact, two of them, “Tour de France” and “Giro d’Italia” have been organized for more than one century, since 1903 and 1909 respectively.

To succeed in these competitive journeys, athletes are being supported directly and indirectly: indirectly, mainly by a caravan of vehicles with mechanics, a technical director, a physician and others, who accompany the squad throughout the course of competition; directly, by one or more athletes known as *domestiques* cyclists. The function of *domestiques* cyclists is literally to donate their energy, sacrifice their performance and results to support and enhance the conditions and chances of success for the leader of their team.

As such, road cycling involves an intricate and complex strategic game; the road takes the form of a real chess board where athletes participate in a campaign to promote and defend the victory of the team’s captain. A team is

formed by cyclists who – according to their specialties, skills, and the distinct functions they serve – take on the front of this battle to ensure their captain's victory against opponents, ground difficulties, forces of nature and even against unpredictable accidents.

During competition, the whole tactic is grounded in a kind of manipulation of wind resistance, creating formations which act as aerodynamic vacuums that reduce the cyclist's wear. This is why cyclists get together in "squads" during races, because athletes in the first place, usually *domestiques*, wear out with their "face against the wind" by reducing wind resistance for other cyclists and saving the energy of their leaders. This is one reason why the basic unit of road cycling is collective, a team. In road cycling, a strong leader cannot win without the support of a team. And a strong team cannot win without a strong leader.¹

Another factor of this condition is that in road cycling, though the victorious athlete relies upon individual and collective efforts of an active team inside and outside the game, formal recognition is only individual. Despite having only one stage, the sport in the Olympic Games is also played with such features and stratagems. In this case, when the function of *domestiques* is present, we have direct applicants to an Olympic medal for sacrificing their success for another athlete's victory of another athlete – in this case, an athlete of their own delegation.

A *domestique* enters the playing field not in pursuit of personal victory but to assist in the victory of his team leader – a condition which is unique in contemporary professional sport.²

The condition of *domestique* in cycling that takes up a series of collective actions in the dispute makes it a unique practice and dissimilar to individual modalities for being characterized as the sacrifice of an athlete in favor of another athlete that, even being on the same team, is an opponent in the formal field of dispute and competition. For an athlete in the condition of *domestique*, this practice entails values and imaginary representations which seem to contradict the fundamental principles of contemporary sports, where the ultimate goal is to win.³

1. Brewer, 2002.

2. Rubio, 2006.

3. Rubio, 2006.

Historical contextualization of the emergence of the “gregarious” practice in cycling

To contextualize the *domestique* condition in road cycling, it is necessary to look at the structure, history, and institutional basis of this particularity in cycling. A striking feature of this mode is that its development throughout the 20th century occurred simultaneously with major cycling competitions. Understanding the format of road cycling is essential for understanding the origin and role of *domestiques* cyclists. For this purpose, a brief explanation of major competitions follows.

The three “tours” have similar structures in terms of competition format. All three are held in twenty-one daily stages, covering more than two hundred kilometers per day and with only two days of rest in total. Each segment is generally the distance between two municipalities and the whole journey runs across fields, mountains, villages and up through the center of towns, forming a large “belt” in the country in which the event is held. Considered to be the most strenuous competitions in the world, athletes who participate in these tours travel more than three thousand kilometers in just twenty-one days. Victory is achieved by the athlete who completes all stages in the shortest time, thanks to the favourable conditions provided by his *domestiques* and other team workers.⁴ According to research data, this modality was already integrated the first edition of the Olympic Games of the modern era, held in 1896 in the city of Athens.

To avoid focusing excessively on historical facts, I will limit myself to pointing out only certain events and periods that led to professionalism in cycling. Benjamin Brewer analyses the institutional transformations of cycling from the '50s onwards and divides professional cycling into three phases: 1950–1984 (classical period or pre-reform period); 1984–1989 (rapid change or reform period); and post-reform or contemporary period.⁵

4. All the basic information on these events can be obtained from their respective official websites: Tour de France: www.letour.fr; Giro d'Italia: <http://www.gazzetta.it/Speciali/Giroditalia/2013/en/index.shtml>; Vuelta a España: www.lavuelta.com

5. Brewer, 2002.

Classical period (1950–1984)

According to the author, this was the maturation period of what he calls “the most popular sport in Western Europe”. In relation to athletes, the period is marked by little technical expertise and strong hierarchy between leader and *domestiques*. Teams consisted of less than fifteen athletes and a few support workers – one or two mechanics, a director and an assistant, and a professional who was responsible for the health and recovery of athletes.

Until the '50s, such teams were funded by bicycle factories. The first sponsorship by non-sports companies occurred in 1953 and 1954, by Nivea beauty products and St. Raphael aperitif brand. However, sponsorship was still low and did not allow high salaries and infrastructure development.

According to Brewer, the teams would be hierarchically organized around a leader and cyclists who lacked talent or charisma were relegated to subordinate *domestique* work. Moreover, cyclists would work at other jobs during off-season.⁶

For historian George Nicholson, few sports have a hierarchy system as rigid as cycling. In his description, after the leader, the team had one or two athletes that he called “Seniors protected” and the others just *domestiques*. The author also suggests that due to this, many talents were “burned” before they had the chance to show their skills. In addition, cycling was practised by lower-class children and only leaders earned enough money to support themselves and keep training, but few became rich.⁷

As such, many cyclists came to experience similar conditions and difficulties during races, which lasted for numerous days, and this created an atmosphere of brotherhood among them which led to a sort of code of conduct known as “rules of the road”; moreover, leaders were also respected by athletes of other teams.

The formation of teams as it is known today, with the consolidation of the role of the *domestiques*, is founded on practical reasons and basic survival needs. The fact that confirms this idea occurred during the 1953 Tour de France, when French Louison Bobet, convinced a group of workers and runners to sacrifice their chances of success on his behalf and in return they would receive part of the awards in case of victory.⁸

6. Brewer, 2002.

7. Nicholson, 1991.

8. Woodland, 2000, p. 163–164.

For Brewer, this type of arrangement was characteristic of the classical period and started being used in small towns and villages of France and Belgium, where the Tour de France was held. These small races represented the “dorsal spine” of cyclists’ performance. From then on, team leaders began to include their *domestiques* in the contracts, rewarding them during the season.⁹

In summary, the classical period was marked by new financial arrangements, rigid hierarchical structure, low wages and little interaction with the science of medicine and training. However, given these conditions, the role of *domestique* was reinforced.

Transition and reform period (1984–1989)

1984 was the year of the modern cycling revolution, because it was marked by significant developments in the field of training and team structure, while there was a major increase in the participation of non-European cyclists in “tours”, especially from Colombia.

The arrival of American cyclist Greg LeMond represented one of the most important changes in the structure of the sport, especially regarding negotiations and wages. The athlete signed a contract with the traditional French team La Vie Claire, organized by Bernard Hinault – one of the greatest idols of French cycling. With rigid negotiation style, the athlete won a contract of one million dollars for three years. The millionaire contract of LeMond quickly caused a wave of increases in the salaries of team stars and the French executive of La Vie Claire, Bernard Tapie, signed several stars in an attempt to bring professional cycling into the 20th century.¹⁰

It is noteworthy that in this period, the commercialization of sport was increased by private investments in profitable projects such as broadcasting rights and sponsorship, as the involvement of sports equipment manufacturers such as Adidas and Puma, boosting the professional structure of the sport, demonstrate.¹¹

Although the intra-team structure remained similar to that of the classical period, this new trend seems to have caused changes in the relationships

9. Brewer, 2002.

10. Brewer, 2002.

11. Smit, 2007.

within the team, helping to establish the role of *domestique*. The author quotes a testimony of Andy Hampstein – one of the La Vie Claire’s *domestiques* – who states that personal victory is secondary. According to the athlete, what’s important is that one of La Vie Claire cyclists wins and they (the team) always work for each other. The philosophy of these athletes is that La Vie Claire was the captain and all should work and sacrifice their strength for the team.¹²

This period demonstrates a transition from the small investments of bicycle manufacturers in the Classical Period to the sophisticated marketing structure of large corporations who followed the commercial and sport trends at the time.

Institutional reform: globalization campaign

In this transitional period, several trends of sport began to influence professional cycling. Cycling was in a standstill and major changes were produced by the actions of the then new president of FICP,¹³ Hein Verbruggen. According to Verbruggen, cycling was an “old stopped train”, partly due to the competitive structure of teams, which were based on a “lonely star” (leader), who was attempting to win in all competitions. This scheme was a kind of card marking, where *domestiques* controlled¹⁴ the races, thus rendering competition unattractive and its outcome predictable. Other reasons that according to the president led to the stagnation of cycling were corruption and doping.

Verbruggen took three actions that became the pillars of institutional restructuring: globalization of the sport; creation of the world cycling cup; and creation of a ranking system for the competitions.

Contemporary period

The classical period’s structure of the “lonely star” was a risk to the sponsor who saw his chances of space in the media deposited on the expectation of victory

12. Brewer, 2002, p. 286.

13. Fédération Internationale du Cyclisme Professionnel.

14. To control a race means a series of actions undertaken by *domestiques* to undermine any action that may change the result and that does not favor their leader. The most common is the action to annul all opponents’ attacks. When all teams carry out the same strategy, competition loses its dynamics, making the result predictable.

for only one athlete. Given the rationalization of capital investment, the new intra-team structure reduced these risks. In the '90s, the changes which were suggested during the reform period were truly institutionalized. In the teams' organizing structure, the most important modification was the dissolution of the rigid hierarchy between fixed leaders and subordinates *domestiques*. The ranking system seems to have consolidated the *domestique* condition into professionalism, while allowing greater visibility and better contracts. In the words of the Australian "gregarious" Alan Peiper:

*So points became really important. Points really became money. The old system of team leaders and domestiques was to be undermined. [...] With no points, domestiques had no bargaining power at the end of the year. When it came time to talk contract, the sprints you had led out and the work you had done became overshadowed by "how many points do you have". Domestiques began to be inspired by points, and the desire to do well grew.*¹⁵

Under these conditions, teams began to perform egalitarian agreements, bringing to the team several athletes with talent to take leadership of the team in one race. This provides the traffic of functions on different types of races. Under this condition, a *domestique* in a particular race can become a leader in favorable route and conditions. In addition to breaking hierarchies, this system allows teams to accumulate more wins during the season.

Brewer compared the structure of the *domestique* function of the classical period with that of the contemporary period and highlighted the existence of a type of *domestique* athlete (contemporary) that emerged in the visibility relationships and with a certain degree of fame by the media. It is a *domestique* with remarkable talents to take on the status of captain and leader of a team, which the author calls "super *domestiques*", but who chooses a career as a sacrificial worker as a way to alleviate or escape the pressures inherent to professional sports. This is a completely different condition of *domestiques* from the classical period, when no such possibility existed.¹⁶

In the contemporary period, the financial structure that sustains the teams follows the same characteristics of sport organizations seen in other modalities. For the athletes, this organization is reflected in wages never seen before in this

15. Peiper (1992), in Brewer (2002), p. 290.

16. Brewer, 2002.

sport. Despite there being a good degree of hierarchy in cycling, the *domestiques* also became employed with good salaries. The career and livelihood factor seems to be a motivational factor in the *domestique* function in road cycling. This is evident in the statement of Murilo Fischer, who represented Brazil in road cycling in the Olympic Games of Sydney, Athens, Beijing and London. Fischer is a member the French team Française de Jeux and competes for Western European teams for over ten years always as *domestique*:

*To have a long career, you need to be honest and do what has to be done. This is a mentality that is learned with time. Today, being honest, I do not think about winning. Throughout my career as a professional I have always done my job. (...) Today, it is more difficult to find cyclists committed with this, people willing to work, and this, I believe, has made the difference.*¹⁷

However, the UCI ranking points stimulate competitiveness also for *domestiques*, who participate in races more aggressively in order to obtain good ranking. As said before, a good position in the UCI ranking points allows greater visibility and good contracts. Thus, major changes in the dynamics of competition were observed, as today we no longer have the passive *domestiques* of the classical period. The contemporary *domestique*, in addition to working for the victory of their leader, undertakes a journey of personal motivations. Ironically, competitiveness and level of racing increased, making the victory of leaders increasingly difficult. Australian *domestique* Adam Hansen entered the 2012 season for a select group of 32 athletes who managed to complete the three “Tours” in the same year, being the only athlete to achieve this feat this season. Regarding the competitive performance of the contemporary *domestique*, Hansen says:

*It was a great personal achievement. As a domestique, it is very difficult to establish my own goals and fight for them. This is not my role in the team. Doing something so hard was really nice for me. [...] I think this is what I have done. I am not the leader of my team, I am not a great champion, but I have a solid career.*¹⁸

17. *Revista*, Vo2Max, 2013, p. 16.

18. *Revista*, Vo2Max, 2013, p. 16–17.

Concluding remarks

Road cycling is known for being a sport of collective effort and individual consecration. In the podium, in the celebration of victory, the light that finds the hero form in its shadow the face of the gregarious.

The strategies played throughout the competition turn cycling into a game of chess with the accomplishment of a team game in a single modality, favoring the individual figure of the captain. Gregarious cyclists, like soldiers on the front line ensure the success of a strategy aimed at facilitating the victory of the captain, highlighting an attitude of selflessness and unusual sacrifice in the sport that values competition and the pursuit of excellence capable of generating victory.

What the life stories of these athletes highlight is that the concept of ethics in sport and fair play necessarily involves understanding of the culture and history of the sport in question. The nobility of the performance of pawn on the chessboard placed in check throughout the competition, promotes the brightness of the king and continuity in other games, which may or may not be played on the same board. This form of competing reinforces and enhances the heroic character of the athlete that gives up the conquest, which is the desire of those who dedicate their lives to arrive in first place.

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OLYMPISM IS PRAXIS: ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION ACTION SPORTS, SUSTAINABILITY, AND THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

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Introduction

Sustainability is an emerging field worldwide in politics, sciences, and in sports pedagogy. It seems a challenge for academics to find a mutual definition for sustainability. However, the common goal of sustainability is to uphold the future's resource base to allow for an indefinite support for environmental and social conditions, maximising human security, quality of life, and well-being (McMichael et al., 2003). Environmental protection and sustainability remain a global focus, and the Olympic Movement has also thrown its considerable weight behind this issue as it works to promote peace. The Olympic Movement aims to create an environment in which sustainable development can take place. In order to achieve this goal, sport is utilised as a key means to communicate with young people around the world, educating them on the benefits of physical activity and the importance of sustainable development. Sustainability in sport is not about presenting consistently good results in forms of medals and sponsorships. It is, in fact, about the development and maintenance of environments and behaviours that make efficient and ethical use of resources (Barker et al., 2014). Barker and colleagues (2014) state that sportspeople may be viewed as role models for environmental protection, as they have the capacity to demonstrate honest, fair, compassionate and empathetic behaviour within competitive and hard working environments.

It may be proposed that, of all sportspeople, action sports participants are at the forefront of environmental protection due to their cultural core values

and interconnectedness with the natural environment. This statement may seem somewhat controversial given that action sports and their participants have often been considered to be somewhat deviant. Action sports generally encapsulate high risk activities such as BASE (building, antenna, span, and earth) jumping, snowboarding, surfing and bicycle motocross (BMX), just to name a few. Action sports participants are generally viewed as risk takers, and research often does not take into account the dependency of action sports on the natural environment. Yet, one of the defining factors of action sports is that they take place in the natural environment. Snowboarding and free-skiing are impossible without snow. The same can be said of skydiving and BASE jumping without the wind, and surfing without water and its waves. This current research follows in the footsteps of scholars promoting the argument that action sports participants utilise nature as a learning environment and this subsequently impacts on their willingness to contribute to environmental suitability (e.g., Brymer, 2009; Brymer and Gray, 2010). However, to my knowledge, there is no previous research on action sports participants and Olympism in relation to environmental sustainability. Therefore, this article seeks to bridge the gap between environmental protection and the Olympic ethos through the means of action sport participation.

Olympism in praxis

The objective of Baron Pierre de Coubertin, acknowledged founder of the modern Olympic Games, was “to place sport at the service of the harmonious development of humankind, with a view to promoting a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of human dignity” (*Olympic Charter*, 2015, p. 13). Today, we refer to this way of life as *Olympism*. In order to achieve the goal of Olympism through the means of youth-education and sport, the Olympic Movement was established in 1894. The first modern Olympic Games took part in Athens just two years later. The Olympic Movement is comprised of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), the International Sports Federations (IFS) and the National Olympic Committees (NOCs). One of the Olympic Movement’s roles is to promote environmental protection, which became the third pillar of Olympism during the Centennial Olympic Congress in 1994. As such, an additional role of the IOC became “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” (*Olympic Charter*, 2015, p. 19).

Athletes require space in which they can train and compete, as well as nutritious food, clean water and unpolluted air to breathe. In a contradictory fashion, however, sports and recreational activities have the potential to negatively impact the natural environment, particularly when it comes to global sporting mega-events. For example, international sporting events, such as the Football World Cup and the Olympic Games, have continued to grow in popularity and scope; hence, there has been an increasing amount of energy consumed, resources used, and trash produced. To counteract this, the International Olympic Committee Sport and Environmental Commission was established in 1995. The aim of this commission is to promote awareness and provide education around environmental sustainability. Additionally, it focuses on the cities bidding to host the Olympic Games to meet standards of sustainable development (IOC Sport and Environmental Commission, 2003). For example, countries hosting the Olympics are aiming for ‘Green Games’ in which they focus on keeping carbon emissions to a minimum and encourage the recycling of waste and water. For the first time in Olympic history, the carbon footprint estimated for the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympics was mitigated before the Games even commenced (Piccolrovazzi, 2014). In recognition of these efforts, in 2014 the Olympic Movement was awarded the International Star Award for Energy Efficiency by the Alliance to Save Energy, a non-profit coalition advocating for energy efficiency across all sectors of the economy.

However, it is argued that real change in sustainable practice will occur from an ‘inside-out’ perspective (Porter and Reinhardt, 2007) in which individuals understand how their actions impact the environment through changes of attitudes and everyday behaviours (Gifford, 2007). Using sports participation as an avenue of education, it is important for the Olympic Movement that athletes change their way of thinking. Interpreting the Olympic philosophy correctly, Olympism envisages athletes and coaches alike apply ‘sustainability thinking’ (Barker et al. 2014). Here, it is not about the gold medal or prize money, but rather the healthy side effects from sports participation, such as health and well-being, the development of collective identities and social networks, and a contribution to human capital development (Barker et al. 2014). Although it

might appear that high performance sports are contradictory to sustainability thinking, results by Rynne and Mallett (2014) suggest otherwise. They concluded that participation in sport at the highest levels “may actually encourage learning and facilitate sustainable practices” (p. 23). This could be achieved through reflection as it allows us to learn from mistakes and make adjustments to the current practice, resulting in sustainable practice from the ‘inside-out’.

Action sports

Action sports generally take part in the natural environment, whether this involves a surfer out in the ocean, a snowboarder and rock climber in the mountains, or a skydiver in the air. Action sports participants generally engage in their sport alone or in small peer groups, as they look to avoid supervision or authority. While some demonstrate their skills at events and competitions which also offer networking opportunities, most grass-root participants only seek to compete against the unpredictability of the natural environment (Puchan, 2004; Brymer and Gray, 2010). Driven by creativity and self-realisation, action sports participants are determined to continuously invent new, and progress old skills.

Action sports such as surfing, skateboarding, BMX, and rock climbing rose to prominence in the 1960s as a means for freedom-seeking youth to escape what they considered to be an over-controlled society. Contemporary action sports continue to be most popular with youthful demographics (i.e., Generations Y [born 1980–90s] and Z [born 1995–2010]). The commercial potential of action sports was first realised through the introduction of the ‘eXtreme Games’ in 1995 (now called XGames) by the US broadcasting channel ESPN. Since that time, new media technologies and Web2.0 have meant that action sport participants are able to communicate on a global level by instantly posting, sharing and commenting on the latest trends, tricks and their progressions. In a short period of time, the small peer group of action sport participants became an international community connected through the Internet and social media. Marketing has had a growing impact on athletes themselves, their lifestyles, and the environment as the purchases they make are seen to be an extension of their personal identity. As such, action sport participants have been identified as influential consumers of products and services resulting in this emerging megatrend (Burgin and Hardiman, 2012; CSIRO, 2013).

By reason of the mainstreaming of action sports, and their global impact, large international sporting events such as the Olympic Games are adapting to meet the needs of today's consumers. In order to remain attractive to Generations Y and Z, sporting organisations such as the IOC have sought to embrace the values of action sports in order to remain competitive to other events such as the XGames (Honea, 2013). This has since led to the inclusion of snowboarding, free-skiing and BMX in the Olympic Program.

Yet, due to their counter-cultural values, action sports do not fully conform to the characteristics of traditional sports. This tension has resulted in dissension between sporting organisations and participants of action sports. For example, snowboarding was added to the Olympic Program under the International Federation of Skiing instead of the International Snowboard Federation. Due to fear of losing their culture and core values to commercialisation, snowboarders such as Terje Hakonsen boycotted the 1998 Olympic Games. However, to further promote the Olympic Movement and its values of bringing people from different age groups and cultural backgrounds together, additional action sports such as skateboarding, surfing, and rock climbing are striving to be added to the 2020 Olympic Program. Furthermore, the Olympic Movement and the action sports community could potentially be aligned through sustainability thinking and the environmental protection.

Action sports and nature

Despite the interconnections between action sports participants and their natural environment, there are issues in regard to environmental damage (e.g., rock erosions, vegetation and wildlife disturbances). However, in order to counteract this, purpose-built tracks are constructed by governments to minimise illegal trail networks due to the fast-growing sport and leisure industry.

Some scholars argue that individuals only contribute to environmental sustainability if their practice results in personal gain. Examples include recycling glass and plastic bottles with the incentive of earning money, or investing in fuel efficient cars to later minimise expenses on fuel (Brymer, 2009; Schultz, 2002). Similarly, Brymer (2009) addressed the assumption that action sports participants show interest in sustainability solely for their own benefit of using the natural environment to silence their thrill-seeking urge. However,

Brymer (2009) discovered that by participating in an action sport in the natural environment, the sportsperson will likely “partake in sustainable practices out of care and commitment to the natural world” (p. 202).

High profile cases are certainly not rare. For example, Kelly Slater, consistently one of the world’s best professional surfers, is passionate about preserving the oceans and is raising funds for the protection and rehabilitation of coral reefs worldwide. Furthermore, Australia’s best Trials rider, Janine Jungfels, studied environmental sciences and is now working as a National Parks Ranger protecting the Queensland hinterland environment.

Nature offers multiple affordances that allow for human development, and thus may be considered to have educational properties. Indeed, it has been argued that in action sports, what an individual will learn on any given day of training or competition has a direct relationship with what is happening in the natural environment (MacQuarrie et al., 2015). For instance, one day, climbing a rock can be relatively easy, as the individual experiences a good grip on the surface. Yet, on another day the rock may be wet and more slippery. The individual now has to find a solution to climb it (likely in a different way) in order to overcome the risk of falling. A changing environment leaves the learner to continue to independently reflect and explore ways in which a task can be mastered. Therefore, the natural environment influences how individuals utilise the personal and physical resources to foster physical (‘hard’) and cognitive (‘soft’) skills (Sibthorpe, 2003).

Also, studies on outdoor and adventure education conclude that the gross-motor skills of children and adolescents may be better fostered as nature offers more challenging and diverse learning opportunities than indoor play (Fjørtoft, 2001; Sandseter, 2009). For example, climbing a rock may assist an individual with balance and coordination. The developmental benefits of outdoor environments extend well beyond childhood and adolescence. Indeed, international-standard athletes report the development of core skills such as balance through ongoing interactions with the environment (e.g., Ellmer and Rynne, 2016).

Furthermore, Langseth (2012) observed that when surfers spend greater amounts of time in the water, subcultural value systems are afforded. Learning to understand the unwritten rules around spaces and behaviours is part of the socialisation process and prolonged engagement in the natural environment

has been shown to support this learning for action sport participants. Skills and behaviours learned in an authentic (e.g. natural) environment can then effectively be transferred to other day-to-day situations. The majority of action sports participants have come to understand that the natural world is greater than they are and subsequently seek bonds with their natural surroundings, and work *with* the environment to achieve personal and sporting outcomes (Brymer and Gray, 2010).

What the Olympic Movement can learn from Action sports

In keeping with the research findings above, action sports may be utilised as an educational avenue to promote environmental sustainability in line with the *Olympic Charter*. The notion that the core values of action sports were not derived from the foundations of many high performance sports (e.g., winning/losing), it could be tied in well with sustainability thinking.

Traditional sports have been around for centuries, and are generally organised and governed by a set of rules and regulations (Guttmann, 1978). Sports were introduced to the military in the 19th century to facilitate shaping people's behaviours and decision making skills (Rice, 1986) and, until today, sports are utilised as a tool for teaching individuals social and moral development. Similarly, religion plays an important part in influencing certain societal behaviours (Williams, 2010). In fact, religion and sport have strong ties. For example, the 'golden rule' suggests that fair play in sport is based on the predicament that an athlete should treat others the way they would want to be treated. If athletes behaved accordingly, they may then be viewed as role models (Simon, 2010). However, the Olympic motto "*Citius, altius, fortius*" suggests the notion of continuous progression. High performance sports are highly competitive as the difference between winning and losing can significantly impact on an athlete's future in regard to sponsorships and media attention (Barker et al., 2014). Unfortunately, this has resulted in some athletes displaying unethical behaviour, as they cave under the pressure on their pursuit to glory.

Contrary to traditional sports, action sports are still in keeping with the Olympic values. For example, action sportspeople place greater focus on creativity and individuality opposed to following strict rules and guidelines. Furthermore, action sports participants attend sporting events more so for

networking purposes and to demonstrate their skills rather than to compete (Ojala, 2014). This statement goes hand in hand with the symbolic meaning of Olympism which states that “*the important thing in the Olympic Games is not winning but taking part*”. Lastly, action sportspeople encourage and motivate their peers during their performances rather than placing value on winning or losing; seeking to progress as a collective identity, rather than celebrating a single hero. Without strict rules and guidelines, and with a stronger sense for community, Barker and colleagues (2014) propose that there will be a decreased number of breaches and dishonest behaviour among athletes. This, in turn, may result in athletes being able to serve as role models for sustainability and environmental practice.

Conclusion

Despite their counter-cultural origin, action sports are being included in the Olympic Program to match the demands of Generation Y and Z. Perhaps the IOC will come to recognise that by reducing structure and planning, the likelihood of play (as seen in action sports) and hence human development, which lies at its core, will flourish, thereby further promoting leaders for environmental protection.

This article presents a definition of sustainability and attempts to bridge the gap between Olympism and environmental protection by means of education through sports participation. In particular, this article presents the notion that action sports participants may be at the forefront of environmental protection due to their cultural core values and interconnectedness with the natural environment. Links can be drawn between action sports and sustainability thinking with the result of action sports participants being seen as leaders of sustainability. Contrary to traditional sports, where sporting events are designed for competition purposes, action sports participants place greater value in socialising and progressing as a collective identity. Furthermore, action sports participants generally do not conform to rules and regulations as they seek creativity and self-expression instead. Lastly, by (re-)connecting with nature, as action sports participants do, individuals are more likely to care about and seek to protect the natural world as they engage with it on a regular basis.

The change in sustainable practice will occur from the inside-out. Individuals

are required to understand how their actions impact the environment through changes of attitudes and everyday behaviours. International athletes such as Kelly Slater and Janine Jungfels are role models by actively communicating messages to the community, promoting the importance of sustainability and protection of the environment. These are key roles outlined by the Olympic Movement.

Environmental protection and sustainability are topics that have been discussed since the 1990s and have come a long way since. However, the goal of the Olympic Movement remains the same as it acts as an example of what can be achieved, not just for the global community, but also for the individual while maintaining a minimal environmental impact.

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CONTEMPORARY CHALLENGES OF OLYMPIC NATIONAL FEDERATIONS

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Introduction

Sport organisations can be structured in many ways. For instance, there are professional sport teams, professional leagues, for-profit, not-for-profit, and non-governmental entities. Some of these organisations are recognised by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) as administering one sport¹. The latter are termed International Federations (IFs) and they have affiliated NFs (International Olympic Committee, 2014). Depending on the country they may also be termed national governing bodies or national sport organisations.

These organisations are located at the centre of the global sport system and have been termed the ‘engine’ of formal/structured sport (Robinson & Minikin, 2011, 2012). NFs in most countries face challenges of limited resources and increased competition for participants; dealing with a complicated network of stakeholders, and their interests; and the execution of a ‘dual’ mission comprising two different, yet connected, sport development agendas – facilitation of both *elite/high performance* and *mass participation sport/sport-for-all*.

A nation’s political agenda is often reflected in the investments made in sport development – an ambiguous mandate that can refer to multiple different

1. It is noteworthy that the correspondence – one sport, one IF – could be confusing. For instance, according to the IOC’s (2014) *Olympic Charter*, “Aquatics” is a sport, “Swimming” would be a discipline, and the “50m Freestyle” an event. The same happens to Ski and Snowboard, which are considered two different disciplines of the sport “Ski” – which is governed by the International Ski Federation.

processes, practices and outcomes. In the majority of national sport systems, the state directly or indirectly finances and delegates a significant aspect of its policy execution to the country's NFs, as they are key actors in the delivery of sport development (Green, 2007). At one end of the spectrum is the support of *elite/high performance sport* and at the other end is *mass participation sport*. Sport development facilitates sport as a participation as an end in itself, but this participation also provides a multitude of benefits to society, and sport is also considered as a means to non-sport ends (e.g. health outcomes) (Houlihan & Green, 2010; Hylton & Bramham, 2008; Hylton, 2013).

Elite sport is highly regulated and technical and it aims to build success through athlete and sport team achievement of top results in major international competitions and professional leagues/circuits (De Bosscher, De Knop, Van Bottenburg, & Shibli, 2006), and is underpinned by motives as diverse as ideology, national pride, prestige, recognition and political gains. These represent intended outcomes that range from being seen as the best in the world in a given sport, to creating a good feeling amongst citizens, to pursuing positive economic impacts from hosting sport events (Grix & Carmichael, 2012; Houlihan & Green, 2008).

The objective of *mass sport* is the promotion of sport, both organised and non-organised, to increase the nation's participation in this form of physical activity (Da Costa & Miragaya, 2002; De Bosscher & Van Bottenburg, 2010; Nicholson, Hoye, & Houlihan, 2010). More recently, it has also been related to a series of non-sport objectives that aim to contribute to the realization of better social, education and health outcomes (Houlihan & Green, 2010; Hylton & Bramham, 2008; Hylton, 2013).

However, NFs often grapple to deliver both outcomes due to their ever-prevalent conflict of interest (De Bosscher, De Knop, Van Bottenburg, Shibli, & Bingham, 2009; Phillips & Newland, 2013). Success in the dual areas of sport development is rewarded by legitimacy imparted by stakeholders, competitive advantage, and international recognition. The pressure to conform to nationally set imperatives can have a profound effect on sport organisations and explains why on a macro level we see similar approaches to sport development emerging around the world. Government policies and approaches impact varied dimensions such as sport governance, accountability (performance-based funding strategies), high performance (e.g. talent ID and pathway schemes), and mass participation. While sport is increasingly affected by global trends, NFs still

function within national boundaries, serving local interests.

It has been suggested that the difficult delivery of the elite/mass agendas are key to NFs' legitimacy and effectiveness (Phillips & Newland, 2013). Therefore, it is crucial to understand if and how NFs respond to such complex challenges, so that they can be more successful and, therefore, sustainable into the future (Greenwood, Raynard, Kodeih, Micelotta, & Lounsbury, 2011; Washington & Patterson, 2011). However, research has not addressed the challenges resulting from this complexity.

2.1 Sport organisations

Slack (1997, p. 5) defined a sport organisation as “a social entity involved in the sport industry; it is goal-directed, with a consciously structured activity system and a relatively identifiable boundary”. There are several types of sport organisations. Gómez, Opazo and Martí (2008) classified these into: governing bodies (or NFs), that are responsible for governing their sport, developing all levels of practice and regulating the rules of the game and competition; sport event organisers (e.g. Tour de France, NBA), they are responsible for the creation and management of an attractive sport spectacle by using competition systems (e.g. circuits, leagues, tours) that satisfy the needs linked with the professional sports actors (e.g. professional teams, NFs); and sport providers (e.g. clubs, university sport programs) that are not-for-profit entities which have the mission to assemble and deliver recreational or competitive sport activities to their community. This research will focus on National Federations.

2.1.1 National Federations

Also known as National Sport Governing Bodies, from a general perspective NFs are sport organisations that are responsible for promoting and developing a particular sport at all levels in a given territory (e.g. Tennis Australia). However, their mission is frequently difficult to understand and, therefore, to measure (Winand, Rihoux, Robinson, & Zintz, 2012). This includes control and supervision over eligibility, rules, procedures and competitions for their sport. In the majority of cases, NFs organise competitions from local to national, from amateur to professional and from grassroots to elite levels. They also define the rules of the sport and collaborate with other sport related organisations (e.g. sport

clubs) (Gómez et al., 2008; Sotiriadou & De Bosscher, 2013). Internationally, the NFs are an important part of the Olympic Movement system (Figure 1), being related to its main actors (e.g. IOC, IF) (Chappelet, 1991, 2008). Each NF directly elects both the National Olympic Committees (NOCs) and IF executive boards, thus being an important player.

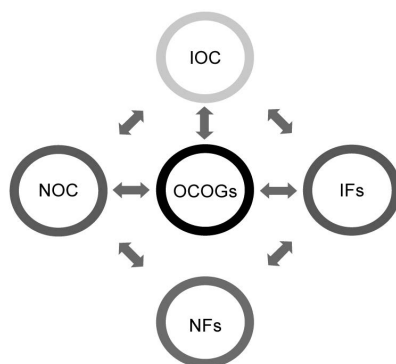


Figure 1 – The Olympic Movement system adapted from Chappelet (2008).

With some exceptions, one NF represents one sport in one country. At national level, the NFs have a central role (Figure 2) in the sport system.

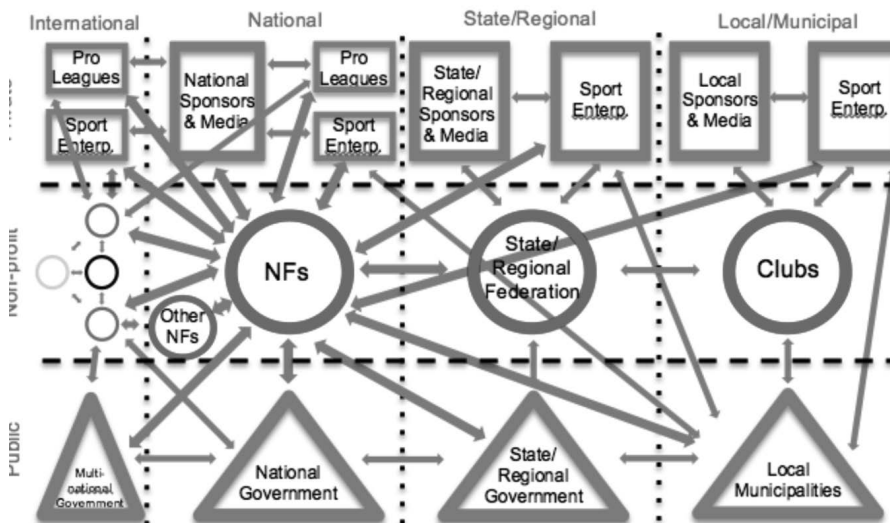


Figure 2 – Central position of the NFs in the sport system.

This central position illustrates the complexity of the environment in which the NFs operate. These organisations have to deal with their stakeholders' heterogeneous motivations, standards, challenges and practices (Hoye & Cuskelly, 2007; Winand et al., 2012). NF's must manage "a definable membership or user base, a set of relationships with key funding agencies, contractual obligations to government, a set of business contracts with other commercial, non-profit or public sector organisations and a volunteer base" (Hoye & Cuskelly, 2007, p. 9). Additionally, such a complicated context influences NFs' objectives and often the stakeholders' contribution is hard to evaluate (Winand et al., 2012).

Scholars (e.g. Girginov, 2008; Green, 2008; Houlihan & White, 2002) agree that NFs are key delivers in government policy implementation and have more goals, though also more money, than ever before. It is not just about developing elite and participation sport; NFs have inherited some government social welfare policy objectives (e.g. community development, social cohesion, health) (Sport England, 2006) that are related to sport as "public funding is available to governing bodies to help them run and develop their sport, but it comes with strings attached" (Houlihan & White, 2002, p. 164). It is also noteworthy that the relationship between the NFs and governments' sport agencies has become more regulated, thus limiting the NFs decision-making liberty.

In this regard, Girginov (2008) observes that the focus shifted from the sport system to the individual NF. Also, the decentralist rhetoric of the modernisation reforms that aim to give NFs autonomy to deal with their own problems is an illusion of agency due to the strengthening of centralised technologies of governing that set and enforce performance targets, auditing procedures, government inspections and sanctions if NFs do not achieve the settled goals. With governmental goals depending on NFs for delivery and the fact that these organisations are accepting public funding to do so makes them vulnerable to the government's expectations. Hence, some NFs changed their accountability to be more about governments and commercial partners instead of their traditional stakeholders (e.g. clubs), creating a democratic deficit (Girginov, 2008).

2.1.2 The challenges

The links between sport organisations and their environment are depicted by interdependence and competition among stakeholders in order to get

the essential means to stay afloat and to take advantage and profit from the sport field's opportunities (Gómez et al., 2008). The financial dependence of NFs from the governments' sport agencies dictates their connection (Green, 2007). Tied with their mission, NFs face several challenges when managing sport development opportunities: to satisfy the consumers of the activities they promote and implement; to meet the demands set by or agreed with public and private actors in order to obtain funding and sponsorship that are fundamental to operate (Girginov, 2008).

Houlihan and Green (2010) state that in numerous nations there is an actual and emerging tension between the three sport development's agendas, that is, high-performance sport, participation sport and sport as an instrument to pursuit several non-sport objectives. Girginov (2008) argues that this tension is a product of the 19th century when 'sports' and 'gymnastics' competed for influence and resources founding the strain between elite and mass sport which shaped the way sport development is thought and practiced.

The differences are also present in the academic discourse, where there seems to be an emphasis on the different needs, opposition and tensions between elite and mass sport, for example, the titles of papers and chapters such as: "Balancing the Needs of the Large Mass and the Small Elite" (Girginov, 2008), or "Sport for 'Some': Elite versus Mass Participation" (Sotiriadou, Quick, & Shilbury, 2006). As such NFs have to chose which agenda to develop and what requirements to satisfy, considering the different needs of high-performance and participation sport (Van Bottenburg, 2002). Elite sport requires a "concentration of expertise, financial resources, and management time and their requirement for non-transferable resources (e.g. specialist competitions and sports science support)" and mass sport necessities "club infrastructure and the grassroots participant for access to adequate facilities, a competition calendar that reinforces the value of club membership and provides a supportive pattern to the club member's season" (Green, 2008, p. 104).

In the governance field, there is a conflict in decision-making between a professional model of management, sculpted by the pressures coming from professionalisation, and the traditional amateur approach through voluntary boards making all the calls. Governance based: (1) on a professional model it relates success with organisation change and modernisation; (2) on the voluntary approach it is associated with "stability, continuity and longevity" (Green, 2008,

p. 105). Regarding governance, NFs have to be strategic in their investments. Priority given to participation sport maintains its legitimacy to their associated actors (e.g. the clubs). However, they will also want to comply with elite sport requirements coming from other stakeholders (e.g. state and sponsors) (Green, 2007, 2008).

Concerning the organisation of a competition structure, NFs face problems in choosing either to prioritise elite globalised competition (e.g. hosting international events) or focus on developing their grassroots and the events in which they participate (Green & Houlihan, 2005). Commercialisation can create a struggle between the need to generate income through their sponsored events and the elite athletes' requirements in order to prepare for key international competitions (Houlihan & Green, 2008). The same authors also discuss other issues concerning practical decisions, such as the calendar and the format of the competition.

Regarding professionalisation, athletes, in order to meet the demanding requirements of high performance sport, try to become professional, relying on scholarships (e.g. in the United States of America), part-time work and prize-money competitions (Houlihan & Green, 2008). A more commercialised aspect is athletes personal branding. Elite athletes represent sponsors that have their own interests, which sometimes are not lined up with the aspirations of the nation they represent (Houlihan & Green, 2008; Slack, 1998). Slack (1998, p. 3) stated that "athletes no longer represent their club, their country, or themselves, they represent the corporations who provide the money for their sport".

NFs' human resources also face important challenges. Governmentalisation has pressured NFs to modernise, becoming and adopting more business-like structure and procedures, hence increasing the tension between professional staff and volunteer officers resulting in important effects in the NF's governance (Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011). According to Girginov (2008, p. 27), NFs are required to have enterprise-like skills and to provide efficient and effective services in order to 'stay in business' and comply with the pressures from governmentalisation and commercialisation, while being "agents of fundamental social change concerned with transforming individual, community and organisational lives" and "to act in ways in which they see fit and which may not meet all government guidelines and targets" (Green, 2008, p. 105).

The funding, building and use of sport facilities are also a source of tension between the needs of elite athletes and non-elite athletes, and these may put

the NFs in a hard position to choose from achieving results or club membership (Green & Houlihan, 2005). Houlihan and Green (2008) explain that some moved to solve this conflict by financing elite sport centres, thus creating new administrative, jurisdictional and financial dependency problems. There is also the problem rising from the centralised development of high performance athletes in elite sport centres or the decentralised perspective in which preparation would take place in a sports club.

Another tension resides in the “individual needs of the elite athlete, the value placed on individual achievement, and the progressive isolation of the elite athlete from her/his club origins on the one hand, and the collective needs of club members, the value placed on sport as a socially valuable undertaking, and sports participation as a social activity on the other” (Green, 2008, p. 104).

Geography seems to play a role on elite/mass conflict as well. Houlihan and Green (2008), for example, suggest that the size of the country (e.g. Australia and Canada) proves an enabler when it comes to organise national events. Also, they argue that further tensions are caused by the fact that Australia is far away from the elite competition hubs. Another challenge rising from geography and the federated nature of sport is the local-regional-national issues (Ferkins & Shilbury, 2010; Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011).

NFs face complexity given their often-competing dual agendas (elite and participation sport), state financial dependency, and exposure to different pressures coming from an increasingly numerous and heterogeneous set of stakeholders. Such complexity manifests itself in the challenges, some of which have been introduced.

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OLYMPIC VALUES IN THE SPANISH PHYSICAL EDUCATION CURRICULUM. A CASE STUDY OF THE SANTA ANA AND SAN RAPHAEL SCHOOLS IN THE COMMUNITY OF MADRID

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Introduction and objectives

I am a postgraduate student with a Master's degree in Physical Education for Secondary Education. As part of my degree I conducted a research project addressing Olympic values within the Physical Education curriculum. Olympic values play an important role in the development and learning process of the youth and, in turn, on how our society currently operates. Therefore, the aim of this study is to assess whether Olympic values are transferred through the means of Physical Education subjects offered in Spanish secondary education.

Sport is part of the *Organic Law of Education (LOE)* in Physical Education in Secondary Obligatory Education in 2006. The basic skills outlined in the Royal Decree 1631 of 2006 have a direct impact in attitudinal points as Olympic values that may be conveyed by means of sporting contents. This is due to the current popularity of the Olympic Games, which can be viewed as a social phenomenon. This therefore may be used as an opportunity to convey different values to students.

Thus, the purpose of this study is to identify the presence of Olympic values and ideals in current Spanish secondary education systems. The *Organic Law of Education (LOE)* of 2006 is present in the Physical Education sector of the Secondary Obligatory Education system and schools Santa Ana and San Raphael. Therefore, I seek to research the professional teaching activity in this

area and outline the results regarding the communication of Olympic ideals to students.

This main objective breaks down into three specific objectives:

- To identify and deduce the values and attitudes defining the modern Olympic Movement in the Olympic International Chart of 2015 and the current Organic Law of Education (LOE) of 2006 in the Physical Education context;
- To analyze the presence of common Olympic values in the educational project of the Santa Ana and San Raphael Schools located in Madrid;
- To identify the presence, valuation and use of the Olympic values and ideals in the professional teaching activity of Physical Education, and the comprehension of these by the students.

Methodology

Firstly, we conducted a documentary analysis of the *Olympic Charter* (2015) and D. Binder's "*Teaching values: An Olympic education toolkit*" in an attempt to identify educational Olympic values. We chose these documents since they are the primary sources of the Olympic values as they form part of the current Olympic Movement.

Next, we proceeded to a documentary analysis of the Physical Education Curriculum (LOE, 2006), identifying the presence of Olympic values, based on the results of the first documentary analysis mentioned previously. We selected a number of values concerning the *Organic Law of Education* (LOE) of 2006 in the Physical Education context in Secondary Obligatory Education as a principle of the *Olympic Charter*. These values conform to the Olympic Movement and in turn its philosophy remains within the Physical Education of the Secondary Obligatory Spanish Curriculum.

After that, we conducted a documentary analysis of the Educational Project of the Santa Ana and San Raphael School in Madrid. We applied the same method as above. The purpose was to identify the presence of Olympic values in this document.

Following the resources' analysis, we conducted a semi-structured interview with open-ended questions (Hammer and Wildasky, 1990). Our case-study participant was the Physical Education teacher Alan John Orr. The aim of the

interview was to gain greater insight into the teacher's perspective regarding the Olympic values, as it was his responsibility to implement the theoretical contents of the *Organic Law of Education* (LOE) of 2006 in the context of Physical Education in Secondary Obligatory Education.

In order to better comprehend the level of values present in Physical Education lessons, we additionally utilised a multiple-choice questionnaire for the students to complete. The questionnaire was centred on Olympic values and assessed how they were perceived by the students, based on Preuss et al. "Olympic ideals as seen by Olympic scholars and experts" (2014).

Lastly, we performed "non-participative observation" during Physical Education classes, in order to assess the impact of Olympic values and ideals.

The semi-structured interview with the teacher aided as "external criticism", as he always helped us in our work that prompted thoughts and observations made in class which were later addressed as part of informal discussions. However, concerning the "internal criticism" of the content, we received a testimonial from the students as a result which requires mentioning.

Finally, we made a triangulation of the documentary analysis, interview, non-participative observation and questionnaires to work on results of the study.

Results

From our primary sources, the *Olympic Charter* (2015) and the work "Teaching values: An Olympic education toolkit" (Binder, 2007), we extrapolated the following values:

- *Joy of effort*. Young people develop and practice physical, behavioural and intellectual skills by challenging themselves, not only physically, but also intellectually and behaviourally.
- *Fair play*. Fair play can be applied in many situations of daily life. For this reason, it is fundamental to learn fair play behaviour in sport, because it can lead to the development and reinforcement of fair play behaviour in the community and in life. Definitely, fair play has to be taught in schools.
- *Respect for others*. Young people who live in a multicultural world have to learn to live in a multicultural context, respect diversity, practice personal peaceful behaviour, and promote peace and international understanding.

- *Pursuit of excellence.* A focus on excellence can help young people make positive, healthy choices and strive to become the best that they can be in whatever they do. For this, the children need safe social and physical surroundings.
- *Balance between body, will and mind.* Learning takes place in the whole body, not just in the mind. Physical literacy and learning through movement contributes to the development of both moral and intellectual learning.

The results of the document analysis of *Organic Law of Education (LOE)* of 2006 in the context of Physical Education in Secondary Obligatory Education in Royal Decree 1631 of 2006, besides the Olympic values, were the following:

Firstly, upon analysing the ten general aims, we found that only one of them is related with two Olympic values: “respect for others” and “fair play”.

In the aim number we found the following quote, which relates to fair play: “To show skills and social attitudes of respect, teamwork and fair play in activities, games and sports, regardless of cultural, social and abilities differences.”

Afterwards, the results were obtained for Prof. Gorroño and myself:

In the 1ºESO, respect and fair play were important values. Because, in “*physical condition and health block*” we found these exact words: “*respect and acceptance of the rules of activities, games and sports*”. These are directly related to the “fair play” value of the *Olympic Charter*.

Finally, in the paragraph “Activities in the environment”, we found the following sentence: “Acceptance and respect of the rules for the preservation of the urban and natural environment”. So again, we find “respect” as an educational value. Although this is not directly related to people, it is relative to the environment and therefore can be considered as an Olympic value.

In the 2ª ESO, we identified several examples in the “Games and Sports” paragraph and in the “Body expression” chapter, which demonstrate evaluation criteria that are directly related to the Olympic values of “respect” and “fair play”. However, in the 3º ESO we could not identify any values that were important and related to an Olympic value.

In the 4º ESO, we could only extract a content related with the Olympic values, because in our point of view, this content takes into account respect and fair play.

The following tables show the results of the data acquired and the relation with the different values that have been analysed in the document:

FAIR PLAY	“Respect and acceptance of the rules of activities, games and sports” (1° ESO content)
	“Respect and acceptance of the rules of sport and the rules established for all” (2° ESO content)
	“Self-control when there are situations of physical contact in games and sports” (2° ESO content)
	“Tolerance and fair play more important than the results” (2° ESO content)
	“Acceptance of social and democratic rules in teamwork” (4° ESO content)
RESPECT FOR OTHERS	“To show skills and social attitudes of respect, teamwork and fair play in activities, games and sports, regardless of cultural, social and ability-differences” (Aim, number 8)
	“Acceptance and respect of rules to preservation of urban and natural environments” (1° ESO content)
	“Acceptance of individual differences and respect for others” (2° ESO content)
	“To show cooperation, tolerance and fair play attitudes, both the participant and viewers when practising collective sports” (2° ESO evaluation criteria)

The results from analysing the educational project of the Center (PEC) elicited primarily that the three values more distinguished and related to the Olympic Ideology were: respect, pursuit of excellence, and balance between mind, body and will. However, these values were not described or defined, only cited. Therefore, it was necessary to point out that these values were interpreted in this manner as they were similar or different to the Olympic philosophy. Consequently, at this stage, we considered the deficiencies of the documentary analysis and we thought that the oral source (Physical Education teacher) was essential to receive further data.

Finally, we conducted one semi-structured interview with open-ended questions with the teacher. This interview was organized by categorising the values already established to minimise the deficiency in data. In addition, we decided to make an item for each category to establish comparisons with another tool, “Teaching values”.

The results of the testimonies collected during the interview were:

The teacher did not attach importance to any values theoretically, because

all of them have the same importance to him. However, later in the interview, Alan accepted that the “joy of effort” was the most practiced value in activities, games and sports; hence, this value was the most important, but he affirmed that “fair play” was also significant. However, we considered that the “pursuit of excellence” value was less important to him. For this reason, we thought that this value (pursuit of excellence), for example, was taught in the same way or simply it was not interpreted in the correct way it should be taught in the educational context.

Besides, knowing the teacher’s opinion, it appeared attractive for us to know the level of values that are assimilated to the Olympic philosophy by the students. With these results, we can establish a triangulation of the final data; however, the final data from the students is still being analysed.

Furthermore, we ought to analyse the results of the non-participative observation before we are able to discuss the results and form a conclusion.

Conclusions

In relation to the first part of the questionnaire, we wanted to find out the students’ knowledge on Olympic philosophy and how students assimilate its values.

First question: *What values do you consider important in the practice of sport?* The vast majority (90%) of the students’ answers were: Fair play, joy of effort, friendship and respect. It is interesting that these values are universal and between ages and genders.

The second question, relating to Olympic values, being the shared most common answer, ignoring the values, in general, because the students did not know the Olympic philosophy relating to values education, which is an objective that we want to reach.

Regarding the question of where they first learned these Olympic values, approximately 70% students answered that they didn’t know. Only 10% of students claimed learned them at school or in Physical Education lessons; another 10% affirmed that they learned these values in sports clubs and another 10% suggested that they learned them in their homes.

The second part of the questionnaire required the students to determine the importance (e.g. “high” vs. “low”) of each Olympic value. The statistical results elicited the following conclusions:

- The most important value chosen by the students was “fair play”, as it plays a leading role in physical education lessons. 78.3% of students affirmed that this value is of “*high importance*” and only 0.9% affirmed that it was “*not important*”.
- However, the value “balance between body, will and mind” was regarded as the least important by students. As such, the significance of this value needs to be highlighted in the future.
- In terms of gender, there were no major differences in the answers given: “fair play” was the most important value for both male and female (44% and 46% respectively).
- In contrast, there were some differences in the answers given by students of the age-groups 12–13 to 14, 15, and 16 years. Students of 12-13 years of age regarded “equal opportunity to practice some sport without discrimination” as highly important – a very interesting and positive aspect, in my opinion. Moreover, “solidarity” was a value that in this school was promoted every day, because it was important in after-school activities. However, the students aged 14,15,16,17 years old considered “joy of effort” as the most important value. Furthermore, Alan affirmed that this value was one of the most worked on in their lessons. “Equality” was another value that was considered as very important. Finally, “mutual understanding” was highlighted by students to be of “some importance”.

In conclusion, we should continue the research within this context in order to increase the quality of this work. Furthermore, it would provide us the opportunity to include additional data from further sources such as documentation, participants and schools.

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**“OLYMPICS IS A HEART THAT KEEPS THE WORLD IN SHAPE”:
DETERMINATION OF OLYMPICS PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN
ATTENDING OLYMPIC EDUCATION PRESENTATIONS
BY DRAWINGS**

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Introduction

Olympic Games have undoubtedly become one of the most important social phenomena in recent decades, with numerous cultural, economic and political repercussions (Yidiran, 2014). Athletes, trainers, administrators and spectators from all around the world interact with each other socially and culturally throughout the competitions. Organization of such large caliber also offers many returns for the host country in terms of economics and politics.

Olympic education, which emerged as a product of Olympic values, can be defined as a project promoting harmonious and peaceful coexistence for all humanity in good faith; encouraging people's active involvement and human excellence in science and sports; organizing sports activities according to principles such as sportsmanship and equality of opportunity; revitalizing the joy of effort, which is almost completely lost in international professional sports today; upholding values like respect and tolerance in personal relations; and guiding people to undertake liberatory acts through sports (Müller, 2004). It is believed that Olympic education will ensure that children and athletes see the world and each other differently, understand the importance of physical effort for success and help educators and trainers in making them experience this (Binder, 2012). As an interdisciplinary field that aims for a holistic development of human beings, Olympic education upholds that positive social values can be

disseminated through sports and the spirit of Olympism (F. Ö. Kuter and M. Kuter, 2012). As such, a city has to develop an initiative plan for education to host the Olympic Games today. These plans generally include art contests and sports activities that are organized as part of school programs or in various events, such as conferences where athletes who serve as role-models are invited as speakers. In Turkey, the coordinator of the Olympic education program is the Turkish Olympic Committee (TOC).

As part of the “Sports Culture and Olympic Education Project” by the Sports Culture and Olympic Education Committee of the Turkish Olympic Committee with the support of the Ministry of National Education, presentations have started for 4th and 5th grade students through events held in many cities of Turkey since February 17, 2006. The aim of this project is to instill children with the spirit of Olympism and raise their Olympic awareness, because Olympic education strives not only to raise future Olympic athletes but also to realize Olympics – such as ethical values, honesty, discipline, courage, determination, self-guidance and getting fit (Özbey and Güzel, 2009). It is thought that bringing in the spirit of Olympism for our children, who are the future of society, will help shaping their lives in a healthy way. Children need to develop the perception of Olympics first in order to understand the spirit of Olympism and incorporate it into their lives.

Perception is a form of sense which includes attention and information as well as learning. It is a common method to use images in defining the perceptions of individuals about a certain event, phenomenon or person. Images offer a potential for children in telling stories, conveying metaphors and presenting their worldviews which exist in the description itself and in their reactions to their own descriptions. Image is considered as an indicator of a child’s perception of the external world (Malchiodi, 2013; Yavuzer, 1998).

Literature review on the Olympic education shows that researches focus on Olympic awareness (Kiliç, 2007; Senduran, Sahin, Bastik and Gümüşdag, 2012; Senduran and Donuk, 2009; Bektas, Beyazoglu, Yildiran, and Yilmaz, 2013) and the influence of Olympic education on values education and its relationship with Olympism (Binder, 2012; F. Ö. Kuter and M. Kuter, 2012; Culpan and McBain, 2012; Peneva, 2009; Chatziefstathiou, 2012; Jefferson Lenskyj, 2012; Özbey and Güzel, 2009). No study aiming to reveal the perception of Olympics in children by means of drawings has been found.

However, revealing the perception of Olympics in children may contribute to the development of Olympic education programs which aim to bring the spirit of Olympism in individuals. In addition, it is believed that the concepts which children – future Olympic athlete candidates – associate with the Olympics (success, medal, prize, winning-losing, coming together, fair play etc.) will also provide an insight on what kind of prospective athletes they are. Also, it may help in preventing any negative perception that may develop during the early period towards the concept of “Olympics”. Therefore, this study aims to reveal, by using drawings, the Olympics perception of children who have participated in interactive presentations prepared for 4th and 5th grade students under the “Sports Culture and Olympic Education Project” by the Sports Culture and Olympic Education Committee of the Turkish Olympic Committee.

Method

Research Model

This study was designed as a qualitative research to reveal the perceptions of children towards the concept of Olympics. Content analysis techniques – a qualitative research pattern – were used in analyzing the data. Qualitative research’s basic features, such as being sensitive to the natural environment, allows for disclosing the perceptions, performing inductive analysis with qualitative data and having flexibility in the research pattern (Balci, 2011). In addition, qualitative researches offer further in-depth information about psychological measurements and social events (Büyüköztürk, Kiliç Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel, 2014).

Study Group

The study group of this research includes 262 children between the ages of 8–11, who participated in interactive presentations that were organized in Mersin between November 30 and December 4, 2015, under the Sports Culture and Olympic Education Project by the Turkish Olympic Committee. Demographics of children who participated in the study are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographics of Study Participants.

	Girl		Boy	
Age	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
8	3	1.15	4	1.53
9	47	17.94	30	11.45
10	65	24.81	73	27.86
11	17	6.49	23	8.78
Total	132	50.38	130	49.62

Collection of Data

Research data was collected through the drawings made by participants on the concept of “Olympics”. It is a common method to use images in understanding the inner world of children and what they think of a certain event, phenomenon or person. In this method, the main data consists of how a child explains or interprets an image, rather than what a child draws or whether or not the image is simple or complicated (Yildirim and Simsek, 2013). The presentations that were made under the organization were run in a total of ten sessions in five days (two sessions per day). The content of presentations consists of footages from various disciplines of Olympic Games, physical, mental, affective and social gains of sports, history of Olympic Games and sports-related animations and contests. Researchers participated in four sessions over four days. Research data was collected by visiting a school at the end of a session every day. Participant children were given a blank paper and then asked to write down their gender and age on one side of the paper and draw a picture reflecting their thoughts about the concept of “Olympics” and explain that picture on the other. No guiding statement was particularly used to make sure participants reflected their own thoughts. Participants were not restricted in terms of the number of pencils and colors they used and they were given one course hour to complete their pictures.

Analysis of Data

Content analysis method was used in the analysis of data. The purpose of content analysis is to find the concepts and correlations that may explain the data obtained from the research. To achieve this, similar data is gathered around

certain concepts and themes, which are then arranged and interpreted in a way that it can be understood by the reader. To make such an arrangement, the data collected is coded and a classification is made based on these codes. At this stage, it is considered useful for an external researcher to examine whether emerging themes adequately reflect the dataset and whether the data is effectively arranged according to the themes, and make recommendations for the researcher (Yildirim and Simsek, 2013). In this study, expert opinion was used in the data analysis to confirm whether the drawings represent the conceptual categories that they belong to. Also, some example of drawings are presented in the findings and discussion section. In total, 262 drawings of participants were reviewed, while 33 drawings that were considered to have missing explanation or failed to reflect any thought, were rejected. Drawings that were found to comply with the purpose of the study were reviewed together with the explanations and codes defined for each drawing based on thoughts they reflected. Codes with similar features were gathered and themes were created accordingly; then, categories were created based on these themes and the analysis was completed. Frequency and percentage values were created for the categories in question.

Findings and Discussion

When the drawings which constituted the basis of study were examined, it was found that 229 out of 262 participant children made valid drawings on the concept of Olympics and these drawings were collected under five themes based on their common features. Then these themes were classified into two main categories. The themes and conceptual categories of drawings which reflect the thoughts of children on the concept of Olympics along with frequency (f) and percentage (%) of expression of these themes and categories are given in Table 2 and Table 3.

Table 2. Conceptual Categories of Drawings Made by Children on the Concept of Olympics.

Categories	f	%
Olympic Games	174	75.98
Sports	55	24.02
Total	229	100.00

Table 2 shows that children mostly think of concepts related to Olympic Games when it comes to “Olympics”. Drawings about Olympic Games indicate that children generally drew images from the Olympic Games. Especially in drawings which focused on Olympic disciplines, the themes that were covered mostly involved symbols of Olympic Games and visualization of Olympic values. In sports-related drawings, the concept of Olympics was associated with sports in general, not with the Games, while physical and social gains of the sports were featured.

Table 3. Themes of Drawings Made by Children on the Concept of Olympics.

Themes	<i>f</i>	%
Olympic Sports Branches	120	52.40
The Symbols of OlympicGames	22	9.61
Olympism	31	13.54
Physical Functions of Sports	28	12.23
Social Functions of Sports	28	12.23
Total	229	100.00

Sub-themes of drawings made by children on Olympic Games show that 52.40% of children made drawings related to the theme “Olympic sports branches”. Under this theme, the drawings generally covered several sports branches. Of these drawings, 29.12% were about athletics, 27.24% about swimming, 16.64% about football, 15.83% about diving, and 11.65% about basketball. It is thought that these particular sports branches are mostly portrayed in the drawings because they were covered more in the presentations. In addition, other Olympic sports branches that were portrayed in the drawings were: boxing, weightlifting, badminton, bocce, taekwondo, field hockey, archery, tennis, gymnastics, equestrian, water polo, rowing, handball and table tennis. The moment of competition was generally pictured in these drawings. Example drawings of the category of Olympic sports branches are shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2.



Figure 1. Drawn by a 9-year-old girl (Swimming. Pole vault. Equestrian/ jumping. "I am interested in these sports branches and I want to do all of them.")

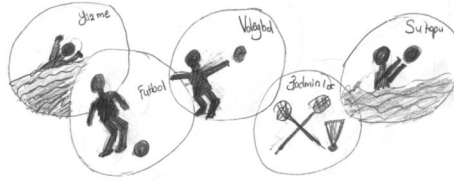


Figure 2. Drawn by an 11-year-old girl (Swimming. Football. Volleyball. Badminton. Water polo.)

The Olympic Rings and the Olympic Flame were pictured in the drawings which features the symbols of Olympic Games. The drawings had portrayals of athletes who carry the torch. It is an interesting finding that children mostly pictured Olympic Rings in wrong numbers and colors. According to this finding, it can be argued that majority of children saw the Olympic rings for the first time in this presentation. An example drawing of the category of the symbols of Olympic Games is shown in Figure 3.



Figure 3. Drawn by an 11-year-old boy (Olympic Rings and Olympic Flame)

Drawings which fall into the theme of Olympism show that students widely used humanitarian values. The majority of drawings depict figures of athletes who stand to help their friend who is falling or drowning during the contest. Descriptions of these drawings mostly included statements like “Sports is sometimes feeling sorry, sometimes losing, sometimes helping, sometimes winning”, “Olympics means friendship”, and “Olympics is helping each other, solidarity”. The purpose of Olympism to create a better and peaceful world stands out in these drawings. It is reflected in the drawings’ messages of solidarity, acting kindly, and not losing the feelings of friendship and unity. The statements in descriptions such as “What matters is that everyone is helpful and live in peace”, “Olympics is friendship, brotherhood and togetherness”, “Competition means being honest, doing good and not doing wrong” reflect main ethical attitudes of fair play, which is the basis of modern Olympics. Considering that the fair play approach involves high humanitarian values – such as ensuring equal conditions of competition and equality of opportunity, valuing the sportive rival as an equal player, respecting his or her physical and mental immunity, and avoiding unfair advantages (Yildiran, 2005) –, such an ethical attitude that was observed in children becomes even more important.

The purpose of getting the people of the world together is another fundamental principle of Olympic philosophy which was covered in the pictures. The Olympic Rings placed in world or heart figures are described with the statements like “Olympics is a heart that keeps the world in shape”, “Everyone in this world must have love for Olympics”, “Sports and action are in my heart like love and the ones I love; it’s like smiling”. This shows that children are aware of the values of personal excellence, international understanding and peace, which are the anchors of Olympic philosophy. Example drawings of the category of the symbols of Olympism are shown in Figure 4 and Figure 5.

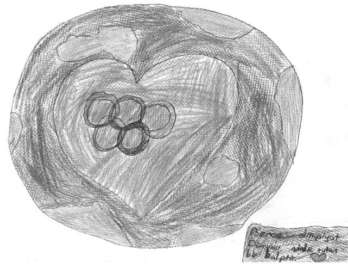


Figure 4. Drawn by a 10-year-old girl (“I think Olympics is a heart that keeps the world in shape.”)

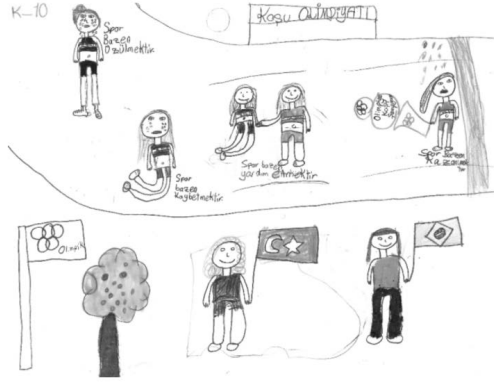


Figure 5. Drawn by a 10-year-old girl (*"Olympics. Sports is sometimes feeling sorry, sometimes losing, sometimes helping, sometimes winning."*)

In drawings which covered physical functions of sports, it was observed that references were made to the motto of modern Olympics, *"Faster, Higher, Stronger"*. Descriptions of these drawings included statements like "I think Olympic Games are the things that are performed for us. To make us faster and stronger", "We will be powerful and resilient if everyone do sports", "Swimming develops muscles and makes us stronger", and "We will be strong if we does sports". That the motto was used in the presentation can be considered as the reason why students used these statements in their drawings. An example drawing of the category of physical functions of sports is shown in Figure 6.



Figure 6. Drawn by a 10-year-old girl (*"Basketball is a beautiful sport. It allows us to be tall and strong. If everybody plays basketball, they become strong, robust and healthy."*)

In drawings related to the theme of social function of sports, the idea that sports is about winning was dominant. These drawings mainly depicted medal platform, medals and athletes who run to win the competition. Statements like “If we try hard, we can get the first place, not second or third”, “Sports is about winning” and “rule of the game is to run the track straight, complete the race fast and win a medal” attracted notice in the drawings’ descriptions. The fact that children associated sports just with winning can only be considered as an indication that their awareness of Olympic values as something greater which unites us has not developed yet. This situation may cause success stress and adoption of wrong motivation principles in children who will start their sports life in the future. However, this theme also included drawings which show that sport is an entertaining activity. In these drawings, children generally pictured human figures who smile while doing sports. They described these drawings with statements like “Olympics is sports and fun”, “To me, sports is fun. I like it very very much” and “Children are playing a game and they are having too much fun”. An example drawing of the category of social functions of sports is shown in Figure 7.



Figure 7. Drawn by a 9-year-old boy (“Sport means to win.”)

Conclusion

In conclusion, children who participated in interactive presentations that were organized under the Sports Culture and Olympic Education Project by the Turkish Olympic Committee have developed a high level of awareness about different Olympic branches, target values to be acquired, physical and social

gains of sports, and the purpose of Olympic Games to gather all the people of the world, and create international unity and a peace atmosphere. Kasap (2000) states that Olympic education, which uses sports and Olympics as a means for the development of virtuous behaviors, must be included in educational programs inside and outside the school. Also, he suggests that putting a qualified Olympic educational program through qualified practitioners will contribute to development of a society which has qualified athletes, spectators and citizens and entrepreneurial individuals with developed values of cooperation. Therefore, it is believed that inclusion of gains targeted in the presentation developed under the project in the Physical Education course curriculum of primary and secondary schools will be helpful to make such gains long-lasting and permanent and implement Olympic education simultaneously in the entire country.

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OLYMPISM IN THAI EDUCATIONAL AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION SYSTEM

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Introduction

Olympism is a concept that is well-known worldwide; a universal philosophy that has been learned and practiced in sport and education since the beginning of the modern Olympics. Inspired by the history and philosophy of ancient Greece, Baron Pierre De Coubertin, an educator from France, revived the Olympic Games with the aim to educate the youth around, bring each individual to their full potential, and make the world better through the idea of mutual respect and international understanding.

The Olympic idea reached each part of the world differently. It is interesting that this concept has been instilled in Thailand's educational system, since the beginning of modern Olympics. The work of Chao Praya Dharmasakmontri, a London graduate during the first years of the modern Olympics and a pioneer in Siam's (Thailand's former name) educational system, demonstrates a blending of the Olympic idea and Siam's education plan and curriculum. This study will briefly summarize the Olympic idea and then assess Dharmasakmontri's personal writing and his official work as the minister of education at that time in parallel with the idea of Olympism.

Olympic Games

The first Olympic Games took place in ancient Greece, around 776 BC, at the Sanctuary of Olympia, to worship Zeus, the god king of all Olympic gods

(Romano, online. 2012) and promote peace in the ancient Greek world. The Kings of Elis, Sparta, and Pisa agreed not to invade each other before, during and after the Games, inspired by the command of the Oracle of Delphi who claimed that the people had strayed from the gods, thus causing a plague and constant war. The Games would end the plague, bring peace and put the world into order again. These myths suggest that the Greeks believed the Games had their roots in religion, that athletic competition was tied to worship of the gods, intended to bring peace, harmony and a return to the origins of Greek life. Because the aim of the Olympic Games was to worship Zeus, there should not be any activity that violated this sacredness at the Sanctuary of Olympia. Therefore, the Games had to be played with decency, honesty and in peace. The ancient Olympic Games had been ongoing for 1,200 years before they were abandoned (Jullasap, 1984).

Modern Olympics

After the Olympics ceased to exist for a period of 1,500 years, Baron Pierre De Coubertin, attempted to revive them. The International Olympic Committee (IOC) was formed in 1894 from this attempt to organize and operate the modern Olympic Games. The first modern Olympics were held in 1896 in Athens, Greece (Jullasap, 1984).

There are several documents that state why Baron Pierre De Coubertin revived the Olympic Games; one of the main motives was his vision for international peace and to prepare French people for wartimes. Another reason was his wish to have a physical education course included in the French educational system and inspire the French youth to follow a healthy and athletic lifestyle. No matter what the reasons were, Baron Pierre De Coubertin's intention was mainly to utilize sports to help drive away mental and physical deterioration.

Baron Pierre De Coubertin popularized the Olympics by combining the idea of an international sport event with the concept of a Greek-style Olympic Games. His hope was to celebrate health, sport values, the athletic talent of youth and raise the individual athlete higher (Jackson, R. 2005). Apart from that, another reason why he brought the Olympics back was to raise people's awareness of the Olympic values, including strengthening fraternity among people from different countries, bringing world peace and, through physical,

intellectual and mind self-development, to promote the creation of a perfect citizen who would be useful for society in the future (Julasap, 1984).

Olympic Values and Olympism

The IOC has identified three Olympic values: Excellence, Friendship, and Respect. These principles have been inspired from Baron Pierre De Coubertin's early work on reviving the modern Olympics. Excellence refers to giving one's best, on the field of play or in life, without measuring oneself with others, but instead aiming at reaching one's personal potential with determination in the effort. It is not about winning, but mainly about participating, making progress against personal goals, striving to be and to do our best in our daily lives and benefiting from the combination of a strong body, will and mind. Friendship refers to the understanding between people in the world. The Olympics and the Olympic Movement is all about people, so the focus is always on encouraging friendship and mutual understanding between and among people. This value broadly refers to building a peaceful and better world through solidarity, team spirit, joy and optimism in sport. The Olympic Games strive to inspire humanity to overcome political, economic, gender, racial or religious difference and forge friendships in spite of those differences. The value of Respect represents the ethical principle that should inspire all who participate in the Olympic programs. It includes respect for oneself and one's body, respect for one another, for rules and for the environment (The International Olympic Committee, 2016).

It was a pleasant surprise for Thai sport people when they learnt later on that the "Sport Song" written by Chao Phraya Dharmasakmontri long ago, is an ode to Excellence, Friendship, and Respect, as suggested by Baron Pierre De Coubertin and identified later on by the IOC.

Since the beginning of the modern Olympics, Baron Pierre De Coubertin attempted to use the Olympic Games and sports to promote physical education and sport in schools, to blend sport with education, as evidenced at the Olympic Congress in 1897 and 1905. Coubertin's idea of Olympic education at school was based on the concept that the education of youth focuses not only on the mind and intellect, but also on the body. This meant that schools needed to focus on both physical and intellectual aspects of education. The goal of physical education, according to Coubertin, was to make young people aware

that the pursuit of sport over their entire life would be beneficial to them and complement every other part of their life.

According to the *Olympic Charter*, Olympism could be explained as (a) a philosophy of life that uplifts and combines the quality of body, will and mind together; (b) an attempt to put sport as a tool to understand culture and enhance education; (c) to show the people of the world that effort could be enjoyable and, hence, lead to success; (d) to use good examples as an educational tool; and (e) to have people learn about respect, and specially to respect universal fundamental principles. Olympism is a collection of values and principles that contribute to the improvement of mankind. In other words, the Olympic idea can be used as an educational tool in order to improve individuals and society (*Olympic Charter*, 2016).

Thailand and Olympism

The concept of balancing body, will, and mind in Olympism caught the attention of Chao Phraya Dharmasakmontri, an educator from Siam during his study in education in London. Chao Phraya Dharmasakmontri was educated in Siam and finished first in his class at his Teacher Training School. He was selected by the Minister of Education to continue his studies at Borough Road College, Isleworth near London in 1896.

During that time, the idea of Olympism was widespread among educators in Europe and, as evidenced in his later work, Chao Phraya Dharmasakmontri had adopted and incorporated many Olympic principles in Siam's educational system. At that time, the modern educational system was still new in the country. Most people were traditionally educated by monks in Buddhist temples. The educational system in those days emphasized mostly the teaching of Buddha, linguistics, Pali language, and the traditions of the country. Although this was appropriate in the past, a new method of education was urgently needed after Siam was connected to the rest of the world and South East Asia was colonized.

Chao Phraya Dharmasakmontri believed that what mattered mostly at that time was to develop good and competent citizens. National education had to be redesigned to promote: knowledge in various kind of sciences; strong morals and ethics; and good health and physical competency. Physically, a person has to fully grow accordingly with their age, health, discipline and athletic profile.

These aspects constitute the essence of physical education (Vongton, 2007). Chao Phraya Dharmasakmontri followed Baron Pierre De Coubertin's ideas and utilized Olympism as the foundation of Thai education while he was the minister of education. He suggested to his colleagues that a fully educated person has to study three subjects: 1) science to gain knowledge; 2) civil ethics to be able to behave correctly; and 3) physical education to be strong and healthy. This policy is derived from the Olympic idea that a full person has to be knowledgeable, have moral excellence, and be physically strong.

Chao Phraya Dharmasakmontri believed that, as can be seen from the introduction of "Baab Aan Sorn Mai," "civilian training should train people to be scientists, sportsmen and good citizens. The first aspect will make a person be under the power of reason. The second and third ones will create a trustable person ..." (Teamdetch, 1981). Specifically about physical education and sports, he believed that apart from promoting a healthy person, those two aspects could also build sportsmanship, which involved knowing when to forgive, to lose, to win, not to cause trouble, be polite and mentally stable. A person who had those qualities would receive trust from others. Physical education and sports were considered good for both body and mind, leading to the creation of a good citizen (Vongton, 2007).

When he came back to Siam, Dharmasakmontri worked in the Ministry of Education until he himself became Minister. Many aspects of the Olympic idea were expressed in much of his written work, songs, and poem, and some were even inserted as a part of the first National Educational Plan in 1932.

As the Minister of Education, Dharmasakmontri founded the Department of Physical Education. He also established sports competitions in Thailand. Initially, he organized a Student Football Tournament, in which the winner was awarded with the Ministry of Education's silver plate (Kurusapa, 1958). An athletic tournament was held annually. Also, by his initiative, teachers could take further education, in sport at the teacher's club (Samakhayajarn Samakom). This Teacher's Club was later developed into the Central Physical School (Ministry of Education 1964). The Central Physical Education School was then the first institution that offered physical education courses in Thailand (Muangnapoe, 2014).

Chao Praya Dharmasakmontri wrote many poems and songs about sport which incorporated the sports values and philosophy of Olympism (Muangnapoe, 2014), such as "The Sport Song" (Kraw Keela), "Fair Play",

and "Athletes" (Nuk Keela) poems etc. He believed that these songs and poems could shape someone's mind to become a better person through sport. Those songs and poems also exalted unity, patience, determination and the true spirit of sportsmanship.

Dharmasakmontri wrote the Sport Song "Kraw Keela" to promote sport competitions, something very new in Thailand at that time. The Student Football Tournament in Bangkok was just founded, but not so many students and schools were interested to participate. He realized that Thai people had very little knowledge about sport and its benefits. Most Thais thought of sports as something luxurious, enjoyed by the national elites; that ordinary people should go on with their life and not waste their time in these extravagant activities. So, to communicate his message across and promote the benefits of sport across the whole country, Dharmasakmontri wrote a song which was sung by students throughout Thailand.

The lyrics of the song are the following:

*We are brave athletes that would persist,
we are skillful at trying to win without discouragement.*

*We keep pressing when winning,
and we never shy away when losing.*

Sport is a magic medicine.

It would cure people from greed, anger, and ignorance.

It builds a person to be a perfect human being.

*In training oneself, in participating in international sport,
we would get the benefit of this magical medicine.*

This part of the song clearly stated the benefits of sport. The word "Kilesas" which in Pali means greed, anger, and ignorance, is inscribed in the teaching of Buddha that all people should work hard to fight and eliminate those three Kilesas. Blending the Olympic idea with Buddhism, which was thoroughly taught in Thai society, was a very intelligent idea. This way, Thai people could connect the new idea of education through sport with Buddhist education that is common in society. Also, in the beginning of the song, the qualities of being an athlete are highlighted: courage, persistence, the strive to excellence no matter what the outcome will be.

*We are strong with good shape and good muscle.
The body forge through sport are full of stamina, agility,
and the heart that would not fear.
Our heart is stable and noble,
we know how the do things properly,
we learn how to loose, to win, to forgive.
We are trustful people
no matter we are in the same team or on the opposite side.*

It is clear that this part of the song emphasizes excellence of the body and mind; that the balance between body, will, and mind can be achieved through sport participation. And in the last part of the song:

*We don't like to take advantage,
the competition has to be fair.
We would fight fairly and not do things behind the back.
It is so boring when people try
to do things for just themselves.
We hate it when the sport play
becomes a show of selfishness.*

Respect for the rules and respect for the others are highlighted in this part of the song. Nowadays, for Thais, the definition of sportsmanship is a direct quote from this part of the song: *To know how to loose, how to win, and how to forgive*. This show how much influence this song has had on Thai society.

The last part of the song goes:

*If we united we could conquer so many.
No matter it is work or play
we would have no fear.
Cooperation would bring us to our goal.*

Friendship and cooperation are well-stated here at the last part of the song. Thus, it seems clear that Olympic values inspired Chao Phraya Dharmasakmontri in writing this song. And from his many initiatives as Minister of Education and founder of the Physical Education Department, it could be safely concluded that the basic idea of education and physical education in Thailand derived from Coubertin's Olympic idea.

As such, it is obvious that Olympism was crucial for the Thai modern education system from its very beginning in 1932 and that Chao Praya Dharmasakmontri was the key person who introduced successfully this ideology from the work of Coubertin to his homeland, Thailand.

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ON SPORTS AND POLITICS: THE 1968 OLYMPIC GAMES IN MEXICO CITY

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The year 1968 may be considered the time when the issues that stayed dormant in the 1960s were catalyzed. Given that the Olympic Games were already considered one of the major events in the contemporary world, that edition was also marked by protests remitting to the political moment, then starred by athletes from different countries.

In that same year the organized Student Movement took the streets in different western countries demanding better learning conditions and many social reforms. The Civil Rights Movement, too, was organized in the United States, denouncing racial segregation. The Prague Spring which marked a period of political liberalization in Czechoslovakia during Soviet rule ended with the invasion of the Soviet Union army. In Latin American countries in which dictatorships prevailed, student organizations challenged the authoritarianism of such governments, which in turn disqualified and persecuted the movement as dangerous.¹

These are essential issues to understand, once those events are significant and decisive for the formation of the imaginary of the athletes who were participating in that edition of the Olympic Games; upon considering the Brazilian Olympic athletes, these reflections are fundamental, as they will facilitate the understanding of the aspects which were decisive to the organization and participation of the Brazilian representatives in the 1968 Olympic Games.

1. Faria & Miranda (2013).

From such background, this research has the purpose to understand, based on the life history of the Brazilian Olympic athletes, how the political events of the '60s interfered in the Brazilian participation in the 1968 Mexico Olympic Games.

The world facing the increasing Cold War

The '60s were marked by increasing disputes between the United States and the Soviet Union, two large geopolitical blocks formed after the Second World War (1939–1945) involving ideological, political and economic issues. With the end of the war, the United States were in a privileged economic position, being the strongest thriving country in the post-war context. This allowed the American government to develop a supportive plan for the capitalist economies of Western Europe.²

The planet was divided in three worlds: the first world of western capitalism, the second, of socialist countries, and the third, Latin America, Asia, and Africa. Capitalism versus socialism marked the Cold War (1945–1991), a war which never had a specific field of battle, but instead, involved the five continents increasing the arms race between both regimes, a situation of latent confrontation and a duel of the propaganda that divided the globe.³ Such division assumed new contours with the construction of the Berlin Wall, as it meant the materialization of the “Iron Curtain”, a concept used by Churchill to assign the limits between western and eastern worlds.

With Fidel Castro taking over power in Cuba along with army forces, the Cold War acquires clearer contours in countries of the Third World. The establishment of a communist government in that country posed a risk to the American hegemony in Latin America, and the “communist peril” became a close and undesirable neighbor.⁴ With the Cuban Revolution, the militaries feared a revolutionary war in the underdeveloped world, which would be parallel to the confrontation between the blocks of the great powers.

2. Sevcenko (2001).

3. Couto (2010); Sevcenko (2001); Faria & Miranda (2013).

4. Couto (2010).

Brazil under military dictatorship

The implementation of the military dictatorships in Latin America was the path found and ostensibly supported by the United States with a “national security philosophy” discourse to prevent disorder, to promote economic growth, and to form a barrier against communism. Such measure even assured the alignment of the economic block headed by the United States during the Cold War.⁵

The authoritarian regimes prohibited strikes and popular demonstrations. “From the North American point of view, those were trustable dictatorships, as they did not allow the presence of communist organizations in their territories”.⁶ The privileged sectors of society, fearing a popular radicalization similar to the Cuban revolution, gave up freedom in order to keep their economic control.

Within such context, no country was able to remain impartial to the conflict between the two superpowers. Brazil was not an exception, especially due to its strategic position in Latin America, as it has borders with a major part of the countries of that continent, and the estimated economic potential due to the size of its population. Those features kept Brazil under the gaze of North American politics, keeping it within their foreign policy plans by assuring its economic dependency and ideological alignment with the capitalist block.

President João Goulart (1961–1964) faced resistance to his government related to the political pattern proposed by him. Jango, as he was also known, entering in the government meant the return of a populist policy, and thus, “João Goulart meant the incarnation of the unionist republic and the gap through where the communists would come to the power.”⁷

Amidst an unacceptable social framework with confrontations between right and left groups, civilians and militaries, added to the pressure posed by the American government, João Goulart was deposed. With the coup, militaries readily conducted General Humberto de Alencar Castelo Branco (1964–1967) to the presidency, thus legitimating his government by means of the publication of the first Institutional Act (AI-1) providing exceptional powers to the military government. That was the first of a succession of decrees that had the purpose to limit the free exercise of the citizenship to Brazilian people.⁸

5. Faria & Miranda (2013); Fausto (1996).

6. Faria & Miranda (2013, p. 49).

7. Fausto (1996, p. 442).

8. Fausto (1996).

Under the government of Artur da Costa e Silva (1967–1969) new political measures were taken, such as the limitation of the autonomy of the states and the centralization of the decision-making process. The security agencies of the government received help from the “Media Law and the National Security Law” with the aim to control the actions of those who used to demonstrate their opposition to the repressive measures imposed by the military government.

Labor unions, the National Student Union (UNE), universities, newspapers, radio stations and other civil organizations had their headquarters occupied and destroyed. Those people who actively opposed the government were arrested, tortured or disappeared along the military regime.

The year 1968 in Brazil and the world

The year 1968 was marked by major mobilizations on a global scale, especially by student organizations. Those movements were rejecting everything related to the establishment, seeing them as old, obsolete and surpassed. They were demanding “new”, libertarian ideas following a Utopian vision.⁹ In the United States, protests were against the war in Vietnam and for the rights of the Afro-descendants (Black Panthers). In France, the student movement demanded improvements in education, and became a threat to the stability of the General De Gaulle government. In Czechoslovakia, there were protests against the invasion by the Soviet Union.¹⁰

Those ideas spread out influencing political movements in Brazil. In turn, they contributed to the hardening of the military regime, which acted in arbitrary and dictatorial ways, as the above ideals were in direct conflict with the workings of the military regime. In this context Brazilian people began to organize themselves showing their dissatisfaction. The civil resistance inspired by the waves coming from France took over the streets of the main cities in the country, strikes erupted in industrial centers, the student movements were being organized, and after “bloody Friday”, they promoted the March of the One Hundred Thousand, where millions of people took over the streets in Rio de Janeiro protesting against the Military Dictatorship.¹¹

9. Hobsbawm (1995).

10. Faria & Miranda (2013); Fausto (1996); Ventura (2013).

11. Ventura (2013).

The repression by the government of those popular movements came with the decree of the Institutional Act No. 5, a demonstration of power by the military government, as the decree provided full powers to suppress any public manifestation against the ideology of the state according to the words by Ronaldo Costa Couto (2010, p. 40) regarding the AI-5, “being on the left, even when not revolutionary, starts to become a police case”. The government mobilized all its forces in order to restrain a revolutionary war-like process.

Opposed to other Institutional Acts, the AI-5 was the most comprehensive and arbitrary instrument used by the regime becoming its major symbol; it had an undefined validity, and with such decree, the 1964 military regime was complete and radicalized. The militaries abandoned their ruling role as moderators of the crisis in the Republican government, replacing civil power for an indefinite term.¹²

The “State of Siege” was declared,¹³ the congress was closed, the duties of congressmen and the political rights were revoked. The censorship of the press and confidential military surveys were established. For Couto¹⁴ “the dictatorship did not assume itself as a dictatorship”, but the political repression increased and its methods and actions were exacerbated. Intimidations, tortures, kidnappings, disappearances and deaths marked the peak of military authoritarianism in Brazil. For Hobsbawm¹⁵ “1968 was neither an ending nor a principle; instead, it was only a signal”.

The 1968 Olympic Games and Mexico City

The period comprising the 1948 Olympic Games in London, England, until the 1984 Olympic Games in Los Angeles, USA, marked the phase of conflict for the Olympic Games.¹⁶ This phase began shortly after the end of the Second World War, and it was extended up to the '80s, marked by the boycott of the Soviet delegation in 1984, in response to the 1980 Olympic Games boycott in Moscow, Soviet Union, when the American delegation was denied participation.¹⁷

12. Gaspari(2014).

13. Brasil (1968).

14. Couto (2010).

15. Hobsbawm (1995, p. 280).

16. Rubio (2006).

17. Lico (2007).

The climate of uncertainty in which the world was living in the '60s left some marks in the 1968 Olympic Games in Mexico; and it really meant that "the world was in full boiling" and there was no way to escape. The athletes, in line with the youth of their time, were not there only to compete, but rather they represented their ideals, and political positions; thus, sports became the instrument for their declarations. "There was more than just a sports competition in Mexico City; upon the beginning of the Olympic Games it was bloodstained and had a scent of gunpowder. Further to the record-breaking goal, athletes seemed also disposed to reform the world".¹⁸

The "blood and gunpowder" mentioned by the author is related to the "Tlatelolco Massacre". Ten days before the official opening of the event, there was a well-attended demonstration against the government of Díaz Ordaz, who was ruling Mexico in an authoritarian way, approximating a military dictatorship; another event was the invasion of the campuses in two public universities, and finally the excessive expenditures and corruption in the management of the revenues allocated for the Olympic Games. The demonstration was harshly repressed by both the police and the army, according to of the security protocol adopted in the '60s, resulting in an unconfirmed number of deaths.¹⁹

The President of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), Avery Brundage, took a stand saying that it was an internal Mexican political issue, and this would not interfere with the peaceful development of the Olympic Games.²⁰ With such a speech, he tried to promote the apolitical and supranational aspect of the Olympic Movement, as advocated in the ideals by Pierre de Coubertin.

The controversies regarding the Olympic Games in Mexico started with the selection of the host city – as those were the first Games to be performed in Latin America – and the Third World, and this awakened the strong reservations of the Anglo-Saxons.²¹ Another dispute involved the attempt of international officers to invite South Africa and thus reintegrate them in group of participants; however, protests by other African nations and by the Soviet Union, as well as the threat of boycotts by some black athletes from the United States, made the IOC to revoke the invitation.

18. Cardoso (1996, p. 157).

19. Rubio (2004); Cardoso (1996).

20. Cardoso (1996).

21. Rubio (2004).

It was amidst such hostile climate in global politics and under a military dictatorship in Brazil that Brazilian athletes went to Mexico City. Political protests also occurred during those Games, but they went unnoticed. Those were protests as to global politics through individual actions by the athletes performed on the highest place of the podium aiming to show their indignation.

During the award ceremony of the 200-meter athletics two black athletes from the United States, Tommie Smith and John Carlos, after receiving their medals on the podium, raised their arms with their fists closed in black gloves, making a reference to the revolutionary group Black Panthers and they bowed their head during the national anthem of their country. The gesture was to demonstrate the support of the athletes to the Black Movement in the United States in protest against the racial segregation that marked the politics in their country. The act was broadcasted live by television to the whole world.

The IOC demanded decisive measures from the American Olympic Committee, and the athletes were expelled from the delegation and suspended from their sports activities.²² Such measure divided opinions in the American delegation and removed Avery Brundage from the delivery of medals to other athletics games under the threat of boycott of the athletes who posed a threat refusing to receive the award if it would be delivered by the President of the IOC. The American athletes demonstrated their indignation and solidarity with their teammates and continued with new protests referring to their fellows expelled from the competition and to the racism present in American society.

Within the rings, when the athlete George Foreman was receiving his golden medal, he celebrated his victory waving a small American flag. As that was a national symbol showing reverence to his country, such an act was excluded from the history records as a political protest, since this is excluded from the protocols acceptable by the Games organizers. But when we consider the wider context of the Games, especially the organization of the Black Movement in the United States and the repercussion of the athletes by the track and field athletes, a black boxing athlete waving the American flag after conquering a golden medal surpasses a mere gesture of patriotism.

Another protest during the same Games occurred during the award ceremony of the Czech Vera Caslavská, artistic gymnastics athlete, when on her fourth

22. Rubio (2004); Cardoso (1996); Salvador (2004).

podium she shared the first place with the Soviet Larisa Petrick. When the anthem of the Soviet Union was being played, the athlete changed her position in a gesture of non-reverence to the national symbols, as a protest against the Prague invasion. Months before the beginning of the Olympic Games the athlete had experienced the invasion as a threat to her participation as the new authorities did not authorize her exit from the country.²³ The IOC did not take any punitive measures, having in mind the repercussion of the expulsion of the American athletes, and also, the popularity that the Czech athlete had with the Mexican population.

After those episodes, it was impossible for the IOC to reassure the practice of the ideals set by Pierre de Coubertin as to the apolitical stance of the Olympic Movement, related to its positioning in the 1968 Olympic Games. But then, the very subtle string between politics and the Olympic movement was tested. Those events marked the Olympic annals and they are recorded in the articles and books that deal with the subject. Other political manifestations happened in that same Olympic Games, but the IOC turned a blind eye in order to prevent the repercussion of those manifestations having the same proportion than that performed by the American sprinters.

Athletes compete as members of a nation, and they serve the interests of the state, since they stand as figures of national heroes. “Los Estados no dudan en usar a los campeones, sean de la raza que sean, siempre que les consigan más medallas que los ‘otros’”.²⁴

National states recognize and reassure in each edition the political dimension that sports have taken on in modern days. Bonavides²⁵ attributes to the State the condition of a quintessentially political phenomenon; the national representation in the participation of the Olympic Games aggregates the nationalist feeling which has been used by several countries to increase their prestige at the international level. Such relationship between sports, politics, and nationalism is expressed in the award ceremonies by the raising of the flags of the winner countries and playing the national anthem of the nations composing the podium.²⁶

23. Cardoso (1996).

24. Salvador (2004, p. 652).

25. Bonavides (1983).

26. Salvador (2004).

Strength, skills and virility are desirable features to the citizens of a nation, and thus, the figure of the athlete is confounded with the image of the State in the expression of those values as characteristics of these certain people. It is understood that “the agreement in defending specific colors, marks, and wordings reflects at least a tolerance to everything that follows those who defend themselves”.²⁷

Final considerations

The Olympic Games in Mexico are a significant event for those researchers considering the relationship between the sportive phenomenon and political events in contemporary society. The political manifestations and the stands taken by the athletes once again posed a risk for the apolitical and supranational condition of the modern Olympic Games.

In other times, it was possible for such condition to occur; for instance, that was the case with the interruption of the Olympic Games caused by the two World Wars; also the attempt to make political use of sports by the Nazi government to show a possible master race by Adolf Hitler, and the use of sports for the ideological propaganda between the capitalist and socialist blocks during the Cold War, serving as a “civilized” combat between nations. During that period, medals started being counted as points in favor of their respective regimes. Sports became a benchmarking instrument of success for one political system in relation to another, establishing an unwanted superiority relationship by the Olympic Movement.

This research is in progress, as part of a doctorate degree at the School of Physical Education at São Paulo University, Brazil. However, from references on the subject and by analyzing the interviews, some considerations are necessary in order to understand the issues raised by the research.

As to the Brazilian participation in that edition of the Games, a relationship seems to exist between the number of athletes who participated in the Games and the political context in Brazil. Firstly, the Brazilian delegation was no greater than one dozen athletes, and moments before, such number grew to eighty athletes; this coincides with the Decree of the Institutional Act no. 5 (AI-5) which

27. Lico (2007, p. 16).

suspended every individual freedom and marked the most repressive period of the Brazilian dictatorship.

The participation and performance of American athletes can be explained when one observes the place that sports occupy in the education of that country. The American educational model is based on fundamentals of the British education system in which sport occupies the same space and importance as those disciplines classified as intellectual. Thus, sports has an ensured place in North American universities, a privileged space with the purpose of spreading ideas and discussing the way the world is organized and also the space and value of cultural identity in that universe.

Finally, it is worth pointing out the Historical Prominence concept which emphasizes the inability of the individual to perceive or elect what is a historical moment in his daily life. This analysis points out that when the interviewed athlete recalls a fact, he identifies it as historical and places himself as an eyewitness, but also pointing out the nebulosity of that same fact when experiencing it.

Thus, the value of the present research lies on the search for more than one redefinition of the historical fact, thus contributing to the reflection on the history of the contemporary individual, demarcating his place in history and understanding himself as a historical and social being.

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REPEATABILITY OF POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS DURING THE OLYMPIC GAMES AS AN EXEMPLIFICATION OF THE RECURRENCE SYNDROME

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The recurrence syndrome is a phenomenon in the science of international relations. It refers to the recurrence of crucial political events that significantly affect or even entirely transform multilateral interstate relations every twenty-five years (Wojciechowski 2005, p. 12). The most frequent examples of the syndrome refer directly to events of the 20th century, such as the outbreak of World War I in 1914, followed by the outbreak of World War II a quarter of a century later. In 1964 China became a nuclear weapons state and embarked on the process of disentanglement from Soviet influences, changing the distribution of power in the Far East. In the same year, Martin Luther King received the Nobel Peace Prize for his civil rights activities and for combating racial segregation in the United States. This triggered a number of transformations worldwide and led to the granting of full civil rights to African-Americans. The year 1989 witnessed the events of the Autumn of Nations which led to the end of communist rule in the states of Central and Eastern Europe, and brought a symbolic end to the Cold War and the fall of the Berlin Wall. International relations experts contemplate whether the recurrence syndrome will affect events of the 21st century. It appears that the political crisis in Crimea as a result of the Euromaidan protests in Kiev led in effect to the annexation of Crimea by the Russian Federation and brought about an international debate on the geopolitical stability and peace in the countries of Eastern Europe.

Assumptions on the recurrence syndrome can be also applied to the developments of the 19th, 18th or even earlier centuries. The year 1789 is

immediately associated with the outbreak of the French Revolution, 1814 with the beginnings of the Congress of Vienna and establishing a new world order for the next one hundred years, and 1839 with the First Opium War between the United Kingdom and the Qing Empire; 1864 saw the most decisive battles of the American Civil War, and a quarter of a century later the Meiji Constitution was enacted in Japan as the first codified state constitution in Asia.

Particular assertions of the recurrence syndrome, especially its cyclic character, that refer directly to critical global events and political incidents, can be also used for analyzing of relations between politics and the Olympic Movement and sport in general. The phenomenon of recurrence of certain sport events in strict relationship with global multilateral politics can be observed since the organization of the first modern Olympic Games in 1896. In my view, however, crucial links between the Olympic Games and the international state of affairs occur not every twenty-five, but every twenty years.

The following analysis of developments from 1896, 1916, 1936, 1956, 1976 and 1996 is an attempt to exemplify the syndrome of recurrence associated with physical culture and Olympism. The conclusions consider the possibility of a logical connections between the discussed events, and whether it can be asserted that the future events of the 21st century will also be reflected in the aforementioned theory.

1896: the first Olympic Games of the modern era

The idea of a modern Olympic Movement had been growing in the mind of Baron Pierre de Coubertin since the mid-1850s, when inspired by the organization of the Much Wenlock Olympian Games in Shropshire, England, he decided to start preparations for a much greater international sport event. Coubertin assumed that his vision of sport served the development of individuals and, first and foremost, enhanced the educational potential of sport pedagogy (Zdebska 2008, p. 77). In his view, athletes were to demonstrate their prowess during the Olympic Games in accordance with the ideas of Olympism and values of the Olympic Movement. From the very beginning, Coubertin stressed the non-political character of the Olympic Movement. In practice, however, there was always a visible discord between the actual sports activities and the impartiality and neutrality of the Movement. In essence, Coubertin intended to elevate the

position of France in international sport, since French sport successes outside France were virtually non-existent. The first Summer Olympic Games were preceded by an Olympic Congress aimed at reviving the ancient Olympic Games. Already during the Congress proceedings, the links with politics became clearly visible, e.g. the appointment of the Congress Presidium' members or of a three-person body responsible for the organization of the future Games, was dominated by the French and English-speaking officials (Młodzikowski 1984, pp. 13–14). Moreover, the German Gymnastic Association openly excluded the participation of its representatives in the planned Games, due to Coubertin's French nationality perceived as a problem (Kluge 1968). One of the reasons for this opposition was the increasing political tension between France and the German Empire at the end of the 19th century. It is undeniable, however, that Pierre de Coubertin's activity brought about a successful revival of the Olympics, with the consequences of this remarkable achievement being still visible today.

1916: Cancellation of the Berlin Olympic Games

The Games of the VI Olympiad were scheduled to be held in Berlin, the capital of the German Empire, in 1916. Berlin had been selected as host city during the 14th Session of the International Olympic Committee in Stockholm on 4 July 1912, having defeated bids from Alexandria, Amsterdam, Brussels, Budapest and Cleveland. Soon after, adaptation works commenced to make the Deutsches Stadion in Berlin suitable for staging the Olympic events. The official opening of the stadium took place on 8 June 1913 with the triumphant release of ten thousand pigeons, and German Emperor Wilhelm II Hohenzollern celebrated his 25 years on the German throne "60,000 Dedicate... 1913". The Games were cancelled after the outbreak of World War I, as the international community had not realized that the conflict would spread to other continents. One of the most ardent advocates of the right to re-host the Olympics Berlin's was Justinien de Clary, a former trap shooter and 1900 Olympic bronze medalist, who at that time was President of the French Olympic Committee [Findling, Pelle 1996, pp. 51–52]. For one year after the outbreak of the war, Pierre de Coubertin was hesitant to cancel the Games, claiming that, even in the case of cancellation, the Berlin Olympics would still receive their official serial number (VI), as it used to be the case in ancient Greece. Ultimately, he decided

to cancel the Games in 1915, coping with the issue of political impartiality of the International Olympic Committee and facing the demands of Theodore Cook to expel German nationals from the IOC membership. Coubertin decided to suspend the activities of the IOC until the cessation of hostilities (Młodzikowski 1984, pp. 66–67).

1936: Nazi politics and anti-semitism during the Berlin Olympics

Berlin got the opportunity to enhance its international position and promote its own vision of German statehood, precisely twenty years later. The growing significance of the Olympics drew the attention of German politicians and Nazi party officials, who intended to demonstrate to the world the strong and unquestionable place of Germany in Europe through the organization of a sport spectacle. Initially, the choice of Berlin was not controversial. In the vote by correspondence, Berlin won 46 votes, Barcelona 16, and only 8 votes were abstaining (Mayer 1960, pp. 130–131). However, Adolf Hitler, who rose to power on 30 January 1933, forged a racial ideology and commenced an unprecedented reign of terror. National sport in Germany became completely dominated and controlled by the National Socialist German Workers' Party (NSDAP); a close associate of Adolf Hitler, Hans von Tschammer und Osten, became the Reich Sports Leader and the President of the German Olympic Committee. One of the biggest issues for the Third Reich was the prospect of ideologically inappropriate participation by German athletes of Jewish origin in the Olympic Games. The then IOC President, Henri de Baillet-Latour, proposed an official motion during the 33rd Session of the IOC in Vienna urging the Third Reich officials to respect the provisions of the *Olympic Charter* and allow German athletes of Jewish descent to participate. The German authorities issued a statement claiming that “as a rule German Jews will not be excluded from the Games of the XI Olympiad”. This statement was only a temporary reassurance to the IOC members, because the same problem came up again during the 32nd Session of the IOC in Athens, but the German delegation confirmed the earlier assertion (Kobierecki 2010, pp. 203–204). Only the British and the Americans were adamant. The latter, during a congress of the Amateur Athletic Union, passed a resolution calling for a boycott of the Olympics and requested the United States Olympic Committee to do the same. However the USOC

President Avery Brundage, known for his anti-Semitic views and affinity with the Nazi regime, blocked the adoption of the boycott resolution (Walters 2008, pp. 40–43).

In effect, a few German athletes of distant Jewish origin were allowed to take part in the Olympics, e.g. foil fencer Helena Mayer, – thanks, among many others, to Dr Theodor Lewald, a German IOC member of Jewish descent – whose achievements and membership were affirmed by Hitler himself. Hitler's intention was, first of all, to glorify the Nazi regime and demonstrate Germany's military might. In 1936, the political objectives completely marginalized the Olympic idea.

1956: The Suez Crisis, the Hungarian Uprising and the Melbourne Olympic Games

A number of countries decided to withdraw from the Melbourne Olympic Games after the Soviet Union bloodily suppressed the Hungarian Uprising in 1956. They claimed that the sacred idea of Olympic Truce had been violated and that a sport spectacle in the context of incessant armed conflict should not be organized in the first place. Moreover the invasion of Egypt by Israel, France and the UK on 29 October 1956, and the incessant political conflict between Taiwan and the People's Republic of China affected the political stance of a number of nations during the Olympics. Due to these international tensions, the Melbourne Olympics were boycotted by Egypt, Switzerland, Spain, the Netherlands, Iraq, Libya and the PRC. These countries were soon followed by Lebanon, Panama, Guatemala, Malta and the Gold Coast "*The Official of the Organising Committee...*" 1958, pp. 23–24). The year 1956 witnessed the first significant attempts of using the Olympics to advance political objectives through a boycott. The countries that withdrew from the Olympics were far from criticizing the organizers, but simply intended to express their political opinions about armed conflicts and political decisions made worldwide.

Undoubtedly, the most significant sport rivalry during the Melbourne Olympics was the water polo match between Hungary and the Soviet Union. Considering the Soviet intensity of brutal attacks against Hungarian citizens in 1956, a victory in a match against the USSR was of fundamental importance for the Hungarian water polo team. In the last minutes of the match, Valentin Prokopov punched Ervin Zádor in the face damaging his right eyebrow ridge

and causing a bleeding gash. The water in the pool turned red. The blood in the water became a tangible symbol of this rivalry, and the referee finally stopped the match before its completion and awarded the victory to the Hungarian team.

1976: African nations boycotting the Olympic Games in Montreal

The 1976 Olympics in Montreal witnessed one of the greatest collective boycotts by national teams in history. The boycott was staged as a protest against the international situation of the day as a result of the growing demands of African nations which the Olympic Movement did not meet. Additionally, the issue of Taiwan's participation also re-surfaced after twenty years. In April 1976 there were no indications that Taiwan might not be allowed to participate. A month later the problem of the Taiwanese team competing under the name of the Republic of China appeared. The organizers agreed that Taiwan would compete only under its own flag and with its own national anthem. The PRC, which maintained diplomatic ties with Canada, had warned against allowing Taiwan to compete at the Olympics ("Game playing..." 1976). The noble idea of Olympic rivalry was again reflected in political developments, and five members of the national Taiwanese Olympic team, who had already been in Montreal, ultimately left the Olympic village.

The boycott of the Montreal Olympics by a number of African states was directed against the participation of the New Zealand team, which maintained sport contacts with South Africa and was planning to organize a South African rugby union team tour of New Zealand in 1976. For that reason, on 26 April 1976, the Executive Committee of the Supreme Council for Sport in Africa decided on non-participation in the Olympic events which New Zealand athletes declared to attend. In June 1976, after failing to reach an agreement with the New Zealand authorities, during the session of the Organization of African Unity, the heads of national Olympic delegations of the OAU member-states decided to boycott the Games and submitted an official letter to the IOC urging officials to ban New Zealand athletes from the Games. It should be noted that the very collective decision of the African states was itself a *de facto* reflection of the influence of politics on sport, since such agreements and decisions were in direct contradiction with the *Olympic Charter*. The IOC rejected their proposal categorically (Sloniewski 2016, pp. 57–61). All in all, 27 African states withdrew

from the Montreal Olympics and they were joined later by Iraq and Guyana, which expressed their solidarity with the boycotting nations. As a result, the African continent was only represented at the 1976 Olympics by Senegal and the Ivory Coast, which had ignored the decisions of the Organization of African Unity (Nowicka 1986, pp. 266–267).

Although the African boycott had a rather insignificant international impact, most likely because it was directed only against New Zealand, it was at that time the greatest form of protest directly related to the Olympic Games. It was also the first time when pressure, threats, and blackmailing failed to accomplish the intended objective. It revealed the significant problem of racial segregation and apartheid, and the applied protest form demonstrated that only a complete abandonment of apartheid policies would solve this complex issue as signaled by African countries in 1976.

1996: the Centennial Olympic Park bombing during the Atlanta Summer Olympics

The terrorist bomb attack at the Centennial Olympic Park during the 1996 Olympics in Atlanta committed by Eric Robert Rudolph on 27 July seriously overshadowed the Olympic sport events. The blast killed two and injured 111 people. The scale of damage might have been much greater, if it had not been for the security guard Richard Jewell, who discovered the bomb before detonation and cleared most of the spectators out of the park.

The bomber intended to force the authorities to cancel the Olympics. Shortly after midnight, he carried into the park three pipe bombs filled with masonry nails (which caused most of the human injuries) using the ALICE (All-Purpose Lightweight Individual Carrying Equipment) load bearing system (Brenner 1997). Rudolph had already notified the police about his plans. The explosion killed a 44-year-old, Alice Hawthorne, when a nail from the bomb penetrated her skull. A Turkish cameraman, Melih Uzunyol, had a fatal heart attack while running to the scene (Jacobs 1996). US President Bill Clinton denounced the explosion as an “evil act of terror” and vowed to do everything possible to track down and punish those responsible (“Clinton pledges...” 1996). Despite the attack, officials and athletes agreed that the Olympics should continue as planned.

Rudolph admitted later that he had been considering his actions for a long

time. He stated that: “Even though the conception and purpose of the so-called Olympic Movement is to promote the values of global socialism [...] the purpose of the attack on 27 July was to confound, anger and embarrass the Washington government in the eyes of the world for its abominable sanctioning of abortion on demand” (Robertson 2007, p. 152).

Conclusion

The 25-year recurrence syndrome that refers to strategic political developments of crucial importance in the past centuries, can be applied in research on interactions between politics and all forms of Olympic rivalry. The degree of these interactions varies and depends on particular circumstances; however, a thorough study of these developments allows us to state that, roughly every twenty years, politics tends to shut out the Olympic events and aspire to be the key component of the Games. The syndrome of recurrence of developments directly related to multilateral politics can be observed since the very beginning of the modern Olympic Games in 1896.

The theory of repeatability of political developments during the Olympic Games adopted in the present paper and the research results confirm the recurrence of a significant dominance of politics over sports events during the 1896, 1916, 1936, 1956, 1976 and 1996 Olympic Games. Certain general conclusions can be drawn regarding the leading political factors over particular Olympics:

As early as 1896, the organization of the first Olympic Games of the modern era was politically biased. Pierre de Coubertin’s indirect objective was to undertake quick and effective educational reforms in the area of physical culture in France (being *de facto* a sport backwater of Europe at the time) as well as stabilize and improve France’s international position. Coubertin also attempted to enhance the role of France by appointing French and British representatives to the Presidium and organizational bodies of the Olympic Congress in order to assert control over these institutions.

If it had not been for the outbreak of World War I, which was caused complex international political entanglements, the 1916 Olympics could have taken place in Berlin, as scheduled. Initially, no one expected that the war would continue for several years and engulf states from different continents. The decision to cancel the Games and suspend the activities of the IOC was taken in 1915.

The organization of the 1936 Olympic Games by the Third Reich aimed to prove the unquestionable position of Nazi Germany in Europe. The turning point was the rise of Adolf Hitler, who commenced the implementation of Nazi racial ideology and the reign of terror. Hitler intended to use the Berlin Olympics to demonstrate Germany's military might and glorify the Nazi regime at the expense of the noblest Olympic ideas.

The invasion of Egypt by the United Kingdom, France and Israel, affecting the stance of a number of nations competing during the Olympic Games, the incessant political conflict between the People's Republic of China and Taiwan, and the bloody suppression of the Hungarian Uprising by the Soviet Union completely overshadowed the events of the Melbourne Olympics in 1956. The highlight of the Games was a water polo match between Hungary and the USSR, which turned into a literally bloody rivalry in the water.

The 1976 Summer Olympics in Montreal faced the biggest collective boycott in the Olympic history to date. The boycott was a protest against the current global political situation, and it resulted from increasing demands put forward by African countries to the IOC and the controversies related to the participation of Taiwan in the Games. All in all, 27 national Olympic teams from Africa withdrew from the Games, and two other representations also joined the boycott in solidarity with the aggrieved athletes.

In 1996 a terrorist bomb attack overshadowed the sport events of the Olympic Games in Atlanta. The victims were killed and injured in the name of politics and the main motive behind the attack was to embarrass the US government for its controversial sanctioning of abortion on demand.

Certainly, the above study on the Olympic Games does not belittle the significance of the events in Munich in 1972, Moscow in 1980, Los Angeles in 1984, Seoul in 1988, or other Olympics, which involved some events directly related to the political situation of the day. According to two American political scientists, Patrick M. Cottrell and Travis Nelson, since the 1936 Berlin Olympics all consecutive Olympics have been exploited for some political purposes (Cottrell, Nelson 2010, pp. 729–730). Although the intensity of political developments may vary from year to year, and they may be quite different in nature, some important occurrences may clearly point to the high level of association between the Olympic Games and politics. It is rather difficult to question the validity of the aforementioned theory since, for example, such

developments as World War I or Nazi racial and anti-Semitic policies did permanently transform the course of the Olympic events and clearly went down in the history of the Olympic Games. The observable recurrence of connections between the Olympics and political developments may also be a harbinger of some future, potentially turning events during the Olympic Games of the 21st century, which cannot be confidently predicted at present.

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Abstract

The article examines instances of the impact of politics and international relations on sport and the Olympic movement in view of the so-called Syndrome of the 25-year Recurrence. The recurrence of developments directly related to multilateral politics can be observable since the organization of the first Olympic Games of the modern era in 1896. Although the degree of relations between the Olympics and international politics has varied and depended on specific circumstances, politics has tended to overshadow the Olympic spectacle and aspired to be the key component of the Games, roughly every twenty years. The author argues, on the basis of numerous examples, that the Olympic Games in the years 1896, 1916, 1936, 1956, 1976 and 1996 were dominated by political developments.

Keywords

Olympism, politics, recurrence syndrome

1. Known in professional literature as the Syndrome of the 25-year Recurrence.

2. Researchers often suggest the eventful year of 1964 as an example of the 25-year recurrence syndrome. The most crucial events of that year included the war in Vietnam and the first military defeat of the United States against guerillas during the Cold War, subsequent changes in US military strategy and a symbolic breakdown of American power; Leonid Brezhnev's rise to power as the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union on 14 October; and the establishment of the United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP) to supervise the ceasefire between Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots, to patrol the UN Buffer Zone in Cyprus, and to facilitate a return to normal conditions.

THE INFANT STAGE OF OLYMPISM IN ETHIOPIA VERSUS ETHIOPIAN-NOC GOVERNANCE

Daniel Abebe KIFLE (ETH)

NOC of Ethiopia

Introduction

Ethiopia is a country found in the horn of Africa with a federalized government representing 80+ ethnic groups. It has a variety of topography ranging from the rift valley lowlands to the highlands of Semen Mountains and Arsi highlands. It is endowed with several natural resources as well as cultural traditions. Most of Ethiopia's economy is agriculture-based.

The history of the Olympic Movement in the country began back in 1924, when the founder of the International Olympic Committee and the renovator of the Olympic Games, Baron Pierre De Coubertin, invited the prince regent of Ethiopian Ras Teferi Mekonnen to the Games of the 8th Olympiad in Paris in 1924.

After the Second World War, emperor Haile Selassie of Ethiopia established a Sports Confederation in 1949 with the assignment to ensure Ethiopia's participation in the Olympic Games. Among the members of the Committee there was a citizen of Greece, Mr Edward Virvilis, assigned to get in touch with the IOC and make Ethiopia register as a member. Thanks to the efforts of Mr Virvilis, Ethiopia began participating in the Olympics in 1956, in Melbourne, Australia. The country participated in all the following Games except in those of 1976 due to boycott to express opposition against the participation of the team from the Apartheid regime of South Africa, and those of 1984 and 1988 due to the East-West political ideological differences at the time. The ETH NOC was recognized by the International Olympic Committee in 1954.

Ethiopia's reputation in the grand sporting events started back in the days of Abebe Bikilla, who in September 1960 stunned the world by winning the Olympic Marathon, running the entire race barefoot in the streets of Rome. It was the first ever Marathon gold medal won by an African. The victory marked a great moment for Ethiopia and running became not only a national sport but also a national obsession in every corner of the country.

Ethiopian athletes are usually represented as “born runners” and the story of their lives is often limited to their early years, referring either to their rural activities – as sons and daughters of peasants, or to the long distance they had to walk – and sometimes supposedly to run – on the way to school (Bezabih and Benoit, 2007).

During the Summer Olympic Games from 1956 to 2012, Ethiopian participants won 45 medals, all in Athletics.

The purpose of this paper is to broadly examine how the ETH NOC has been engaging in order to enhance Olympic philosophy/Olympism in the nation. The sacred responsibility as enshrined in the *Olympic Charter* to enhance the Olympic Movement and Olympism in Ethiopia to the Ethiopian Olympic Committee six decades ago.

The hypothesis of this paper underscores that Olympism (Olympic Movement) in Ethiopia has not achieved the expected developments so far, the reason being mainly related to governance problems, even though the Committee established earlier than most African countries has good records in terms of medals since its participation. Has the governance problem of ETH NOC contributed to the infant stage of Olympism in Ethiopia? This paper will attempt to shed light onto the major aspects of governance of ETH NOC and will make certain recommendations.

This paper is based on sources of information and reference books, unpublished NOC documents and other related materials (e.g. reports) which deal with the Olympic Movement and Olympism.

Despite the ETH NOC longevity, the expansion and development of Olympism throughout the nation has not been consolidated. The issue of Olympism is regularly entertained almost at the beginning and the end of every edition of the Olympic Games. According to Fekrou Kidane (2015) the ETH NOC grows old but does not grow up in the eyes of the modern Olympic thoughts. The Ethiopian Olympic Committee is merely depicted in the eyes of

the Ethiopian public as of the Ethiopian Athletics Federations because Ethiopia is well known by its middle – and long – distance runner remarkable achievements in the world's various grand sporting events, particularly in the Olympic Games. Also, the ETH NOC's tasks and the very reason for its existence are rarely known except with very limited stakeholders, mainly those who have affiliations with it. For this particular state of affairs, the ETH NOC governance has its share. The major problems at hand are the major cornerstones of the Olympic Movement: the ETH NOC, the national sport federations, the athletes, the commissions under the ETH NOC, schools, colleges, the government and the media are not working harmoniously towards the same cause, Olympism.

Governance and the Olympic Movement

Corporate governance has been an integral part of business practices. A much broader functional definition is provided by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2004) describing corporate governance as:

a set of relationships between a company's management, its board, its shareholders and other stakeholders. Corporate governance also provides the structure through which the objectives of the company are set, and the means of attaining these objectives and monitoring performance are determined.

It is a notion representing organizational management of human, financial and material resources to effect desired outcomes. It is an instrument employed to achieve success. It creates conditions necessary for success by enhancing capacity to make the most effective use of resources and allowing a particular organization to consider fully the interests of stakeholders.

This definition recognizes not only the relationship between organizational entities and shareholders but also a wide array of relationships between company and other stakeholders. Such viewpoint is generally expressed as "Stakeholder theory" (Solomon and Solomon, 2004).

The development and enhancement of the Olympic Movement directly intermingles with the governance framework.

"The Olympic Movement is like an iceberg, people only see the tip, that is, the Olympic Games" (Anton Geesink, 1992). According to Coubertin, the

educational aspect of Olympism and the Olympic values are the foundation of the unique character of the Olympic Movement.

Olympism has two inseparable wings, the Olympic Games and the Olympic Movement. The Movement's aim is to promote man's positive physical and moral characteristics in order to enrich a better and more peaceful world. Only the Games and the Movement together can achieve at least some of the Olympic ideals.

Nawal, vice President of IOC emphasizes that the Olympic values – excellence, respect; friendship, fair play, non-discrimination; tolerance and solidarity – will never change. They are the foundation of the Olympic Movement, and any process of renewal and adaptation has to serve those goals. That is the motivation behind Olympic Agenda 2020.

Media, Olympic education and the Olympic Movement

Olympism is not a neutral phenomenon with a common meaning for all. It was only within a particular set of discursive formations that the object, "Olympism", could develop as a meaningful construct. The mass media lays more emphasis upon the contribution of the Olympic Movement towards world peace, good will and the development of sport. According to Teshager (2016):

Media is an indispensable element of the discursive practices of the Olympic events. Without the media the Olympics could not be a global phenomenon. The media are not mere mediators between the Olympic Games and the audience. They are part of it, organically linked. The whole narratives of the Olympic Games through the media are the discourses of the philosophy of Olympism, tacitly and explicitly... It's not the power of the athletes, the politicians; it's the power of the media that the Olympic Games, viability and visibility guaranteed.

Teshager points out that the role of sports journalists lies in the sphere of the issues of Olympics. He stresses that Olympic Games reporting need not necessarily be restricted to actual information, but should also include articles and audio visual elements on the value of Olympic philosophy alongside its sociological and anthropological dimensions.

Coubertin's aim was educational reform, and the task is still valid today. Schools are of particular significance in this. The Olympic principles should

be present throughout school education. Young people in particular should be brought closer to the Olympic ideals through education. Education establishments must therefore include these on their curricula, since this is the only way in which the regular and lasting expansion of Olympic ideals can be guaranteed. National Olympic Committees are in charge to ensure the development and protection of the Olympic Movement and sport in general within their territories.

“School sport must be modernized and intensified in order that it will continue to be effective in later years. Otherwise, participation, outstanding performances and the development of the Olympic Movement would be a nightmare...” (Fekrou Kidane, 2015)

The Olympic Games are to have a greater influence on the general population; the schools have a major role to play. Youth education is incomplete if it does not include physical education. It is insufficient to offer sport on the curricula; educational principles should also be represented.

The Olympic Movement in Ethiopia

Sport in Ethiopia has been promoted and developed by public and private initiatives for a long time now. The Department of Physical Education was established in the 1940s.

As far as policy choice is concerned, the Ethiopian government quite clearly recognizes the fundamental significance of the Olympic Movement and sports education in general development planning.

The National Olympic Committees, like ETH NOC, have profound influence on the Olympic Movement because they are responsible for delivering Olympic knowledge and promoting the Olympic spirit and ideals. In the last decade, ETH NOC began its educational activities in Ethiopia. These activities include workshops and seminars as well as the All Ethiopian Games that are applied in order to promote the Olympic ideals in Ethiopia. The seminars and workshops are merely and mainly focused on mainstream media journalists and sport administrators working on major cities nine regional states of the country.

The National Olympic Committee of Ethiopia Executive Board comprised of six members: the President, First Vice President, one Vice President, Secretary General, IOC member for Ethiopia and a Treasurer. According to the Olympic

Charter, the members of the Executive Board are elected from the general assembly of the ETH NOC.

According to the reports of ETH NOC (2013/2014, 2014/2015 and nine months' report in 2016), interviews with five sport journalists and seven federal and regional sport administrators, there is a number of governance challenges that have influenced the stage of Olympism development in the country. The reports and the interviewees stated that sport is, in general, greatly appreciated. However, Ethiopians are lacking in information regarding Olympism.

The major problems and obstacles for this occurrence have also been identified in detail: Olympic education in the rural environment is not delivered properly; the structural limitation (centralized structure) of ETH NOC; the educational role of the journalists is almost nonexistent; all the stakeholders at national level are not coordinated; the *Olympic Charter* is not yet translated, at least in the major languages; of the country, where there are more than 90 million people with distinct languages, the existing ETH NOC structure cannot accommodate to enhance the Movement of the country (lack of ETH NOC trained manpower on Olympism); the gap between the operational staff and the executive board has not been bridged by the ETH NOC Commissions; the predominant western sport, football in particular, coverage in local media channels; lack of sport facilities; lack of Olympic-oriented education in school curricula; the issue of Olympism usually not incorporated in the strategic plans of the federations; those who took advanced training through IOC & IOA in collaboration with Olympic Solidarity, do not transfer the knowledge they gained (there is no knowledge management mechanism). Even though Ethiopia has had a very successful history of gold medalists in the Olympic Games, there is a serious lack of knowledge about the Olympics, in the country.

Currently, there are 28 Sport federations and associations under the umbrella of ETH NOC.

Recommendations

Ethiopian Olympic Committee is also expected to serve as a forum for concerted action with sport federations, government, media, and other stakeholders for the promotion and development of the Olympic Movement/Olympism in Ethiopia. In order to meet this objective:

- ETH NOC couldn't continue to operate with its old structure and mandate, therefore, the NOC has to conduct an in-depth appraisal of its current structures and functions and adapt and cope up with Olympic Agenda 2020.
- Meaningful cooperation with all stakeholders is critical for the harmonization and coordination of efforts to enhance the Olympic Movement in the nation. The existing poor communication with the stakeholders has to be significantly improved.
- Evaluate the governance of the ETH NOC, in particular the role of the Board and the Commissions. The need to define, redistribute the functions and the different components of the Commissions is highly urgent. Currently, the members of those six Commissions comprise ineffectiveness members of the Commissions meet infrequently thus contributing to ineffectiveness. The almost inexistent Commissions are: Athlete Commission, Development Commission, Medical Commission, Technical Commission, Women Commission and Olympic Education Commissions)
- The distinct nature of Athletics sport, Olympics, and the Olympic Movements has to be addressed by formulating different projects in collaboration with Olympic Solidarity.
- The educational role of the journalists in relation to the Olympic Movement has to be reviewed and upgraded.
- The Ethiopian Olympic Academy has to be established within the next five years (12 years ago the Ethiopian government handed over 1200 square meter land to ETH NOC, freely dedicated to National Olympic Academy).
- Olympians (the Olympic athletes) have to pass on their experiences on the Olympic Movement issues to help Olympism gain more popularity.
- Olympic Solidarity's support for needy ETH NOC has to be strengthened through targeted programs.

Conclusions

National Olympic Committees (NOCs) from various countries need to provide considerable support to the IOC; 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 a significant contribution to promoting sports in a country. Ethiopia is one of the IOC members.

The nature of governance problems found in advanced NOC countries is different from that found in the developing nations. Corporate Governance of ETH NOC has several rules governing the ETH NOC and their members. Ineffective governance not only affects the particular, the Olympic Movement, but may undermine confidence in the sport industry as a whole.

ETH NOC has to give due attention on social, educational, ethical and spiritual values of the Olympic Movement by engaging stakeholders to foster the effectiveness of governance in ETH NOC.

There is a need to reform the current governance structure with new ones leading to the restructuring of its organs and being specialized to address the missions assigned to the NOC. The reform has to be realistic: by enabling Ethiopia to adapt its structures to the evolution of the Olympic Movement, without in any way renouncing its specific nature as a developing country which must make the best possible use of the few human and material resources at its disposal.

The circumstances of good cooperation between national and international sport organizations will achieve the objectives of Olympism. The Movement under scopes and directions of the ETH NOC strategic plan will prove fertile to children, youths and citizens with good physical and mental health, living peacefully and solidarily, by the principles of Olympism and the Olympic Movement.

It is crucial that the network among various corporate players, such as federations/associations, academics, media, employees, government, and consumers, has to be strengthened. The Olympic Movement is a major “social force; that value of competition will be guaranteed if this concept is correctly understood beyond medals.

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PROJECT MANAGEMENT, PROMOTION AND MARKETING IN THE CONTEXT OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES

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Introduction

The Olympic Games with their long history create something excellent in the current world. The idea of the Olympic Games begins in ancient Greece and incredibly, it still continues today every four years by cycles between the Summer and Winter Games. This mega-event has become one of the biggest and most popular all over the world. Years ago and nowadays, it is a part of life for a very large community which participates in the events, especially for the host country where the government and citizens make every effort to enhance the quality of the Olympic Games, especially compared to the previous ones four years ago. Therefore, every organization committee needs to face greater challenges when planning the budget and risk management. The Olympic Games during this long period have changed considerably in many aspects except: Excellence, Friendship and Respect. Nowadays the Olympic Games constitute a huge project which connects the world of project management, marketing and sponsorship. All these factors, from 1986, have created the Olympic Brand.

Project management during the Olympic Games

Each project is somewhat different, has a different schedule, budget and risk, but all share one aspect i.e. the desire to achieve objectives. The project is formed by people who are responsible for assigned activities and have special roles during the life-cycle of the project. The project team needs to have

special communication skills and knowledge about techniques, time and risk management, and should be able to work in crisis situations. People spend years prior to each event planning the budget, marketing strategy, reviewing and controlling the project. Project management for the modern Olympic Games has changed significantly from 1896 to 2012. At the beginning, projects were much smaller; the Olympic Games in 1896 comprised only 43 different events in which 241 athletes (all men) competed, whereas the 2012 Summer Olympics held in London included 302 events in total, in which 10,568 athletes (5,892 men and 4,675 women) took part. Table 1 presents changes between the number of participants and events from 1896 to the 2012 Olympic Games in London (International Olympic Committee, 2013). The size of an event is just one of the issues which could contribute to the success or the failure of the whole project.

OLYMPIC GAMES	ATHLETES	EVENTS
1896 Athens, Greece	241	43
1900 Paris, France	997	95
1904 St. Louis, USA	651	91
1908 London, Great Britain	2,008	110
1912 Stockholm, Sweden	2,407	102
1920 Antwerp, Belgium	2,626	154
1924 Paris, France	3,089	126
1928 Amsterdam, The Netherlands	2,883	109
1932 Los Angeles, USA	1,332	117
1936 Berlin, Germany	3,963	129
1948 London, Great Britain	4,104	136
1952 Helsinki, Finland	4,955	149
1956 Melbourne, Australia	3,155	145
1960 Rome, Italy	5,338	150
1964 Tokyo, Japan	5,151	163
1968 Mexico City, Mexico	5,516	172
1972 Munich, Germany	7,134	195

1976 Montreal, Canada	6,084	198
1980 Moscow, USSR	5,179	203
1984 Los Angeles, USA	6,829	221
1988 Seoul, Republic of Korea	8,391	237
1992 Barcelona, Spain	9,356	257
1996 Atlanta, USA	10,318	271
2000 Sydney, Australia	10,651	300
2004 Athens, Greece	10,625	301
2008 Beijing, China	10,942	302
2012 London, Great Britain	10,568	302

Table 1: Number of participants and events during the Olympic Games held between 1896 and 2012.

The four most important elements in project management are:

- Budget
- Time
- Risk
- Resources

Budget is one of the first issues which must be planned before a long-term event. Good planning allows to allocate finances for the whole project. Nowadays the process of making a preliminary budget is easier than before. Creating a budget for such a large event as the Olympic Games is prepared by a group of specialists who should have knowledge about all possibilities concerning the financial project. Before each Summer and Winter Olympic Games a budget is analyzed from an economic perspective; what is easy to notice is that each edition of the Olympic Games becomes more expensive. The first budget plan is often not enough to cover all costs. Each edition has more a expensive budget than the previous one. The Winter Olympic Games in Sochi broke records with differences between the planned (12,287 \$ million) and the final budget (54,914 \$ million). The Olympic Games have become not only a sporting event, but also a huge commercial business. A budget for holding the Olympic Games includes various investments such as preparing sports facilities for all disciplines, building or adapting infrastructure for the Olympic Villages, Opening and Closing Cer-

emonies and also all the aspects concerning athletes' supplies. Budget management depends on government operations, and actions undertaken by the hosts of the Olympic Games can have many positive, but also negative consequences. Moreover, most frequently host cities prefer to generate profits from external organizations than provide their own resources (McHugh, 2006).

Risk management

Analyzing the Olympic Games, one should not only focus on the positive aspects. It has to be noted that it comes with numerous risks and each should be assessed individually. The major need for good risk management is to identify all the threats and their results, and to minimise them in advance. The large size of the Olympic Games will always induce a high rate of uncertainty and risk throughout such projects. Risk can be defined in different ways e.g., preventable risk, a strategic risk and an external risk (Ceil, 2015). Preventable and strategic risk could be identified before the event by taking the right actions during the control process. It is obligatory to calculate the likelihood of appearance of such a risk and to find all the possible actions to prevent and minimise undesirable results which could jeopardise the quality of the event. The last type of risk is external risk and this is the most difficult to handle because of the inability to define its nature in advance. It is a one-of-a-kind risk and the only way to counteract its effects is to be ready to implement an action plan.

Marketing, sponsorship and partnership

The Olympic Games have had a long marketing history since their very beginning. During the Summer 1952 Olympic Games, held in Helsinki, the first international marketing program united several countries to create support for athletes and spectators (International Olympic Committee, 2015). The International Olympic Committee had to create a marketing plan which would improve after each Games. The major objectives for the Olympic Games marketing committee are as follows:

- To ensure financial stability and promotion of the Olympic Games.
- To create a long-term marketing program in order to ensure a financial future for both the Olympic Movement and the Olympic Games.

- To build a project team with good experience and knowledge for preparing each event to run smoothly.
- To ensure high-quality global coverage of the Olympic Games; broadcasting should always be free of charge.
- To share and promote ideals of Olympism during all future Games.

These objectives create the most important features for the whole of the Olympic community.

Centuries ago, people assembled in huge sporting arenas to celebrate one of the most important events, i.e. the ancient Olympic Games, which constituted a part of a religious festival organized in honor of Zeus. It was a great honor for both the athletes and the spectators to participate in such ceremonies (Davis, 2012). During the ancient Olympic Games, people got information about each ceremony without radio and television or any other media. Nowadays, the situation is definitely different because the Olympic Games have become not only a sporting event, but also a solid business. Development of sport along with social development provide a great opportunity to create an exceptional brand, in which lots of partners and sponsors may participate. The world's biggest companies strive to become a part of the Olympic Games. They are able to pay inconceivable amounts of money for their brands to be seen by billions of people all across the world. Indeed, during the first edition of the modern Olympic Games, creating a good marketing strategy was easier than today. In the early '90s, marketing had only three sources: newspapers, radio and television. The first time the Olympic Games were broadcasted was in 1936 during the Summer Olympic Games in Berlin which were viewed by approximately 128 thousand people gathered near the Olympic arena. After that, since the 1950, people could watch the Olympic Games on television. This was a turning point for the International Olympic Committee (IOC), as new opportunities emerged relating to purchasing rights for the transmission of the Olympic Games on television. In 1960 it was the first time such a large-scale business agreement was concluded when CBS television bought rights for transmission of the Summer Olympic Games in Rome. At that time it was aired in 18 countries worldwide. Nowadays, it would be unimaginable for millions of Olympic viewers not to have access to a live transmission of the Olympic Games; this is also a reason why the price paid by television companies for rights of transmission is now much higher than before. NBC paid \$3.5 billion for the rights to live transmission of the Games between 2002 and 2008 (Lee, 2005).

Since TV transmission has become very popular, the biggest companies started to use TV as an ideal medium to present their merchandise among not only spectators of the Games, but also people who watch the broadcast. New excellent marketing was created by advertising during the broadcast. Large companies such as Coca Cola, McDonalds, Adidas, Nike and many others were engaged. The 2012 Summer Olympic Games in London assembled 4.8 billion people watching the live broadcasts on television (Olympic Broadcasting Services, 2012). Considering this number, the price for 30 seconds of commercial broadcasting airtime during the Games raised even up to \$600 thousand (Ceil, 2015). Indeed, time of the Olympic Games provides a great opportunity for marketers to create brand awareness connected with such an excellent event. The Olympic Games marketing is not just about advertising and sharing information about Games; it is used to pay for overall costs. It was determined that almost 88% of the Olympic costs are paid for by advertising. Overall costs are connected with holding all the events and include also athletes' social supply base, infrastructure and tourism (Vasile, 2013). One of the most important objectives and challenges for the International Olympic Committee is to search for low-costs solutions offering large profit returns. Following the marketing development, the International Olympic Committee had no difficulties in finding sponsors who would like to become part of the Games. Being an official sponsor was becoming so popular that the Summer Olympic Games in Los Angeles (1984) were financed 100 per cent by private sponsors. Certainly, this could be perceived as a success of the International Olympic Committee, although, on the other hand, those Games created a new age of Olympic marketing, i.e. ambush marketing. Ambush marketing is a strategy used by unofficial sponsors who aim to be identified as one of the official sponsors or partners of the event, without having paid the sponsorship fees. Organizers of the Olympic Games in Los Angeles formulated a rule that only one sponsor from each market sector could be the lead sponsor. This rule caused companies to contend for a position of being the official sponsor that led to an enormous increase in fees for sponsorship. The Olympic Committee reached high financial results, but at the same time it blocked many large companies from participating in the Olympic Games. Thus, this rule had a great impact on the Olympic world. Furthermore, sponsors spent enormous sums for marketing behind the Olympic Games, as they tried to cover official sponsors

advertising. Commercials were created for all available broadcasting spaces connected with the Olympic Games; in addition, companies searched for all possible loopholes to take advantage of. Nike started to promote the Olympic athletes, while Adidas was the official sponsor of the Games; next, they covered the Olympic Village with their own advertising in such a way that people started to call them an official sponsor of the Olympic Games. Ambush marketing has become a huge problem for the International Olympic Committee, which aims to protect the official sponsors and promote the ideals of Olympism. Another problem that emerged together with the commercialization of the Olympic Games was that the Games started to be perceived by the general public as dissociated from the values and ideals of Olympism. Ambush marketing has changed the marketing world because of its incredible impact on athletes, spectators, viewers, and sponsors. The International Olympic Committee had to search for a solution which would allow to distinguish commercial messages coming from unofficial and official sponsors. One of the propositions to protect leader sponsors was introducing Rule 40 in the *Olympic Charter*. This rule was dedicated to athletes and their long-term sponsors who would also like to be visible during the Olympic Games. Rule 40 presented the list of behaviors which were forbidden for athletes and their sponsors during the Olympic Games. For example, companies could not broadcast adverts with Olympic athletes during the Games and they could not use the Olympic Games logo and name. This rule has become highly disputed by the whole Olympic world except for official sponsors of the Games, as it has significantly limited the activity of sponsors who support athletes during their many-year career, although they could not be part of the athletes' most important performance, i.e. the one during the Olympic Games (Ormond, 2014).

Together with real time marketing development, the Olympic Games started to be part of the daily life of people from all over the world. The 2012 Summer Olympic Games held in London were called "Twitter Games" because some 150 million tweets were posted during the event. The 2012 Summer Olympics were also considered the first social media Games as accounts on social media related to the Games were followed by 4.7 million users. People started to learn about the Olympic Games not only from television, but also through live streaming on the Internet and by sharing information on Facebook and Twitter. The 2014 Winter Olympics held in Sochi had a similar amount of followers just

a couple days after the Games commenced (International Olympic Committee, 2015). Indeed social media has created a new social marketing that constitutes a low-cost way to promote events, products and athletes. Moreover, social media provides more effective ways for unofficial sponsors. During the 2012 Summer Olympics, the level of dissatisfaction concerning disputed Rule 40 was still growing. Athletes started to protest using their official accounts on social media as they wanted to be loyal to sponsors that had assisted them in reaching the elite performance level. This situation led to modifications in Rule 40 introduced by the Olympic Committee. Since the 2014 Winter Olympic Games in Sochi, Rule 40 has allowed to broadcast unofficial advertising during the Games if it was reported before the Games, although this advertising could not contain official Olympic symbols and names.

Another problem which appeared together with the development of advertising during the Olympic Games was commercialization. The private sector started to assist each modern Games by financial and social means. The sponsors' characteristic icons and names around the whole Olympic area started to be so common that it became problematic for those perceiving it as breaking the Olympic Games' ideals. Nowadays, sponsorship programs have both supporters and opponents. This situation is still present because of the huge contributions by the private sector to the organization of the Olympic Games.

Conclusion

The Olympic Games' world has changed in many aspects. First of all, nowadays, it is the biggest and most popular event in the world, which connects both the political and social community. Years ago, the beginning of the modern Olympic Games started a new era for a huge community interested in sport, competition and also marketing. This long period of the modern Games has had many positive aspects and changes, but also negative ones. The research review shows that one of the major modifications is the scale of possibilities for attendance in the Olympic Games. Today, more athletes from around the world can take part in competitions representing their country in more disciplines. There is a significant difference between the number of people who could watch the Games personally and by the broadcasting on TV and the Internet. The

scale of attendance is one of the issues that has huge impact on the size of the Olympic Games considered as a project. Together with project size, specialists need to face changes for project management, planning and controlling whole processes. At present, the process of preparation of the Olympic Games takes years and everything needs to be controlled during the life cycle of the project.

Since the first modern Olympic Games, the development of new technology induced significant changes in marketing. Together with broadcasting the first Games on television, athletes, sponsors and the International Olympic Committee have started to consider media an excellent way for sharing information around people all over the world. Furthermore, new rules with questionable impact on the Olympic community have been formulated. Ambush marketing, Rule 40 in the Olympic Charter and real-time marketing present lots of traps for marketing and management world. The International Olympic Committee needs to improve each Games because of the huge request for excellence in future events.

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OLYMPIC GAMES AND SPONSORSHIP BENEFITS: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE ATHENS CLASSIC MARATHON

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Introduction

The main aim of the present study concerns the quantitative measurement of sport sponsorship benefits – today one of the most popular marketing communication tools for businesses worldwide. Basic dimensions of brand equity (such as brand loyalty, perceived quality of brand, brand awareness and associations) are included in the objectives of the study and they are examined in terms of congruence (fit) between sponsor and event. The empirical part of the study is conducted on WIND's sponsorship in the 31st Athens Classic Marathon Athens (November 2013) and focuses on the evaluation of benefits as well as the differentiation of three target-markets groups (volunteers, athletes, spectators). The Athens Classic Marathon was selected because it constitutes a big annual sport event of international scope and one of the most important sport event of modern Olympic Games. Data collection was carried out through the administration of questionnaires to 420 respondents, equally spread across the three group samples. Among the interesting findings stands the positive interaction between event-sponsor fit and the attitude toward the sponsor, as well as the sponsorship-linked purchase intention, among the three samples. Another interesting conclusion is the differentiation of the extent to which brand attitude, brand loyalty and sponsorship-linked purchase intention are affected by the examined equity variables, always among the three samples.

Sponsorship

“Sponsorship” is defined as the provision of assistance, either financial or in-kind, to an activity by a commercial organization for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives (Meenaghan, 1983). The term has been widely spread lately, so that it is currently considered a particularly precious tool of communication marketing for modern enterprises (O’Reilly & Horning, 2013). The fast growth of sponsorship is due mainly to its natural ability to transcend cultural and linguistic obstacles presented from region to region, as well as to the favorable attitude of consumers toward it (Meenaghan, 1996). Total sponsorship expenditures are anticipated to reach the amount of 60.2 billion dollars in 2016, according to IEG’s annual report (IEG, 2016). Sponsorship also attracts more attention in terms of its effective and low-cost nature, when compared to traditional forms of advertisement, this constitutes one reason why sponsorship predominated quickly over them (Meenaghan, 2001). Sponsorship’s global growth is projected to be on a par with spending for advertising, marketing and promotion (IEG, 2016). According to the worldwide media and marketing forecasts produced by IEG (2016), global ad spending will increase to 4.5 percent in 2016, while spending on other forms of marketing – including public relations, direct marketing and promotions – is also expected to grow by 4.5 percent, according Figure 1 below.

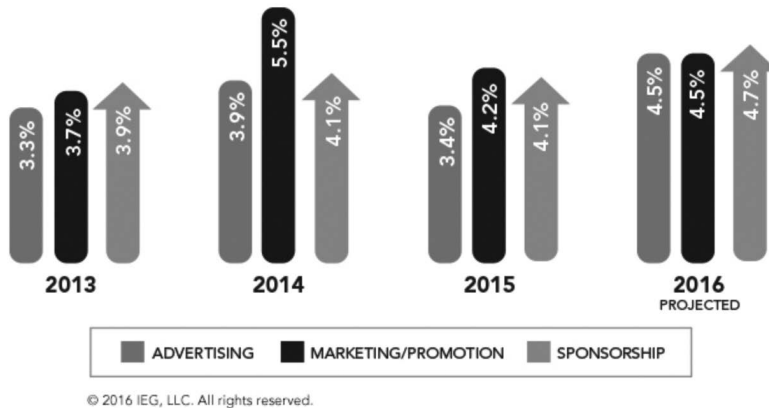


Figure 1: Annual growth of advertising, marketing/promotion and sponsorship.
Global (2013 – 2016) – IEG Sponsorship Report, LLC (2016).

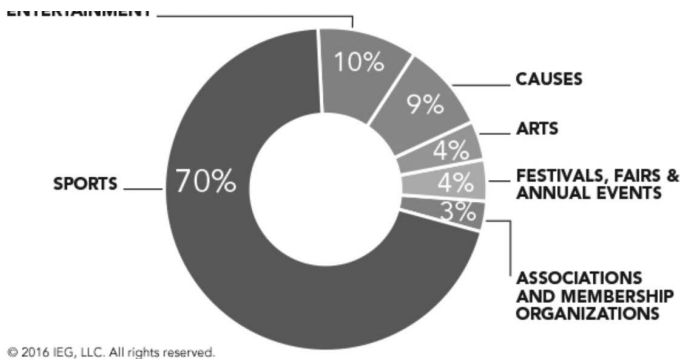
The rapid development of commercial sponsorship in the recent decades (Meenaghan, 1996) and the estimates for the valuable benefits it can offer to

sponsors, have led organizations to experiment with sponsorship in a lot of different areas, such as sports, arts, cultural events, entertainment and several others (Holtermann, 2007). According to the vast majority of researchers, the most popular field that assembles great amounts of investments in sponsorships is by far sports and sport events (Holtermann, 2007; IEG, 2016; Ivarsson & Johansson, 2004). This is clear when taking into account the extremely high expenditures and the increased tendency of companies to invest in sport sponsorship all over the world (IEG, 2016; Novais & Arcodia, 2013). The following Figure 2 shows the sponsorship spending by property type for North America (IEG, 2016), projecting that 15.74 billion dollars will be spent during 2016 on sport sponsorship, more than 7 times the amount of entertainment sponsorship spending (Figure 3).

	2014 SPENDING	2015 SPENDING	INCREASE FROM 2014	2016 SPENDING (PROJECTED)	INCREASE FROM 2015 (PROJECTED)
SPORTS	\$14.35 BILLION	\$14.99 BILLION	4.5%	\$15.74 BILLION	5.0%
ENTERTAINMENT	\$2.05 BILLION	\$2.13 BILLION	4.1%	\$2.22 BILLION	4.2%
CAUSES	\$1.85 BILLION	\$1.92 BILLION	4.0%	\$2 BILLION	3.7%
ARTS	\$923 MILLION	\$939 MILLION	1.7%	\$970 MILLION	3.3%
FESTIVALS, FAIRS AND ANNUAL EVENTS	\$847 MILLION	\$860 MILLION	1.5%	\$878 MILLION	2.1%
ASSOCIATIONS AND MEMBERSHIP ORGANIZATIONS	\$574 MILLION	\$591 MILLION	3.0%	\$612 MILLION	3.6%

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Figure 2: North American sponsorship spending by property type.
IEG Sponsorship Report, LLC (2016).



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Figure 3: Projected 2016 shares of North American sponsorship market.
IEG Sponsorship Report, LLC (2016).

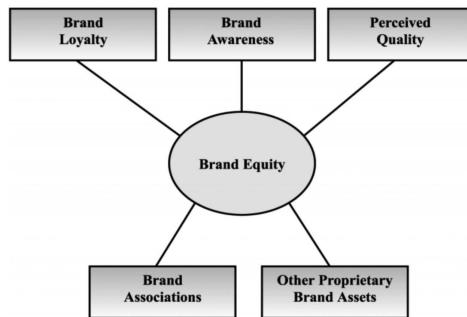
Sport events and generally sports have the ability to attract individuals of every age, irrespective of social status, level of education, cultural background, country of stay and way of life (Ivarsson & Johansson, 2004; Muotka & Mannberg, 2004; Quester & Thompson, 2001). Simultaneously, sport sponsorship offers high visibility, extensive media coverage and the ability to aim at specific groups of consumers with particular characteristics, which companies are usually unable to reach by traditional advertising methods (Meenaghan, 1996; Muotka & Mannberg, 2004; Quester & Thompson, 2001).

The brand equity construct

Creating a successful and constantly strengthening brand is a major objective of modern business management (Keller, 2003a; Lassar et al., 1995). A widely recognizable and powerful brand provides firms the opportunity to associate themselves with higher values and superior quality, gaining a considerable competitive advantage. Therefore, building brand equity is considered of great significance for businesses nowadays. "Brand" is defined as "a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or combination of them which is intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors" (Kotler, 1991, p. 442). Recognizing the value of brand as an intangible asset, researchers focus on understanding the construction, measurement and management of brand equity (Keller, 1993, 2003b). According to Keller (2009, p. 140) brand equity "can be defined in terms of marketing effects uniquely attributable to a brand". In other words, it "relates to the fact that different outcomes result in the marketing of a product or service because of its brand, as compared to if that same product or service was not identified by that brand" (Keller, 2009, p. 140).

There are several models in literature that measure how brand affects consumers. Models of Aaker and Keller for measuring brand equity focus on how consumers perceive and evaluate the brand, examining dimensions such as brand awareness, image and personality (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993; Esch, Langner, Schmitt & Geus, 2006). According to Aaker (1991), brand equity is a multidimensional concept. It consists of brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations and other proprietary brand assets (Aaker, 1991). On the other hand, Keller focuses on two approaches, the direct and

the indirect, highlighting the concepts of brand awareness and image (Atilgan, Aksoy & Akinci, 2005). As far as the present study is concerned, its empirical part relies on Aaker's five-dimension model, analyzing each dimension of brand equity and examining how these are influenced by the congruence (fit) of event-sponsor images. "Brand loyalty" is defined as "a situation which reflects how likely a customer will be to switch to another brand, especially when that brand makes a change, either in price or in product features" (Atilgan et al., 2005, p. 240). Aaker (1991, p. 61) defines "brand awareness" as "the ability of the potential buyer to recognize and recall that a brand is a member of a certain product category". "Perceived quality" is defined as "the customer's perception of the overall quality or superiority of a product or service with respect to its intended purpose, relative to alternatives" (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 3). A "brand association" is "anything linked in memory to a brand" (Aaker, 1991, p. 109). "Other proprietary brand assets" refer to patents, trademarks, logos, symbols and distribution channels' relationships, which can provide strong competitive advantage (Aaker, 1991; Moisescu, 2005).



Source: Aaker (1991)

Empirical Study: The Athens Marathon

The empirical part of the study is conducted upon WIND's sponsorship on the 31st Classic Athens Marathon (November 2013) and focuses on the evaluation of benefits as well as the differentiation between three target-markets (volunteers, athletes, spectators). Basic dimensions of brand equity (brand loyalty, perceived quality of brand, brand awareness and associations) are included in the objectives

of the quantitative measurement and they are examined in terms of congruence (fit) between sponsor and event, among the three group samples.

The Athens Marathon was selected because it constitutes a big athletic event of international scope and one of the most important sports of modern Olympic Games. It is carried out annually, each second Sunday of November, and constitutes a long-distance running race across the classic Marathon way (42.195 m.), with the participation of thousands of runners from all over the world. In the whole of sports history, there is no other sport so demanding in terms of endurance, athleticism, determination, strength of will, mental and physical devotion, but simultaneously so much popular and favorable among sport fans. Its uniqueness is also established by the fact that it is the only sport, with a genuine Greek name and its existence is directly related with the history of glorious ancient Greece. Its name is inspired by the ancient course of the legendary Athenian hoplite hemerodromos, called Feidippidis, after the battle of Marathon. Feidippidis ran the distance from Marathon to Athens, in order to announce the city the victory of the Athenians against the Persians (490 BC).

In the spring of 1896, during the first modern Olympics, athletes from five countries lined up at the starting line on the bridge of Marathon in order to cover the distance to the Panathenaic Stadium on a dirt path. The race was won by Greek athlete Spyros Louis, whose historic victory stands as a symbol of tireless effort, stamina, as well as the breaking of physical and mental barriers. This race, which was launched during the inaugural Olympic Games of the modern era, became afterwards one of the most popular athletic events all over the world, with millions of participants and supporters. The Athens Marathon, the only race conducted along the original course from Marathon to Athens and the Panathenaic Stadium, remains an emblematic event for all long-distance aficionados.

In its present form it is held without interruption from 1983 on, dedicated to Grigoris Lambrakis, the great Greek doctor, champion in the Balkan Athletic Games and firm pacifist. Today, more than 800 Marathon races are taking place world widely each year, counting tens of thousands of participants, mostly amateur runners, who run for charitable aims, or just for the experience of the event. The Athens Marathon has covered in the past few years a course of amazing growth and progress, moving toward where it deserves to be, the top of the global Marathon Movement. Since 25 February 2014, the Athens

Marathon has a new signal and logo, named “Athens Marathon. The Authentic”, entering a new effort for his international award, through the development and improvement of his optical identity, while establishing its unique features and its authentic character.

The question how basic dimensions of brand equity are influenced when the sponsor is linked to this particular event, poses an interesting research problem (Papadimitriou, Kaplanidou & Papacharalampous, 2016). Do sport event consumers get influenced by the connection of the sponsor with the event to buy their products? Would they buy it because of the overall perceptions toward the brand? Taken together, these questions allude to the importance of the impact of sponsor-event fit on the formation of brand awareness and associations, brand loyalty and perceived brand quality, that various sport event consumers have (such as spectators, volunteers and athletes). Data collection was carried through the administration of questionnaires among 420 respondents, equally spread across these three samples, during the 31st Classic Marathon of Athens. Based on the notion of self-congruity (identifying aspects of self that match those of the brand), each of these groups may identify differently with the event and its sponsors, which can ultimately influence the relationship between corporate sponsorship and relevant consumer intentions (Mazodier & Merunka, 2012; Papadimitriou et al., 2016).

In general, sponsorships with high fit with an event can improve brand attitudes (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Lee & Cho, 2009) and increase the probability of purchase intentions of the sponsor brand through the influence of other constructs such as cognitive and affective responses (Koo, Quarterman & Flynn, 2006) and sponsor receptiveness and integrity (Smith, Graetz & Westerbeek, 2008). On the other hand, low-fit sponsorships encourage negative associations and feelings leading to negative image transfer for the sponsors (Novais & Arcodia, 2013).

The results of the study suggest that fit drives attitude formation which, in turn, influences perceived brand quality and subsequently purchase intentions for all three non-consumer groups of the study. Furthermore, based on the data from this study, fit was directly relevant for the purchase intentions of the athlete group only. Theoretically, this finding suggests that spectators and volunteers do not process the sponsor-event fit connection in a manner similar to that of the athletes participating in the event. It could be argued that athletes are

more directly connected to the event and identify with it in a different manner than spectators or volunteers, and, as such, they see the benefit of the event sponsorship directly, which then leads them to have higher purchase intentions toward the sponsor brand.

However, when it came to the impact of fit on perceived brand quality, the spectators were definitely more susceptible to the sponsor-event fit influence, as they were the only group to exhibit a significant relationship between fit and sponsor brand quality. In that sense, the results of this study further support and complement those of past literature which discussed that fit valence and fit enhancement contribute to the improvement of attitudes toward the sponsor brand (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2004; Lee & Cho, 2009). The study further complements past literature regarding this relationship by suggesting the differentiation that occurs in the sport event consumer minds for the perceived fit and perceived sponsor brand quality relationship.

Interestingly, the role of brand attitude in predicting intentions to purchase sponsor products was unimportant for all three groups, suggesting that, although the various sport event consumers displayed sufficient knowledge and attitudes about the sponsor brand, these attitudes did not translate in to intentions. Perhaps the nature of the sponsor in this study, being a telecommunications company, suggests that people may not be able to purchase the products because they may be “locked in” another contract for a certain period of time. In that sense, constraints should be a variable to be included in future research so as to control for the inability of attitudes to predict intentions.

Finally, from a theoretical standpoint, the positive relationship of sponsor-perceived brand quality and intentions to purchase the sponsor brand among non-consumers (at the time of the data collection) was supported in this study. These relationships have been proposed to hold in previous studies (Mazodier & Merunka, 2012); however, our study further contributes to the literature by understanding these relationships among different sport event consumer types that were non-consumers of the sponsor brand. Despite the different experiential levels of these three groups with the sport event, perceived brand quality had a strong influence across the three groups, suggesting that it is an important variable due to influence future consumption intentions.

Sponsoring the Olympic Games

The Olympic Games have always been a great sport event of worldwide acceptance and of particularly high popularity. In recent years, the interest for the Olympics has gone extremely huge and the Games developed into one of the most significant mega-international sport events (Malfas, Houlihan & Theodoraki, 2004). Henceforth, it was a matter of time for the Olympics to attract companies' attention as a unique investment opportunity in terms of sponsorship. Enterprises categorize sport event sponsorships of such magnitude, as a tool of mainly generating multiple and long-term image-related benefits, rather than short-term increase in sales (O'Reilly & Horning, 2013). On the one hand, sponsors benefit from the Olympics' universal scope, with presence in developed and developing markets and a direct connection with difficult-to-approach segments of the population. On the other hand, sponsors profit from the Olympics' universal appeal, promoting their brand equity dimensions through an association with the Olympic brand and the ideals that Olympic Games represent, such as competition, strength, beauty and perfection. As far as Olympics' spectators and attenders maintain a higher bond with the Olympic Games and its ideals, the returns on investment for sponsors are longer lasting in terms of brand equity and brand image transfer (Malfas et al., 2004). Researchers have also proven that the strongest the event-sponsor fit is, the more successful the sponsorship is expected to be and the more effective its anticipated objectives (Novais & Arcodia, 2013; Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999; Speed & Thompson, 2000).

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THE MANAGEMENT OF ELITE ATHLETES' RETURN TO PLAY: A MULTIDIMENSIONAL PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract

Returning to sport following an injury can be a difficult process for competitive elite athletes. The purpose of this study was to examine the experience of competitive elite athletes returning to sport following an injury in order to identify critical, and possibly new, factors which can help them to recover and return to play as soon as possible. A number of factors have been identified by several researchers. These factors include medical, physiological, emotional and others. The literature also highlighted the importance of social support which includes support from people around athletes, such as family, friends, coaches, trainers, teammates and so on. Through this research I wanted to find the most important and helpful to athletes.

This is a retrospective qualitative study and data were collected through interviews. Eleven elite athletes, from six countries and different kind of sports took part in this research. Athletes were interviewed through semi-structured interview and asked to answer some questions and share their experience of recovery from sports injury and return to play.

The collected data were analyzed through the coding method. All similar answers were put together and finally key factors for athletes' recovery and return to play were identified.

This study confirmed the accuracy of a number of helpful factors for athletes' recovery and return to play which were already known from literature. Moreover the study discovered several new and key factors, like support from government, sport organization employees, and athletes' own motivation to achieve their goals. The sport manager should pay attention to all these factors when he or she is planning a recovery program for the injured athlete.

Introduction

Sport in today's society is more popular than probably ever imagined. Large numbers of athletes participate in a variety of youth, collegiate, high level, professional and recreational sports. As sport becomes more of a fixture in the lives of people, the burden of responsibility to understand the risk of injury and the process of recovery and return to play falls on the shoulders of the various specialists, such as managers, coaches and clinicians.

Generally, about half of all athletes are injured sooner or later, approximately 10% seriously. In the past, the average has been 18 deaths each season (Horine & Stotlar, 2013).

Sport injury was an issue as far back as ancient Greece and Rome. During the gladiatorial battles and the Olympic Games, when the warriors and athletes were injured, specially trained doctors or healers treated them by methods which in those days were not known to all (Jackson & Hughes, 2001). The problem of sports injuries is still important. It is crucial from many aspects, including economic, social, political, environmental, and psychological ones. This happens because injury influences not only an athlete's health but also his or her quality of life, psychology, environment, professional position and economical status. Thus, it is important to understand factors that have an impact on athletes' return to play.

Several researchers have tried to find those factors that help athletes to recover and return to sport, moreover to warn against injury (Guskiewicz et al., 2004). Most researchers examined the medical and some the psychosocial factors affecting athletes' recovery from sport injury and return to play.

However are such factors really adequate for full and fast recovery? Also, which are the most important ones to focus on?

1. The aim of research

The purpose of this research was to examine elite athletes' experiences in returning to play following sports injury. The intention was to find more information regarding factors which helped athletes to recover, return to play and, why not, to discover new important factors for fast recovery and return to play.

2. Significance and justification

The significant feature of this study is that I tried to put all helpful factors together and discover the one that can have the main impact on elite athletes' recovery and return to play. Also, this study is unique because it is based on eleven elite athletes from six countries and in different sports; additionally, all athletes had Olympic Games' experience, some even for more than once.

Literature review

During the past few decades researchers (e.g., Brewer & Williams, 2001; Cupal, 1991; Davis, 1996; Kerr & Goss, 1996) through qualitative and quantitative investigations tried to isolate the important factors that help athletes during their recovery and return to play. Some of them (Brewer & Williams, 2001; Cupal, 1991; Tracey, 2003; Wiese-Bjornstal, et al., 1998) paid attention to psychological and emotional factors, which in their judgment were the main significant factors in athletes' recovery and return to play. Others mentioned social support (Bianco, 2001; Podlog & Dionigi, 2010) which is not the least important factor. In her research about social support, Bianco (2001) interviewed Canadian national team alpine skiers, who shared their experience of social support. All interviewed skiers mentioned that the support received from Ski Team Administrators (STA) had a significant positive impact on the skiers' concerns about the future. In the overall context, Bianco (2001) also mentioned support by family, which proved helpful in some cases.

The coaches indicated that goal setting and the use of a role model were of no small importance (Podlog & Dionigi, 2010).

Although no research has examined this factor, the existence of sport organization policies regarding financial assistance for injured athletes suggests that it is an important factor in their recovery. Such policies seem to be particularly evident in North America (Canadian Heritage, 2012, Section 9). Apart from the North American case, some Armenian National Federations have policy for injured athletes (Statute of FFA, article 2, 2012).

Despite these forms of financial support for injured athletes, research has yet to examine or uncover the importance of such financial aid in elite athletes' successful recovery.

Methods

The qualitative research method was used for this study (Suter, 2012).

I used purposive sampling which focuses on selecting information-rich cases whose study will illuminate the questions under inquiry. This sampling is sometimes called purposeful or judgment sampling (Patton, 2002).

Study participants were member of the Armenian National Olympic team and students attending the Russian International Olympic University, who were former elite and Olympic athletes.

Eleven (seven male, four female) elite athletes from six countries and different kinds of sports, aged 23 to 32 years, took part in the interviews. For confidentiality, interviewed athletes were given numbers from I to XI.

1. Data collection

To collect data for this study I used the interview method; specifically, semi-structured interviews to ensure some consistency. This meant that questions were open-ended but based on a predetermined list of topics.

The data for my study involved a literature review of sports injury rehabilitation and return to play, and interviews from eleven elite athletes. The aim of literature review was to find out the main factors which can help athletes' recovery from injury and return to play. More than twenty relevant articles were analysed for that. The purpose of the interview was to verify the truthfulness of such facts in practice. Moreover, to try to find new factors that can also have a positive impact on athletes' recovery and return to play as soon as possible.

An interview guide was developed based on the relevant literature on return to play, return to work (Petrie et al., 1996), social support (Bianco, 2001), psychological support (Brewer et al., 2001), and qualitative interview techniques (Edwards & Skinner, 2009; Patton, 2002).

In the above interviews some demographic questions were asked which aims were to identify characteristics of the person being interviewed. These questions include age, gender, and education. Other questions were about experience, opinion and knowledge of participants. All athletes were interviewed one-to-one. All interviews were transcribed on a Word document.

During the interview athletes were asked three general questions about them and eight special open questions with the aim to identify the main factors that helped them to recover and return to play.

2. Data analysis

For analyzing the collected data, inductive content analysis was used through a process known as open coding (Edwards & Skinner, 2009). I also used inductive analysis looking for patterns across participants.

For the analysis of some of the data I used open coding, which is based on known themes. For example, for questions number 5 and 6 which was about (1) factors that help and (2) factors that hinder elite athletes to recover and return to play (see Table 3).

For analyzing the interviews some general questions were combined (i.e. age, gender) and analyzed together through the data display method (see Table 1). This was also done for questions 1 to 4 (see Table 2). In order to get a general idea about the study's participants, the range and average years of training, injured and time away from training and competition were calculated. Also the variety of injuries experienced by the interviewed athletes was reviewed. All answers to questions numbers 5 and 6 were reviewed and summarized. For question number 7, a Table was created and a summary and some quotes were used. All answers to question number 8 were reviewed and summarized and given some worthwhile quotes.

Results

Eleven former and current elite athletes were interviewed. As shown in Table 1, I interviewed four (36.4%) female and seven (63.6%) male athletes, ages 23 to 32 years (mean age 27.45), from six different countries and nine different sports. A description of the study participants is given in Table 1. Home country is excluded in order to protect confidentiality.

Table 1. Participants' demographic details (continues on next page).

Athlete	Gender	Age (years)	Sport
I	Male	27	Alpine Skiing
II	Male	23	Skiing
III	Male	24	Skiing
IV	Female	31	Weight-lifting
V	Male	28	Wrestling
VI	Male	24	Wrestling

Athlete	Gender	Age (years)	Sport
VII	Female	30	Swimming
VIII	Female	31	Ice Hockey
IX	Female	24	Rhythmic gymnastics
X	Male	32	Taekwondo
XI	Male	28	Track and field

In the interview the participants were also asked (1) to describe the type of injuries they had experienced, (2) how long they played sport, and (3) how long they had been away from play (either from training or competition). Note: this information is provided in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Range of training years, variety of injuries, duration of injury and time away from professional practice (continues on next page).

Athlete	Training years	Kind of injury	Duration of injury (weeks)	Time away from practice of competition (weeks)
I	15	ACL rupture MCL rupture Concussion	24 2 4	24 2 6
II	14	Back pain Hip muscles strain	2 2	2 -
III	13	Hip muscles strain	8	-
IV	15	Foot fracture Arm fracture	12 20	10 4
V	15	Foot fracture Ribs fracture	12 8	12 6
VI	12	Muscles strain Foot fracture	8 48	- 24
VII	20	Shoulder's muscles strain Back pain	1 72	- -

Athlete	Training years	Kind of injury	Duration of injury (weeks)	Time away from practice of competition (weeks)
VIII	13	Herniated discs Brow fracture Arm and wrist fracture	To present 2 36	- - 24
IX	15	Hip and foot injuries Back pain	4 12	- -
X	20	Arm fracture Foot fracture Leg fracture Achilles tendon rupture Knockdown	4 12 16 4 4	- 8 6 2 4
XI	10	Hamstring strain	16	24

ACL = anterior cruciate ligament; MCL = medial collateral ligament; Duration of professional outage = the amount of time when athletes were away from training and competition.

The athletes who took part in this study had or have been training from 10 to 20 years (average 14.7 years). They had different kinds of injuries, but mostly muscle strains (5, 45.5%) and limb fractures (4, 36.4%). Two athletes (I and IX) had different kinds of injury (see Table 2). Athlete IX mentioned that her injuries were not identified by medical staff.

Duration of injuries was from 1 to 72 weeks (average of 14 weeks). All athletes (11, 100%) were away from training for some time but not all were away from competition. Some (7, 63.6%) continued their career with injury. They were away from training and competition from 2 to 24 weeks (average of 15.3 weeks).

4. Factors Influencing Return to Play

The athletes were asked what factors helped them to recover from injury and return to play. This was an open question and the athletes identified whatever factors came to mind. They identified five factors: (1) medical support, (2) coaches' support, (3) family support, (4) personal sport goals, and (5) desire to help their team.

The athletes were then asked to comment on whether particular individuals or groups helped or hindered their return to play. The purpose of this question was to find out whether there were influences the athletes had not thought of

in the first two questions. Table 3 indicates athletes' responses to each of the individuals or groups.

Table 3. People who help or hinder athletes to recover and return to play.

Athlete	Medical Staff	Coach	Teammates	Team/club employees	Government (NFs, NOCs head)	Family
I	Help	help	-	-	-	help
II	Help	help	-	-	help	help
III	Help	help	-	-	-	help
IV	hinder	-	-	-	help	help
V	Help	help	help	help	help	help
VI	Help	help	help	-	help	-
VII	Help	help	-	hinder	help	-
VIII	Help	-	help	help	help	help
IX	Help	-	-	hinder	hinder	help
X	Help	-	-	-	help	help
XI	hinder	help	help	help	help	help

Table 3 shows that 9 (81.8%) of interviewed athletes got support/help from medical staff and only 2 of them (18.2%) got nothing from medical staff.

In all, 64% of athletes emphasized their coaches' help, 36% got help from teammates, 27% mentioned team/club employees. Coaches and teammates shared out their experiences, knowledge and motivated athletes' return to play.

In all, 72% government support which basically includes financial support.

In all, 82% said that they got emotional support from their family during recovery and return to play.

The final question asked athletes to indicate the most important factor in their recovery and return to play. In this case, my research found not only one but a couple of factors which had almost the same importance for athletes. Thus, when the athletes were asked to identify the most important factor for their recovery and return to play, most of them (6, 54.5%) said it was their own motivation to achieve their goals.

Two (18.2%) athletes (I and VII) emphasized the adequate rest, a strict and structured rehabilitation program and proper nutrition. All these helped them to recover.

So, to sum it up, we can see that there are a number of factors which can help elite athletes to recover and return to play as soon as possible. But on the other hand, some of these factors can also hinder athletes' recovery and return to play.

However, reviewing all data which were collected during this research, we can see that the most important factor for a significant number of athletes (6, 54.5%) was their own motivation to achieve their goals that helped most of them to recover and return to play.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the experience of elite athletes and find the factors which they believe helped them to recover and return to play following an injury. The findings have implications for what sport managers should pay attention to when planning strategies to help elite athletes in this situation.

As noted in the Literature Review, most research mentioned psychosocial factors that helped athletes to recover and return to play. Some of them (Brewer & Williams, 2001; Tracey, 2003) highlighted emotional factors including positive and negative emotions and life stress. Others (Bianco, 2001; Duda et al., 1989; Podlog & Dionigi, 2010) noted social support, which included support from family, coaches, and teammates.

In the current study young elite athletes with a mean age of 27.45 years took part. Analyzing all data which I got from interviews I found the main factors which were important and helpful for these elite athletes to return to play.

The main factors which they mentioned are: (1) medical support, (2) coaches' support, (3) family support, (4) personal goals, and (5) desire to help their team. Some of these factors were already discovered and well known by other researchers.

This finding is very important for sport managers who are working with elite athletes to know all "helpful" and "unhelpful" factors for recovery. Knowing those factors can make it easier to manage the whole process of recovery more effectively and faster.

Athletes were also asked to identify any other individuals or groups that might help or hinder them and perhaps were not mentioned (all details in Table 3). The results were more or less the same as for previous questions. The new factor which was discovered from this question was the importance of government help and support, and this was mentioned by 8 (72%) athletes.

I could not find something about the importance of government support in the relevant literature, and I think this shows that not all factors were discovered in previous research. Based on this factor governments should provide a special insurance for athletes, which will cover all costs of recovery.

Finally athletes mentioned the main factor which they thought helped them to recover and return to play. Basically all athletes emphasized the factors which they mentioned before, but when I asked them to highlight the most important, the one most commonly mentioned by over half of the athletes (6, 54.5%), was their own motivation to achieve their goals. The remaining athletes' opinions were divided. They mentioned about structured rehabilitation program, rest, again medical staff, coach and team support.

Conclusion

As it is known, the purpose of this study was, through primary research, to find the main factors that can help elite athletes' recovery from sport injury and return to play. Knowing these factors, the sport organization (e.g. club, team) manager can plan and monitor athletes' recovery and return to play strategy. For some background information, I looked at the relevant research and reviewed the literature. From this I found a number of factors which can help elite athletes return to play. But I thought that these factors could not be the only ones of help to athletes. I interviewed eleven elite athletes and found several factors which the sport manager should pay attention to before planning the recovery and return to play program.

The interviewed athletes emphasized several factors that helped them to recover and return to play. First, the athletes identified five important factors: (1) medical support, (2) coaches' support, (3) family support, (4) personal sport goals, and (5) desire to help their team.. Some of these factors were already known from the reviewed literature.

Nevertheless, I found other helpful factors that were not discovered at all or were discovered in overall context from other researchers. The first factor which was important is support from government, which includes financial support. This should be important for sport managers because, based on this finding, they can create special policy for injured athletes which should cover the cost of their recovery and return to play. Most athletes mentioned about support

of team and club employees. This finding is also new because in the literature which I reviewed there was nothing about this kind of support. You can see that I found not only one but a couple of important factors that helped athletes to recover and return to play. This means that a sports manager who plans and monitors recovery and return to play program for an injured athlete should be careful and take into account all factors which can have impact on it.

The final question asked athletes to indicate the most important factor for their recovery and return to play. Most of them highlighted that it was their own motivation to achieve their goal.

The findings have answered the question of this study, which was to find the most important factors that can help elite athletes' recover from sport injury and return to play. These factors should be a guide for sport managers during the planning of athletes' recovery and return to play.

Future research in the area needs to include more participants from both team and individual categories of sport, and maybe compare the factors they identify. It may also be interesting to compare the factors identified by male versus female athletes. The findings of such research can help sport managers to develop even more specific return to play strategies for athletes. Also, research should include primary data collection yielding responses from coaches, trainers, teammates, family members, and of course from sport managers and other people around recovering athletes. This will help to understand and manage even more effectively elite athletes' recovery and return to play.

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IDENTIFYING THE MAJOR ENVIRONMENTAL STAKEHOLDERS IN THE OLYMPIC GAMES

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Anthropogenic climate change is a growing matter of global concern. A host of issues, including rising temperatures, receding ice caps, a thinning ozone layer, deforestation, pollution, and dwindling natural resources, are causing our world to consider ways in which to reverse this negative trend of environmental health. In an effort to combat anthropogenic climate change, it could be argued that all industries ought to practise environmental responsibility. The sport industry is no exception to this, and a highly visible sport organization, the International Olympic Committee (IOC), is one of the leaders in prioritizing environmental health. While there is research published on the topic of environmental issues in the Olympic Games, most of it focuses on one of three areas: integrating sustainability (e.g., Briese, 2001; Gold & Gold, 2013; Holden, MacKenzie, & Van Wynsberghe, 2008; Loland, 2006; Van Wynsberghe, Derom, & Maurer, 2012), critiquing current environmental standards in the Olympic Games (e.g., Chalkley & Essex, 1999; Elliott, 2007; Gaffney, 2013; Loland, 2006; Mark, Ravelli, & Sinclair-Williams, 2010; McCarthy & Synnott, 2012; Preuss, 2013), and assessing the perceptions of residents with regard to environmental initiatives at the Games (e.g., Jin, Zhang, Ma, & Connaughton, 2011; Moreira, 2009; Raiborn & Joyner, 2006). What has not yet been discussed in the literature is who the major stakeholders are in creating a more environmentally responsible Olympic Games. This paper will identify those stakeholders after a discussion on the available literature on environment and stakeholders in the Olympics, and the methodology used for identifying those stakeholders.

Literature review

The environmental movement in general began in the 20th century and keeps growing from that time (Walls, 2014). At a global level, the United Nations (UN) has been leading many environmental efforts through the creation of policies and treaties on environmental issues such as Agenda 21 on sustainable development and the Kyoto Protocol on emissions reduction (UN Department..., 2014; UN: Framework..., 2014). The Brundtland Report, formally called *Our Common Future*, was published in 1987. This report addressed the environment and sustainable development with the understanding that those issues are important for a safe and shared future (World Commission..., 1987). Shortly thereafter, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) was formed in order to present a clear, scientific perspective on research regarding climate change and its environmental impacts on the global ecosystem (IPCC, 2015). What can be learned from this brief overview of environmental history is that environmental protection has gained increased standing within our society with the UN becoming involved in the effort to create a more environmentally responsible future. One area that demands further attention is sustainability. The Brundtland Report addressed sustainability, but many do not understand that sustainability is about much more than simple environmental preservation (UN Economic..., 2005). The meaning of this term needs to be explored further.

Sustainability is a term that has been described as being subject to many interpretations or as being too “malleable” (Holden et al., 2008, p. 887). The Brundtland Report offers the best definition of sustainability as “meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (World Commission..., 1987, p. 16). Sustainability is about more than just the environment as economic and social sustainability are issues to consider as well. Given that the Olympic Games are an event, it is important to consider what might be defined as a sustainable event. Cavagnaro, Postma, and Neese (2012) suggest that a sustainable event is one that “impacts positively on people, planet, and profit, and thus contributes to fulfill the economic, socio-cultural, and environmental needs of the involved stakeholders, including the host community” (pp. 201–202). It has been suggested that the growth in the size and scale of mega-events like the Olympic Games has driven leaders to create more sustainable mega-events (Cavagnaro et al., 2012). Additionally, Getz (2005) proposes that event organizers have an ethical and

legal responsibility to make their events as environmentally respectful and sustainable as possible. With this information in mind, we can begin to consider the Olympic Games and their own environmental history.

The modern Olympic Games began in 1896 under the leadership of Pierre de Coubertin, who recognized that the Olympic Games offer a host community the chance to redevelop themselves if desired (Gold & Gold, 2013). However, environmental protection was not an issue for many of the early Olympic Games since they were seen as too small in scale to have any negative impact on the community or environment (Chappelet, 2008). The first Olympic Games to make significant considerations for environmental impact were the 1994 Winter Games held in Lillehammer, Norway. Lillehammer's Organizing Committee voluntarily took on their environmental initiatives, but editions of the Games that followed Lillehammer (i.e., the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games onward) were required by the IOC to address environmental initiatives in their bids and therefore in their management of the Games (Cantelon & Letters, 2000; Chappelet, 2008). Various editions of the Games since then have emphasized different environmental initiatives in their bids and Games management. For example, the Beijing 2008 Games were called the "greenest Games ever" by their organizing committee (OCOG), the Vancouver 2010 Winter Games put emphasis on sustainability, and the Rio de Janeiro 2016 Games are focusing on carbon neutrality in their bid (Holden et al., 2008; Rio de Janeiro, 2007; VANOC, 2010). Environmental projects for each Games are largely left up to the OCOGs, but that does not mean that the IOC does not have policies or influence on the OCOGs' activities (Stuart & Scassa, 2011). Given this understanding of environmentalism in the Olympic Movement, we may now consider stakeholder theory as it will provide a framework for understanding the results of this study.

The premise of stakeholder theory considers the relationships between a focal organization and its various stakeholders (Fernando & Lawrence, 2014). According to Freeman (1984), a stakeholder is: "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm's objectives" (p. 46). In other words, stakeholders are people and groups that matter to an organization as they attempt to achieve their goals (Freeman, 1984). For an organization to be successful, the expectations of its various stakeholders must be met (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). There are two types of stakeholders: those that

are normatively legitimate (i.e., to whom an organization has an obligation to engage) and those that are derivatively legitimate (i.e., those who may affect the organization) (Phillips, 2003). Stakeholders have been researched in the Olympic context before. Kearins and Pavlovich (2002) studied the stakeholders who helped create the Green Games of the Sydney Olympics and concluded that they played a significant role in the success of those environmental efforts. The stakeholders identified were as follows: the Olympic Family (namely the IOC), local governments and the OCOG, environmental organizations, businesses and commercial sponsorships, as well as developers and merchandisers (Kearins & Pavlovich, 2002). While these stakeholder groups are valid for the specific Olympic Games, Kearins and Pavlovich's research only focuses on one edition of the Games. This study is concerned with identifying those same environmental stakeholders, but rather for the whole Olympic Movement. With this understanding of stakeholders and previous research on environmental stakeholders in mind, a methodology for identifying stakeholders will be presented.

Methodology

This study is concerned with understanding who the major stakeholders in environmental management within the Olympic Games are. A qualitative research design that employed stakeholder theory and the sport event management literature was used to build a case study focusing on the Olympic Games. According to Yin (2013), a case study was preferable as it analyzes an event within the context of larger social phenomena. Content analysis was performed using archival documents from the IOC archives, which included: bid manuals, bid reports, all bids from the 1994 Winter Games (identified as the first environmentally focused Olympic Games) through to the 2022 Games that were available for collection, notes from the Commission on Sport and the Environment, other official documents, and periodicals. An IOC embargo on the release of certain materials meant that some documents and bids were not available for collection, but this did not affect collection of sufficient data to answer the research question and findings would not be changed through further data collection or analysis. The collected data were analyzed and coded for all references to environment, sustainability, and stakeholders using a

qualitative data analysis software called ATLAS.ti. Coding and analysis followed the methodology of Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña (2014) by going through an open coding cycle first that used both inductive and deductive processes to identify data as important. A second coding cycle grouped relevant data together in an organized manner to create networks, which gave way to higher-order themes (Miles et al., 2014). All data was compared across the various sources to ensure accuracy of the findings. These findings possess external validity as they will contribute to the sport event literature and will help future Olympic Games organizers understand the major stakeholders to engage in regard to environmental management. These methods are appropriate for answering the question at hand, and allow for the findings to now be presented.

Results and discussion

Four major environmental stakeholder identities emerged as a result of this study: organizers, regulators, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and sponsors. Their identities will be discussed more thoroughly below.

Organizers. This group consists of the IOC and the OCOGs. They are charged with owning and producing the Games, respectively, and this makes their presence central to the whole Olympic Movement. The IOC has taken several steps to ensure that OCOGs integrate environmental practices into their production of the Games. Perhaps the best example of this is their bid manuals which require OCOGs to address the environmental impact of their planned Games and to work with stakeholders: “Describe your stakeholder engagement plan and how you envisage establishing appropriate relations with: environmental public authorities [...] non-government environmental organizations [...] the private sector” (IOC, 2007, p. 87). These bid manuals outline the environmental statements for an OCOG to assemble, and this particular quote shows that stakeholders are required to be involved in the environmental management of the Games.

Regulators. There are two types of regulators: governing authorities and standardization or certification programs. Governing authorities include local governments as well as the UN. The IOC requires that OCOGs engage local governments, as evidenced by this quote from the 2000 Games bid manual: “Supply and official guarantee from the competent authorities, stating that all

work necessary for the organization of the Games will comply with local, regional and national regulations regarding town and country planning and protection of the environment” (IOC, 1992, p. 29). These governing authorities have environmental laws that must be complied with in order to host the Games. The standardization or certification programs include sustainability standards from the International Organization for Standardization and certifications like the Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) program for green buildings. These are used to ensure that environmental efforts are legitimate. This example shows how Vancouver’s OCOG used LEED in their 2010 Winter Games: “North America’s most respected building rating system, LEED, will be used as the standard with new and existing facilities meeting the highest certification level that can reasonably be attained” (VANOC, 2001, p. 21). One can see that regulators play an important role in the environmental management of the Games.

NGOs. The most notable NGOs to emerge in the data are Greenpeace, the World Wildlife Fund, and the World Health Organization (WHO), but there are others. These particular NGOs appeared in multiple documents and are highly involved in Olympic environmental efforts. The IOC requires that OCOGs work with NGOs on their environmental management plans in order to ensure that local environmental issues are addressed, voices are heard, and that the best strategy can be executed (IOC, 1992). The Sydney 2000 Games notably worked with Greenpeace to ensure that the restoration and development of the Homebush Bay site of the Olympics was satisfactory in the eyes of environmental advocates (Sydney OC, 1992). WHO is often approached to ensure that air and water quality meets acceptable health standards as evidenced by this quote from the Tokyo 2020 bid: “The air quality in Tokyo – and in cities more than 50 km from Tokyo proposed as locations – during the proposed Games-times meets World Health Organisation (WHO) guideline values” (Tokyo OC, 2011, p. 20). Issues of public health fit within the concept of sustainability, which is why WHO is engaged in these environmental efforts. NGOs’ presence as stakeholders in the environmental management of the Games cannot be ignored.

Sponsors. The last major stakeholder group includes sponsors, but there are no specific examples of sponsors to be given. Beginning with the 2010 Winter Games bid manual, OCOGs were required by the IOC to engage sponsors as part of their environmental practices: “how will the OCOG integrate its

environmental approach into contracts with suppliers and / or sponsors, for example, with respect to procurement of recyclable or compostable goods, in recyclable or compostable packaging” (IOC, 2002, p. 43). As a result, many bids provide statements on sponsor engagement in environmental initiatives (e.g., Rio de Janeiro OC, 2007; VANOC, 2001). These sponsors provide necessary funding for the Games, but OCOGs often require them to pay special environmental fees or take part in environmental initiatives in order to be considered sponsors of the Games. The sponsors’ group is less developed compared to the other stakeholder groups, but does have a noticeable presence in environmental initiatives in the Games.

These stakeholder groups are based, in part, on the stakeholders identified by Kearins and Pavlovich (2002) with some in the OCOGs, standardization and certification programs, and NGOs. The data suggests that OCOGs fit best with the IOC as organizers, whereas Kearins and Pavlovich (2002) consider the OCOG to be a part of the local government. Standardization and certification programs were not a part of the typology from Kearins and Pavlovich (2002), which meant that they were relatively new and had to be grouped appropriately. Lastly, the NGOs group was expanded from simple environmental organizations since NGOs, like WHO, are present as well. The data suggests that given that the organizers are the central stakeholder, all of the other stakeholders (i.e., regulators, NGOs, and sponsors) fit the definition of normatively legitimate stakeholders, as proposed by Phillips (2003), with regard to the environmental movement within the Olympic Games. This is because the IOC requires that the OCOG engage all of those stakeholders in their environmental initiatives. Thus, all future Olympic organizers ought to understand that not only are they required to develop comprehensive environmental management plans, but that they are also required to engage regulators, NGOs, and sponsors in those plans. If they do not consider these stakeholders as part of their bid, then they will not succeed in winning the right to host. If they do win the right to host, then they will need to engage these stakeholders in order to ensure that their environmental initiatives are successful.

Conclusion

From the earliest pioneers of the environmental movement to the United Nations leading global environmental policy, environmental protection is an ever-increasing subject across disciplines and the impacts of human activity on the environment cannot be overlooked. Events like the Olympic Games should be attempting to integrate environmental protection and sustainability into their planning and management in order to be less negatively impactful (Getz, 2005). Although early editions of the Games did not address the environment, it has more recently gained increased recognition in the Olympic Movement to the point that all bids for the right to host are required to address the environment in depth (Cantelon & Letters, 2000; Chappelet, 2008). As part of those increased environmental efforts by the Olympic Movement, engaging the appropriate stakeholders in environmental practices should be considered paramount for success in managing the environmental outcomes of the Games. These stakeholders to consider are: organizers (i.e., the IOC and OCOG), regulators (i.e., governing authorities and standardization or certification programs), NGOs (i.e., Greenpeace, WWF, and WHO), and sponsors. These stakeholders are normatively legitimate stakeholders for the Olympic Movement as OCOGs now have an obligation to work with them to ensure success of their environmental initiatives. A limitation of this study is that final reports from the Games considered were not collected and analyzed. Future research on this topic should include those final reports. This research should contribute to the sport event management literature and will hopefully provide future Olympic Games organizers with the necessary knowledge that is vital to the success of their environmental initiatives. Hopefully, a more environmentally responsible Olympic Games may be held in the future so that the our planet is not further harmed by the impacts of such a mega-event.

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THE CONSTRUCTION OF OLYMPIC ATHLETES' ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES THROUGH THEIR ENGAGEMENT IN THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT: A CANADIAN PERSPECTIVE

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Sport is intrinsically about aspiration and becomes inspirational in the eyes of onlookers. It requires discipline, passion, dedication, and athletes that excel at the highest level of sport have a platform and an opportunity to be able to inspire, motivate and leverage their celebrity to make a difference in causes and issues that are important to them. (Roy & Graeff, 2003, p. 160)

Olympians are increasingly leveraging their skills, symbolic capital¹, privilege and goodwill to facilitate change or contribute to initiatives within sport and beyond. With new mediums allowing Canadian and global populations to follow Olympians, more attention is paid to, and questioning of, the roles and responsibilities beyond the sporting arena. Olympic athletes are exposed to a broad range of pressures in sport and otherwise. Navigating the territory of, what I call, *athlete citizenry*² is complex as rules, regulations and expectations of behaviour are dictated by a wide array of governing bodies, partners and stakeholders. Thus, it is important to ask, *what does it mean to be a citizen of the Olympic athlete community in the present sociopolitical landscape?*

This paper examines the roles and responsibilities of Canadian Olympic athletes, what it means to be a citizen of the Olympic community, and how the values of the Olympic Movement affect National Olympic Committees (NOCs)

1. Symbolic Capital defined as value or assets created by possessing honor or prestige (Bourdieu, 2008; Purdy, Jones & Cassidy, 2009).

2. My working definition for Athlete Citizenry is defined as the sense of belonging to a high performance sporting community, which entails specific status, roles, rights and responsibilities granting participation in sport and beyond sport as a sports person.

and their athletes. This paper will review information from the Canadian Olympic Games Team Athlete Agreement and interviews with members of national and international sport governing bodies and current or recently retired Canadian Olympic Team (COT) members³. After overviewing the key values and principles of Olympism, I critique the following responsibilities of the athlete citizen: legal, performance, moral/ethical and upholding Olympism.

The Olympic Charter and Olympism

The philosophy of Olympism is founded on balance between body, spirit and mind celebrating the value of excellence, friendship and respect (*Olympic Charter*, 2015). The fundamental ideal of the Olympic Movement is to place sport at the service of humanity. This set of values have contributed to the role sport, the Olympic Games and Olympians play in Canadian society, including inspiring citizens to be healthy and to strive for excellence.

The purpose of the *Olympic Charter* is to codify Olympism as well as IOC rules and by-laws to govern the Olympic Movement and to foster “the conditions for the celebration of the Olympic Games” (*Olympic Charter*, 2015, p. 11). One key informant urges National Olympic Committees (NOCs) to deploy the power of Olympism beyond the sporting arena:

If you interpret the Charter as being central to the mission of the National Olympic Committees, then I think you have to interpret the values that are espoused by the Olympic Movement internationally as the responsibility of the National Olympic Committees. [...] It's the values of fair play, integrity and peace and those make sense in the world in a larger context than they do only in the context of sport. [...] I think the Charter and the values it espouses should cause all NOCs to think about what they can do with the power of the Olympic Movement and what they can do with the rings that transcend sport, that can cause imitative or cause broader conversations that should be important to the world, not just sport. (Organization Member A)

3. To protect their identities, letters will be used to identify athletes and members of sporting organizations. This data is derived from my Masters of Science project funded by SSHRC. I would like to thank those who participated for their time and for sharing their thoughts and experiences.

The most proficient athletes aim for the Olympics as their ultimate goal because they are the pinnacle event for many sports. NOCs and sport federations create selection criteria to determine which athletes have the highest potential. While this narrows the focus upon sporting prowess, the *Charter* demands NOCs to select athletes “based not only on sport performance of an athlete but also on his ability to serve as an example to the sporting youth of his [or her] country” (*Olympic Charter*, 2015, p. 66). This begs the question: an example of what?

For Canadian Olympic officials, being a “good example” draws heavily upon the “unique” values of Olympism. For example:

Any of our athletes who have competed at the Olympic level, in that moment, become public figures at some level. So they have a responsibility in that inherently, we all do. It's a big one: Olympism. [...] By default in so far as we are attached to it, like it or not, we are held to a standard. [...] What embodies it for Canadians, what is so representative of the Olympic Movement, is mostly represented by the athletes. [...] We think of our athletes as the highest expression of our brand. The reason we call on athletes to be out in front is because it is the living, breathing, walking, talking expression of our brand. [...] I think is a very unique position of the Olympic Movement, and a powerful one. (Organization Member A)

What Olympism emblemizes – a presumed universal goodness – includes a collection of values hard to oppose. Within Olympism, athletes are expected to uphold legal, performance, and moral/ethical responsibilities.

Depending on each NOC's interpretation of the *Olympic Charter* and its values, there may be responsibilities, opportunities or pressures on athletes beyond performance, legal and moral/ethical expectations. Additional responsibilities/expectations are placed on athletes because of what they represent and the opportunity afforded them through being an Olympian including acting as an ambassador or spokesperson for various causes. All realms of responsibility are connected and influence adherence, execution and action/inaction in other domains. For example, the value an athlete places on performance will influence his or her decision to act ethically and legally.

Legal responsibilities

To be accepted as a member of the Canadian Olympic Team, athletes agree to “not engage in any conduct that is criminal or contrary to the laws applicable to me including but not limited to, laws governing in Canada and in [host country],” (Canadian Olympic Committee, 2016). Athletes are more closely scrutinized by the public simply because they are public figures. As one athlete states:

When you are an Olympian and a human, your dirty laundry gets aired. Like, if that guy over there gets pulled over for a DUI⁴, it's not going to be in the news. When Michael Phelps gets pulled over for a DUI? Well, he fucked up big time. I'm not going to excuse that, it's terrible and absolutely illegal, but it's going to make the news. [...] You can say Tiger Woods gets paid millions of dollars to be a good social ambassador, so he shouldn't fuck up. Most amateur athletes aren't but we are still in the spotlight. (Athlete A)

The expectation to abide by the law is a logical pre-condition for participation in the Games.

Performance responsibilities

Participation entails performance responsibilities; excellence is a core Olympic Value. In the Charter, excellence is not predicated on winning but on the pursuit of reaching one's potential. Contractually, each COT member states: [I agree] to “conduct myself in a manner as to attain and maintain my personal best possible physical fitness and health” and to “carry out my duties to the Team and compete in the Games to the best of my ability.” (COC, 2016)

The emphasis placed on performance can influence an athlete's legal and ethical compliance as well as willingness to engage in initiatives within and beyond sport. When making any decision, athletes consider performance. Most athletes ensure that engagement in other initiatives adds to, or at least does not detract from, performance. Athletes interviewed in this study constantly balance energy expenditure and focus. For some, it is critical to maintain 100% focus on athletic pursuit:

4. DUI-Driving under the influence of drugs or alcohol.

An athlete's "job" at the Olympics is to do as well as you can. That is going to take somewhere between 100% and 110% of your focus. [...] Your primary responsibility is on the field of play. (Organization Member B)

This is often accepted as a default position: perform first, act or speak second. An athlete that maintains focus and performs well can build a stronger platform and voice for other initiatives.

For Team Canada, the agreement also fosters a common responsibility and inclination towards a unified front. While some athletes have raised their voices about political, social or team issues, many athletes temper their personal beliefs after signing the contract:

I think that our athletes should have the opportunity to speak their voice irrespective of what we think and I think they do for the most part. [...] But, let's not lose site of the fact that, while you are on the Olympic Team, you are one of many. Our job, in those moments, is to ensure that we don't create distractions but rather mitigate. If you chose to take this moment to take a public stand on something, it might feel right for you, and in the end, I'm not really sure there is much we could really do but we would always encourage our teammates to stay together as one team, and to stay on message, for the benefit of the team so that one athlete or one group of athletes aren't creating disruption so that everyone can focus on being as good as they can in the moment. (Organization Member A)

To comply with the Team contract, athletes are encouraged to recognize the potential impact of making public statements or criticism of the Games (or IOC, OCOGs, COC, NSFs, Team and Athlete) in media or on social media that can affect the focus and morale of the Team. Athletes agree to refrain from bringing any public disrepute, disparagement or censure to the aforementioned parties. Athletes are expected to bring issues to their chef de mission (COC, 2016). While this is a valid legal expectation of a contract, free speech is still a basic human right. Athletes who publicly voice their disagreement with bodies that govern them risk being sanctioned and do so at a personal cost. For instance, an athlete who stood up for his teammate, for the benefit of that teammate but at the expense of his federation stated:

I got heavily criticized for it from the COC but I wouldn't change a thing because I have the right to an opinion. I am not simply a performance robot that you

click on and send off to compete, then get told to say the right things, little monkey [...]. One of the most fulfilling moments I had was getting feedback from other athletes saying that it was the right thing to do. Some people didn't and I am ok with that too. [...] For me, if you believe in something, you should stand up for that. I stood up for another athlete and I paid the consequences for that quite significantly but I wouldn't change it for the world. (Athlete B)

For this athlete, the right to speak of injustices was worth risking breaking a legal contract to, paradoxically, uphold the Olympic ideal of being at the service of humanity.

Babiak, Mills, Tainsky and Juravich (2012) describe a major factor influencing an athlete's intention and participation in social initiatives as the athlete's perceived behavioural control and balance between an athlete's capability, skill and time versus the demands required by engagement and by sport. For some, singular focus on sport leads to enhanced performance; for others, participating in initiatives can help enhance performance. Social engagement can allow athletes to derive new meaning and motivation to a seemingly monotonous and selfish endeavour. Some athletes speak about how getting involved in initiatives helps bolster their sense of identity, alleviates performance pressures and can contribute to an emotional and psychological well-being that frees them to reach peak performance:

Know your limits. [...] Understand clearly the focus that it takes. Don't go to the Olympics with any other banner than "I am here to race." Anything you think you want to do or want to say, the best thing you can do is win, then say it because you have a louder voice. [...] I do believe as an athlete you always do have to take performance into consideration but then I have also been in Africa and coaches think it's a really bad idea and I just say they don't understand. This is part of me. It's me connecting, reconnecting not just with these people, these children, but with myself. It's also understanding that you have limitations, you have a capacity, but understand what true inspiration is and the potential of that. There is a balance with it all." (Athlete C)

The balance is intricate and individual; the challenge is defining an athletes' responsibility as an Olympian. The Olympics are understood as the pinnacle opportunity for human performance in sport but also for performance in humanity.

Ethical/moral responsibilities

Another value of Olympism is respect; this includes ethical principles of dignity, integrity and fair play. Canadian athletes agree to “observe and comply with all terms and conditions of the *Olympic Charter* and applicable IOC and COC policies.” (COC, 2016). Athletes must conduct themselves in a manner that respects the philosophy of Olympism, the spirit of fair play and non-violence; Olympians must behave accordingly on and off the field of play.

Performance is a central consideration for athletes when weighing decisions that may or may not be ethical. Globally, the Olympics are celebrated as the preeminent sporting spectacle therefore glory and rewards awarded for winning have reached an all-time high. Nations use the Olympics as an opportunity to demonstrate strength and dominance (Kidd, 2013) putting pressure on athletes to win. In some instances, competitive pressures to excel have led athletes to partake in activities that counter Olympism values.

Babiak et al. (2012) identify the degree to which the athlete feels ethically responsible or morally obliged to engage as a factor contributing to an athlete’s intention and action. In ethical issues, some athletes feel it is integral to be involved if the issue has direct implications, while some want others to respond. Doping is a prominent and time relevant, ethical issue facing athletes:

Nobody should care more about anti-doping than athletes. For athletes, it’s your livelihood. You are either enabled and empowered to compete fairly in sport, as you should be, or you’re being thwarted out of what is potentially your rightful place in the world. (Athlete D)

Ethical and moral responsibilities also flow from what Bruce Kidd calls sport’s mythopoeic nature (2010). The mythological narratives of Olympism promote compliance with liberal democratic ideals, which in turn promote humanitarianism and good sportsmanship. These are all qualities that create platforms from which social initiatives can be built. Thus, the moral character of athletes can lend value to social initiatives and programs (Kidd, 2010).

However, sporting culture is grounded in neoliberal and capitalistic discourses. These emphasize individualistic achievement at the expense of more humanistic values (Margolis & Walsh, 2003). Sport privileges normativity and conformity and sporting organizations are arguably undemocratic and hypocritical in their promotion of universal human values:

Something I know about the IOC is that they don't like to be challenged and they really see themselves as the highest authority and the highest decision making body. If you challenge them, they will fight back. (Athlete D)

When asked about the role that federations or the COC have in educating athletes on the right to speak up, and perhaps their responsibility to do so, here is a response:

I think it's huge. I don't think the COC or other NOCs do an adequate job actually. I think they are more interested in keeping athletes as entertainment value that they can market and keep this positive halo around so that they can generate sponsors and funds. I do believe they have zero interest in athletes speaking up for what's right or doing the right thing. I think they have more responsibility and they need to take it more seriously. (Athlete D)

While sport as an institution is perceived to promote equality, altruistic development and unity, the disparity between what is preached and what is practised creates a concern of legitimacy. It can be argued that athletes' full potential, and sports', cannot be reached until work has been done to address social ills that exist within and around sporting culture and sporting institutions.

Athletic pursuit and responsibility to uphold Olympism

Sport elicits passion and emotional bonds between the public and athletes (Ratten, 2010) and thus, Olympians are called upon to be ambassadors for the Olympic Movement and initiatives beyond. Value that athletes can provide to organizations include: perceived credibility, symbolic capital, positioning, visibility, media attention and access not afforded to others. (Babiak et al., 2012)

While many agree, at least notionally, that athletes have legal, ethical and performance responsibilities, views on whether or not athletes should "give back" to society fall somewhere between responsibility and opportunity. At one end of the spectrum, some athletes feel that because they receive support (financial or otherwise), from the community, province and nation, they have an obligation to 'put back' at least as much as they took. Others feel they don't have the responsibility to give back because training is their job. Most athletes agree that it is the right thing to do.

I like to think that [athletes] are engaged in the Olympic Movement in part because of those values that the IOC Charter espouses. [...] The NOC has a responsibility for advancing Olympism and Olympic values. I would like to think that most of our athletes would like to take up that charge with us [...]. We have a fortunate position, I suppose, to have the responsibility of speaking for the movement in Canada and we take that very seriously. I think the athletes can have a role but as the NOC, I don't know that we can expect it, we cannot dictate it, we leave each athlete to their place and to their opinion. (Organization Member A)

Beyond altruistic intentions and the desire to “do-good”, athletes recognize the potential value in engaging in social causes such as skill development, building social and political capital, potential financial compensation (Babiak et al., 2012). Engagement in a cause can also be psychologically and emotionally rewarding, particularly when athletes have a personal connection to the initiative. Whether a responsibility or not, athletes need to remain conscious of their public profile and potential as role models:

You cannot shirk that responsibility because you have kids looking up to you and you will have people listening to what you are saying and you should be aware and conscious of that if you really believe in something. (Athlete D)

Today, athletes garner attention beyond what they gain on the sporting field, particularly with new mediums through which people connect with athletes. Regardless of whether it is a responsibility, there is certainly an opportunity for athletes to engage in social initiatives.

I do think sport gives people perspectives that they wouldn't have otherwise and you are living a life that is really different than most people. You experience incredible highs and lows and you know what team and camaraderie is and it's a whole other spectrum of experience that you just don't get anywhere else. Built into that are values and fundamental belief systems that would certainly compel, and does compel, a lot of athletes to feel a social responsibility. (Athlete D)

The values and ideals of Olympism are wonderfully idealistic. Celebrating humanity and a philosophy based on the interaction between body-mind-spirit is easy to support. For some athletes, passion for sport and the pursuit of

excellence draws them into the Olympic sphere; for others, passion for sport and values espoused by the Olympic Movement captivate them.

It was the whole idea of the Olympic ideal that I loved [...]. It inspired me to become an Olympian, to live up to those ideals of higher, faster, stronger, respecting yourself, respecting your competitors, being a part of humanity and celebrating humanity. [...] It was really a feeling of great personal satisfaction and a feeling of really living up to those ideals of the Olympics, even though the IOC doesn't always live up to them. You know what? I really like them! I like celebrating humanity. I like being connected at the deepest level to the human condition – not just sharing the joy but sharing the struggle, connecting that way as well. It gave me greater purpose as an athlete to continue doing what had become really monotonous and helped me find meaning in the pursuit of excellence where I couldn't really find it in trying to achieve the results anymore. (Athlete C)

The Olympics celebrate the pursuit of excellence. To gain entry, athletes must reach the highest levels of performance and prove their athletic prowess. They must comply with laws that govern them as well as ethical and moral standards that are dictated through the *Olympic Charter*. Glory and awards may come with being crowned Olympic Champion but the power of the Olympic Movement comes from something deeper. The values and ideals emblemized by the Olympic Movement challenge sport to be at the service of humanity and for athletes to be the highest expression of that challenge.

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WHERE ARE THEY NOW? AN INVESTIGATION OF THE CAREER PATHWAYS OF SOCHI 2014 STAFF

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Abstract

The following study investigates career pathways of Sochi 2014 Organising Committee staff two years after the Olympic Games were held in Sochi in 2014.

Participants of the study were former Sochi 2014 OCOG employees (N=134), who had worked in the variety of functions and held different level of positions. In total, the sample represented 32 different function areas and 19 positions.

The results of the study revealed overall positive perception of the respondents' work experience in Sochi 2014 OCOG as a contributing factor to further professional development. Key factors of further career development of the participants obtained in Sochi 2014 OCOG were defined. The distribution of current job positions held by the respondents and the work areas respondents are now involved in were presented.

The strong relationship between the respondent's current position and their skills in project management was revealed. Notably, former Project managers of Sochi 2014 OCOG continued to work within the project management industry. The development of the set of skills and competencies during working for Sochi 2014 OCOG was highly evaluated. However, the data on the transition of such skills and competencies to the current work place showed lower results.

Importantly, the number of difficulties and barriers of the post-Games employment period was revealed throughout the study. Also, such information

as the length of searching for a new job and main channels of obtaining a job was obtained.

Keywords: Olympic Games workforce, OCOG staff, career pathways, career development.

Introduction

The Olympic and Paralympic Games have always been about much more than sport. They are about what human beings can accomplish together, and about advancing the values associated with the Olympic and Paralympic Movements. The successful performance of the Sochi 2014 Olympic Games was dependent on the professionalism, passion, self-commitment and motivation of the people involved in the preparation and staging of the Games – the unique staff, for most of whom it was the first-hand experience of delivering such a huge and complex project.

However, in the case of the Olympic Games in Sochi, the Sochi 2014 OCOG run for seven years; in 2014, after the Games were conducted, it was dissolved. At that moment, a huge number of people quit the OCOG and had to start their journey of finding a new job.

Considering the OCOG's staff, while working for the Organising Committee, people were involved in the huge international project, where they felt their importance as employees and valued working together for something tremendous (Xiayan and Chalip, 2009, 2012). Nevertheless, after the Games were finished they had to start a new life and adapt to it.

The Olympic Games, being a mega sport event, are obviously a mega-project (Frawley and Adair, 2013) with an institutionalized termination (Grabher and Thiel, 2015). It has been suggested that work experience in OCOG consists a rewarding episode in the career of OCOG's employees (*ibid.*)

The post-Games job uncertainty was previously observed and defined among employees of the Beijing Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (BOCOG) during the termination stage of the Olympic Games. BOCOG's employees had number of concerns about skills transferability and future of post-Games employment (Xing and Chalip, 2012). However, this area of concern and the exploration of career pathways for the former OCOG staff in the post-Games period have not been explored in the literature so far.

Thus, investigation of the career pathways of Sochi 2014 OCOG staff will provide new perspectives on the post-Games career development of former employees.

Literature review

The current study investigates “*career pathways*”; for the purposes of this research it is broadly defined as a set of work experiences undertaken to achieve personal and career goals.

Career development

The term “*career development*” can be considered as the *lifelong process which refers to the development of the experiences of an individual*.

One of the aspects that can influence career development refers to human capital and specifically to its accumulation within the work experience (McCabe, 2009). In particular, Parker and Arthur (2000) found that a number of core competences are related to an individual’s human capital development. Such core competencies are highlighted by several scholars (Arthur et al., 1999; Parker and Arthur, 2000) as “Knowing Why” (motivation and identity), “Knowing How” (capabilities) and “Knowing Whom” (social capital). From the resource-based point of view, these three ways of knowing also refer to the career capital of an individual (Dickmann and Harris, 2005).

The unique nature of mega-event organisations

The nature of the mega-event sport organisations, such as OCOG, is contemporary with the lifecycle typically represented by three operational modes: (i) planning, (ii) implementation, and (iii) wrap-up. In addition, rapid expansion along with structural changes are variables indicative of such type of organisations (Parent, 2008). Xing and Chalip (2012) also characterized OCOG as a temporary, rapidly growing organisation, usually bureaucratic and surrounded by rich symbolism. Differently from permanent organisations, for instance, the organising committees of mega-events are created specially to arrange and serve an event and are dissolved after its termination (Theodoraki, 2007).

Hanlon (2002) reasonably concluded that mega-event sport organisations should be considered as a solid example of a pulsating organisation, as in generally operates with a small number of core personnel during the preparation stage and expands the number of workforce during the final stage of the event. According to Toffler (1990) such organisations experience expansion and shrink during their commercial life-span. The author distinguished between two types of such organisations (see Figure 1): regular rhythm (with a periodic lifecycle) and single pulse organisations (episodic in nature, established specially for one event only and dissolved afterwards).



Figure 1:
Regular rhythm and single pulse organizations, source: Toffler (1990, p. 178).

Alongside, Hanlon (2002) argues that the OCOG is recognized to be a single pulse organisation as Olympic Games are staged only once in a single destination and are characterized by the rapid growth of the workforce during their life-span. This is in line with the findings of Xing and Chalip (2012) who indicated the organisational changes at BOCOG to be sustained and revealed the growing organisational number of the organisation's employees along with structural expansion.

The unique characteristics of the nature of the OCOG allows us to create a clear picture of the internal environment of the organisation and distinguish OCOG staff from other types of employees; this is significant for the current research project.

Career implications in mega-event organisations

Career development within an Olympic Organising Committee (OCOG) represents a complex structure which has a lifecycle that grows from a small organization of tens of employees to reach several thousands after seven years. Hanlon and Jago (2004) suggested a flat organisational structure for pulsating organisations, therefore the career progression and development is argued to be an issue for OCOG personnel. This is in line with other scholars who also indicated

career progression issues in project-based organisations (Huemann, Keegan, & Turner, 2007; Söderlun & Bredin, 2006). Barley & Kunda (2004) suggested transferability of obtained skills for knowledge-intensive organisations in different industries (e.g. IT, consulting) which allow staff to develop their careers within the industry. However, as highlighted by Xing and Chalip (2012), the Olympic Games occur every four years, the skills and competencies obtained by OCOG staff may not be relevant to the next job. Therefore, local employees may consider their further career development outside the event industry.

A number of concerns were revealed among BOCOG workers at the termination stage of the Games (Xing and Chalip, 2012). The workers noted that some of their skills were enhanced and developed (eg. capacity to solve problems and to work with government), while the ordeals at BOCOG allowed them to grow. They expressed concern that such skills could not be transferable for the purpose and the needs of their further career.

No study has been carried out so far which tracks the career development of the OCOG's staff after the Game's termination. Therefore, the present study will look into the career development of the former Sochi OCOG staff two years after the Games.

The Organising Committee workforce

Parent (2008) discussed the complex life cycle of the Organising Committees during the preparation of mega-events and outlined the role of the staff in the organising committee as one of the primary stakeholder groups. The overall success of the event is considered to rely on the commitment of the staff which is the driving force of the events (Parent, 2008). This assumption was confirmed by other authors who considered personnel to be the main component for organisational success (Nankervis et al., 1996; Morrall, 1998).

During the action period the OCOG hires different types of workforce personnel, which includes full-time or part-time paid staff, pre-event (test events) and event-time volunteers, consultants, contractors, and those individuals who circulate from one event to the next (Parent and Smith-Swan, 2013). The primary objective of the OCOG staff is to plan and organize every element of staging the Games. Major sports events can have upwards of 50 or more functional areas (Parent 2015, p. 48).

According to the internal documents of the Sochi OCOG one of the strategic imperatives of the Sochi Olympic Games was “Team Potential”. It was expected to build a high-performing team of enthusiasts and professionals who would endow the country with a human legacy.

In order to develop the necessary competencies of the workforce in 2009, the special training program was implemented. Davydenko and Savchenko (2013) pointed out that the specialization of the programme, which consisted of three key directions: staff training, adaptation, internal communication and interaction among employees.

Therefore it is essential to investigate what the core skills and competencies obtained by the Sochi OCOG personnel actually were.

Methodology

Taking into the consideration that no published academic studies have been carried out so far with regards to the career pathways of employees of Olympic Organising Committees in the post-Games period, the present project investigated this issue using a quantitative research approach to quantify the key elements of career development and the post-Games employment of Sochi 2014 staff.

Sampling

The non-probability sampling technique was used to involve participants for the following study. Namely, purposeful sampling with the combination of the snowball sampling method was applied.

The main criterion for the selection was the requirement for the participants to have the experience of working for Sochi 2014 OCOG as paid staff. Therefore, volunteers were excluded from the study.

Respondents (N=134) were paid Sochi 2014 OCOG employees who had worked for Sochi 2014 OCOG for less than 1 year (29,9 %) 1–2 years (27,6 %), 2–3 years (18,7 %), more than 4 years (11,9 %) and 3–4 years (9,0 %). Moreover, there was one participant who mentioned 7 years working experience in Sochi 2014 OCOG and one participant with more than 5 years' experience. In terms of the demography, 57,5% of employees were female and 42,5% male. The

majority of the participants were up to 34 years old (76,1 %); however, 22,4% of the participants were between 35 and 50 years of age and two participants over the age of 51 (1,5%).

Data collection

The main source of data for the current study was an online survey. A questionnaire survey was developed using preliminary interviews, piloted and uploaded on www.surveymonkey.com website for data collection and further processing of the results.

As the researcher and author of the study had worked for Sochi 2014 OCOG, the recruitment of the participants was based on her personal networks and membership in the closed social media groups (Facebook and LinkedIn).

A snowball sampling method was used to attract a broader coverage by the participants. The researcher contacted former colleagues who were working for OCOG in different departments to take part in the survey and pass the link for the survey to other colleagues of the potential respondent.

Data analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to present the basic features of the data. To reach the conclusions for the Likert scale, question means and standard deviations were calculated and applied to describe the main tendency. Also, to see the significant relationships between the variables a cross tabulation approach was taken. All comments for open-ended format questions were analyzed using a theme analysis with the description of main topics provided.

Results and discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate career pathways of the Sochi 2014 OCOG staff two years after OCOG was dissolved. According to the findings, career development of the former Sochi 2014 OCOG staff after termination of the Games represented a complex career pathway.

The analysis of the career progression opportunities within Sochi 2014 OCOG revealed that those participants who were working for Sochi 2014 OCOG for a number of years were more likely to have career opportunities. In

contrast, those who had just a short work employment with Sochi 2014 OCOG did not have such options.

As was noted earlier in the literature, OCOG have unique features associated with being a single pulse organisation and characterized by the rapid growth of the workforce during its life-span (Hanlon, 2002). Moreover, OCOG display organisational changes with the steep acceleration of the number of employees as well as structural enlargement. The example of BOCOG's staff increasing more than 15 times and six more departments established two years prior the Games' staging (Xing & Chalip, 2012) is typical of these types of entities. Therefore, according to research findings, it could be suggested that career progression opportunities within OCOG exist and are more likely to be provided for those individuals who work for the OCOG for a number of years.

It was revealed that in general the Sochi 2014 OCOG work experience contributed to the future career development for the former staff. Particularly, the results of the study indicated that those employees who kept high rank positions in Sochi 2014 OCOG benefited more in terms of further career development by taking the same or higher level positions after the termination of the Games. This is in line with findings by Grabher and Thiel (2015) who explained that those employees who hold high rank positions and work for a number of years in OCOG or are responsible for prestigious projects benefit in future career development. At the same time, those with more ordinary tasks or with a short work episode have a more challenging and uncertain career pathway.

The research evaluated furthermore the current occupation of the respondents. In total, 43 working areas and 21 positions of different levels were defined by the respondents. The organisation of events (sport events) and IT were the most popular working spheres among the sample' whereas Head of the Department, Senior Manager and Manager were defined to be the most popular positions at present time. Some of the respondents had started up their own business; nevertheless, unemployment cases were also reported by the sample, although their number such was not high.

The key factors of future career development obtained in Sochi OCOG were named as: unique working experience, useful skills and new useful contacts. Interestingly, the same factors were defined by the respondents as the main advantages of Sochi 2014 OCOG experience during the process of finding a new job. The findings are consistent with the idea of an accumulation and substantial

increase of “career capital” during employment in high profile projects (Arthur et al., 2001). The concept of “career capital” (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996) addresses the creating of value by the individual through improvements in the selected roles and the recognition they receive for their performance externally.

After the termination of the Games a number of the former Sochi 2014 OCOG employees were looking for a job in other Organising Committees (such as Baku 2015, Rio 2016, etc.) and the majority of these were up to 34 years old (Generation Y). The findings are consistent with the suggestion that the desire to move from event to event can provide new directions and challenges together with a sense of achievement through the result and responsibility which the representatives of Generation Y, are looking for (Martin, 2005). In case of Generation Y job security is not as critical a factor for the representatives of this age, who are more project oriented and do not expect long-term employment (Amar, 2004).

The findings of the study uncovered the considerable number of difficulties for former Sochi OCOG staff in the post-Games employment period. The constraints determined are: the absence of the desired number of vacancies, the lack of jobs with the same salary level as in Sochi 2014 OCOG, as well as the lack of vacancies in the specialization area of the respondent. Moreover, their comments provided valuable insights regarding barriers in the post-Games employment period. Such issues as negative attitudes towards Sochi 2014 OCOG staff from other employers, specificity of the Sochi 2014 experience, the lack of understanding of the Sochi 2014 work experience by employers and a perception of overqualification were identified.

Yet, such phenomena were not covered in the literature. Therefore, it could be suggested that such issues relating to the post-Games period are unique and can prove valuable for further in depth research.

The main channels of finding new jobs according to the respondents were: Internet resources (hh.ru, linkedin.ru, и тд.), general advertisements, friends' recommendations and Sochi 2014 former colleagues' recommendations. It is interesting to notice that no one from the respondents mentioned Sochi 2014 post-Games career programme as the source of obtaining a job, while just a few found a job through agency.

The main issue with finding a new job was the absence of the desired level of vacancies. Also, respondents mentioned the lack of jobs with the same salary

level as in Sochi 2014 OCOG, and the lack of vacancies in the specialization area of the respondent.

It should be added that the majority of the respondents also noted the absence of Sochi 2014 OCOG's assistance during the process of finding a new job in the post-Games period.

The data obtained on the skills' and competencies' development during working for Sochi 2014 OCOG showed that such skills and competencies as "working in the group with different people", "stress resistance", "ability to work in multitasking mode", "communication skills", "ability to solve complex and substandard problems", "ability to work under pressure", "decision-making ability" and specific skills, which were "unique only for the function of the respondent in Sochi 2014 OCOG" were strongly developed by the respondents. However, project management and event management skills got low mean values, which indicate that these were not highly developed.

Such strong development of the majority of skills and competencies can be explained in different ways. First of all, all the ordeals experienced by OCOG's staff during work allow them to grow and give the opportunity to develop oneself (Xing and Chalip, 2012). Another possible explanation could be the sorts of trainings usually provided by OCOG. Jinxia and Mangan (2008) indicated such training programmes were also supported by BOCOG. Special programs were also implemented by Sochi 2014 OCOG and aimed to develop a set of skills and competencies for the purpose of effective accomplishment of job duties by employees (Davydenko and Savchenko, 2013).

Further analysis on skills and competencies in terms of the transferability to the current work place presented the lower means result. Specific skills and competencies obtained in Sochi 2014 OCOG, but not in use in their current job, were also revealed. These reflect comments by BOCOG workers examined by Xing and Chalip (2012) who noted that some of the skills they developed by working for BOCOG would not be transferable for the purpose of their future career.

Nevertheless, the mean values of the majority of skills and competencies were still high; this leads us to consider the transferability of such skills and competencies as "working in the group with different people", "stress resistance", "ability to work in multitasking mode", "communication skills", "ability to solve complex and substandard problems" and "decision-making ability".

In terms of the relation between the current work of respondents and project management and the sport sphere, quite high results were obtained. Also, a number of the respondents mentioned their relation to event management. The following findings let us suppose that some of the participants attempted to continue within the specific sphere after the Games. For instance, it was confirmed that former Project Managers of Sochi 2014 OCOG had chosen project management as their further specialization.

As for the overall evidence of the relation to project management, the findings can be related to the acknowledgements in project management literature that project management had “become a common form of work organisation in all sectors of the economy” (Lindren and Packendorff, 2006, p. 841). Moreover, a “wide range of organisations now be termed ‘project-based’ leading to people from diverse backgrounds being involved in projects and to project team members being employees or staff contracted for the duration of the project only” (Lloyd-Walker, et al., 2015).

In conclusion, the respondents of this study reported the silent result (93,2%) of positive perception of work experience in Sochi 2014 OCOG.

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THE SPORT WE LOVE: PROMOTING HEALTH AND PROTECTING EARTH

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Introduction

New technologies, production systems that enable greater availability of food and energy sources available for a growing proportion of the world population, are involved in global changes in consumption and in spending free time in travelling, in practising leisure activities and sport. The general improvement of the health of citizens and the increased life expectancy and quality depend on respecting health conditions while working and in living one's private life. A better functioning health care system (especially in preventing and curing diseases) plays a significant role. To build a future with benefits from technology and science, we must consider the environmental impact of our activities and modify those actions that cause damages to the planet through a lifestyle that also permits the prevention of chronic disorders in adulthood. It is also necessary to ensure the conditions for a positive mental state, with reflections in social, economic and political life.

Abstract

The needs of a growing population (number and age-average) are quickly changing and this trend requires a new organization of labor, services, and resources. Sport helps maintain a lifestyle with reflections on health and life expectancy; sport involves millions of people, determines a huge market that requires specific products, infrastructures, displacement of people.

Nevertheless, if not properly designed, sport involves considerable risks, related to sports injuries, which occur with an incidence one thousand times higher than in occupational situations.

Furthermore, the impact of the sport on the environment has to be considered.

Key words: sport; environmental; health; injuries; Olympism; Earth; sustainability.

Objectives

This paper has two different objectives:

- Promoting sport for health: the incidence of injuries are examined in all sports, including those in the Olympics.^{1,I}
- Promoting physical activity to recover personal freedom, to counteract the logic of consumption and economic interest, reducing also the environmental impact of human activities.

Overview of sports injuries

Athletic has the scepter of the queen of the Olympics for its ancient tradition and for involving a number of athletes representing 20% of the total participants. IAAF^{II} started its project of monitoring injuries in 2007² (World Championships), continuing in 2008 with the Olympic Games and in 2009 with the European ones. In the few days of participation and monitoring, about 10% of athletes reported injuries and 7% suffered from ailments and diseases on race days.³ Most of the athletes train individually with a small staff and it is difficult to collect data. Injuries affect up to 75% of the athletes every year. Musculoskeletal injuries depend on the requests of prestatative ceilings and cumulative loads (overuse). The high training over the period of one year is a predictive signal of high risk of injury. The IAAF acquires the Consensus Statement⁴ and collects data according to the specific disciplines of the Olympic program (speed, middle

I. The original study¹ focuses on football, which is a sport spread worldwide. Football has great economic resources and capability to support research; also, it exercises great influence on public opinion in a frame often close to the logic of profit.

II. International Association of Athletics Federation.

distance running, jumps, etc.). During training or competition, some dramatic injuries happened in the pole vault (Kira Grunberg fell out of the falling platform) and throws (Salim Sdiri, a long jumper athlete, was hit by a javelin launched by Tero Pitkameki during the Golden Gala – Rome 2007). Both types of accidents in order to be avoided require meticulous organization of the race tracks and observance of safety criteria.

Motorsport:^{III} these disciplines evoke strong emotions in the spectators, as they are related to spectacular accidents. Thanks to increased safety measures, those events are now mostly non-fatal. We have a tragic score consisting of a total of 241 deaths in MotoGP and Formula 1. The last fatal accident (Bianchi) of F1, occurred 21 years after the previous one (Senna). In Moto2, the last death occurred on 3 June 2015 (Salom) following 2011 (Simoncelli – MotoGP), one year after the previous one (Tomizawa – MotoGP) and after ten years of no fatalities. Common accidents are due to contact between motorcyclists or individual slidings with falls determining fractures and concussions. During the races in F1 and MotoGP, advanced sanitary units are on duty and a helicopter is available. Despite the security measures and technology development, improved performance of cars and motorcycles as well as human errors and technical faults continue to determine numerous sports injuries with lesions typical of road accidents. There are about 20 injured athletes every year for each category.

Winter sports: skiing, jumps and ice hockey have the highest number of injuries. The day before the beginning of the Winter Olympics in Vancouver (2010), there was a tragic accident in the luge (Nodar Kumaritashvili) and the race track was slightly modified. In skiing, during Olympic editions since 1992, there have been three incidents that resulted in immediate death and a lot of traumas involving knee, ankle, hip, arm, elbow, wrist, shoulder, spine and brain concussion. The most effective prevention measures is the correct design of the tracks and of the escaping routes, equipped with systems to stop and save the athletes who fall. Technology provides better protection and equipment but also the highest performance ever and the possibility of high-energy impacts. The high boots have reduced the tibia-fibula fractures, but they result in more knees' injuries. Hockey deserves a specific analysis: both its main tools, the bat and the puck, constitute a potential source of danger. The spectacular nature and the

III. According to the Olympic regulations, motorsport cannot become an Olympic discipline because of the mechanical power used in propulsion.

dynamics of this discipline determine high energy contrasts occurring on the hard and slippery ice surface. Athletes wear protection for the whole body but there are frequent accidents with head concussions prevailing.⁵

Swimming disciplines: FINA^{IV} started to collect injury data during the World Championships of 2009.⁶ In 2013,⁷ athletes were monitored by their respective teams in the four weeks before the World Cup. Between the two World Championships a little but significant declining in the number of injuries emerges. The study considers the five different disciplines (swimming in the pool, synchronized swimming, water polo, diving, open water swimming) that correspond to different types of accidents and injuries, most deriving by iterative load and affecting shoulder joints. Numerous infections regarding the respiratory and gastrointestinal tracts are also registered. One third of the athletes are involved in injuries (especially females).

Cycling and endurance sport in the open air, running and cross-country skiing, swimming in open seas: cyclists are exposed to severe risk of injury and extreme variable conditions during the races. One study⁸ showed exposure to trauma from repetitive loading, fractures regarding collarbone and concussion as the most frequent injuries affecting 85% of cyclists in a period of eight years of observation. During the race “Milano – Sanremo 2013”, the blizzard and very rigid temperatures resulted in serious consequences to the distal ends (feet and hands) of many runners, long subjected to acute hypothermia. Endurance sports register a high incidence of asthmatic subjects (15% of the practitioners^{V,9}), which may be related to the load frequency and the high intensity of effort affecting the respiratory system, as well as other factors to be explored, such as the use, by a growing number of athletes, of substances for therapeutic applications in disorders related to asthma. Hypoglycemia may derive from prolonged and excessive exercise in conditions of poor food supply, resulting in serious damage to the central nervous system. A study¹⁰ shows a relationship between the great efforts of a sport such as cycling and positive effects on life expectancy, although those athletes, due to various factors and their own predisposition, could probably have enjoyed this better expectation regardless of the practice of cycling.

Extreme sports and adventure as sports on high mountains, deep under the ground or under water, exploration of volcanoes, caves, bungee jumping,

IV. Fédération Internationale de Natation.

V. “Exercise-induced asthma” – see no. 9, p. 217 in the Bibliography below.

parachuting, diving from great heights, various crossings typically carried out with human-powered means or mechanical devices, alone or in small groups, kitesurfing, extreme waves surfing, climbing, balancing at various heights and with various tools, aerobatics, circus activities, extreme tests of endurance in harsh environments, the rapid descent, descent of rocks and ridges with bicycles or other means, snow skiing, use of snowmobiles, activities on glaciers, acrobatics with bicycles or other mechanical devices, tablets, flying devices, exceptional load lifting, extreme physical trials. There is no consensus for the classification of high-risk sports and related injuries¹¹ do not differ substantially from those during the practice of other disciplines despite the fact that often the used tools are potentially very dangerous. A study¹² reports that snowboarding scores highest on the list of winter sports for concussions (43.9%) and lacerations (6.7%).

Combat sports such as judo, karate, mixed martial arts, taekwondo, boxing: most of the injuries involve neck and head (lack of scientific evidence of the magnitude and reversibility of the hypothesized loss of cognitive abilities of practitioners). Emphasis is given to the chance of the athletes to improve their temperament and ability to achieve high self-defense skills. To protect young athletes, federations have to respect the lowest age considered appropriate for participation in each discipline in each country.¹³

Precision sports and shooting weapons such as bow, shooting, Olympic trap, rifle shooting, darts: accidents are mainly related to athletic training and to the iterative load of some segments of the body such as fingers, wrists, shoulders, upper limbs.^{14,15}

Team sports and contact such as football, rugby and American football: the most serious injuries concern head trauma (concussion), neck and spine, while there are all types of fractures of the limbs, ribs, clavicles. The American National Football League (NFL) promotes tests of advanced devices.^{16,17} The Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) permits the use of EPTS.^{VI,18}

Other contact team sports such as basketball and handball: these sports are characterized by a high number of contrasts. Frequent injuries of the limbs are caused by iterative loads and traumatic events.

VI. Electronic Performance and Tracking System.

Olympic sports: before starting the studies applied to team disciplines (Athens 2004) and the multidisciplinary events (Beijing 2008), IOC^{VII} adopted the Consensus statement of injury definition⁴ adapting the module describe injuries to individual sports and the specificity of its training. This criteria has been experienced by the IAAF.^{19,20} Data confirm the high incidence of injuries.

Illness and health damages due to the abuse of drugs and doping: there are no official data about the prevalence of health damages due to drug abuse to improve physical performances; the countermeasures to defeat doping are not yet fully effective.

Health promotion

A new approach to health emerges as a complement of the traditional sports phenomenon adding to playful, competitive, social, cultural, political and economic aspects. Health is no longer a prerequisite for the practice of sport, but it is expected to be its main outcome. The United Nations,²¹ the World Health Organization,²² UNESCO,²³ and other leading-state and supranational organizations highlight the importance and the role of sport for the human being and its practice in safe conditions. Health, defined by WHO as "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being" is recognized among the universal human rights by the United Nations but it still requires operative indications, even in sports, to ensure that it doesn't remain a principle only. The scientific approach to the psychological factors determining performance and health is still a mosaic to assemble. Similarly, the contribution of sport to the health of the person is associated, in the prevailing culture, to the opportunity to vent our own tensions, to demonstrate strength, manliness, determination and courage to claim a role and a presence, to obtain a statement. Often there is the perception to measure our own value through an athletic performance. The spread of new sports, such as adventure, demonstrates that many more people are looking for satisfaction coming not only from physical fit.²⁴

The European Council (Declaration of Nice – 2000)²⁵ declares: "*Sport is a human activity resting on fundamental social, educational and cultural values. It promotes integration in social life, tolerance, acceptance of differences and respect of the rules*". It introduces the role of responsibility of sporting

VII. International Olympic Committee.

federations for a training protecting young athletes' health (especially avoiding doping), their psychological wellbeing and their family ties. Sports culture and health require an approach centered on the person.

According to the same concept of health and the regulatory framework governing the employment, sport federations have a role regarding social responsibilities in analyzing, in their specific sport, the issue of injuries, their effects on individual health and the associated social costs. The relevant factors and measures to limit risks depend on those practicing a sport, regulations, methods of approaching the game, environmental factors, sustainability of the measures of protection and preventive health care. We need to focus on athletes, to verify psychological and behavioral aspects and functional abilities, to reduce risks through the players' trainers and the technical approach and recommendations for training and warm-up. Preventive health measures have been identified, in particular the medical examination for the practice; each federation studies the types of injuries on the field and the means of intervention of the medical teams, especially for cardiac arrest, traumas of the skull and the spine, and other types of accidents. Federations are asked to evaluate the evolution of the regulations, to promote fair play as well as the correct training and attitudes of practitioners, the training of referees' decision-making skills and the aid from additional technological supports.

Protecting Earth

Sport has a positive correlation with a person's health if the activity is well structured and adequate for the subject. To satisfy the increased anabolism required by the performance, to increase tropism and to restore the cellular damage due to exercise, one's body requires a major assumption of nourishment if compared to sedentary life; the practice of sport is related with energy consumption. It allows the physical body to improve functionality, preserve a healthy condition, reduce the incidence of many disorders and use less drugs. It results in an energy balance strictly related to physical exercise that may be part of a health program. Scientists consider it necessary, despite its energy needs.

Anyway, specific ways of practice are directly correlated to a relevant environmental impact. Organized events imply energy consumption and CO₂ emissions, as all human activities do. Excluding sustainable mobility, such

as walking and riding a bike, players move from their house to the training place by mechanical means of transportation; they need lighting, heating, the use of nonrenewable sources, equipment's consumption, the use of spaces, structures, buildings, logistic support, electric devices, showers and all boundary activities. This has an impact in modifying the ecosystem/environment. To play a match, a stadium is necessary, where a lot of fans take a seat after getting there by car, bus, metro. In addition, the structure itself has to be designed and maintained and it has an environmental impact lasting longer than the sporting event. One match in "Serie A" in Italy, produces 820 tons of CO₂; the FIFA World Cup in 2010 in South Africa produced 2.8 million tons of CO₂.²⁶ We have to consider occasional or continuing practice, the leisure of millions of people, the professional and organized practice, the tournaments, gyms and leisure complexes, federations, their headquarters, administrative apparatuses, bureaucracy, movement of people and equipment for meetings, planning, events organization, including World Championships and Olympiads.

The preservation of the social relevance of the sport has to be reconciled with ecological efforts sustained in other fields in order to establish an integrated plan: to consider the territoriality of the sport practice, the opportunity to practice sport close to one's house and possibly in the nature, the investment in sustainable structures. Sport has to promote walking and cycling to reach not only the gym or the places in which we practise sport, but also the school, the working place, giving physical activities back their role in the life of children, and of all practitioners (amateur and athletes), promoting love for nature. Nowadays a gym may have more appeal to its customers because of its parking area.

The wish to compete and to have profits leads sport clubs and their members to participate in a growing number of organized events, often located far from their headquarters and promoted by commercial sponsors. We assist the positive growth of the spirit to participate and belong to a community and to spend spare time practicing a loved activity: this results in the development of a positive social behavior. However, professional and high level practice is strongly connected with economic and financial aspects. The consumption of resources is not always receiving the correct value in the specific sphere of sport practice but it follows economic and sport competitiveness rules based on organizations generating more money, work and opportunities than the Olympic sport spirit seems able to produce. Thinking again about a football match, there are only 22

players practicing sport and we have to properly consider what happens around them deriving from the need of sharing and making it spectacular.

In addition, it is necessary to evaluate what practising a sport at an amateur level really means for the environment, for example when we run in our suburbs, when we go to a gym or we take part in a Marathon in another city. The European Commission on Sport has given the following guidelines:²⁷

A.8 Sustainable development:

29. Encourage the participation of sport stakeholders in EMAS,^{VIII} Community Eco-Label Award schemes and green procurement, and promote these schemes during major sport events in cooperation with Member States, sport organizations and organizers.

30. Promote green procurement in the political dialogue with Member States and other concerned parties.

31. Raise awareness, through guidance developed in cooperation with relevant stakeholders (policy makers, SMEs, local communities), about the need to work together in partnership at the regional level to organize sport events in a sustainable way.

32. Take sport into account in the new Life+ programme.

We need to define and promote best practices to be applied on every sport and specific for each discipline and framework, to gather existing information coming from research related to both the construction of sustainable complexes and the organization of events that consider strategies for environmental impact reduction. We need to evaluate and distinguish those aspects directly coming from sport practice and the others (social, political and economic) to pursue and integrate the research criteria used in other human fields and activities, to realize our most important goals in a sustainable way for the environment.

“Sport in/for the environment” can be an extraordinary opportunity for an environmental approach to education as a tool²⁸ to experience the parks and open spaces, activating processes of knowledge and direct experience of the protected and non-urban environment. IOC promotes more physical activity in a sustainable context, a different lifestyle beginning from the city hosting the events^{29,30} and to encourage participation in sports through our daily physical activity useful for our mobility and through our everyday choices in our towns³¹

VIII. i.e. Eco Management Audit Scheme.

in order to have a safe life and to avoid damages to our health deriving from pollution. Towns need projects to reduce pollution and this is mandatory for the city candidate to host the Games. It is better to practise physical activity instead of living a sedentary life despite pollution existing to the limit.^{32,33,34,35,36} Of course we need to be cautious.³⁷ Sport is also an opportunity to enhance and restore the environment and the landscape.³⁸ The promotion of the sporting spirit and the success of an athlete or a discipline can lead to safeguard the areas where the athlete lives and trains. It is necessary to save the environment and promote sport activities pursuing an ecological balance. In a mountain scenery, for instance, it is important to assess the appropriateness of using artificial snow on ski slopes, to build properly designed lifts, to evaluate the arrival of people in sensitive areas focusing on the environment natural capability to support human presence. The following equilibrium must be found: between the enjoyment of natural areas in which we can practise physical activity for each contest, avoiding policies that prohibit any usability and access, and the main goal to preserve the environment.

The “Environment”, which is the third pillar of Olympism³⁹ (the other two being sports and culture/education), requires worldwide educational programs and a higher technology. The following questions and options should be considered and evaluated:

- Is any of the pillars necessary irrespective of the others?
- Should the Olympic Movement promote the full sustainability of sport itself or may it use additional activities in order to balance its environmental impact?
- Do we have the right to change the environment for the sake of sport?⁴⁰
- Introduce financial fair play, limit and evaluate CO₂ emissions, energy and territory consumption during the practice of sport (even consider the savings associated to physical activity)?
- Introduce standardization of equipment and limits on the hours of practice?
- OG always in a new “Olympia” and reduce events?
- Promote active life to preserve the environment and return to a deconstructed sport?

Finally, sport and Olympics, play an increasingly important role over their historical influence in promoting peace, human rights and social and economic

development of every nation: the leadership in promoting the health of athletes and in introducing important guidelines for a sport that can contribute significantly to protecting the Earth.

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CONCLUSIONS

THE ANCIENT OLYMPIC GAMES AND THEIR PHILOSOPHY

We began our journey in Greece by visiting many sites connected with the Olympic Movement in ancient times, allowing us to experience the grounds first-hand while learning from a very knowledgeable tour-guide, Leda, and our first two professors, Professor Crowther and Professor Weiler.

We started our first day together at the Athens Acropolis, where we learned this word literally means “top of the city.” We took our first dive into the past by placing our eyes on the wonders of ancient Athens and its divinity. We continued to the Acropolis Museum where, with our guide Leda, we crossed every stage of sculpture. From the first sketches of the human body to the most precise forms showing movement and life, we saw the evolution of these ancient pieces and the works of these sculptors and artists. We experienced the charm of the reproduction of the Parthenon, its friezes, dedicated to humans and to the gods. We then dove into the origins of the modern Olympic Games. We visited the Zappeion, the building that is the center of the revival of the ancient sports tradition and the original athlete village. We walked the grounds of the Panathenaic Stadium with excitement. After seeing the grounds for the reviving of the modern Olympic Games, we drove by the 2004 Olympic Games facilities, witnessing the evolution of the Games first-hand. For lunch, we stopped in Isthmia, where we were able to experience the charm of the Corinthian channel. The day continued with a visit to the Epidaurus archaeological site and we ended the day in the beautiful city of Nafplion where we shared a meal and time to get to know one another.

On our second day we continued our tours of ancient sites of Acronafplia, Mycenae and Nemea, where Leda shared with us rich historical facts of each location. At the grounds of Acronafplia, we learned that this city was the first Hellenic capital and its fortress was built during the Venetian period. In Mycenae,

we visited the acropolis located strategically between two mountains. Features of this visit were seeing the Cyclopean architecture and the Lions Gate as well as some of the royal tombs.

A highlight of this day was the opportunity to learn from the esteemed Dr Stephen Miller at the site of Nemea. He shared with us the rich history of the Nemean Games as well as legends, myths and artifacts found on site. We then toured the grounds including the Temple of Zeus and the bathhouse for the athletes. He then showed us the last remaining undressing room, took us through the athlete tunnel where we experienced the energy and anticipation ancient athletes must have felt. He showed us inscriptions on the walls of ancient athletes, sharing his insight on who they were and what may have happened within the walls of the tunnel. On the stadium grounds, he shared with us the story of the revival of the ancient Games, now held every four years upholding the traditions as accurately as possible.

Waking up in paradise must feel similar to waking up on the third morning: the first full day in Olympia. We were given an introduction to the International Olympic Academy (IOA), its grounds, and watched a brief video that explained the philosophy behind the existence of the IOA: to increase studies on the Olympic Games, sport, and physical education. Then, we were led to monuments to lay wreaths to founding members of the Olympic Movement and the IOA. Most notable of these monuments was one containing the heart of the late Baron Pierre de Coubertin, the founder of the modern Olympic Movement. This institution was part of his dream for the future of sport and physical education. An academy dedicated to the study of the Olympic Movement will help build knowledge and spread the spirit of Olympism around the world. The Grounds of the IOA allow for easy flow and opportunity to live the values of the Movement. Going into the month-long journey together, the first few days allowed this group of 22 students from 18 countries to connect and build a foundation. After the wreaths were laid, group pictures were taken to capture the greatest ever postgraduate seminar cohort.

THE MODERN OLYMPIC MOVEMENT, THE REVIVAL OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND THE HISTORY OF THE MODERN OLYMPIC GAMES

On 5 September, the group started the day in the archaeological site of Ancient Olympia. Here we had a guided visit to one of the most important places related to the ancient Olympic Games (AOG). This included a detailed explanation about important ancient monuments, such as the Gymnasium, Palaestra, Temple of Zeus, Temple of Hera and the Stadium. Then, we went to see the museum and the rest of the archaeological collection. In the afternoon, we went back to the International Olympic Academy (IOA) to attend two lectures related to the geography of the archaeological site and the concept of the AOG.

The next day, the group had a morning lecture about “Training for the Olympics”. One of the most interesting facts that we learned during the lecture was that training was compulsory and lasted for 30 days before the Games in Elis. The next lecture concerned “Qualifying for the Ancient Olympics”. The final lecture of the day was related to the athletes, judges and spectators of the AOG. In particular, the geographical background of athletes, the seating capacity of stadiums and matters considering the spectators. Next, the first presentation of students took place – Helena Rudi (GER). Her presentation was related to “Symbols of the Olympic Games and their artistic implementation in the opening ceremonies”. Sport activities included basketball and a yoga class by one of the students. After dinner, students watched the film “Olympia” about the Berlin 1936 Olympic Games (OG).

On 7 September, the group attended the lecture: “Visiting the Olympic Games”. Here, the students tried to answer the question: What was it really like to go to the AOG? Secondly, the students discussed about the *Períodos* of the Panhellenic Games and analyzed the AOG program. The third and fourth lecture concerned the role of women in AOG and the modern and ancient

theories on the origins of sport and OG. The group discussed about the ethology, sociobiology and cultural ritualization. At the end of the lecture, there was a reading and discussion session of some archival texts from ancient philosophers. Before lunch, Yang Li (CHN) did a presentation about "Sports museum and Olympic education in China". As for sport activities, the students participated in basketball and Brazilian dances, the last led by one of the students. After dinner, we had the first social evening, where the participants from Poland and Colombia presented their culture and history.

In the following day, the lecture's topic was: "A short history of the Olympic ideals". Here, the students learned about the life of Coubertin, including his youth, his education, the influences on his ideas. The second lecture concerned the "Paralympic Games: The compatibility of Olympism with Paralympism". There was a discussion about the ideal and real scenarios, including some of the paradoxical issues. Augusto Jimenez (ESP) presented "The Pan-Iberian Association of Olympic Academies. Genesis, context, inheritance and consequences of its creation". On this day, participants took part in various sport activities – football, tennis and table tennis.

The 9th day of the Postgraduate Seminar started with a lecture where the main topics covered were "Olympism, humanism and post-humanism". Next, there was a discussion about how the human limits concerned abilities and physical capacities. Other points discussed were: diversity, sport disciplines, anti-doping control and the International Olympic Committee's position regarding these topics. The following lecture introduced the topic "Sport Ethics – Olympic Ethics Issues". The main questions for discussion were "What is philosophy?" and "What is ethics?". Before lunch, Luz Stella Ramirez (COL) presented "The Olympic studies courses in Colombia". Then, Jose Gabriel Sagastume (GUA) talked about the "Impact evaluations for volunteer programs in Guatemala". In the afternoon, the students watched the video: "Allegory of the Cave". Basketball and circuit training were the sport activities of the day.

On 10 September, the morning lecture described and gave examples about deontological ethics related to duty. Kant's groundwork was also introduced, in particular, the goodwill, act done out of duty and the categorical imperative. Then, the students learned about man as a citizen of two worlds – reason and sensate – and the concept of utilitarianism. The ethical virtues as the product of habit and practice and the Aristotelian ethics of mean were also addressed.

Then, Rafael Veloso (BRA) presented his research: “The *domestique* condition within road cycling. Features of a unique competitive practice in contemporary sport”. Eva Ellmer (AUS) did a presentation about “Learning in action and adventure sports”. In the afternoon, the group had a guided visit to the Athens 2004 Olympic Games Archives. The sport activities that day were tennis and boxing, by one of the students. At night, Brazilian participants presented their social evening. The students learned facts about the country, its people and its culture. The group also tasted Brazilian products and had a Brazilian dancing class.

Sunday, 11 September, was a free day for the group. The participants went to the nearby beach and enjoyed swimming in the sea, playing volleyball, reading and talking with colleagues. These are important times because students can exchange ideas with other participants.

OLYMPIC EDUCATION AND SOCIO-POLITICAL ASPECTS OF THE MODERN OLYMPIC GAMES (MEDIA AND COMMUNICATION, MANAGEMENT, ORGANIZATION AND MARKETING)

12 September 2016

Today, Prof. Dr Konstantinos Georgiadis (GRE) invited us to the archaeological sites of Ancient Olympia. Here, we took a tour from the Palestra (gymnasium), the magnificent Temple of Zeus (it inspired our imagination of how great it must have been during the ancient times), and the stature of Nike. At each location, Prof. Dr Georgiadis gave us a lecture concerning sport and education. He taught us about the humanistic idea ancient people adopted through sport: we learned about how friendships formed during sporting practices and competitions. Furthermore, social skills were trained in the same manner as motor skills.

We were additionally introduced to the ancient Greek concept of *kalokagathia* or *Kalos kagathos*: Beauty and virtue were taught to people using sport practice and competition in ancient Greece. We learned about Apollo, the god of art, about the *hellanodikai* (the referees who kept the competition fair), the city of Elis that was the training place for athletes before coming to Olympia. We also had a chance to hear about Coubertin's ideology which was based or inspired by the happenings here in Ancient Olympia.

After our excursion, Loïc Pedras (POR/FRA) presented his topic on "The future of sport organization. Organization responses to institutional complexity".

In the afternoon lecture Prof. Dr Georgiadis spoke about "The idea of competition in modern Greek tradition", "The first efforts for the revival of Olympic Games", and "The Olympic Movement in England". Before dinner, we played volleyball and tennis as the sport of the day. After dinner we watched the movie "Chariots on Fire" to close the day.

13 September 2016

The first lecture for the day began at 8.30 with Prof. Dr Yannis Theodorakis (GRE). He talked about refugees who competed at the 2016 Rio Olympic Games. Then, we discussed about the refugees' story.

The second lecture at 10.00 with Prof. Dr Georgiadis (GRE) was about the Olympic Games of Athens 2004. Discussed themes included the organization of the Games, budget, environmental issues, transportation and the Greeks' thoughts about the 2004 Athens Olympic Games. During the afternoon students had time to work on their reports and presentations.

The last lecture began at 16.00 with Prof. Dr Theodorakis. He mentioned the "Kallipateira" Project. This project is an Olympic Education program put in practice in Greek primary and secondary schools. Themes deal with issues of human rights, diversity and multiculturalism, gender equality, racism, physical education and the Olympic ideals. The aim of the project is to encourage students to actively participate in thematic mini-projects which are run by the everlasting ideals of the Olympic Games.

Prof. Dr Theodorakis introduced us to a number of these educational games which are part of the "Kallipateira" Project.

After the games at 18.00 the sport activities began.

14 September 2016

In the morning lectures Prof. Dr Yannis Theodorakis (GRE) introduced the topic of the role of the Olympic Movement and doping (e.g. attitudes, behaviors, cognition). We additionally addressed topics such as changing health-related behaviors, and promoting educational programs in relation to doping. During these lectures, we worked in groups to discuss advantages and disadvantages to the use of banned substances by Olympic athletes, and prepared educational messages to athletes, families, friends and professionals alike to spread public awareness on doping.

Later, Prof. Dr Otmar Weiss (AUT) posed the question "What is sport?" – a topic we discussed from a sociological perspective. Themes we considered included health, education, and the social phenomenon within the sport setting. We concluded: Sport is an experience-, game-, health-, and performance-oriented physical activity which takes part in an environment of competition.

In the afternoon, Loïc Pedras (POR/FRA) presented his work on sport and development. We could choose between body balance and Australian touch football as our sporting activities for the day. In the evening, the social event included Russia, United States and China.

15 September 2016

The day started with the lectures by Prof. Dr Yannis Theodorakis (GRE). During the first lecture, the Professor talked about the meaning of sport in promoting Olympic values, the strengthening of relationships through sport and the practical implication of sport games. At the end of the lecture, one group discussed the case study of Abbey d'Agostino and Nikki Hamblin in the Rio 2016 Olympic Games. The other group talked about Pope Francis' message for the Olympics and its potential impact on the Olympic Movement.

In the second lecture, Prof. Dr Theodorakis introduced the Greek Olympic Educational Program (OEP) to us, and talked about the experience of implementation of the OEP, as well as the teaching styles which were applied during the program.

The next lecture was delivered by Prof. Dr Weiss (AUT). The main topic covered was sport as a social phenomenon. Prof. Dr Weiss talked about the types of recognition in sport, spectators as an example of the identification through the sport, the social significance of sport in Europe, functions of sport in the modern society, and the importance of sport. At the end of the lecture, Prof. Dr Weiss discussed sport as a tool of developing identity.

The participation in a variety of activities and discussions allowed the students to understand the topics deeper, and share their opinions with colleagues.

After the lectures the following presentations of the student's papers were delivered:

1. Mr Mateusz Rozmiarek (POL): "Olympic Movement vs politics."
2. Mr Dhenis Rosina (BRA): "On sports and politics: the 1968 Olympic Games in Mexico City."

In the evening, students were involved in the following sport activities: basketball and tennis. Also, students had a working day in the library.

After dinner, some students presented their countries during the social evening. The following countries were presented by their representatives: Canada, Armenia, and Australia.

16 September 2016

On Friday, the first lecture started with Prof. Dr Theodorakis (GRE) on the topic: “Exercise, sports, health and quality of life”. Prof. Dr Theodorakis told us about the benefits of physical activity and the impact on health and quality of life in general. Thereafter, we started to discuss some subtopics such as “Exercise and health”, and “Exercise for the clinical population”. At the end of the lecture, we worked in groups and discussed reasons for the IOC to promote exercise programs for health and quality of life, both in clinical and non-clinical populations. Then, each group presented a core message to the IOC regarding the discussed topics.

In the next lecture with Prof. Dr Weiss (AUT) we discussed the following themes: Sport identities, sport as a social phenomenon, and social institutions. Prof. Dr Weiss emphasized that “Sport is a symbolic dialogue”. We furthermore discussed a number of reasons given for sport participation.

After the very informative and interesting lectures, we had two short presentations by the students: Ms Marina De Lima Sodre from Brazil presented her topic about “NGOs, management and sport”, and Mr Daniel Abebe Kifle from Ethiopia presented his topic about “The infant stage of Olympism in Ethiopia versus Ethiopian-NOC governance model impacts”.

17 & 18 September 2016

After a busy week of lectures and presentations we decided to spend the free weekend on the Ionian island of Zakynthos (*aka* Zante). We visited the famous shipwreck from 1980 at Navagio beach and the Blue Caves on the north-west of the island. Swimming in the pristine waters of the Ionian Sea was welcomed by all.

In the evening, we decided to have dinner at a local Greek restaurant, to make the most of our experience in this beautiful country. Two local gentlemen serenaded us with their guitars and traditional songs.

The next morning Helena Rudi (GER) was surprised with balloons, cake and a birthday song. It was a special little gesture, as we can imagine that being away from family and loved ones on a special day can be tough. This day was a very relaxing one for all of us. We all used our free time to unwind at the beach, buy souvenirs for loved ones, and eat more traditional Greek food. When arriving

back in Olympia, we were warmly welcomed by the students that did not have the opportunity to join us on our little trip. We exchanged our experiences over some snacks before getting some rest to start the new week full of lectures...

Once again, this little trip was a great opportunity to get to know everyone a little better. It was interesting to learn about the cultural differences within our group. If we had the opportunity to go back to Zakynthos – we'd all go again!

THE ETHICAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL ISSUES OF OLYMPISM AS WELL AS THE ATHLETES' RIGHTS IN THE MODERN OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

Academic program

Prof. Dr George Karlis (CAN)

Prof. Dr Dimitra Papadimitriou (GRE)

Dr Sam Ramsamy (RSA)

Main topics of the week:

- What is sport organization governance and why it matters
- Understanding theories and principles of governance in relation to sport
- The key structural elements of sport governance
- Governance models and their application in sport
- Managing the performance of the sport board

Prof. Dr George Karlis (CAN)

His lectures began with the main topic which was: "The current state of condition of research on volunteerism at the Olympics". Under this main topic, the following sub-topics were addressed:

- Limited on research
- Types of research
- Research on nutrition
- Research on recruitment
- Research on training
- Research policy
- Research on Olympic education

The other lecture was about “Culture, society, leisure in society, multi-cultural, identity, community development serving the people: Culture and the Olympic Games”. The topic was volunteerism at a sport organization from a cultural perspective and the volunteer movement. As we know, the spirit of the Olympic Games attracts people to serve and also being thrilled in its setting and ambience. The main reasons for studying were:

- Mega sport events and the Olympics as a part of the service industry
- Service, the action of helping or doing work for someone
- Service industry, a type of business that provides a service to customers
- Who are the people of the Olympics

Professor Karlis also spoke about the following topics:

- Volunteerism & the Olympics: Trends & Directions
- Historical Overview
- What Is Volunteering?

We learned that volunteerism means to exercise free will, for no remuneration at all, to help others in a formal setting, and it has been a tendency to have a career in it, durable benefits, unique culture and participant identification. It is also a formalized activity in which individual time and efforts are given freely without any remuneration or the benefit of other groups or organizations.

He mentioned the following principles of volunteering:

- Volunteering benefits for the community and the volunteer
- Unpaid work
- It is not compulsorily undertaken to receive pensions or government allowances
- Vehicle for individuals or groups to address human environmental and social needs
- It is an activity performed in the non-profit sector
- Does not replace paid workers nor constitutes a threat to job security of paid workers
- Respects rights, dignity and culture of others
- Promotes human rights and equality

Prof. Dr Dimitra Papadimitriou (GRE)

Prof. Dr Dimitra Papadimitriou's lecture was about "What Governance is and why it matters". We learned how to lead and manage a network of organizations, how to create, maintain and improve the structure and environmental impact in sports. To lead the organizations network effectively, it is necessary to ensure not only the good performance of the organizations, but also how the sport activity and environment can grow and develop in a controlled and sustainable way.

The first thing is that there should be stable visions and objectives. Also actions should follow the mission and the strategic plan should achieve their mission.

The further steps are:

- Having a clear structure
- Legal obligations should be in connection with legal frameworks
- Clear policies on practice and execution should answer how to address problems and issues
- Future plans and forward orientation
- Embed values into policy and practice

The next day, the Professor delivered a lecture about governance in sport clubs. The content included club governance, scale of the nonprofit sport sector, organizational structure and capabilities, governance intervention, managing volunteers, and club performance management.

Prof. Dr Papadimitriou analyzed the UK sport clubs governance situation and its board system as an example to explain how the sport clubs service for their goal. And her suggestion of community sport organization governance was:

- Common sense and good awareness of the board responsibilities and legal procedures
- Listening to the expectations of members
- Monitoring of the club finances and activities
- Actively participating in clubs meetings and activities
- Acting in good faith and honesty

Dr Sam Ramsamy (RSA)

The IOC member and Vice-President of the International Swimming Federation (FINA) Dr Sam Ramsamy, spoke about the South Africa's return to the Olympic Games from a historical perspective. In his topic, he dealt with the following points:

- South Africa's exclusion from the Olympic Games
- The first participation of South Africa in the Olympic Games
- Consideration of rugby as "The South Africans' Religion"
- The negative impact of Apartheid in South Africa's Olympic Movement

In the following day there was a session in which the students and the other professors exchanged questions and answers about different topics, such as "Why the Russian team did not take part in Paralympic Games in Rio 2016?", and also "What is the work of Olympic Solidarity actually?"

We also had some debates with other professors who took part in the International Association for the Philosophy of Sport (IAPS). One of them was the sport philosopher Prof. Dr Carlos Torr  s (ARG) who talked about the controversial issues of drugs used by athletes. The main theme of the discussion was about the permission of drugs substances (doping). The main question was: What would happen in the sphere of the Olympic Movement, if these substances would be allowed to all athletes? An in-depth discussion followed between the professor and the participants.

Also, Prof. Dr Jim Parry (UK) delivered a lecture about sport concepts. At the beginning, he organized a brainstorming session and the students discussed what sport is all about and what its values are. During the discussion, a lot of contention issues were raised. At the end of this pleasant discussion, the concrete meaning of sport and sport's values were determined. The explanations on the above issues were really very profound.

Student presentations**Monday, 19.09**

- Ms Joanna Srubarczyk (Poland): "Management, e-marketing and social media for the Sport and Tourism organizations on the process of Olympic Games"

- Mr Nikos Papacharalampous (Greece): “Olympic Games and sponsorship benefits – case study of the Athens classic Marathon”

Tuesday, 20.09

- Ms Anna Martirosyan (Armenia): “The management of elite athletes’ return to play: a multidimensional perspective”

Wednesday, 21.09

- Mr Walker Jesse Ross (USA): “The evolution of environmental practices and stakeholder involvement in the Olympic Games”

Thursday, 22.09

- Ms Rosie MacLennan (Canada): “The construction of Olympic athletes’ roles and identities through their engagement in social initiatives: a Canadian perspective”
- Ms Ekaterina Guryeva (Russia): “Where are they now? An investigation of the career pathways of Sochi 2014 staff”

Friday, 23.09

- Mr David Grassi (Italy): “The sport we love: promoting health and protecting earth”

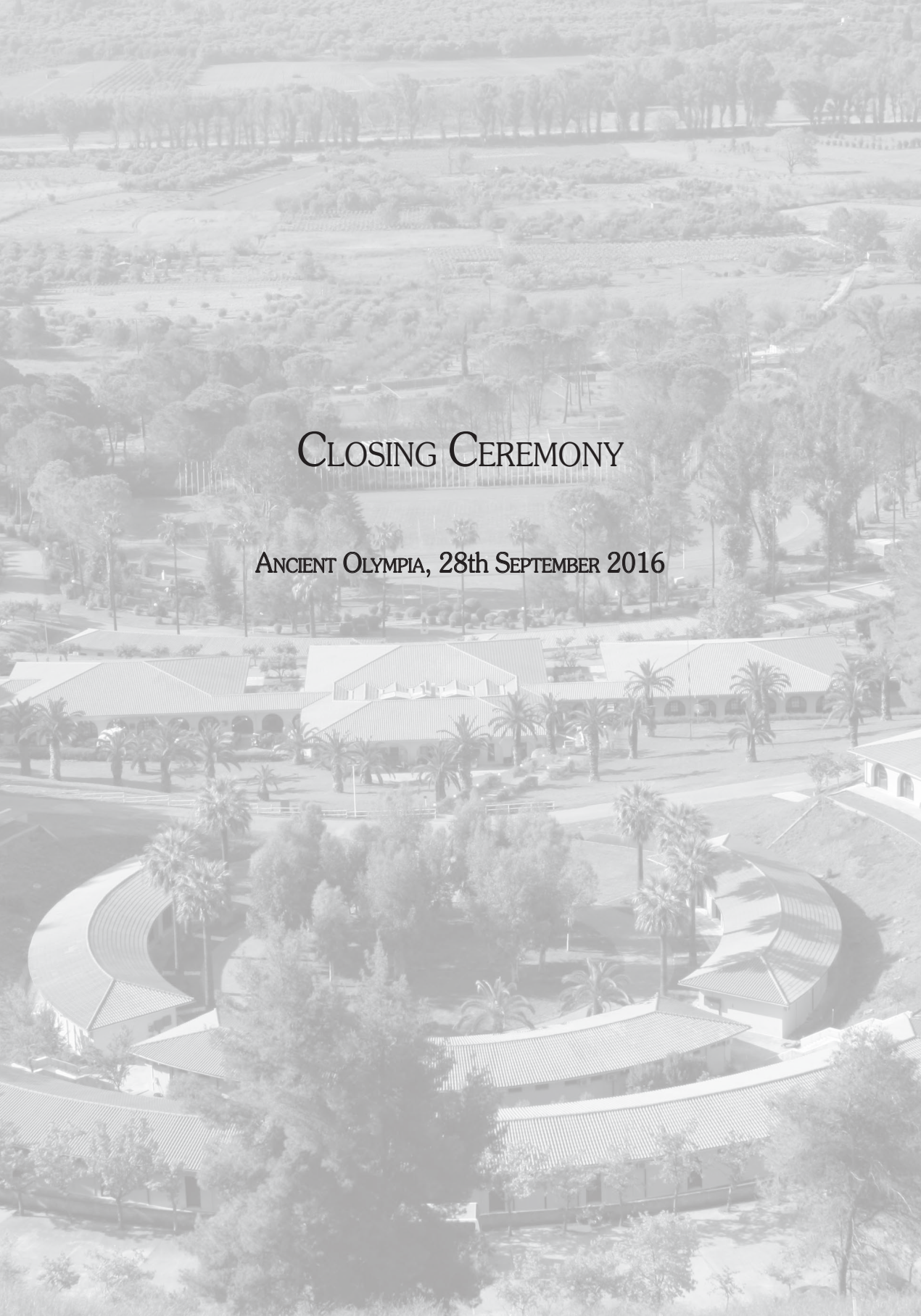
Sport Activities

During this week we had a lot of different sport activities. On Monday, we practiced taekwondo, a Korean martial art, led by a Guatemalan Olympic athlete. On Tuesday, we learned how to dance Russian ballet and German hip-hop. On Wednesday we played basketball and tennis with the professors. On Thursday, we learned Kickball, which is similar to baseball, from the American boy and finally on Friday we played volleyball. It was exciting to share the sport moments with the different personalities of our group, take care for the Olympic values, like fair play, respect, friendship, effort, equality and inspiration.

Social evenings

In that week, we had four presentations, Guatemala and Portugal on Wednesday and Turkey and Spain on Thursday. We learned about cultural and social characteristics of the different countries:

- Guatemala, presented by Mr Jose Gabriel Sagastume Rios: We learned a lot about the Maya culture, their big and powerful cities and the knowledge and culture that they left us. It is a pity that the Spanish colonizers ended that civilization. Also, Mr Rios showed us how Guatemala is nowadays, full of nature, life and passion.
- Portugal, presented by Mr Loïc Pedras. Mr Pedras talked about the Portuguese history, the power of their naval army and their relationship with Spain along history. He also showed us the influence of Portuguese in the former colonies and Iberian fauna and flora. Finally we closed the night tasting Oporto's wine and eating some snacks.
- Turkey, presented by Ms Tuğçe Karasahinoğlu. Ms Karasahinoğlu showed us the beautiful and amazing places of different Turkish regions. We saw some videos about the typical dances and various foods like kebab, dolma, honey chicken or the sweet desserts such as baklava or lokum. We also tried to learn some Turkish words that sounded like a tongue twister.
- Spain, presented by Mr Augusto Jiménez de la Fuente and Ms Natalia Ventola López. They showed us some of the Spanish stereotypes which were true and false; for example that the Spaniards don't nap everyday and no everyone knows how to dance flamenco or sevillanas. They also made a game in which the men's team competes against the women's team, to see which of the two sexes knew more about sports and gastronomical traditions of Spain's different regions. Finally, they prepared a delicious Spanish sangria accompanied with Turkish snacks, served to dismiss the day, and everyone went to sleep happily.

An aerial photograph of a large, modern, curved building complex, likely a school or university campus. The building has a long, low profile with a series of interconnected curved sections. It is surrounded by numerous palm trees and other tropical vegetation. In the background, there are more trees and a clear sky. The overall scene is bright and sunny.

CLOSING CEREMONY

ANCIENT OLYMPIA, 28th SEPTEMBER 2016

CLOSING ADDRESS

on behalf of the Participants of the Seminar

by Jose Gabriel SAGASTUME RIOS (GUA) and Rosie MacLENNAN (CAN)

Over the past month, we have had the honour and privilege to attend the International Olympic Academy International Seminar for postgraduate students. On our flight here, we really did not know what to expect but can truly say that the experience has gone far beyond even our highest expectations.

The month we have spent here, first touring the archaeological sites of Greece and especially Ancient Olympia and then at the IOA has all been truly inspirational. Like many of the students here, we are captivated by the Olympic Movement. Coming to the birthplace of the Olympic Games, learning the history, walking the grounds of the stadium, seeing where the athletes took their oath and where they competed has allowed us to connect to the Movement at a much deeper level.

As Olympians, it has allowed us to gain a deeper appreciation for the Olympic Games and the Movement as a whole. We were inspired by watching the athletes before us represent their countries, but what captivated us and has fuelled our journey is learning about and trying to live the values that the movement espouses.

To our fellow students, it has been an absolute pleasure to share this experience with you, to get to know you and to learn from you. Coming into this experience, we knew we would build friendships but we did not expect that we would become a family, sharing challenges, life experiences and a lot of laughs. We come from a diverse background – 18 different countries and 22 different academic institutions but we are all connected by the passion for sport and the pursuit to live up to the philosophy of Olympism.

Over the past 30 days, we have lived the Olympic values of friendship, respect and the pursuit of excellence. The times and experiences we have

shared are memories that we will cherish forever. We now have the opportunity and responsibility to take this knowledge back to our countries and to share it, along with the values of the Olympic Movement.

To our beautiful coordinators, Ewa and Charitomeni, you have ensured that we have made the most of this experience. You have helped us out in every possible way. Thank you for all your hard work and dedication.

To our esteemed professors, thank you for taking the time to share your knowledge and passion for your topics. All of the students came here with different interests and areas of focus but each of you captivated us and expanded our minds, introducing us to new topics, allowing us the opportunity to discuss them. You have ignited our curiosity.

To Professor Georgiadis and members of the International Olympic Academy, thank you for welcoming us to your country, sharing with us your history, culture and passion for the Olympic Movement. You have created an Academy that not only builds knowledge, it creates everlasting connections between individuals, cultures, countries and we are now all connected through Olympism.

You have inspired each of us to give our best here and to continue this journey back home. Walking the historic grounds and being at the Academy, we have felt the energy emanating from ancient times still alive today. For this opportunity, we are forever grateful. This is not goodbye, but a foundation of a lifelong journey. We look forward to continuing it with all of you.

CLOSING ADDRESS

by the Coordinators

Ewa Magdalena MALCHROWICZ (POL) and Charitomeni TSORDIA (GRE)

When we received the invitation to Olympia we were very surprised, happy and excited. Even if it was the second time for us in the postgraduate seminar on Olympic Studies, our experience this year was totally different. We came to this feeling very early, because you are totally different from the people of last year; everybody is diverse and unique. So, it is not like we came to Olympia a second time but like we came for the first time to another Olympia. And even though we were in one place during the social evenings, thanks to you we could travel all over the world.

We have really enjoyed this month with all of you and this is not just a typical phrase required for a Closing Ceremony speech; we really did. We are very thankful to the Academy which invited us and gave us this opportunity, but also to all of you. We are very glad we could be a small part of this seminar, and although we may look tired, this is in a positive way. We tried to discuss with all of you, answer your questions or go to the hospital, share free time, meals, sports activities.

We hope that you have enjoyed both the academic and the social aspect of the seminar at the International Olympic Academy. We are sad to see you go, but we are happy to have had the chance to spend time with you. We wish you good luck and success at the next step of your life. All we can hope for the future is to keep in touch with you.

If you need something in the future, ask for it; we will be happy to be, not only your coordinators, but your friends forever!

Some of you and maybe ourselves will come back in the future. Hope we will see you again in Olympia or in another place. See you soon! We will miss you!

CLOSING ADDRESS
on behalf of the Supervising Professors of the Seminar
Prof. Nigel CROWTHER (CAN)

I feel honoured and humble to address you today.

I echo everything my colleagues have said.

I would like to thank them, and everybody else involved, for all their hard work in making this seminar a success.

I hope you have enjoyed your education here at the IOA. As Nelson Mandela said: "Education is the most powerful weapon you can use to change the world."

I hope you treasure your experience at Olympia, learn from your experience, and be a better person from your experience.

As the Canadian Olympian Clara Hughes observed, who won medals in both the Summer and the Winter Games: "If you allow yourself to dream, you can do anything."

"Also, the only real mistake is the one from which we learn nothing." (Henry Ford). Your educational experience in Greece is not quite over. You still have to visit the site of Elis, the organizer of the ancient Olympics, and the wonderful oracle at Delphi.

"Don't cry because it's over. Smile because it happened." (Dr Zeuss).

"We all take different paths in life, but no matter where we go, we take a little of each other everywhere." (Tim McGraw).

It is wonderful that you, the postgraduate students, have come together to discuss the Olympics from so many different countries that are not all the best of friends.

I have observed you over the weeks combining sport with learning, happily and in a spirit of friendship, which is the very essence of Olympism.

I hope you will think to yourselves, as the famous movie star once said: “I’ll be back!”

So, as a tribute to the many different languages represented here, I say a few words of farewell.

Auf Wiedersehen, Ciao, Au revoir, Catch you later, Haste la vista, Sayonara, and of course Kalo taxidi – Have a safe journey!

And, thank you all for speaking English!

CLOSING ADDRESS
of the Seminar proceedings
by the IOA Honorary Dean,
Prof. Konstantinos GEORGIADIS

Following the 30 creative days that we have spent together, the time to close the works of this Postgraduate Seminar has come.

This meeting is usually a small review of the works of the Seminar, not only on an educational and scientific level, but also, on its operation. In other words, did the Postgraduate Seminar succeed its goals, this year as in the previous years?

After 23 years, the interest to participate in this Seminar is still very high. Those who wish to join us, are far more numerous than those we can accept. This year only 1/3 of the applicants who expressed their interest to come to Greece were selected and you belong to the lucky ones but also to those who qualified best. This year, we had seven students in the process of obtaining a PhD and the rest of you, your Master's Degree.

There was harmony within the team, not only on a scientific but also on a social level. Of course, this is largely because most of you have been for many years, in the academic area and you have plenty of experience. In addition, the average age, for the first time, was up to 30 years old. Your maturity as well as your interests, created an academic environment which you as well as your supervising professors have enjoyed.

We have two students, Ms Rosie MacLennan, two-times gold medallist and Mr Jose Gabriel Sagastume Rios, also an Olympic athlete, who enriched with their presence and their participation the works of the Seminar. If I remember correctly, this is the first time that an Olympic medallist joined the IOA's Postgraduate Seminar.

On the other hand, every one of you, with your papers, with your experiences, your excellent presentations, your participation in the everyday discussions as well as in the discussion groups, contributed to the success of this Seminar. Furthermore, we all agreed that this year we had a very good group of professors, who also successfully covered all the fields of the Olympic Movement, Antiquity, modern Olympic Games, Sport and Culture, Olympic pedagogy, the organization and governance of Sport, volunteerism and philosophy. A wide and in depth education, in all Olympic aspects. And of course, we had two excellent coordinators, Chara and Ewa, who helped the organizing of all the educational events in the best way.

However, most importantly, you had the opportunity to experience the theory of Olympism in practice. To respect the other cultures, to discuss with people who are thinking differently from you and have grown up into different political, social and educational systems. After all, living together, in this idyllic environment, with the beauty of its nature, the history and the myth, is a type of education.

The IOA is very happy that with tolerance and kindness, you approached any obstacle we may have had, your colleagues may have had, with you trying to find solutions. Today, for every one of you, is a new beginning. This experience will motivate you to continue stronger your life journey. Moreover, it will help you to re-approach your relationships with others, to overcome yourselves and to contribute to the development of society.

We all, in the IOA, are very glad that you are all healthy and that you will return to your countries by carrying the humanistic values, as we have discussed and experienced them, here in Olympia.

Ladies and gentlemen, I would like to thank the President of the IOA, Mr Isidoros Kouvelos, the members of the Ephoria, the Director of the IOA, Prof. Dionyssis Gangas, the staff of the Academy, Ms Marilena Katsadoraki, Ms Antonia Bormpotsialou, Mr Vaggelis Friggis, Mr Konstantinos Karadimas, the coordinators, Chara and Ewa, and last but not least, all the professors who taught you during the last month and all of you have helped this Postgraduate Seminar become a success.

A black and white photograph of a long row of flagpoles with flags flying, set against a backdrop of dense trees and a grassy field. The flagpoles are arranged in a line, receding into the distance. The flags are flying from the poles. The background is filled with a dense forest of tall trees. In the foreground, there is a grassy field and some low-lying bushes.

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