



INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY



Olympic Studies



24th

INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR
ON OLYMPIC STUDIES FOR POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS

ANCIENT OLYMPIA



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Published by the International Olympic Academy and
the International Olympic Committee

Athens, 2018

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Editor: Konstantinos Georgiadis

Editorial coordination: Roula Vathi

Photographs: IOA Photographic Archives

Production: Cloudprint

ISBN: 978-960-9454-46-9

INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY

Olympic Studies

*Historical, Philosophical and Social Aspects
of the Olympic Games and the Olympic Movement*

24th INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR
ON OLYMPIC STUDIES FOR POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS

1-30 SEPTEMBER 2017

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

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CLOSING CEREMONY

Ancient Olympia, 28 September 2017

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FOREWORD

For yet another year, the International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Post-graduate Students at the International Olympic Academy has continued its academic journey. Together, students and academic educators experienced intercultural contact at a high educational level. Its operation spanning many years has resulted in this Seminar having established a powerful, scientific grounding in the international academic community and thus being very much in demand among both students and professors. The powerful combination of the ancient and modern history of the Olympic Movement offered by Ancient Olympia and the Academy undoubtedly constitutes a strong motive for young people to select this Seminar.

Every year, students arrive from many different countries and the broad programme contains multi-themed modules. This time, in the four cycles of lectures, the subjects studied related to ethical, philosophical and socio-political themes in sport and Olympism. Within this framework, on the suggestions of their professors, students were asked to expand on these topics in active discussion and consolidate their opinions in written assignments.

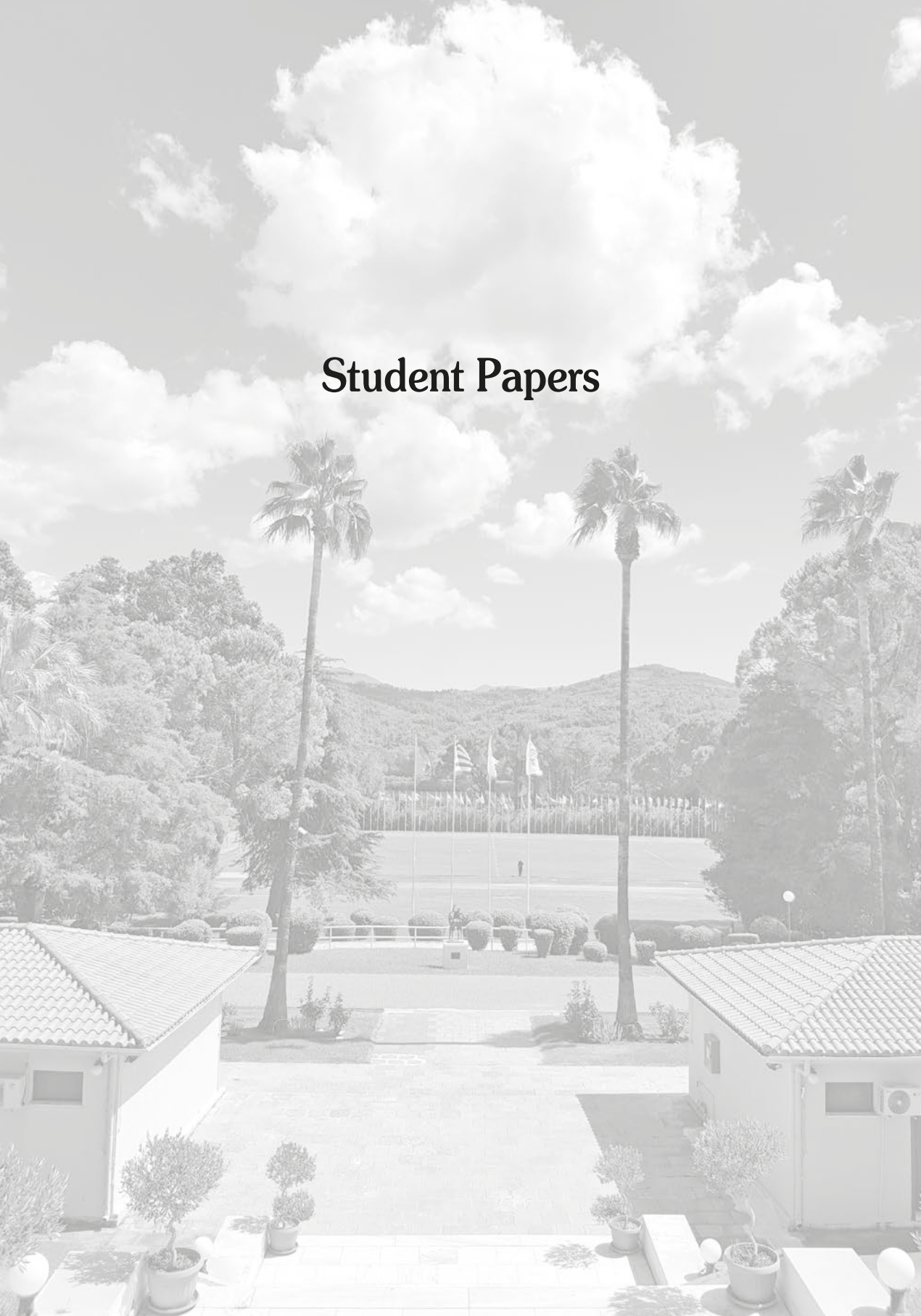
In particular, the courses' themes focused on questions of the ethical and philosophical dimensions of Olympism, the rights of athletes in the modern Olympic Movement, the legacy of the Olympic Games with special focus on the 2016 Rio Games, sponsorship and the Olympic Partner Programmes, as well as an understanding of the value of these for modern events, and general topics concerning consumption of Olympic products together with their licensing. Other questions examined were the history of the revival of the Olympic Games and aspects of this revival in the national and international environment, governance in the Olympic Movement, amateurism, professionalism and doping and how these have evolved and become interconnected in the 20th and 21st centuries. Naturally, there were courses on issues of ethics and the Olympic

Values from ancient times to the modern Games, as well as issues concerning gender equality and the role of women and their participation in the Games in ancient and modern times were discussed.

The students showed great interest throughout the Seminar, with lively participation in the sessions and discussions with their professors. Their interest was reinforced by the location of their accommodation at the Academy, offering that unique experience of living together and exchanging ideas. And this all takes place close to the historic site of the Olympic Games, Ancient Olympia, representing the ancient Olympic legacy. A priori, this Seminar predisposes participants to an experience in which theoretical knowledge comes into direct contact with the roots of Olympism. Hence, this legacy reinvigorates the senses not only through knowledge but also through experience. For all of the above reasons, the IOA Seminar has remained pioneering and multi-faceted over the twenty-five years of its existence in the field of Olympic studies.

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Student Papers



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

THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY PROMOTION: LONDON 2012 AND RIO 2016

Billy GRAEFF (BRA)

Introduction

This paper provides an examination of the Physical Activity (PA) participation legacy policies and rhetoric employed in relation to London 2012 and Rio 2016 – the first two Summer Olympic host cities to be selected following the formal incorporation of legacy into the Olympic Charter in 2002. The interaction between the practical factors discussed above and the respective social and cultural contexts of the UK and Brazil offers a useful vantage point from which to consider an increasingly prominent aspect of contemporary rationales for hosting the Olympic Games, as well as the broader implications that the case of PA participation legacies may have for all forms of legacy that are emphasized by contemporary Olympic hosts.

London 2012: “Inspire a Generation”

From the UK Government’s official decision to support a London bid for the 2012 Summer Olympic Games in 2003, the event’s potential to bring about a national increase in sport and physical activity (PA) participation was repeatedly emphasized. In a January 2004 publication of the London 2012 Bid Company, the breadth of this potential was articulated by then Prime Minister Tony Blair:

A London Olympics would be an unparalleled boost for sport throughout the UK. By encouraging the young and the not-so-young to take up sport, it would help us to produce the champions of the future and, importantly, a healthier and fitter population (Blair, cited in London 2012, 2004a).

This ambition was the central pillar of an attempt to distinguish London “from both previous editions of the Games and from its bid competitors” (Weed, 2013, p. 87) and as “the first major sporting event to have broad and ambitious commitments to healthy living and inclusion” (Commission for a Sustainable London 2012, 2011, p. 4).

However, by the submission of the official London Candidate File in November 2004, this all-encompassing focus had given way to the more specific claim that “mounting excitement in the seven years leading up to the Games will inspire a new generation of youth to greater sporting activity” (London 2012, 2004b, p. 19), an emphasis on young people’s participation that was echoed by London Bid Company Chair Lord Coe on the basis that Olympic success means “millions of young people around the world [will] be inspired to choose sport” (London 2012, 2005). While this lack of consistency around participation legacy focus is perhaps inevitable at the bidding stage, attempts to formalize these grand visions became increasingly problematic following London’s selection as host in 2005. Indeed, citing London 2012 as the “best chance in a generation to encourage people to be more physically active” (DCMS, 2008, p. 22) the UK Government’s official plans for the legacy of the Games stated that:

The first priority of the Games is to make the UK a world-leading sporting nation. We hope to see people becoming increasingly active, with a goal of seeing two million people more active by 2012 through focused investment in our sporting infrastructure and better support and information for people wanting to be active (DCMS, 2008, p. 3).

This target of two million was to be achieved through a range of measures including cooperation with a range of local and national organizations, tackling barriers to participation and ensuring an environment conducive to activity participation. Progress was to be monitored by Sport England’s Active People Survey and the DCMS Taking Part Survey. Within this overall plan, both the Department for Health (2009a) and LOCOG (2009) published separate documents detailing their respective roles in promoting physical activity participation around the Games.

However, in line with Girginov and Hills’ (2008) warning that pursuing participation on this scale required “deeply rooted social structures” (p. 2091) to be successfully addressed, academic evidence increasingly began to cast these

targets as more accessible to the fantasist than the realist. For example, multiple authors concluded that the evidence to support the use of London 2012 as a means of promoting sport or PA participation was insufficient (Mahtani et al., 2013; McCartney et al., 2010; Department for Health, 2009b), and that any attempt to do so would require a broader coordinated effort with the Games representing one part of a wider PA and sport promotion strategy (Department for Health, 2009b).

Such an effort did not materialize, and Sport England Chief Executive Jennie Price announced the abandonment of the 2008 participation targets in 2011:

I am very disappointed that we have only got 111,000 more people into sport when we were counting on 1 million people, but we have to be realistic about the climate in which we are working. Jeremy Hunt [the Culture Secretary] has already said he does not believe that the one million target is the right measure of participation immediately after the Olympics, though I do think we will get a good measure of participation in the year or two after and we will get a bounce from the Olympics.

(Price, cited in Kelso, 2011, para. 9–10)

Price's rationale here touches upon two important factors cited for the failure of the mass participation legacy. Firstly, the reference to "the climate" refers to the financial crisis of the late 2000s, with the assumption that that this had a direct impact on the accessibility of sport and PA. Secondly, the questioning of the timescale against which the 2008 participation targets were set highlights the broader issue of Olympic legacy measurement, which for some authors requires a period of 15–20 years to be satisfactorily judged (Gratton & Preuss, 2008). The foremost implication here is that any potential sport or PA participation legacy from the Games must be regarded as inherently problematic given its susceptibility to external influences that act well beyond the control of a specific OCOG or host government.

With the 2008 mass participation targets officially abandoned, the focus of the proposed sporting legacy was narrowed to young people. Once again, the role of the wider economic context was central to the explanation provided by then Culture Secretary, Jeremy Hunt:

I do think it's reasonable to ask whether, with resources as constrained as they are, if it's an appropriate use of taxpayers' money to be focusing on

adult participation when really what we want is to be getting young people into a habit for life.

(Hunt, cited in Gibson, 2011, para. 3)

This rationale was soon formalized in January 2012, when the DCMS (2012) published its new sporting legacy plans. The aim of this was to use London 2012 to “inspire the nation and help young people in particular to start a sporting habit for life” and thus “make good on the original promise” (Hunt, cited in DCMS, 2012, p. 2) that Lord Coe and the bid team set out in 2005. This promise was supposed to be fulfilled via an approach featuring increased emphasis on grassroots links between schools and clubs and a reward-based system of cooperation with national sport organizations. While this focus on youth and the future may appear laudable, a longer-term approach of this nature poses significant problems for accountability, attribution and measurement. As noted by Wellings, Datta, Wilkinson and Petticrew (2011), determining the extent to which Olympic-based policy initiatives can be judged to have made a measurable difference is complex. Moreover, the timescale required for this attempt to foster a “sporting habit” over a lifetime to take effect suggests that any conclusive assessment will prove exceptionally difficult.

Further confusion is apparent when setting this DCMS policy emphasis against the public proclamations of government figures. For example, in the same month as this youth sport focus was formalized, UK Prime Minister David Cameron claimed that:

The whole country can benefit from the legacy of the Games because of the inspiration that these Games will bring to people young and old right across the country about getting involved, taking exercise, learning to swim, learning to dive, and all the rest of it.

(Cameron, 2012).

Cameron’s contradiction of the strategy developed by the DCMS demonstrates the difficulty of viewing the overall participation legacy strategy without suspicion. More broadly, the need for Olympic legacy to be coordinated across all the event’s organizing bodies as well as an inherently capricious host government demonstrates the problematic nature of the entire process.

In 2010, the Labour (Left-leaning) government that had overseen the initial

bidding and planning stages was replaced by a Conservative-led coalition. Although many aspects of the Government's approach to the Games were consistent with those of its predecessor, a notable difference was its emphasis on reducing public spending and seeking to transfer responsibilities to both the *private* and *voluntary* sectors. In terms of the sport and PA participation legacy, this approach was most directly demonstrated by then Education Secretary Michael Gove's reported intention to reduce funding for school sport partnerships – although this was not ultimately realized (Helm, 2010). More broadly, the Coalition's advocacy of business's role in society had important implications for health provision:

The strength of the Deal lies in the diversity of organizations that it brings together – public sector, commercial, non-governmental, and academic – to determine things business can do to accelerate the progress towards public health goals [...]. Put simply, commercial organizations can reach individuals in ways that other organizations, Government included, cannot (Lansley, cited in DH, 2011, p. 2)

This attitude towards the role of business in promoting health is consistent with the growing conviction that sport's social potential should be exploited by Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) schemes (e.g. Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). In relation to the sport and PA participation legacy of London 2012, several Olympic sponsors – under the supervision of LOCOG – coordinated social initiatives involving sport, health or PA in various forms. Lloyds TSB's "National School Sport Week", Cadbury's "Spots v Stripes", Coca-Cola's partnership with "StreetGames" were all examples of participation-based local events that prioritized specific populations such as schoolchildren or deprived communities. Other initiatives such as McDonalds' "Champions of Play" and GE's "Design My Break" also sought to contribute to health or PA awareness by encouraging young people to engage more with these issues while Adidas installed exercise facilities called "adiZones" in local parks for local residents to use for free.

While this corporate activity may appear nobly intended, it must be squared with the assertion that business may simply be attempting to exploit the "value and altruistic nature of sport to fulfil their own goals" (Carey et al., 2011, p. 259). Among the sponsors of London 2012, Lloyds TSB's Head of Olympic Marketing and Group Sponsorship, Gordon Lott, acknowledged that:

Becoming a partner of the Games was a brand-led decision. Sponsorship sits within our marketing portfolio alongside other channels – advertizing, branches and social media and so on – to communicate our messages and values in the round. (2012, para. 3).

The risk of sponsors' Olympic-based CSR schemes being secondary to commercial objectives is exacerbated by the fact that, while certain sponsors sought to associate themselves with London 2012's sport and PA participation targets, corporate organizations were not directly involved in this aspect of the legacy and therefore beyond accountability for its abandonment. For example, in May 2011 a representative of Adidas claimed that their attempt to overcome "major barriers to taking up sports" and engage "the whole community in sport" via the adiZone initiative formed "part of our pledge to inspire participation in sport and create a legacy" from the Games (Craggs, cited in London Borough of Hackney, 2011, para. 9). This claim must be seen as particularly problematic, given that it was published two months after Jeremy Hunt's (Gibson, 2011) admission that the mass participation legacy was doomed to failure and that focusing on youth participation was the best solution.

By lacking a formal link to official legacy targets, corporations are ultimately able to exploit the altruistic rhetoric contained within host government policies without finding themselves accountable for their realization. Although evaluation of sport and PA-based CSR activity exists, this is typically organized or funded by the sponsor itself (e.g. Cadbury, 2011).

Upon the conclusion of the Games in August 2012, the Mayor of London, Boris Johnson, declared that:

They will say there will be no increase in sporting participation, and no economic benefits, and that we will not succeed in regenerating east London. Well, just remember one thing, everyone. These Olympo-sceptics were proved decisively wrong about the Games. They will be proved wrong about the legacy as well (Johnson, 2012, para.10).

Johnson's enthusiasm here typified both the dominant media discourse during and immediately after the Games themselves and the way that this celebratory tone was frequently taken as evidence that "positive" legacy outcomes such as increased sport (and PA) participation would naturally follow. However, by

2013, then Sport Minister Hugh Robertson could be seen to be taking a more cautious stance:

I think that we will need at least five years, and probably a decade, before we can make an authoritative judgement on the success of the London 2012 sports legacy but the foundations are incredibly strong. Britain's reputation in world sport has certainly been transformed. Everywhere I have gone since London 2012 people have congratulated this country for hosting [a] wonderful Games (Robertson, cited in UK Government/Mayor of London, 2013, p. 22).

Although Robertson's recognition of the need for a longer-term assessment is consistent with academic recommendations for Olympic legacy measurement (Gratton & Preuss, 2008), he can be seen here conflating the issue with the international acclaim received by the UK for its hosting of the Games. In the same document, it is noted that despite a recent decrease, 2013 saw 1.4 million more people playing sport at least once a week than in 2005 when London was chosen as host for 2012 (UK Government/Mayor of London, 2013). "Positive underlying trends" (p. 25) are also noted in the participation of groups such as young people, women and the disabled. While these statistics may appear positive, it must firstly be noted that the comparison with 2005 is limited, given that no formal attempt to increase participation was announced until 2008. Secondly, the singular focus on sport participation here conflicts with the earlier commitment to encouraging participation in broader PA simultaneously. Thirdly – and finally – any increase measured by 2013 would need to be shown to be more sustainable than the short-term increases in participation that have been observed at previous events (Department for Health, 2009b).

In relation to these concerns, it is worth noting Weed and colleagues' (2015) systematic analysis of the potential of a "demonstration effect" (wherein an elite sport event "inspires" increased sport participation). These authors conclude that while such a "demonstration effect" may both increase sport participation "frequency" and encourage lapsed participants to return to sport, there remains no evidence that it can attract new participants – and state that increasing participation alone is insufficient to justify the hosting of a major sport event. Beyond this, even a minor sustained increase in participation would remain difficult to consider a success given the lofty rhetoric of the bidding stage and the initial target of two million more people becoming active by 2012.

Although the current discussion portrays a legacy objective that was enthusiastically advocated by Government and LOCOG representatives from the bidding stage onwards, empirical evidence shows both that genuine progress has thus far been negligible and that the early visions will ultimately go unfulfilled. Furthermore, the one-off nature of the Games, the prompt disbanding of LOCOG and the subsequent turnover of relevant governmental ministers suggests that accountability for its failure will ultimately never be established. This is not to conclude that a sustained and tangible increase in sport and PA participation via an Olympic Games is impossible, only that any attempt to prove otherwise will require a far more comprehensive and coordinated effort than has been reviewed here in relation to London 2012.

Rio 2016 – Now it's Brazil's turn

In contrast with the published aims of London 2012, PA was not a priority for Brazilian governments in general (federal, state and city spheres were involved in the bidding and hosting) regarding the 2016 Olympics and its bidding process – whose emphasis from the beginning was on the Games' potential to enhance socio-economic development. Before the final vote in which Rio was ultimately selected as host for the 2016 Games, then President Luiz Inácio “Lula” da Silva stated to the International Olympic Committee that the Olympic Games should be taken to South America for the first time (Maranhão, 2009). He stressed that such a decision would correct a historical distortion, and that it would boost the economic development of the country and even the continent (Aquino, 2009). Additionally, it can be argued that Brazil's candidacy fitted well with the narrative of the Olympics as catalysts for development, which may have helped the bid to victory (Darnell, 2010) in a context in which this had become part of the official discourse (International Olympic Committee, 2013).

In 2010, Brazilian presidential candidate Dilma Rousseff emphasized the aspects that were part of her plans in relation to sport and the Olympics – without mentioning PA:

The commitment we would like to reiterate here today is to make the Olympics a tool to transform Brazil into one of the largest and best sports powers in the world. We want a country with high sports and social performances, to form and train athletes and at the same time that we form citizens with good education, training, and quality jobs (Viga and Bulcão Pinheiro, 2010).

Following her election as president, Dilma Rousseff promoted an executive act to release R\$ 1 billion for the Program Plan Brazil Medals 2016 (Previdelli, 2012). The Brazilian government's website shows not only that R\$ 1 billion would be spent on trying to ensure Brazil finished among the top ten nations in the Rio 2016 Olympic Games and in the top five in the Rio 2016 Paralympics Games medal tables, but that R\$ 2.5 billion was allocated for other investments in high-level sport (Ministério do Esporte, 2012).

In turn, the candidacy dossier (Brazil, 2009) stressed the fact that Brazil would invest billions in a programme for development acceleration as well as creating an Olympic Public Authority with a division for Olympic Traffic and Transport and an Olympic Division for Sustainability. Thus it can be said that issues related to the historical deficit in terms of economic and urban development were the most important for the Rio 2016 project, along with an increase in democracy.

The same document also stresses the celebratory aspects of the Games and focuses on the participation of young people and the potential for social transformation through sport. Further, the document reveals that the strategy would be to invest in school and elite sports in order to produce a sporting legacy. Additionally, a number of articles published on the official website of the event outlined how such a policy would be developed (RIO2016, 2013; 2015). Meetings with teachers from the municipal and state school systems were the main tools used by the ROCOG. However, a study of Physical Education teachers living in Rio de Janeiro showed that they "had hardly any knowledge of the candidature file for Rio 2016" or of "soft" legacies as possible PA legacies (Reis, de Sousa-Mast and Gurgel, 2013, p. 444). The teachers claimed that they "had never been informed of any attempt to leverage the Olympic Games for increasing sport/physical activity participation" (Reis, de Sousa-Mast and Gurgel, 2013, p. 449). Another strategy towards this end would be the realization of a School Olympics (RIO2016, 2008).

On the other hand, considerable resources were invested in the acquisition of high-tech equipment and the hiring of technical staff to prepare Brazilian athletes to improve the performance of the national team in its home Olympics (Brum, 2014). Despite the rhetoric, it can thus be said that health and PA are not the highest funding priority within sports in general; that this seems to hold, too, for sport mega events (Hogan and Norton, 2000); and that Rio 2016 seems to have been consistent with this tendency.

Together with the discourse concerning economic, social and urban development, some attention was given by stakeholders to sporting potential in terms of social mobility. Although it has been part of the official discourse in relation to wider issues (Chahad, 2009), with reference to PA and the possibility of bringing it to disadvantaged strata of the population, the discourse has supposedly not been repeated.

For instance, the findings of Reis and Sousa-Mast indicated that:

The initiatives... proposed and executed by the different levels of the Brazilian Government as well as the OCOG (LOCOG) have not been extensively felt or successful in reaching the people who are in most need: those children and youth living in low income communities and therefore more vulnerable and at risk (2012, p. 42).

Nonetheless, as stated earlier, recent studies focused on the health legacy of sport mega events have been inconclusive (e.g. Mahtani et al., 2013). In support of this evidence, a specific study conducted in relation to Rio 2016 echoed the “current lack of evidence about the Olympic legacy regarding health promotion” (Demarzo et al., 2014, p. 8). Despite this, the subject of PA is present in the initial report to measure the impacts and the legacy of the Rio 2016 Games produced by the Olympic Games Impact Study – RIO 2016 (OGI 2016, 2014), discussed in the part of the report dedicated to the Socio-Cultural Sphere among 22 other different sub-themes. However, PA is not included among the report’s main health focus points, which are:

Birth rate, life expectancy at birth, the infant mortality rate, percentage of hospital beds per capita, percentage of health professionals per capita and the dengue fever incidence rate in the state of Rio de Janeiro; the expenditure of the Ministry of Health with health care per capita at the federal level; and the prevalence of smoking at the municipal level (OGI 2016, 2014, p. 124).

The report includes a note which states that “the practice of physical activity of at least 150 minutes of mild or moderate intensity, per week; or, at least 75 minutes of physical activity per week of vigorous-intensity volume” (OGI 2016, 2014, p. 137) would be the target of the investigation. These guidelines would be used by the authors of the report in order to monitor physical activity through an “Index of physical activity” (OGI 2016, 2014, p. 137). The report highlights

an initiative called:

Rio em Forma Olímpico, a municipal Programme created in 2009, [that] aimed at improving access to sports practiced by offering free physical activity of high quality, with the support of qualified professionals, from Monday to Friday, across urban areas of the city of Rio de Janeiro. Currently, there are more than 24,000 people being assisted in 436 units (OGI 2016, 2014, p. 139, emphasis added).

Nevertheless, little publically available information has been found on the practical effects of the initiative and the instruments to be used in order to “recommend practice” within the context suggested by the report. Further, the report also assigns importance to Physical Education and School Sport and presents a list of indicators to be observed when focusing on the area:

Weekly workload destined to sport in schools; Percentage of students who engage in physical activity at school counter-shift; Number of schools with sports facilities; Investment in sports equipment; Relationship between the budget and in construction / maintenance of sports facilities and equipment in schools; Physical Education professionals (OGI 2016, 2014, p. 140).

This is only the first version (the research group aims to publish three more reports), but the report could not present results regarding the indicators due to problems in the federal sphere relating to the gathering of data. Also, it partially fails to consider the International Olympic Committee consensus statement on the health and fitness of young people through physical activity and sport (Mountjoy et al., 2011), which appears not to have been considered within the research project that supports the rationale for the reports.

Additionally, the literature suggests that the Games in general “generated a negative perception in the population” for political or administrative reasons, which could also have “in turn [...] a negative effect on physical activity and possibly for the health levels of the population” (Demarzo et al., 2014, p. 8; Mahtani et al., 2013). There is certainly no shortage of evidence relating to the negative perception of recent sport mega events in Brazil and Rio de Janeiro in particular (Saad-Filho and Morais, 2014; Saad-Filho, 2013; Braga, 2013, Rue-diger et al., 2014). Consequently, it can be said that in addition to the general tendency sport mega events have to lead to a decrease in PA, this situation

could have been aggravated in the Brazilian context by the size, relevance and social impact of the “June Journeys” and subsequent demonstrations (Harvey, Vainer, Zizek, et. al., 2013).

Furthermore, RIO2016 seems to be another missed opportunity for stakeholders who, insisting on assuming that sport, health and physical activity levels would increase and generate life conditions improvements thanks to the simple fact of hosting a sport mega event (Murphy and Bauman, 2007), relegated specific planning, funding and assessment for the specific area to other parties, the private sector, or simply ignored them.

Recently, the governments involved in the initiatives described above and the ROCOG apparently lowered their investments in the PA part of the programmes and decided to use the opportunities presented to reinforce Olympic and Paralympic Values, which are defined as “excellence, respect for friendship, courage, determination, inspiration and equality” (RIO2016, 2013b).

Moreover, it seems that the proponents of this idea could not have chosen more dramatic timing for the country to fail to seize an opportunity with such great potential. In June 2015, the Brazilian Sports Ministry revealed part of an ambitious project called National Sport Diagnosis. The research aims to look into a number of relevant factors in the context of sports practices, and its first section deals with the levels of physical activity of the national population. However, the results were disappointing: “It reveals that nearly half of the population between 14 and 75 years, about 45.9%, does not practice any physical activity” (Portal Brasil, 2015).

Conclusion

The two cases presented in this paper demonstrate that while PA legacies are regarded as an increasingly important part of the Olympic Games, their translation into practice (or policies) is still a challenge for governments, bid teams, corporate stakeholders, Olympic Games organizers, and the Olympic Movement itself. It also poses a challenge to researchers seeking to establish protocols for assessing PA initiatives within the context of Olympic legacies.

One of the first issues to consider seems to be the fact that PA can be and (in the cases studied) has been given different levels of emphasis by different bid teams in the context of the broader political role played by the process of bidding, planning and hosting the event. Additionally, the historical and econom-

ic-political backgrounds of the hosts is also crucial in determining the desired series of outcomes from events of such magnitude, including the amount of resources dedicated to policies intended to increase PA, both rhetorically and in practice. Referring to the case of Brazil, for example, we could not consider here that the country also hosted the 2014 FIFA World Cup, which certainly impacted on the process of Olympic legacy planning for the 2016 Games.

It is important to highlight that whereas the United Kingdom is a highly developed nation, Brazil is a former European colony which is struggling to overcome difficulties in most of the basic areas of human development. The cases discussed in this text could also be interpreted in terms of the different ways in which PA is addressed in the political discourse. While for the UK, with one of the most highly developed health systems in the world, PA was central to the Olympic legacy discourse and planning, for Brazil it was not paid any serious attention, since more fundamental needs were emphasized instead.

Considering the field of studies, research designs capable of reaching a good understanding of the complex and changeable contours of the social phenomenon of PA measurement, assessment and improvement can be considered one of the foremost challenges to be overcome. Also the need for more comprehensive and universally-accepted designs for assessing PA legacies in relation to sport mega events such as the Olympic Games can be considered one of the few areas of consensus among researchers. Possibly, this could be achieved more conveniently if PA promotion had a more integrated and prominent role within sport mega events in general and Olympic planning and hosting in particular.

This leads to at least two main concerns: attribution and resources. Although legacy is now a constant in the discursive resources of sport mega events and the Olympic Games, PA promotion is neither unified nor consolidated within it. Consequently, roles are not yet clear and responsibility and accountability are diffused among several actors. The practical implication here is that PA planning, promotion, assessment and funding are also diffused across numerous actors, and this is indeed a factor that can be considered central to the failure of the cases discussed herein. Finally, it must also be said that in addition to the case made above for specific planning, funding and assessment relating to the promotion of PA in the context of sport mega events and the Olympic Games, it seems that considering the historical and apparently omnipresent imbalance in favour of elite sports is now also essential if the effectiveness of the PA legacies of future Games is to be enhanced.

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THE MAIN FEATURES OF THE HISTORICAL EVOLUTION OF THE PARALYMPIC MOVEMENT IN THE SECOND HALF OF THE 20TH CENTURY

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Introduction

The Paralympic Games have come a long way in the short time of the second half of the 20th century, and are now perceived as the largest international sport competition for athletes with disability. The Paralympic Games, as an elite sport competition for athletes with disability, have played a major role in changing society's attitudes towards disability by focusing on the athletes' achievement rather than the disability itself, by accelerating the agenda of inclusion, and by promoting the concept of accessibility in the urban environment (Nyland, 2009, Gold & Gold, 2007).

The Paralympic Games have had a significant influence, especially in those parts of the world where there is prejudice against disability, by provoking changes in official attitudes towards and public opinion about disability in countries bidding to host the Olympic and Paralympic Games. Thus, we understand that the Paralympics, apart from an elite sport competition for athletes with disability, are also an expression of a movement with ideals akin to Olympism (courage, self-confidence, determination, inspiration, equality, sportsmanship) that have engineered a transformation in the profile of people with disability from patients to athletes, and then from athletes to equivalent citizens (Legg & Steadward, 2011). Furthermore, it is important to mention that the purpose of the Paralym-

pic Movement is not only to promote sport, but also – and mainly – to use sport as a medium for the ongoing global promotion of the values of the Paralympic Movement (Peers, 2009).

The purpose of this article is to mention and highlight the main features of the historical evolution of the Paralympic Movement in the second half of the 20th century that have turned this elite sport event into the second largest international sport event after the Olympic Games (Gold & Gold, 2007).

The initial seeds of Paralympic Movement

The Paralympic Games were created due to the increased need for the therapy and rehabilitation of those left disabled and injured by World War Two. After the Second World War, traditional rehabilitation methods proved insufficient for the medical and psychological needs of the large number of soldiers and citizens with a disability. In response, in 1944, the British government founded the National Spinal Injuries Centre in Stoke Mandeville hospital in Aylesbury (Legg & Steadward, 2011). The director of the centre was Sir Ludwig Guttmann, a neurosurgeon who had come to Britain as a refugee from Germany in 1939.

Guttmann played a role comparable to that of Pierre De Coubertin in reviving the Olympic Games and is now considered the father of the Paralympic Movement. Guttmann introduced competitive sports (punchball exercises, rope climbing, wheelchair polo) at Stoke Mandeville hospital as an integral part of the rehabilitation procedure for people with disabilities at a time when the inclusion of sport and exercise in rehabilitation programmes was unconventional (DePauw, 2012). Guttmann believed that sports could be a way to help individuals with severe disability to live a healthier and happier life, to gain self-confidence, and to achieve a degree of independence (Gold & Gold, 2007). He formulated the idea of a sport festival for individuals with disability, which would foster relations between patients as well as tabling attitudes towards the capabilities of individuals with disability.

Initially, the competitive games between the patients at Stoke Mandeville hospital took the form of ward-versus-ward competitions. Then, on 28 July 1948, the first Stoke Mandeville Games were held with 16 competitors, 14 males and two females, divided into two teams – representing, respectively, Stoke Mandeville and the Star and Garter Home in Richmond – competing in

archery (Legg & Steadward, 2011). These games were the first sport competition for wheelchair athletes, and are considered the forerunner of the Paralympic Games. So, under Guttmann's leadership, the use of sport as a therapeutic means for the restoration of fitness, strength, coordination and speed as well as social rehabilitation assumed an unprecedented and global dimension for every category of disability (Landry, 1995, Gold & Gold, 2007).

The Stoke Mandeville Games were held annually, mainly for individuals with paraplegia. In 1949, Stoke Mandeville hospital hosted an even larger event involving 60 competitors from five hospitals. At this meeting, Guttmann gave a speech in which he expressed the hope that the event would become international and acquire the same global fame as the Olympic Games.

The number of sports in which the competitors took part in the Stoke Mandeville Games also continued to grow with more sports gradually included such as crown green bowling, table tennis, shot put, javelin and club throw. In 1951, the Stoke Mandeville Games expanded with the participation of 126 patients from 11 hospitals competing in archery, netball, javelin and snooker (a cue sport akin to billiards) (Blauwet & Willick, 2012).

A milestone date for the Paralympic Movement came in 1952, when the Stoke Mandeville Games became an international sport event with the participation of a number of Dutch ex-servicemen (Wilson & Clayton, 2010). In these Games, more than 130 athletes with disability competed in snooker, darts, archery and table tennis (Legg & Steadward, 2011). That was the year in which an international Sport Movement for individuals with disability first came into being. The transition in the perception of sports as a tool useful only for rehabilitation purposes to a medium for social integration and the provision of equal opportunities was accompanied by side benefits, since individuals with disability began to receive recognition as athletes within a Sporting Movement far beyond the medical model of the perception of disability (Blauwet & Willick, 2012).

The Stoke Mandeville Games developed further as an international sport event in 1953 when teams from Finland, France, Israel, the Netherlands and Canada took part. In 1955, a team from the USA also participated, and in 1957 a team from Australia. This was also the year that the Stoke Mandeville Games were first called the "Paralympics", a coining combining "Paraplegia" and "Olympics" (Gold & Gold, 2007).

In 1956, during the ceremonies at the Melbourne Olympics, the International

Olympic Committee (IOC) awarded Guttman the Fearnley Cup for his outstanding achievements in the service of the Olympic Ideals (Gold & Gold, 2007). This was a remarkable acknowledgement given that less than a decade had passed since the beginning of the Stoke Mandeville Games.

Initially, the vast majority of the contestants in the Stoke Mandeville Games were patients, but the Games soon began to attract former patients who lived independently. In the meantime, the exercise routines became more and more specialized with an eye to promoting the health and well-being of individuals with disability via sports; the Games became more professional, reflecting the ongoing development of the classification system, the growing specialization of the training process and the coaches, the modifications to the rules and regulations of every sport, and the increase in the number of countries and participants in the Games.

The official start of the Paralympic Games

Following a request made directly to the IOC for the International Stoke Mandeville Games to take place for the first time in the same country and city as the Olympic Games, the IOC leadership agreed and the Games both took place in Rome, where they used the same venues (Blauwet & Willick, 2012). These Games have gone down in history as the first official Paralympic Games, with 400 athletes from 23 countries (Legg & Steadward, 2011) completing in sports which also now included wheelchair basketball, fencing, swimming and weightlifting (DePauw, 2012). Since then, the Paralympic Games have been held every four years after and in the same city as the Olympic Games.

In the beginning, it was not taken for granted that the host city of the Olympic Games would host the Paralympic Games as well. Hosting the Paralympic Games depended on the good will of the city and the sponsor and the availability of public funding to cover the cost of staging the Games. In 1964, the Paralympic Games were held in Tokyo, the host city of the Olympic Games, using the same facilities and accommodation in the Olympic Village (Gold & Gold, 2007). In addition, the name “Paralympics” was invented at the Tokyo Games – the Greek prefix “Para” denoting “parallel to the Olympics” and not what had previously been wrongly perceived as short for paraplegic, (Legg & Steadward, 2011).

In the years to come, there would be a diversion from the pattern initially established in the two previous Paraolympiads, as the hosts of the Olympic Games refused to host the Paralympic Games. In 1968, the Paralympic Games were held in Tel Aviv, Israel, rather than in Mexico City (the host city of the Olympics), which declined claiming “technical difficulties” (Gold & Gold, 2007). The officials in Mexico feared that individuals with spinal cord injuries would not be able to withstand the high altitudes and that the necessary organizations were not in place to provide the appropriate know-how in order to help with hosting the individuals with disability. Nevertheless, the Israeli officials showed their interest in hosting the Paralympic Games that year in the light of the large number of people who had recently acquired a disability in the armed conflicts raging in the Middle East (Legg & Steadward, 2011). Ultimately, the Games were held in the Israel Foundation for Handicapped Children in Ramat Gar.

In 1972 the Paralympic Games were held at the University of Heidelberg rather than in Munich (the host city of the Olympic Games), which claimed that the apartments used by Olympic athletes had been rented for the period after the closing ceremony of the Olympic Games and that there was no other place available to accommodate the Paralympic athletes. Subsequently, the 1976 Paralympic Games were held in Toronto not Montreal, and the 1980 Games in Arnhem, Holland, instead of Moscow, since the Soviet Union (the host city of the Olympics) did not have any organizations providing opportunities for citizens with disability to engage with sport and thus did not consider themselves a suitable host for the Paralympic Games.

The Toronto Paralympic Games of 1976 broke new ground by including athletes with other forms of disability for the first time – specifically, athletes with amputations, visual impairments, and other forms of disability (Les Autres) took part in the Games. This inclusion of athletes with other forms of disability would have a significant and long-lasting impact on the Paralympic Games, since they required the name of the Games to be changed from “Paralympics” to the “Olympiad for the Physically Disabled”, a request made because the word “Paralympic” still connoted Paraplegic Games, leaving athletes with visual impairment and amputations feeling excluded (Legg & Steadward, 2011). However, this name change never came about and the term “Paralympic Games” was eventually selected as the official name for the Games in 1988, with the preposition “Para” denoting that the Paralympic and Olympic Movement exist

side by side. In 1980, athletes with cerebral palsy were included in the Summer Paralympic Games in Arnhem, as well (Legg & Steadward, 2011).

The year 1976 was also significant, because the Winter Paralympic Games were held for the first time – in Ornskoldsvik, Sweden, where they were styled as the “Winter Olympic Games for the Disabled” (Legg & Steadward, 2011). The initial Winter Paralympic Games were not held in the host countries and cities of the Winter Olympic Games: in 1976, they were held in Ornskoldsvik rather than Innsbruck, Austria; in 1980, were held in Geilo, Norway, not in Lake Placid, USA. The same was true of the Paralympic Games of 1984 and 1988, which were held in Innsbruck instead of Los Angeles and Seoul respectively. The Winter Paralympic Games were held in the same cities as the Winter Olympics in both 1992 (Albertville, France) and 1994 (Lillehammer, Norway). This began the practice of the Paralympic Winter Games being held in the same cities as the Winter Olympic Games (Legg & Steadward, 2011).

The year 1984 is regarded as another milestone year for Paralympic sports, since athletes with disability were invited to compete in demonstration events at both the Summer Olympic Games in Los Angeles and the Winter Olympic Games in Sarajevo – in wheelchair athletics and alpine skiing respectively (Legg & Steadward, 2011). These demonstration events continued to be held until the Athens Olympic Games in 2004 (Legg & Steadward, 2011). The Summer Paralympics in 1984 would be held for the first time in two separate locations. The USA agreed to host the Games but not in the host Olympic city. Instead, they were to be split between New York and the University of Illinois at Champaign, an arrangement that foundered when the latter withdrew due to financial problems just four months before the Games. Finally, after the cancellation of the University of Illinois, the events for athletes with cerebral palsy, amputations and visual impairments were held in New York and the wheelchair events at Stoke Mandeville hospital in the UK (Legg & Steadward, 2011). Ironically, these were the first Games the IOC officially recognized as the Paralympics.

The modern Paralympic Games

The year 1988 is also a milestone for the Paralympic Movement, with the Seoul Games viewed as the inception of the modern Paralympic Games. This is partly why they were held in the same venues as the Summer Olympic Games again

after many years. It is remarkable how this arrangement has since become established, and how both Games have been included in the same bid since 2000 (Legg & Steadward, 2011). The Games also received spectacular Opening and Closing Ceremonies similar to the Summer Olympic Games, which were watched by 75,000 spectators. Furthermore, these Games were different in their perspective, having a more sport-based focus which, to some extent, rejected the medical model (Legg & Steadward, 2011).

Another reason the Seoul Games have special significance for the Paralympic Movement is the change of the Paralympic Games logo. Before 1988, a variety of logos reflecting the Olympic rings had been used, but in 1988 the Seoul Organizing Committee replaced the five rings with five Tae Geuks, a traditional Korean Symbol, in the Olympic colours (blue, black, red, yellow and green). Then, when the International Paralympic Committee (IPC) was founded in 1989, the five Tae Geuks were incorporated as its official symbol. However, in 1991, the British Olympic Committee protested about the logo claiming it was too close to the Olympic logo, which would be a negative factor when attracting sponsors and funding (Legg & Steadward, 2011).

The logo with the five Tae Geuks would change after the 1994 Winter Paralympic Games. The new one included three Tae Geuks instead of five, in blue, red and green. In 2003, the logo was modified again when the Tae Geuks were replaced with Agitos (from the Latin word *Agito* meaning “I move”). The new logo was used for the first time for the Athens Paralympic Games in 2004 with the new motto “Spirit in Motion” (Gold & Gold, 2007).

In 1996, in the Barcelona Games, the Paralympic athletes would receive the same treatment as the Olympic athletes and have their own custom-designed Opening and Closing ceremonies – organized by a separate Division created in the Olympic Games Organizing Committee to administer the Paralympic Games.

Athletes with mental disability were included in the Atlanta Paralympic Games in 1996 for the first time, but after the Sydney Games in 2000, when cases of athletes feigning mental disability were exposed, these events were no longer included (Legg & Steadward, 2011).

The Paralympic Games in Sydney in 2000 were unique because they broke all previous sales records with 1.1 million tickets sold. A number of outstanding performances from the athletes also helped confirm the status of the Paralympic

Games as a major elite sports event with global reach. Each one of the Paralympic Games that followed – Athens (2004), Torino (2006), Beijing (2008) and so forth – would reveal ongoing development, astonishing performances from the participating athletes, improvements in organizational quality, and increasing awareness of disability.

A Brief Survey of the Organizational Structure of the Paralympic Games

Until 1952, the Stoke Mandeville Games were organized by Dr Guttman and the Stoke Mandeville hospital staff (www.paralympic.org). However, as the Games grew and assumed an international dimension, the need for greater professionalism in the organization, funding and management of the international sports event for the disabled became clear. In response, the International Stoke Mandeville Games Committee (ISMGC) was founded in 1959; the Committee would remain responsible for organizing the Games until 1968. In 1972, the ISMGC was renamed the International Stoke Mandeville Federation, in which incarnation it would remain in charge of the Games until 1984 (www.paralympic.org).

In 1961 an International Working Group was set up to establish an umbrella organization for all disabilities which would act as a coordinating committee for future Games. This objective was achieved in 1964 with the foundation of the International Sport Organization for the Disabled (ISOD). The ISOD provided sport opportunities to individuals who could not be linked to ISMGC – that is, athletes with visual impairment, amputations, and cerebral palsy (www.paralympic.org).

The need for a single governing body responsible for coordinating the Games, and the IOC's request that it should be able to correspond and collaborate with one umbrella organization led to the creation of the International Coordinating Committee of the World Sports Organizations for the Disabled (ICC) in 1982 (www.paralympic.org). The ICC gave the disabled Sports Movement a single, unified voice for the first time. However, the ICC member nations demanded more national and regional representation in the organization, leading to the foundation of a new organization with a democratically elected administration, the International Paralympic Committee (IPC), in 1989 (www.paralympic.org). The IPC has been the sole IOC-recognized coordinating body for Paralympic Sports since 1992.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to present the key aspects of the history of the Paralympic Movement in the second half of the 20th century, as it grew from a small sports competition with only 16 competitors into an elite international sport event with numerous athletes competing from multiple nations. It has also attempted to demonstrate how the Paralympic Movement has managed to configure a disability-positive environment through the Paralympic Games

The Paralympic Games have developed dramatically in the second half of the 20th century. Over that period, they have spread geographically, new sports have been included, a wider range of disabilities have been introduced, and it has been made clear that sports are available to all. The Games have also managed to convert individuals with disability into elite athletes who enjoy treatment and approval comparable to Olympic athletes. Furthermore, the inclusion of the Paralympic Games in the Olympic Games bidding process has ensured the use of high-standard Olympic facilities and a barrier-free environment as well as challenging societies to welcome diversity.

Unequivocally, the Paralympic Games are the best “ambassador” we have to society at large for disability issues. They have had a remarkable impact on disability, Disability Sports and society’s attitude towards disability. This positive impact, coupled with the continued growth of the Paralympic Games, will definitely continue to challenge our society.

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OLYMPIC LEGACY AND OLYMPIANS

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Abstract

Using Social Capital (SC) theory, this study aims to address post-athletic career Olympians (PACO) via the following five objectives: to determine their current status of employment, highest scholastic achievements, and potential factors that could have helped them post-retirement; to determine how the Olympic Movement (OM) has affected PACO; to determine which Olympic-affiliated organizations are most trusted and receive more loyalty from PACO; to identify the ways PACO are or have been active citizens both in sport and in relation to non-sport related issues and activities; and to identify the ways in which PACO are or have been involved in community sport-related organizations, groups and/or programmes. The key findings of the study show that PACO rated education highly; having been part of the OM has left perceived and leverageable social benefits pertaining to public perception, credibility and status; the National Olympic Committee (NOC) and National Sport Federation (NSF) are the national sport governing bodies which PACO trust most and are most loyal to; and grassroots community sport-related organizations, groups and/or programmes receive the most engagement overall. There are an estimated 100,000 living Olympians globally (active and non-active athletes) of whom 92 male/female PACO from both Summer & Winter Games and five continents completed an anonymous, self-administered on-line questionnaire which offered a first-cut overview of key factors and data. This research aspires to stimulate further academic research, as well as to offer suggestions pertaining to Olympians in transition or PACO on how to broaden opportunities in focus areas with the International Olympic Commit-

tee (IOC), NOCs and the community at large, where PACO could make the most impact and social capital, and be leveraged the most as a living legacy of the OM.

Keywords

Legacy; Post-Athletic Career Olympians (PACO); Social Capital (SC); Olympism; Olympic Movement (OM).

Introduction

SC can be regarded in a multidisciplinary perspective as an umbrella term including every facet of social life that enables collaboration for mutual benefit. Leading theorist Putnam (2000) defines SC as social networks between people and the rules or standards of exchange which are upheld, resulting in honesty and trust between parties. We believe that PACO can be vehicles for social change at diverse levels of the community; however, we do not have evidence pertaining to if, where and to what extent they contribute in society. Due to the multiple dimensions which have been used to conceptualize SC, it was decided to narrow the focus to two variables which enable the growth of SC – the trust and participation of PACO at diverse levels of society in the sport and non-sport community – in the following analysis.

A: Sample & Methodology

This study explored PACO and SC constructs via a quantitative approach administered through a secure and anonymous on-line English-only questionnaire using Qualtrics Research Suite Survey Software for ease of distribution and self-administered use. Sixty-four closed-ended, modified questions were drawn from Ruston and Akinrodove's (2002) secondary database provided through the Social Capital Question Bank included in the Social Capital Survey Matrix 2002. An on-line consent form invited PACO to take part in voluntary, confidential research by completing the questionnaire via a computer or smart technology apparatus, which would require approximately 15 minutes. One hundred and 35 NOCs worldwide were sent the survey link with an explanatory covering letter. Links were also distributed to convenient samples of Olympic contacts via Olym-

pic alumni websites, Olympic groups on LinkedIn, Facebook (FB) sites, and private Olympian FB pages which were then shared across the international social network of Olympians. It is to be noted that this was an independent study and survey which was neither endorsed nor supported by the IOC. The primary focus was on PACO engagement in the sport and non-sport community, their trust and loyalty to Olympic-affiliated organizations, demographic elements, as well as the social benefits of the OM. This research involved an anonymous sample of PACO who participated at either the Summer or Winter Olympic Games. Ninety-two PACO representing both genders from five continents and born between 1941 and 1993 (ages 23–76) responded. Most PACO in the sample were male (55%) aged 37–46 (61%). Most respondents (27) were aged between 47 and 56. Fifty-two PACO competed in the Summer Olympics and 39 in the Winter Olympics. Most of the sample (68%) declared that as active athletes they represented a country in the Americas, while 26% represented a European country. There were 51 PACO who completed in individual sports and 41 in team sports in both the Summer and Winter Olympics. The best career performances of the PACO in an Olympics were recorded. The sample had a good distribution of Olympic accomplishments, with 24% medallists achieving a total of 26 medals, of whom the highest achievers were summer PACO with 15 medals, with Winter PACO reporting 11 medals. Thirty-four percent reported 4th–10th place as their best performance, with 42% ranked 11th and below.

B: Discussion & Findings

The results of this study provide insights into PACO, their employment, scholastic and athletic achievements, the impact on PACO of the OM, their trust and loyalty towards Olympic organizations, and their active engagement in the sport and non-sport global community. The original study resulted in 17 tables of findings, but this summary will only reveal the findings of six tables pertaining to the sample (A) and objectives supported under titles C to F. For the full dissertation and results, please contact the author of this study.

C: Employment, Scholastics and Potential Factors of Success

Regarding the first objective of this study, which was to determine the current

status of employment, the highest scholastic achievements, and potential success factors for PACO, the key results showed that there was high employment, indicating that most PACO (53%) are full-time, dependent employees in both sport and non-sport-related fields. Results also indicated considerable PACO interest (39%) in being self-employed in both arenas.

In reference to athletic accomplishments and high employment, the data suggests there is a positive relationship between sport and business. Previous findings by Fletcher (2011) studied the correlation between sport performance, psychology and business, referencing elements relating to performance distinction in terms of equivalences relating to open communication, team harmony and employee/athlete acknowledgement, and subsequently generating sport-business parallels relevant to the corporate athlete. These findings could apply to influential PACO employees in a corporate setting who can influence the overall environment and wellness of staff. Thus, in this context, a positive relationship was found to exist (Kelly et al., 2007) between employees who have wellbeing, on the one hand, and benefits experienced by the organization, on the other, in terms of a healthy and productive workforce.

This is further supported by Kelly et al. (2007) in reference to corporate health agendas aimed at developing an individual employee's ethic into the embodiment of the desire, image and work ethic of the corporate athlete, exemplifying aspirations for overall wellbeing (body, mind and spirit), as well as representing the organization's goals of diminishing cost and risk, increasing performance and productivity levels. In this context, data further suggests that organizations or individuals working or doing business with PACO may be impacted on in various dimensions by the latter's presence and work ethic.

Further results in Table 1 reveal that the sample of PACO were well educated, displaying results indicating elevated levels of scholastic achievements. Frequencies show that 33% of the sampled PACO hold a Bachelor degree, 26% have a Master degree and 8% hold a doctoral degree. Forty-one summer PACO reported a Bachelor, Master or doctoral degree compared to 20 Winter PACO with a similar education.

Education	f (%)	f (%)		f (%)	f (%)		f (%)
	Summer			Winter			Grand Total A+B (100%)
	Male	Female	Total A	Male	Female	Total B	
High School & below	0	0	0	8 (80.00%)	2 (20.00%)	10	10 (10.99%)
Tech Institute & College Degree	3 (25.00%)	3 (25.00%)	6	4 (33.33%)	2 (16.67%)	6	12 (13.19%)
Bachelor Degree	10 (33.33%)	9 (30.00%)	19	3 (10.00%)	8 (26.67%)	11	30 (32.97%)
Master Degree	8 (33.33%)	7 (29.17%)	15	7 (29.17%)	2 (8.33%)	9	24 (26.37%)
Doctoral Degree	0 (0.00%)	7 (100%)	7	0 (0.00%)	0 (0.00%)	0	7 (7.69%)
Other (i.e.: Law Degree, Journeyman Millwright, partially completed degree, post grad diploma)	4 (50.00%)	1 (12.50%)	5	1 (12.50%)	2 (25.00%)	3	8 (8.79%)

Table 1: Highest Education Completed by PACO (N= 91)

This supports previous research by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2014) indicating that advanced echelons of academic achievement are linked to enhanced health, above average employment rates and additional social engagement, and are seen as an opportunity for worthier employment prospects and greater comparative remunerations. This provides individuals with compelling motivations to engage in further schooling, and governmental bodies (whether non-profit or civic, sport or non-sport related) with reasons to develop the abilities of the populace through education. As the previous research states, and according to our findings, PACO have a reason to be motivated to engage in further education and, as a result, programmes/organizations have a reason to invest in their education.

In addition, data revealed that female summer PACO were alone in attaining doctoral degrees. According to published research (Rishe, 2003) in support of these findings, females in general have elevated graduation levels over males and the gender gap grows wider when the focus is on student athletes at schools

with renowned athletic curricula. Therefore, overall, there is a positive relationship based on the afore-mentioned data between athletic accomplishments and academic achievements.

Further findings laid out in Table 2 reveal that PACO were most interested in, and placed the most value on, potential success factors revealing that 59 out of 92 PACO rated funded education as the most important. In addition, 47% of males and 53% of female PACO indicated the importance of NOC transition programme assistance. However, the IOC transition programme scored lowest with a total of 32 respondents selecting it out of 92.

Factors	Male	Female	Total
	f (%)	f (%)	f (100%)
Funded education	31 (52.54%)	28 (47.46%)	59
NOC transition programme assistance	24 (47.06%)	27 (52.94%)	51
Psychological / medical / rehabilitation support	21 (45.65%)	25 (54.35%)	46
NSF transition programme assistance	21 (47.73%)	23 (52.27%)	44
Alumni mentorship	23 (56.10%)	18 (43.90%)	41
IOC transition programme assistance	17 (53.13%)	15 (46.88%)	32
Other (i.e. network built up during sport career, interested field of business transition assistance)	12 (70.59%)	5 (29.41%)	17
Total chosen factors by PACO	149	141	290

Table 2: Factors that could have helped PACO succeed beyond Olympics (N=92)

As the data reveals, our PACO are just as ambitious in their sport as they are in their academic careers. As the results indicate, education is of high interest to and greatly valued by our sample, meaning that transition programmes administered via NOCs (such as the Canadian Olympic Committee's Game Plan, which covers up to two years – with exceptions – of an athlete's post-athletic career) could be of significant use to newly retired Olympians, as it adopts five elements focused on total wellness, two of which are education and career management. In addition, an Olympic-based educational experience is offered through the International Olympic Academy (IOA) in Olympia, Greece, led by world-renowned academics who specialize in Olympism and Sports. Listed in the IOA Journal (2015), this form of education is supported by the IOC via the commitment

expressed in the Olympic Charter; it is a unique scholastic experience in a multicultural environment in which scholars can enhance their research and enrich their knowledge of Olympic and sports subjects, along with all aspects of the OM. Another option available for PACO and international scholars wanting to enhance their sport and Olympic education stems from a successful legacy initiative structured by the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Organizing Committee. The Russian International Olympic University (RIOU) is a world-class facility which offers educational programmes as well as a Master of Sport Administration (MSA) degree taught by renowned international lecturers and professors with expertise in various dimensions of sports/business management/administration with a focus on elite, Olympic and Paralympic sport (olympicuniversity.ru, 2015).

The data further suggests that, due to the high interest in the value of academic pursuits, such educational curricula offered through the IOA and RIOU are good options for PACO, since they can be accessed without restrictions during any phase of their life after sport. To the best of the author's knowledge, there is no research available on the time it takes Olympians to positively transition out of a world-class sport career.

In support of these key findings, Bale (2006) states that cultural capital refers to knowledge and skills acquired in early socialization or through education. Consequently, the exposure which Olympians acquire in their careers and the involuntary and deliberate collection of wide-ranging varieties of capital, can contribute to their advancement in their life after sport, and can be added to with additional academic opportunities. This previous knowledge is supported by the famous quote by Nelson Mandela, former president of South Africa and 1993 Nobel Peace Prize laureate: "Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world" (United Nations, 2016, www.un.org). It is to be noted that Bale (2006) further emphasizes that, although cultural capital serves an academic elite, it is not the equivalent nor viewed in the same way as an athletic elite, as the latter is seen as high-status or upper-class cultural capital. However, capital that contributes to education advancement fosters social power.

D: Benefits and Trust Associated with the Olympic Movement

Based on our second objective, which is determining how the OM has affected PACO, data which surfaced in Table 3 exposed a series of key findings pertain-

ing to the perceived leverageable social benefits of having been part of the OM. Participants reported that their role as PACO has provided them with high credibility in the eyes of others (with a mean of 5.64 on a scale of 1 to 7), high status in the community (with a mean of 5.32), benefits in terms of a positive career pathways *with a mean of 5.25), a capacity to influence others (with a mean of 5.15), and opportunities and benefits (also with a mean of 5.15).

	1 not at all + 2	3+4+5	6+7 very much	Mean	Std. Dev.	Total
Perceived leverage- able social benefits due to the OM	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)			f (100%)
Credibility towards others / Public Perception	5 (5.43%)	32 (34.78%)	55 (59.78%)	5.64	1.42	92
Status in the com- munity	3 (3.26%)	41 (44.57%)	48 (52.17%)	5.32	1.47	92
Positive career pathways	7 (7.61%)	40 (43.47%)	45 (48.92%)	5.25	1.58	92
Influence	7 (7.61%)	43 (46.73%)	42 (45.66%)	5.15	1.55	92
Opportunities / Benefits	11 (11.96%)	37 (40.21%)	44 (47.82%)	5.15	1.65	92

Table 3: Factors with the potential to help PACO succeed beyond the Olympics (N=92)

Previous research by Bale (2006), based on the work of Pierre Bourdieu, states that this capital has been derived from their athletic involvement and competency, indicating how athletes can convert symbolic capital from athletic achievements into future benefits. Further positive relationships were revealed in support of the public's perception of athletes and their elevated status via the 1st IOA session for Olympians (2007) which documented that individuals who have developed their abilities through involvement and competition, and have surpassed the parameters in any area of life, will develop into a minor or distinguished hero. The IOA (2007) state that Olympians are viewed as the elite of international sport; the celebrity upper crust of the sporting world; gems of a city, a society, the world community; a source of inspiration and motivation; iconic figures for the Olympic Movement; ambassadors of Olympism; idols and role models for youth; who set a good example and whose achievements are the

coefficients that guide humanity on its evolutionary passage. Providing further support for the data, Gammon (2014) states that, while ageing sports heroes cannot be protected in the same way as inanimate tangible heritage articles, such as sport venues or sporting paraphernalia, one can still safeguard and commemorate their endeavours and achievements as an intangible sporting heritage. As described by Gammon (2014), heritage elicits an emotional reaction when one experiences interaction, much like living sport heroes who are agents to the past and exemplify achievements which are respected and esteemed. As previously explored, education is highly valued, but these results support previous research by Bale (2006) which suggests that symbolic capital pertaining to sporting accomplishment is equivalent to educational accomplishments, and the social relations that arise from sports success can be used to improve one's social position.

While the third objective of this study was to determine which Olympic-affiliated organizations are most trusted and receive most loyalty from PACO, the results in Table 4 reveal that the national affiliated sport organizations, principally the NOCs and NSFs, were most trusted and received the greatest loyalty. Fifty-two percent of male respondents identified their NOC as their organization of choice, with the NSF rated highest by females at 52%; the international affiliated organizations, principally the International Sport Federation (IF) and the IOC, received the lowest trust and loyalty. Twelve PACO (10 of them male) were identified as trusting none of the organizations.

Organization	Male	Female	Total
	f (%)	f (%)	f (100%)
NOC	28 (51.85%)	26 (48.15%)	54
NSF	25 (48.08%)	27 (51.92%)	52
IF	20 (58.82%)	14 (41.18%)	34
IOC	18 (60.00%)	12 (40.00%)	30
None of the above	10 (83.33%)	2 (16.67%)	12

Table 4: Trust and loyalty of PACO towards organizations involved in the OM (N=91)

As defined by Mularska-Kucharek & Brzezinski (2012), trust is an instrument founded on the principle that other affiliates of an allocated community are branded by truthful and collaborative conduct established on norms. Further, there is a potential correlation explained by Kelly et al. (2007) between

the results and the character of the PACO, as character is defined as the moral significance we place on our individual aspirations and on our associations with others, as well as our touching experiences, positively articulated via beliefs of reciprocated obligation and loyalty. In response to the results, previous research by McMillan (1996) states that having a feeling of kinship creates a mutually fitting atmosphere (a relationship which generates feelings of safety and restricts us to them), a sensation that there is a presence of an organization that is trustworthy, a perception that reciprocity and shared benefits originate from jointly coexisting, and an essence that stems from collective experiences that are sustained, as in art. Therefore, national organizations could be favoured by PACO due to supportive research suggested by Putnam (1995a), that trust acquires the shape of a culturally governed value as it is inbred, signifying that trust in society is a characteristic that is somewhat enduring and mirrors the culture's ancient experience. Additionally, as referenced by Putnam (1993), a vertical network no matter how dense or important to its participants, cannot sustain trust and cooperation. It may also be assumed that results could be due to the accessible and frequent contact which PACO generally receive from the national rather than the international organizations, thus maintaining social relations. In contrast, could the lack of trust in the IOC be due to the fact that the Olympic Charter fails to mention PACO (Olympic alumni / retired athletes) as part of the Olympic Family? It is noted, however, (Olympic Charter, 2015) that the masculine gender, if used in relation to any person, should be understood as including the feminine gender. Is it thus to be understood as well that the term 'athlete' includes Olympians whether they be non-active or active athletes? In support of these findings, research by McMillan (1996) declares that it is the community's responsibility to accept the member as a member, as people bond with those whom they believe want and welcome them; acceptance therefore creates a sense of attachment in individual members and a stronger attraction to that community. Therefore, the Olympic Charter may have to be amended once again, which may give support to the transition of PACO and the sustained credibility of their living legacy. This may assist in fostering trust and reciprocity between the IOC and Olympic alumni in future endeavours which they would like to achieve, as per Agenda 2020, an IOC initiative consisting of 40 recommendations meant to shape and guide the future development of the OM which is also a component of Olympism in action worldwide, consisting of key focuses around sport, education and legacy.

E: Active PACO Citizens

Regarding the fourth objective of this study, which was to identify the ways in which PACO are or have been active citizens in sport and non-sport related issues and activities, the results in Table 5 reflected a positive relationship with the philosophy of Olympism which blends sport, culture (a form of legacy), and education. Possibly by coincidence, these were the three elements in which PACO engaged in most. The promotion of 'Sport for All' scored highest at 57%, and Sustainability or Sport Legacy Project, and Olympic-based education as a mentor or ambassador variables reported similar percentages at 48% and 47% respectively. The least engaged variable for PACO was Aboriginal / Refugee Affairs at 3.41%.

Participated in:	Yes	No	Total
	f (%)	f (%)	f (100%)
Promoting 'Sport for All'	50 (56.82%)	38 (43.18%)	88
Olympic-based education as a mentor or ambassador	43 (47.25%)	48 (52.75%)	91
Sustainability or sport legacy project	43 (47.78%)	47 (52.22%)	90
City bid for an event	28 (30.77%)	63 (69.23%)	91
Anti-doping awareness or clean athlete education	19 (21.35%)	70 (78.65%)	89
Awareness campaigns for Equal Rights / sexual orientation / non-discrimination	11 (12.22%)	79 (87.78%)	90
Aboriginal or refugee affairs	3 (3.41%)	85 (96.59%)	88

Table 5: Participatory actions of PACO with reference to IOC Agenda 2020 (N= 92)

These results could be indicative of the areas that have had a lasting impact on PACO, their values and choices of giving back via these avenues in society. In support of Agenda 2020 results, previous research by Mallen et al. (2010) suggests that a strategic approach would be to involve allies in society that one desires to transform in the course of innovation, making them champions of their own change experience via a bottom-up procedure in order to affect social transformation and shape public policy and behaviour. In view of this, previous research by Mallen et al. (2010) revealed a disconnect between the use of upcoming Olympic athletes in environmental role models. However, might this approach be best with actual PACO who have been previously conditioned as role models? In support of this suggestion, proceedings from the World Olympians

Forum in 2015 addresses the issue of how Olympians (active and non-active) can employ their status as role models to encourage adolescents and to attain the objectives of Olympic Agenda 2020 (Olympians.org). Despite the ideal goals of the IOC, to create change in society via the Olympic values one must create social capital in order to get cooperation from individuals and groups of people, including PACO. As defined by Bale (2006), Social Capital refers to power and resources that accrue to individuals by virtue of their social networks and contacts, and which deteriorates and dies with its possessor. Further to our results regarding the public perception of PACO, their credibility and networks, this may be an indication that SC is potentially created within the contacts the PACO have globally, which could potentially be shared and generated within the Olympic-affiliated organizations, initially initiated between the PACO and the third party. With the addition of Olympic-based education (in reference to discussion C), PACO could ultimately assist the IOC with influencing social change as champions of Olympism within their communities. In support of this reference, Brown et al. (2003) indicates that celebrities who become role models and whom people want to emulate, exert a social influence on attitudes, beliefs and behaviour via the media, positing that Olympians could be of use in their post-athletic careers, and referencing the speech made by IOC President and PACO, Bach, at the 2015 WOA congress, "Once an Olympian, always an Olympian".

F: Roles of Engagement in the Sport Community

In support of the fifth objective of this study, which was to identify the ways in which PACO are or have been involved in the community in sport related organizations, groups and/or programmes, the results in Table 6 reveal a significant variation between the number of roles and involvement levels in community-related sport. Results were grouped into themes: Local sport clubs attracted the greatest level of engagement, with 289 roles from both Theme A (Leadership & Paid Roles) & Theme B (Non-profit & Cause Related Support). The most frequent role reported was that of guest speaker. Out of a total of 79, 43 were in connection to Provincial Sport Associations and 36 to Local Sport Clubs. Participation as a coach ranked high at 41 in Local Sport Clubs. Volunteering at local sports clubs accounts for a total of 40 roles, both as mentors/role models and participating via attending games/ events and programmes.

Role	Local Sport Club	Provincial Sport Ass.	Club for Children / Youth Sport Camps	Uni Sport Org.	Multisport Complex / Facilities	Subs-idized/ Vulnerable Commu-nity/ Sport Clubs	Pro Services/ Health & Wellness Club	Impaired Sport Ass. / Other Abilities
	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)	f (%)
Theme A: Leadership & Paid Roles								
Guest Speaker	36 (30.00%)	43 (42.16%)	37 (38.14%)	22 (56.41%)	17 (39.53%)	17 (62.96%)	14 (50.00%)	9 (60.00%)
Coach	41 (34.17%)	26 (25.49%)	31 (31.96%)	6 (15.38%)	11 (25.58%)	5 (18.52%)	5 (17.86%)	4 (26.67%)
Leader Role	28 (23.33%)	17 (16.67%)	19 (19.59%)	8 (20.51%)	7 (16.28%)	4 (14.81%)	5 (17.86%)	1 (6.67%)
Official/ Referee	10 (8.33%)	7 (6.86%)	4 (4.12%)	1 (2.56%)	3 (6.98%)	1 (3.70%)	1 (3.57%)	0 (0.00%)
Paid Admin Staff	5 (4.17%)	9 (8.82%)	6 (6.19%)	2 (5.13%)	5 (11.63%)	0 (0.00%)	3 (10.71%)	1 (6.67%)
Total A	120 (100%)	102 (100%)	97 (100%)	39 (100%)	43 (100%)	27 (100%)	28 (100%)	15 (100%)
Theme B: Non-profit & Cause-Related Support								
Attended Games, events, pro-grammes	40 (23.67%)	36 (26.87%)	22 (20.75%)	27 (38.03%)	11 (32.35%)	10 (23.26%)	6 (21.43%)	9 (25.00%)
Mentor/ Role Model	40 (23.67%)	32 (23.88%)	30 (28.30%)	23 (32.39%)	12 (35.29%)	10 (23.26%)	11 (39.29%)	7 (19.44%)
Volunteer	40 (23.67%)	31 (23.13%)	33 (31.13%)	8 (11.27%)	6 (17.65%)	12 (27.91%)	5 (17.86%)	11 (30.56%)
Member	29 (17.16%)	21 (15.67%)	8 (7.55%)	5 (7.04%)	3 (8.82%)	3 (6.98%)	6 (21.43%)	1 (2.78%)
Donated money/ Gift-in-kind	20 (11.83%)	14 (10.45%)	13 (12.26%)	8 (11.27%)	2 (5.88%)	8 (18.60%)	0 (0.00%)	8 (22.22%)
Total B	169 (100%)	134 (100%)	106 (100%)	71 (100%)	34 (100%)	43 (100%)	28 (100%)	36 (100%)
Total A+B	289	236	203	110	77	70	56	51
Respond-ents not involved	10	22	23	41	52	55	58	64

Table 6: PACO participation in community sport-related organizations, groups and/or programmes

Referencing Putnam (2000), the engagement by PACO in sport emphasizes the power of sport in providing strong settings for the formation of SC while needing to surpass our professional, societal and civil selves to bridge or connect with others who are dissimilar. According to Wollebaek and Selle (2003), the formation of SC transpires due to the collective effect of participation when affiliates belong to numerous associations synchronously, and preferably ones with diverse objectives. In addition to our results, the significant differences in engagement may have been due to the fact that the majority of respondents were from Western culture, where an erosion of traditional societal relations has been observed. The focus is now on the individual, indicating a slowly diminishing SC and civic engagement in society as new generations are not as engaged in activities, thus fostering individual, political and institutional distrust (Stolle & Hooghe, 2004). Further results indicate an interest on the part of PACO in grassroots sport and the overall variable corresponding to children and youth in sporting and non-sporting fields. Supported by research from Crabbe (2008), which indicates that PACO who operate as cultural liaisons capable of comprehending and valuing youths on their own terms while also granting admission to the conventional, have the ability to unlock possibilities, offer leadership and, clarify typical society instead of offering only a brief supply of SC. As noted above, the power of sport has progressively reached a level of importance through which it can engage children and youth both through social policy agendas and within strategies used in sport management and advertising. Given PACO from diverse cultures and with a proper education, could this be an area into which PACO could transition from high-level sport and leverage their celebrity to attract young people? As expressed by Lines (2001), no one has a more influential impact on adolescents than sport stars/heroes, who they praise and imitate.

G: Conclusion

The key conclusions of the study show that national sport governing bodies (the Olympic Committee and Sport Federation) are most trusted by PACO, who are also most loyal to them; grassroots, community sport related organizations, groups and/or programmes receive the most engagement overall; education was among the factors rated most highly by PACO; and the fact that they were once part of the Olympic Movement has left perceived, leverageable social ben-

efits pertaining to public perception, credibility and status. After an enriching and thorough immersion in the literature, the main outcomes which can be drawn from the data and results thus yielded is an important message involving collaborations between PACO and both sport and non-sport governing bodies, organizations, groups, and/or programmes. This partnership could assist in goal achievements within the community, which appear to present the most robust opportunities to further understand the power of sport and the potential for SC development. Agenda 2020 has the potential to engage PACO in the OM, spread Olympism and aid in PACO transition, and thus also in the sustainability of the true living legacies of the Olympics: the PACO. Consequently, the individual SC of PACO has become a variable rather than a predetermined attribute and is dependent upon characteristics of the social community or network. Apparently, this study is the first in the literature to empirically investigate the engagement of PACO in sport and non-sport society and their potential to develop SC; it is therefore expected to contribute to the creation of new knowledge in the field of sport and the social sciences. If further interest exists in the full dissertation and data results, please contact the author of the study.

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FEATURES OF THE APPLICATION OF MODERN MOTIVATIONAL CONCEPTS IN SPORTS PRACTICE

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Introduction

Motivation takes a leading place in the structure of personality, permeating its structure and orientating the personality, character, emotions, abilities and psychological processes. Motivation of behaviour is impossible outside the emotional sphere. The degree of importance indicates the permissible level of material and the functional energy costs of implementing intentions.

In the psychological literature, it is possible to distinguish between motive and motivation. The general explanation refers to:

- 1) subjective dynamic forces aimed at ridding a person of their oppressive state voltage
- 2) subjective images of objects satisfying the corresponding needs and aimed at giving the activity personal meaning
- 3) a special fixed position determining a readiness to work in appropriate conditions and in a certain direction
- 4) a stable evaluative disposition

Of considerable interest is the consideration of the main theoretical aspects of the most common motivational theories and their application in the practice of sports activities. These are Maslow's (2011) hierarchy of needs, and McClelland motivational theory and procedural theories of motivation.

Maslow argues that human behaviour depends on which of the five main types of needs is currently dominant. Every person has needs of all five types at any one time, but the strength of each need depends on their personal pri-

orities at a particular time. The hierarchy of needs depends on these priorities. Maslow speaks of the so-called "driving force" in accordance with which each person progresses from low motivational needs and low levels of motivation to greater needs at higher levels. Equally important here is the concept of sufficiency: humans never feel completely satisfied with their needs. Most people want greater confidence in their material well-being, security, middle environment and self-respect, regardless of how much they have already achieved. This is how the person moves up the hierarchy.

Intuition plays a key role in the implementation of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. This is one of the reasons for its popularity. However, as noted by Matyukhina (1983), Maslow's approach presents several difficulties from the teacher's perspective. Firstly, most of us may be at several levels of the hierarchy of needs at any one time. Furthermore, it is extremely difficult to determine the level of needs or level of satisfaction which can motivate an individual at a particular moment. Part of the problem stems from the fact that it is very difficult to distinguish small, insignificant changes in needs that occur daily (for example, when you are hungry) from larger and less frequent changes (shifts) in human needs. Secondly, considerable controversy arises in the measurement of human needs. For example, given the great difficulty most of us face identifying our own needs and priorities, the coach or teacher who has to create a motivational environment for many of their players is faced with a rather daunting task. In addition, people vary considerably in their understanding of what is required to be sufficiently satisfied. For example, the degree to which athletes can be motivated may relate to funding, recognition, independence or other incentives. In any case, the priorities relating to different levels of needs can change, and any approach and/or method will be much more effective if people understand the essence of this approach.

McClelland's (1975) Motivation theory, which he and his colleagues have evolved over decades, suggests that any organization provides the opportunity to meet three needs to the highest level: the needs for power, success and belonging. He goes on to say that the need for success has a positive effect not only on the athlete's work, but across all levels, while the need for power lies between the need for self-esteem and self-actualization as an expression of the human desire to control their impact on other people. McClelland (1975) considered this need to be positive, and he closely linked it with a desire to achieve prominent lead-

ership. He argued that there are several stages in the development of our view of authority, and that people can and should be convinced to give up the idea that they should not try to influence others. Rather, an effective leader must be a selfless altruist who is dedicated to their goals and tries to instil a sense of loyalty in the organization in their trainees. This projects a high level of self-control and a minimal need to belong to a group, or to change behaviour to do so.

McClelland (1975) also spoke of the need to belong, which is similar to the theory of Maslow (2011). This need reflects the desire to have close, friendly relations with other people. People with a need for affiliation most often succeed in fields which require a high level of social interaction, in which interpersonal relationships are especially important.

As A. V. Jabs (2013) writes, McClelland's work showed that the need for success can be developed in human beings, and could result in a more efficient operation. To improve the goal-oriented behaviour of coaches and students, it is recommended that methods of development be applied that focus on the competitive methods of achieving goals and emphasize the importance of the most effective way of achieving these goals. Coaches should set difficult but achievable goals and objectives for themselves and their students. In addition, it should be borne in mind that success-oriented people often succeed. Procedural theories of motivation position their main aim as how purposeful behaviour is communicated, maintained and ends. Regardless of how the content of motivation is classified, the coach needs to understand how to manage it. There are four basic procedural theories of motivation: the theory of expectations expounded by V. Vroom, the extended expectations model developed by L. Porter and E. Lawler, John. S. Adams' theory of justice, and the reinforcement theory popularized by B. F. Skinner.

Lichtenberg states that most modern procedural theories of motivation consider motivation to be the process selection control. This definition of motivation was first given by Vroom, who argued that people are constantly in a state of motivation. According to Vroom, to be a successful coach, you therefore need to show students that directing their efforts towards the achievement of organizational goals will lead to early achievement of their personal goals, too. According to Vroom's theory of expectations, students work most productively when they believe that their efforts will help them meet their expectations across three areas:

- 1) Expectations in relation to “labour costs: results”, which is the ratio between effort and the results
- 2) Expectations in relation to “results: reward”, which is the reward or incentive expected in response to the achieved level of results
- 3) The value received for the promotion or reward

Expectation can thus be viewed as an assessment of the quality of the probability of a particular event. For example, most athletes rightly expect a successfully conducted training season to allow them to get enough positive result in the competition. As we can see in the writings of R. S. Levina, the psychologists L. Porter and E. Lawler developed a model of motivation that combines the main ideas of the meaningful theories of A. Maslow, F. Herzberg and D. McClelland with Vroom's procedural theory. Their integrated approach, which is called the “extended expectations model”, includes a consideration of the relationship between job performance and satisfaction. The idea that work leads to satisfaction was the most important conclusion drawn by Porter and Lawler. Their work is very different from the work by scholars of the early behavioural school, and of F. Herzberg in particular, who argued that satisfaction leads to more good work and that “The happier employees are, the better they work”. However, studies have confirmed Porter and Lawler's argument that “The better employees are, the stronger their sense of satisfaction”. This statement is now supported by the majority of researchers and trainer-practitioners. According to Enina, Porter and Lawler's extended expectations model contains far more motivational elements for a teacher or coach than Vroom's model, but is no less subjective and equally difficult to apply in real-life situations. Still, it does have a number of advantages which allow it to be used to understand and enhance their students' motivational level. In particular, educators who use these models as a basis for analysis are less likely than their counterparts to overlook significant elements in the decision-making process.

As E. Parnas has shown, the third widely-known procedural approach to motivation is the “theory of justice” popularized by George S. Adams. His theory of justice postulates that people subjectively define the relationship between compensation received and efforts expended and then compare this with the remuneration other people receive for doing similar work. This theory is based on the assertion that, in determining the focus of their goal-directed behaviour, people take into account two fundamental evaluations:

- 1) "What I give my staff?" This contribution includes efforts, experience, education, skills and training.
- 2) "What benefit I will receive, especially in comparison with the remuneration of other athletes performing the same work?" Encouragement in this case could have different forms: wages, for example, additional benefits and premiums, terms of training activities, and status indicators.

In conducting these two assessments, the athlete has a certain ratio in mind characterizing the fairness of a supervisor or coach in relation to it. They feel they are being treated fairly in the relationship if their rewards and costs are equal. This theory of justice is the most easily adapted to the concepts used in all motivational models and has the greatest value for a coach who wants to understand their athletes' motivation. If the contribution exceeds the reward, the person feels dissatisfied and there is an internal conflict of sorts and the belief that they are being wronged. If the rewards exceed the contributions they make towards achieving the organization's goals, they feel guilty because they believe they were "cheating" their coach.

In relation to considering the theory of justice, modern authors are confident that these two negative feelings both affect motivation and can cause a person to act to restore a sense of justice. This action can take the form of working less (in the first case) or more (in the second) hard. Those people who have experienced unfair treatment themselves can try to change the behaviour of their fellow workers in order to restore justice. Eventually, people may just change their views on the relative value of contributions and rewards, either through a conscious re-evaluation of their initial queries or by using a mental defence mechanism such as rationalization. Therefore, trainers who believe that verbally or financially rewarding athletes more than they deserve will stimulate them to work more diligently in the hope of receiving an even greater reward in their subsequent training activities may be mistaken: an athlete may actually work less and subsequently think that, otherwise, they will get less than they deserve. Similarly, the athlete that works well but sees less diligent colleagues receiving the same rewards is unlikely to work with the same enthusiasm in the future.

Finally, the theory of Skinner, a psychologist, is also widely applicable to sports activities. According to this theory, people's behaviour is caused by the result of their actions in similar situations in the past. Some people consider

Skinner's reinforcement theory to be offensive, as it seems to undermine the belief in the possibility of free choice. However, Skinner's position lies in the fact that people learn lessons from their experience of previous work and try to carry out those tasks that lead to the desired result and avoid those tasks that lead to undesirable results.

In this model, people's voluntary behaviour in particular situations or in response to specific actions or events (stimuli) leads to a specific result (consequences). If the result is positive, the person tends to repeat their behaviour in similar situations in the future. If the result is negative, a person is more likely to avoid such stimuli or to behave differently in the future. Although the reinforcement theory is often criticized, it has been found wide applications in many spheres of human interaction.

The main feature of the psychological motives that motivate a person to exercise is the sense of satisfaction they derive from training for the sport and inseparable from most sporting activities. In addition, their motives reflect the complexity and diversity of their sports activities.

Methodology

To analyze this theory, we used retrospective analysis, a generalization of the scientific and methodological literature, and the study of work programmes and methods of physical training for children included in legal documents.

Results and discussion

In summary, we can identify three main theories explaining what motivates (compels) people to action:

- 1) The theory of the need for achievement: this is a combined model that takes into account both personal and situational factors as important indicators of behaviour. This theory consists of components:
 - a) Personality factors or motives. This is characterized by two main motives: the achievement of success and the avoidance of failure. The motive to achieve success is defined as the ability to experience pride or satisfaction from the performance, whereas the motive to avoid

failure is defined as a capacity to experience shame or humiliation as a result of failure. According to this theory, the behaviour of the athletes is determined by the balance between the two. Thus people who achieve great success are characterized by a high motivation to achieve success and little motivation to avoid failures. There is a tendency to assess their abilities, not their thoughts of failure. People who do not achieve great success, who are characterized by low motivation to achieve success and high motivation to avoid failures, are afraid of failure and think about it constantly.

- b) Situational influences. It is impossible to predict behaviour purely on the basis of the characteristic features of personality. You must also take into account the situation. The theory of need for achievement includes two things: the probability of success in a situation, and the incentive value of success. The probability of success depends on whom you will be competing against and the difficulty of the task.
 - c) The resulting trends. The third component of the theory of need for achievement is the resultant (or behaviourist). This is determined by considering the individual's levels of achievement motives in connection with a particular situation.
- 2) The attribute theory. Based on how people explain their successes and failures. According to this theory, every kind of explanation of success and failure can be divided into several categories. The main categories are stability (a relatively constant or non-constant factor), causality, or causality (internal or external factor) and control (factor, being or not under control). According to the theory, how athletes explain their results impacts on their expectations and emotional reactions, which in turn affects their motivation to achieve;
- 3) Theory of goal attainment. Three interacting factors determine the person's motivation: their goals of achievement, susceptibility, and behaviour achievements. To understand the motivation of a person, you need to find out what success and failure mean to them.

Therefore, in essence, motivation is a broad concept encompassing a complex process of managing the direction and intensity of effort. To get a real idea of the motivation, you must acknowledge the demotivation impact on sports activities

and behaviour, and learn to identify the possibility of rapid changes in motivational factors. My analysis of the literature on the problem of sports motivation would suggest that the psychological support provided by sports activities is the fundamental motivation that drives a person to do sports. The need, or the feeling of human needs, constitutes a breach of equilibrium with the environment. Psychologically, it is always associated with the emergence of internal tension; a discomfort which can only satisfy the corresponding need. Every need therefore arouses the so-called search activity directed to find satisfaction. Any need can be satisfied in different ways: people can choose any way they want, but the scope is actually limited to specific conditions – for example, life circumstances marginalization. Then the choice occurs without a clear understanding of the process. Often, spontaneously, there are a range of sports activities that can initially meet, perhaps only one and then complex needs. The analysis of the literature shows that over the course of a sports career, the role of specific motives in stimulating the athlete's activity change, with dominant motives emerging for each stage in their sports career. The dominance of the motives is confirmed by the data obtained by Russian coaches: athletes with a sports-business motivation show a greater enthusiasm for the sport; athletes who are dominated by the personal-prestige motivation focus over much on evaluating its results, showing a permanent concern for personal self-assertion. This leads to inadequate self-esteem and emotional instability in the extreme conditions of competition.

A number of modern sports psychologists note that in the processes of sport, the needs and goals of the student are not always taken into account. At the same time, the trainer's knowledge of the motivational states of each of their trainees is of significance to the latter's professional development. Unit motivation is the trigger for activities, supports the necessary level of activity in training and competition, and regulates the content of the activity and the use to which different means are put to achieve the desired results.

Final consideration

Finally, analyzing and summarizing these concepts, looking into the future we can start to compare different sports with greater specificity. Another promising direction for the future is the analysis of behavioural concepts relevant to coaching in sports school and professional sport.

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OLYMPISM AS MYTH. CHALLENGES AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF INTERCULTURAL PHILOSOPHY

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Introduction

Olympism has always presented difficulties when it comes to univocally defining what it is and what it aims to be. Different authors and scholars (McNamee, 2006; DaCosta, 2006; Dziubiński, 2009) have attempted to produce a better specification of what it is in order to establish its statute, its byelaws, its aims and its values. Even the author of Olympism, Pierre de Coubertin, tried on several occasions during his lifetime to clarify what he meant. Furthermore, many philosophers and scholars (Czula, 1975; Morgan, 1995; Chatziefstathiou, 2011) have criticized controversial applications and policies undertaken by the International Olympic Committee (IOC), on the grounds that its primary goal is to promote and develop the fundamental principles enshrined in the Olympic Charter. These principles represent the core of Olympism¹.

1. In three of its first 11 fundamental principles, the Olympic Charter establishes what Olympism is and what its aims are, namely:

"1. Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy of effort, the educational value of good example and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles;

2. The goal of Olympism is to place sport at the service of harmonious development of humankind, with a view to promoting a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of human dignity;

4. The practice of sport is a human right. Every individual must have the possibility of practicing sport, without discrimination of any kind and in the Olympic spirit, which requires mutual understanding with a spirit of friendship, solidarity and fair play;" (International Olympic Committee, 2016, p. 11).

This paper will take some first steps towards an analysis of the concepts of *mythos* and *logos*, aiming to make a sound contribution to the issue about whether or not Olympism can be considered a form of philosophy *tout court*. Whether Olympism is a philosophy or a historically determined ideology is not insignificant, since it has several consequences. In fact, actions, policies, and aims descend from the more general idea of Olympism – from its consideration and definition. Later, based on the result of this first process, the paper's second aim will be to analyse Olympism's future challenges (Lipiec, 2006) and give a full and practical shape to its social and political goals: namely, mutual understanding and peace.

Mythos and Logos

Philosophy distinguishes itself from other forms of knowledge by attempting to comprehend humanity and the meaning of its existence holistically. It continually and critically examines the validity of its methods – methods which have to follow the rationality of logic thought to be sound. Some core principles, known as the laws of logic², find and distinguish rational thought; philosophy is therefore intimately and structurally interconnected with logic.

Logic first emerged from the distinction between *logos* (with which the word “logic” shares the same etymological root *log*) and *mythos*. Both these concepts and sport (in Greek *athletismos*) share the same long and prestigious tradition dating back to ancient Greece. In contrast to *logos*, *mythos* is usually conceived of as a kind of tale which is not characterized by rational thought, but based on the power of images and symbols, the authority of tradition and principles which are accepted uncritically. The tales of *mythos* are not usually subjected to a rational critique; they require a sort of blind confidence. However, *mythos* has a considerable power which philosophers both know and use: having belonged to our ancestors and arrived via them in the present, historical *mythoi* have a powerful influence on cultures and peculiar ways of understanding reality. In other words, although there is no scientific evidence supporting the validity of *mythos*,

2. The main logical principles are: the law of identity (given A then A = A); the law of non-contradiction (given two propositions “A is B” and “A is not B”, those propositions are mutually exclusive); the law of the excluded middle (for any proposition, either that proposition is true or its negation is true—*tertium non datur* as the Romans put it: “no third is given”).

it builds and shapes our ways of thinking, acting and interpreting reality.

From everything I have argued so far, it seems clear to me that Olympism deals more with the mythical horizon than the philosophical one. Considering Olympism as a form of philosophy is misleading, since it does not aim to be comprehended following the logic of rational thought. Furthermore, most of the statements which attempt to define what Olympism is are vague, contradictory, and inconsistently formulated. All those aspects contribute to obfuscating the essence of Olympism. For these reasons, I will argue that Olympism belongs more precisely to the *mythic* perspective, and present arguments in support of my hypothesis.

The statement that Olympism is a sort of myth should not be conceived as lessening or degrading its status in any way; it has its own authentic nature, which represents its greatest and most revolutionary worth. Heather Reid correctly labels her reference to the ancient Olympic Games “mythology” (Reid, 2006). Following the etymology of mythology (namely *mythos* plus *logos*), the result is a series of rational arguments (*logoi*) regarding myths (*mythoi*). In the late 19th century, de Coubertin developed the Olympic Idea on the basis of the ancient Olympic Games. Because the French baron was profoundly influenced by a misrepresentation and idealization of Ancient Olympia, his investigation was not historically sound, but rather a theoretical formulation built on his conception of the myth of Olympia. Indeed, he was not interested in any well-founded historical analysis or faithful interpretation of what the ancient Olympic Games actually were. Rather, he was an outstanding pioneer capable of recognizing the inherent educational and symbolic power of images and performances expressed during the ancient Games at Olympia. De Coubertin sought to ground the modern Olympic Games in the authority of the old myth for the purpose of launching a new educational programme based on the primary principles which belonged both to the ancient Olympic Games and England’s late 19th-century educational system. In 1896, de Coubertin succeeded in organizing the first Olympic Games of the modern era in Athens – further clear evidence of what his core and non-negotiable purpose actually was: to firmly link the new myth to the old one, giving the former the same ancient origin and noble ancestry as the latter. What is more, the figure of de Coubertin has now become a myth of sorts for the Olympic Movement and other sports organizations. In this way, we might say that Olympism lives, or survives, on the shoulders of the myth of

de Coubertin. Finally, Olympism and the contemporary Olympic Games are a global myth which is built in turn on the myth of de Coubertin, who in turn developed his Olympic Idea on the basis of the myth of Ancient Olympia. The power of the mythical tale, with its images and its symbols, is sufficient to influence our cultures through a secularization process. As we have seen, philosophy aims to find universal principles and values, while myth does not. Regardless of logic and scientific soundness, myth succeeds in providing people with symbolic explanations, since it gives them common horizons of meaning.

If all this is true, new considerations and developments regarding the aims and challenges of Olympism (globalization, multiculturalism, universalism, etc.) will arise if we shift from a context of logic to a context of *mythos*. This change will permit us to understand what Olympism truly means when it aims to promote universal values such as human dignity, friendship, solidarity, mutual understanding and a peaceful society.

Globalization, Universalism, and Multiculturalism

Looking at the current situation, everyone knows we live in a globalized world. According to Joe Maguire's definition, globalization is that process which would aim to increase interdependency among societies and individuals at different levels of human life (Maguire, 1999). It should facilitate free exchanges, circulation, movements and the reciprocal influence of people, goods and wares. Nowadays, every philosophy, science or form of knowledge is discussed and developed only if it takes the global issue into serious consideration. Olympism is not relieved from this responsibility and, if it aims to spread universal values, as it says it does, it has to carefully consider the globalized world of which it is part. Taking the global world into account means that Olympism has to ask itself whether its principles and values are objectively universal; that is, that they are not simply the historical and cultural products of a particular context. According to Lopez Frias, universalism should guide decision-making in sport, since sport is probably the only social practice whose rules are accepted universally (Lopez Frias, 2015).

A critical question arises at this point: can a *mythos*, as I stated Olympism to be, aim to promote values universally known and accepted in our current globalized society? I would argue that, since we are asking that question within

the horizon of *logos*, the answer is easy: it cannot. Indeed, as long as Olympism is misconceived as a form of philosophy, it will remain unable to endorse with good reasons any kind of universal theory or immutable value, given that it is based on neither universally acknowledged general principles or a logical or systematic philosophical account.³ Critics have written against Olympism and the Olympic Movement on these grounds (Hsu, 2000; Chatziefsthathiou, 2011), accusing it of being another representation of Western colonialism. And it is a fact that Olympianism was born within the Western tradition, and its values are based on values formerly typical of Western societies, such as liberalism and democracy, which it aims to promote at the global level (Lopez Frias & Isidori, 2014).

The issue becomes even more complicated if we analyse what Jean Baudrillard writes regarding globalization and universalism in his work *Power Inferno*. According to the French author, globalization of exchanges abates the universalism of values (Baudrillard, 2002). He acknowledges that phenomenon as the triumph of the single-thought over the universal-thought. The universal-thought is still able to accept and to recognize differences, whereas the single-thought, by definition, admits of nothing but itself. From a philosophical point a view, there is a remarkable difference between single-thought and universal-thought; consequently, it will be impossible to integrate every singularity into a *universal culture of difference*, since globalization deletes all differences and all values in order to introduce a kind of culture of non-difference. In doing so, globalization runs the same risk as the single-thought philosophies: since both are willing to find or impose universal principles and values, they are incapable of acknowledging and comprehending every single peculiarity.⁴

Globalization implies the free exchange of wares, values and people, and

3. As Jim Parry reiterates, if Olympism is a philosophy which wants to be universal because it aims to transmit values which are universally known, it has to be, by definition, relevant to everyone, regardless of race, gender, culture, religion, etc. (Parry, 2006).

4. One might object that a supposed universal culture of difference flows necessarily into an unresolved status of relativism, which is, historically, the worst enemy of any philosophical system. As I shall explain in the following paragraph, once again we need to shuttle from an investigation within the *logos* to an inquiry within the *mythos*, where there is no relativism-related problem, since the latter refers to universal values and experiences without aiming to be universally acknowledged. Indeed, *mythos* provides spaces and possibilities to comprehend singular differences in a wider context of universal meanings.

has brought about a remarkable growth in melting-pot possibilities: the phenomenon we call multiculturalism.⁵ As I see it, multiculturalism represents a clear example of something imposed by the logic of the single-thought. In contrast, inter-culturalism is based on that universal culture of differences which requires not only a change within the *logos* perspective, but also a shift to a perspective more grounded in *mythos*. Parry (2006, p. 195) asks “Why should we be multiculturalist?”, then provides answers which seem mostly logical or utilitarian in nature, and which are incapable of explaining the issue completely.

To date, two different hypotheses have been experienced by political institutions and organizations aiming to adopt a multicultural approach. We can label the first the “subtraction” and the second the “sum” theory (Vigna & Zamagni, 2002). The first hypothesis underestimates or ignores cultural differences; the second promotes a conception for which, from one dominant culture, it sums all the other minority cultures institutionalizing policies of tolerance and respect. Both theories seem to achieve unsatisfactory results. As a matter of fact, the subtraction hypothesis, which calls upon “universal reason” and smells too much of “Western reason”, is unable to acknowledge differences, while the sum solution makes everything uniform in the dominant culture. Nowadays, I suspect that “dominant culture” actually still means “Western culture”.

Looking again at the fundamental principles of the Olympic Charter, we might consider that Olympism should be inclined more towards an intercultural approach than to a multicultural one. Indeed, by providing a common and shared field where it is possible to compete with one another, Olympism aims to preserve and acknowledge singular differences between individuals, countries, and cultures. Put differently, singular differences recognized and saved by Olympism provide the bases which make the sports contest itself possible. Indeed, learning to respect singular differences in order to acknowledge them is one of the most crucial lessons we should learn from Olympic sport (Reid, 2006). The dialectic between multiculturalism and interculturalism is similar to the dialectic between

5. Multiculturalism relates not only to the phenomenon of increasing migration flows in many areas of the world, but also to possibilities of easier access allowing contact between different cultures utilizing new media technologies, transportations, and communications. All this requires new forms of education (Isidori & Echazarreta, 2013) which seek to develop people who, living in multicultural societies, will be capable of recognizing and understanding different values within a single society.

cosmopolitanism and “sincere” internationalism (Hargreaves, 1992; Morgan, 1995) in so far as both face the crucial issue of saving singular differences. At this point, the obvious question is: what is interculturalism?

Interculturalism: mutual understanding and peace

Charles Taylor, the Canadian philosopher, underlines the differences between multiculturalism and interculturalism when he says that although both share the same purposes – the recognition of differences to achieve integration –, from a semantic point of view, the “inter” approach places a greater emphasis on integration. Ultimately, multiculturalism refuses the possibility of every single culture affirming its ethno-historical identity, while interculturalism recognizes ethnic and historical identities in a process in which every culture has its voice and its own acknowledged status (Taylor, 2012).

Raimon Panikkar (1918-2010) is the author who developed and promoted the perspective of an intercultural philosophy. In his view, multiculturalism still reveals a colonialist syndrome which believes in the existence of a single superior culture – a meta-culture which is only able to host other cultures if it shows tolerance towards different subcultural forms or minority ethnic groups. Panikkar describes culture as the all-encompassed myth which belongs to a given society. It means that every culture is a sort of constellation based on its myths and the key concepts – such as good, truth and real – which ultimately make sense within them (Panikkar, 2002). It is almost impossible for a society to go beyond its myth, since myths provide horizons of intelligibility for everyone who belongs to a given society. Intercultural philosophy can therefore make a necessary contribution in allowing a given society to attempt to transcend its myths and open itself up to an authentic understanding of other cultures.

Panikkar discerns five situations which characterize different typologies of cultural encounter: isolation and disregard, indifference and disdain, condemnation and conquest, coexistence and communication, and agreement and dialogue (Panikkar, 2002).

With regard to the above, it should be evident that, on the one hand, the fourth situation specifically concerns the multicultural approach with all the features I have previously described and, on the other, that the fifth refers to an intercultural approach whose peculiarities I will now analyse in depth.

Intercultural philosophy affirms that a peaceful society can be achieved through intercultural dialogue. The latter becomes the only possible criterion for reaching an actual mutual understanding – that is, as written in the fundamental principles, an explicit purpose of Olympism. Put differently, interculturalism submits itself to intercultural dialogue in its own concrete fulfilment. It is important to note that, within the *logos* perspective, philosophy seeks its universal criterion in some logically sound universal principle – that is, a sort of objective or absolute concept that transcends any cultural difference. Conversely, the intercultural dialogue principle can be applied by different cultures, since it belongs to everyone at the same time. This requires three separate steps: 1) avoiding any kind of criticism or objection which comes from outside a given culture; 2) attempting to explain your own cultural reasons for interpreting reality as you do in a way that is understandable to the other culture (this kind of comprehension is not achieved through concepts; it is a symbolic understanding; 3) realizing the dialogue concretely – namely, the *logos* of the dia-logue.⁶ Within the intercultural dialogue, the *logos* is a means which can be used in common and shared. It does not therefore derive from any conceptual agreement, but is naturally experienced through a process of mutual understanding of the symbols belonging to the *mythos*. This process strongly asserts that intercultural philosophy does not deny the possibility of achieving universal values, but that such values have to be commonly agreed on the basis of an authentic intercultural dialogue.

Intercultural philosophy does not consider a single culture as something that has to be either entirely denied or entirely encompassed in order to achieve a peaceful society. Rather, every cultural identity exists in connection with other cultures, since each aims to understand the mutual horizons of meanings. In that sense, Olympism provides a commonly shared field where it is possible to concretely experience and develop the principles which belong to intercultural philosophy. Intercultural philosophy employs a symbolic thought, and therefore seeks out symbols which can be interculturally experienced. Sport is one such symbol: “It is a form of symbolic human expression” (Schwery, 2003 p. 15). It has great intercultural potential, since it gets people involved from all over the world who compete with one another, aiming to reach the same purpose and

6. The Greek prefix “dia” generally indicates a sense of “by means of” or “through”; *logos* thus becomes a means and not an end in itself.

respecting the same, shared rules. Furthermore, sport has great symbolic power due to its proven capacities for conveying universal values. In doing so, it does not utilize concepts or words which can be logically misunderstood by different cultural approaches. Rather, it uses images and symbols – such as bodies in movement, flags, tears, trophies, hymns, sweat, uniforms, effort, joy, medals etc. – which are universally characteristic of sports contests. These symbols and symbolic values are easier to grasp and to share than the ideological/religious/political/social concepts of the official culture within which people live (Lenk, 1976). It is important to note that no one imposes these meanings on anyone else; that is to say, neither the dominant culture system nor the logic of the not-difference finds space in this mythical perspective. Rather, images symbols and meanings are realized, developed and interpreted by everyone according – and thanks – to every other one. In this way, considering Olympism as myth can successfully save singular differences such as nationalities, cultures and religions without seeking to negate them in the name of some value culturally misunderstood as universal. By recognizing the absolute value of any identity, Olympism would thus be capable of promoting authentic mutual understanding based on the principles of intercultural philosophy. In the case of Olympism and the Olympic Games, these intercultural principles are neither conceptually imposed nor logically determined, but concretely experienced during the Games, providing solid fundamentals which can provide intercultural dialogue with its starting point. “Sport, therefore, provides an easier way for ordinary people to have access to a [shared] ontology of the world” (Papaellina et al. 2014, p. 19).

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OLYMPISM, JOY AND THE RETHINKING OF “GOVERNANCE” IN SPORT

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Abstract

Pierre de Coubertin envisioned an Olympism that refused to categorize the knowledge of the body and mind (Müller, 2000). This seems slightly ironic given that governance etymologically categorizes, controls and regulates. In the human movement field, Olympism is scrutinized in paradigmatic ways that centre on Olympism’s epistemological edict: a set of universal ideals that aim to encourage people to live full and happy lives, not just as sportspeople but as human beings. However, this focus seems centred on a singular interpretation of what Olympism in sport should look like based on the governance of these ideals within sport. Consequently, deeper ontological understandings that Coubertin spoke of in his writings are not prioritized in discussions of governance in sport. This paper will explore how the institutionalization of Olympism as a set of ideals, plus the “governance” of sport, can lead to the marginalization of Pierre de Coubertin’s grander ontological notions, such as joy.

Introduction

When Pierre de Coubertin championed Olympism, he did so based on his understanding of joy, peace, and holistic movement for human growth (Parry, 2006, 2007). Müller (2000) argues that for Coubertin, “Olympism” was not an institutional sort of system, but rather a moral attitude held by an individual and, on that basis, the attitude of humanity as well. This can be seen in his letters after 1911, when he fervently argued that the Olympic Games should be viewed as a celebration of human beings, the joy of movement and as a

vehicle for peace, rather than an event with technical results (Müller, 2000). At an ideological level, Coubertin's desire to reform the Olympic Games was centred on *religio athletae*, a "religion of athletics", though not in the mode of a modern religion – rather as a concern for the moral, peaceful and joyful value of sport (MacAloon, 2008; Parry, 2007; Young, 2004). Parry (2007) maintains that despite the elevation of excellence, achievement, effort and competition in sport, the philosophical anthropology of Olympism was also concerned with human development, justice, joy, peace and cultural alliance with the arts. This understanding of Olympism suggests that his intent was not necessarily an epistemological set of regulations, but conversely an *ontological positioning*. What I mean by this is that Coubertin lived and breathed Olympism as a way of being in and understanding the world. This understanding of his preceded charters and any set of ideals or international movement. These later institutionalizations of Olympism have evolved from governance, and it could be argued that this process has marginalized parts of Coubertin's work.

The trouble with the "big ideas" of Olympism

There is considerable debate surrounding Olympism. Horton (1998) states that "The discourse of what is undeniably one of sport's most vexatious discussion questions essentially focuses upon the merits and demerits of the ideology of Olympism" (p. 169). This can be observed in the extensive debate that spans definitions of Olympism, Olympic education and its pedagogical practice (Arnold, 1996; Carrington, 2004; Culpan & Wigmore, 2010; Da Costa, 2006; Damkjaer, 2004; Horton, 1998; McNamee, 2006; Parry, 2006; Wamsley, 2004). Primarily, debate centres on the "big ideas" being contradictory to the common perception of the Olympic Games. Secondary debates consider the extent to which the "idea" of Olympism are linked to Eurocentrism, romanticism, humanistic positioning, philosophy and gender inequality as well as their (ir)relevance to the contemporary era (Binder, 2001; Brownell, 2004; Chatziefsthathiou, 2007, 2012; I. Culpan, & Wigmore, S., 2010; Da Costa, 2006; Georgiadis & Syrigos, 2009; Hoberman, 2004; Lenskyj, 2013; Tomlinson, 2004; Wamsley, 2004). Da Costa (2006) claims that those who do understand the intricate detail of Olympism (academics, philosophers) tend to be isolated from the amateur, sporting environments of the anticipated audience (the public, teachers, sports coaches). Olymp-

ism is then viewed as different entities: the Olympic Games on the one hand, and the educational philosophy on the other (Booth, 2003; Da Costa, 2006).

This exceedingly brief comment on the debate offers just a small insight into the complexity of Olympism. For the most part, interpretations of Olympism's "big ideas" stem from a set of ideals that govern how the principles of Olympism should be observed in one's life and sporting practice. These criteria can be found in the first fundamental principal stated in the IOC Olympic Charter:

Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, a way of life based on the joy of effort, the educational value of good example, social responsibility and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles. (International Olympic Committee, 2016, p. 11)

Often, the criteria are reduced to four points. For example, in *Understanding Olympism* published by the New Zealand Olympic Committee (2001):

1. *The balanced development of body, will and mind*
2. *The joy found in effort*
3. *The educational value of being a good role model*
4. *Tolerance, non-discrimination and respect for universal ethics.* (p.2)

However, pragmatic reduction has instigated a critique of and debate on the contentious "universality" of these ideals (Booth, 2004; Brownell, 2004; Da Costa, 2006; L. Hsu, 2000; Parry, 2006; Riordan, 1993). Consequently, alternate ways of using the ideals in educational practice have emerged: Parry's thin veneer of humanist values (2006), or Culpan, Bruce and Galvan's (2008) bi-cultural Olympism for example. This has initiated a conversation on knowledge pluralism, interpretations of Olympism and its practice within sport. However, these interpretations still seem to be emerging from an institutionalized form of Olympism. Patsantaras (2008) suggests that it is not appropriate to incorporate Olympism into educational systems without acknowledging its history and considering its complexities. Therefore, instead of focusing on the epistemological framework – i.e. the ideals – it could be helpful to return to Coubertin's ontological understandings of Olympism to explore his lived experiences of Olympism prior to this institutionalization. This paper uses joy to exemplify why this is so.

Pierre de Coubertin's joy

Coubertin argued that the body needed pleasure that enlightened the senses in movement (Loland, 1995; Müller, 2000). Etymologically, “to be joyful” meant “to rejoice”, and the word rejoice is a verb indicating a movement or action (Harper, 2017; Onions, 1966). He spoke of this action of joy being fundamental to one's ability to live a life of purpose and effort:

If someone were to ask for the recipe for “becoming Olympic”, I would say that the first prerequisite is to be joyful... The term Olympic incorrectly evokes an idea of tranquil balance, of forces in perfect counterbalance, a scale with perfect equilibrium...but come now! This is hardly human, or at the very least, hardly youthful! What feeds effort but joy! (Excerpt from Lettre Olympique VII, in La Gazette de Lausanne, no. 388, 11 December 1918, p. 1 in Müller, 2000, p. 551)

This ontological understanding of joy was more elaborate than just feeding effort, however. Despite his descriptions of muscular joy, he spoke of the need to think of joy in grander terms:

...view[ing] life from such as obstinately joyful angle proves that in this business, physical health is not everything... athletes know the price of good muscular humour and the strength of the contentment that it provides, but it is not enough to create the total joy in which another element plays a part: altruism...egotistical joy is not an intermittent sun. Altruistic joy is a perpetual dawn. (Lettre Olympique VII in La Gazette de Lausanne, no.388, 11 December 1918, p.1. in Müller, 2000, pp. 549–550)

Here, he prioritized the importance of altruism in experiencing joy, suggesting that if the focus on pleasure was egotistical in sport, then it would be short-lived. Coubertin also included a greater spiritual connection to how one experiences this embodied joy: “The enjoyment remains internal...Imagine if it were to expand outward, becoming intertwined with the joy of nature and the flights of art” (Discours prononcé par le Président du C.I.O. à la Cérémonie commémorative, Lausanne, April 1919. Special brochure [IOC Archives] in Müller, 2000, p. 552).

This is similar to an embodied understanding of pleasure that includes spiritual, social, physical, mental and emotional elements. Wellard (2013) sug-

gests that these elements operate in a cycle of bodily reflexive pleasure (BRP). The cycle of BRP shows that an embodied understanding of joy in movement is impacted by space, time, context, physiological feeling, psychological thought, social and political forces (Wellard, 2013). If joy is thought about in this way, then, ontologically, it is located as a way of being in experience, not a feeling (Gadamer, 2002; Heidegger, 1967). This is due to the complex ontological experience that is moving, playing and making meaning (Stevens, in press; Woodward, 2009, 2016).

Do we govern with the "big ideas" in mind?

This paper challenges whether these "big ontological ideas" like the embodiment of joy are considered when we think about the governance of sport. For example, the embodied altruistic joy mentioned above in Coubertin's writings is not simply "playing by the rules", shaking hands after the game, or scoring a goal. It is a joyful meaningful action through and in sport; it is human development. Sport was only one part of Coubertin's writings. He also centred on the importance of pleasure in art and aesthetics, altruism, peace, physical culture, the embodied spirit and ethics (Müller, 2000). Philosophically, Coubertin saw sport as the ideal means for human beings to develop and grow, but the pursuit was centred on development (Comité International Pierre de Coubertin, 1998; Czula, 1975; Loland, 1995; Müller, 2000). His "big ideas" – his ontology – connect with ideas of human flourishing (Nussbaum, 2000, 2011; Oatley, 1997; Whitehead, 2010). However, this flourishing and human development requires action, pedagogy. It is not something that "naturally" occurs. Simply playing or governing sport to be fair does not dictate a developmental progression into a "good" person (Arnold, 1994, 1999; Laker, 2001; Stevens, in press). Consequently, I wonder if contemporary sport is governed with the idea of pleasure and "human flourishing" in mind?

Brownell (2004) claims that Eurocentrism is acknowledged by the IOC; however, in discussion, policy and governance decisions tend to resort back to entrenched practice. This is a good example of how we have institutionalized what it means to be "normal" through our perceptions and understandings of sport. In sport, this is often performative (Tinning, 1997) and our joy is connected to this performance (Stevens, in press). Performance in sport is not overly concerned with spiritual joy, making meaning in movement, or alternate experiences of joy

(Stevens, in press; Tinning, 1997). This institutionalization of joy is reinforced by complex paradigms of power; by hegemonic discourse (Coakley, Hallinan, Jackson, & Mewett, 2009; Dagkas & Quarmby, 2012; Hokowhitu, 2004). Whether it be an Olympic sport in which, physically, bodily fluids are verified as drug-free or DNA apposite (Csordas, 2003a, 2003b; Woodward, 2009) or a local sports team in which, socially, a female body is expected to be hair-free (Dagkas & Quarmby, 2012), these regulations are normalized, accepted, embodied; they are governed. Joy is not prioritized when governance dictates that an athlete must provide a urine sample immediately after crossing the finish line. Within sport, a participant will receive pleasure from moving in ways that the sport dictates (Stevens, in press; Wellard, 2013, 2016). These moving bodies are commodified and are an example of the complex make-up of social construction, affective forces and bio-social embodiment that creates “physical capital” (Bourdieu, 1978, 1986; Foucault, 1980; Shilling, 1991; Woodward, 2009). For example, when Coubertin proclaimed “What feeds effort but joy!” (Müller, 2000, p. 551), in a sporting context this could incite healthist (Crawford, 1980; Kirk & Colquhoun, 1989) or neo-liberalist agendas (Evans, 2014; Evans & Davies, 2014; Olssen, 2004). Sporting effort could easily be interpreted here as capital or as a commodity (Bale & Christensen, 2004; Hoberman, 2004; Markula & Pringle, 2006; Shilling, 2004). This consequently controls the way we experience joy; again, the athletes must fit the edict of how sport is governed. One must therefore ask: could the governance of sport and the subsequent institutionalization of Olympism be marginalizing Coubertin’s vision of notions such as altruistic joy? Coubertin professed the importance and value of sport, but, in some ways, he also wanted sport to *prevent* governance:

...I said before that the current system engenders physical weakening and intellectual dullness, as well, as always moral collapse. So, you can well imagine what I think of plans to militarize education, and to provide a counter-weight against the fatigue caused by study through military exercises. You might well create more solid muscles that way, but you will also assuredly create minds that are even less open, and characters that are even more colorless. We have enough sheep of that kind in our poor country – we do not need any more like them. (Müller, 2000, p. 63)

Coubertin advocated independent thought and likened the governance of one’s movement to producing sheep. Etymologically, “governance” derives from

"governer", meaning "to govern, rule, command" (Harper, 2017) and the concepts of sport, rules and regulation seem synonymous (L. Hsu, 2004; McFee, 2004). However, given Coubertin's statement above, I wonder if he ever desired sport to *rule* or *command* in a way that marginalized individuality or personal meaning? He zealously argued that sport was not to discriminate: "No nation, no class, no profession is excluded" (Müller, 2000, p. 578). Yet many sporting rules, definitions, structures and types of sporting practice discriminate (Brighton, 2016; Kirk, 1992; Shilling, 1993). Joyful experiences that are not attached to the visible institutionalized performative culture of sport (Tinning, 1997), or which fail to conform to the political governance of bodies that occurs within human movement (Foucault, 1982; Shilling, 1993, 2004; Whitson, 2014), are marginalized in human movement (Stevens, in press). Perhaps sport has been institutionalized and governed with "ideals" that have detracted from Coubertin's original intent of Olympism as a state of mind, a lived and breathed way to live one's life?

To move forward we go back

This paper suggests that much of Coubertin's work is centred around epistemological, institutionalized understandings of sport and the Olympic Games. Although this interpretation plays an important role for the dissemination and the control of sport, it simultaneously marginalizes some of the "big ideas" of Olympism, like joy and human development. Epistemologically, a set of ideals seeks answers of truth – a right way. Yet, if we think of Coubertin's notions of altruistic joy as a multifarious embodied way of understanding an experience, such as joy as a way of being, this incites difference. If, conversely, sport is governed for similarity on the basis of singular epistemological interpretations, we risk missing the "big ideas".

In Coubertin's modernist space and time, his epistemology was appropriate and accessible, scholarship vital for challenging the state-led institutionalized thought that enveloped what it meant to *live one's life*. This is because we live, understand and experience in ways that are connected to the space and time in which we live (Gadamer, 2002). The language Coubertin used here was reflective of his era, therefore relevant to his cause. If conversation centres on what constitutes this paradigmatic knowledge, and how we govern this knowledge accordingly, we may well be missing a "big idea" within sport. Coubertin's ontological

understandings of Olympism somewhat challenge the epistemological governance of sport in institutionalized forms. This can be seen in the way we experience and value joy for human development. Perhaps we should revisit the “big ideas” and the ontological understandings of what Coubertin wanted to achieve with Olympism before we contemplate the governance of sport and Olympism. This requires us to think back to before the ideals and the institutionalization.

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SPORT EDUCATION MODEL WITH OLYMPIC VALUES EDUCATION PROGRAMME IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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Abstract

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to examine Malaysian Chinese High School students' responses to a unit in the Sport Education Model (SEM) infused with the Olympic Values Education Programme (OVEP) over a 20-week period. **Methods:** Forty-eight twelfth grade students (28 males and 20 females, average age 16) will participate in the basketball season. Data collection consisted of videotaped records of all 20 lessons, a reflective field diary kept by the teacher, students' learning sheets, and team focus group interviews. Trustworthiness criteria for assuring the quality of qualitative research included extensive data triangulation. **Expected conclusion:** Participating in the study may result in students improving their cognitive test and perceptions of OVEP along with increasing their knowledge and understanding of the context of Olympism and the Olympic spirit. Other benefit should include more positive social interactions between the students and higher levels of student engagement. The findings of this research study may provide useful information to teacher education institutions and other related units when designing physical education (PE) programmes, allowing them to increase student awareness of OVEP and thus produce high-quality PE programmes which can help develop students' overall physical health and moral growth.

Keywords: Sport education model, Olympic Values Education Programme (OVEP), physical education, students' perceptions

Introduction

In 2012, the Malaysian Ministry of Education (MOE) developed the Education Blueprint for 2013-2025 to inspire the education system as a whole to promote access, quality, equity, unity and efficiency (MOE, 2012). While a quality physical education (PE) programme provides students with opportunities to achieve these five outcomes, many PE teachers use traditional, direct teaching styles that fail to allow these aspects to fully develop. Within their teaching, PE is organized into units that are short in duration (sometimes lasting no longer than five to six lessons), resulting in student experiences that are shallow and incomplete. In contrast, the sport education model (SEM) developed by Daryl Siedentop in 1994 is designed to educate students to be players in the fullest sense and to help them develop as competent, literate and enthusiastic sports players (Siedentop, 1994). The SEM has six key features which are designed to give sport meaning and make it an authentic experience in a PE context. These features are: seasons, team affiliation, formal competition, record keeping, culminating events and festivity.

Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy of effort, the educational value of a good example, social responsibility and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles (IOC, 2015). The subject of Agenda 2020 recommendation 22 was to “strengthen the International Olympic Committee (IOC)’s partnership with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) to include sport and its values in school curricula worldwide” (IOC, 2014). The Olympic Values Education Programme (OVEP) is a practical set of learning resources designed to inspire and allow youth to demonstrate social responsibility and to spotlight the significance of utilizing sport. Five education values are addressed in this OVEP toolkit to incorporate learning in the affective (social/emotional), cognitive (intellectual) and kinaesthetic (physical) domains. These are the pursuit of excellence, fair play, the joy of effort, respect for others, and balancing body, will and mind.

Olympic values education has the potential to help educators and coaches guide their students and their athletes to seeing the world and each other in a different way, to changing their behaviours so they act in a different way and

come to understand and experience the joys of achievement (Binder, 2012). An examination of the underlying philosophies of the SEM and the OVEP would suggest that they should make an ideal coalition. While the SEM can increase perceptions of a task-based, autonomous climate, and in so doing enhance the motivation of high school students in relation to PE (Wallhead & Ntoumanis, 2004), it can also be designed with the Olympic values in mind; indeed, in his original text, Siedentop describes such a partnership. However, there has been no examination to date of such a curriculum or the perceptions of high school students participating in it.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to examine Malaysian Chinese High School students' responses to a unit of the SEM infused with the OVEP over a 20-week period.

Research question

In order to describe twelfth-grade students' responses and perceptions during the learning of basketball, the study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What do students understand about Olympism following participation in SEM seasons?
2. What particular aspects of the SEM help promote the OVEP?
3. How do students demonstrate Olympism in their physical education lessons and in their lives?

Methods

1. Participants

Forty-eight twelfth-grade students (28 males and 20 females, average age 16) will participate in the study. The study was explained to the Malaysia Chinese High School, which granted permission for the research to proceed during school time and on school premises, with participants to be identified in conjunction with the Head of the Physical Education Department. Having gained permission for the study to proceed, the next step was to determine the study participants.

2. The season plan

The students will participate in seasons of basketball design and teach following the principles of sport education and OVEP. The students will be divided into eight mixed-ability teams by the teacher, based upon their previous performances in the class with respect to skills dimensions.

Twenty SEM sessions were conducted, with each session lasting 45 minutes. All the seasons followed the format recommended by Siedentop, Hastie, and Van der Mars (2011), meaning they took place across four phases: (1) a teacher-directed skill-development phase followed by (2) pre-season scrimmages, (3) a formal competition season, (4) a post-season championship and culminating event (Appendix 2).

During the game development phase (9 sessions), the students were given whole-class direct instruction on the key technical and tactical features of secondary school basketball, along with an Olympic element. Most lessons consisted of 3x3 mini games, the mini format serving to highlight certain technical or tactical aspects of play. The Olympic activity focused on some history of the Olympic Games and their underlying philosophy.

The team practice and pre-season phase (4 sessions) was designed primarily for students to practice playing games without the emphasis being on the final score. During this phase, the students also learned the various administrative and officiating responsibilities associated with these games. The teacher's roles were to intervene in games to clarify rule interpretations, to help the statisticians and score keepers complete their forms, and to help the students gradually assume responsibility themselves for conducting the games. No points were awarded towards the league standings for these performances.

During the formal tournament competition phase (4 sessions), points were awarded to teams based upon the games' final scores, but also on the basis of a referee's report relating to the good sporting behaviours shown by the teams.

The final phase (2 sessions) consisted of a class championship and the culminating awards ceremonies at which awards were presented to the winning teams, the best officials, and to students, both for showing significant improvement and demonstrating outstanding fair play behaviours.

3. Data collection

Mixed methods will be used to examine participant perception during the 20

basketball lessons. Data were collected from the following sources: (1) videotaped records of lessons, (2) field diaries, (3) learning sheets, (4) team focus group interviews.

- (1) Lesson videotape records: All of the 20 lessons will be videotaped using two crossed-angle digital camcorders, allowing in-depth access to the events occurring within the units.
- (2) Field diary: An initially descriptive field diary of the 20 lessons will be prepared immediately after teaching session observations as a record of the investigator's own impressions and perspectives. The focus will be on teaching methodologies, student activities and behaviours.
- (3) Learning sheets: At the end of the lesson, the teacher will be asked to submit a written account of their experience of the session, both from a pedagogical perspective and with respect to their perception of student engagement. For example: "Write down one thing you have learned in the lesson that you felt was most important; suggest one area in your life that you can start to respect other cultures". Each lesson has difference topics.
- (4) Team focus group interviews: Interviews were conducted with sample teams at the start, mid-point and end of the season. Semi-structured questions were used to gauge their responses (Appendix 4), beginning with a request for the team to select one card to answer (Appendix 3) on their Olympic knowledge and to make a general comment on the basketball season. Follow-up questions focused more specifically on those aspects the students did or did not enjoy, together with any suggestions they had for changes in future seasons. The interviews took for about 60 minutes. In order to maximize their quality, the interviewees were provided with an information sheet which allowed them to know what my research was about, as well as a guarantee that the interviews would be treated anonymously. Along with the information sheet, the interviewees were given a number of open questions and time to reflect on and prepare their most adequate and constructive answers. All in-depth interviews were individual and carried out in a friendly and relaxed manner. They were recorded using a digital voice recorder and subsequently transcribed. Interviews took place in a quiet room without distractions.

4. Data analysis

The constant comparison method (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011) will be used to analyse the data inductively. The qualitative data will be reviewed repeatedly and continually coded to identify similarities and differences, groupings, and patterns.

5. Trustworthiness

Strauss and Corbin (1998) mention that striking a balance between objectivity and sensitivity as a researcher and ensuring a high level of trustworthiness are important considerations for studies of this sort. In this study, we will be established trustworthiness using data triangulation involving cyclical and iterative data collection and analysis of different data sources. The ongoing interpretations from class events were continuously crosschecked with additional data generated.

Expected conclusion

Participation in the study may result in improved student perceptions of OVEP and an increase in their knowledge and understanding of the context of Olympism and the Olympic spirit. Other benefits should include more positive social interactions between the students, and higher levels of social responsibility. All of these should contribute to a more effective learning environment and higher levels of student engagement. The findings of this research study may provide useful information to teacher education institutions and other related units in designing PE programmes that increase student awareness of OVEP, thus producing quality PE programmes that help develop students' overall physical health and moral growth.

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Appendix 1

Team Captain's Contract

Grade _____ Basketball Season

_____ Team Captain's Contract

The captain's responsibilities are:

- Demonstrate fair play
- Lead team warm-ups
- Report improper dress
- Remind players of game times
- Assign playing positions
- Organize their team on the field
- Have good knowledge of the rules
- Demonstrate good safety practices
- Demonstrate good class conduct

Captain's signature

Team signatures:

Appendix 2

The Basketball Season Plan

Sessions	Key Content	SEM Concept	OVEP Concept
1	• Introduce and outline the unit	• Announce teams • Elect captains & Team Captain's Contracts (Appendix 1)	• Baron Pierre de Coubertin and the Olympic Movement – <i>Respect for others</i> – <i>Balance</i> – <i>Fair play</i>
2	• Review game skills	• Whole class skills practice	• Hosting an Olympic Games – <i>Balance</i> – <i>Pursuit of excellence</i> – <i>Fair play</i> – <i>Respect for others</i> – <i>Joy of effort</i>
3	• Introduction to 3x3 games	• Within-team practice	• The Olympic symbol – <i>Respect</i> – <i>Excellence</i>
4	• 3x3 cutting and passing	• Within-team practice	• Flying the flag • Igniting the spirit: the Olympic flame – <i>Respect</i>
5	• 3x3 mini games	• Within- and across-team	• Logos and mascots – <i>Balance</i> – <i>Respect</i> – <i>Joy of effort</i>
6	• Shooting clinic	• Whole class skills practice	
7	• 3x3 games - rebounds	• Within-team practice	
8	• 3x3 mini games	• Across-team practice	
9	• 3x3 defensive tactics	• Within-team practice	
10	• Skill Test		
11	• Team practice	• Team problem-solving tasks • Duty team responsibilities	• Living by the rules of fair play – <i>Fair play</i> – <i>Respect</i> – <i>Balance</i>
12	• Team practice	• Team problem-solving tasks • Duty team responsibilities	
13	• Pre-season competition	• Team problem-solving tasks • Duty team responsibilities	• The Olympic Games opening ceremony – <i>Pursuit of excellence</i> – <i>Balance</i> – <i>Respect for others</i> – <i>Fair play</i>
14	• Pre-season competition	• Team problem-solving tasks • Duty team responsibilities	

15	Tournament Round 1	• Team problem-solving tasks • Duty team responsibilities	• Sport and art in ancient Greece – <i>Respect</i> – <i>Balance</i> – <i>Excellence</i>
16	Tournament Round 2	• Team problem-solving tasks • Duty team responsibilities	
17	Tournament Round 3	• Team problem-solving tasks • Duty team responsibilities	• Sport and art in the modern Olympic Games – <i>Respect</i> – <i>Balance</i> – <i>Excellence</i>
18	Tournament Round 4	• Team problem-solving tasks • Duty team responsibilities	
19	Playoffs	• Team problem-solving tasks • Duty team responsibilities	• The Olympic Games closing ceremony – <i>Pursuit of excellence</i> – <i>Balance</i> – <i>Respect for others</i> – <i>Fair play</i>
20	Championship game Awards and presentation	• Culminating event • Duty team responsibilities	

Appendix 3

Question card

1. When were the first ancient Olympic Games held?
2. Where were the first Olympic Games held?
3. Why did the ancient Games stop?
4. When and in which country were the Olympic Games revived?
5. Who designed the Olympic flag?
6. When and where did the first Olympic torch relay take place?
7. What are the five colours of the rings?
8. What is the motto of the Olympic Games?
9. Who was the founder of the ancient Olympic Games?
10. Who was the founder of the Modern Olympics?

Appendix 4

Interview

1. Please give feedback about this basketball season. Why?
2. What role did you play in this basketball season?
3. What did you learn from this basketball season?
4. Did you enjoy or not enjoy this basketball season? Why?
5. What would your suggestions be for future seasons? Why?

EXERCISE= SUPPLEMENTS? ETHICAL DILEMMAS RELATING TO THE SALE OF SUPPLEMENTS IN FITNESS CLUBS

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Imagine you are a young boy or girl. You are considering becoming a member of a fitness club for the first time and visit one of the biggest local fitness clubs. The first thing you see when you enter the fitness club is a wall full of products for sale. Next to the sportswear and gym equipment, you find a large selection of supplements with marketing that claims they can increase your performance and results at the gym. There are powders and capsules to be taken before a workout for increased energy, during a workout to maintain energy levels and reduce fatigue, and after a workout for increased restitution and muscle growth. Some products claim to increase your body's testosterone level and reduce soreness in the muscles, while others claim to increase the metabolism and hence the body's fat burning abilities. When these products are the first thing you see on entering a fitness club, how does it affect you?

1. Introduction

According to Pierre de Coubertin and his value system, Olympism, physical activity is crucial to both public health and personal development. Coubertin built the philosophy of Olympic Ideals upon sport and training, which he considered crucial for the development of the human being as a whole: body, mind and spirit. He was convinced that physical education was a necessity in the development of young people (Coubertin & Müller, 2000). In Norway today, fitness clubs are the preferred place for working out, and one third of Norwegians are members of such a club (Virke Trening, 2016). This makes fitness clubs an important arena for research on health, diet and exercise as well as on fitness culture in terms of the norms and values these practices create (Loland, 2015).

The background for this paper is that one of the largest fitness chains in the Nordic countries recently started collaborating with several supplement distributors and is now selling and promoting these products in its gyms. The aim of this literature study is to answer the following question: Do ethical dilemmas arise when a fitness chains starts to sell supplements at their gyms; if so, what are they?

2. Theory

2.1 Fitness and the fitness culture

Today, you can find gyms all over the world. As well as being essential to our understanding of health, diet and exercise, the development of these fitness gyms has also led to the development of a new fitness culture. Fitness and its accompanying fitness culture originated in the US before spreading to the Nordic countries in the 1980s. The term fitness comes from the English “*to be fit*” and involves strength training, group training and different wellness activities like yoga (Barland, 2016). This kind of exercise differs from regular sport in so far as it focuses on the individual, aiming to improve both their health and their athletic “look” (Steen-Johnsen, 2010). Fitness is a growing global industry, with its own global fitness culture (Andreasson & Johanson, 2015). Within this culture, a fit body – a strong body with low body fat and visible muscles – is perceived as the ultimate goal and looked upon as proof of your knowledge about training, diet and exercise. A fit body can therefore translate into social status (Engelsrud, 2015). It is not a coincidence that both the global fitness culture and the supplement industry are experiencing growth at the same time: some entrepreneurs have learned to take advantage of today’s pressure to look fit and healthy and developed thousands of different products that can help people on their way to becoming fit and good-looking. The list of products is endless, and new supplements are introduced daily (Andreasson & Johanson, 2015; Andreasson, 2014).

2.2 Supplements

When we work out, we break down our muscles and our body, and it is therefore important that we fill up after training with food that contains carbohydrates, fat and proteins. However, many people exaggerate this need and take supplements even if their needs are already covered by their normal diet. In 2004, the global market for supplements was estimated to 60 million USD (Garthe & Helle, 2016). In Norway alone, the market size in 2010 was estimated at 2 million USD

(Amundsen, 2012). The sale of supplements is increasing daily, even though many studies show that most of these products are unnecessary, and that both normal people and top athletes can cover their nutritional needs through their normal diet (Garthe & Helle, 2016; Helsedirektoratet, 2014). A lot of the marketing used to sell supplements refers to research that is wrong or inadequate. Most of the studies that the supplement distributors refer to and use in their marketing are not qualified studies; they are often studies carried out or paid for by the supplements company itself, and have never been accepted for publication (Raastad, 2013).

Supplements in themselves may not be dangerous, but replacing normal food with supplements can tamper with the balance of your diet, leading to a deficiency in many other important micronutrients, such as vitamins and minerals. Today, whey proteins are one of the most popular supplements, because studies have shown that the body use these proteins quickly, providing the muscles with a rapid stimulus. Such supplements are indeed efficient in the short term, but studies analyzing the longer-term benefits show that the protein intake will slow down after some hours. No research has shown a direct correlation between the use of protein supplements and a more rapid increase in muscle mass. The popularity of whey proteins is a result of conclusions based on only the first hours after ingestion. Research has also shown that taking more proteins than your body needs will not result in additional strength or muscle growth; the extra proteins will be converted into nitrogen, which the body will discard in urine. Research has also shown that the body will store the extra proteins as fat, which means that an exaggerated protein intake can actually result in weight gain (Garthe & Helle, 2016; Blomhoff, Bjørneboe & Drevon, 2007).

So why is the sale of supplements still increasing? Young people today strongly believe in the complementarity between protein intake and gym workouts – which is to say that the supplement-industry’s marketing strategies have created a need that does not, in reality, exist (Andresson, 2014). In this paper, I will examine the responsibilities of fitness clubs in relation to this development.

2.3 Ethics and grey areas

The ethical theories of *utilitarianism* and *virtue ethics* provide the core for the discussion in this paper. The word “ethic” comes from the Greek word *ethos*, which means attitude or character. Ethics is defined as learning about or reflection on morality. In turn, the word “moral” comes from the Latin word *mos*, meaning custom (Johansen, 2000). Ethics are more than just ideals, they also

contain a critical perspective. In ethics, we systematically and critically reflect on actual and possible moral norms and values (Loland, 2015).

This paper employs applied ethics, which are reflections on what is good or bad, wrong or right in the specific context under examination: in this case, the sale of supplements. I will apply the aforementioned ethical theories in order to analyze moral issues concerning the sale of supplements. *Utilitarianism* was developed *inter alia* by Jeremy Bentham, who was inspired by David Hume. According to *utilitarianism*, an action is morally right if it constitutes the best alternative for every affected individual. Classical utilitarianism states that an action is correct according to how much goodness and happiness will result from it. In this paper, I have used *utilitarianism* to reflect on the health consequences of supplements and discussing how good or necessary they really are for your body. Plato and Aristoteles were two important philosophers who have affected the theory of *virtue ethics*. They explained that there are basic virtues that are more important than duties and consequences. Using their *virtue ethics*, I will look at the development of values and attitudes as the supplement industry grows and the use of supplements if you work out becomes normalized (Loland, 2015; Sagdahl, 2015). The dilemma around the supplement industry is what we call a “grey area”, which the Norwegian dictionary defines as “a subject that is not clearly one or the other and is open for interpretation” (Internasjonale Ordboken, n.d.). It is not forbidden to sell supplements in Norway, but does that mean it is okay?

3.0 Method

To answer my question in this paper, I will be carrying out a literature study. Literature studies are always qualitative (Laake, Olsen & Benestad, 2008). In this paper, I have used mostly primary sources, to reduce the risk of misinterpretation and inaccuracy. The material is not complete, but has been chosen for its ability to bring depth to the chosen topic. The ethical theories I have used in this paper are taken from Loland’s (2015) book *Idrettsetikk* ([sport ethics]. I have read a lot of research on supplements, but my main literature on this subject is Garthe og Helle’s *Idrettsernæring* [sports nutrition] (2016), which sums up a lot of the research that has been done. The facts about the Norwegian gym industry are taken from reports made by the Virke Trening organization, a company that provides network services and consultancy to professionalize Norway’s gyms and fitness industry.

4.0 Results

I will now present three different ethical dilemmas which I think a fitness chain should discuss and reflect upon before it collaborates with producers and suppliers of artificial supplements, and before they advertize and sell their products. The discussion will deal with gym employees' awareness of the fact that supplements are not necessary, but rather a need created by the industry, and that some of the products might contain banned substances or serve as a door-opener to more dangerous and prohibited practices.

4.1 The employees' level of awareness

The first dilemma is linked to *utilitarianism* and the consequences of a gym selling different supplements. The dilemma relates to the employees' level of awareness about these different supplements. The debate on the use of artificial supplements is ongoing in different media. Thousands of "experts" argue over supplements, based on either their own experiences or research, making it difficult to navigate around the many opinions on the topic of "training and diet" (Halvorsen, 2015). Let us return to the scenario outlined at the beginning of this paper: you are at the gym and unsure of what product you need, why you need it, and what effects it has. It is not unlikely that you ask the person at the front desk. And here is the first ethical dilemma: how aware is this individual? To be a receptionist in a gym in Norway, you do not need any educational or other specific qualifications. So, what kind of background does this person have which prepares them to provide guidance to a young boy or girl regarding their need for proteins? People are different and have different needs, so in what way is the receptionist qualified to evaluate this?

The employee is most likely loyal to their workplace, and may feel obliged to sell as much as possible, which will impact on the truthfulness of their answer. Most likely, the young boy or girl will trust the "professional", especially if the receptionist is fit and looks like he or she is knowledgeable about training. In the discussion surrounding training and diet, a fit and trained body is looked on as a proof of that person's knowledge. He or she knows what they are doing, and stand as proof of success. If the young boy or girl gets advice from the person at reception about different supplements and are told that a particular supplement will maximize the effect of their training, they are highly likely to buy it, even though it might not actually be true. It is not illegal, but is it right?

4.2 Supplements are industry-created and unnecessary

From a *utilitarian* point of view, it is easy to understand why a fitness chain would want to collaborate with distributors of artificial supplements. Both the fitness gym and the distributors will earn money on the deal. The gym, naturally, wants to sell the products that provide the highest profit in the largest possible volume. As I mentioned, only a few people have problems covering their needs through a normal, varied diet, but we continue to be spammed with commercials about all these “must have” products (Raastad, 2013). There is a broad consensus that the young boy or girl who enters a fitness gym for the first time does not need any artificial supplements. It is a waste of money, and for many people not even healthy (Instefjord, 2016). But, when the first thing that meets him or her at the fitness club is a wall of supplements, it is easy to make the connection that going to the fitness club equals supplements. This applies to many people, not only the young.

Considerable emphasis is now put on the body, and on how having a fit and good-looking body can build social status (Engelsrud, 2015). When studies show that there are few or no grounds to say that supplements are needed for better health and results, is it not cynical on the part of the fitness chains to advertize and promote these products? The industry helps to fabricate a need, and when a fitness chain promotes these products, it enhances the impression that they are needed. Are commercial and economic gains the only thing that matters? The vision of the Nordic fitness chain discussed in this paper is: “We will make the Nordic people healthier and happier” (Satselixia.no, n.d.). Has the fitness chain reflected on how their cooperation with supplement manufacturers relates to this vision? How will the sale of supplements make the Nordic people healthier and happier?

4.3 The products are unsafe and can serve as an entrance to doping

The third and last dilemma is linked to *virtues ethics* and examines the values that develop with the sale of supplements. Several studies have shown a connection between supplements and doping (Backhouse, Whitaker & Petroczi, 2013; Dyregrov, 2015; Antidoping Norge, n.d.; Olympiatoppen, n.d.). This connection is twofold: First, research has shown that people with doping experience also have a higher consumption of protein powder and other supplements (Barland, 2016). Second, since supplements are neither food nor medicine, their regulation falls between the two relevant authorities, as a result of which no public quality control for nutritional supplements, natural remedies and non-medicinal

natural preparations can be carried out. This translates into the possibility of their containing banned substances which are not declared on the product's label (Antidoping Norge, n.d.; Olympiatoppen, n.d.). The Anti-Doping Agency in Norway (ADNO) has a strict attitude towards the use of artificial products. ADNO affirms that there is a high risk that supplements that increase muscle growth or burn fat contain prohibited substances (antidoping.no, n.d.). Some of the positive doping tests in top international sport have been caused by "contaminated supplements" (Garthe & Helle, 2016). In Norway, customs authorities, food safety authorities, medicines agencies and ADNO warn people about the risks that come with taking supplements. The risk is linked to inaccurate declarations of contents, contamination and, in some cases, dangerous products. Despite the warnings, the marketing and sales of supplements keep on increasing (Barland, 2016).

A possible third link between supplements and doping is that the former can serve as a gateway to the latter. When an 18-year-old experiences the results of protein powder and then stagnates, he or she will quickly resort to other available products. When the supplements do not give the desired results, only one option remains. The results are due not to the protein powder, but to the fact that the persons taking the powder generally becomes more conscious about their training and diet (Backhouse, Whitaker & Petroczi, 2013). Through the sale of products and other "shortcuts" to success, fitness gyms are building an unhealthy culture. In what direction should a fitness chain influence this development? What is next? From a *virtue* perspective, these are not the kinds of values and attitudes we want to develop in the younger generations. Hard work is a virtue that we should value; we should not take shortcuts with legal or illegal supplements.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, I have discussed ethical dilemmas regarding gym employees' levels of awareness and the fact that most supplements are unnecessary and could serve as a door-opener for doping. The fitness gyms' main reason for selling these products is most likely financial gain, as the supplements do not cover an actual need. The need is, in fact, created by people who earn money from promoting and selling these products, and the fitness clubs are now helping perpetuate this need by promoting them at their gyms. When people and businesses you have faith in and look up to start to promote these products, you will

be affected. But what responsibility should the fitness chains take? It is not illegal to sell supplements, but does that mean it is okay?

After discussing this question, I hold the view that artificial supplements both present an unnatural relationship towards food and reduce knowledge of – and confidence in – the body. It has been shown that a healthy and varied diet actually provides all the nutrients the body needs, however active an individual's lifestyle. I believe that the gyms certainly have a moral – if not legal – responsibility: they are responsible for the attitudes and values they convey to their customers. Selling protein and other supplements conveys attitudes and values that have nothing to do with physical activity and health, although a young and insecure gym member could easily be led to believe that there is a natural and necessary connection between exercise and supplements. When big fitness chains collaborate with the producers of these supplements, it reinforces these impressions. There are young people out there who think the exercises they do in the gym will not have the desired effects if they do not also drink a shake of proteins after the workout. I think this is problematic and that further research in this area should be undertaken.

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FOOTBALL INJURIES CAUSED BY IMPERMISSIBLE CONTACT IN THE OLYMPIC GAMES. EPIDEMIOLOGICAL STUDY AND FAIR PLAY PROMOTION PROGRAMME

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Introduction

Concerning what has been formerly presented at the Experts' Agreement of the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) (Fuller et al., 2006), it is of the utmost importance to discern if an injury is the result of contact with another player in the course of an irregular action or if, on the contrary, such an action is allowed by the rules of the given sport.

The Olympic Games have a major social impact on the whole world and are regarded as a “sports feast” crowning the Olympic ideals. This is why they must be implemented in a manner which emphasizes the values that underlie the ethos outlined in the Olympic Charter. The Olympic Charter, as itself states, is “*a basic instrument of a constitutional nature, [which] sets forth and recalls the Fundamental Principles and essential values of Olympism*” (O.C., 2015, p.11). It also encloses the “educational value of good example” as its first fundamental principle and “fair play” as its fourth – with ‘fair play’ understood in general terms as respect for the athletes as well as the rules.

At the same time, according to the Olympic Charter, the primary function of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) is:

to encourage and support the promotion of ethics and good governance in sport as well as education of youth through sport and to dedicate its efforts to ensuring that, in sport, the spirit of fair play prevails and violence is banned (O.C., 2015, p.18).

Subject of study

The subject of this paper are injuries caused by unlawful contact not allowed by the rules of football. We will be viewing such injuries in the light of the aforementioned postulates that constitute the Olympic philosophy and the precepts that the Olympic Movement endorses in the Olympic Charter. We will attempt to discern whether competition taking place in accordance with this philosophy and these precepts is more fair than in other international competitions of the same modality, and hence whether the fundamental principles that form the basis of the Olympic Movement are being put into practice.

Subsequently, we present an intervention suggestion for reducing the number of injuries caused by impermissible contact in football; based on the promotion of *fair play*, the intervention seeks to increase the use and practice of the values the Olympic philosophy is striving to develop.

Project objectives

To recognize injuries caused by actions not allowed by the rules of football in the Olympic Games and other international events in both male and female competition.

To present a formative and informative proposal designed for the football referees and players who participate in the Olympic Games, which aims to reduce the incidence of injuries caused by impermissible contact, and to help put into practice the principles the Olympic Charter advocates for promoting *fair play* in a way which also presents the “*educational value of good example*” (O.C., 2015, p. 13).

Background and state of play

Injury prevention is a complex phenomenon best regarded using a multi-factorial approach. Trying to reduce the incidence of injury by aiming to improve an isolated risk factor is both simplistic and inefficient.

Contact with another player has been identified as the factor that most frequently relates to an injury (Stubbe et al., 2015). Consequently, having a strategy for promoting respect for the rules as well as the opponent must be an

essential tool for use by the regulatory authorities of the competition.

Several authors have alluded to the need for suggestions for supporting and promoting *fair play* (Benson et al., 2013; Brunelle, Goulet y Arguin, 2005). The usefulness of fair play has led to the creation of professional-level programmes in several sports, and to considerable research in the sphere of ice hockey.

These programmes have presented two well-differentiated lines:

- Interventions seeking to develop personal habits, conducts or characteristics such as personal and social responsibility, followed by observations seeking to discern their influence on behaviours relating to *fair play* and self-control (Cecchini, Montero y Peña, 2003).
- Propositions whose strategies seek to intervene more directly in the lack of *fair play* – through responses, for example, to infractions of the rules. These kinds of propositions have occasionally focused on the winning of prizes by awarding points in competitions for lower numbers of infractions (Marcotte y Simard, 1993).

Although both perspectives have proved useful in promoting *fair play*, it would be difficult to offer rewards for respecting the rules in the form of points or goals in a competition such as the Olympic Games. Their group structure would mean that points obtained in this way could represent the difference between moving or not to the next stage and hence the disregarding of other performance indicators.

Method

Our research started with a review of databases of bibliography references relating to our subject: contact injuries in football.

This quest led us to the term and concept of ‘epidemiology’, which we can understand as the study of the distribution and determinants of a pathology in the human being (Woodward, 2013). Epidemiological studies, especially those that study the cause of a sports injury, require the standardization of both the concept of injury and method of reporting used.

In relation to objective number 1 of the present study, we have only included those papers that fulfil a series of objective criteria relating to standardization. These form part of the data that correspond to the first objective and consist of:

- Those papers that used a standardized injury reporting system (either that of the International Sports Committee [Junge et al., 2008] or the FIFA Injury Reporting System [Junge, Dvořák, Graf-Baumann and Peterson, 2004]).
- Those papers in which injuries were annotated by the physician of the national team according to their interpretation of the rules of the game and of the injury (which do not always match the criteria of the match referee). In these two cases in which the physician is responsible for the injury reports, the validity of the data is greatly improved, since there is a high incidence of error when the referees make in vivo reports, due both to the speed of the action and the competitive tension. The literature indicates a 70% degree of agreement between arbitral decisions taken in vivo and the opinions of three ex-FIFA international referees (Fuller, Junge and Dvořák, 2004). However, other research has found a 85% agreement between referees and a panel of experts (Andersen, Engebretsen and Bahr, 2004).
- Epidemiological records for senior category football competitions at the international level.

Having selected the data contained in the various publications that were relevant to our primary objective, we proceeded to annotate, classify, analyze and contrast the data in order to respond to the first part of our study. Subsequently, we reflected on their quantitative data in order to offer conclusions consistent with the premises of our first objective.

Regarding our secondary objective, we looked at proposals developed by different initiatives with similar objectives. Analyzing their contents and adapting it to the specific sport of football and the specific conditions of the Olympic Games, we then elaborated a programme aimed at promoting *fair play* to referees and players. Its purpose: to reduce the incidence of impermissible contact injuries in Olympic football.

Likewise, new lines of research have been proposed as a result of this study. Awareness and knowledge of the magnitude of the problem (epidemiology), meaning the number of injuries and their characteristics, should be the foundation on which all future prevention work is based (Van Mechelen, 1992).

Results

Although the comparison of injury incidence (figure 1) between international competitions has to be treated with caution due to the presentation of mean and relative values in certain competitive structures, after our analysis, we can offer the following results as quantitative aspects to be reflected on:

- The average number of injuries caused by impermissible contact in the men's football competitions at the Olympic Games 1998-2012 was 41.6% of the total injuries; this compares with, for instance, 35.3% in the 2002 FIFA World Cup, 21.2% in the 2001 Confederations Cup, and 24.4% in the 2004 Eurocup.
- In female football competitions, we found a similarity between the values for the Olympic Games and other international competitions. The average number of injuries caused by impermissible contact in the Olympic Games 1998-2012 was 19.1%, well below the 32% at the 2001 Confederations Cup, but higher than the 11% recorded at the 2005 World Championship. However, it should be noted that the volume of epidemiological data is much lower than it is for men's football.

The table below lists the selected data and their sources acquired from compiling quantitative results obtained from the bibliography and the aforementioned documentation:

Competition	Male		Female		Reference
	Injuries caused by non-allowed contact in relation to all injuries (n, %)	Injuries caused by impermissible contact in relation to all contact injuries (n, %)	Injuries caused by impermissible contact in relation to all injuries (n, %)	Injuries caused by impermissible contact in relation to all contact injuries (n, %)	
1994 FIFA World Cup**	29%				Hawkins and Fuller, 1996
Sydney 2000 Summer Olympics	61/112 (54.5%)	61/96 (64%)	11/32 (34.4%)	11/27 (41%)	Junge et al., 2004
2001 Confederations Cups	7/33 (21.2%)	7/33 (21.2%)	7/22 (32%)		Junge et al., 2004
2002 FIFA World Cup	59/167 (35.3%)	59/115 (51%)			Junge and Dvořák, 2015
2004 Eurocup	11/45 (24.4%)				Waldén, Hägglund and Ekstrand, 2007
2005 Women's Senior Championship			2/18 (11.1%)		Waldén, Hägglund and Ekstrand, 2007
2006 FIFA World Cup	57/142 (40.4%)	57/93 (61%)			Junge and Dvořák, 2015
2010 FIFA World Cup*	19/121 (15.7%)	19/79 (24%)			Junge and Dvořák, 2015
2011 WAFU Nations Cup	39/89 (43.8%)	39/73 (53.4%)			Akodu et al., 2012
2014 FIFA World Cup	22/121 (21.8%)	22/63 (35%)			Junge and Dvořák, 2015
1999, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2009 Confederations Cups	32/114 (28.1%)	32/65 (49%)			Junge and Dvořák, 2013
1998-2012 Summer Olympics	114/274 (41.6%)	114/181 (63%)	39/204 (19.1%)	39/107 (36.4%)	Junge and Dvořák, 2013

* Injury mechanism was obtained by a different questioning method.

** Not included in this study because it does not meet the standardization criteria.

Figure 1: Epidemiological data for international competitions since 1994.

Source: own elaboration.

Conclusions

Therefore, we can conclude that in the men's Olympic football competitions, there are more injuries caused by impermissible contact than in other international competitions. In women's football, there are big differences between competitions and no clear trend can be discerned.

Background and reflections on the second objective

In football, there are two key agents in a game's development, namely the only people allowed to be on the field during a competition match: the players and the referee. The present proposal to promote *fair play* takes this into account, with a theoretical-practical educational structure for players, and an informational structure for the referees.

Following the proposal of Hassandra, Goudas, Hatzigeorgiadis and Theodorakis (2007), the main goal of the intervention would be to help the participants develop fair play behaviours during competitions. According to the guidelines that these authors propose, we suggest the use of a theoretical basis such as social learning (Bandura, 1977).

Thus, our proposal to promote *fair play* to football players participating in the Olympic Games has the following structure:

1. Direct instruction on the rules and regulations (Cecchini, Montero and Peña, 2003).
2. Specific training in the Fundamental Principles of Olympism, the structure on which the football competitions and the Olympic Games are organized. Proposals for reflection on the obvious coherence of the principles of Olympic philosophy and the sporting practices developed in the different editions of the Games.
3. Information on the quantitative data on injuries caused by contact in football competitions, obtained to meet the first objective of this study. Reflections on the qualitative impact in the circumstances of those affected.
4. Brief discussions and practical debates. Demonstrations of desirable behaviours and suggestions as to the behaviour most suited to players, coaches and referees in relation to a particular event in a game (Hassandra et al., 2007).

The instruction on the rules will focus on those rules relating to foul play and the penalties these entail. Issues related to the material or measures of the playing field should be avoided. In relation to the fundamental principles contained in the Olympic Charter, players will be informed that membership of the Olympic Movement entails a requirement to conform with its ideals. A specific analysis of the norms of the Charter referring to *fair play*, non-violence, respect and the Olympic spirit, friendship, solidarity and social responsibility will be made. In relation to the latter, particular importance will be assigned to the repercussions of players' performance and actions, given that, as players of a sport of great social depth in the population, they will have a decisive impact through the "*educational value of good example*" (O.C., 2015, p.13).

Sessions will not be of a didactic nature and will use audiovisual support tools such as videos to illustrate the regulations and competitive expressions of the Principles. From a more practical perspective, the assumptions will seek to place the athletes in the position of the referee; this fulfils a double function: it encourages understanding and recognition of the importance of normative infractions in competitions, and it also gives the players an insight into the referee's position, the disrespect they are often subjected to and the apprehension they must feel.

With regard to the specific intervention proposal for the referees group, we believe that this group has a very solid knowledge of the rules. The intervention therefore needs a different perspective: the Olympic Movement and the Fundamental Principles of Olympism, on the one hand, and the data included in the present study whose ultimate goal is to reduce the number of injuries caused by impermissible contact. The referees' programme will consist of a session before the start of the Games, at which we will discuss the fundamental principles brought together in the Olympic Charter. An exposition of the results that correspond with the primary objective of this investigation and the relationship between their function and the incidence of injury will be made in an attempt to help them establish a connection between their job and the promotion of the Olympic spirit.

Attitudes towards *fair play* will be evaluated both before the intervention and at the end of the participants' participation in the Games in order to establish (1) a correlation between the promotion programme and attitudes towards *fair play*, and (2) between these attitudes and the incidence of injury from impermissible contact in the competition. To this end, the fair play attitudinal scale presented by Boixadós (1995), and recovered from Boixadós, Cruz, Torregrosa and Va-

liente (2004), will be used with its three categories: ‘*rough play and cheating*’, ‘*enjoyment*’ and ‘*the importance of winning*’. The scale consists of 22 items to be filled in as a Likert scale, presented in affirmative form, in order to serve as an example (e.g. “In football, the final result is the most important thing” or “It’s acceptable that a team plays rough if the other team does the same”).

Guidelines of action and new research lines

The *International Fair Play Committee* (IFPC), whose mission it is to defend and promote fair play worldwide (International Fair Play Committee, 2015), could be the perfect tool for carrying out a programme for promoting *fair play* in the Olympic Games in cooperation with the IOC. We propose the implementation of a programme to promote *fair play* not only in football competitions but also in all those modalities in which systematized research reveals a lack of respect for the fundamental principle which is today most visible to the general public as it is expressed through the “*educational value of good example*”.

On this basis, it is vitally important that epidemiological studies and games analysis is carried out in football to provide the objective data that will allow us to establish patterns of action depending on modality, gender, age and even competitive structure. We therefore consider the following new lines of research into the promotion of the Fundamental Principles of Olympism to be of especial interest:

- Epidemiological studies into the number of injuries caused by behaviour displayed by players competing in the Games, especially in those modalities in which direct contact is permitted. The subsequent analysis of the selected indicators and attitudes and behaviours of athletes in terms of *fair play* and regulations.
- Development of *fair play* promotion programmes according to the sport modality and the indicators used to establish the need for them.
- Referee performance analysis, as referees are responsible *in situ* for compliance with the rules of the game.

All this in order to implement those aspects that characterize Olympism in the Olympic Games, as defined in the Olympic Charter:

Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy of effort, the educational value of good example, social responsibility and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles (O.C., 2015, p. 13).

Actions should therefore be put in place to reduce the current levels of infringement in order to reduce the number of injuries those breaches cause. This would imply a qualitative leap in terms of purity of competition, which will impact not only on the *value of good example*, but also on the performance itself and the *joy of an effort* whose results cannot be adulterated by a lack of respect for common standards.

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**FROM LONDON 2012 TO RIO 2016:
ANALYSIS AND COMPARISON OF ELITE SPORTS POLICIES IN TEAM
AND INDIVIDUAL SPORTS IMPLEMENTED IN THE UNITED KINGDOM
AND FRANCE TO OPTIMIZE THEIR PERFORMANCES
AT THE SUMMER OLYMPIC GAMES¹**

Sylvia-Line LAMARO (FRA)

Abstract

The objective of this study is to identify, analyse and compare the elite sports policies implemented in the United Kingdom (UK) and France to achieve gold medal performances at the Summer Olympic Games from London 2012 to Rio 2016 (one Olympic cycle).

The two countries were chosen in the light of their common macro variables in terms of population size, geography, wealth and ideology.

This research will focus on team as well as individual sports, and will be conducted using the SPLISS (Sports Policy Factors Leading to International Sporting Success) model developed in 2002 by a group of researchers.

This model deals with the strategic policy planning process that underpins the development of successful national elite sports development systems. It examines how nations develop and implement policies based on critical success factors that may lead to a competitive advantage in the world of sport.

The overall objective of this study is to support administrators from international sports organizations, as well as sports governance and performance directors from Sports Performance Centres, by helping them to improve their theoretical understanding and methodical approach to key policy factors which are essential for a nation to deliver outstanding performances at the Olympic Games.

1. A dissertation submitted to the International Olympic Academy in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of MAS in Sport Administration & Technology.

INTRODUCTION

The high-performance sports environment

Sport is playing an increasingly important role in a world of changing economic, political, cultural and social systems. Along with the FIFA World Cup, the Summer Olympic Games is the highest profile event in the global sporting calendar.

Over the last few decades, the competition in international sports in general, and the Summer Olympic Games in particular, has increased considerably, and more nations are adopting strategic approaches to developing world-class athletes. This has resulted in increasing amounts of money being invested in elite sports development by many nations.

In their quest for international success in a globalizing world, the elite sports systems of leading nations have become increasingly homogeneous. The fundamental principle of a “global sporting arms race” defined by Oakley and Green in 2001 emphasizes the fact that international sporting success can be produced by investing strategically in elite sports. Some nations such as Iran, China and Qatar have indeed increased their competitiveness in the elite sports environment, which has led to an increase in the number of medals they win at the Summer Olympic Games.

The optimal strategy for a nation to deliver international success at the Olympic Games, however, cannot be evaluated purely in the light of the financial strategies behind it. Conducting a systemic analysis based on identifying the factors that feed into elite sports performance policies is one approach to this challenge.

Therefore, this study will focus on analyzing: why some countries win more medals than others; how much countries invest in elite sports; how policy makers can influence the success of their athletes; what makes an elite sports policy effective and efficient; how should success be measured; and how nations prioritize their elite sports investments.

To do this, the elite sports policies that have been implemented by the UK and France to achieve top performances at the Summer Olympic Games from London 2012 and Rio 2016 in team and individual sports will be analyzed and compared.

Determining and demarcating of the problem

The key questions about high-performance sports policies that this study will look at are the following: 1) Why was the UK so successful at the Rio 2016 Olympic Games compared to France? 2) How can policy makers influence the success of athletes in those two countries? 3) How do the UK and France prioritize their elite sports investments? 4) How should success be measured? 5) What makes an elite sports policy effective and efficient?

The aim of the study

The aim of this study is to identify, analyse and compare the elite sports policies implemented in the UK and France to achieve gold medal performances at the London 2012 and Rio 2016 Summer Olympic Games. These two countries have been chosen for their common macro variables in terms of population size, geography, wealth and ideology.

This research will be conducted using the SPLISS (Sports Policy Factors Leading to International Success) model. SPLISS has been developed by a consortium of researchers, policy makers and performance experts who cooperated to identify the main high-performance sports policies. Drawing on various international competitiveness studies, it examines how nations develop and implement policies that are based on the critical success factors that may lead to a competitive advantage in world sport. The SLISS model is based on the following nine pillars:

Pillar 1: Financial support

Pillar 2: Governance, organization and structure of sport policies

Pillar 3: Foundation & participation

Pillar 4: Talent development and talent identification system

Pillar 5: Post-career and athletic career support

Pillar 6: Training facilities

Pillar 7: Coaching provision & coach development

Pillar 8: International competition

Pillar 9: Scientific research & innovation

Objectives

The objective is to support both administrators from international sports organizations and governments and performance directors from Sports Performance Centres by helping them improve their theoretical understanding and methodical approach to the key policy factors which are essential for a nation to deliver an outstanding performance at the Olympic Games.

In addition, the paper will attempt to:

- Inspire nations that are looking ahead to developing their own sports policies with the aim of shining at the upcoming Summer Olympic Games in Tokyo 2020
- Provide International Federations with a tool for engaging their National Federations and measuring their success from an elite performance perspective
- Demonstrate an instrument that can be used by National Olympic Committees to evaluate the effectiveness of their current elite sports policies
- Analyse the level of performance of the French and British Olympic National Teams with a view to reinforcing their strengths, reducing their weaknesses, exploiting opportunities and overcoming threats

Limitations of the study

The focus on two European countries, which were strategically chosen due to their similarities in terms of demographic, geographic location and economic systems, can be viewed as one of the main limitations of this research. However, a framework has been defined to compare the similarities.

The sample, which will be collected by interviewing experts from the sports performance environment, could have been more representative. However, while the number of interviews undertaken could have been greater than five, the experts identified are quite high-profile and have been involved in different ways at the London 2012 and/or Rio 2016 Olympic Games.

Even though the SPLISS model can be viewed simply as an extension of Porter's five forces analysis framework, it has been chosen to support the comparison of the two countries, as it provides a multidimensional approach (input, throughput, output, feedback) to an effectiveness evaluation of elite sports policies.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REVIEW

The Olympic Medal Table in London 2012 and Rio 2016

The Olympic medal table is a method of sorting the medal placement of countries in the modern-day Olympics and Paralympics.

While the IOC does not officially recognize a ranking of participating countries at the Olympic Games, it does publish the medal table for information purposes, showing the total number of Olympic medals earned by athletes representing each country’s respective NOC. The convention used by the IOC is to sort countries by the number of gold medals their athletes have won. In the event of a tie in the number of gold medals, the number of silver medals is taken into consideration, and then the number of bronze medals. If two countries have an equal number of gold, silver and bronze medals, they are ordered in the table alphabetically by their IOC country code.

The two tables below cover the 2012 and 2016 Summer Olympic Games. The total number for Great Britain has increased from 65 (2012) to 67 (2016). The total number for France has increased from 35 medals (2012) to 42 (2016). Great Britain went up in the ranking by one place, whereas France remained in the same position.

2016 Summer Olympics medal table					
Rank	NOC	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1	United States (USA)	46	37	38	121
2	Great Britain (GBR)	27	23	17	67
3	China (CHN)	26	18	26	70
4	Russia (RUS)	19	17	19	55
5	Germany (GER)	17	10	15	42
6	Japan (JPN)	12	8	21	41
7	France (FRA)	10	18	14	42
8	South Korea (KOR)	9	3	9	21
9	Italy (ITA)	8	12	8	28
10	Australia (AUS)	8	11	10	29

Table 1: 2012 Summer Olympics medal table

2012 Summer Olympics medal table

Rank	NOC	Gold	Silver	Bronze	Total
1	United States (USA) ‡	46	28	29	103
2	China (CHN) ‡	38	29	21	88
3	Great Britain (GBR)*	29	17	19	65
4	Russia (RUS) ‡	20	18	31	69
5	South Korea (KOR) ‡	13	9	8	30
6	Germany (GER)	11	19	14	44
7	France (FRA) ‡	11	11	13	35
8	Australia (AUS) ‡	8	15	12	35
9	Italy (ITA)	8	9	11	28
10	Hungary (HUN) ‡	8	4	6	18

Table 2: 2016 Summer Olympics medal table

When we looked at the gold medals won by the two countries in London 2012 and Rio 2016, we saw that some sports are more successful than others. We might therefore ask whether the funding provided by the UK and/or France had changed between Olympiads.

Gold Medals at the Olympic Games in 2012

United Kingdom: Athletics, Canoeing, Cycling, Equestrian, Rowing, Sailing, Tennis, Shooting

France: Athletics, Canoeing, Cycling, Handball, Judo, Swimming

Gold Medals at the Olympic Games in 2016

United Kingdom: Athletics, Boxing, Canoeing, Diving, Equestrian, Field Hockey, Golf, Gymnastics, Rowing, Swimming, Taekwondo, Tennis, Triathlon, Boxing, Equestrian, Fencing, Handball, Judo, Rowing, Sailing, Swimming

France: Boxing, Canoeing, Equestrian, Fencing, Judo, Rowing, Sailing

From this list of sports, we can see that the most successful sports remain quite similar from one Olympiad to the next. The following analysis attempts to understand the structures of these two countries, before providing a detailed analysis of their respective sports policies.

The sports performance actors in the UK

The sports environment sector in the UK is complex. Many organizations, both governmental and non-governmental, are involved in the development and implementation of sports policy.

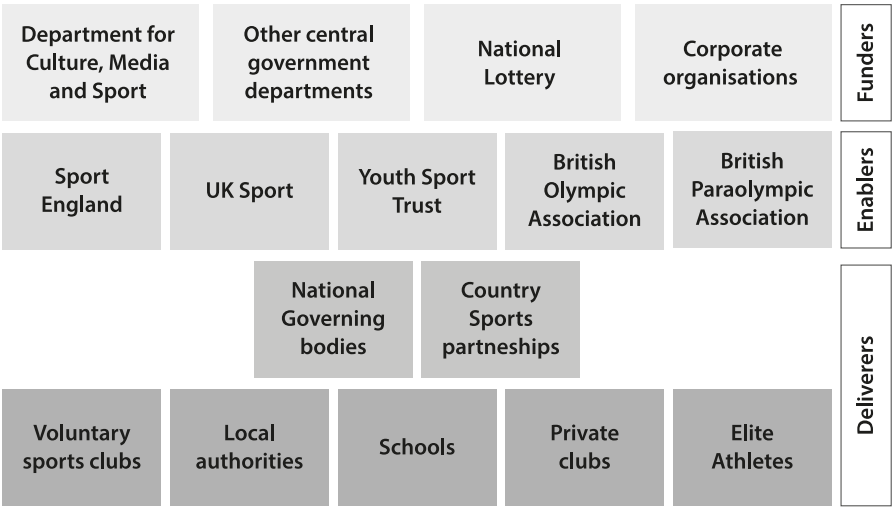


Figure 1: The sport system in the UK

The four main organizations involved in leading the country at the highest level at the Olympic Games are: UK Sport, the British Olympic Association, Sport England and the English Institute of Sport.

Sport England manages investment in community sports and in certain areas of school sports. Its main role is to distribute public funds to the national governing bodies of sport (£450 million between 2013 and 2017) to implement their plans for increasing and maintaining sports participation and improving sports club structures, coaching and sports facilities.

The English Institute of Sport helps coaches and performance directors to improve the performance of their athletes by delivering services that enable them to optimize training programmes, maximize performance in competitions, and improve the health and well-being of athletes. This is the country’s largest provider of sports science, medicine, technology and a range of added-value benefits to different sports including world-class performance environments.

The British Olympic Association (BOA) is the National Olympic Committee for Great Britain and Northern Ireland. It was formed in 1905 by an Act of Parliament; at that time, National Governing Body members included fencing, cycling, rowing, athletics, rugby, football and archery. The BOA has two principal roles: Firstly, to prepare and lead the nation's finest competitors at the Summer, Winter and Youth Olympic Games. Working with the national governing bodies (NGBs), the BOA selects Team GB from the best sportsmen and women to compete at the Olympic Games. Secondly, the BOA seeks to develop, promote and protect the Olympic Movement within the UK, in accordance with the Olympic Charter and the Olympic values. The BOA is independent and privately funded, receives no annual funding from the lottery or government, and has no political interests. The success of its mission is entirely dependent upon the income it receives from fundraising and events.

UK Sport is the UK Government's organization for directing the development of sport within the UK. The organization works with each team's performance team to assess and reflect on areas of strengths and weaknesses. UK Sport analyzes athlete development and support programmes in three key areas:

Athletes: performances, development profiles, well-being, health, commitment
System: the staff, structure, facilities, processes, knowledge and expertise
Climate: the culture and day-to-day workings experienced by athletes and staff

The organization manages investment in high-performance sport. It invests around £100 million of public money every year, distributing funds to the national governing bodies of sport so they can implement their Olympic and Paralympic plans and coordinate the bidding and tagging of major international sporting events and their collaborations with partner organizations in the sphere of international development.

UK Sport's vision is to inspire the nation through Olympic and Paralympic success.

The French high-performance sports system

Compared to the UK, where various actors are involved in the elite sports system, the French high-performance sports system has three main actors: the

French Olympic Committee, the French Ministry of Sport, and the National Institute of Sport, Expertise and Performance (INSEP²).

The elite sports policy is led by the Ministry of Sport and implemented through its performance centres: the INSEP and 16 Centres for Resources, Expertise and Sports Performance (CREPS³). High-performance sport is recognized in various laws and regulations as well as in the Charter of High Performance Sport, which mentions the role of top athletes as examples. The National Commission of High Performance Sports (CNSHN) is the national institutional consultative body responsible for all major guidelines for high-level sports.

The Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports oversees the political aspects of the sports performance environment. In 2002, the status of the “elite athlete” was adopted with a view to providing French athletes with support in relation to education, dual careers, finances, reconversion, a retirement pension, sponsorships and employment opportunities.

The status is divided into six categories with specific requirements defined for inclusion on the Official List of Elite Athletes.

Categories	Requirements
Elite	Athlete who achieves a performance or a significant ranking, either individually or as a member of a French Team, at the Olympic Games, World Championship, European Championship or in competitions on the list maintained by the National High-Level Sport Commission.
Senior	Athlete selected by the National Team’s National Technical Director to prepare for official international competitions leading to an international title or to the establishment of an international ranking.
Youth	Athlete selected by the Federation for the National Team to prepare for competitions in their age category leading to a title or the establishment of a ranking.
Reconversion	Athlete who has been entered in the list of high-level athletes in the Elite category or the other two categories for four years, and who presents a project of professional insertion.
Espoir	Athlete who is at least 12 years of age (in the year of entry onto the list), who has sports skills in recognized high-level disciplines certified by the National Technical Director, but does not fulfil the conditions for inclusion in the lists of top athletes.

2. Institut National du Sport, de l’Expertise et de la Performance.

3. Centres de Ressources, d’Expertise et de la performance sportive.

Training Partner	Only those athletes participating in the preparation of French team members may be entered on this list. The lists of athletes and training partners is drawn up each year by the Minister for Sport in the light of proposals made by the national technical directors of the federations concerned.

Table 3: Elite athletes categories

In November 2015, the breakdown of the “Elite Athlete” category was as follows:

Categories	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Elite Athletes	7 018	6 954	6 951	6 484	6 225
Elite	722	738	725	798	773
Senior	2 522	2 504	2 476	2 228	2 216
Youth	3 617	3 556	3 572	3 291	3 080
Reconversion	167	156	178	167	156
Espoir	7833	7903	7629	7613	7 313
Training Partners	244	262	282	336	309
Total	15 105	15 119	14 862	14 433	13 847

Table 4: Elite athletes categories

Founded in 1894, The French Olympic Committee is responsible for France’s participation in the Olympic Games. INSEP contributes to France’s policy of developing physical and sporting activities, particularly at the elite level, by assisting and supporting the country’s Olympic and Paralympic federations and by enhancing the training provided to elite sports coaches. Founded in 1945, INSEP provides an environment in which sporting talent can be developed to pursue excellence in sport. Other than sports facilities, the support given to athletes includes elite coaching and training, sports science, sports medicine, strength and conditioning, athlete affairs and education, applied research and sports information.

METHODOLOGY

Presentation of the SPLISS Model

This section endeavours to provide a framework for assessing how the UK and France manage their success in international sports competitions.

To do this, the study will use the SPLISS project, which has been developed by a consortium of researchers, policy makers and high-performance experts who have cooperated to identify the main high-performance sports policies. Drawing on various international competitiveness studies, SPLISS examines how nations develop and implement policies that are based on the critical success factors that may lead to a competitive advantage in world sport.

The factors influencing success can be classified into three levels: the macro-, meso- and micro-levels. Macro-level factors influence the (dynamic) social and cultural environments in which people live and include the economy, demographics, geography and climate, degree of urbanization, politics, and national culture. Meso-level factors influence the policy environment at the national level. The micro level includes factors that influence the success of individual athletes, ranging from the influence of inherited genes to the social influence of parents, friends and coaches.

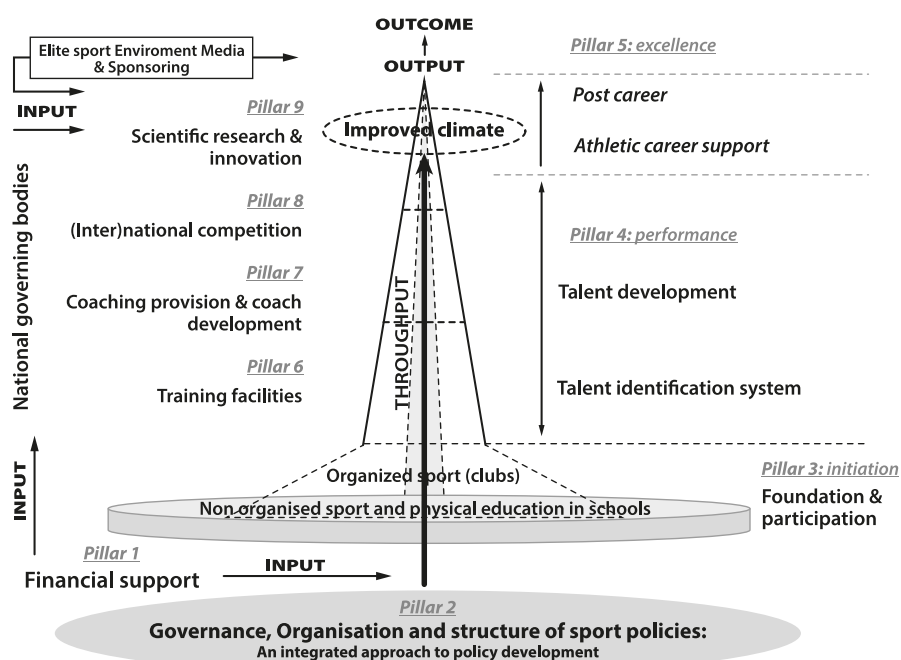


Figure 2. The SPLISS model: theoretical model of nine pillars of sports policy factors influencing international success (adapted from De Bosscher et al, 2006).

This model uses a multidimensional approach to evaluate effectiveness at the level of ‘inputs’, ‘throughputs’ and ‘outputs’ as defined by the nine different pillars below.

The process of data collection

A mixed methods research protocol will be used in this study for collecting and analyzing a comprehensive amount of data on the nine pillars and critical success factors.

Data will be collected by means of domestic studies in both the UK and France. First, documentary research will be used to collect objective policy data on the nine pillars. Second, five interviews of ten minutes each will be conducted to evaluate the elite sports climate within the nine pillars from the perspective of top elite athletes, top coaches, politicians and high-performance directors. Interviews will be conducted with:

- Valerie Fourneyron, Former French Minister of Sport
- Yannick Borel, Foil Team Gold Medallist, Rio 2016
- Jean-Frannois Robin, Sport Research Director, INSEP
- Jade Jones, Taekwondo, Women’s flyweight Gold Medallist, Rio 2016
- Liz Nichols, UK Sport Chief Executive

A list of two to four criteria need to be addressed for each pillar of the SPLISS model in order to understand the operationalization of the nine pillars. Depending on the pillar to be developed, this study would be best suited to a qualitative method, which will compare the two countries.

Pillars	Method
Financial support	Quantitative method
Organization and structure of sport policies	Interviews & scoring system
Foundation & participation	Quantitative method
Talent identification & development system	Qualitative system
Athletic & sport career support	Athletes interviews & Qualitative method
Training facilities	Qualitative & quantitative methods
Coaching provision & coach development	Qualitative method
International competition	Qualitative & quantitative methods
Scientific research	Interview and quantitative method

Table 4: SPLISS model methodology breakdown

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THE LEGACIES OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW AND COMPARISON BETWEEN SUMMER AND WINTER GAMES

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1. Introduction

The London 2012 Olympic Games are also known as “The Legacy Games”. The creation of a positive legacy was the focal point during the bidding phase and, of course, after the Games. Generally, the creation of a positive legacy when staging Olympic Games has become ever more important in recent years, as host cities are asked to justify spending billions of euros on a sports event that only lasts two weeks. The legacy of the Olympic Games can be defined as “all planned and unplanned, positive and negative, tangible and intangible structures created for and by a sport event that remain longer than the event itself” (Preuss, 2007, p. 211). Consequently, legacy is multidimensional and complex, especially when it comes to its evaluation and measurement. There has therefore been a considerable growth in legacy research, which can also be attributed to the IOC making it mandatory for hosts to produce legacy plans in 2000. As a result, the London Games had a strong impetus to create a positive legacy for the city. Many academic papers dealing with the London 2012 legacy have been published, along with a considerable number of official reports. Consequently, there are a large number of articles on the subject, with a range of different methods and results. This paper aims to review the literature concerning the legacy of the London 2012 Olympic Games in a systematic manner. The results of the review will allow the London legacy to be evaluated critically and from different perspectives.

2. Method

Generally, systematic reviews are important in identifying trends, synthesizing findings, and setting directions for future research agendas. Systematic reviews involve three key activities: 1) identifying and describing the relevant literature, 2) critically appraising the literature in a systematic manner, and 3) bringing the findings together in a coherent statement known as a synthesis (Gough, Oliver & Thames, 2012).

This systematic review of the Olympic legacy was conducted in accordance with PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews Meta-Analyses) guidelines (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff & Altman, 2009). The aim of these guidelines is to help authors to improve the reporting of systematic reviews. Questions that guided the review are given below in full:

- 1) Which legacies of the London 2012 Olympic Games could be identified?
- 2) Which methods have been used to measure the London 2012 legacy, and how appropriate and reliable are they?

2.1.1 Analysis

For this review, the Web of Science academic database was searched. This database was chosen as a multidisciplinary database with over 90 million records. Variants of the following search terms were used: “London Olympics”, “London Olympic Games”, “London 2012” combined with (“and”) “legacy”, “legacies”, “impact”, “leverage” and “leveraging”. The search process revealed 153 sources dealing with the London Games and their legacy. However, most of the studies had to be excluded since they did not fulfil the criteria for the review: for example, many studies were published prior to the Games, while a large proportion examined legacy, but not in a way that would enrich this review. Such articles deal, for instance, with legacy planning, governance of legacy, the rhetoric of legacy, or the implementation of policies which should serve as a basis for legacies etc. This significantly reduces the number of studies that measure legacy (or at least try to) and are relevant for the purposes of this review. All in all, 32 articles were synthesized.

To describe the findings of the articles, a content analysis was conducted with regard to the review questions. A mixture of line-by-line and open coding was used to identify relevant facets of each article. This process built a preliminary

framework for later analysis. Additionally, the methodology of each article was reviewed to identify the method used to measure legacy. Once the relevant content of each article had been identified, a narrative synthesis was conducted. The synthesis sought to consider seven different aspects of legacies: (1) urban development, (2) environment enhancement, (3) policy and governance, (4) skills knowledge and networks, (5) intellectual property, (6) beliefs and (7) behaviour.

3. Results

3.1.1 General Distribution of papers and core legacies/topics

The analysis includes 13 empirical papers and 19 that were conceptual or commentary. The largest group of articles focus on the sport participation legacy (22%), the second largest on urban regeneration (16%). Other papers deal with the legacies of the Cultural Olympiad, of transport and tourism, or provide an overview of all legacies (e.g. ESRC, 2015; DCMS, 2013). Some of the articles give a very detailed picture of the London legacies.

Many articles dealing with the London legacy are public documents. These sources must be considered carefully since they often served as marketing tools rather than providing findings from objective research (McGuinness, 2014). Legacy is often used as a discursive political tool for the justification of public money spend. This seems to be the case, at least, for the post-Games evaluation report on the impacts and legacy of London 2012 compiled by DCMS (2013). Furthermore, these public documents often make very vague assertions; for instance: “*We believe that these arrangements will have an impact on the extent to which the UK is able to secure the maximum possible legacy from the Games*” (House of Lords, 2013, p. 88, italics my own) or “[...] the Games had helped to improve public perceptions of volunteering, and *this might have a positive impact on the willingness of individuals to come forward as volunteers*” (ibid, p. 84). Such statements were not included in the subsequent synthesis since they are neither objective nor valid; they are assumptions.

3.1.2 Urban development

The 226-hectare Olympic Park provides many facilities for Londoners, including two primary schools, a secondary school, nine nurseries, three health centres, and a number of multi-purpose community, leisure and cultural spaces. Furthermore, 80,000 square metres of business space plus 100 hectares of green space

were created (Daothong, & Stubbs, 2014; DCMS, 2013). The Queen Elizabeth Olympic Park, as it is now known, is well used by the public and provides enhanced recreation and leisure activities in this part of London (ESRC, 2015). Further legacies can be reported for another key Olympic venue at Weymouth and Portland. The venue benefitted from an enhanced natural conservation status, increased capacity for tourism, and infrastructural improvements (ESRC, 2015).

East London has enjoyed a massive change in accessibility and in transport facilities thanks to the Docklands Light Rail, Jubilee line extension, Cross Rail and High Speed Rail (Scott, 2014; Thornley, 2012). These, along with the Stratford station enhancements, London Overground improvements, new cycle ways and walking routes, and highway improvements constitute the London transport legacy (Sumner, 2012). The airport received major improvements as well as new road and rail connections plus personal rapid transport (Kassens-Noor, 2013). ESRC (2015) evaluates the transport legacy as positive and describes the rail transport infrastructure as exemplary, yet a different report evaluates the transport infrastructure of the Games critically (House of Lords, 2013). Assessing the real legacy of the transport infrastructure empirical studies is thus mandatory.

Another aspect of urban development was the investment in almost 1 500 sport facilities, including the building of six permanent venues (DCMS, 2013). The permanent venues are securely owned and managed and in popular use. The venues that are open for both elite and public use are: the Stadium, the Copper Box, the London Aquatics Centre, Lee Valley Velopark, Lee Valley Hockey and Tennis Centre, Lee Valley White Water Centre, the Hadleigh Farm Mountain Bike course, and Dorney Lake regatta centre (ESRC, 2015).

In terms of housing, studies provide mixed results, depending on the stakeholder perspective. On the one hand, numerous new homes were built. The Olympic Park hosts nearly 10,000 new homes. However, 1,000 planned homes were cut from the revised legacy plan (Evans & Edizel, 2017). The long-term development will see 24,000 new homes built by 2030. A pledge has been made to make a significant amount (35%) of these affordable. This target has been reduced in the case of the Chobham Manor neighbourhood to 30% from 40% (*ibid*). The Athletes Village provides 49% affordable housing, including accessible and family housing (Bernstock, 2013; DCMS, 2013). On the other hand, the Olympic housing legacy is limited for existing working-class East Londoners, since affordable housing and community facilities that benefitted lower-income

East Londoners were removed for the Games facilities (Watt, 2013). This statement is in line with Bernstock (2013), who evaluated the housing legacy for East London as negative, on the grounds that the new housing in the East Village units does not compensate for the housing lost due to other projects. The lessons of London suggest that “mega events are not the most appropriate vehicle for meeting the housing needs of low-income families” (Bernstock, 2013, p. 169). She further asserts that the high level of affordable housing was a result of market failure rather than planning agreements.

To deliver a cultural legacy, an Olympic Park cultural legacy strategy was developed.

However, there is no empirical evidence for the projected vision that local communities would benefit from the Games. Opportunities for the local creative industry were missed, and there is a clear gap between Olympic rhetoric and local reality (Pappalepore & Duignan, 2016).

A critical view of the London legacy is given by Poynter, a researcher from the University of East London. He comments that “East London got a stadium it didn’t need, more four- and five-star hotels it didn’t need, and additional high-rise, high-priced developments it didn’t need” (Zimbalist, 2015, p. 116). Generally, it is still difficult to assess the true physical transformation legacy, since it will not be fully realized for a number of years (DCMS, 2013).

3.1.3 Environment enhancement

The London 2012 sustainability programme accounts for various environmental legacies, and the diffusion of sustainability good practices around the Games could create a legacy. In terms of water efficiency, high levels of water saving could be achieved through several installations and new standards (Daothong & Stubbs, 2014). The Old Ford Water Recycling Plant is a wastewater treatment facility built for the Games. The plant provides recycled water to the venues and infrastructure on the Park for non-potable use (ESRC, 2015).

Another part of London’s legacy stems from the regeneration and restoration programme on the waterway network.

The waterways improve the quality of the environment through creation and protection of bio-diverse habitats, are a local asset which helps to define ‘place’, and they act as a further catalyst for regeneration (Nicholls, 2014, p. 45).

Furthermore, a sustainable flood risk management system was established to reduce flood risk and thus improve the quality of life for thousands of East London residents. Improved water quality, habitat creation and biodiversity also need to be mentioned (ESRC, 2015; Palmer, Ker-Reid, Venn & Bruni, 2014). However, in terms of water quality, the results have been modest and more need to be done to deal with the urban runoff that feeds into the River Lee (ESRC, 2015).

3.1.4 Policy and governance

There is evidence of sustainable food policies from the London 2012 Games being adopted by other events. One example of the London food legacy is the “sustainable fish city”, an initiative which ensures that people eat only fish that is demonstrably sustainable (Daothong & Stubbs, 2014).

To meet packaging requirements for the Games, companies had to adjust their product packing. After the Games, the companies continued to use these across their businesses, resulting in a waste legacy (Daothong & Stubbs, 2014).

3.1.5 Skills, knowledge and networks

There is clear evidence that the Games helped organizations to develop new skills, partnerships, approaches and strategies (House of Lords, 2013; Gilmore, 2014). Moreover, significant legacy outcomes in terms of enhanced business capacity were realized (Weed, 2014). Changes in working practices by London business led to flexible working practices in order to increase productivity, and these are now being taken forward and used after the Games (DCMS, 2013).

About 10,000 permanent jobs were created to operate the Westfield Stratford City shopping centre. It is estimated that roughly one in every three jobs would not have been created without the London Games (DCMS, 2013).

For the London 2012 Games, knowledge was developed in many areas. Through the dissemination of learning, methods and tools, a smooth knowledge transfer was achieved. The “learning legacy” initiative can be seen as both a legacy of the London Games and of the Olympic Movement. This initiative provides an archive of reports, case studies and research papers to share the knowledge and communicate lessons learned at London 2012 in their entirety (Daothong & Stubbs, 2014; ESRC, 2015).

Another real achievement of the Games is the development of the expertise, international standing and self-confidence required to bid for and host major sport-

ing events in the future. This is underlined by the record of successful bids made for major events over the years following the Games, which was already impressive (ESRC, 2015; House of Lords, 2013). One example are the lessons learned from London's security planning, which have been transferred to preparations for other sport events in Britain, such as the 2014 Commonwealth Games (Coaffee, 2015).

3.1.6 Intellectual Property

The London 2012 Games developed the new ISO 20121 standard which helps organizations in the events industry to improve the sustainability of their event-related activities, products and services. It has been widely adopted around the world (e.g. the World Expos in Milan 2015 and Dubai 2020, the Glasgow 2014 Commonwealth Games) (Daothong & Stubbs, 2014; ESRC, 2015).

London 2012 also pioneered new methodologies for measuring the carbon dioxide footprint of mega-events (ibid).

In addition, LOCOG introduced a comprehensive Sustainable Sourcing Code which was applied across all major supply, licensing and domestic sponsorship deals. It was complemented by an innovative Complaints and Dispute Resolution Mechanism (an approach subsequently adopted by Adidas), while many other elements of the Code have been taken forward by future Olympic organizing committees and large corporations (ESRC, 2015).

3.1.7 Beliefs

It can be assumed that the Games contributed to an improved image of Britain, since the country has moved up one place since the Games to be ranked fourth in the Nations Brand Index (DCMS, 2013). The Olympic Games also helped to change the general image of East London (Thornley, 2012).

London residents have differing attitudes towards the Games and their legacies. One survey undertaken with young people reveals that 84% of respondents believe that the Olympic Games have made a positive difference to the UK, while 61% agreed that the Games inspired them to aim higher and work harder and so transform their lives (DCMS, 2013). The Host Borough Survey revealed that Newham residents were quite positive towards the Games and its legacies. The regeneration process triggered by the Games was a main driver for moving to the area for 42% of the respondents (Evans & Edizel, 2017).

However, other people have a negative perception of the Games and their

legacies. Lower-income residents in particular do not feel that they have benefited from hosting the Games (Watt, 2013). Another survey among host borough residents revealed that respondents did not believe that hosting the Games contributed to community spirit (Evans & Edizel, 2017).

3.1.8 Behaviour

Increasing physical activity was one of the major goals for the London Games. Several articles deal with the enhancing of sports participation, but all studies (bar one) used as their principal sources two national surveys: the Active People Survey (APS) and the Taking Part Survey (TPS). These data have, however, been subject to criticism on a number of counts, and both studies are limited by their chosen methodology. Thus, they are cross-sectional rather than longitudinal, which makes it impossible to trace changes in individual patterns of behaviour (Henry, 2016). Further limitations result from the method of data collection, the size of local samples, and the lack of data relating to the younger population, which were a priority target group (House of Lords, 2013, Henry, 2016). The comparability of the two studies is also limited by the use of different questioning, sampling and interviewing strategies (Henry, 2016). Consequently, the data do not provide a valid and reliable base for quantifying a participation legacy. This is also evident from the different results of the articles, although the articles rely on the same sources. The meta-evaluation of the Impacts and Legacy of the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games states that both studies indicate increases in the percentage of adults participating in sport in the immediate wake of the Games (DCMS, 2013). However, other articles interpret the data more critically and find no evidence for a significant surge in participation levels up to 2011 across the population as a whole (House of Lords, 2013; ESRC, 2015; Henry, 2016). From October 2012 to March 2015, APS data even show a tailing off of participation (Henry, 2016). These results are also underlined by a qualitative study that revealed that watching Olympic athletes compete is unlikely to inspire participation among inactive people. There could even be negative effects whereby people may be discouraged due to the perceived competence gap (Carter & Lorenc, 2015). The House of Lords Select Committee concluded that:

The UK faces an epidemic of obesity and the promise of inspiring a new sporting generation was a crucial and tantalising part of the legacy aspiration. A

post-Games step change in participation across the UK and across different sports did not materialize” (House of Lords 2013, p. 5)

Another legacy goal was to inspire a generation and to increase opportunities for children to access sport and physical activity. However, programmes which enabled funding of school sports like the School Sports Partnerships were stopped in the run-up to the Games and an alternative programme which could deliver significant increases in participation in school sport was needed. As a result, a new funding mechanism in the form of a Sport Premium was provided, but the legacy is a little less certain. According to the House of Commons Education Committee (2013), the Sport Premium is inadequate and insufficient to allow a longer-term provision to be built.

In addition to the question of whether a sport participation legacy can be evidenced, the attribution of sport participation legacies to Games programmes and interventions is also controversial. DCMS (2013) states that sport participation is impacted by a range of factors. The Games contributed to the increase in sport participation through investments in almost 1,500 facilities and sport programmes and through their motivational impact. However, TPS shows that only 12.0% of adults who were already participating in sport said they had been motivated to do more sport by the UK winning the bid to host the Games. Of adults who were not already participating in sport, 3.3% said they had become more interested in sport by the UK winning the bid to host. These figures show that how Games interventions influenced sport participation was not measured, since the survey figures asked for motivation or planned behaviours, not actual behaviour change. Consequently, questions of how far changes in sport participation are attributable to the Games remain.

There are some areas, such as sport participation, where what is being claimed as legacy is neither attributable to legacy strategy nor additional or distinctive as a result of an association with the Games. (Weed, 2014, p. 123)

There is no evidence of an increased inclination on the part of the populace to volunteer since the Games. Although there were several volunteer programmes, “post Games the momentum for volunteering was lost” (ESRC, 2015, p. 87). The opportunity to build upon the success of the Games has been missed and planning for the volunteering legacy should have started much earlier (House

of Lords, 2013). The House of Commons (2013) also asserts that there is no clear plan for capitalizing on the contribution volunteers can make to other volunteering initiatives.

4. Conclusion

The purpose of this report was to systematically review and describe the body of literature relating to the legacy of the London 2012 Olympic Games. One main goal of the London 2012 Olympics was to enhance physical activity. This was also reflected in the literature, since most of the articles deal with this aspect of legacy. However, due to methodological problems, it is not possible to assess if this goal was achieved or not, though the results indicate that there is no evidence of increased physical activity. The results concerning the legacy of urban regeneration are mixed. There are positives (e.g. new and better sporting facilities), but also negatives (e.g. housing problems). A volunteering legacy could not come about, since there was no planning for this. Currently, it is not possible to make a final judgement on the London 2012 legacy, given that, for example, the urban transformation of the Olympic Park is not expected to be complete before 2030. The review shows that the London Olympic Games have managed to create several legacies which are positive for the city and many citizens, but there are also negative legacies despite the attention that was devoted to legacy issues.

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THE REAL APPLICATION OF THE OLYMPIC PRINCIPLES: THE CREATION OF A REFUGEES' OLYMPIC TEAM AT RIO 2016, AND THE PROFESSIONAL CAREER OF A SPANISH OLYMPIC SPORTSWOMAN

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1. Studied Question

The principles and values of the Olympic Movement aim to lay the foundations for more peaceful and egalitarian societies marked by increased solidarity. Accordingly, any discrimination based on race, religion, politics or gender has no place in the Olympic Movement. Solidarity, joy in effort, the educational value of good examples, non-discrimination and equality constitute a major part of the Olympic principles as they are reflected in the Olympic Charter. A clear and current example of the application of these principles is the creation of the refugees' team which took part in the Rio 2016 Olympic Games under the Olympic flag. The team is a symbol of hope and a tribute to the refugees' courage and perseverance. What is more, these principles, given that they are part of the Olympic Charter, should be experienced and valued by every Olympic sportsman or woman.

2. Objectives

The main objective of this research was to shed light on the practical application of the Olympic principles in the creation of the first team composed of refugees, which participated in the Rio 2016 Olympic Games under the Olympic flag, and in the sporting career of an Olympic sportswoman.

2.1. To determine and analyze the principles of the Olympic Movement

which have had a practical positive impact on refugees and their circumstances.

2.2. To define the presence and impact of the Olympic principles on the Olympic career of the sportswoman Aauri Bokesa, the daughter of a political exile.

3. Methodology

Taking the temporary circumstances of our subject into consideration, it can be said that this research is framed in the *history of the present time*, since we are attempting to reconstruct a partial aspect of Olympic history as it relates to the application of the Olympic principles and to their influence on the reality of refugee sportsmen and women.

According to Martvnez Gorropo (1996), the *history of the present time* is the stage of contemporary history in which living sources can still be used for its reconstruction. In a similar way, Abdón Mateos (1998, p. 3) claims that:

The oral source is an excellent way to access collective historical memory and political culture in the history of the present time. Its importance increases as long as the recent past has not yet become an autobiographical memory. The weakness of the autobiographical literature regarding the most immediate time can only be reinforced by the oral source. Accessing the autobiographical and collective experience lived by a member of a social or human group in the present time depends, to a large extent, on the use of the oral source.

As a consequence of our methodological preparation, which took place in parallel with the first steps of this research, we have become aware, as Soto Gamboa claims, of the fact that the researcher approaching the *History of Present Time* “can appreciate and observe the mentalities, the contemporaries’ perception of the subject and their own experiences” (Soto Gamboa, 2004, p. 137).

Therefore, the methodology we use begins with an analysis of the primary source, which is the Olympic Charter, with the purpose of deducing from it the basis of the Olympic philosophy.

We used a secondary source, too – the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) website – with the aim of obtaining the first information about the support provided to the refugees; in other words, the first step which is “the approach to the studied subject”. Diving into the reality of practice, we

aimed to gather information from the IOC's files in Lausanne, which have been requested and received, and whose content we are currently exploring.

Elsewhere, concerning those aspects of the *History of the Present Time* that condition us, we will conduct an open-ended, semi-structured interview with the primary source – that is the Spanish sportswoman, Aauri Bokesa – in order to gather information about her experience at the different editions of the Olympic Games in regard of the welcome and support given to athletes in the same or a similar position to her own. To this end, we will put the methodology proposed by Hammer and Wildavsky (1990) into practice.

Furthermore, we will collect information from media sources that contain news on our subject.

4. The Olympic principles in current practice

In his speeches and public appearances, Thomas Bach, the highest representative of the Olympic Movement, always highlights the necessity of putting the Olympic principles into practice, and implements their fulfilment and international spread in other fields. For instance, in his appearance before the United Nations General Assembly in New York on 26 October 2015, Bach said in his speech, with regard to the implementation of the resolution to build a better and more peaceful world from sport and Olympic ideas:

In the Olympic sport, everybody has equal rights, regardless of their race, sex, social condition, cultural context or religious confession. This fundamental principle of non-discrimination permits the promotion of peace by sport, along with the understanding among all peoples.

The Olympic Games are the culmination of this approach. During the Games, the values of tolerance, solidarity and peace come to life. The international community gather in order to compete peacefully. Under this Olympic spirit of peace and solidarity, the IOC and UNHCR assist refugees throughout the world so that they receive activity, hope and self-reliance through sport. (Bach, T. 2016, p. 11).

4.1 The refugee team

The fundamental principles of the Olympic ideas are included in the Olympic

Charter, which states:

The Olympic Charter, as an effective instrument of constitutional nature, establishes and reaffirms the fundamental principles and the essential values of the Olympic Movement. (p. 9).

Nevertheless, it must be wondered if these principles are a mere statement of intentions or an actual reality present in the practice and activities promoted by the Olympic Movement. In this respect, we have used the technique of “documentary analysis” to extract from the Olympic Charter those principles which we consider essential, and which conform with the ideas and values that the Olympic philosophy aims to transmit: the *joy of effort*, *social engagement*, and *solidarity and non-discrimination on the basis of race, religion, politics or sex*. We have structured our inquiries into their presence in the reality of certain actions conducted within the structures of the Olympic Movement on the basis of these concepts.

In the light of the information gathered from the UNHCR and from the records of the International Olympic Committee in Lausanne, and of actions we will detail below, we can therefore state that those principles have been implemented: In 2016, the IOC gave grants to ten sportsmen and women of different nationalities without discriminating on the basis of race, religion, politics or sex. These “Olympic Solidarity” grants, which were financed by the IOC Commission, were awarded with the aim of allowing the refugee sportsmen and women to continue their training and their sporting careers so they could become representatives and ambassadors for refugees in several events around the world. The ten sportsmen and women who received these grants are from Ethiopia, South Sudan, Syria and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. They are victims of forced displacement due to political instability, wars and social problems that have created crises in their home countries.

During the last Olympic Games, held in Rio de Janeiro in 2016, the IOC President, Thomas Bach, referred to the refugee team in his opening speech as a symbol of hope for all the world’s refugees and as a way of broadcasting the magnitude of the humanitarian crisis caused by the forced displacement of people – the cause of suffering, death and disgrace for innocent people all over the world who are obligated to leave their homeland and their way of life. Additionally, he reiterated that the Olympic spirit is based on peace and solidarity, which means that the IOC and UNHCR must support refugees from every part

of the world with the aim of giving them hope and self-reliance through sport. As evidence of the positive outcomes stemming from the creation of this team, we can quote Yusra Mardini, the Syrian-born Olympic swimmer and member of the refugee team, who claimed: *"We do not speak the same language, we are from different countries, but the Olympic flag unites us all; and now we are representing 60 million around the world"*.

On the other hand, beyond the Olympic Games, the IOC continues to support athletes through the programme launched by Olympic Solidarity in support of refugees which seeks to improve their prospects, since the grants also allow the sportsmen and women to embark on a professional career. As we have already mentioned, the programme allows them to train, to benefit from an academic education, to go to university and to integrate into their host countries by participating in the last Olympic Games or in other international sport competitions. The Olympic Solidarity Refugee Athletes Support Programme offers participants the opportunity to identify and help a limited number of refugee athletes living in their countries to prepare and participate in high-level competitions.

Finally, in the wake of the successful participation of the refugees' Olympic team, the IOC is working on the "Safe place" programme presented by the IOC President to the United Nations General Assembly in October 2016. This initiative, which was launched in partnership with the UN, will help improve living standards for children and teenagers who have been displaced or who are in perilous situations by creating safe places to practice sport.

It is thus undeniable that the Olympic principles, and mostly those principles that appeal to solidarity, the establishment of a peaceful society, social responsibility and non-discrimination, are a reality that has been realized in the refugees' Olympic team. This also chimes with another principle stated in the Olympic Charter, the educational value of good examples, since it encourages us to reflect on the extent and social impact of the Olympics in the modern era. It is essential to remember that the Olympics are one of the most important sport events in the world, with the greatest media resonance throughout the world. Which is to say that, due to their influence on society, the IOC and UNCHR broadcast, in Rio 2016, a message of unity, solidarity and support to everyone who is obliged to abandon their home country due to armed conflict or for social or political reasons. This message deserves to be imitated by other institutions. We should also examine the circumstance in which this team was formed

by sportsmen and women of different provenance, race, religion and sex, resulting in the fundamental principle of non-discrimination being put into practice.

4.2 The Olympic ideas in the experience of Auri Bokesa, an Olympic sportswoman

Auri Bokesa is a Spanish athlete, a specialist in the 400 metres. She has been six times Spanish 400m outdoor champion, and four times Spanish champion at 400m indoors. She has participated in two editions of the Olympics, London 2012 and Rio 2016, as a member of the Spanish team. Regarding her family history, it is worth noting that her father escaped from Equatorial Guinea, journeying through different African countries before ending up in Spain as a political refugee. Anacleto Bokesa is currently a nurse and a university graduate and has had to combine her studies with several jobs, which required a great deal of dedication and effort. Her capacity for effort and sacrifice has had an enormous influence on Auri's sporting career, to the point of her becoming an Olympic sportswoman and one of the best-known athletes in Spain.

As we have already mentioned in relation to this paper's methodological design, we chose Auri Bokesa as the primary source in our project because she meets several criteria that make her especially suitable: she is a black woman, the daughter of Anacleto Bokesa, a political exile from Equatorial Guinea who had to leave his home country after a coup and the imposition of a military dictatorship in his country led by Lieutenant Colonel Teodoro Obiang Nguema. Auri's sporting experience and family history offered a unique opportunity for the reconstruction of a fragment of the *history of the present time* of Olympic sport. As a testimony, it combined the experience of sport within the Olympic structures, her condition as a black woman, and the influence of a family experience characterized by the struggle for, and defence of, human rights within a family group of people displaced for political reasons.

In this respect, in order to summarize Auri Bokesa's opinion on the real application of the Olympic principles, we have conducted an open-ended, semi-structured interview. Its guidelines were structured by synthesizing the principles and values present in the Olympic example, extracted using documentary analysis from the Olympic Charter, which is the basis of this research. The guidelines contained specific questions relating to every value and sought to gather information about the values' presence in her experience as an Olympic

sportswoman. However, the semi-structuring of the guidelines permitted us to include spontaneous questions that might arise after certain information had been offered by the oral source; information which may not have been known by us until then. This is in line with Hammer and Wildavsky (1990), who claim that: "Having delved deeply enough into the subject of study, our intrepid interviewer is free to ask the diverse and numerous questions that would lead him to ensure the most illuminating results" (p. 23).

It is important to reflect on the fact that the presence of Auri Bokesa in two editions of the Olympics has led her to share not just sporting experience with athletes, managers and decision-makers from every country, but also the daily atmosphere of the Olympic Village. All the people that are there share their facilities, meals, leisure time, stressful moments, mass media pressure, etc. We were especially interested in finding out whether, when made to reflect on the Olympic philosophy, her experience would remind her of an atmosphere in which the Olympic philosophy and values are present or not.

In the light of her testimony, we can affirm that Auri Bokesa considers that *the joy of the effort* has always been present in the Olympic context, and particularly in athletics. As a consequence of being an individual sport, it requires much more effort and sacrifice than a collective sport, because in these sports, she concludes, the capacity for effort can be distributed among all the players. The specific circumstances of athletics also mean that the athlete can derive a great deal of satisfaction from his or her achievements, which are the result of their daily commitment.

During her participation in the Olympics, she claimed that she has always seen those principles applied and present. Personally, she has not encountered any kinds of discrimination. She does, however, remember some occasions on which discriminatory comments were hardly punished. She alluded to the expulsion of the Greek long jumper Paraskevi Papachristou from the London 2012 Olympics after she published a racist comment on a well-known social network.

In her experience, the Olympic values are magnified during competitions and solidarity has always been achieved in the Olympics she has taken part in. She gave us some examples, like the photograph of two sportsmen from North and South Korea, or the image of the runners Nikki Hamblin and Abbey D'Agostino helping each other continue their race after they fell in an Olympic event. She assures me that unlawful conduct is severely penalized, which per-

mits fairer play and – in short – more solidarity.

On the other hand, she has never felt discriminated against within the Olympic Movement because of her race. That said, in Spain, she has had to justify her presence in the Olympic team at times due to her skin colour, despite having been born in the country. She has not felt discriminated against because of her gender, either. To her mind, athletics is a very egalitarian sport in Spain since the salaries, grants, awards and sport tests are equal for men and women. Furthermore, training and teams are mixed, which stimulates and enhances equality – an essential circumstance in this sport during the Olympics, in her view.

Auri also gave us her opinion on the refugee team: She totally agrees with its creation and sees it as very positive, since it is a way to give a voice to refugees and to shed light on social problems that must be remedied. She also thinks the project must be extended to other institutions from other countries and to competitions of all kinds.

She recognizes that there will be specific situations or opinions in which she does not agree with the words or actions of some sportsmen or women, but from her experience in the Olympics, she feels strongly that all the Olympic principles have been put into practice.

In conclusion, Auri Bokesa believes that the principles of the Olympic Charter, however utopian they may seem, are a reality in the current Olympic Movement. Thanks to the fulfilment of those principles, the Olympic Movement – and, more concretely, the Olympic Games – have acquired the features of an international movement closely allied with development cooperation.

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THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND REGIONAL PLANNING: AN ILLUSTRATION OF THE STATE'S MANAGEMENT OF REGIONS

Martin LANOUX (FRA)

Introduction

With a total of 200 nations, 15,000 athletes, 7.5 million spectators (Barik, 2016) and 3 billion viewers (Reuters, 2016), the Olympic Games are one of the biggest sporting events in the world. Since 1896, they have been held almost every four years in a different city designated by the members of the IOC after a competition between different cities that can last several months or even years. During their 120 years in existence, the Olympic Games have crystallized the rivalries of candidates ready to invest substantial sums in a competition that combines sport with economic, social and political stakes.

In this context, the Olympic Games should be considered at a different level from the city that hosts them, since the extent of the issues connected to the event necessarily involves a diversity of public and private actors that transcends the territory of a single metropolis. In fact, as an object of study, the Olympic and Paralympic Games are difficult to circumscribe (Thaler, 1988). Their first characteristic consists in the attention that the organization of such a competition arouses, and the impact this competition can have on a territory (Jones, 2001). The second encompasses the elements relating to the complexity of its organization, which requires the massive mobilization of resources and actors within a pre-determined period (Chappelet & Bayle, 2004). This complexity encourages potential candidates to clearly define the reasons why they want to organize the Games.

Interrogating such reasons paves the way to a better understanding of the construction of an Olympic project, because the answer to these questions will make it possible to identify the players that stand out in the complex governance

of the Olympic Games. Still, since its founding, the event has been organized on two scales: the city candidate and the state, with the National Olympic Committees acting as a national representative. The Olympic Games eventually point to an investigation of the relationship between the central state and the city, which is a stakeholder in the devolution process. Although the cities act as candidates, the involvement of the state in the bidding process contradicts the position of an affirmation of the cities that organize the Olympic Games.

Are the Olympic and Paralympic Games part of a return to the concept of centralized planning?

Less than a “loosening of the bolt of the State”, as theorized by the French planning expert Patrick Le Galès (Le Galès, 1999), the Olympic Games rather illustrate the theory of “remote government” suggested by the sociologist Renaud Epstein (Epstein, 2006). First, because the contradiction between the state and the city, on which the Olympic Movement rests, acts unfavourably towards greater autonomy for cities. Second, because the bidding and organization of the Olympic Games allow the State to steer the development of the national territory. Based on a literature review, this public policy analysis will look back at the history of Olympic bids, but also at ongoing and projected bids.

1. The Olympic Games work against the affirmation of cities

1.1 The History of the Olympic Games, at the crossroads between national ideology and local autonomy

The International Olympic Committee, whose members elect the cities that host the Olympic Games, adopts a vague approach to scale: while cities host the competition, the Games are the theatre for sporting confrontation between states, which are represented by their athletes. What emerges from this contradiction for the host? That the IOC has still not resolved this issue symbolizes the strength of national sentiments at the beginning of the 20th century: it still signs the host city contract with the host city and the National Olympic Committee of the state of which the city forms part (Marmayou, 2015).

This vagueness of scale traverses the history of the Olympic Games and allows a better reading of the dynamics behind applications made since the creation of the IOC. Indeed, the number of applications has varied during the history of the Games, essentially correlating with the international context. The

Olympic Games, which are awarded to host cities seven years before the start of their Games, enjoyed a golden age of attractiveness during the more cooperative period of the Cold War, when they opened up to new countries (Japan 1964, Mexico 1968, Canada 1976). It then faced a series of boycotts during the resumption of hostility (Moscow 1980, Los Angeles 1984) (Boniface, 2012). Eventually, only two cities put themselves forward as candidates for the 1988 Games. As it turns out, this logic continues today: while cities have worked to assert their autonomy since the start of the crisis affecting the Welfare State (Rosanvallon, 1981), the context of current distrust in international relations serves to block the candidacy process for cities. For 2024, only Paris and Los Angeles remain in the race after the successive withdrawals of Boston, Hamburg, Rome and Budapest.

Moreover, since 1924, only one country has presented two cities for the same bidding process: the United States, a large federal State with several competitive, global-scale metropolises. Other countries have not had more than one city apply to host the competition for a hundred years (Paris and Lyon were both candidates from France in 1924). This connects with the IOC's seemingly ambiguous interpretation of the ancient tradition of the Games and the resulting relationship between city and state. Thus, the ancient Games were organized in "city-states", which is literally a city and a state, symbolizing the paradox of the IOC's position.

A study of the history of the Games reveals that this vagueness of territorial scale, fuelled by an ideological positioning supported by the concept of the nation-state, would seem to ultimately bring the event into line with the national – rather than the local – perspective in economic, social and political terms.

1.2 The Olympic Games, a challenged tool for local development

It remains to be seen whether the Olympic Games serve as a tool for local development. In fact, with the development of the Games, characterized by an increasing number of athletes, spectators and media, each edition has imposed the imperative to construct new and ever-larger venues on the organizers. The flow of spectators generated, and the various disturbances linked to the competition (transport, accommodation), have even led to a crowding-out effect being identified, especially among tourists who prefer to travel to destinations other than the Olympic city during the Games (Matheson, 2006).

Faced with these constraints, the “Olympic Park” planning model has emerged (Chalkley & Essex, 1999): a circumscribed and coherent territory in which most of the venues necessary for running the competition are concentrated. The Olympic Games have thus come to benefit from a certain unity of place, fostering local development policies that accompany the construction of new infrastructure. Two recent examples confirm the success of this model. In 1986, when Barcelona was awarded the Olympic Games, the city was still undermined by the relocation of industrial activities outside its limits, as well as by demographic stagnation and a decline in political activity (Brunet, 1995). After six years of intensive development, notably along its maritime facade, Barcelona had transformed itself into an attractive European metropolis and a driving force of the Spanish economy; in this case, the positive impact of the Games was felt locally in both the short and long terms (Brunet, 1995). Similarly, London, as the host of the 2012 Games, concentrated the Olympic project in the underprivileged neighbourhood of Stratford, in the city’s East End. Beyond planning policies for Stratford, Mike Raco has shown that the Games have helped change the way urban projects are conducted, making them more efficient, which has had a positive impact on other projects in the city, such as Crossrail (Raco, 2015). In the cases of Barcelona and London, welcoming the Olympic Games coincided with a public policy of local development for all or part of the city. These two examples support the idea that the Olympic Games can constitute an instrument for public urban policy as catalysts for public action.

It is, however, difficult to say that Paris’s candidacy for the 2024 Games stems from a similar reading of the issues related to the Games. This candidature coincides with the advent of large-scale urban projects – Grand Paris Express (the largest suburban transportation plan in Europe), CDG-Express (connecting the city with its main airport in 20 minutes) – and serves to support others, such as the revitalization of the department of Seine-Saint-Denis. One can thus identify the next “Olympic Park” in the Greater Paris Metropolis, an administrative body created in 2014, since it will also manage the only sports infrastructure to be built for the event, the Aquatics Centre. Nevertheless, it seems contradictory to affirm that the Games have become a project steered by one of the least influential of all the regional administrative communities involved.

In fact, this application should be viewed in the context of Agenda 2020, a series of commitments adopted by the IOC in 2014 in reaction to difficulties

encountered during recent editions of the Games. Indeed, the Olympic Games have been the subject of economic impact studies since the 1984 edition, which have qualified the positive balance of hosting the Games at a local level: the jobs they create are not stable (Tien, Lo, & Lin, 2011), the positive effects of tourism are limited to the short term (Kang & Perdue, 1994). These qualifications are illustrated by Athens 2004, Sochi 2014 and possibly by Rio 2016, pending further analysis. Although it maintains the objective of keeping infrastructure compact, Agenda 2020 seems to open the way to co-hosting by several cities and to the relocation of some venues (Comité International Olympique, 2014). In this perspective, the German bid project to host the 2032 Olympics in 13 cities looks like an interesting development (Palmer, 2017). Through Agenda 2020, the IOC seems to take note of the fact that the city is not necessarily the most relevant scale at which to study the impact of the Games. This suggestion is, for instance, supported by the economic impact study carried out *ex ante* by the CDES for the 2024 Games, which used the scale of the Île-de-France Region – 12 million inhabitants, compared to Paris's 2.2 million inhabitants – to measure the economic impact of the Games (Centre de Droit et d'Economie du Sport (CDES), 2016).

The economic impact studies conducted over the last 30 years do not lead to the conclusion that the Games are an instrument for cities to affirm their autonomy as planning authorities, since the impact of the competition should be nuanced at the local level. As the inheritors of the ancient tradition, the Modern Olympic Games underline a tension between national ideology and the stakes involved in conducting urban projects. It is therefore necessary to analyse the role of the state in steering the Olympic project.

2. The Olympic Games: an illustration of “remote government”

2.1 The will to bid, a state-led decision

The decision to bid for the Olympic Games inevitably leads to a trade-off between the costs and benefits of an application. In this regard, while three of the five candidate cities for 2024 have withdrawn due to local opposition to the financial costs generated by the Games, a study conducted for the 2010 Vancouver Games showed that Canadian homes were willing to pay an average of 91 Canadian dollars for their country to do well in the medals table (Humphreys, Johnson, Mason, & Whitehead, 2011).

This contradiction raises a question: what is one trying to achieve by being a candidate for the Olympic Games? The economic studies carried out on recent editions point to a similar conclusion: the Olympic Games consist, above all, of the candidate country sending a signal of openness to the world. Notably, it has been observed that this signal effect, sometimes referred to as the “Olympic effect” (Rose & Spiegel, 2009), has had a positive impact on exports during the period following the Games (Maennig & Richter, 2012). The signal effect is thus diffuse and therefore a motive at the national, rather than the local, level.

This makes it possible to divide the recent applications for the Olympic Games into two categories: On the one hand, some Olympic Games marked the integration of a country into the global economy: the Seoul edition in 1988, which concluded the Asian dragon’s growth period, the Barcelona Games in 1992, which symbolized the advent of a new post-Franco Spain open to the Mediterranean Sea (Bernardi, 2017), or the Beijing Games in 2008, which China won in 2001, the same year it entered the World Trade Organisation. On the other hand, some Olympic Games serve as an instrument for asserting the power of the central state: Munich in 1972, which allowed the Federal Republic of Germany to detach itself from Berlin, Moscow in 1984, which provided a platform for the communist regime, or Atlanta in 1996, where the ubiquity of sponsorship paraded the victory of the American model post-Cold War.

Paris’s bid for 2024 has the same characteristics, but wears a more complex form. Francois Hollande, then President of the Republic, initiated the Paris bid for the Olympic Games, while Anne Hidalgo, the Mayor of Paris, initially remained opposed to it (*L’Express*, 2014). However, the candidature was then appropriated by the City of Paris, insofar as Anne Hidalgo became one of the main promoters of the project and established a closeness between its municipal agenda, focused on sustainable development, and that of the French bid. The involvement of other local authorities such as the Île-de-france region, the Seine-Saint-Denis *département* and the Greater Paris Metropolis supported the local dimension of the project. As such, the public- and private-funded Bid Committee received contributions from the state, Paris and the Île-de-france in equal amounts. However, the government will remain the most important financial contributor to the project, as it will provide a billion euros for infrastructure construction (*L’Express*, 2016).

This analysis would indicate that the candidacy for the Olympic Games is

above all a reasoned decision at the national level. If cities are in fact candidates, arbitration shows that they are in reality only a part of a policy driven by the state and constrained by the rules of the IOC.

2.2 The construction of an Olympic project, steered by the State

If the bid for the Olympic Games is the result of a national arbitration, their hosting retains the local dimension inherent in the compactness of the event. Yet here again, the presence of the State manifests itself in several ways.

First, at the national level, the Games should no longer be considered as an urban planning tool, but rather as a public policy objective. In this sense, the legacy of the Olympic Games, on which the IOC wishes to rely in order to revive interest in the Olympic Movement, now extends beyond the single candidate city. For the candidature of Paris for 2024, the committee thus launched a national consultation which, besides being part of the project's promotional dimension, also reflects the will to build a legacy for the whole country. In the same vein, it is interesting to note that the map of the venues chosen for football competitions in 2024 is a copy of the MAPTAM Act of 2014, which gives birth to metropolises – that is, a new layer of administrative bodies brought into being to give more clarity to the French territory abroad (JORF, 2014). Although work on the stadiums dates back to Euro 2016, it should be noted that the selected cities reflect a spatial rather than a sporting hierarchy. The selection was the result of a process of competition between several candidate cities, not all of which were selected. It should be noted that the sites chosen for 2024 are not the sites that were selected for Paris's last bid, for the 2012 Games: for example, the venue for the sailing competition was awarded to Marseille rather than La Rochelle, which was selected 12 years ago.

This observation shows that the conception of an Olympic project is essentially governed by the state, as defined by sociologist Renaud Epstein, in that the state “has subtly taken over the definition of the aims of planning policies, based on tools that create national competition between regions, granting access to its resources and encouraging local actors to freely comply with its own priorities” (Epstein, 2006). For example, the Olympic Games aim, among other things, to develop the practice of sport in the country that hosts them. However, the development of the practice of sport is achieved in various ways: constructing venues, developing high-level sport associations, providing educational programmes, etc.

This means that the localities actually enjoy relative freedom, in so far as the state determines the ends and leaves the host city to determine the means. France thus provides an interesting insight into the place of sport in development. Indeed, the policy for developing sport practices has not been clearly divided between the various levels of regional authority in France. This “sprawl of sports policies” means that each level of community can take over a part of the power and thus benefit from the resources made available by the state (CNOSF et Amnyos, s. d.). France is not the only example of such state steering: in 2014, the USOC (US National Olympic Committee) sent the proposal to compete for the 2024 Olympic Games to some thirty cities; around 15 have responded favourably, paving the way for competition over the final selection (Bernardi, 2017).

Conclusion

With the relatively negative impact of recent Olympic Games, it appears that only cities in states with stable and growing economies have been able to successfully host an event of their size. By extension, one could argue that only states have sufficient financial power to host large-scale sport competitions. As a result, Agenda 2020 seems to validate in hindsight the theory outlined here, according to which the Olympic Games illustrate the theory of states steering Olympic candidatures rather than loosening their hold on their regions.

Given the far-reaching philosophy of Olympism, it seems that envisioning the Games at the national level could leverage new opportunities for the IOC. If the impact of the Games can transcend the spatial component, new territories which are yet to be touched by Olympism could represent a potential audience for a larger dissemination of what the Olympic Movement wishes to promote.

Today, the IOC is one of the only sports organisations that looks to cities rather than states. However, not only are cities unable to carry the full cost of an Olympic bid, they are also only one winner among many. Should the IOC be considering a bidding process at the national level?

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ANALYSIS OF THE 1904 SAINT LOUIS OLYMPICS IN TERMS OF OLYMPIC PHILOSOPHY

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Abstract

This study aims to examine the positive and negative aspects of the St. Louis 1904 Olympics in terms of Olympic philosophy. Due to the inconvenient transportation conditions and the concurrent World Fair, participation at this Olympiad was minimal. When evaluated in terms of Olympic philosophy, chicanery, doping and discrimination, this mega event makes a bad impression. Hence, Fred Lorz's cheating in the marathon, the use of forbidden drugs by Thomas Hicks, and the Anthropology Days event were all contrary to the Olympic principles.

Introduction

The Olympics are great events that take place without discrimination in terms of race, religion, language, colour or political systems. The main aim of the Olympics is to reinforce and spread peace among countries through competition in sporting events on equal terms, and to contribute to the development of international understanding, respect and cooperation through cultural, social and artistic activities. The importance of the Olympics stems from the size of the Games and the impact they have on the host country (Karaküçük, 1989:7). In the Ancient Olympics, the winner was accepted as a hero, awarded prizes and behaved as a role model and an ideal person (Kieran and Daley, 1973:13). Therefore, it is possible to say that the most important reason for the positive and negative events that take place at the Modern Olympics are the privileges and awards that are given to the winning contestants and the prestige it earns for the victors and the host country.

The Olympic principles provide the framework for the Olympic Games, and Olympism and its aims are explained in the Olympic Charter. The Games are held in accordance with these principles, according to which Olympism is a philosophy and a way of life. Olympism aims to combine physical abilities and the human will in a balanced way, as well as to combine culture and education with sport. Olympism expresses a lifestyle based on the joy of success as a result of intense effort, the educational value of being a good example, and a right to live according to universal ethical rules (Olympic Charter, 2016:11). In the light of the definitions explained in the Olympic Charter, it can be stated that the Olympic Games express much more than sports; they are a symbolic and cultural feast expressing the solidarity and unity of mankind.

Coubertin sought to establish the Olympic philosophy in the hope of stopping wars in the world, especially in Europe. As he saw it, this was only possible if the organization of sporting competitions with a fully amateur spirit could be introduced to people from various nations, cultures and customs, representing a world in love and at peace. According to Coubertin, Olympism is not a system but a structure of thought. It can penetrate a wide variety of narrative forms and cannot be attributed to any single race or age (Güçlü, 2001: 225). The Olympic Games are one of the most important multinational organizations in the world, being held for two weeks with the common participation of societies that have adopted the Olympic philosophy. The basis of Olympism lies in the idea of creating a more peaceful world in which individuals develop both physically and cognitively by doing sport, and in which people from different cultures can join with one another free of discrimination (Serdaroğlu, 2002: 33).

The most important element that distinguishes the Olympic Games from other international tournaments is that they are a platform at which top athletes compete, not countries struggling to be the best (Olympic Charter, 2016:21). This approach ensures that the Olympic Games retain a structure that celebrates peace and friendly competition over all national values (Reid, 2006: 209). The above refers to the sporting and cultural values of the Olympic Games, but there are also political, media, marketing, sponsorship and commercial aspects to the Games. These variables have now gained such importance that they precede the moral and educational qualities of Olympism for the vast majority of both the spectators and athletes. One could say that this situation has been steadily taking shape since the beginning of the Modern Olympic Games. In this respect,

participation has moved away from the ideology of the Olympic Games and become very much aimed at exploiting the aspects mentioned above; countries and athletes have become prisoners of opportunism.

In this context, the aim of this research is to reveal the differences between the desired and actual situation through an evaluation of the Modern Olympic Games in general and the Saint Louis 1904 Olympics in particular in terms of basic Olympic principles and from a philosophical perspective. It also aimed to determine the positive and negative events which are compatible or incompatible with the Olympic philosophy.

The Ancient Olympics

The ancient Greeks organized various ceremonies and festivals on behalf of the Gods. The most important of them was the Olympic festival dedicated to Zeus and organized in order to remember the Gods and consolidate and strengthen peace among the Greek city-states, which were constantly at war. The aim was to symbolize the adoption to Zeus, strengthen regional peace, and improve the tendency towards Greek Gymnastics. The first Olympic Games are known to have been organized in 776 BC and to have continued for nearly twelve centuries. They were celebrated every four years in Olympia, Greece (Karaküçük 1989:1). Champions were presented their awards at a great religious ceremony. The prize was a wreath made from branches from the olive tree which was believed to have been planted by Herakles, son of Zeus, and was considered sacred. All efforts were directed at earning this prize. However, the Olympics began to deteriorate over time as the championship was seen as a way of winning political power and gaining privileges. Ultimately, the Games lost their popularity and were abolished by the Roman Emperor Theodosius I in AD 394 as vestiges of atheism and paganism (Kieran and Daley, 1973:17).

The Modern Olympics

While the mythology of the ancient Games has come to exemplify the highest political, religious, communal and individual ideals, the Modern Olympic Games are widely known as an international, bi-annual sporting event where champions have the opportunity to earn not only glory for their country, but

also lucrative endorsement deals and the perks of worldwide fame (Heather L, Reid and Austin, 2012).

In the 19th century, the Olympic Games were forgotten except in connection with regional sports festivals organized by several countries. Pierre de Coubertin was inspired by these festivals to try and revive the Olympics. He created the International Olympic Committee (2000 delegates from France, Europe and America) in Paris on 23 June 1894. The Committee resolved to stage Olympic Games again and took decisions relating to their implementation (Karaküçük, 1989). Then the first Olympic Games (Games of the Olympiad) of modern times were celebrated in Athens, Greece, in 1896. In 1914, the Olympic flag, presented by Pierre de Coubertin at the Paris Congress, was adopted. It included the five interlaced rings which represent the union of the five continents and the meeting of athletes from around the world at the Olympic Games. The first Olympic Winter Games were celebrated in Chamonix, France, in 1924 (Olympic Charter, 2016).

The importance of the Modern Olympics

The Olympics are the biggest sports event in the world. Nations expect to make an economic, social, and political profit from hosting them, while spectators from all over the world are provided with a sporting feast. National spirit and enthusiasm are awakened among the spectators. On the other hand, the host city progresses internationally and the Games bring forth world peace, Olympism and sport.

Actions and behaviours contrary to Olympism

The behaviour that is perhaps most contrary to Olympism may be considered the use of performance enhancement drugs for athletes. This is sometimes enabled by coaches, as well as by the athletes themselves. National sports federations have also been known to support or ignore the use of drugs. In St. Louis, Charles Lucas, the coach of the American marathon runner Tom Hicks, admitted that he gave Hicks strychnine with cognac and an egg-white to help him win. When the race finished, Hicks collapsed because of the drug he had taken, but while he should have been punished, no action was taken: no punishment was given, his medal was not taken back, and he showed no regret (Baron, Martin, & Magd, 2007).

Fighting doping is a top priority for the IOC, which wants to protect clean athletes, and a zero-tolerance policy has been established to combat cheating and to hold anyone who uses or provides doping products to account (URL1). It can be stated that the IOC was slow to ban the use of drugs, seeing as they only began testing recently, in 1968, while the Modern Olympics have been taking place since 1896. This may be because they did not recognize doping as cheating or the risk to the athlete's health which doping poses. After the IOC World Conference on Doping in Sport in 1999, an independent World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) was founded (Baron, Martin and Magd, 2007).

The second behaviour which flies in the face of Olympism is cheating in order to win. In the 1904 Games, Fred Lorz covered much of the race by car and got out just before the finish line. He was applauded as the winner, but was later scorned by the public and banned by the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU), while Thomas Hicks was allowed to take his gold medal home with him (Kieran and Daley, 1973:48–49). The different treatment meted out to the two athletes can be considered discrimination, another key behaviour contrary to the Olympic philosophy. As Nelson Mandela said:

Sport has the power to change the world. It has the power to inspire. It has the power to unite people in a way that little else does. It speaks to youth in a language they understand. Sport can create hope where once there was only despair. It is more powerful than government in breaking down racial barriers (URL2).

That said, some athletes have used the Olympics as a stage for protesting against racial prejudice within and outside their own countries. Since 1904, many black athletes representing countries including those in which they are usually part of a minority ethnic group (for example, countries in North America, Europe and Asia) have achieved outstanding successes. The environment of the Olympic Games was one in which black athletes were able to excel, despite the inequalities which existed within society more generally. The Olympics have therefore been seen by many as a means of overcoming adversity and racial discrimination, in particular through the nationalized celebration of black athletes' triumphs.

Louisiana Purchase Exposition (The 1904 World's Fair)

The Louisiana Purchase Exposition, also called the 1904 World's Fair in St. Louis, was actually organized to celebrate the centenary of Thomas Jefferson's purchase of the Louisiana Territory from Napoleon in 1803 (Findling, 2004:24). The aims for organizing such a big Fair were: to spotlight St Louis and promote it, to make money for stockholders and bring economic development to the Midwest; to demonstrate American superiority in democracy, capitalism and culture; and to celebrate industrial, social, commercial and technological progress. Some 19 million visitors learned about technology, imperialism and development and three thousand native performers put on shows (Brownell, 2008). Many artists participated at the Fair and gave the city a boost by turning it into a centre of the fine arts. However, the 'Anthropology Days', a combination of the civilized and the modern, were celebrated as an expression of racism or discrimination. Horse racing, chicken racing, lacrosse contests, Irish sports events, archery, spear throwing and tipi raising were some of the contests held on these days. Patagonian red giants also competed against American cowboys, eskimos and Cliff Dwellers demonstrated their native sports, and Roman gladiators strutted their stuff. In the tribal games, people were humiliated by the organizers labelling them as savages (Göksyr,1990; Brownell, 2008: 351; Delsahut, 2014).

Although Coubertin and IOC were undecided about organizing the 1904 Olympics in St. Louis, after the failure of the Paris 1900 Games, they could not separate the 1904 Olympics from the exhibition (Brownell, 2008). So, where were the 1904 Olympics?

St. Louis Olympics (1 July-23 November 1904)

Although it was decided that the 1904 Olympic Games should be organized in Chicago, they were actually staged in Saint Louis, since Chicago also accepted that it would be better if the Olympics were held in that city (Merwe, 1999:29).

All in all, 13 nations, four continents and a total of 687 athletes (432 Americans) came to Saint Louis to compete in 1904. However, American athletes took 242 of the 279 medals, because the majority of the athletes participating in the Olympics were Americans, turning the Olympics into something akin to a

club tournament, with athletes representing their clubs rather than their national federations (Matthews and Marshall, 2003:7).

Conclusion

The ancient Olympic Games, which had religious, cultural and social dimensions, began with the intention of sustaining the peace between the Greek city states of the Peloponnese in 776 BC. The Games ended in AD 394. (IOC, 1994: 19). Considering the events that occurred between the beginning and end of the Games, it can be stated that the corruption, cheating, doping, etc. which are contrary to the spirit of Olympism were all experienced from the first Olympic Games on, and that they were responsible for the Games coming to an end. It is possible to conclude that there is a parallelism between the ancient and modern Olympic Games in this respect: namely, both Olympics were principled and well-intentioned at the beginning, but their basic principles and values were increasingly ignored over time. This paper set out to examine the Saint Louis 1904 Olympics because drug use for performance enhancement has been a part of Olympic sports for over a century, with the first documented doping case in the Modern Olympics happening at the 1904 Summer Olympics in St. Louis (Kremenik et, al., 2006:19).

It is known that the first examples of cheating and doping were experienced during the ancient Games, and it is possible to say that the amateur spirit has disappeared since the beginning of the Modern Olympics as the marketing strategies have increased and turned the Games into marketing tools. Also, the number of doping cases has increased, even though this practice is contrary to 'the equality' principle of Olympism and this kind of negative event has caused the sports to move away from the philosophy underlying the re-establishment of the Games. Despite the IOC's decisive struggle against doping and cheating, the situation is still far from innocent. However, the contribution of the International Olympic Committee to world peace via its humanistic approach since its foundation cannot be denied. As a result of its efforts to spread Olympism, the contributions made by individuals towards societal development have impacted positively on international solidarity and integration.

There are many positive and neglected cases in the history of the Modern Olympic Games. The Saint Louis 1904 Olympics were also one of the Games at which events such as these were experienced. The total number of medals was

279, of which 242 were won by athletes from the United States of America, revealing that the American athletes were essentially competing with each other. From an Olympic Movement with universal principles, the Games found themselves at a local level. Naturally, this situation did not meet the expectations of the Olympic committee and the world public, and the 1904 Olympics left a bad impression because of their lack of “understanding of the Olympic Ideal” (Göksyr,1990).

At these Games, young people versus pensioner, black versus whites and women versus women boxing bouts and archery competitions were also organized. It is also noteworthy that the black-white competitions were held separately (Karaküçük, 1989: 90). This goes against the Olympic principles and have since been corrected by the IOC’s correct interventions in the Modern Olympic Games.

The Saint Louis 1904 Olympics were organized as part of the programme of the Louisiana International Exhibition, and the Olympics were once again left as a side show of an international festival (Doralp and Barkul, 2011). From this point of view, it can be stated that the Saint Louis Olympics were organized in the shadow of a fair that took place at the same time. The Saint Louis Olympics can also be regarded as a negative edition in terms of the Olympic Movement and Olympic philosophy. As a matter of fact, a very limited number of countries participated to this Olympics, because of the transportation difficulties and the Games being held over four months (Karaküçük, 1989: 90). This situation can be considered to be opposed to the Olympic principle enshrined in the Olympic Charter:

The Olympic Movement is the concerted, organized, universal and permanent action, carried out under the supreme authority of the IOC, of all individuals and entities who are inspired by the values of Olympism. It covers the five continents. It reaches its peak with the bringing together of the world’s athletes at the great sports festival, the Olympic Games. Its symbol is five interlaced rings (IOC, 2016:12).

Another issue is the cheating and doping cases that occurred at the Saint Louis Olympics. Fred Lorz’s cheating in the marathon race was chicanery, while Thomas Hicks’ use of forbidden drugs was a doping case and thus out of synch with the Olympic Principles that state that:

The practice of sport is a human right. Every individual must have the possibility of practicing sport, without discrimination of any kind and in the Olym-

pic spirit, which requires mutual understanding with a spirit of friendship, solidarity and fair play.

All these negativities were predicted by Coubertin, who did not participate in the Games (IOC, 2016:12).

On the other hand, in addition to all these negative factors, Saint Louis also made important contributions to the modern Olympic period: It was the first Olympics at which gold, silver and bronze medals were awarded. Boxing, free-style wrestling and the decathlon took place for the first time, and St. Louis was the first Olympics at which African American athletes competed and won medals (URL3).

When talking about the negative aspects of the St Louis Olympic Games, it should not be forgotten that this was only the third iteration of the Modern Olympic Games. The IOC, which did not yet have an institutional structure, had identified the disadvantages of these Games and solved a significant portion of them in time for the Paris Games in 1908.

In general, it should be accepted that the negativities present at the editions of the Modern Olympics, and in particular at the Saint Louis 1904 Games, were real. If we are to get back to the Olympic principles that we have now travelled some distance from, we must show the same determination in developing ways and methods for coping with cheating and doping. Also, the necessity of revisiting amateurism and marketing policies should not be ignored. It should not be forgotten that this is a mission for all the people who work for the Modern Olympic Games, which has important contributions to make to human history and civilization, in order to prevent them going the way of the Ancient Olympics.

As a result, in spite of all the well-intentioned work and regulations of the IOC and the national committees, the degeneration of the Olympic Games has been going on for many years. However, we believe that, day by day, thanks to the attempts on the part of the IOC and other committees, such negative situations (doping, cheating, inequality) will decrease. As the Olympic Games are so crucial for nations in helping break down prejudice, improve relations, and achieve peace between nations, it is a desired situation for the future of the Olympic Games.

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THE ROLE OF VOLUNTEERS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE
OF GOOD GOVERNANCE IN SPORT AND THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT
IN CROATIA: THE CASE OF THE EUROPEAN UNIVERSITIES
GAMES ZAGREB-RIJEKA 2016 (EUG2016)

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Abstract

The Republic of Croatia hosted the EUG Zagreb-Rijeka 2016 last year. One of the largest multi-sport events in Europe, EUG is a university sports competition organized every two years. It is governed by the European Universities Sports Association (EUSA). So far, EUG has been held twice (Cordoba, Spain, 2012, and Rotterdam, Netherlands, 2014); its third instance was held in Zagreb and Rijeka in 2016. EUG2016 hosted a little fewer than 6,000 student-athletes from 41 states, who competed in 21 sport disciplines including two sports for students with disabilities. More importantly, the EUG 2016 Volunteers Department organized a volunteer programme.

This paper highlights the benefits of planning and preparing a volunteer programme and the role of volunteers as an element in governance. Defining governance as an “element in the effective management of a sport industry”,¹ and considering the massive number of volunteers at sport events, we can assume that volunteers have a great impact on the governance of major sport events. According to the official IOC website, around 50,000 volunteers participated in delivering the last Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro.² I will focus on empow-

1. Understanding Sport Management: International perspectives, Trish Bradbury, Ian O’Boyle, Routledge, 2017, ISBN1317328396, 9781317328391

2. <https://www.olympic.org/news/volunteers-set-to-make-their-mark-at-rio-2016>

ering volunteers by providing them with specific education regarding the tasks they are expected to perform, and by establishing detailed policies that will guide them towards achieving previously defined objectives. EUG 2016 is an example of how empowering youth by giving them structure, education and clearly defined roles and responsibilities, can benefit an entire sport organization.

Before this event, neither the EUSA, the EUG nor the Croatian Academic Sports Federation (CASF) had well-structured volunteer programmes. The EUG 2016 experience thus represents a volunteering legacy for all future major student-sport events.

Keywords: volunteers programme, EUG 2016, volunteers management

Introduction

Is it possible to define volunteering management as a tool of governance? Describing governance as an “element of the effective management of a sport industry”³ and considering the massive number of volunteers included in organizations, we can assume that volunteers have a great impact on the governance of major sport events.

The education, training, recognition and provision of on-going support to volunteers has been shown to have a positive impact on the sustainability of a sport⁴. Moreover, considering the Fundamental Principles of Olympism enshrined in the Olympic Charter⁵ as “[...] a philosophy of life [...] whose goal is 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”, we can say that the Olympic Movement⁶ aspires to be more than sport. The Olympic

3. Understanding Sport Management: International perspectives, Trish Bradbury, Ian O’Boyle, Routledge, 2017, ISBN1317328396, 9781317328391

4. Working with Volunteers in Sport: Theory and Practice, Graham Cuskelly, Russell Hoye, Chris Auld, Routledge, 2006.

5. Olympic Charter in force as of 2 Aug 2015, Published by the International Olympic Committee – September 2015, p 17.

6. The Olympic Movement consists of three main pillars: the International Olympic Committee (IOC), National Olympic Committees (NOCs), International Federations and other members such as Olympic Organizational Committees, athletes, officials and other recognized institutions (Olympic Charter).

Movement includes educational activities, and sport is often a catalyst for changes in society, according to the Recommendations of the 2nd International Forum on Sport for Peace & Development organized by the United Nations Office for Sport for Development and Peace and the International Olympic Committee⁷. In the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development⁸ published in December 2015, the IOC and the UN recognize Sport and the Olympic Movement as a tool for fostering sustainable development. Focusing on good governance as one of the Fundamental Principles of Olympism, the IOC agreed on its Olympic Agenda 2020 in December 2014 after a year of discussion. Volunteers were mentioned in Recommendation 23 *Engage with communities*. In the years that followed, the IOC agreed to comply with the Basic Universal Principles of Good Governance of the Olympic and Sports Movement for NOCs, and volunteers were mentioned in the context of several topics in the document (2nd – *Structures, regulations and democratic processes*, 3rd – *Highest level of competence, integrity and ethical standards* and 4th – *Accountability, transparency and control*). To empower those standards, we need to focus on a clear definition of what volunteers can do and what the outcome of their efforts should be. Therefore, we need to focus on empowering volunteers by providing them with specific education regarding the tasks that are expected of them, and by setting up detailed policies that will guide them towards achieving previously defined objectives.

The focus of this paper consists in demonstrating how the volunteer programme was used as a tool of governance during the European Universities Games Zagreb-Rijeka 2016 (EUG 2016) and how it impacted on university sport. During the research, I have used descriptive surveys for volunteers/participants in educational programmes and descriptive surveys for the team leaders of volunteer teams after EUG 2016 combining with observations made during EUG 2016.

Animation of candidates for volunteering at EUG 2016

Preparations for EUG 2016 started in 2013 when EUSA announced that the Croatian Academic Sports Federation (CASF) had won the right to host the Games. The CASF started organizing EUG 2016 after signing an organizational

7. https://stillmed.olympic.org/Documents/Conferences_Forum_and_Events/2011-IOC_UN/Final-recommendations-IOC-UN.pdf

8. <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/post2015/transformingourworld>

contract with the Croatian Olympic Committee (NOC) and two host cities (Zagreb and Rijeka). In parallel with initial efforts made by other organizational departments, and employing the Olympic and Sports Movement Basic Universal Principles of Good Governance and their previous experiences, the EUG 2016 Volunteers Department drafted an initial volunteers programme concept. The main pillar of the EUG 2016 organization was the creation of “the once in a lifetime experience”, and the Volunteers Department also focused on creating a “once in a lifetime experience” for volunteers across the four main phases of the volunteer programme: (I) animation, (II) selection, (III) education and (IV) coordination of volunteers during the event.

However, before starting with the animation of candidates, the head of the Volunteers Department made initial plans which included describing the main volunteer roles and positions. Besides making this initial plan, the Volunteers Department also created short questionnaires for other Organizational Departments. The questionnaire consisted of four main questions, seeking proposals for: (1) volunteer roles, (2) volunteer tasks, (3) volunteer prerequisites, (4) the period of time volunteers would be involved; the questionnaire presented a clear picture of the event’s organizational needs. In 2014, in cooperation with the Media and Marketing department, the Volunteers Department started the animation process based on previous experience gained in organizing different sports projects. During the animation phase, the Volunteers Department contacted 434 sports clubs and associations, 64 institutions, 75 high schools in Zagreb, 195 student associations. Afterwards, the Faculty of Humanities and Social sciences decided to introduce an open elective course on “Students and the community”. As a result of the marketing campaign, which was primarily focused on students and high school pupils, over 50% of the volunteers were from this age group. Moreover, the Volunteers Department decided to involve anyone who met the selection criteria; this policy of social inclusion led to the widespread participation of volunteer candidates with disabilities.

Selection of volunteers

The second phase of the volunteer programme was the selection of volunteers using methods such as interviews conducted in person and/or using mobile and internet technology. The Volunteers Department used selection criteria such as:

(i) level of motivation, (ii) level of communicational skills, (iii) skills in foreign languages, (iv) skills useful for managing stressful situations, (v) experience (but only for positions such as team leaders). Based on those criteria, the Volunteers Department conducted 2,110 interviews and selected 1,441 volunteers. Most of the volunteers (1,149 or 79.7%) belonged to the 16-29 age group.

Volunteers by age	
15 or under	217 volunteers
16-18	385 volunteers
19-24	646 volunteers
25-29	118 volunteers
30-34	45 volunteers
35-74	30 volunteers

Table 1. Of the volunteers, 59.3% (854) were female, and 40.7% (587) were male.

Education for volunteers

One of the key educational breakthroughs for the Volunteers Department was the support it received from the Faculty of Humanities and Social sciences at the University of Rijeka, which decided to introduce an open elective course on “Students and community” for student-volunteers, participation in which was rewarded with 3 ECTS. The focus of the course was the role of universities in volunteering and influencing student volunteering. The practical aspect of the course was held during the EUG 2016. Introducing an open elective course had an impact on the animation process and also constituted an educational tool for students who wanted to learn more about volunteering opportunities and volunteering in general.

The Volunteers Department tried to educate all volunteers using methods of informal learning – learning from experience, tacit knowledge, transfer of learning and intuitive practice. Educational workshops were organized in the first instance for the leaders of the volunteer teams in 2015; a second round of workshops were organized four months before the Opening ceremony for volunteers from Croatia. The Volunteers Department organized a volunteer camp

for international volunteers seven days before the Opening ceremony. The main goals of all the educational programmes were: (1) Introducing the volunteer programme and project, (2) developing skills in communication and dealing with conflicts, (3) learning how to deal with stressful situations, (4) introducing volunteers to the Croatian legislation on volunteering, (5) getting to know the volunteers. Every training session was almost eight hours long and the Volunteers Department organized 70 training sessions for around 20 participants per workshop. Sessions for team leaders were more focused on developing communication skills, dealing with conflicts, and team management.

Coordination of volunteers during the event

During EUG 2016, 1,298 (90%) Croatian volunteers and 143 (10%) volunteers from other countries were involved in different teams. The international volunteers were from: Poland, Portugal, Montenegro, Slovenia, Spain, Serbia, Ukraine, Hungary, Italy, the People's Republic of China, the Russian Federation, France, Germany, Greece, Latvia, Mexico, Romania, Georgia, Kosovo, Albania, the United States of America, Azerbaijan, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Bulgaria, Netherlands, Lithuania, Armenia, Niger, Switzerland and Turkey. Most of the volunteers were members of teams (70.04% – 1,139 volunteers) in various sports, the most popular of which were football (200), basketball (125) and volleyball (114). In total, 1,006 volunteers (69.8%) volunteered in Zagreb and 435 (30.5%) in Rijeka (Zagreb hosted more events than Rijeka).

During EUG 2016, the volunteers were divided into smaller teams (38) focused on different parts of the project which matched their interests. Most of the teams were divided into two (Rijeka and Zagreb), and covered areas such as: accommodation, accreditation, administration, attachés (five teams), cultural and social activities, info points, international relations, IT, logistics, marketing, media, medical, NUSA (National Universities Sports Association) assistants, protocol, security, transport and volunteer support.

Teams dealing with, for instance, sport, academic activities and the opening ceremony were different because, firstly, there were 21 different sports teams for every sport, secondly because teams for academic activities were only active in Rijeka, where the special programme/rectors' conference was held. The Opening ceremony team was active only in Zagreb during preparations for the ceremony.

Every team had a team leader whose main tasks were: (1) making schedules for volunteers, (2) communicating with technical sporting delegates, (3) taking care of volunteer services (such as meals, uniforms, internet and transportation), (4) making daily reports on the volunteers' work. The Volunteers' Department involved 52 team leaders: 35 females and 17 males; 51 aged 20-25 and one aged 45. The Volunteers Department assigned teams to team leaders according to their preferences and experience in different fields. Between July 6 and July 27 2016, volunteers contributed 82,344 work hours in total, while from January to July 2016, they had contributed another 29,146 work hours. The Volunteers Department organized test events for volunteers during 2015 and 2016, which focused on training the volunteers and preparing protocols to deal with different situations. During these test events in 2015, volunteers contributed 3,922 work hours.

Evaluation

The Volunteers Department organized 70 training sessions and asked 306 volunteers (21.23% of the total) to evaluate the sessions. The volunteer evaluations focused on the stated goals of the sessions and considered the benefits and outcomes of the workshops. After reading their feedback, I marked each as positive, neutral or negative.

Feedback on sessions (306 answers)	
Positive	295 (96.41% of the collected evaluations)
Neutral	6 (1.96% of the collected evaluations)
Negative	5 (1.63% of the collected evaluations)

Table 2.

In August 2016, I administered another questionnaire, this time focusing on the active role of the team leaders. The questionnaire had more than 20 questions, but in this paper I will focus on those relating to volunteer management and coordination. I received 45 responses in all, covering 86.53% of the team leaders, on the following questions: (1) Did you have any problems with volunteers? What were they? How did you solve them? – Table 3; (2) Would you volunteer to lead a team of volunteers again at a sport event? – Table 4.

Question to a Team leader: Did you have any problems with volunteers? What were they? How did you solve them?

Problem	How was it solved?	Number of answers
There were no problems	-	24 (46.15% of 52 team leaders)
Running late or leaving early	Conversation with volunteer, changing the volunteer team, talking with technical delegate, skills learned during educations.	13 (25% of 52 team leaders)
Avoiding tasks	Conversation, exclusion from the team, skills learned during training sessions.	5 (9.61% of 52 team leaders)
Communication problems	Conversation	2 (3.85% of 52 team leaders)
Not wearing uniform	Conversation	1 (1.93% of 52 team leaders)
Not answered	-	7 (13.46% of 52 team leaders)

Table 3.

Question to a Team leader: Would you volunteer to lead a team of volunteers again at a sport event? – Table 4.

Yes	43 (82.69% of 52 team leaders)
Not sure	2 (3.84% of 52 team leaders)
No	0 (0% of 52 team leaders)
Not answered	7 (13.47% of 52 team leaders)

Table 4.

Regarding the Bidding book for EUG 2016 and the official website of the project, the vision of the EUG 2016 Organizers was to organize an event which would, through its significance, become a catalyst for sports and social change, providing strong support to the development of university sports in Europe and Croatia, as well as improving the quality of life of Croatian students in

general. The vision was to include volunteers in a more effective way and to teach them both how to participate in the organization of multi-sport events and how to organize a project by themselves. Team leaders stated that they had learned communication and management skills, and had become familiar with problem-solving skills. In May 2017, I tried to contact all the team leaders to ask if they had continued working/volunteering in sports organizations as leaders of volunteer teams or in other capacities (sitting on the organizational committee for sports tournaments, competitions etc.) – Table 5.

Question to a Team leader: Have you continued working/volunteering in sports organizations?

Yes	28 (53.85% of 52 team leaders)
No	19 (36.54% of 52 team leaders)
Did not receive an answer	5 (9.61% of 52 team leaders)

Table 5.

Future challenges in working with sport volunteers in the Croatian Academic Sports Federation (CASF)

Based on the experience of EUG 2016, I can say that every phase of the volunteer programme (animation, selection, education and coordination) is important, but that new challenges may arise in the future—challenges similar to the ones described by Graham Cuskelly, Russell Hoyer and Chris Auld, such as relations between volunteers and (future) paid staff. The size and level of sport event can vary from one-day competitions to week-long or even longer events. Sport events can be organized for one sport (for example, the European Universities championship), or they can include a variety of different sports (for example, the EUG). In events of this kind, relations between volunteers and paid staff should not be conflictual; however, when it comes to long-term volunteering, the volunteers could face problems connected with the division of operational tasks between employees and volunteers. This division is even more important when it comes to organizing a volunteer programme for short-term volunteering, because less time can be devoted to improving the operational process. The EUG

2016 Volunteer programme has shown that operational divisions are useful and that it is easier to educate volunteers for precise volunteer roles, with set duties and expectations. Every organizer is responsible for preparing volunteers for their participation in the event, and it therefore depends entirely on the organizer whether the volunteers are prepared or not. With this in mind, the Croatian Academic Sports Federation is trying to connect all sports events and volunteer programmes with the aim of providing the right education for volunteers.

Conclusion

This paper has highlighted the importance of the volunteer programme in the staging of the EUG Zagreb-Rijeka 2016. Focusing on the four main phases of the programme – Animation, Selection, Education and Coordination – CASF was able to include volunteers and teach them how to organize sport events. EUG 2016 was the biggest event held in Croatia in recent years (since 1990) in terms of the number of volunteers in relation to the duration of the event. Based on research conducted with team leaders, it can be seen how significant the educational phase is. The future challenge could be the establishment of common guidelines for volunteer programmes in sport.

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INTERNATIONAL SPORTS ORGANIZATION AND STATE SOVEREIGNTY. THE EXAMPLE OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FIFA, FECAFOOT AND CAMEROON

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In Cameroon, the organization of football is based, on the one hand, on cooperation between states, which assume sovereign functions, and, on the other hand, on the Cameroonian Football Federation (FECAFOOT) and national sports associations exercising missions relating to public service.¹

In light of the different decisions it takes, FIFA obviously imposes its law on state's territories; this is particularly true in Cameroon.

The legislation concerning Cameroonian sports in general and football in particular is governed by two main texts: Act N 2011\018 of July 15th 2011, which deals with the organization and promotion of sports in Cameroon, and Act N. 2014/ 384 of September 26th 2014, which relates to the organization of the Cameroonian national football team. We will also take into consideration the byelaws of national football teams and the various texts of the FECAFOOT.

For many years, there has been endless conflicts between FECAFOOT and the Ministry of Sports on one side, and FIFA and the Ministry of Sports and Physical Education on the other. These conflicts often lead either to threats of Cameroon being temporarily excluded from all international football competitions or of permanent exclusions (as happened on 4 July 2013 with Cameroon's suspension by FIFA due to the interference of Cameroon's politics in its footballing affairs). This situation was confirmed once again on 23 August 2017

1. See Article 36 of Law no. 2011/018 of 15 July 2011 on the promotion and organization of sport in Cameroon.

with the cancellation of the last FECAFOOT elections and the appointment of a normalization committee by FIFA².

From the above, what is to be observed is that the presidents of international sports organizations do behave as heads of governments.

On the one hand, we have the federations claiming that the standard regulations of FIFA are to be applied, which therefore means they are above national law and, on the other hand, the different officials of ministries in charge of sports claiming that it is all about national law³.

Against this background, we have identified a need in terms of that relationship that is not only technical, but also juridical and political: we must try to ascertain whether the sovereignty of the State of Cameroon is endangered by international sports organizations such as FIFA. Two main methods will be used in this case: the juridical method, which is made up of two variations (the dogmatic and the casuistic), and the comparative approach. These methods will be reinforced by the historical and the sociological methods.

The sociological method consists in analyzing social facts and understanding

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2. Communication of the Office of the FIFA Council conveying the decision taken on 23 August 2017 to appoint a normalization committee to the Cameroon Football Federation (FECAFOOT) pursuant to art. 14, para. 1 (a), s. 8 and para. 2 of the FIFA Statutes. This decision relates firstly to the confirmation by the Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS) of the judgement made by the Chamber of Conciliation and Arbitration of the Olympic and Sports Committee of Cameroon, which set aside the election process that led to the election in 2015 of the current executive committee of FECAFOOT and, secondly, to FIFA's recent unsuccessful attempts to bring the different stakeholders in Cameroonian football to the table and thus break the deadlock. The mandate of the committee includes the following tasks: managing the current affairs of FECAFOOT; developing, in consultation with all stakeholders, new statutes that conform with the FIFA Statutes and Standards and with the compulsory national legislation in force; revising the statutes of the regional and departmental leagues and ensuring their conformity with the statutes of FECAFOOT; identifying delegates from the FECAFOOT General Assembly as well as the regional and departmental leagues; organizing the elections of a new FECAFOOT executive committee. The standardization committee will consist of an appropriate number of members to be appointed by a joint FIFA and CAF mission in the near future. It will also work as an electoral commission and none of its members will be eligible for the posts to be filled during the elections. The mandate of the Standardization Committee will expire on 28 February 2018 at the latest.
 3. Bekombo Jabea, M., "*MINSEP – FECAFOOT: Quelle est la part du droit ? Esquisse comparative de la réalité juridique pour mieux appréhender les rapports entre le ministère des Sports et la fédération de football.*", Yaoundé, 28 Décembre 2007, <http://www.Cameroon-Info>.

the receipts of FIFA's dealings, the reasons for its and the State of Cameroon's intrusions in each other's "private" business. It helped us make suggestions in order to improve the relationship between these two inseparable actors in world football.

Concerning the juridical method, it was used to question the different decisions made by FIFA and/or states, as well as the lawfulness of their practices in the light of international legislation. We then used the casuistic method and exegesis not only to identify the rules, but also to extract relevant notions that have lead us to a better understanding of our topic.

Enlightened by these methods and research instruments (direct observation, documentary analysis and the interview), we can say that the power in the hands of political sports organizations such as FIFA has a great influence on the State of Cameroon, even though that impact remains limited.

I. THE INFLUENCE OF FIFA ON THE SOVEREIGNTY OF THE STATE OF CAMEROON

The FIFA uses that influence through *lex FIFA* (A) and the monopoly it has on FECAFOOT (B)

A. The influence of *lex FIFA* on the state of Cameroon

It occurs through the institutional power of FIFA (1) and the particularities of the sports order worldwide (2).

1. The institutional power of FIFA

The institutional power of FIFA is rooted in its attributes and its financial power, which resemble those of a state (a), and in its control over football (b).

a) The attributes and the financial potential of FIFA, showing similarity with those of a state

According to article 60, the International Football Federation FIFA is a commercial association under the Switzerland Civil Code (SCC). Its transfer to another location can only be authorized by a decision of the FIFA congress. Juridically, it is a Non-Governmental International Organization under the trusteeship of private Swiss law.

The FIFA defends values such as authenticity, unity, performance and integrity. Its missions dwell in the first and following articles of its status of 2013.

So far, it aims at:

developing the game, touching the world. In fact, the football passion is spread over the world and shared by millions of fans. It represents the true soul and essence of FIFA. The governing body of world football, guardian of the planet's most popular sport, assumes a very big responsibility going beyond the organization of the FIFA World Cup and many other competitions.⁴

Any other association that aspires to become a FIFA member must submit a written request to the General Secretary of FIFA. FIFA allows each member state to have one and only one representing association.

An association of a dependant region can also become a member of FIFA, if it has the permission of the representing association in the state on which it depends. This has led to criticism of FIFA on the grounds that it outdoes the United Nations⁵.

The number of member nations of FIFA is higher than that of the UN (207 for FIFA, compared with 191 for the UN), showing that football is the most universal phenomenon in the world. We will also note that Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland enjoy "*football independence thanks to FIFA*"⁶, even though they are only part of the UN General Assembly as parts of Great Britain. The French territories of New Caledonia, which belong to France, and the Faroe Islands, which belong to Denmark, also receive their *football independence*.

From a financial point of view, FIFA has become a multinational football enterprise⁷. Between 2011 and 2014, its turnover rose to more than five billion euros, the equivalent of the yearly GDP of Liberia and Burundi combined. It has almost 1.4 billion euros set aside⁸.

This institutional and financial power makes it possible for FIFA to use

4. See Sepp Blatter, www.fifa.com

5. Boniface, P., Quand la FIFA surclasse l'ONU, www.iris-France/tribune, 10 juin 2006

6. Boniface, P., *op.cit.*

7. Pironet, O., La fifa dicte sa loi,

8. www.la-croix.com/actualite/sport/la-fifa-un-etat-dans-l-etat-puissant-et-richissime /28/05/2015

the World Cup as an instrument for applying pressure on nations.

b) Use of the FIFA World Cup as an instrument for applying pressure on FIFA member states

The great number of fans it attracts is the reason why states rush to FIFA's door wanting to become the next FIFA World Cup host. Boosted by their interest, FIFA has no scruples abusing its authority over governments, generally on the following points:

- The monopoly FIFA holds over the organization and attribution of the World Cup (Article 80, indentation 2d).
- Intervention in states' legislation. Its regulations state that any state intending to organize the World Cup shall respect "*The general laws of the World Cup*".

Such political considerations often impact on the elaboration of legal legislation pertaining to football.

2. Main characteristics of texts on football

Sports organizations have gained power over the years in such a way that they now seems to impose an authentic body of legislation. The *lex FIFA* leads to a refusal of the State's judge in its application.

a) The *Lex FIFA*

Football is linked to the *Lex FIFA*. The *Lex FIFA* is produced by FIFA and is part of a wider general network known as the "*lex Sportiva*"⁹. *Lex FIFA* is a partial juridical order which derives its power from the Swiss legislation (which gives other associations the right to regulate themselves), or from other juridical state orders having accepted to recognize it.

The *lex* is elaborated by the Congress, the legislative organ and supreme instance of FIFA.

*"So is the lex FIFA the central organ of a very important law on football governing the World Cup"?*¹⁰

9. Latty, F., *La lex FIFA in Droit et coupe du monde*, Economica, p. 23.

10. Latty, F., *op. cit.*

In this “jungle of regulations”¹¹, one can divide the rules of FIFA into three categories:

The rules essentially concerning sports, “*which regulate the practice of the match and without which the match itself would be impossible*”¹².

The statutory rules which are rules of clubs¹³ and state the rules of the organization and the functioning of a sports organization.

The sports regulations for organizing competitions of a given sport over a delimited period.

Each of the above rules must be congruent with the public order and the regulations fixed by the chair-state. However, international sports organizations seem to reject the intrusion of the state’s judge into the settlement of problems caused by the practice of sports.

b) An objection of the judge under state’s control

The disciplinary power of sports federations leads to a better functioning of sports associations. It was believed for a long time that state jurisdictions were not capable or suitable for resolving sports conflicts¹⁴. Federations, being assigned a mission of public service, have created internal organs in charge of controlling and enforcing respect for its regulations by sanctioning any irregularity. In the light of the foregoing, sports activities have their own private justice, which is noticeable at the level of sports instances themselves (game arbitration and federal regulations) and even beyond this area (Chamber for the Conciliation and Refereeing in Cameroon and the Court of Arbitration of Sports).

11. Chappelet, J. L., L’autonomie des sports en Europe, Coll Politique et pratique sportive, Ed Coll. de l’Europe, 2010, p 44

12. Foucher, R., Compréhension de l’institution sportive comme auteur non itatique, op. cit

13. Chappelet, J. L., op. cit., p 54

14. See Article 79 of the new text of FECAFOOT alinéa 1: «*La FECAFOOT, ses membres, joueurs, officiels, agents de joueurs et de matchs ne présenteront aucun litige devant les tribunaux ordinaires à moins que cela ne soit spécifiquement stipulé dans les Statuts et les règlements de la FIFA. Tout différend devra être soumis à la juridiction de la FECAFOOT, de la CAF ou de la FIFA*».

Alinia 2: «*La FECAFOOT a droit de juridiction sur les litiges nationaux internes survenus entre différents membres. La FIFA a juridiction sur les Litiges internationaux survenus entre des parties appartenant à différentes fédérations et/ou confédérations*». Statuts de la FECAFOOT du 23 Aout 2014

B. FIFA'S stranglehold on national football federations

FIFA acts as the protector of national federations affiliated to it by separating football from politics using the concept of intrusion. The principle of no state interaction in the management of football affairs (2) cannot be properly analyzed without a briefing on this problem (1).

1. Inventory of the actual situation on the interferential activities in football domain

In Cameroon, when looking back at the last 15 years, we notice that the relationships between Cameroon, FIFA and FECAFOOT have never been easily manageable or managed. FECAFOOT claims its independence, ignores state regulations and the multiple acts regulating the organization of public meetings. For this reason, it appears as an exception among the sports movements and a *“pebble in the shoe of all sports ministers of Cameroon”*¹⁵. The most recent case is the exclusion of FECAFOOT by the FIFA Emergency Committee on 4 July 2013 *“for a blatant intrusion in the internal affairs of FECAFOOT”*¹⁶.

In the world, we notice that many states have been discomforted in a football context. We will mention, for example, the threats made against Burundi, Tunisia, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Guinea in 2013, Nigeria in July 2008, and France in 2010 for political intrusion in football affairs.

We note that the relationships between FIFA and its member states are delicate, and that misunderstandings give way to the appliance of the notion of intrusion, a concept which is, curiously, most often used by FIFA as a pretext.

2. Textual explanations of the concert of non-interference according to FIFA

It is found in article 17 of the status of FIFA in the year 2013 that *“Each member of the association must manage its own affairs independently, without the interference of any third person”*.

The concept of political intrusion in the FIFA context means *“the trial of a government to directly control its country's football”*¹⁷.

15. Belibi, A., Interview given by Adoum Garoua, Cameroon's Minister of Sports and Physical Education, on CRTV in 2012.

16. Correspondence sent by Jérôme Vaclke to Mr Tombi, General Secretary of FECAFOOT, Zurich, on 4 July 2013.

17. Regenass, T., “Nous avons des principes stricts”, www.FIFA.com, 19 Octobre 2011.

The best-known cases of intrusion occur when the State estimates that the executive committee of the country's national association is not playing its role properly. In most cases, it happens when the national team achieves bad results over a long period. One possible solution to these problems, from a political point of view, is to directly intervene by modifying the technical management or by asking the president of the Federation to surrender their functions (as happened with FECAFOOT in 2010).

Following a FIFA inquiry and the publication of their unbiased report, a warning of suspension is usually made or the Federation is effectively suspended. Before delivering its final decision on a punishable case, FIFA tries to persuade the institutions concerned to sit down and negotiate a solution that is beneficial to all parties (for example, the meeting between FIFA, MINJES and FECAFOOT in Zurich on 9 December 2014).

II. THE LIMITATIONS OF FIFA'S INFLUENCE ON THE STATE OF CAMEROON

The rapidly increasing empowerment of international sports organizations (IOC, FIFA) which own important events around the world (Olympic Games, FIFA World Cup) does not hinder any of the states concerned from exerting their control over those events. In Cameroon, football remains under significant pressure from the State. This control over national federations is derived from the State's order (A), but is also a consequence of the integration of Cameroon into international law.

A. Boundaries relating to national law

A state is endowed by tools attributed to it by the legislator. These tools give rise to the State's total control over national sports federations at the level of their creation (1) and of their management (2).

1. Methods by which states exert control over the constitution of federations

A sports federation can be defined as a melting pot of many sports associations, sports enterprises and licensees of one or more sports disciplines up to the national level, governed by the dispositions of the law on freedom of association and on the dispositions of Act 2011\018 (15 July 2011) on the

organization of physical and sports activities in Cameroon. The creation of a national sports federation such as FECAFOOT conforms with mechanisms set by the Ministry of Sports and Physical Education. All these procedures, which really “look like a reinforcement of the dominance of the owner authority”¹⁸, seek to make sure that the actions carried out by federations serve “the needs of common interest and the place the legislator would have assigned to physical and sports activities in national life”¹⁹.

The Ministry of Sports, approaching from the same point of view as the legislators, sets fixed conditions for the creation of a sports federation. As soon as the conditions are fulfilled and the administrative delegation is received, they must either respect the prescribed regulations or be sanctioned.

In fact, the Ministry of Sports can cancel the agreement or retire the whole delegation, revealing the extent of its control over sports federations.

2. Instruments for managing sports federations

Article 37 paragraph 1 of the 2011 act states that national sports federations are placed under the guardianship of the Ministry of Sports. This tutorship can be defined as control exerted by the state over associations which neither serves their own interests nor aims to preserve general interest or guarantee legality. The management system and the assistance provided by the State to federations clearly determine the latter's management system.

a) Effective management systems

Cameroon has chosen to adopt a managing system based on interventionism rather than a liberal system.

- The interventionist system

In this system, the management of sports federations is controlled by the State. The state has an important role to play in the organization and promotion of physical and sports activities, since it is in charge of creating and sustaining sports federations.

- The liberal system

This system is characterized by an absence of state custody over sports

18. Alaphilippe (F), «Agrément et délégation nouvelle manière : leur incidence sur l'organisation des fédérations sportives», p 41, R.J.E.S, N° 64, 2002.

19. Lachaume (JP), Du contrôle de l'Etat sur les fédérations sportives, R.J.E.S, N°31, 1994, p 11.

in general and over sports federations in particular. This system can be found in states such as Germany, the UK and Italy.

b) Ministerial support to sports federations

In Cameroon, sports federations can benefit from the assistance and subventions of the Government. This assistance is based on an annual or multiannual programme underpinned by budgetary forecasts approved by the concerned authorities²⁰. The Ministry of Sports also puts technical professionals at the disposal of federations.

B. Limits of international legislation

The limitations of FIFA's influence on state sovereignty at the national level is noticeable at the international level. In fact, to be able to say one influences a State in its sovereignty, the body concerned must be an actor in international law (1). Moreover, recent events at FIFA have shown that this structure is not completely protected against the external influence of member states (2).

1. FIFA: an international non-governmental organization

The phrase "Actor in international law" refers to different structures that play a role at the international level. This actor is a physical or moral person with rights and duties which is active on the international scene.

States were once the only actors in international law, and have consequently always been considered the most important elements in international law. A state is a group of individuals living in a territory under the exclusive and effective authority of a government.

However, globalization has now brought new claims and challenges as well as multiplying the number of worries worldwide. It became necessary for international organizations to take part in this legislation too. An International Organization is an association of states created by a treaty, with a constitution and common organs and possessing a juridical authority different from that of the Member states. A Non-Governmental Organization is created by the states and endowed by the international juridical authority.

Yet, it is undisputable that FIFA is neither a state nor an international organ-

20. See art 49 al1, law N°2011/018 op.cit.

ization. It could fairly be classified as a Non-Governmental Organization. According to Emmanuel Decaux, the acronym “NGO” appears for the first time in the Charter of the United Nations in 1945. The dictionary of International Public Law, approved by Professor Salomon, defines an NGO as a “*private association exerting its not-for-profit activities in the domestic foreground or at the international level*”²¹. It is an organization of public interest that is dependent neither on the state nor on international institutions, nor acts worldwide.

2. The external action of powerful states over the functioning of the FIFA

The new international scandal that has engulfed FIFA stemmed from suspicions relating to corruption concerning the coming World Cups in Russia 2018 and Qatar 2022.

*In 2012, the attorney at law of FIFA, Michael Garcia publishes the results of an inquiry conducted at the request of the Federation itself. The aim of the inquiry was to shed light on the accusations of FIFA corruption. However, the reports which Michael Garcia made seems to have been a problem for FIFA. The report was completed and returned in 2014, but was finally expurgated. The author realized that the report would never be published in its entirety. For him, there is something in the wind, a well-kept secret that shall never be exposed. By the end of the same year, he had withdrawn from his post. His ejection from the organization is still very authoritative in the United States and could have something to do with the recent American intervention against FIFA*²².

For some authors, it is important to go back 24 years to understand the implication of the United States. Most authorities argue that irregularities started during the organization of competitions on US soil. The abnormalities concerned contracts between marketing companies and companies administering the televisual rights, which are so “extremely important for the World cups”, as Nicolas Georgeraux specifies. The accusation targets the American marketing companies, accusing them of having resorted to corruption to ac-

21. Salmon (J.) (Sous la direction de), *Dictionnaire de droit international public*, Bruylant, Bruxelles, 2001.

22. <http://www.rtl.fr/actu/international/corruption-a-la-fifa-pourquoi-les-etats-unis-orchestrent-les-arrestations-en-suisse-7778522461>

quire those rights²³. We therefore certify that FIFA is not exempt from all the actions a State could take against it.

Finally, we assume that a fair and smooth collaboration between Cameroon, FIFA and FECAFOOT would be impossible without a renewal and an improvement in the quality of the texts regulating sport in Cameroon. Each party must avoid interfering in the others' sphere of competence. The national system of organizing sport in Cameroon is based on interventionism and does not, in our opinion, correspond with Cameroonian realities. Indeed, the increasing number of stakeholders should lead our leaders to opt for a liberal model. We could also see how this problem has been resolved by other countries or other international sport organizations such as the IOC²⁴.

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THE PERFORMANCE OF TURKEY IN MAJOR SPORTS ORGANIZATIONS: AN EVALUATION OF THE EFFECT OF MACRO-LEVEL FACTORS

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Introduction

With its intercultural power and increasing competitiveness, sport has become an area of national identity and prestige worldwide (Wicker, Prinz & Von, 2012). One of the most important areas in which this transformation has been experienced is at the international level of sports organizations in which thousands of athletes from many countries compete, whether they be the European or World Championships or the sports event *par excellence*, the Olympic Games.

At the last Olympic Games hosted by Rio de Janeiro in 2016, the United States ended up in first place in the medal rankings as well as having the highest participation of athletes (558: 294 women, 264 men). The United Kingdom came second in the medals table, fielding 366 athletes, and China third with 416. The Turkish national team fielded 103 athletes in 21 different sports in 2016. Winning eight medals, Turkey was placed 41st in the medals list. It can therefore be asked what the principle factors are in international success, in consideration of nations which do not have an equal chance to participate in the Olympic Games or equal opportunities to obtain medals.

In their extensive literature review, De Bosscher, De Knop & Van Bottenburg and Shibli (2006) categorized three levels of factors that can impact on international success:

the macro-level (the social and cultural context people live in, e.g. population, wealth, cultural factors), the meso-level (sports policies and politics),

and the micro-level (the individual athletes' genetic qualities and their close environment-parents, friends or coaches) (p. 4).

While competition at the international level has witnessed a recent increase in the importance of controllable factors at the meso- and micro-levels, such as developing different scientific and strategic methods to train elite athletes, macro-level factors, and specifically the size of the population and Gross Domestic Product (GDP), are still counted as the main predictors of success in international competitions (Morton, 2002; Bernard & Busse, 2004, De Bosscher et al., 2003, Johnson & Ali, 2004, De Bosscher et al., 2006, Soós, Carlos, Martínez, & Szabo, 2012; Sánchez-Fernández & Vaamonde-liste, 2016). In the light of this information, the purpose of this study is to examine the performance of Turkey in major sports organizations in respect of macro-level factors and its own sport system.

Methodology

In the current research, it is proposed to evaluate the performance of Turkey in major sports organizations with reference to macro-level factors which impact on sporting success and to the country's own sports system and policies. In this context, the descriptive research method was used for analyzing Turkey's sporting performance in major sports, especially the Baku European Games 2015 and both the Rio Olympics of 2016 and earlier editions of the Games.

In addition to a detailed literature review relating to macro-level factors, the official websites of the Games, Turkey's independent sports federations, the Ministry of Youth and Sports and the General Directorate of Sports were analyzed to obtain numeric data including the current status of the sport branches, the number of athletes, the number of medals won by each federation and their individual budgets, incomes and sponsorship resources.

Factors affecting sporting success at the macro level

A number of researchers have revealed that there are many economic, sociological, physiological and cultural macro factors that affect the sporting success of international sports organizations. Some of the substantial factors are: (a) population, (b) GDP, (c) Human Development Index, (d) elite sporting system, (e) fertility rate, (f) women's participation in sport (Bernard & Busse 2004; Čustonja

& Škoricć, 2011; Leeds & Leeds, 2012; Soós, Carlos, Martínez, & Szabo, 2012; Seiler, 2013 Jayantha & Ubayachandra, 2015).

The following table compares Turkey with the first five countries in the Rio Olympics medal table in terms of macro-level factors affecting international sporting success.

Countries-Medal Ranking	Number of Athletes	Total No Medals	Population	GDP in millions, USD	Human Development Index (HDI)
1. United States	558 athletes 52.6 % women 47.3 % men	121	324 million	57,466,8	10th
2. Great Britain	366 athletes 44.8 % women 55.2 % men	67	65.6 million	39,899,4	16th
3. China	416 athletes 61.5% women 38.4 % men	70	1,378 million	8,123,2	90th
4. Russia	291 athletes	56	144.3 million	8,748,4	49th
5. Germany	451 athletes	42	82.6 million	41,936,1	4th
41. Turkey	103 athletes 46.6 % women 53.3 % men	8 *1 gold, 3 silver, 4 bronze	79.5 million	10,787,6	71th

Table 1. Examining Countries In terms of Macro Factors

Ref: Population Reference Bureau, (2016); Human Development Report, (2016)

<https://data.worldbank.org>

One of the factors most representative of national success in the Olympic Games is clearly population size. Clearly, countries with larger populations have a potential advantage when competing for medals. Seiler (2013) indicates that most populous countries were more inclined to win more than countries with lower populations. One of the ways in which population influences the process of winning medals is the size of the Olympic team, which is a crucial predictor of sporting performance. For instance, having the third highest population of world, the United States (324 million) was in first place in the medal rankings at the Rio Olympics with the highest number of athletes participating (294 women,

264 men), while the country with the highest population, China (1,378 million) was third in the medals list with 416 participating athletes (256 women, 160 men) (Population Reference Bureau, 2016).

However, international success is not solely determined by the population size and the number of potential/licensed athletes. If so, today's sport leaders would be India, Bangladesh or Mexico, but despite their large populations, these countries have a relatively low success rate at the Games. Rathke & Woitek (2007) indicate that the sporting success of an individual country depends on its population density, but also on the economic resources and its ability to transfer these resources effectively to sports and athletes. Various research projects focused on sporting performance emphasize the critical role of GDP per capita as well as examining population density (Bernard & Busse, 2004, Johnson & Ali, 2004; Pfau, 2006; Rathke & Woitek, 2007; Bernard, 2008, Čustonja & Škorić, 2011, Lui & Suen, 2008). Turkey is 70th in the world rankings with a GDP of 10,787.6 USD per capita (Population Reference Bureau, 2016). Although it is among the 20 largest countries of the world in population terms, Turkey lags behind in its GDP values, due to the scarcity of the economic resources it can muster to meet the demand of its population. And the preparation of athletes for international competitions, establishing training facilities, ensuring the sustainability of these facilities, developing training systems, and supporting scientific training methods all relate directly to GDP per capita (Jayantha & Ubayachandra, 2015). Kuper & Sterken (2001) summarize this situation with the following statement:

A higher income allows a country to specialize in sports, to train athletes better, to provide better medical care, to send a larger group of athletes to the games, etc. In the Olympic history the richer countries have participated at many more events than developing countries (p. 4).

Some researchers have also asserted that other factors relating to developmental level also correlate with medal success, one such indicator being the Human Development Index (HDI), an index which combines measures of life expectancy, literacy, educational attainment and GDP per capita (Human Development Report, 2016). Research conducted at the Institute for Democracy and Conflict Resolution (IDCR) at the University of Essex in the UK indicates that a country's position on the medals table generally reflects its place on the UN's Human Development Index ('Olympic medals reflect human development', 2012).

According to the HDI Report (2016), Turkey comes 71st in the list of countries, and is thus a “high human development country” in the same vicinity as China. With their high HDI scores, the other four countries in the table represent ‘very high human development countries’. Having one of Europe’s highest young populations (Eurostat, 2016) and a large population (79.5 million), Turkey has the advantage of more potential athletes than countries with smaller populations. However, in both sport organizations, Turkey has not been able to achieve as good a performance as expected (Rio Olympics, 41st place out of 207 country; Baku European Games, 10th out of 180 countries). The table below shows the number of potential licensed athletes and what percentage of the general population they account for. According to the 10th Development Plan (2013) of Turkey’s Ministry of Development: “It is counted that children and young people aged 10-29 are potentially licensed athletes” (p.5), therefore only figures for the 10-29 age group are given.

Age groups	Women	Men	Total	% of Total Population
10–14	2,981,910	3,147,133	6,129,043	7.7
15–19	3,222,876	3,400,443	6,623,319	8.3
20–24	3,117,959	3,247,764	6,365,723	8.0
25–29	3,076,681	3,169,360	6,246,041	7.8
TOTAL	12,399,426	12,964,700	25,364,126	31.9

Table 2. The Numbers of Turkey’s Potential Licensed Athletes
Ref: Turkish Statistical Institute, Population Registration System, (2016)

It was also crucial to examine the differences between the number of licensed and potential athletes:

Years	Potential Women Athletes	Potential Men Athletes %	Licensed Women Athletes	Licensed Men Athletes	Licensed/ Potential %	
					Women	Men
2015	12,377,821	12,930,031	1,062,235	2,366,578	0.1	0.2
2016	12,398,516	12,964,700	2,171,475	4,603,793	0.2	0.4

Table 3. Numbers of potential and licensed athletes
Ref: Turkish Statistical Institute, Population Registration System, (2016);
Ministry of Youth and Sports, (2016) <http://sgm.gsb.gov.tr>

The numbers of potential and licensed athletes make it clear that Turkey has not utilized the power of its 31.7% of potential athletes by encouraging them to take up sport. Moreover, the numbers of athletes representing the Turkish national team in both organizations (190 athletes at the Baku European Games, 103 at the Rio Olympics) were low comparing with less populous countries. This demonstrates that Turkey still has difficulty in creating a sport culture by disseminating sport throughout the country to activate the sporting potential of its young population.

The need to do so is still more compelling in the case of female athletes, as the number of sportswomen and the number of medals they obtained at the major sport organizations reveal. Table 4 below shows the number of women athletes who took part in the Olympics, and the number of medals they obtained.

Organization	Number of Women Athletes	Medals Won			
		Golden	Silver	Bronze	Sport
Barcelona 1992	8			1	Judo
Sydney 2000	14			1	Taekwondo
Athens 2004	21	1			Weight-lifting
Beijing 2008	19		1		Taekwondo
London 2012	66*		1		Taekwondo
Rio 2016	48			1	Taekwondo

Table 4. Turkish Women Athletes and Medals Obtained During Olympics

**For the first time, the number of women elite athletes surpassed the number of men.*

Ref: Ministry of Youth and Sports, Statistics (2016)

<http://sgm.gsb.gov.tr/Sayfalar/175/105/Istatistikler>

Even though the 2016 Rio Olympics was the major sport organization with the second largest number of Turkish women athletes participating (48 women) after the 2012 London Olympics, the fact that they only obtained a single bronze medal demonstrates that the number of successful elite women athletes is still very limited, as it was in previous Olympics.

According to Leeds & Leeds (2012), women's high fertility rates have reduced their performance at the Olympics by 30%. Turkey is still one of the countries with the highest fertility rates, although the rate has decreased to 2.1% with a 0.5% drop over the last decade (World Bank, 2015). Additionally, when compared to

previous years, despite the increase in the participation of young girls and women in Turkey, it can be noted that the drop-out rate for women in sport is also increasing. In the study by Koca (2006), which included the study by Fasting & Pfister (1997), the authors explained the reasons underlying this phenomenon in terms of 1) the lowering of the age at which women marry and have children and 2) the increasing roles and responsibilities expected of women in society (being a wife and mother; increasing domestic duties). Different studies have also revealed that women's educational attainment and representation in the labour force correlates strongly with their participation across sporting events and to the number of medals they win in those events (Noland, M., & Stahler, K. 2016).

One of the critical obstructive determinants of female participation and the success of elite athletes in Turkey is gender equality (Koca, 2006; Arslan & Koca, 2006; Yaprak & Amman, 2009). In their study, Bredtmann, Crede & Otten (2014) indicate that this situation not only applies to developing societies, but even to modern countries, where there are significant differences in the restrictions placed on women's social roles – for example, paying attention to women athletes' physical appearance rather than their sporting performance, limited media coverage of women's success in sport, the amount of financial support and sponsorship they receive, the training facilities, scouting and development paths available for women compared with men. They conclude that "This manner of gender-specific inequality is expected to lead to an underperformance of women athletes relative to male athletes within the given countries" (p. 7).

Turkey's sporting system

To understand Turkey's performance at the European Games and the Rio Olympic Games in more detail, it will be useful to examine the facts and figures relating to its own sports system. Comparing different elite systems between countries, Bosscher et al. (2009) revealed in their studies that countries which invest more in their elite systems are more successful in the Olympics. Considering the situation in Turkey, two important projects related to athletic talent selection in Turkey have been realized: the Sporting Ability Research Method, organized by the Turkish Sports Foundation and taking into account the anthropometric characteristics of the athletes selected to take part in the Mediterranean Games, and the Talent Selection for the Olympics and Sports Orientation Project, which

aims to present the sporting environment to children, raise their awareness of opportunities to perform sports and, lastly, to identify, orientate and follow up on their talents. One of the most important projects in this field today is the Turkey Olympic Preparatory Centres Project, which was launched to spread sports and to train successful athletes to participate in the Olympic Games (Ministry of Youth and Sports, 2015). However, considering the elite system procedure in Turkey, it can be seen that Turkish elite sports consists of various athletic talent selection projects, and that these have been implemented at different times instead of establishing an appropriately stable elite athletes system which properly trains and motivates athletes to improve their sporting performance.

Another issue raised by Turkey's participation in international sports organizations is the presence in the Turkish team of athletes who have migrated from other countries, with such athletes accounting for a record 28.1% of the Turkish participants at the Rio Olympics 2016; at the same time, the total number of Turkish athletes decreased compared with previous Olympics. This fuelled a controversy about whether the ratio of migrants to Turks in the Turkish team at the Rio Olympics was imbalanced. The 29 migrant athletes competing in nine different sport categories and won only three medals – in weight lifting (silver), wrestling (silver) and track & field (bronze).

Focusing on strategies of this kind, which provide only short-term success, demonstrates that Turkey is still facing problems creating its own successful, long-term elite athlete system. Even though several studies and projects have been carried out to select talented Turkish athletes, there is still a need to develop more comprehensive and longer-term research and other projects throughout Turkey to improve the process for selecting and developing high-level athletes.

In other respects, all the branches that Turkish athletes participated in at the 2015 Baku European Games and the 2016 Rio Olympics pertain to International Sport Federations and they are still operating under the "Regulation on Working Procedures and Principles of the Independent Sports Federation". However, as there are still some uncertainties regarding the scope and limit of the Independent Federations applications, critical inequalities occur between the different sports and between sporting success and non-sporting success in terms of both general budgets and funds allotted per athlete.

With the exception of wrestling, the budgets per athlete in the disciplines in which Turkey won medals at the Baku European Games (volleyball, karate,

taekwondo) were extremely low. The low budget per athlete of the Turkish Karate and Volleyball Federations highlights the criteria that must be taken into account when setting budgets for shooting, cycling and triathlon, in which no medals can be obtained and where annual budgets are at least 3.5 million Turkish lira. Specifically, wrestling, taekwondo and athletics were the most successful branches of the Turkish national team once again at the Rio Olympics in 2016. Once again, with the exception of wrestling, the general budget per athlete in taekwondo and track & field remained extremely low.

Furthermore, contrary to what the title 'independent' sports federations may imply, many developing federations still cannot provide their own resources and require funds and financial support from the General Directorate of Sports, the Spor Toto Organization Presidency, local government and various public institutions. As a consequence of insufficient and unequal budget distributions among federations, the number of elite-level athletes participating in international sport events is falling, which is impacting on the general sporting performance of Turkey at such events. For this reason, the Sponsorship Law (2004) was introduced to ensure financial independence for the federations and to increase the resources available for raising awareness of and participation in sport around Turkey. However, apart from popular sports (football, basketball or volleyball), many successful sport federations (wrestling, weight lifting, taekwondo) still have extremely limited access to income-generating activities such as sponsorship agreements to increase their own-resources and achieve true financial independence.

Conclusion and recommendations

In summary, it can be said that Turkey has not been able to achieve the expected sport performance at the 2015 Baku European Sports Games and 2016 Rio Olympics. To improve the level of its performance in major sport organizations, Turkey should reconsider its long-term sport policies and strategies based on scientific facts and cultural differences which motivate athletes and individuals and benefit the sport most efficiently. By taking advantage of the findings of the research, the following actions can be suggested:

1. Disseminating sport culture by raising the awareness of the public and parents. Projects should promote sports such as wrestling, karate or taekwondo using important sporting figures to increase media coverage. Some

of these projects need to be planned specifically to encourage girls and women to participate in all areas of sport. Most importantly, it needs to be sustainable.

2. Establishing Olympic Preparatory Centres which can supply the facilities and infrastructure required by elite athletes and provide them with qualified coaches, sport managers and other members of a professional sport crew.
3. Conducting various case studies and quantitative research before and after international sport events to clearly identify which sport branches Turkey has been most and least successful at, in which disciplines there is a high demand for participation despite a lack of Olympic success; which disciplines Turkey has a chance of obtaining a medal in. To decrease the level of athletic talent migration from foreign countries, it should develop long-term projects to increase the potential of the sport infrastructure for Olympic and non-Olympic sports through a fuller understanding of their strengths and weaknesses through the application of scientific findings.
4. In order to avoid unequal allocations between the budgets of independent sports federations, the General Directorate of Sports must objectively implement and review the criteria of the Budget Instructions in terms of contributions for promoting the country, achieving national and international sporting success in the light of expected income-expenditure situations, the number of activities, active clubs, athletes, coaches and referees.
5. Requiring federations to develop their sponsorship strategies in order to achieve financial independence. In this respect, the media and the federations have a great responsibility to promote other non-popular sports. It is necessary to develop strategic approaches to these sports and the athletes in those federations in order to establish their goals and strengths in accordance with the expectations of sponsors by creating a platform where the two sides can share their victories and their common values. Considering the popularity of social media specifically among young people, it is very important for the sports federations to efficiently utilize social media such as Facebook, Twitter or Instagram in order to reach the target group and to attract the attention of potential sponsors.

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THE IMPACT OF THE IMBALANCE IN THE PROPORTION OF WOMEN'S SPORT LEADERS IN ETHIOPIA'S OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

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Introduction

The conception of the Ethiopian Olympic movement started during the 8th Olympiad at Paris in 1924. The Prince of Ethiopia, Ras Teferi Mekonen, received an invitation from the father of Modern Olympics, Pierre De Coubertin, and the Prince fell in love with the idea of the Olympic Movement and, in particular, with the Olympic Games.

The Prince dreamt that his country, Ethiopia, would be part of this Olympic Movement. He laid down the ground work, and after experiencing many challenging scenarios, the Ethiopian Olympic Committee was recognized by the IOC in 1954, and then took part in the Olympic Games in 1956 in Melbourne, Australia.

Since 1956, brave Ethiopian athletes have registered shining victories that vividly portray Ethiopia as a land of outstanding athletes. Prominent among these outstanding athletes is the unforgettable Abebe Bikila, who ran the marathon barefoot and won the competition, taking the Gold medal at the Rome Olympic Games in 1960. This first victory was considered not only an Ethiopian triumph, but was also labelled an "African Victory".

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 the sons and daughters of peasants or to the long distances they had to walk, and sometimes supposedly run, to get to school (Bezabih and Benoit, 2007)

However, even if Ethiopia's female athletes has managed to win 43.39% of

the medals won by their male compatriots at the Olympic Games, their visibility and influence in Ethiopian sport, and the country's Olympic movement in particular, remains insignificant. There are only very few women leaders active in the sector. For instance, of the 28 affiliated National Federations governed by the Ethiopian Olympic Committee, only three have ever had female general secretaries (Ethiopia Olympic Committee yearly report, 2016).

With regard to the Ethiopian Olympic Committee, prior to the recent election of the Executive Board members, there was only one female active in the Olympic Movement of the country.

The main purpose of this paper is to depict the imbalance in the proportion of women sports leaders in the Ethiopian Olympic Movement and to suggest possible and pragmatic solutions to narrow the huge gap that can be observed in the sport leadership realities of the country.

Moreover, this paper weighs issues and facts from the Olympic Agenda 2020 perspective.

Sport and the Olympic Movements are still in their infancy in Ethiopia. One of the crucial factors that have been hindering the development and expansion of sport and the Olympic Movement is the gender-biased scenario in Ethiopian sport governance strata.

The hypothesis of this paper is that women sport leaders, being quite forgotten and ignored, cannot contribute to the development of Ethiopian sport. As a result, this paper will probe all the factors and elements associated with these structural problems and recommend applicable solutions.

The research will analyze the current realities of the governance structures, written and unwritten rules and directives, work principles, mindsets, procedures and embedded systems of the Ethiopian Olympic Committees, affiliated National Federations and Associations. In addition to the aforementioned Federations and Associations, 20 Women's Premier League Football Clubs will be investigated in order to examine how women sport leaders have been treated in comparison to male sport leaders in the Mens' League.

Various primary and secondary information sources will be utilized, including books, journals, published and unpublished documents under the control of the Ministry of Sport and Youth, the Ministry of Women and Children, the Ethiopian Olympic Committee and the National Federations and Associations. Interviews and observations are also part and parcel of this research.

Gender equity in sport governance

According to Joshua A. Senne (2016), women face gender equity issues as athletes and as sport governance officials. There is a lack of women in leadership positions in sport due to the fact that sport is a gendered institution and that all processes operate within a hegemonic masculine norm. Furthermore, sport institutions have institutionalized masculinity as their operating principle.

Within sport, male-dominated activity is identified as privileged, reinforcing masculinity and masculine behaviour as acceptable leadership qualities required in sport. It can therefore be said that gender inequality has become an institutionalized practice within sport organizations (Senne, 2016).

The gender equality policy of the International Olympic Committee

Fostering gender equality and strengthening women's participation in and through sport is one of the key missions of the IOC. With the adoption of Olympic Agenda 2020 in December 2014, the IOC is committed to working with its stakeholders to increase the possibilities for girls and women in sport and to achieve the goal of female athletes representing 50 per cent of the athletes taking part in the Olympic Games (Olympic Agenda 2020).

The IOC President, Thomas Bach, made the following crucial statement on 16 Mar 2017: "The IOC is taking a leadership role in the world of sport to push gender equality globally and effect real change".

For the IOC, one primary focus of inclusion has been the attempt to increase the number of female Games participants and sport leaders (Sport Administration Manual, 2014).

Inequalities and Discrimination Constraining Women in sport

The positive outcomes for sport of gender equality and women's empowerment are constrained by gender-based discrimination in all areas and at all levels of sport and physical activity, fuelled by continuing stereotypes of women's physical abilities and social roles. Women are frequently segregated involuntarily into different types of sports, events and competitions specifically targeted at women. Women's access to positions of leadership and decision-making is con-

strained from the local to the international level. The value placed on women's sport is often lower, resulting in inadequate resources and unequal wages and prizes. Violence against women, exploitation and harassment in sport are manifestations of the perceptions of men's dominance, physical strength and power, which are traditionally portrayed in male sport (UN, 2007).

Women's sport and the media

The gender-based discrimination against women in sport-related employment is also apparent in the unequal representation of women in sport media, and the negative portrayal of women athletes and women's sports remains a persistent problem. In addition, women's sporting events remain marginalized from the mainstream multi-billion-dollar sport-media industry, and while many local, national and international competitions include both men's and women's events, the men's events invariably dominate media coverage and local and global attention (United Nation Publication *Women 2000 and Beyond* 2007).

Gendered Styles

According to Fonda (1997), the existence of gendered roles in leadership and management is viewed as a matter of concern by some proponents of gender equity who fear that this will legitimate the exclusion of women from certain roles, while others argue that the notion of gender difference allows the recognition of the interpersonal qualities associated with female leadership, which may contribute to superior performance by women in certain contexts. Empirical analysis of the performance of men and women in leadership roles has tended to suggest that, though there may be "feminine" and "masculine" (rather than male and female) tendencies and approaches to leadership and management, both men and women are able to draw on these styles, even though men may be more likely to draw on "masculine" and women on "feminine" approaches (Fonda, 1997).

Equality of opportunity

The dominant pressure in sports feminism is the desire for equality of opportunity for women in comparison with men. It is an incentive which is based on the be-

lief that, although male power in sports predominates, it is not inviolable. Sports feminism represents a struggle by women, and by men on their behalf, to get more of what men have always had. The growing concern to provide access for females to traditionally masculinized activities is a central feature of liberal democratic ideology, the intellectual and political framework of which is usually described as liberal-feminist. Liberal feminism is defined as “an attempt to remove or compensate for the social impediments that prevent women from competing on equal terms with men, without otherwise challenging the hierarchical structures within which both sexes operate” (Miles and Middleton 1989, p. 189).

Realities of Ethiopian Women Sport Leaders and the implications for the Olympic Movement in Ethiopia

The Ethiopian sport policy in force since 1998 explicitly stipulates that both sexes, women and men, shall be treated with “equality” in the sphere of the sporting arena as participating athletes and as administrators in decision-making structures as well.

Of 25 respondents, 23 confirmed that in Ethiopia, potential sport leaders continue to encounter scrutiny and stereotyping due to social norms which define women as fragile, less capable and passive. As a typical example, in Ethiopian Olympic history, 43.39% of the medals have been awarded to women, a percentage which jumps to 57.14% across the last three Olympiads in Beijing, London and Rio. However, the Ethiopian Olympic delegation had not a single woman *chef de mission* or medical team head.

One of the very paradoxical issues is that, throughout its 60-year Olympic journey, Ethiopia has had only six women in sport leadership positions within the ETH-NOC Executive Board structure prior to the London 2012 Olympics. And, currently, of the 12 members of the Executive Board, just three are women sport leaders active in the development of the Ethiopian Olympic Movement. The three table-charts below describe succinctly the real situation of women in the sporting governance of Ethiopia:

Number of Board Members & General Secretary at the 28th National Federation	General Secretary		President		Vice-President		Treasurer		Members		Total	
	Male	Women	Male	Women	Male	Women	Male	Women	Male	Women	Male	Women
224	25	3	28	0	28	0	27	1	103	9	211	13

Table1. Governance Structures of the National Federations/Associations of Ethiopia

Good governance implies gender equality in sport. But good governance has been violated extensively in the National Sport Federations of Ethiopia: as Table 1 above demonstrates, on the 28 NFs, there is not a single female President or Vice President, while there are only three women out of 28 and 1 woman out of 28 respectively in the roles of General Secretary and Treasurer. With regards to membership, there are only nine women active compared with 103 men on those 28 NFs. In summary, out of 196 individuals across all 28 NFs, there are only nine women and one woman serving Ethiopian Sport as members and treasurer respectively.

Regional Youth and Sport Bureaux	Commissioners		Vice-Commissioners		Sport Education and Training Directorate Director		Sport Participation and competition Directorate Director		Sport association support and recognition Directorate Director		Communication and international relation Directorate Director		Total	
	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W
11	9	2	11	0	11	0	11	0	11	0	11	0	64	2

Table 2. Governance Structure of the Regional Youth and Sport Bureaux

The government of Ethiopia is structured in the form of a federal parliamentary republic, whereby the Prime Minister is the head of government. Executive power is exercised by the government, while legislative power is vested in the Parliament. The Judiciary is more or less independent of the executive and the legislature. There are nine ethnically-based administrative regions and two self-governing administrations: the capital Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa.

At the grassroots level, each regional state and city administration has its

own sport governance bodies (i.e. Youth and Sport Bureaux); all bureaux have very similar governance structures.

The following posts have been established in the organizational structure of all 11 Youth and Sport Bureaux: Commissioner, Vice-Commissioner, Director of Sport Education and Training, Director of Sport Participation and Competition, Director of Sport Association Support & Recognition, and Director of Communication and International Relations.

However, of these 66 senior sporting positions, only two have been held by women, who have served as commissioners in just two regional states. Not a single woman sport leader has held any of the other posts in the management structure of the bureaux. In summary, 96.87% of governance posts are handled by men and only 3.13% are left for women sport leaders.

Since the NFs are organized by regional states by direct representations, the number of women sport leaders had to be reasonable at the regional state levels in order to get sufficient numbers of women leaders at the grass root levels.

Number of women's football clubs that participate in the premier league	Number of people in the governance structure	General managers		Technical directors		Team leaders		Main coaches		Assistant coaches		Total	
		M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W
20	100	20	0	20	0	17	3	20	0	18	2	95	5

Table 3. Governance structure of the Women Football Premier League Clubs

Table 3 above clearly illustrates the bitter facts about the situation for women sport leaders in the Women's Football Premier League. The clubs were supposed to be led by women, but the crucial positions that should have been held by women were quietly filled by men; the highest-ranking posts – those of general manager – have been totally controlled by men to date, with no opportunities at all for women.

The aforementioned table shows that sport organizations like the Women Football Premier League Clubs did not give equal opportunities to both sex in the

sport governance but on the other hand when we examine the 26 Men Football Premier League Clubs, all posts at the Clubs have been held by men. The men's club did not have a single woman in the governance structure of the Men's clubs.

In a nut shell, the Ethiopian sporting industry is highly dominated by men sport leaders.

Recommendations

Ethiopia's National Federations/Associations, sport clubs, Bureaux and other sport entities need to amend their existing constitutions in order to bring them into line with the work procedures and policies of international federations and the International Olympic Committee. The policy initiative has to be formulated by ETH-NOC and passed to the Ministry of Sport Youth for its input and for consolidation.

At least two capable and competent women sport leaders need to be part of the decision-making body leading every NF, Bureau and club.

ETH-NOC needs to stage an annual National Conference on Women in Sport to enhance awareness in this area.

Media entities need to be created to propagate the positive role of women sport leaders, and sport journalists have to pay due attention to the gender equality agenda.

Organizations working on the issues of female empowerment and gender need to form a sustainable relationship in order to combat gender equality

The ETH-NOC needs to review the role of its Women in Sport Commission and the Olympic Education Commission, and bring them into line with the IOC's counterpart commissions.

The electoral process for the governing bodies of Ethiopia's sport management organizations needs to be transparent and democratic.

Conclusion

Based on the concrete findings of this research, the vivid imbalance in women sport leadership can be seen to be reflected in the Ethiopian sport industry.

Gender inequality is the result of bad governance. In every stratum and system of Ethiopian sport, the representation of women in decision-making struc-

tures is almost nil, although the participation of women athletes in all sporting disciplines and events has increased significantly. Although this is still a recent phenomenon, in terms of medal counts, the contributions of women athletes are eminently comparable with those of male athletes. Indeed, if we look back at the last three editions of the Olympic Games (Beijing, London and Rio), we see that women athletes actually won 57.14% of Ethiopia's medals.

But the administrative and decision-making roles of women sports leaders at the district, provincial, regional and federal levels have continued to deteriorate, with all the most crucial posts held by men.

As a result, the expansion and development of sport, and of the Olympic Movement in particular, in the country remains in its infancy. Ethiopia's avowed sport policy does not match the realities on the ground, and while gender equality has been preached at various events, this has been primarily for media consumption or political gain.

In order to avert the critical problems of gendered inequality in Ethiopian sport, a number of pragmatic measures have to be taken, as the author of this paper proposes. Moreover, all stake holders and other partners with crucial roles in the sphere of Ethiopian sporting governance have to adopt the principles of good governance in order to counter the sector's current gender-based leadership.

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THE RACE FROM EAST TO WEST. HOW THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY AND THE GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC EXPLOITED THEIR TRACK ATHLETICS AT THE OLYMPIC GAMES

Sabrina MÉSZÁROS (GER)

Introduction

This paper is focused on “The Race from East to West or ‘how the Federal Republic of Germany (FDR) and the German Democratic Republic (GDR) exploited their track athletics at the Olympic Games’”. The athletes of the GDR in particular served as national representatives. Walter Ulbricht and his officials coined the following paraphrased expression proclaiming that “an athlete in a tracksuit is a valid diplomat”¹. If one takes this expression on its own, the question can be raised whether sportsmen can be seen as cultural diplomats displayed as representatives of their respective political systems. If so, then to what extent can sport and culture increase the influence of the political agent?

During the 1960s, the politics of both states were largely about state (national) sovereignty and national representation. A comparison of the systems was the focus of the political and sports-related tributes of the GDR.² The 1972 Summer Olympics in Munich played a special role in this. For the first time, the sovereignty of the GDR was demonstrated by their own Olympic team, their own hymn and flag, and all of this on the soil of the nation’s greatest adversary. The Games became a particular challenge for the GDR’s “propaganda department”, which

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1. Manfred Preußner: Der gesellschaftliche Auftrag des Leistungssportlers in der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik, in: TPK, 6/1958, p. 491.
 2. Cf. Martin H., Geyer: Der Kampf um nationale Repräsentation. Deutsch-deutsche Sportbeziehungen und die “Hallstein-Doktrin”. In: Vierteljahresshefte für Zeitgeschichte 44 (1996) 1, p. 55–86.

wanted to counter the sole representation claim of the FRG. For the GDR, it was certain that the “other” Germany was trying to prevent their rise as a sovereign, superior state and approved member of the international sports community. Hence, the GDR kept using their brand of strong propaganda to diminish the Games’ potential political profit for the FRG.³ The paradigm shift had an immediate impact on the support and promotion of certain sports. The primary aim of the common German Olympic Team was a wide participation in qualifying contests and an increase in the number of athletic participants. In this way, the comparison of the systems became measurable in terms of the number of their certified athletes. Acquiring medals became the focus of both sovereign German states.

All the sources originally in German were translated into English for the purposes of this paper by the author.

The following is an excerpt from the working directives for the professional sport commission (1967):

*The serious sport commission of the GDR has on the basis of the decisions of the Party the duty to protect the development of the serious sport of the GDR with the aim that the GDR team takes a place among the six best countries in the world in the Olympic evaluations in the period until 1980. Furthermore, it is most important that GDR sportsmen establish themselves as international championships and win in the most important mass-appeal sports and place ahead of West Germany.*⁴

One result of this paradigm change was that the GDR athletes with the potential to win several medals in their disciplines were given more attention. Costly team sports, with the exception of football, were neglected. To catapult the performance of the GDR’s sportsmen to a level among the world’s best, the whole sport system was restructured. The GDR established a professional system for selection and support in which future athletes were divided between popular sports

3. Cf. “Sportpolitisches Argumentation für die weitere Vorbereitung unserer Olympiakader”. SAPMO, Akte DY IV A2/1002/14.

4. Giselher Spitzer (Hg.): Schlüsseldokumente zum DDR-Sport. Ein sporthistorischer Überblick in Originalquellen. Aachen: Meyer & Meyer (Sportentwicklungen in Deutschland, 4), 1998, p. 140f, nach: SAPO, IV A2/18/5, SED-Hausmitteilung von Hellmann an Honecker vom 8. November 1967 (Vermerk “Einverstanden E. H. 17.11.67”), hier dokumentiert: Anlagen Arbeitsrichtlinien für die Leistungssportkommission der DDR.

and competitive sports as young children in order to attend separate training and fostering centres. The selection was determined by the athleticism and physical appearance of the individual. Afterwards, the selected children and youth were appointed to a sport according to a sports chart. After all that, they would be meticulously prepared for their chosen discipline. The athletic success resulting from this system was also due to the effective diplomatic efforts made to attain international support for the recognition of the GDR.⁵ Primarily in Western states, public discussions were often held and subsequently released to the media in which intellectuals critiqued the self-representation of a state through athletic success. However, these discussion bore no fruit, as the GDR media instrumentalized nationalistic emotions: “Neither in the East nor in the West were politicians afraid to instrumentalize sport for national or ideological objectives”.⁶

The intentions of the states presumably led to similar mechanisms. The state reacted to political conflicts by intervening in the bilateral and multilateral sports traffic. In spite of all their efforts, the GDR was unable to represent itself through impressive athletic achievements. This would be also as an argument for the superiority of democracy over totalitarianism. Opinions became clear during the boycotts of the Moscow Olympics in 1980: on the one hand, sport would have to make increasing sacrifices in crisis situations that were inconceivable for the economy; on the other, sport had a moral responsibility. This could mainly be used by democratic states for a diplomatic exchange of views.

“If the athletes of the GDR win, we also always win a little. Nevertheless, they are our compatriots”⁷ (Willy Brandt, Federal Chancellor)

Federal Chancellor Brandt was bitterly criticized for this statement by the GDR, because he collectively took the credit for their athletic success and attributed it to the FRG. Their sovereignty finally internationally approved, the GDR wanted to prevent at all cost any undermining of this sovereignty, which would obstruct their aspirations of breaking with the Western world.

5. Giselher Spitzer (Hg.): *Schlüsseldokumente zum DDR-Sport. Ein sporthistorischer Überblick in Originalquellen*. Aachen: Meyer & Meyer (Sportentwicklungen in Deutschland, 4), 1998, p. 132f.

6. Gunter, Holzweissig (1981): *Diplomatie im Trainingsanzug*. München (Schriften des Forschungsinstituts der Deutschen Gesellschaft für auswärtige Politik. Reihe, 46), p.9.

7. *Deutsche Stimme*, 13.8.1971.

The current state of research points to the indivisibility of the media and sport. They stand in a continuous mutual exchange relationship. If it did not report on sports, the media would lose a great number of customers. Sports attract attention. For athletes, the media industry is of great importance; without their reporting, the athlete would lack the national and, above all, international stage on which to present himself. Nowadays, the circulation data of the mass media reveals greater and greater national and international accessibility. Accordingly, it stands to reason that the medium is used by sports for ideological and political purposes. This can be done in several ways.

Sports events can serve as a political stage. One example of this is the Munich 1972 Olympic Games, when Palestinian terrorists took hostages in the so called "Olympia Village". Furthermore, governments can urge their sports teams to use the event as a demonstration of political differences. Participation in an international sports event is either granted thanks to an impulse on the part of the host organization itself, or due to political pressure exerted by governments. This depends on the demands to the host country. But teams can also be excluded from the competitions if they do not concur with the political demands of the host country. Media reporting is an essential aspect which can deliberately influence international as well as national political proceedings. The Olympic philosophy that participation, not victory, should be in the foreground and should not serve "as an instrument of exclusion" was lost during the Cold War in Germany.

Methodology

This research topic is complex and the methodology will therefore attempt two types of empirical analysis:

1. The instrumentalization of the runners during the Olympic Games can be examined historically-chronologically, allowing conclusions to be drawn on historical causes and starting positions.
2. With the help of the problem-oriented approach, the international and national aims of both states can be spotlighted and analyzed.

Using the example of the editions of the Summer Olympics during the years in which Germany was divided (1968, 1972, 1976, 1980, 1984 and 1988), the reporting of selected media from both states was examined with the help

of quantitative contents analysis. The reporting in the months from April until November was analyzed for the aforementioned years, since newspapers published more useful articles on the Olympics during this period; the reporting about the Olympic Games beyond it is negligible for analysis.

With the help of different print media, we will ascertain whether the two states' reporting, and therefore the media presence of the runners, deviated from one another and assumed propagandistic forms. Then there is the question of how the media affected the athletes themselves, as well as foreign policy and domestic politics. Although a sufficient material base exists, the topic excludes athletes from other disciplines and from the Olympic Winter Games. As investigation material, a choice of German press reports are used, as well as documents from the federal archives in Koblenz. Because of the high expense of analysis, comparisons must be limited to the *Spiegel* and the *Bild* from the FRG. The magazines *Neues Deutschland* (ND) and *Sports Echo* will be worked on in the upcoming weeks and used in the essay afterwards. The following is a short side note on the *Spiegel*: with roughly 6.79 million readers and counts as one of the most widespread magazines in Germany.⁸

In contrast, *Bild* has roughly 11.49 million readers, according to a survey from 2006. Approximately 38.3% of the readers are female and 61.7% are male. About half of its readers belong to the working class.⁹ There is hardly any information available about the readership of *Neues Deutschland*.¹⁰ It is safe to assume that this publication reached approximately one quarter of all the households in the GDR. Its target readership was primarily SED members and officials, as well as others in the GDR who were approved of and loyal to the governmental line. Some were obliged to study the newspaper. In general, one can say that ND exerted a great influence on other newspapers in the GDR and therefore set the benchmark. This is particularly true of its sport reporting.¹¹ Single articles were analyzed from the above print media as to their contents. Only those articles which dealt with running disciplines and the "other" Germany were taken into consideration.

8. Cf. <http://www.spiegelgruppe.de/spiegelgruppe/home.nsf/Navigation/C226C5F6118D70E0C12573F700562F49?OpenDocument>, examined 28.06.2017.

9. Cf. <http://www.bildblog.de/1580/wer-liest-bild-und-bild-am-sonntag/>, examined 28.06.2017.

10. Cf. Fritz, *Feuereisen: Die Presse in Europa*, München, 1971, p.111.

11. Cf. Gunter, *Holzweissig: Diplomatie im Trainingsanzug*. München (Schriften des Forschungsinstituts der Deutschen Gesellschaft für Auswärtige Politik. Reihe, 46), 1981, p.132.

Results

The analysis of *Spiegel* magazine reveals that the medium focused on political and social-critical topics. The Olympic Games were reported on relatively little in the period 1976-88, with the reporting in 1976 on the Olympic sprinter Annegret Richter being the only example of the political significance of a single sportsman/sportswoman. The campaign Sportsmen for Federal Chancellor Helmut Schmidt, founded in 1976 for the “golden girl” Annegret Richter, presented an important sign politically. *“Luckily, at least the top sportsmen are fairly stable as identification figures – even if one must accept that the supporters distribute sympathies to government and opposition among them.”*¹² Only four years later, during the 1988 Olympic Games, the officials and the economy agreed that not every sportsman present at the Games served as a suitable identification figure. This also seems to be explained by this statement: *“Because a single athlete who always wins on a continuing basis is practically impossible.”*¹³ The re-orientation of the market came about through the participation of the professionals, when Eastern bloc athletes tried to get the Western advertising money for themselves. This is stated in another article in the *Spiegel*:

*You are valid as likeable and guileless, as the GDR sportsmen present themselves in Seoul. Now the most successful of them also want to see some of the money, just like their colleagues in the West.*¹⁴

In addition to the central theme, the political and primarily economic aspects of sport, *Spiegel* also reported about the absurd competitive philosophy of the two states and their desire to distinguish themselves by winning medals. Hence, contact between athletes of the two states was forbidden. An Eastern bloc journalist explained this “controlled coolness”, saying that “our athletes [...] had to concentrate on the competitions.”¹⁵

In contrast, *Bild* published more articles involving the Olympic Games. In 1968, the focus was on the possible increase in participation by athletes from the Federal Republic. This becomes especially clear in the following headline:

12. Hermann Schreiber: Dabeisein ist out, *Spiegel* 37/1976, p.46.

13. Geistige Baisse, erbarmungsloser Kampf, *Spiegel* 39/1988, p.252.

14. DDR-Sportler – Blöder Rummel, *Spiegel* 39/1988, p.245.

15. DDR-Sportler – Blöder Rummel, *Spiegel* 39/1988, p.256.

“Ingrid’s [Baker] gold: the best doping for our Olympic fighters”.¹⁶ Through the conscious provocation of the words “ours”, the GDR was laying claim to the sole representation of athletes, particularly to the West. The reporting on the Olympic Games came to a climax in the 1972 Summer Games. Supposedly, the reason for increased reporting seems to be the venue, Munich, and thus the fact that the FRG was the host; this accompanied by worries about observing the “Olympic Peace”. The *Bild* reported that IOC President Brundage, the GDR and the Soviet Union had been informed about the fact that it could come to political demonstrations.¹⁷ The mere announcement of possible demonstrations detracted from the Olympic spirit and placed it below political analyses. Sports events should concentrate on the essentials –the common sports activity– and be free of political debate. The rivalry exerted an unsettling influence on the athletes of both states. In this context, the following statement by the sprinter, Rudolph, to his team mate Cooper from the FRG is not surprising. He shouted, “Fuck off, you idiot!” when Cooper wanted to help him after he had fallen. *Bild* further reports that Cooper could have reacted angrily, because the fall had been caused by Rudolph, who was thus denied a chance to reach the finals. Nevertheless, he helped him up in a friendly manner.¹⁸ The statement testifies to a feeling of comradeship on both states, at least on the FRG side. They always used the language of reunification. This was most likely unwelcome in the GDR, because it went against their aspirations for independence.

Another example is that after the Munich 1972 Olympic Games, *Bild* asked Willi Daume, head of the National Olympic Committee for Germany (NOK), for an interview, asking “Was it your aim to create a new image of Germany [...]?”. Daume answered: “I would always be careful to connect the Olympic Games with a political aim. But if one knows how much emotional effect the Olympic Games have, then one also knows that the world receives a certain image.”¹⁹

The presentation of your own country is focused on and is examined internationally. Therefore, sports are just a tool. The massive international attention provides a major international stage which can be used to reinforce political statements.

16. Ingrid’s Gold – das beste Doping für unsere Olympiakämpfer, *Bild* 13.10.1968, p.22.

17. Sorge um den Olympia Frieden, *Bild* 1.6.1972, p.14.

18. Hau doch ab, du Idiot!, *Bild* 2.09.1972, p.10.

19. Olympia – 25 Tage danach, *Bild*, 6.10.1972, p.27.

According to this idea, the question that dominated 1972 and remained dominant until the reunification of Germany, for the prestige of the FRG was this: “Why does the GDR win so many medals?”²⁰ or “Gold, gold: why do the other Germans win more often?”²¹ Daume responds to the athletic success of the GDR as follows:

*The GDR is very strong in terms of sport, of course, and it has to prepare better opportunities for its athletes. The government does a lot to support sports. And if one looks at the sport, it is also a good political advertisement. [...] One must have respect for the GDR's sportsmen.*²²

With this interview he implies the huge government influence on sports, which is constantly subordinate to the government or the economy.

During the next two Olympic cycles in 1976 and 80, the media were influenced by the sprinter Annegret Richter, as the *Spiegel* notes: “Thus I got gold for Germany”²³ or “Annegret gets only 2x gold and 1x bronze”.²⁴ Annegret was celebrated in the media as a pop star, as a sprinter who lacked the desired physical condition, but who prevailed through ambition alone. According to Ulbricht, she would be the perfect definition of a “diplomat in a tracksuit“, because she had a very gentle appearance but nevertheless celebrated several successes due to her ambition and discipline. She enjoyed a high media profile and worked as an Adidas sales representative until 2010.²⁵

Conclusion

It should be recognized that it was an element of the GDR's competitive sports structure to treat teams from capitalistic states as symbols of the enemy. This went against the Olympic philosophy as this was laid out by Baron Pierre de Coubertin. The different social functions of the two states meant they had par-

20. Warum holt die “DDR” so viele Medaillen, *Bild* 13.09. 1972, p.17.

21. Gold, Gold – Warum siegt das andere Deutschland öfter?, *Bild*, 27.07.1976, p.2.

22. Warum holt die “DDR” so viele Medaillen, *Bild* 13.09.1972, p. 17.

23. So holte ich Gold für Deutschland, *Bild* 4.08.1976, p. 17.

24. Annegret holt allein 2x Gold und 1x Bronze, *Bild* 13.07.1976, p. 9.

25. Cf. <https://www.leichtathletik.de/news/news/detail/annegret-richter-bleibt-dem-sport-treu/>, examined 28.06.2017.

ticular and different expectations of their athletes. For the athletes of GDR, this means they were representing the socialist society and had to internalize that ideology. This was distinguished by a clearly defined class position, which should not be underplayed in any way. Ulbricht's "diplomats in a tracksuit" stood for a close bond between state and society. Furthermore, politics became increasingly involved in socio-cultural aspects of the Olympic games. One reason for the different ways in which the athletes were instrumentalized may be the GDR's lack of recognition as a sovereign state on an international level.

If one now considers the representation of the athletes in the *Spiegel* and the *Bild*, it is clear that the *Spiegel* deals predominantly with the political significance of the individual athlete. In this regard, the sprinter Annegret Richter is to be emphasized. And while "instrumentalization" is not accounted for in this context, its definition underpins the reporting. The *Bild* focuses primarily on a demarcation of the athletes from the two states. It is striking how distorted a view the *Bild* provides of the GDR sportsmen, who are mostly described as "chilly" or "sympathetic and guileless". The extraordinary athletic achievements in the fight for medals and the partly "unfriendly" behaviour of these athletes is emphasized over and over again. There was no room for doubt in the self-image of the German Gymnastic Alliance and Sports Alliance (DTSB) about the political importance of sport and the opportunity it provided to enforce political and economic aims. In this regard, the international acceptance of the GDR, which was enhanced by the politicization of its sports, was significant.

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Ingrids Gold – das beste Doping für unsere Olympiakämpfer, *Bild* 13.10.1968.

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Olympia – 25 Tage danach, *Bild*, 6.10.1972.

Warum holt die "DDR" so viele Medaillen, *Bild* 13.09. 1972.

Gold, Gold – Warum siegt das andere Deutschland öfter? *Bild*, 27.07.1976.

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Annegret holt allein 2x Gold und 1x Bronze, *Bild* 13.07.1976.

SOFT POWER AND THE OLYMPICS

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Sport is inseparably linked to the nature of man, and our development since prehistoric times has been the result of purposeful improvements in efficiency necessary for survival (Lipoński 2012). The progress of civilization, religious beliefs, the appearance of a human instinct demanding fun and satisfaction, have all contributed to the creation of sporting events. From ancient times, one can observe the impact of the Olympic Games, among others, by the appearance of such institutions as the sacred truce or the subjective definition of the qualities of athletes (Mestre 2009).

The noble rule of *citius, altius, fortius*¹, introduced by Father Henri Didon during the revival of the Olympic Games, inspires sport to this day. Still, the primary goal of any competition is to be better than the opponent while remaining in compliance with the agreed sporting rules. Like the basic motto of the Olympic Movement, the role of sport as a tool for influence has not changed. The biggest sporting events are not only competitions on the field; they are also part of a broader struggle for influence and achieving the desired promotional and economic effects (Nitsch, Wendland 2013). The nature of these activities can be described as soft power.

This paper analyzes the Olympic Games in the light of international relations and according to the concept of soft power, including the legal fundamentals of the process. It frames the idea of soft power, its actors and the instruments it possesses in order to impact on others. It describes soft power in the Olympic context through the role of the International Olympic Committee and an analysis of the Olympic phases in the light of impact and influence. The paper closes with a discussion on the future of the Olympic Games.

Latin: faster, higher, stronger

Definition of soft power

There are many definitions of power, but this paper focuses on a concept created by an American scientist, Joseph S. Nye Jr, who pointed out that power in international relations comes in two forms: “hard power” and “soft power”². Both refer to the possibility of influence, but while hard power is based on either military or economic strength, soft power refers to all soft instruments of strength that rely on the impact of attraction (Nye 1990).

Power itself might be described as a possibility of impacting on others, so power exists when ‘A’ can influence ‘B’ (Davis Cross 2011).

Firstly, soft power has always been used in relation to states, which may use soft power in various ways. Most states conduct their public diplomacy in order to promote concrete goals using various tools like cultural events or language courses and is organized either by public bodies, including diplomacy, or by specialized agencies (Lanshina 2015). In light of the growing role of regions and cities, they may be able to gain influence due to the attraction they possess. Their role might be comparable with that of ancient or medieval cities-states, as they are defined as international cities.

Secondly, soft power refers not only to states or other public governmental bodies, but also to other subjects and actors in international relations (Reynolds 2012, Rough 2017). This group includes business and non-governmental organizations as well as groups of interests. Most of the well-known commercial brands (e.g. Coca-Cola) might be described as having influence on others according to their general perception. Non-governmental organizations seek to achieve identified goals which are important for society and which may impact on others (including political influence on government) according to the public support they possess.

Thirdly, soft power can be possessed by interest groups or individuals who may be described as owners of material or immaterial ideas (Rose 2005, Reynolds 2012). One of the most popular examples is food, which can impact on others according to their perception. The food – or, more widely, the idea of it – may belong to an identified or unidentified group of persons, like a nation

2. The first description of the concept: Nye J., (1990), *Bound to Lead: The Changing Nature of American Power*.

or a group of inhabitants from a concrete region who consider themselves the owners of the idea.

To sum up the idea of soft power, both the subjects and the tools of possible influence may come in material or immaterial form. There is no complete catalogue of possible impact tools, but they must be legal to qualify as tools of soft power.

In addition, a mix of soft and hard power are used to achieve the desired result. But, one must remember that the aim of soft power is to intentionally or unintentionally impact on others. Thus, in some cases, the effect might be the target of the actions, while in others the influence is just a side effect. The final reception of the soft power depends on perception, which can be either positive or negative (Rugh 2017).

Soft power and the Olympics

According to the described concept of soft power, the question of soft power in the context of the Olympic Games arises: who has the potential to influence, what are the tools of impact, and what is the desired effect of these actions? We should begin with Rule 7 of the Olympic Charter, which states that the International Olympic Committee is entitled to all rights to the Olympic Games. It is a legal confirmation that the IOC may have the possibility to influence others according to their possessed right. In other words, any rights concerning the Olympic Games are owned by the IOC (described as the 'leader of the Olympic Movement'), which may decide on any existing or future rights to the Olympics (Mestre 2009).

From the perspective of international law and international relations, there is doubt about the international legal status of NGOs, including the IOC. They are generally defined as actors under international law, which means they are entities with a certain autonomy which act within an environment with which they may interact. There are factors that can confirm its role, including its legal status and ability to enter into legal relationships with states, current power and practice (Shaw 2011). A consequence of their subjectivity is that they are complementary to sovereign state entities, without intending to become states themselves.

In most cases, Olympic soft power is used intentionally by the IOC itself, as well as by subjects and groups recognized by the IOC. The power of the Com-

mittee, based on Rule 7, is mainly realized in its legal power to act in regard of any person interested in the Olympic Games, including organizers (candidates and cities awarded the Games), athletes and sport federations, sponsors, broadcasters and individuals. When it comes to the bidding and organizing committees, the IOC requires governmental, private and public guarantees in relation to the organization of the event (Mestre 2009). The promises are usually divided into three groups: financial, infrastructural and legal. One example of the possibility of exerting influence with a mix of soft and hard power is increasing the price of broadcasting rights for the Olympic Games, which is an effect of the increased popularity of an event (Preuss 2004, Preuss 2014).

In addition, the subjects and groups recognized by the IOC consist, in general, of the Olympic family, which is a group consisting of all the parties involved in the Olympic Movement, including the National Olympic Committees, the International Sports Federations, the athletes, the Organizing Committee of the Olympic Games, as well as the TOP partners (sponsors of the Olympic Movement), broadcast partners and United Nations agencies. One may say that soft power is awarded by the IOC. Any member of the Olympic Family can use the power thanks to the legitimacy granted by the IOC's status, but the power is limited by the IOC by means, for example, of Rule 40 of the Olympic Charter, which places restrictions on commercial activities.

However, some – including persons and groups of interests – may use soft power regardless of the limitations put in place by the Committee, to the disadvantage of the IOC. Soft power may belong to unidentified groups of entities (Reynolds 2012, Rugh 2017) that use the soft power of the Olympic Games as if it were their own. An example of such an action would be connecting a brand with the event and its associated perceptions, even though the brand is not an official sponsor or partner; this could be summed up as 'legal' ambush marketing.

Olympic phases

The abovementioned role of the International Olympic Committee might be confirmed by the proposed periodization of the Olympic Games according to soft Olympic power. The postulated division complies with other scholars (Rubio 2015), and at the same time is focused mostly on the possibility of impacting

on others (Preuss 2004). What is particularly worth emphasizing in the following periodization is the paradox between the political neutrality of Olympic sports on one side, and the correlation between the periodization and significant political events of international relations on the other (Taylor 2005). The proposed periodization should not be interpreted strictly, according to the fact that each Olympics may have features also present in other phases and be influenced by many factors.

The first Olympic phase began in the nineteenth century, when the first attempts to set up sports clubs, sports disciplines, players' associations and competing clubs were made. Although the idea of resurrecting the Olympic Games was relatively popular at this time and led by many independent actors, the most successful was the International Olympic Committee, which was founded in 1894³. It was decided first and foremost to refer to the history of the ancient Games and to stage the first modern Olympic Games in Athens in 1896. Due to the time needed to resurrect the idea of the Games, this period is characterized by poor brand recognition. However, what is important for the identity of the event is that each was organized according to the same premise that led to the birth of the modern Games. The first years of the revived Olympics saw the Games competing with, or even forming part of, other events⁴. What's more, they were attended by a relatively small representation from around the world due to the enormous cost of attending the event. A breakthrough came with the 1912 Games in Stockholm which witnessed, among other things, the conclusion of the first sponsorship agreement in an Olympic context⁵.

World War One resulted in the suspension of the 1916 Games, but not the growth of the Games' importance after the end of hostilities. States that had emerged or become independent after 1918 sought to confirm their presence in the international arena, including the world of sport, culture and art⁶. In the

3. Despite having far less technical, financial and communication potential than today, the Congress for the Renewal of the Olympic Games took place at the Sorbonne with seventy-nine sport delegates from twelve countries.

4. Both the Olympic Games in Paris 1900 and St. Louis in 1904 were part of international exhibitions.

5. Agreement between the Organizing Committee and the Kodak Company for the exclusive use of Kodak cameras for the Olympics.

6. For example, in Poland, one of the first NGOs created after independence in November 1918 was the Polish Olympic Committee.

second phase of the Olympic Games, sports was widely concerned, starting with the Chamonix Winter Olympics in 1924⁷. However, the Olympics started to be a global propaganda tool with the 1936 Winter (Garmisch-Partenkirchen) and Summer (Berlin) Games (Mestre 2009).

The beginning of the third Olympic phase is also linked to the end of hostilities, this time in World War Two. The first post-war events were seen as respectful of peace⁸, including the symbolism of all the athletes matching together, regardless of their nationality during the Games' closing ceremonies from the 1956 Melbourne Olympics on. This period might be called a 'phony peace', because sport would quickly become a Cold War tool, which was significant for temporary political blocs, but not necessarily for the development of the Olympics itself (Taylor 2005).

For this reason more than for global policy motives, the fourth Olympic phase can in principle be described as relating to the commercialization of mass culture and life, including sport. The increasing importance of television broadcasting influenced the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics, making them the first Games fully implemented with the support of sponsors and partners who saw the prospect of commercial gain not only in the Games themselves, but also in the period preceding and following the event (Preuss 2004, Preuss 2014). The Games have now become a global brand, not only in terms of sports but also of marketing, which definitely raises the appeal of the event.

In recent years, as the fifth Olympic phase continues, the soft power of the event has impacted on the Games, which are treated as a potential tool for communication and moulding perceptions. The truth of this statement is confirmed by the organization of the Games in places not necessarily well-suited to specific events (Sochi 2014, Beijing 2022), without taking into account the space and facilities required for the Games (Sochi 2014, Rio de Janeiro 2016, Pyeongchang 2018), without paying due attention to the Games' financial policy (Sochi 2014, Rio 2016), and emphasizing the role of the organizing state on the international scene (every edition from Sochi 2014 to Beijing 2022). The perceived image of the event is influenced by the growing crisis facing the Olympics, which has resulted in a lack of candidates willing to host the 2028 Games, local referendums

7. However, it should be remembered that these events were played as a tournament under the patronage of the IOC and confirmed as the first Winter Olympic Games after the fact.

8. Although athletes from Japan and Germany were not admitted to the Games in 1948.

rejecting candidatures (Cracow 2022) or social protests that have resulted in the withdrawal of candidatures (Budapest 2024).

The future of the Olympics

The widespread crisis facing the Olympics (and the organization of mega events in general) has, however, been noticed by international sports organizations, which have put in place corrective action plans. The International Olympic Committee has developed Agenda 2020, which is a guide to the future of the Olympic Movement. The Agenda contains forty recommendations for the Games.

As indicated by the IOC, the recommendation is a jigsaw puzzle that, once put together, creates a unique image of the Olympics. The IOC has imposed the obligation to adjust to the requirements of the Agenda on the cities that will be hosting future Games, including those that have already been selected, by striving to reduce the cost of the facilities and venues needed to host the Games (Budzier, Flyvbjerg, Stewart 2016). In the case of the 2024 Summer Games, only Paris and Los Angeles remain in the running of the five cities that initially expressed a desire to bid.

Both cities remaining in the race for the 2024 Games have underlined the importance of Agenda 2020 and of organizing a sustainable event. The Paris 2024 Bid Committee stressed the importance of a balanced organization and of cohesion between the development strategy of the city and the region. The event itself is set to be held in the heart of Paris. It is estimated that 80% of the buildings will be within ten kilometres of each other and that 85% of the participating athletes will travel to sports facilities within 30 minutes of the Olympic Village. In addition, 70% of the planned facilities are already extant, while of the remainder, 25% will be temporary and only 5% will be new buildings (Bercy II and Aquatics Centre).

Turning to the Los Angeles candidacy, it is worth noting the affiliate and (ultimately) commercial character of the Games, which confirms the importance of designing the event in such a way that it allows for simultaneous, long-term development. The Bid Committee was proud of the fact that the current activities are financed entirely by private business. One example of strategic importance may be the use of the UCLA Olympic Village, whose planned enlargement will also allow Olympians to be hosted in and help develop the University. Amer-

icans also point out that each edition of the Games organized in the United States has helped stimulate the emergence of a group of commercial sponsors or partners for the entire Olympic movement.

The IOC has decided to award the right to stage the Olympic Games in 2024 and 2028 to, respectively, Paris and Los Angeles, because of the lack of other cities and states interested in doing so. The designated direction may soon become a trend, as cities that are planning to be candidates for the next Games are already underlining the importance of public support and public trust based on the long-term sustainability of the Olympic Games. Potentially, hosting the Games should be win-win from now on, with both the IOC and the organizer emerging victorious.

It seems that the trend for the 2024 and 2028 events confirm this theory, as can be seen from the domestic support for the Paris bid which had risen to 75% immediately prior to its candidacy emerging victorious.

Conclusion

In this paper, the concept of soft power and its presence in the Olympics has been described. Soft power, defined as the ability to impact on others, is aimed at exerting influence – which may, according to perception, be positive or negative – either intentionally or unintentionally using both tangible and immaterial means forms. In the case of the Olympic Games, the main role in international relations is played by the International Olympic Committee, which uses legal instruments to achieve the desired effect. The soft power is used by the IOC and its recognized entities (empowered by the IOC) as well as by other people and groups of interest. As depicted in the cross-sectional description of the Olympic Games, the potential to influence has been increasing since the start of the modern Games, in line with the growing attractiveness of the Olympics. After the initial phase of the purest sport, the Games have evolved to play a global role for the world. Today, one can conclude that the Olympics themselves wield soft power, but that this power is personified in, and under the control of, the International Olympic Committee. In the context of the Olympic crisis, it has been necessary to implement remedies, which include Agenda 2020 and the win-win form for the IOC and the organizers of the Games.

The main limitation of this paper is its focus on the Olympic Games in terms

of soft power alone. The intention was to show the presence of soft power in the Olympic Games in general, to explain the legal background, and to confirm the role of soft power in the history and governance of the modern Olympic Games in terms of its impact and influence. For future research, soft power might be compared with the legacy and overall impact of the Olympic Games, both in general and by sector; soft power and Olympics actors could also be analyzed.

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BEIJING 2022 WINTER OLYMPIC GAMES: THE BEST CHANCE TO PROMOTE CHINESE WINTER SPORTS¹

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Abstract

This article employs the literature review method to suggest some methods for promoting and publicizing mass winter sports in China. The aim is to power up the Beijing Winter Olympic Games 2022 and to develop the positive influence of the Winter Olympic Games on mass winter sports in China. The measures for promoting and developing winter sports which are suggested in this article include: developing public interest in winter sports in virtue of the opportunity of the Winter Olympic Games; constructing winter sports venues and facilities; organizing winter sports events actively and encouraging widening participation; building talent teams for winter sports; developing public consumption of winter sports; advertising winter sports culture and promoting teenager winter sports under certain conditions. During the promotion and development of winter sports in China, there are some matters that need to be taken into consideration: the concept of the Winter Olympic Games that ensures multiple participations; the concept of environmental protection and strengthening the relevant legislation, policies, and regulations; reinforcing supervision and evaluation; confirming regional development layouts.

Key Words: Winter Olympic Games, infrastructure, promotions and encouragement, mass winter sports, strategy studies.

1. This paper is part of the "Mass winter sports promotion program" (群众冬季冰雪运动普及计划) directed by Prof. Yaling Huang.

1. Introduction

On 31 July, 2015, Beijing and Zhangjiakou won the right to host the 24th Winter Olympic Games in 2022. If it is to host a successful Winter Olympic Games and enjoy the full value of Olympic sports, it is important for China to develop winter sports. The core target here is public participation in Olympic sports, but this is also an important aspect of the National Fitness Development Plan.

As early as the Sui and Tang Dynasties, the northern nations in China had invented a game similar to sledging. The Yuan Dynasty witnessed the invention of “Qi Mu”, or ice-skating, revealing the long history of winter sports in China. However, due to the vastness of China, the southern area does not have conditions suitable for winter sports; these sports are thus mostly held in northern areas, especially in the north-east region with its good ice and snow resources. Winter sports have not gained in popularity in China due to deficient sites, the failure to develop talent in these sports, and their high expense. However, with the high-speed development of the economy in China, the living standards of people continue to rise and the demand for sports is becoming increasingly diversified. Winter sports satisfy the needs of citizens. Winter sports deliver an excitement and experience that other sports cannot match. Therefore, in modern China, winter sports have great potential.

According to the Pyramid Theory which Coubertin proposed in his speech “The Founding Purpose of the Modern Olympic Creed”:

50 people have to participate in sports activities if we want 100 people to participate; 20 people have to participate in sports activities if we want 50 people to participate; 5 people have to have abilities to achieve excellence if we want 20 people to receive specialized training.² (Ren H, DaCosta L, Miragaya A M, 2009)

The charm of the Olympic Games is that they attract more people to take part in Olympic sports. How to develop mass sports has been the focus of every country for a long time, and every country has its own understandings and practices when it comes to taking advantage of opportunities to develop sports. Holding the Olympic Games is no longer an activity that wastes manpower and money; instead, it can be a great opportunity to develop mass and elite sports. (Sanming, Zeng; Xisen, Cheng; Haibo, Jin, 2008)

2. de Coubertin P., The philosophical foundation of modern Olympism [J]. Olympism: Selected Writings, 1935, 583.

Taking advantage of the opportunity provided by its hosting the Winter Olympic Games, the Chinese government should promote and develop public winter sports, make the vision of 300 million people taking part in winter sports come true, broaden the regions where winter sports are held, and get all social strata interested in the Winter Olympic Games. The key point of this article is an investigation of how to promote and develop the Winter Olympic Games.

2. Main measures

2.1 Using Promotion to Enhance Public Interest

During the Winter Olympic Games, most people will pay more attention to winter sports than usual, and media publicity at this time will have a greater impact on these people. If the media can broadcast more positive aspects of these kinds of sport, people will possibly grow more interest in further understanding, watching and experiencing these sports. The media has an important role to play in the promotion, and I believe that with the help of the media, more people may be willing to take part in winter sports.

2.2 Facilities Construction for Winter sports

When promoting and developing winter sports with the public, facilities construction is the foundation. Currently, the quantity and quality of ice and snow fields and other facilities for winter sports in China is inadequate to satisfy the needs of our citizens.

To solve this problem, when constructing facilities for winter sports, regional planning and resource coordination can be employed to exploit regions' unique natural resources and development goals to develop slopes and facilities for winter sports that are suitable for use by local citizens. Removable ice and man-made snow courses can also be built with the help of technology in regions that lack the natural resources. The government can use the method of purchasing public services to make current fields available to citizens for free; in this way, more people can experience the thrills of winter sports.

Two problems during field construction need to be paid attention to:

First, strict standards must be set for the ice and snow field facilities, covering material standards, construction standards and safety standards. This is to ensure the high standard and quality of the field facilities. Complete management

systems should be formulated. The different kinds of ice and snow fields should be supervised on a regular basis, including their facilities, sanitation facilities, the qualifications of practitioners, safety facilities and personnel allocation. Most winter sports are high-risk, so there are strict requirements of the courses, staff, security systems and even coaches. Safety plays an important part in the supervision.

Second, environmental protection principle must be strictly complied with. The water usage of different kinds of ice and snow courses places is considerable. Outdoor snow skating venues may destroy vegetative cover. During construction and operation, water should be saved as much as possible. And construction that might does harm the ecology should comply with the relevant requirements in terms of landscape, water, environment protection and urban construction to ensure sustainable development.

2.3 Organizing Winter Sports Events

Every level and kind of winter sport event should be organized to satisfy people's need to watch and participate in these activities.

To satisfy people's need to watch winter sports competitions, professional and amateur leagues, championships, open tournaments, performance tournaments, and both international and national ice and snow commercial competitions can be held.

To satisfy people's need to participate in the sports, an event system should be designed to develop public winter sports events. According to public needs and the actual situation, programmes and a competition system should be set up, the difficulties and risks presented by some programmes should be decreased, entertainment value and participation in winter sports should be highlighted, and the quality of competition services improved.

In terms of the geographical distribution of the events, they should be distributed between regions. Based in the north-east, Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei and the north-west, the conditions in place there allow special events to be held and brand competitions developed which reflect proprietary intellectual rights. In northern areas, a from-north-to-south strategy of winter sports is a good idea, with large-scale, influential events being held in southern areas. For example, the World Figure Skating Championships in 2015 in Shanghai attracted people from southern areas to come to Shanghai to watch a winter sports competition. This could raise public interest in winter sports among the people of Southern

China. At the same time, regional communication should be encouraged to improve the management level of regional competitions.

2.4 Encouraging Social Participation

The Winter Sports National Association should gradually separate its management and operation and cooperate with the Education Ministry to promote winter sports in schools. It should help schools to list winter sports in their curricula and competition calendars. It should also play the promotional material produced by the Association to attract more people to take part in the sports. Every winter sport association should seek to firm up its position via branding and increased systemization. The associations should also include a standard in public sports programmes, providing professional ice and snow fitness services for citizens and attracting more fitness enthusiasts to take part in winter sports.

To attract public participation, the market environment first needs to be optimized, improving the attraction of social capital to the winter sports industry and constructing an environment for public winter sports.³ (Baseball plan, 2015) Secondly, investment and financing channels need to be expanded to encourage social capital to take part in profitable industrial investments and franchises. At the same time, enterprises and individuals should also be encouraged to invest in or stage professional clubs and training organization, or to sponsor winter sports competition and payroll items. In addition, the sector should continue to open up to the outside world, encouraging overseas capital investment in the winter sports industry.

2.5 Building Talent Teams for Winter Sports

All kinds of education resources, such as coaches, management staff, technicians and volunteers, should be drawn upon to build talent teams for winter sports. Industry standards for winter sports should also be established, relevant matters should be dealt with properly, and standard teaching, training and coaching systems should be established and promoting. A guide book for public winter sports will also need to be compiled, the management of the qualification of training organizations and staff strengthened, and training courses standardized.

Relevant departments should establish a system for choosing, evaluating and encouraging talent for winter sports. Professional qualification and evaluation

3. Baseball industry long-term development plan (public draft) [EB/OL]. <http://jingji.sports.cn/zonghe/sqbl/2015/1231/147385.html>.

as well as professional title appraisals should be completed, and a platform for talent resources and services established.

Relevant universities should set up institutes and research centres for winter sports. In addition, universities should cooperate with the government and enterprises to try to start up schools, improving the technological factor in winter sports, and trying to improve the performance of talents in this field.

Retired winter sports athletes are winter sports professionals. After training, they can become part of the winter sports scene again by teaching and coaching new athletes. (HUANG Minli, 2014) It is a good career opportunity for retired athletes, and a good way to enrich the talent teams for winter sports.

2.6 Cultivating the Public Consumption Awareness of Winter sports

The foundations of winter sports in China have been weak, and the public consumption awareness and need for such sports are also weak. Changing this will require the consumption awareness of winter sports to be promoted and guided.

To improve consumption awareness, it is important to pay attention to the different levels of consumption needs for the sports. According to different consumer groups and regional economic characteristics, different levels of consumer goods and programmes will have to be developed to satisfy the needs of different levels of consumers, creating an industry template for the usual and high-class, customized consumption of winter sports (Ding Lu1, Ma Zhendong, Wei Xiaoyu, Pang Jianrong, 2010)

2.7 Advertising Winter Sports Culture

Winter sports in China are comparatively unpopular. Compared with some north European countries where winter sports are popular, China has no advantage in this field. Apart from the north-east of China, which has its own winter sports culture thanks to the natural environment, other areas of China do not have any foundation for developing the sports upon. However, to develop and promote winter sports, it is necessary to develop this culture in a way that reflects China.

The first thing to be done is to promote winter sports culture in multiple ways. The media can be employed to promote winter sports, attracting broad citizen participation. Then, the Winter Olympic Games can be shown in different ways using words and images on the radio and the audio-visual media, focusing on different topics such as Olympic winter culture, competition culture and commu-

nity sports culture (Linlin Xu, Jiacheng Xu, 2016).

The second priority is to emphasize the protection and development of national traditional winter sports. Exploring traditional winter sports, such as skating and *zamboni* (a traditional winter sports) in north-eastern, northern and north-western areas is important. It can enrich national traditional winter sports culture. Furthermore, different places can be encouraged to set up celebrations of traditional winter sports based on local nature and culture, establishing varied, enlightening and interesting ice and snow fitness programmes.

2.8 Promoting Teenager Winter sports in Places where Conditions allow it

Teenagers spend most of their time at school and it is therefore easier to gather them together. Winter sports should be held in schools where conditions lend themselves to this kind of sports. Winter sports are different from other sports because the sports require a cold environment. This is good for teenagers, as doing sports in a cold environment can temper their willpower. Besides, given a foundation for winter sports in schools, these teenage students will possibly become the main driving force behind the sports.

To promote winter sports in schools, experimental schools, beacon schools and specialist schools should be established according to the winter sports programmes and levels and taking advantage of their demonstration effects (TANG Min, 2010). The Education Ministry should prepare winter sports course outlines and teaching materials and make winter sports advertising videos. For their part, schools should consider setting up compulsory or elective courses in winter sports skills, making winter sports an important element of lifelong sports. The specialized sites and facilities needed to offer winter sports in schools can be purchased in the same way the government supports other public services.

However, while promoting these sports, the high risk of winter sports cannot be overlooked. The relevant departments should formulate safety regulations, develop a sports injury insurance system, define the rights and obligations of schools and social training institutions, and supervise the safety equipment at the facilities.

3. Matters Needing Attention during Promotion

3.1 Multiple Participation

Promoting and developing winter sports is a long-term venture and cannot be

accomplished by any one government or individual. Three main forces – the government, society and citizens – have to work together to accomplish it and ensure multiple participation. Over the development period, the importance of the government has to be emphasized, but also the importance of social forces. Policies can be formulated to bring different forces together to develop multiple participation, encouraging active public participation, spotlighting a positive national image and shining a positive light on eastern civilization.

3.2 In Accordance with Environmental Protection Concepts

The three adjectives underlying Olympic Winter Sports 2022 are athlete-centred, sustainable and economical. Two of the concepts involve environmental protection, which are of crucial importance in the Winter Olympic Games.

It is necessary to combine the development of public winter sports with environmental protection and improved environmental awareness in society. Especially when constructing sites for winter sports and holding different kinds of competitions and events, planning and taking advantage of natural resources, developing an environmentally-friendly atmosphere, and lowering the promotion costs for winter sports are all significant.

3.3 Strengthening the Formulation of Rules and Supervision

When promoting and developing public winter sports, some rules are needed to regulate the process. Considering the high risk and specialty of winter sports, the formulation of rules and supervision is important.

The government should accelerate the process of formulating and completing relevant laws and rules for the development of winter sports.⁴ (Baseball plan, 2015) In this way, standards, statistics, evaluation and supervision can all play a significant role in the management of winter sports.

3.4 Confirming Regional Development

In the light of China's nature, infrastructure and development speed, winter sports promotion should be region-based. To set up a regional development layout and promote winter sports in a scientific way, the development plan should include the following regions:

4. Baseball industry long-term development plan (public draft) [EB/OL]. <http://jingji.sports.cn/zonghe/sqbl/2015/1231/147385.html>.

3.4.1 Core Development Regions: Northern, North-Eastern and North-Western Regions

These areas have a natural environment which is suitable for the development of winter sports, as they have a long winter with plentiful ice and snow. In addition, winter sports in these regions are well-rooted and accompanied by a rich culture; this means these regions can be used as core regions for developing winter sports. To develop winter sports, schools for learning winter sports should be established in order to increase the ways in which talent can be developed (Jifeng Li, Chengzhe Jin, 2016).

3.4.2 Key Development Areas: Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Area and the Silk Road Economic Belt

Combined with the national regional development plan and with the help of the Winter Olympic Games, an attempt will be made to break through the restrictions imposed by the natural environment. (Lifu Zhan; Lei Xu; Ping Chen, 2014) Public activities can be held to satisfy the need for winter sports using local resources and advantages to greatly develop regional winter sports and their markets.

3.4.3 Coordinated Development Areas: Other Provinces

Based on regional characteristics, the condition of the economy, weather conditions, population, GPA, transportation infrastructure and support from regions, a comprehensive evaluation of an area can be accomplished. In this way, key-point ice and snow programmes can be further developed in a specific area. Relevant industries can be established and production areas for winter sports equipment can be constructed. Furthermore, the development of industry can be effectively guided. Coordinating with the plan that moves the ice and snow industry from north to south, indoor ice rinks and ski slopes can be developed. Attempts can be made to construct snow courses in places where conditions are suitable and winter sports competitions can be held.

4. Conclusion

Hosting the 2022 Winter Olympic Games will provide China with an excellent opportunity to promote and develop public winter sports. Meanwhile, China has also promised the International Olympic Committee to have 300 million people partici-

pating in winter sports before 2022. We should keep our promise and achieve this target by promoting and developing winter sports for the general public.

However, it should be noted that the number (300 million) is not that important; what is most important is that, through the Winter Olympic Games, the public can participate in winter sports by watching and taking part in competitions. In this way, they can enjoy the thrill of winter sports and the Chinese ice and snow culture can gradually develop. A complete winter sports industry supply line can be established, making China a winter sports country in the real sense of the word. Which would be extremely good news for both China and its people.

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THE OLYMPIC FEAT OF NICOLÁS MASSÚ AND ITS IMPACT IN SHAPING THE NATIONAL IDENTITY OF THE CHILEAN PEOPLE

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1. Introduction

The year 2004 is recorded in Chilean society as both unique and historic for the nation. The tennis players Nicolás Massú and Fernando González gave Chile its first two Olympic gold medals at the 2004 Games celebrated in Athens, Greece. On 22 August, Massú managed to win gold in both the singles and doubles competitions (the latter with González, who also won bronze in the singles tournament, earning the country a total of three medals). This feat was unique: Massú was the first tennis player to win two gold medals at the same Olympics and remains the only player in modern tennis to do so. His achievement would prove extremely influential in shaping modern Chilean society.

2. Subject of the study

The study analyses the career of the Chilean tennis player Nicolás Massú, seeking to understand the circumstances surrounding his career. The study includes his life up to the 2004 Summer Olympics and subsequently focuses on the repercussions his achievement had on the collective self-esteem and national identity of the Chilean people. The intention of this paper is to demonstrate how this historic sports event has helped inculcate a positive perception of national identity among Chileans, thus elevating their individual and collective self-esteem.

3. Goals and objectives

The main objective of this study is to understand the impact Massú and his victory had in strengthening the national identity of the Chilean people and in improving their self-image. To attain this goal, the following specific objectives have been set:

3.1. A reconstruction of the historical circumstances surrounding the career of Nicolás Massú as he developed his skills and acquired the skill level necessary to be competitive in the tennis tournament at the 2004 Athens Summer Olympics.

3.2. A reconstruction of the performance and results obtained by Massú as he competed at the 2004 Athens Summer Olympics.

3.3. An analysis of the impact of his successful campaign, and the way in which the Chilean sports media covered the event, and specifically on the emphasis placed on exalting national pride among the Chilean people.

3.4. The collection of qualitative data from oral sources (interviews), focusing on how national pride increased around the country.

4. Methodology

The subject of the study infers the connection between present and past. This strives to retrieve fragments of *contemporary history*, for which the sources are still in existence. It could therefore be described methodologically as the “History of the Present” (Bédarida, 1998). That said, the methodology will be restricted by the aforementioned circumstances; based on Abdón Mateos, it is essential to consider that:

The oral source constitutes an excellent way of gaining access to the notions of collective historical memory and political culture in the history of the present. Its importance increases as the more recent past has not yet been established as autobiographical memory. The weakness of autobiographical literature for the more recent time can only be supplemented by the oral sources. To have access to the autobiographical and collective experience

lived by a member of a social group or human association in the present depends, in good measure, on the ability to return to the oral source. (Abdón Mateos, 1998, p.3).

Information was collected from three primary oral sources close to the social phenomena that sports victories bring about for different national groups. These include two Chilean professors who specialize in the field of Physical Education and Sports and have insights into and knowledge of these sports events. Methodological decisions and justifications have been made in the light of the fact that one: “can appreciate and observe the mentalities, the perceptions of contemporaries of the subject and their own experiences” (Soto Gamboa, 2004, p.137). Conversely, many different media sources have been selected and used for this study, including news articles about the sports victories discussed in this study, such as contemporary newspapers directed at different social groups around the country. These include publications such as *El Mercurio*, *La Tercera*, *Las Últimas Noticias* and *La Cuarta*, for which the issues published between January and December 2004 were used. Quantitative documentary analysis was used on selected articles to provide insight into the coverage of the event in the press. The analysis includes the page(s) it was located on; the number of columns, pages and spaces dedicated to it; the use of pictures; and the occasions (if any) on which the event was put on the front page. Similarly, the analysis also considered qualitative aspects regarding the effect the sports achievement and the nationalistic approach to its reporting had on elevating the individual and national pride of the citizens of Chile.

5. The impact of Nicolás Massú and his Olympic milestone on the re-sharing of national identity

a. Nicolás Massú’s road to Olympic glory at Athens 2004

Nicolás Massú Fried was born on 10 October 1979 to a family of Palestinian and Jewish origin. His first venture into tennis was at the age of six. It was Mr Ladislao Fried, his grandfather, who ignited his passion for tennis. Ladislao registered Nicolás with the Tenis Unión club in Viña del Mar. It was there he met his first trainer, Enrique Cortés. In an interview with *La Tercera* in 2013, Cortés recalled an episode relating to the player’s character which made him think

Nicolás was different.

He always wanted to win. As a little boy, when I threw the ball at him and he couldn't get to it, he'd pick the ball up, put it in his racket, and throw it to the side. Then he'd say "Point for me, point for me". That's when I realized what his mentality was. (La Tercera, 27/08/2013).

Soon after his eleventh birthday, he entered the ANTZ Academia in the Valle Dorado complex. Here, he met one of the most important trainers of his career, Leonardo Zuleta, who would later become the captain of the Chilean Davis Cup team. It was with Zuleta that Massú made his first overseas tour and won his first tournament. Thus began a successful career in the Juniors, with Massú obtaining titles such as the Orange Bowl in singles competition and winning at Wimbledon and the US Open in doubles. He won the Wimbledon title playing with the Peruvian player, Luis Horna, and the US Open with his childhood friend and countryman Fernando González. He finished his career as a Junior player ranked first in the world in doubles and fifth in singles.

Massú made his professional debut in 1998. During his first two years, Massú won a couple of lower-level tournaments on the Future and Challenger circuit in both Europe and South America. However, his most important achievements in his early career were his number two ranking in Chile and being named one of the 100 best players in the ATP rankings. His first foray into the Summer Olympics came in Sydney 2000, where he represented his country as the flag bearer. This experience reinforced his conviction that playing for his country was more important than his professional career. However, over the next two years, Massú plateaued and dropping out of the top 100 ATP players. His career took a positive turn in the middle of 2002, when he won his first ATP tournament as a professional and was placed 56th at the end of season. In 2003, Massú was crowned champion at the ATP tournaments in Amersfoort and Palermo and was a finalist at the ATP Masters Series in Madrid and tournaments in Kitzbühel and Bucharest. Nevertheless, his most important feat that year was being part of the team that won the World Team Cup for his country in Düsseldorf, Germany, alongside Fernando González and Marcelo Ríos. This was seen as a milestone in the history of Chilean tennis.

Undoubtedly, 2004 was Nicolás Massú's best year. At the beginning of the year, the Chilean team consisting of Massú, González and Adrián García retained their title at the World Team Cup in Düsseldorf. Subsequently, he went

on to win the Kitzbühel tournament before starting his preparations for the 2004 Summer Olympics. The men's tennis tournament at the 2004 Summer Olympics was contested on August 15-22 at the Athens Olympic Tennis Centre. The Chilean team consisted of Nicolás Massú and Fernando González, who decided to represent their country both in the singles tournament and as a team in the doubles. Massú played his first match of the tournament against the former top-ranking player in the world, the Brazilian Gustavo Kuerten. Despite Kuerten being well-known for his tenacity, Massú managed to beat him in three sets. He made his doubles debut alongside González just hours later, beating the Bahamian duo of Mark Knowles and Mark Merklin, who were ranked seventh in the world by the ATP, in just two sets.

The next day, Massú faced the American Vincent Spadea and managed to beat him in two sets, thus advancing to the third round. He and González would beat the Argentinian team of Gastón Etlis and Martín Rodríguez in two sets that same afternoon, moving on to the quarterfinals of the doubles tournament.

The following morning, Nicolás Massú faced the Russian Igor Andreev and the American brothers, Bob and Mike Bryan, who were the number one team on the ATP circuit and clear favourites to win the tournament. Horacio de la Peña, González's head coach at the time, recalled the moment in an interview he gave *La Tercera*, saying the following:

I said this was the key match. We gathered together with Patricio Rodríguez, Nicolás Massú and Fernando González and explored the possibility of privileging the singles in order to retain our strength and not lose everything. In the end, though, we looked each other in the eye and said "Let's go for broke". (La Tercera, 27/08/2013).

On that afternoon, the Chilean pair reached the semi-finals of the doubles tournament, something no Chilean team had managed before them. The following morning, Massú met the experienced Spanish player Carlos Moya in the quarter-finals, defeating him in two sets, proceeding to the singles semi-finals. González would also reach the same stage in the other pool. That afternoon, the Chilean pair played their semi-final against the Croatian team of Mario Ančić and Ivan Ljubičić, then ranked third by the ATP. The Chileans defeated the Croatians in three sets, advancing to the doubles finals and making national history once again.

The two semi-final matches were contested on Friday 20 August. Massú beat the American, Taylor Dent, in two sets and advanced to the finals. The second spot in the final would be taken by either Fernando González or Mardy Fish. Although initially dominating the play, González suffered an ankle sprain which eventually cost him the game. He would go on to play for the singles bronze medal against Taylor Dent, and after two hours of play, the injured Chilean secured his place on the podium. This was truly a historic day in the history of Chilean Olympism. Four hours later, the doubles team faced the Germans Rainer Schuettler and Nicholas Kiefer for the gold medal. The final began at 11:00 pm local time and lasted over two hours, with the Chileans emerging victorious and winning the doubles championship, giving Chile its first ever Olympic gold medal. The next day, an exhausted Massú played in the singles final of the Olympic men's singles tournament. The match lasted over three hours, but Massú nonetheless came away with the victory, winning the second Olympic gold medal in Chilean history. This made Massú the first player ever to win gold in both the singles and doubles tournaments in the same edition of the Summer Olympics. To date, his feat has not been repeated.

b. The impact of the Olympic milestone on Chilean society, seen from the point of view of professionals of the field of Physical Education and Sports.

The first interviewee was Physical Education teacher, Mr Matías Vergara Soria, who graduated from the Universidad Bernardo O'Higgins in Chile. He currently works at the Colegio Internacional SEK school as a teacher, as well as coaching the Damas Infantil girls basketball team at the Club Deportivo Universidad de Chile. Regarding the impact and expectations generated among the general public by Massú's performance at the Olympics, Matías Vergara recalled that the week of the tournament was a regular school week. He was 15 years old at the time and still at high school. He remembered that, due to the huge anticipation among the public, he and his classmates had asked for permission to watch the matches during school hours. Matías reflected on his memories of the Chilean participation and remembered having no expectations of a Chilean athlete winning a Olympic gold, a sentiment shared by those around him. Players such as Roger Federer and Andy Roddick were seen as more important and stronger candidates to win the event. For example, Fernando González was portrayed as Chile's greatest hope of winning a medal at the Olympics, not Nicolás Massú.

When it comes to what happened in Chilean society in general, he asserts that there was an increase in pride in those who represented the country right after the event, accompanied by a generalized shift towards a winning mentality. He also believes that Massú's victory helped the prospects of current athletes, who learned that hard work and sacrifice would indeed help their talents develop much further. For Matías, Massú's victory raised interest among Chileans in the results at the South American Games, the Pan-American Games and the World Championships in every sport in which a Chilean was representing their country. Last of all, he felt there was a change in the mentality of the general public and athletes around the country after the episode and in the wake of messages such as the one Massú gave in his post-victory speech, in which he says that nothing is impossible in life. He thinks the message is now ingrained in the heart of Chilean society and has been enhanced further by the country's important victories in association football in recent years.

The last interviewee was Professor of Physical Education and Health Edson García Díaz, who is currently studying on the M.Sc. programme in Physical Activity and Sport at the Universidad Autónoma de Madrid. Edson was 27 years old during the Athens Olympics and remembers Massú's success as being of national importance and helping re-shape the popular belief in Chile that "we're good, but we never win anything". Like most Chileans, he was a little incredulous at first and, just like our first interviewee, more hopeful about Fernando González's prospects than Massú's. Edson saw the tennis delegation as more likely to get a good results than other sports delegations, basing his optimism on the professionalization of tennis players, in contrast with other Chilean delegations which were not as professional. Meaning that he did not think it out of the question that Chile might do well at the Athens 2004 Games. Nevertheless, he notes that even his highest expectations were surpassed by the performance of Massú and González.

In Edson's mind, the accomplishments at the Olympics had a major impact on the mindset of Chilean society, helping Chileans to understand that the way to get results in sports was through hard work and personal sacrifice. His opinion is that society gained an understanding of dedication, discipline, effort, passion and sacrifice as the route to achieving goals.

From his viewpoint as a sports professional, the current Chilean athletes learned through the milestone event of Athens 2004 that with hard work and

discipline, no sports result is impossible. He also declares that the younger generations of sportspeople have inherited a sense of the importance of representing their country in international competitions, and the feeling that there is no greater honour than doing so. Edson is of the opinion that there is a 'before and after' in Chilean sports regarding the events in Athens. He recalled the popular saying '*we played like never before and, as always, we lost*'¹, which is repeated very often by members of Chilean society. The saying does not apply anymore, as society demands that athletes give of their best. Taking part is not enough: people must leave '*their skin on the field*'² when representing their country, like the tennis players did in Athens 2004.

c. Repercussion in Chilean media

When collecting data from the different contemporary media sources, it became clear that the Chilean press had the highest expectations of the men's tennis team. This is due to the involvement of Massú and González, both of whom were in the team that won the championship at the World Team Cup in Düsseldorf. Coverage was initially restricted to the sports sections of newspapers, but as the days went by and the Chileans advanced to the later rounds, articles relating to the players increased in quantity. When they advanced to the third round in the singles competition and the quarter-finals in the doubles, the press coverage went beyond the sports section, with the duo facing the American pair, who were the clear favourites to win the doubles competition, since they were the top pair in the ATP rankings. When the Chilean pair won, they advanced to the semi-finals in the doubles, which meant that Chile would receive the bronze medal in the worst-case scenario. Again, the advancement of both players to the quarter-finals of the singles competition prompted the Chilean press to produce more articles regarding their performance. These articles started including details about their sporting careers on the main pages of Chile's most popular newspapers.

The first newspapers to dedicate their headlines to the players were *La Cuarta* and *Las Últimas Noticias*. These are directed mainly at the working class and at less wealthy sectors of society. Other more conservative publications, which are usually directed at the more elitist upper-class, such as *La Tercera* and *El Mercurio*.

1. Ibid

2. Ibid

rio, slowly expanded the coverage of their performance in their sports sections.

On Sunday 22 August 2004, every Chilean national newspapers featured pictures of the two players receiving Chile's first gold medal on their front pages. *Las Últimas Noticias* had a photo of the awards ceremony, whereas *La Cuarta* had the headline "We will never forget this" with a special two-page spread inside with the faces of the two players and the title "Feña and Nico are pure gold". The more conservative *El Mercurio* published a picture of the two players embracing after the final point along with an article entitled "The best since Melbourne 1956".

The front pages continued to feature images of the tennis players until 14 September 2004, when they were officially received by the then President of the Republic, Mr Ricardo Lagos Escobar, at the Palacio de la Moneda on their return to Chile from Athens.

6. Conclusion

The interviews with the three sports professionals make it clear that all three agree that this event precipitated a change in mentality and an increase in self-esteem for the Chilean people.

In the future, it would be interesting to examine the perception the Chilean people have of Nicholas Massú's feat 13 years after the event, and how they view its impact on the generations who have reached maturity since 2004.

This review of the main Chilean newspapers sheds light on how the press received and celebrated the Chilean win at the 2004 Olympics in Athens. However, no headlines were found referring to the nationalistic sentiment with which the Chilean people identified and celebrated this Olympic feat.

No parallel between the Press and nationalistic sentiments within society has been found.

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**THE RUSSIAN DOPING SCANDAL:
A CRITICAL COMPARISON OF THE DECISIONS TAKEN
BY THE INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEE (IOC) AND
THE INTERNATIONAL PARALYMPIC COMMITTEE (IPC)**

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1. Introduction

The world of sports experienced tremendous turbulence in 2016. This was caused by a documentary on German television which revealed a sophisticated doping system in Russia which seemed to be supported by high-level sports officials as well as political decision-makers and which affected both Olympic and Paralympic sports. The journalists uncovered certain procedures used to manipulate doping samples or potential findings as well as corruption. The broadcast of the documentary was followed by various investigations initiated by the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA). Only a blink before the Olympic and Paralympic Games in Rio de Janeiro, the international sports organizations had to deal with a doping scandal which was shaking the foundations of values, attitudes and legal regulations in sport. This paper is an excerpt from the author's Master's Thesis¹ and aims to analyze the decisions of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the International Paralympic Committee (IPC) regarding the merit of the

1. Chojnacki-Bennemann, Annett (2016): "Anti-Doping in Paralympic Sports – developments, particularities and current challenges under particular consideration of the doping scandal in Russia". Dissertation submitted by way of partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Olympic Studies.

results of the McLaren report, their legal foundation and, finally, their historical connections. Furthermore, the decisions will be compared in terms of what they mean for the international fight against doping and their future consequences.

2. Main Part

2.1 Chronology of the Russian Doping Scandal

The ball was set in motion by a documentary broadcast on German television in December 2014 entitled “The secrets of doping: how Russia makes its winners?”². The documentary revealed systematic doping under the protection of high-level political and sports officials in Russia. The investigation was based initially on information provided by the whistleblowers Yuliya Stepanova and her husband Vitaly, a former employee of the Russian Anti-Doping Agency (RUSADA). Subsequently, the WADA established an Independent Commission (IC) to scrutinize the allegations made in the documentary.³ The first report of the IC from 9 November 2015 confirmed a “deeply rooted culture of cheating” as well as “corruption and bribery within the IAAF”.⁴ A second report followed on 14 January 2016 and certified that the IAAF was completely unable to deal with doping and corruption in a compliant way.⁵ These investigations and revelations were accompanied by certain personal and institutional consequences.⁶ As a consequence of the ascertained doping practices in Russian athletics, the IAAF suspended the All-Russia Athletic Federation (ARAF) on 13 November 2015 and extended the suspension until 17 June 2016, after the Olympic Games in Rio.⁷ The Russian Olympic Committee and a group of Russian athletes appealed against the decision before the CAS.

Another decisive turning point in these occurrences was the comprehensive interview with the former head of Moscow’s anti-doping laboratory, Gregory

2. Sportschau (2014): “Geheimsache Doping – Wie Russland seine Sieger macht”.

3. WADA (2015): Independent Commission – Terms of Reference.

4. Independent Commission (2015): The Independent Commission Report #1. Final Report from 9 November 2015.

5. Independent Commission (2016): The Independent Commission Report #2. Report from 14 January 2016.

6. For example, the WADA deprives the accreditation of the Moscow Anti-Doping Laboratory.

7. Sueddeutsche (2016): CAS-Urteil Steilvorlage für IOC: Russland vor Olympia-Aus.

Rodchenkov, in May 2016.⁸ In the interview, he claimed to have been involved in covering up positive doping tests at the 2014 Olympic Games in Sochi with the support of the RUSADA and the Russian Federal Security Service (FSB), Russia's internal intelligence service. This was the trigger for the WADA to launch further investigations; the appointment of Professor Richard McLaren, who had already been a member of the previous IC, as an Independent Person (IP) was announced on 19 May 2016.

2.2 Findings of the McLaren Report

On 18 July 2016, McLaren presented the first part of his report. According to the report, the Disappearing Positive Methodology, the ultimate failsafe system directed by the state, has been applied and managed by the Moscow Laboratory from at least 2011 until August 2015.⁹ Furthermore, a unique procedure of sample swapping has been developed and implemented at the Sochi Laboratory, allowing the original sample to be replaced with clean urine for a select group of athletes. The report stated that the Russian Federal Security Service (FSB) has been involved in developing a procedure for removing and replacing the sample caps without this leaving obvious signs.¹⁰ Remarkably, the manipulations were “directed, controlled and overseen” by the Ministry of Sport with “the active participation and assistance of the FSB, the Centre of Sports Preparation of National Teams of Russia (CSP), and both the Moscow and Sochi Laboratories”.¹¹

McLaren's main tasks were to establish whether manipulations of the doping control procedures had occurred during the Sochi Games, to identify the “modus operandi and those involved”, to identify individual athletes involved in potential manipulations, to investigate the involvement of the Moscow Laboratory, and to scrutinize other allegations made by Grigory Rodchenkov.¹² In view of the limited time available, McLaren skipped the investigations regarding individual athletes in order to concentrate on the other issues.

8. New York Times (2016): Russian Insider Says State-Run Doping Fueled Olympic Gold.

9. Cf. McLaren, Richard (2016): Independent Person. WADA Investigation of Sochi Allegations. Part I.

10. Ibid.

11. Ibid.

12. Ibid.

2.3 Decision of the International Olympic Committee (IOC)

Following the presentation of the McLaren report, the IOC published a statement in which it expressed its consternation at the “unprecedented attack on the integrity of sports and on the Olympic Games”.¹³ The final decision would follow the CAS decision in relation to the appeal made against the IAAF suspension by the Russian athletics; on 21 July 2016, the CAS opined that the decision was legal.¹⁴ demonstrating that collective sanctions can conform with the legal foundations.

The IOC decision followed on 24 July 2016. The IOC took into account the investigations of Richard McLaren and stressed:

*On the basis of the Findings of the IP Report, all Russian athletes seeking entry to the Olympic Games Rio 2016 are considered to be affected by a system subverting and manipulating the anti-doping system.*¹⁵

Nevertheless, referring to the “rules of natural justice, individual justice” to which every athlete is entitled¹⁶, and given that the IOC had not suspended the ROC, the latter was in essence allowed to nominate athletes for the Olympic Games. However, these athletes would have to be examined comprehensively, with the International Federations (IFs) being responsible for the examinations. Furthermore, athletes who had ever been sanctioned due to doping were banned from the 2016 Olympic Games, even if the period of their sanction had already ended.

2.4 Suspension of the Russian Olympic Committee (ROC)

In its statement following the McLaren report, the IOC emphasized that “it will explore the legal options with regard to a collective ban of all Russian athletes for the Olympic Games 2016 versus the right to the individual justice”.¹⁷ Without doubt, a suspension of the ROC with the consequence that Russian athletes would have been excluded from participating at the Olympic Games would have been the

13. IOC (2016): Statement of the Executive Board of the IOC in the WADA independent Person report from 19 July 2016.

14. CAS (2016): CAS 2016/O/4684 Russian Olympic Committee and 68 Athletes v. the International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF). 21 July 2016.

15. IOC (2016): Decision of the IOC Executive Board concerning the participation of Russian athletes in the Olympic Games Rio 2016. 24 July 2016.

16. Ibid.

17. IOC (2016): Statement of the Executive Board of the IOC in the WADA independent Person report from 19 July 2016.

strongest conceivable sanction. Looking back at Olympic history, it is clear that National Olympic Committees have been suspended by the IOC on numerous occasions in the past, preventing them from participating in the Olympic Games.

The legal basis for suspension is clearly stated in the Olympic Charter, Rule 59 of which contains measures and sanctions “in the case of any violation of the Olympic Charter, the World Anti-Doping Code, or any other regulation”.¹⁸ Subparagraph 1.4 of this rule lists certain sanctions with regard to NOCs, including their suspension by the IOC Executive Board. The mission and the role of the NOCs are clearly defined in Rule 27 subparagraph 2.6 of the Charter, which states that it is the NOC’s role to adopt and implement the World Anti-Doping Code. Furthermore, according to rule 27 subparagraph 6:

*The NOCs must preserve their autonomy and resist all pressures of any kind, including but not limited to political, legal, religious or economic pressures which my prevent them from complying with the Olympic Charter.*¹⁹

In addition to Rule 59, Rule 27 subparagraph 9 of the Charter states that an NOC can be suspended by the IOC Executive Board should “any act by any governmental or other body” hamper the compliant activity of the NOC.

It can be stated that the IOC had the legal power to suspend the ROC. In its decision, it emphasized that the McLaren report “made no findings against the ROC as an institution”.²⁰ Nevertheless, even if there are certain doubts as to if and to what extent the ROC was directly involved in the occurrences, they are irrelevant to the decision to suspend or not, since the systematic and state-directed doping system that has been revealed can be considered as political interference, since the ROC was unable to fulfil its obligation regarding the anti-doping regulations. The McLaren report clearly demonstrated the coordinating role of the Russian Ministry of Sport and the active involvement of the FSB, so under these circumstances the ROC did not enjoy the autonomy required to comply with the Olympic Charter and the relevant anti-doping regulations. It would therefore have been necessary for the IOC to take the position that this must be considered an unacceptable infringement on the integrity of sports.

18. IOC (2016): Olympic Charter in force as from 2 August 2016.

19. Ibid.

20. IOC (2016): Decision of the IOC Executive Board concerning the participation of Russian athletes in the Olympic Games Rio 2016. 24 July 2016.

2.5 Responsibility of the International Federations (IFs)

The IOC announced in its decision of 24 July 2016 that the IFs are responsible for deciding whether an athlete fulfils certain criteria and is therefore entitled to participate at the Games or not. In practice, this meant that only a few days before the Opening Ceremony of the Rio Games, 28 IFs would have to make decisions on some 400 athletes. Since individual IFs have different structures and resources, it can reasonably be doubted that a comprehensible and uniform approach would have been possible at all. McLaren stated in his report that the investigation regarding individual athletes had been impossible due to time constraints, and it is unclear how the IFs were supposed to deal with the issue in even less time.

As a consequence it was uncertain how many Russian athletes were entitled to participate until just before the Olympic Games started.²¹ Furthermore, the CAS Ad Hoc Division²² had a new record of 28 cases, 16 of which related to the participation of Russian athletes.²³ It would have been preferable to have had a uniform decision from the IOC which implied that the occurrences in Russia would not be tolerated, that – above all – the responsible authorities would be held liable, and that sanctions against individual athletes would be carefully weighed up without time constraints and in cooperation with certain experts.

2.6 Ban on previously sanctioned athletes

The IOC decided that athletes who had already been sanctioned due to doping would not be entitled to participate in the upcoming Olympic Games, even if the period of the sanction had ended. However, the CAS ruled it illegal to suspend athletes who had previously been banned due to doping. It argued that this rule is not consistent with the individual rights of the athletes and refers to the previous decision regarding the Osaka Rule, which was introduced in 2007 and:

*prohibited any athlete with a doping suspension of greater than six months from competing in the next Olympic Games, even for cases where the athletes suspension has already been completed.*²⁴

21. Sportschau (2016): Wer darf für Russland in Rio starten?.

22. The CAS Ad Hoc Division began its work ten days before the Olympic Games Opening Ceremony; its work ended with the Closing Ceremony.

23. CAS (2016): CAS Ad Hoc Division Olympic Games Rio 2016.

24. Gandert, D. (2012): The Battle over the Osaka-Rule. p. 110.

The CAS ruled that this rule was invalid, since it violates the rights of the athletes²⁵ in the light of the legal principle *non bis in idem*, which means that nobody shall be sanctioned twice for the same offence. Regarding Russian athletes, the CAS also affirmed a violation of the principle of equal treatment, since athletes from other countries who have been sanctioned in the past due to doping would not be affected by the IOC decision.

2.7 Protection of the clean athlete

In its ruling, the IOC began by stressing that: “the IOC EB was guided by a fundamental rule of the Olympic Charter to protect clean athletes and the integrity of sport”.²⁶ The protection of the clean athlete and the integrity of sport is established particularly in Rule 2 subparagraph 8 of the Olympic Charter²⁷, which states that the IOC’s role is:

to protect clean athletes and the integrity of sport, by leading the fight against doping, and by taking action against all forms of manipulation of competitions and related corruption.

It becomes apparent that these rules are deeply anchored within the Olympic Movement. The obligation to protect the clean athlete is also contained in Recommendation 15 of Agenda 2020²⁸, which reads: “Change the philosophy to protecting clean athletes – The IOC’s ultimate goal is to protect clean athletes”.²⁹ A working group has been set up to develop ideas about how this might be implemented. The working group has made the following statement:

*The Olympic Movement’s current strategy against doping is the protection of clean athletes based on a zero-tolerance policy, with the aim of ensuring that only clean athletes take part in competitions. It currently focuses on prevention through detection and deterrence, supported by athlete and entourage education.*³⁰

25. CAS (2011): CAS 2011/O/2422. USOC v. IOC. November 2011.

26. IOC (2016): Decision of the IOC Executive Board concerning the participation of Russian athletes in the Olympic Games Rio 2016 from 24 July 2016.

27. IOC (2016): Olympic Charter in Force as from 2 August 2016.

28. The Agenda 2020 contains 40 recommendations regarding the future of the Olympic Movement.

29. IOC (2014): Olympic Agenda 2020. 20+20 Recommendations. p. 16.

30. IOC (2014): Olympic Agenda 2020 – Context and background. p. 53.

It also described the IOC as a leader in promoting a “change in philosophy in the Olympic Movement to put clean athletes at the centre and to understand this as a campaign to protect the majority of the athletes”.³¹

It seems to be questionable whether the IOC took this into account. With the participation of Russian athletes, the right of the athletes from other countries to participate in clean competitions remained unconsidered. There have been examples in the history of the Olympic Movement where athletes participated under the Olympic flag when their National Olympic Committees were suspended. This would have sent a strong signal to the world that athletes are indeed at the core of the movement. Similarly, the fact that Yuliya Stepanova could not participate at the Games due to the decision taken by the IOC contradicts the protection of the clean athlete: if athletes are at the heart of the movement, they deserve particular respect if they try to support the integrity of sport, and if they contribute as whistleblowers to the fight against doping.

All in all, one can say that the IOC’s decision lags far behind its ambitious goal of protecting clean athletes.

2.8 Decision taken by the International Paralympic Committee (IPC)

Just before the beginning of the Paralympic Games, the IPC also faced the challenge of having to evaluate the findings of the McLaren report in a very short time. It had to ensure that there were suitable consequences, and it had to show its decision to the world of sports.

On 7 August 2016, the IPC announced that the Russian Paralympic Committee (RPC) was suspended with immediate effect due to its inability “to ensure compliance with and the enforcement of the IPC’s Anti-Doping Code and the World Anti-Doping Code within its own national jurisdiction”.³² As a consequence, the RPC lost the rights and privileges of its membership and was not allowed to participate in IPC events, meaning it could not participate at the 2016 Paralympic Games. In its decision, the IPC stresses: “Tragically this situation is not about athletes cheating a system, but about a State-run system cheating the athlete.”³³

31. IOC (2014): Olympic Agenda 2020 – Context and background. p. 56.

32. IPC (2016): The IPC decision on the membership status of the Russian Paralympic Committee. 7 August 2016.

33. Ibid.

2.9 Legal Consequences

The IPC decision had certain legal consequences. The RPC appealed the decision before the CAS, which rejected their appeal on 23 August 2016. The CAS emphasized that the IPC decision was both legally correct and appropriate in the given circumstances, and that the RPC could not present any proof which could have changed the facts of the case.³⁴ Crucial to the case was the question of which misconduct should be attributed to the RPC, since the McLaren report did not reference it directly. According to the court, however, the lack of knowledge does not release the RPC from its duties as a member of the IPC. Compliance with the international anti-doping regulations is an obligation which must be actively implemented.

The decision of the CAS was confirmed by the Federal Supreme Court of Switzerland,³⁵ the regional court in Bonn³⁶, the Higher Regional Court of Düsseldorf³⁷ and even the Federal Constitutional Court in Germany³⁸.

2.10 Dialogue with Russian Paralympic Committee (RPC)

When the IPC announced the suspension of the RPC, it also made it known that it would develop criteria³⁹ and procedures which the RPC would need to fulfil before its membership of the IPC could be reinstated. The main goal was compliance with the World Anti-Doping Code as well as the IPC Anti-Doping

34. CAS (2016): CAS 2016/A/4745 Russian Paralympic Committee vs. International Paralympic Committee. 23 August 2016.

35. Federal Supreme Court of Switzerland (2016): Decision from 30 August 2016. (4A_470/2016). It ruled that, regarding the IPC suspension, the RPC could not substantiate its fulfilment of its membership obligations regarding the relevant anti-doping regulations, and that its interests do not prevail over the interests of the IPC in the fight against doping and the protection of the integrity of sports. Furthermore, in the court's view, the permission of athletes could not be taken into account, since they had not been one of the parties before either the CAS or the Federal Supreme Court of Switzerland.

36. LG Bonn (2016): Decision of 5 September 2016. (Az. 20 O 323/16).

37. OLG Düsseldorf (2016): Decision of 13 September 2016. (Az. VI-W (Kart) 12/16, W (Kart) 12/16). It stressed that the IPC's interest in clean Paralympic Games prevails over the demands of the athletes to participate, and that the findings of the McLaren report justify the suspicion that all the athletes who had been active within the system were guilty of doping.

38. Bundesverfassungsgericht (2016): Decision of 15 September 2016. (Az. 1 BvQ 38/16).

39. On 21 November 2016 the IPC presented these reinstatement criteria as well as the underlying verification criteria which have been developed in cooperation with the WADA.

Code, along with the ability to implement the relevant anti-doping activities without external interference. Furthermore, the IPC appointed a taskforce to work closely with the RPC and assist the IPC in monitoring the progress being made in Russia. The suspension will be reversed once the IPC is convinced the RPC is once again fulfilling the requirements that come with membership. The IPC's approach proves that the suspension of the RPC was a necessary step, but that it also left the door open and indicated a way in which the RPC could receive support.

2.11 Critical Comparison of the Decisions

Both decisions received a lot of attention in the sports world and beyond, particularly because the IOC and the IPC chose different ways to deal with the same issue: the massive Russian state doping system revealed by the first McLaren report. While the organizational structures of the two organizations do differ, they could both, according to their specific regulations, have opted for suspension. In the end, however, it was the IPC which took that decision in the interests of the Paralympic Movement. In contrast, the IOC focused its decision on the athletes and the investigation of individuals connected to the doping system. It thereby shifted responsibility onto the IFs. Unfortunately, the IOC failed entirely to appraise the overall situation in Russia and to distance itself clearly from it. The depravity of the Russian system is so grave that it requires an obvious indication of its rejection.

Given the tremendous extent of the scandal, only a harmonized approach and a strong signal regarding the perpetrators of the doping system, and thus the whole world of sports, would have been appropriate. The differing appraisals of the situation may be explicable in terms of the different ways the two organizations developed. Kell et al. (2008) emphasize that the IPC as a separate organization "has its own vision, mission, goals and roles",⁴⁰ one of which is the "promotion of health and human rights for athletes with a disability".⁴¹ Obviously, it was the IPC's intention to protect the entire Paralympic Movement and to get to the root of the trouble. In contrast, the IOC has always been more focused on the individual, which can be seen clearly at the start of its history when "Coubertin brought together 15 of his friends within an International Committee

40. Kell, P./Kell, M./Price N. (2008): Two Games and one movement?. p. 68.

41. Blauwet, Cheri/Willick Stuart E. (2012): The Paralympic Movement. pp. 851.

for the Olympic Games.”⁴² However, the threat to the integrity of sports through doping, corruption and other forms of manipulation is now so immense that the Olympic and Paralympic Movement need to fight it together.

3. Conclusion

The final McLaren report was published on 9 December 2016. It offered comprehensive insights into the Russian doping system and confirmed the findings of the first report. It stressed in particular that the “athletes were not acting individually, but within an organized infrastructure”.⁴³ According to the report, over 1000 Olympic and Paralympic athletes who were involved can be identified. It is not, therefore, surprising that the calls for tough sanctions become louder again. The reports of the two IOC Commissions⁴⁴ established to scrutinize the findings of the McLaren report will have a decisive impact on the future participation of Russian athletes in the Olympic Games.

It is, in any case, important to foster the independence of the WADA, since this is the international body charged with coordinating the fight against doping. The structures and work processes of the WADA need to be critically reviewed. Regarding whistle-blowers, it is important to develop strategies and uniform procedures designed to encourage athletes to come forward and to support their efforts to make an active contribution to clean sport. It is also important to dissolve personal responsibilities. Certainly such reforms would need to be accompanied by a sufficient increase in the budget, since financial resources have a huge impact on effectiveness, as well. The reinstatement criteria put in place by the IPC could form the basis for measures designed to evaluate how strictly different countries fulfil their anti-doping obligations. Those countries that intentionally violate the integrity of sports must be prevented from using sports as a stage for showcasing their image and power.

The challenge for the entire sports movement is tremendous. The threats to the integrity of sport posed by doping and corruption have reached a level akin

42. Chappelet, Jean-Loup/Kübler-Mabbot, Brenda (2008): *The International Olympic Committee and the Olympic System*. p. 19.

43. McLaren, Richard (2016): *Independent Person. WADA Investigation of Sochi Allegations*. Part II. p. 1.

44. Oswald Commission / Schmid Commission.

to organized crime, and are certainly not only an issue in Russia. It is important to build partnerships between all the stakeholders involved, including public authorities as well as sports organizations. Chappelet stresses that international sport has administered itself at a world level for a long time, but that:

*The massive development of doping has revealed the limits of those bodies and the necessity for the public authorities to intervene.*⁴⁵

It is the duty of everyone who loves sport to protect it from attempts at manipulation and violation. In order to increase the credibility of sports, a global discussion is required about its values. Awareness therefore needs to be reinforced by all the responsible authorities if common strategies are to be developed to ensure the integrity of sports, and thus a healthy and clean environment for athletes all over the world.

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UNDERSTANDING INTER-AGENCY COLLABORATION IN MASS GATHERINGS THROUGH THE CASE OF PUBLIC HEALTH AND SAFETY ORGANIZATIONS IN THE 2012 LONDON OLYMPIC GAMES: PERSPECTIVES FROM KEY PROFESSIONALS

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Introduction

Mass gatherings such as the Olympic Games pose unique challenges for inter-organizational collaboration. Such events often bring together organizations that collaborate irregularly or have never collaborated before. They involve interaction and collaboration among multiple and diverse agencies aimed at delivering a service to a large clientele, which can often prove challenging. It is necessary to establish a strong collaboration to ensure that all the key stakeholders understand their respective roles and responsibilities (Hiltunen et al., 2007). Public health planning for such events requires collaboration between local, regional, voluntary and national health-related services, as well as with the official organizer: for example, the Organizing Committee of the Olympic Games (Enock & Jacobs, 2008). However, research has not to date looked explicitly at how this collaboration happens in practice. In this empirical paper, the Olympic Games is used as an exemplar of a large international mass gathering event to explore the role of communication in interagency collaboration. This paper's findings will contribute to the emerging body of literature which seeks to understand the complex terrain of interagency collaboration.

Methodology

A qualitative case study was conducted with the aim of exploring a phenomenon through in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (Creswell, 2007). A main advantage of a case study is to bring out processes in certain contexts (Stake, 1995). This can be achieved, because case studies emphasize an intense examination of a specific setting (Bryman, 2008). The study was conducted from May 2011, 14 months before the actual Games, until October 2012, two months after the completion of the Games. For the purposes of this research, ethical approval was sought and gained from the City University of London School of Community and Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee in May 2011.

The study population for this case study consisted of public health and safety professionals who played a key role in ensuring the public's health, safety and security for the London Olympics. Purposive sampling was used to cover diverse types of senior roles. The sample size for the study was 26 professionals who belonged to category 1 and 2 organizations which, according to UK legislation, have duties in the event of an emergency and have responsibilities for implementing the legislation (Civil Contingencies Act, 2004). All participants gave their informed written consent on the basis of their anonymity and facilitated the researcher's access to each organization.

Data were collected through three different methods: semi-structured interviews, direct observations and documentary analysis. Multiple sources of data increased the validity of the study as "no single source has a complete advantage over all the others" (Yin, 2009). First, and most importantly, 26 semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted from May 2011 until February 2012; half of the participants also provided a second interview after the Games. They were digitally recorded and field notes were kept to capture researcher's insights. Second, direct observations of operation rooms, meetings and interagency exercises were conducted to record the interagency communication activities. The observations supported the interview data and helped provide an integrated overview of the context. They were carried out between May 2011 and August 2012 in two phases: a) during the preparations for the Games and b) during the actual Games. Finally, a range of secondary data sources were used. These comprised documentary data, which were used to complement the interviews,

provided background data and played a key role in identifying the nature of communication among participating organizations. They included documents produced by the agencies, such as reports, letters and strategic and procedural manuals. Template analysis was used as a strategy for analyzing the data. All the transcribed data were imported into NVivo 7 software. Template analysis is a method in which the researcher produces a list of codes, called templates, representing identified themes (Crabtree & Miller, 1999; King, 1998, 2004).

Findings

The empirical findings show that communication was an important pillar of interagency collaboration. The analysis identified four key areas of communication that influence collaboration: (1) the lack of interoperability of communication systems, (2) the lack of inter-organizational understanding, (3) the role of boundary-spanning and (4) codification procedures. These four themes represent the areas that participants identified as crucial in their influence on inter-agency collaboration. In the sections that follow, these communication barriers and enablers are discussed in detail accompanied by relevant quotes, observational field notes and documentary data.

Lack of interoperability of communication systems

Fundamental to interagency collaboration was a shared and adequate situational awareness among the professionals involved of the public health and safety issues posed by the event. Situational awareness is an individual's perception and understanding of the situation they face. It is influenced not only by the information received, but also by the person's assumptions based on their experience of similar situations, their knowledge, and their professional background. The capability of the agencies to ensure interoperable communications during the event was considered a cornerstone for attaining collective awareness. Organizations that normally worked independently had to integrate their communication systems in order to achieve a joint situational awareness of the event throughout its duration. Interoperability involves the interaction between various agencies, and includes the ability to share accurate and timely information and to provide a common operating picture and situational awareness. There

are two forms of interoperability: technical (or hard) interoperability refers to technological factors involved in the exchange of information, whereas soft interoperability involves the human factors (Way & Yuan, 2013).

According to participants' accounts, shared situational awareness among the agencies was important for facilitating appropriate decisions and for delivering coordinated responses. Achieving an adequate situational awareness regarding every incident that could harm public health and safety during the Games was a challenge, because information was gathered by many agencies and by different people without there being a focal point or agency that had access to and could provide all the information collected. Moreover, the informal links and personal relationships that existed between the professionals accelerated the uncontrolled spread of information, maximizing the risk of useful information being lost. Without a clear understanding of the situation and without information integration, there were bound to be frustrations during the interagency collaboration. As Paul from the Metropolitan Police Service (MPS) reported:

So, channels of communication, and I suppose the best example for that was phone calls coming directly from one venue or an individual to another individual short-circuits. And that will happen at the Games, and when that happens in the Games we will have a break down because information will get lost, people hear rumours or get the wrong end of the message and there will be consequences (Paul, MPS).

The significance of having reliable technology was also eminent during my observation in the Ambulance Service's Operation Room on the day of the Cycle Event. Professionals working in that room indicated that the airwave system was the only way to communicate with the police, fire and coastguard service, and they would not be able to share information in case of a technical problem. Therefore, agencies needed to find supplementary forms of communication to maintain interagency collaboration. After the completion of the Games, professionals noted that one of the lessons learned was the necessity of familiarity with the agencies' communication strategies.

An important consideration for the professionals involved was being sure that they would receive the information they needed. However, all too often the information was lost somewhere between the different levels of management within and across the agencies because of the multiple professionals and actors

involved. A variety of actors, including new ones, in a variety of locations shared information in a variety of ways. There was therefore a risk of inaccurate or incomplete information being received. Both the complexity of the social space and the diverse composition of the people and agencies which acquired different structures, procedures and cultures slowed down the information flow. One participant from the MPS commented:

Everybody is going to need the information but I know that in those big operations it takes time to get the information through (Malcolm, MPS).

Lack of inter-organizational understanding

All the organizations involved had their own operating environment based on their knowledge, tasks, training and organizational structure. The relationships between the participating agencies varied depending on their history of interaction. For example, the blue light services (police, fire, ambulance), which normally respond together in emergencies, had good and well-established relationships, meaning they were familiar with each other's roles and policies, making collaboration easier. However, many participating stakeholders did not have a history of working together and therefore did not understand other agencies' roles, requirements and type of language. These differences also involved information-sharing procedures and communication structures. This unfamiliarity led to misunderstandings during their collaboration and increased the agencies' levels of uncertainty about partners' responsibilities. Participants indicated that it was sometimes difficult to work with agencies that prioritized their own goals without trying to understand other organizations. As one respondent from the military reported: "Some of the other partners perhaps know us less well, [...] I think that they (...) they don't understand" (Ben, Military).

Similarly, another two respondents commented:

I think the sort of barriers are people who, erm, I think they are used to working against their own priorities, they struggle sometimes to take onboard others (Noel, Transport).

Messaging had to be agreed by the Home Office, Department for Culture Media and Sport, and the Ministry of Defence, often with competing objectives or different requirements. This often slowed down the passage of infor-

mation (Jacob, London Ambulance Service (LAS), 2nd interview).

Organizations that were familiar with one another and had good relationships acquired more understanding of what agencies needed in order to perform their tasks. Unfamiliar stakeholders needed to expand their personal network with key personnel from other organizations in order to share relevant information. For instance, closed silos of information existed because of the presence of new actors in the field, such as the London Organizing Committee of the Olympic Games (LOCOG), which hindered the transfer of information across agency boundaries. It was frequently mentioned in the interviews that LOCOG introduced delays in the provision of information, did not turn up to meetings, and planned in isolation. Many of the LOCOG's personnel were not involved in the planning process during the seven years before the Games and did not have enough contacts with other agencies. As a result, they did not have easy access to the information they needed in order to assist with an integrated response concerning public health and safety issues during the Games. As one respondent from the MPS reported:

When you bring in other outside people, the LOCOG they didn't really understand our working practices and we didn't understand theirs, erm, so that didn't work well (Mark, MPS, 2nd interview).

The role of boundary-spanning

Boundary-spanning allowed stakeholders to collect timely information from other agencies on a daily basis during the Games and gain situational awareness of all the events and incidents on each day of the Games. Using boundary-spanners was perceived by respondents as a critical component in inter-agency collaboration during the preparations and the actual Games, because it was an efficient way for the agencies to receive information relevant to them very quickly. Boundary-spanning was a significant mechanism linking an organization to other organizations and mainly involved the sharing and exchange of information. According to Williams (2002), boundary-spanners are organizational members who link their organization with the external environment such as other agencies. The fundamental task of boundary-spanners was therefore to make decisions regarding only the information received. Their role during the

Games was formal, and their purpose was to filter information that was not relevant to their agency, prevent information overload, and ensure timely and accurate information-sharing across the agencies.

For instance, according to my observations, the MPS had spanners (called liaisons) from the ambulance, fire and transport service in their Special Operation Room (SOR). In this way, they were able to discuss upcoming issues instantly and face-to-face and provide the feedback across the agencies using the communication system provided by each liaison person. An important point to mention is that the MPS had provided a short training package to the spanners which encompassed their roles and responsibilities along with information on the technical equipment and available communication systems. In this way, there was a common platform including specific procedures whereby these organizational linkages would exchange information from one organization to another. Consequently, interagency collaboration was enabled because boundary-spanners managed to create shared meanings among organizations while maintaining interoperable communication systems.

The advantage of using organizational members as boundary-spanners was also highlighted in documents. For example, the overarching C3 Concept of Operations (ConOps), which was a government document which aimed to provide a framework for key stakeholders on how to formulate their collaboration, indicated a network of liaison officers as a necessary mechanism for ensuring shared situational awareness among the different agencies. These boundary-spanners, who were formally located in the operation rooms of the different agencies, and whose role had been defined in writing by the agencies involved, fostered interagency communication and collaboration by accelerating the information flow across the agencies. For example, during my observation in the Ambulance Service's Operation Room on the day of the Cycle Event, there was a call for an ambulance near an area where St John Ambulances had resources and the agency responded quickly because there was a St John representative in the room. One participant from the MPS also stated during our second interview:

The way we overcame that was by having liaison officers from particular agencies in each other's control room; so, for example, with the organizing committee we had our liaison officer in their control room and they had their liaison officer in our control room. [...] that person's job is to get me the

information I needed and to tell me if there are things emerging that I need to know about. Because they think the way I do, they don't think the other people. [...] It worked really well in terms of the flow of information between the agencies (Barry, MPS, 2nd interview).

Codification procedures

Most respondents suggested that the use of codification procedures by each organization facilitated communication and interagency collaboration. More specifically, the formation of situation reports (SitReps), which was a reporting mechanism used during the Games, was deemed as a primary source of information across all stakeholders. Most of the organizations involved in the public health and safety aspect of the Games produced and disseminated daily SitReps to the upper level of their hierarchies and to other actors. These SitReps included information relating to the incidents the agency had managed during the day along with potential concerns relating to the issue of public health and safety. The development of SitReps was regarded as an effective mechanism for improving collaboration because, first, it was a formal procedure so everyone knew and expected this kind of information and, second, as a result of its formality, the messages included were selected carefully, making it difficult to receive unclear information. One respondent stated:

Additionally, most organizations and hubs were producing daily situation reports. This enabled a good common understanding of the situation (Jeff, Environment Agency, 2nd interview).

Apart from the interviewees, a number of documents also suggested the development and distribution of SitReps as a necessary component for collaboration between the agencies. For example, the overarching C3 ConOps government document mentioned above presented a detailed daily reporting schedule which required all the stakeholders to provide daily SitReps at the ministerial level. The obligation of the agencies to produce and share daily SitReps with the ministries, and the regularity of this process, improved collaboration because people engaged more in the process since it was required by the government. Professionals worked closely together in order to ensure timely and accurate information sharing. Similarly, the Department of Health (DH) sent a letter to

all the National Health Service (NHS) organizations in May 2012 identifying the reporting and information-sharing arrangements for the duration of the Games. It indicated that the government would produce two daily SitReps which would depict the operational position of the NHS during the Games. The letter clarified that the production of these SitReps was mandatory and would commence around three weeks ahead of the Games in order to test and overcome potential problems. The letter also stated that this method of information sharing would be supplemented by other forms of communication such as phone calls in cases where an organization had significant operational problems to resolve. In line with this suggestion, organizations had to provide a specific daily contact number which could be used in case additional communication was necessary. This was particularly important in cases where organizations faced difficulties after the dissemination of the SitReps, which took place once or twice per day. Therefore, the use of other methods of communication and clear, well-publicized contact details eased the distribution of information that was not included in the SitReps.

Discussion

Collaboration between diverse organizations is a critical factor during mass gatherings (Milsten et al., 2002; Tsouros & Efstathiou, 2007; Zeitz et al., 2008). In this study, communication was identified as an important element of interagency collaboration in the context of the Olympic Games. Even though the existing literature suggests that good communication is key to the delivery of an efficient public health system during mass gatherings (Brennan et al., 1997; Enock & Jacobs, 2008; Grange, 2002; Hadjichristodoulou et al., 2006; Kononovas et al., 2014; Parent et al., 2011), none of the studies elaborated on this factor. In this paper, four key communication areas were identified as critical to interagency collaboration. First, participants reported that ensuring interoperable communication systems across agencies was a key element which was essential for gaining accurate situational awareness and facilitating interagency collaboration. Second, with regard to the lack of inter-organizational understanding, the findings showed that unfamiliarity between agencies led to misunderstandings during their collaboration and increased the level of uncertainty about their roles. Third, participants revealed that the establishment of boundary-spanners between the agencies was a critical component in the interagency collaboration

prior to and during the Games, because it was an efficient way for the agencies to receive information relevant to them very quickly. Finally, the adoption of codification procedures, such as the development of SitReps, played an important role in helping organizations overcome barriers to collaboration. The identification of the above components is significant, because no previous research has examined how interagency collaboration among public health and safety services can be facilitated before and during a mass event. This study suggests that communication plays a powerful role in interagency collaboration in mass gatherings, and that by examining its role, the phenomenon of collaboration can be much more clearly conceptualized.

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THE VISUAL COMMUNICATION OF THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT AND MOBILE INTERNET IN CHINA, A CASE STUDY: MOBILE VIDEOS OF THE 2016 RIO OLYMPIC GAMES

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Introduction

As human society has entered the era of the knowledge economy, the industrial structure has fundamentally changed and the mobile internet industry is becoming the new growth point of the global economy. A report released in March 2015 by Mobile Economy at the World Conference on Communications predicted that a large number of mobile users will use 3G/4G broadband networks. The proportion of users who use mobile broadband network has reached 40%, and this figure is expected to increase to 70% by 2020.¹

The development of mobile internet is not just a change in technology; it is also a change in business model. Influenced by mobile internet, several new business models have taken shape in China which are different from television-driven business models.

This article will take mobile videos of the 2016 Rio Olympic Games as a study case to explore what kinds of business models they represent, and how these business models affect the visual communication of the Olympics in China.

1. Development of mobile Internet in China

Nowadays, mobile technology is extensively used in China, especially in industries such as public transportation, food delivery and e-commerce. Thanks to the convenience that mobile phones bring, cash-free payment is prevalent in China.

1. CAICT. Mobile Internet White Paper 2015[R].2015:1.

Apart from influencing people's daily life, mobile technology has also permeated the strategy of the IOC. For instance, on 19 January 2017, the IOC and Alibaba Group announced a long-term partnership through to 2028. Alibaba will join the Olympic partner worldwide sponsorship programme known as TOP and become the official "cloud services" and "e-commerce platform services" partner, as well as a founding partner in the Olympic Channel.

In fact, these phenomena are closely related to China's information development strategy. After more than 30 years of developments, China has been the world's second-largest economy since 2010. However, China's economic growth has brought about many challenging problems, such as environmental pollution and the widening gap between urban and rural areas. In order to solve these problems, the authorities have sought innovative ways to develop a new economy. Thus was how the Chinese government began to promote the electronic information industry.

On 17 August 2013, the Chinese government proposed its Broadband China strategy to strengthen the nation's information infrastructure. On 5 March 2015, China put forward its Internet Plus action plan, integrating the mobile internet, cloud computing, big data, and modern manufacturing to increase their presence in the international market.

Under the influence of these policies, China's mobile internet has experienced rapid development. For example, China has been developing 4G technology since 2013. The number of 4G base stations in China reached 2.63 million in 2016, which means half of the Chinese population can now use the 4G network.

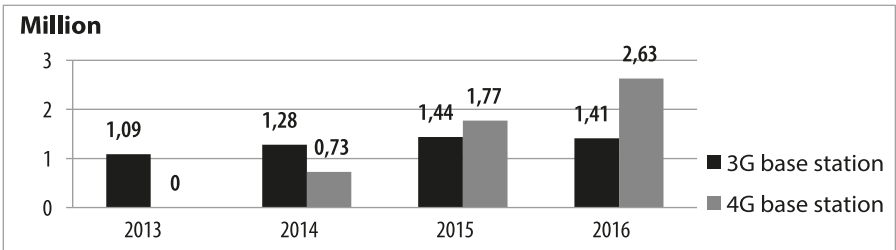


Figure 1. 3G/4G base stations in China²

The number of mobile internet users in China increased from 463.76 million in June 2013 to 656.37 million in June 2016, with a 41.53% growth rate.

2. CAICT.China Internet Industry Development Report[R].2017.

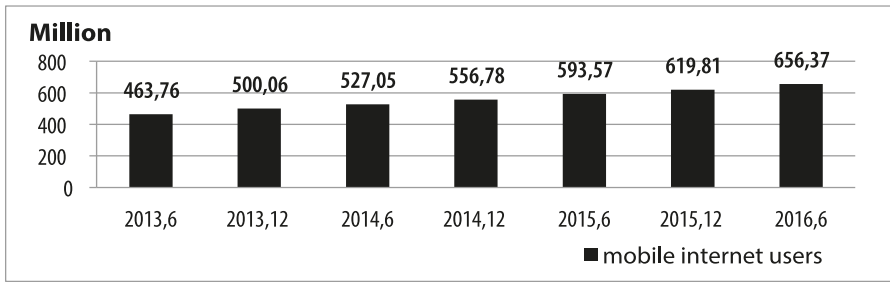


Figure 2. Mobile Internet users in China³

Moreover, with a soaring increase rate of 175.81%, the number of mobile video users in China increased from 159.61 million in June 2013 to 440.22 million in June 2016. It can be said that there is a huge market for mobile internet in China, and that this market has begun to form different business models.

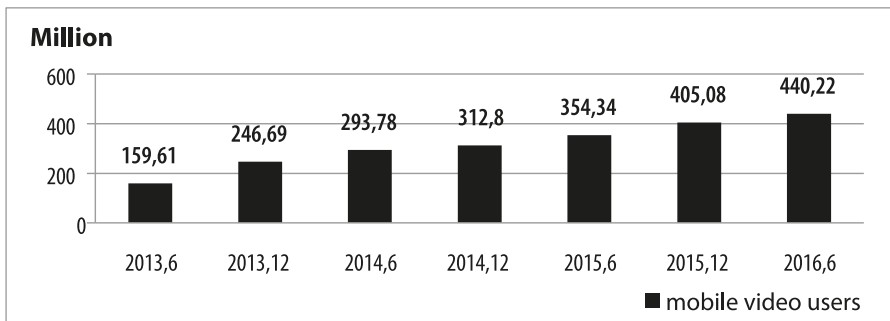


Figure 3. Mobile video users in China⁴

2. Commercial capital and the distribution of new media broadcasting rights for the Olympic games in China

New media broadcasting rights are very important because they define who has the exclusive right to broadcast the Olympic Games. According to the Chinese policy laid out in its “notification on strengthening TV reports and the broadcasting of sports”, the unified broadcasting rights in China should be negotiated and purchased by China Central Television (CCTV). As a result, China Central

3. CINIC.38th China Internet Development Statistical Report[R].2016:12.

4. CINIC, 38th China Internet Development Statistical Report[R].2016:39.

Television (CCTV) acquired the television and new media broadcasting rights from the IOC, then distributed the domestic new media broadcasting rights.

At the Rio Olympics, China's traditional internet companies such as Sina and Sohu, which were more focused on providing PC-based services did not purchase new media broadcasting rights, even though more and more Chinese people had begun to use mobile internet.

However, the new Chinese internet companies Tencent and Alibaba invested 100 million RMB respectively in buying the new media broadcasting rights from China Central Television. Tencent is the largest social media company in China, and its most famous products are QQ and WeChat. Alibaba is the largest e-commerce company in China, and its most important product is Taobao. They are all focused on providing mobile internet services.

Compared with the traditional business model which relied on the PC, Tencent and Ali paid more attention to the power of platforms in the mobile era.

To be more specific, Tencent purchases the broadcasting rights for sports events in order to attract people onto its social media platform, where it can profit by providing them with other services such as paid content, derivative sales and game value-added services. According to this strategy, Tencent signed a contract with the Chinese Olympic Committee (COC) on 13 November 2013, becoming its exclusive internet service partner for 2013-2020. Meanwhile, Tencent enjoyed exclusive rights in the areas of products, advertisement and reporting. As a result, Tencent poured more resources into the Rio Olympics, including a reporting team with over 100 people in it and a studio lobby area of nearly 1000 square metres, three times the size of its lobby for the London Olympics. However, Tencent still lacked the core resources of Olympic events; it therefore decided to buy the new media broadcasting rights from CCTV in order to make its sports strategy more complete.

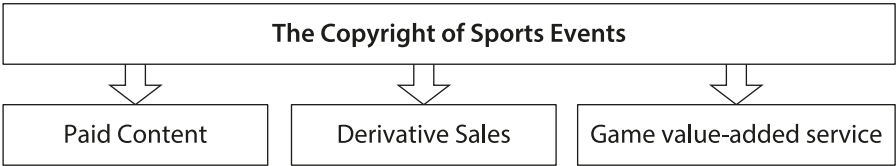


Figure 4. Commercial mode of Tencent sports⁵

5. Analysys. China Sport Competition Copyright Market Study Report 2016[R].2016:40.

Alibaba's business model is similar to Tencent's, and its sports group operates around the Intellectual Property of sport events. The goal of Alibaba Sports is to build a basic platform for the Chinese sports economy, which will operate around the Intellectual Property of sports events. Ali announced the establishment of its Alibaba Sports group in September 2015 and purchased the Intellectual Property of sports events including the World Electronic Sports Games (WESG) and the World Online Running Alliance (WORA). Alibaba Sports has also become the sponsor of the FIFA Club World Cup and won the NFL broadcasting rights for mainland China. Furthermore, Ali has purchased the video site Youku in order to use the network platform to attract fans and users to participate in sports events organized by Alibaba Sports.

Through a series of business investments, Alibaba Sports links consumers to venues, goods, sports stars and other consumers. It is creating an expanding industrial chain which connects various services, such as e-commerce, logistics, big data and mobile payments.

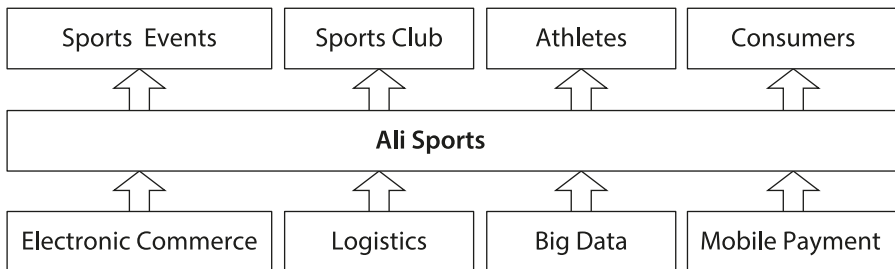


Figure 5. Full commercial mode of Alibaba Sports⁶

To summarize, Tencent and Ali both emphasize the power of the whole platform in their use of new media broadcasting rights. However, this kind of business model has some negative impacts. Compared with the television advertisement, hidden selling information is integrated into various aspects of the platform. For example, when you have used Tencent or Ali's video service to watch the Olympic basketball games, these internet companies will know your preferences and will attempt to sell you more basketball products, such as online games and other basketball supplements. Moreover, the monopoly of the internet giants represented by Tencent and Ali will affect the diversity of Olympic culture in China.

6. Analysys.China Sport Competition Copyright Market Study Report 2016[R].2016:40.

3. Athlete resources and live streaming videos

In addition to the new media broadcasting rights for the Olympic Games, live streaming videos are another way to communicate Olympic culture. Compared with the new media broadcasting rights, streaming emphasizes the power of the individual, and athletes play a very important role in it.

At the 2016 Rio Olympics, live streaming videos were developed in China. For example, Ingkee is a famous social live streaming video application associated with Weibo and WeChat. People use Ingkee to broadcast their own lives and share them with friends in real time using their mobile phones.

It was on Ingkee that Fu Yuanhui had her live show, which made her a new sports star in China. Fu Yuanhui is a Chinese swimmer who won the women's 100 metres backstroke bronze medal at the 2016 Rio Olympics. She is well-known not only for her sporting performance, but also for her hilarious post-swim interviews and vivid personality. More than 10 million viewers watched this live streaming video. Many of her fans sent virtual gifts to Fu Yuanhui during the live streaming process. As a result, Fu Yuanhui won virtual gifts worth 3 million RMB in just 40 minutes.

The period 2012-2016 has witnessed a rapid development in live streaming videos in China. The business model for live streaming videos, represented by Ingkee, is mainly based on virtual gifts given by online viewers which can be converted into cash.

Live streaming videos are currently very popular in China. Mobile internet anchors are mostly ordinary people and their live shows cover different areas ranging from cosmetic beauty to adventure tourism, and craft processing to pet sales. Basically, whatever areas you can find in real life can be found in live streaming videos.⁷

The power of capital has contributed to the development of live streaming videos, since a large amount of money has been invested in it – investment reached 1.171 billion RMB in 2016 – since 2012.

7. Zhang Min. Hot Online Celebrities: Problems and Solutions toward Online Live Platforms [J]. Chinese Journalist, 2016(5): 64.

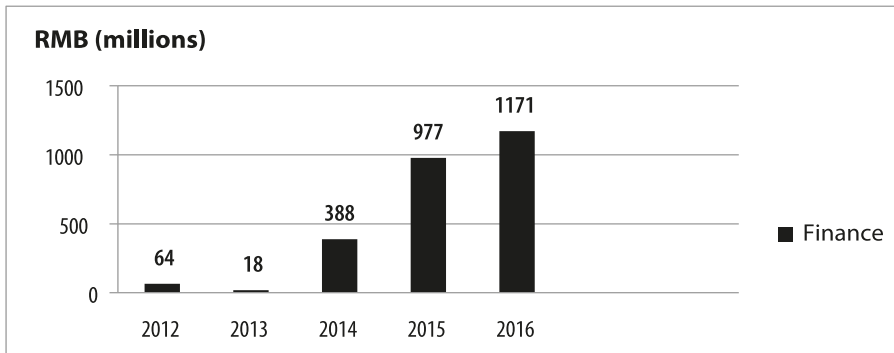


Figure 6. Investment in live streaming videos⁸

To sum up, live streaming videos form a very special business model which focuses on individuals by locking in specific user groups and conducting targeted marketing. Through live streaming videos, more athletes will have the opportunity to share their own Olympic experiences with audiences. However, recessive advertisement around athletes will increase in parallel. The new challenge will be to maintain a balance between business marketing and disseminating the Olympic spirit.

4. Visual industry development and Virtual Reality

The trend in mobile internet is to move from the real towards the virtual world, and Virtual Reality (VR) technology thus continues to attract more and more attention.

The three main features of VR technology are immersion, interaction and simulation.⁹ In fact, the concept of virtual reality appeared in the early 1960s. However, due to the immaturity of the technology, it then disappeared for some time. However, with the development of social media and mobile internet, more and more people have started to focus on VR. For example, the global social media giant Facebook invested \$2 billion in buying Oculus, a VR headset device manufacturer, in March 2014. The return of VR reflects a new exploration of visual spectacle in the mobile internet era.

8. TalkingData, China Mobile Videos Development Report [R]. 2016.

9. Sun lue. VR, AR and Films [J]. Journal of Beijing Film Academy, 2016(3):14.

Under the influence of this new technology, new changes have taken place in the visual communication of the Olympic Games. The 2008 Beijing Olympic Games was the first time all-HD equipment was used for television communication. In 2012, the London Olympics created the first 3D live broadcast. Then the 2016 Rio Olympics witnessed the first attempt at VR broadcasting when the Olympic Broadcasting Services (OBS) used virtual reality technology for the first time to broadcast live for 85 hours.

Due to the limitations of various technical conditions, the VR technology at the Rio Olympic Games was still at the exploration and experimentation stage. A total of 12 global TV institutions ordered the service, including CCTV, NBC (US), the BBC, CBS (Canada) and so on, and the VR broadcast covered about 31 regions.¹⁰

Samsung Corp, a sponsor of the Rio Olympic Games, was one of the main driving forces behind VR; its smart phone business has been declining in recent years, and Samsung wanted to attract more users by developing VR technology. In 2014, Samsung Corp and Oculus co-developed Gear VR, a virtual reality headset device. At the Rio Olympics, Samsung not only promoted cooperation with NBC in North America, it also opened three Samsung visual experience halls in the Olympic Park, Olympic Village and Media Centre respectively.

At the same time, VR technology has also become a new trend in China. The China Sports Media (CSM), which owns the broadcasting rights for a lot of football games in China, has been experimenting with VR live signals since 2016 for the Chinese National Team, the Chinese Super League, the CFA Cup and the Amateur Football League.

Following HD and 3D technology, VR has become a new trend. The American scholar John J. MacAloon suggests that the Olympic Games are becoming a spectacle since they entered the TV age, with low involvement mainly relying on visual participation. MacAloon describes this participation as the “retreat from Easter to the Easter parade”.¹¹ From this perspective, VR still follows the logic of commercial TV in producing visual spectacles in which capital and technology

10. International Olympic Committee. Marketing Media Guide Rio 2016 Olympic Games [R]. Lausanne: IOC, 2016:7.

11. John J. MacAloon. Olympic Games and the Theory of Spectacle in Modern Societies. in: *Rite, Drama, Festival, Spectacle: Rehearsals Toward a Theory of Cultural Performance* [M]. Philadelphia: Institute for the Study of Human Issues, 1984: 241–80.

are still the core factors, although the impact of commercial power will extend from the real world to the virtual world.

5. Conclusion

The rapid development of Chinese mobile internet has brought new business models with it. Under its influence, the visual communication of the Olympics in China displays new features. At the same time, mobile internet provides more opportunities for more people. On the other hand, the Olympics are also facing the risk of commercialization in the future. These business models for Olympic mobile videos are spreading towards intensive platforms and decentralized individuals. Soft advertising has increased and commodity marketing has penetrated into various fields.

There were three different business models relating to the mobile videos from the 2016 Rio Olympic Games in China: the first, represented by Tencent and Alibaba, depends on the power of the platform; the second, represented by Ingkee, forms fans groups around individuals and attains a more detailed commercial marketing; the third is oriented towards virtual reality, which can create visual spectacle.

In spite of the different kinds of business models, technology and capital play an important role in all of them. However, the Olympics are operated in line with commercial methods without a focus on making money. Therefore, in the context of mobile internet, the visual communication of the Olympic Movement in China should adhere to the humanistic value of the Olympic Movement and avoid becoming over-commercialized.

6. Further Research

The development of mobile internet has brought new opportunities and challenges. But if we only emphasize the power of capital and technology, it will be harmful to the visual communication of the Olympics in China. Therefore, in further research, we should pay more attention to the following problems:

How can mobile internet be used to promote mass sports participation in China? How can mobile internet promote the spread of Olympic education in China, and especially sports education for young people? How can mobile internet promote the balanced development of sports in different regions of China?

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BIDS FOR THE 2020 OLYMPIC GAMES AND SPORT FOR TOMORROW

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Motivation and Purpose

In general, sports should be considered separate from the political arena and uninfluenced by political factors, but it is impossible not to consider political perspectives in the field of sports. In particular, mega sporting events are a very prominent stage for increasing national prestige. Numerous previous studies have focused on the economic impact and purpose of the Olympic Values Education Programme. Masumoto (2005) indicates that “The Olympic Games lack an international political point of view. Some sociological researchers are critical of the political context of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) or the Olympic Games (Robert, 2015), but it seems that most researchers avoid discussing politics and the Olympics.

Several studies have proved that a political relationship exists between the IOC and the meso-structures of governmental power, but there have been few studies concerning how a host city or country increases its soft power by bidding for the Olympic Games. In other words, research on what kinds of strategies the host country uses to win the Olympic Games is limited. It is important to clarify why a government bids for the Olympic Games and what has been needed to win recent Olympic Games bids. This study aims to reconsider the modern Olympic Games' role and its potential.

Method and hypothesis

The methodology mainly focuses on analyzing a number of sport-related Official Development Assistance (ODA) programmes, Sports for Tomorrow in Japan, and the chronological order of events in the bidding process for the 2020 Olympic Games. Previous studies have not mentioned the relationship between bids for the Olympic Games and the number of sport-related ODA in Japan, which is a limiting factor in the research. Even so, the Olympic Games and their governance should have integrity, so this approach will help shed light on the relationship between the Olympic Games and political intent.

Data was obtained from official reports, bid files and related documents written by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the Japan Olympic Committee (JOC). Information was also drawn from the official IOC website, while the chronology of the bid process came from previous research conducted by Goto (2014).

This study focuses on how hosting the 2020 Olympic Games in Tokyo will benefit foreign countries. Developing countries within regions such as Africa and Southeast Asia must be taken into consideration, as Prime Minister Abe outlined the “Sport for Tomorrow” strategy as part of Tokyo’s Bid Committee presentation in 2013. This plan aims to spread the value of sport to over 100 countries and over 10 million people through the dispatching of human resources. The role of the ODA is to help us understand new strategies in bidding for the Olympic Games

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Many of these articles discuss sports policy and its influence on society, but they do not mention international relationships. Many researchers write about the gap between sport policy and reality from sociological and sports management perspectives. No articles could be found that included an analysis of international relationships.

It is said that sports and politics must be separated, but the bidding for the Olympic Games requires political factors to be taken into consideration, especially since bidding requires a national strategy. Sports are often used as a tool in international relationships. Sometimes this can lead to bad results, like the boycotts in 1980 and 1984, but at other times sport can contribute to facilitating positive relationships, like North and South Korea's joint entrance procession at the 2000 Olympic Games.

Furthermore, bidding for the Olympics Games sheds light on the relationship between lobbying countries. While it is not possible to identify who voted for Japan in 2013, it is possible to clarify which areas Japan focused on as part of their lobbying. It is not possible, however, to know how much Sport for Tomorrow impacted on the lobbying process.

Chronology of the bidding for the 2020 Olympic Games

Dates	Incidents
November 2011	Olympic Games Bid Committee is established
December 2011	Both the House of Representatives and the House of Councillors pass a resolution for the Tokyo Olympic Games and Paralympic Games in 2020.
January 2012	65.7 million people in Japan are against hosting the 2020 Olympic Games in Tokyo
February 2012	Olympic Games Bid Committee submit application files to the IOC
April 2012	Olympic Games Bid Committee becomes NPO
May 2012	Tokyo is selected as candidate city along with Istanbul and Madrid
May 2012	Olympic Games Bid Committee announces slogan and poster
January 2013	Olympic Games Bid Committee submits candidate files to the IOC
January 2013	Olympic Games Bid Committee submits candidate files to the IPC
September 2013	Tokyo is selected as host city of Olympic and Paralympic Games in 2020
November 2014	Agenda 20+20 is presented by IOC
February 2015	Tokyo metropolitan government announces the basic plan of hosting Olympic Games in 2020

Table 1: Chronological Order of bids Olympic Games in 2020

Source: Tokyo Olympic Games Organizing Committee (2017)

According to Table 1, the bidding period for the Olympic Games was from

November 2011 to September 2013. It took one year and 10 months to decide the host country during which time Tokyo, Istanbul and Madrid struggled to corral votes for the election. During the bidding term for the Olympic Games, three countries lobbied behind the political scenes. What kinds of lobbying were undertaken at that time have not been officially disclosed and remains unclear, but analyzing political movements in these terms may help reveal the relationship between the Olympic Games and politics, especially in the case of Sport for Tomorrow, which is tangible public diplomacy.

According to the bid file, by hosting the 2020 Olympic Games in Tokyo, Japan will contribute to the spread of the Olympic Movement. As a result, Prime Minister Abe presented the Sport for Tomorrow strategy at the 125th IOC session. Sport for Tomorrow aims to spread the scope of sports to over 100 countries and 10 million people around the world, beginning in 2014 and culminating in 2020.

Sport for Tomorrow was not detailed in either the bid or candidate files. There was a chance the concept would have to be abandoned, because all the information relating to hosting the Olympic Games should be included in the files. However, Japan ultimately became the host country and, at the very least, the Sport for Tomorrow strategy had an impact on the opinions of the IOC members. According to Sport for Tomorrow:

SPORT FOR TOMORROW is an international contribution through sport initiative led by the Japanese government, which promotes sport to more than 10 million people in over 100 nations until 2020, the year when Tokyo will host the Summer Olympic and Paralympic Games. It aims to deliver values of sport and promote the Olympic and Paralympic movement to people of all generations worldwide (Sport for Tomorrow, 2017).

IOC members and IOC Evaluation Commission members

According to the official IOC pages, Tokyo obtained 60 votes to Madrid's 36. This fact shows that at least 60 people agreed to hosting the Olympic Games in Japan, even though in the first round Japan could not win more than 50% of the votes. While it was impossible to find information on who had voting rights in 2013 on selecting the host city for 2020, it is possible to estimate who could have voted at that time.

Table 2 shows IOC members from Asia. There were 16 members at that time. The two members from Japan could not vote, so 14 members were expected at the 125th IOC Session.

Name	Country	Year Elected	Name	Country	Year Elected
Mr Shagdarjav MAGVAN	MGL	1977	Syed Shahid ALI	PAK	1996
Mr Chiharu IGAYA	JPN	1981	Mr Kun-Hee LEE	KOR	1996
Mr Francisco J. ELIZALDE	PHI	1985	Mr Ser Miang NG	SGP	1998
Mr Timothy Tsun Ting FOK	HKG	2001	Mr Zaiqing YU	CHN	2000
Raja Randhir SINGH	IND	2001	HRH Prince Tunku IMRAN	MAS	2006
HRH Prince Nawaf Bin Faisal Bin Fahad Bin ABDULAZIZ AL SAUD	KSA	2002	Mrs Yang YANG	CHN	2010
Mr Ching-Kuo WU	TPE	1988	Mrs Lingwei LI	CHN	2012
Mr Nat INDRAPANA	THA	1990	Mr Tsunekazu TAKE-DA	JPN	2012

Table 2. IOC members from Asia
Source: International Olympic Committee (2017)

Table 3 shows 12 IOC members from Africa.

Name	Country	Year Elected
Mr Mustapha LARFAOUI	ALG	1995
Intendant General Lassana PALENFO	CIV	2000
Mr Kipchoge KEINO	KEN	2000
Mr Issa HAYATOU	CMR	2001
Mr Patrick S. CHAMUNDA	ZAM	2002
Mr Sam RAMSAMY	RSA	1995
Ms Nawal EL MOUTAWAKEL	MAR	1998
Mrs Beatrice ALLEN	GAM	2006
Mr Habu GUMEL	NGR	2009
Ms Lydia NSEKERA	BDI	2009
Mr Frank FREDERICKS	NAM	2012
Ms Aocha GARAD ALI	DJI	2012

Table 3: IOC members from Africa
Source: International Olympic Committee (2017)

Table 4 shows eight members from the Middle East. One member from Turkey could not vote at that time due to Istanbul's candidature.

Name	Country	Year Elected
Mr Toni KHOURY	LBN	1995
General Mounir SABET	EGY	1998
Sheikh Ahmad Al-Fahad AL-SABAH	KUW	1992
Mr Alex GILADY	ISR	1994
Mr Samih MOUDALLAL	SYR	1998
HH Amir Sheikh Tamim Bin Hamad AL-THANI	QAT	2002
Prof. Ugur ERDENER	TUR	2008
HRH Prince Feisal AL HUSSEIN	JOR	2010

Table 4: IOC members from Middle-East
Source: International Olympic Committee (2017)

Table 5 shows the five IOC members from Oceania.

Name	Country	Year Elected
Mr Richard Kevan GOSPER, AO	AUS	1977
Mr Phillip Walter COLES, AM	AUS	1982
Dr Robin E. MITCHELL	FIJ	1994
Mr John COATES, AC	AUS	2000
Mr Barry MAISTER, ONZM	NZL	2010

Table 5: IOC members from Oceania
Source: International Olympic Committee (2017)

In addition, there were 49 members including three from Spain and 15 from North and South America. As data from Europe and North and South America were not utilized for the purpose of this study, their tables are not included.

According to Table 6, there were 14 evaluation commission members. Eight members came from Europe, three from North and South America, and a single member from Oceania, Asia, and Africa. Referring to these tables, European countries have significant voting power because their representation is high. On the other hand, the number of non-European members totalled 54. If the members who did not have voting rights were rejected, the number of European to non-European countries would be 46 to 51.

Name	Country	Name	Country
Sir Craig REEDIE	GBR	Mr Andrew Parsons	BRA
Mr Guy DRUT	FRA	Mr Stefano Manelli	ITA
Mr Frank FREDERICKS	NAM	Prof. Philippe BOVY	SUI
Mr Nat INDRAPANA	THA	Mr John McLAUGHLIN	CAN
Mrs Claudia BOKEL	GER	Mr Grant THOMAS	USA
Mr Patrick BAUMANN	SUI	Mr David Stubbs	GRB
Mr Eduardo PALOMO	ESA	Mr Gilbert FELLI	SUI

*Table 6: 2020 IOC Evaluation Commission members
Source: International Olympic Committee (2017)*

The number of Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers

The Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) has sent volunteers overseas since 1965. The JICA plays an important role in bilateral cooperation by contributing to developing countries. There are two kinds of support: financial, in which Japan gives or lends money, and providing human resources, such as technical support, teachers, and sports guidance.

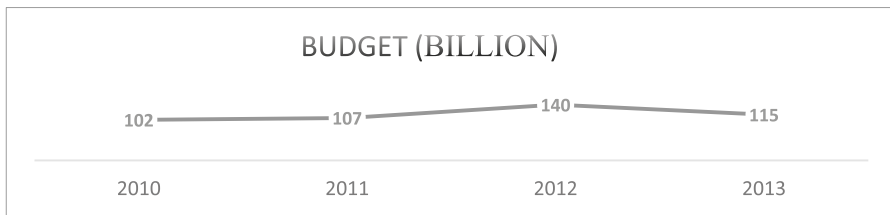


*Figure 1: The number of Overseas volunteers
Resource: Japan International Cooperate Association (2017)*

In this graph, the vertical axis shows the number of overseas volunteers and the horizontal axis shows years. In 2011, when the Great East Japan earthquake occurred, the ODA budget decreased dramatically due to Japan becoming a recipient country. After 2012, however, the number of overseas volunteers increased gradually up until 2014.

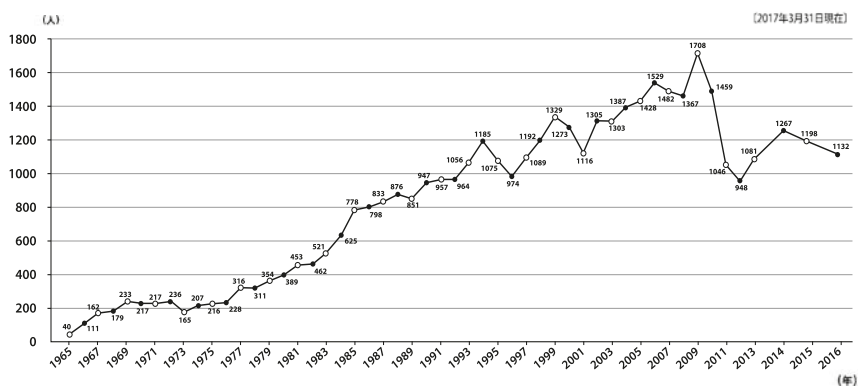


Figure 2: The rates of Human resources in gratis fund aid
Resource: Japan International Cooperate Association (2017)

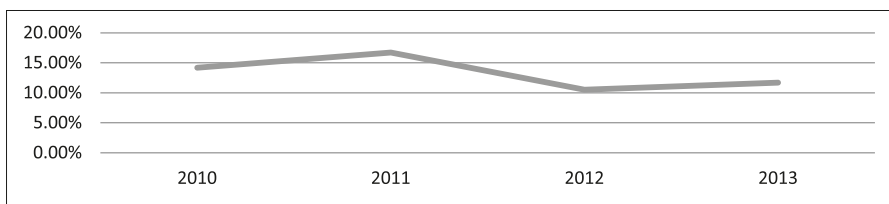


Figure 3: The budget of gratis fund aid
Resource: Japan International Cooperate Association (2017)

According to Figure 2, the rates of human resources in gratis fund aid decreased in 2011, but Figure 3 shows that the budget increased. While the number of people who participated as sport-related overseas volunteers from 2011 to 2013 is unknown, it can be presumed that the number of volunteers and budgets show the overall contribution of JICA. Even though the exact number of people is not clear, the Japanese government had a strategy of international cooperation.

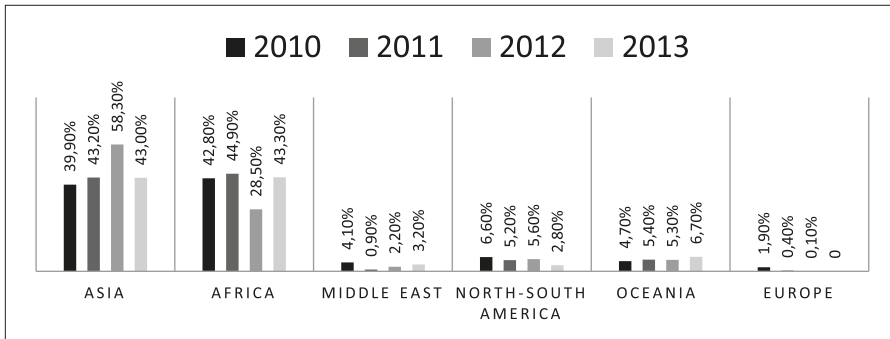


Figure 4: The distribution of human resource aid by area
 Resource: Japan International Cooperate Association (2017)

Figure 4 shows the distribution of human resource aid from 2010 to 2013. Of note is that in 2011 and 2012, Asia and Africa received a large number of human resources. It is unclear how many volunteers there were in each year, but over 3,500 sport-related volunteers have been sent around the world in total. The Sport for Tomorrow programme continues to send volunteers; to date, 151 countries and 524,065 people have benefitted from the programme.

Discussion

Through the classification of IOC members, it is easy to see that Europe has immense influence. If the European countries united and voted together, Madrid might have won, but the exact opposite happened: Madrid lost in a tie-breaking vote against Istanbul. What is the reason for success in the race for the Olympic Games? While this was my first research interest, no journalist, commentator or researcher has been able to provide a reasonable answer. Any potential answer should be considered from a political point of view. JICA is the symbol of ODA, especially in terms of human resources. Overseas volunteering is a familiar concept to Japanese people. During the bidding terms for the Olympic Games, the number of volunteers increased by a healthy margin. Through grassroots international cooperation, overseas volunteers are recognized as Japanese soft power. Moreover, Tokyo was able to win the Olympic Games in 2020.

Conclusion

Bids for the Olympic Games involve a lot of drama, and the process is not always clear to outsiders. But it is not only the Olympic Games; many other kinds of conversation are influenced by political power. It is not acceptable to use the Olympic Games as a tool for corruption and injustice. Because the Olympic Games aims to make a better world, Sport for Tomorrow can help do that through providing the opportunity for people to play sports who were unable to do so before. While Sport for Tomorrow does have some problems with management and evaluation, it still gives people the chance to engage in sport. Political power can be used as a tool for the good if politicians keep philosophy and justice in mind.

This thesis is unclear in terms of methodology and data, and it is not possible to know to what extent overseas volunteers and the Sport for Tomorrow strategy contributed to Tokyo winning the bid for the 2020 Olympic Games. However, this kind of approach is useful for understanding this field. and further analysis of bids for the Olympic Games would be of value in the field of sport politics.

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FACTORS INFLUENCING TOP SPORT ACHIEVEMENTS IN OLYMPIC SPORT IN LATVIA

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Research topic

The social environment influences our broader understanding of the social programme of society, offering a definite direction to an education and study system with the main aim of educational process. The immediate social environment (family, coaches, sport management, friends, colleagues, etc.) can affect the individual differently and offer alternatives. At different times of life, the intensity of this influence changes (СТАМБУЛОВА, 1999). These issues are also relevant to our analysis of the factors affecting top Latvian athletes' achievements in competitions.

An athlete's "psychological preparedness" (as an internal factor) is one of the most frequently referenced terms in sport by athletes themselves, coaches, spectators and the media. However, it is also one of the least understood terms in sports science (Sheard, 2012). The notion of *mental toughness* is often used in the research literature to describe an athlete's consistent ability to act productively in situations of increasing stress, at the most critical moments in competitions, by accurately executing technical and tactical elements (Jones, Hanton, Connaughton, 2007). An athlete's ability to perform through disturbing factors is negatively affected by an inability to control emotions, thus decreasing performance stability not only in the framework of a particular competition, but also during an entire championship or season. Coaches of various sports regularly face this problem (Nicholls, Levy, Polman, Crust, 2011). Some sports psychologists link athlete's mental stability during competitions to psychic regulation – the athlete's ability to relax and regulate both the effects of psychic stress and

one's psycho-emotional condition and behaviour (Weinberg, Butt, Culp, 2011). Psychic stability is thus characterized by an athlete's stable ability at the most critical moments of competitions to execute technical elements with the same ease and accuracy as during training (Orlick, 2008). Another obligatory basis for psychic stability is the athlete's physical condition (Loehr, 1995).

With clarity of mind and firmness of purpose, mentally tough performers aspire to be great. Settling for being good is never enough. They know how to win, and have the courage to stand tall in the face of adversity. It is not that they deny the problem; rather, it is the efficiency of their response. Champions do the ordinary things better than anyone else. They make fewer mistakes and possess a work ethic, winning mentality, and self-confidence. Mentally tough performers refuse to be intimidated; instead, they intimidate the opposition with their presence. It is about holding yourself together, dealing with your inevitable nerves, which are present however much you wish they were not. Winning is not all that matters. Character also matters. And competing with talent, enthusiasm, guts, dignity, and integrity. Mentally tough athletes do not dwell on defeat, but, rather, accept losing as an inevitable consequence of meeting someone better on a particular day. In defeat, they remain gracious. They remain positive about the future. They believe in themselves and in all they can achieve. This is the first step on the path to achievement. Success does not come with time; it comes with toil. Ultimately, we are responsible for our success, and we measure success by the experiences we live. Mental toughness is the stuff of champions (Sheard, 2012).

Research object: the Olympic Games.

Research subject: external and internal factors influencing the achievements of participants in the Olympic Games.

Research subjects: the Latvia national team for the Olympics, including athletes of different sports.

Research aim: to evaluate the external and internal factors influencing the achievements of Olympic Game participants, as well as recommendations for the preparation of future Olympians.

Research hypothesis: the achievements of athletes participating in the Olympic Games are mostly influenced by their parents and their coach (the external factors) and by their psychic stability in competitions (the internal factors).

Research objectives:

To state and analyse the external factors which promoted Latvian Olympians' growth and achievements.

To state and analyse the internal factors which promoted Latvia Olympians' growth and achievements.

To develop recommendations for coaches for future Olympians' preparation process.

Research methods:

Analysis of literature sources

Inquiry-questionnaire

Modified variant of Social Affect Questionnaire (Стамбулюба, 1999)

Psychic stability Questionnaire (PPI-A, Golby et al., 2007)

Statistics

Key words – Olympic sports, top achievements, sport career, social factors, psychic factors

In the last few years, sport psychology has contributed effectively to a better understanding of how psychological factors influence athletic performance, especially elite performance demonstrated in the Olympic Games (Orlick, 2000; Starkes & Ericsson, 2003; Gordon, 2005) and the Paralympic Games (Samulski et al., 2004, 2005).

Successful Olympic Performance is a complex, multifaceted, fragile and long-term process that requires extensive planning and implementations. Attention to detail counts, but must also be accompanied by flexibility to deal with numerous unexpected events (Gould et al., 1998, p. 53).

Sport psychology research has consistently shown that for optimal performance to occur, elite athletes must achieve an ideal performance state (IPS; Gould, 2001) or an emotional zone of optimal functioning (IZOF; Hanin, 1999). This optimal performance state is a complex, multivariate combination and interaction of cognitions, emotional states (Jackson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1999), and physiological conditions. The most common elements include optimal arousal-level, anxiety and stress control, self-confidence, goal setting, attention control, and perceptions of self-control (Loehr, 1982, 1986, 1990).

According to Hackfort and Munzert (2005), physical preconditions, physiological

states and motor skills are not the exclusive fundamentals required for peak performance in sports. Hackfort (2006) also considers that mental abilities, as well as various psychological factors, are necessary for attaining excellence. Gould, Dieffenbach, and Moffet (2002) investigated Olympic champions' psychological characteristics and their development. These athletes could have the following characteristics: coping with and controlling anxiety, confidence, sport intelligence, the ability to focus and block out distractions, competitiveness, hard work, ethics, the ability to set and achieve goals, coachability, high levels of dispositional hope, optimism, adaptive perfectionism, and mental toughness (Gordon, 2005).

Jones, Hanton, and Connaughton (2002, p. 209) consider mental toughness an important characteristic of an expert-athlete, and define it as:

Having the natural or developed psychological edge that enables you to, generally, cope better than your opponents with many demands (competition, training, life style) that sport places or performs. Specially, be more consistent and better than your opponents in remaining determined, focused, confident and in control under pressure.

Athletes can acquire and train psychological skills by systematic and long-term psychological training oriented and supervised by an expert in sport psychology (Becker & Samulski, 2002). Thus, it is important to know how to coach and counsel athletes.

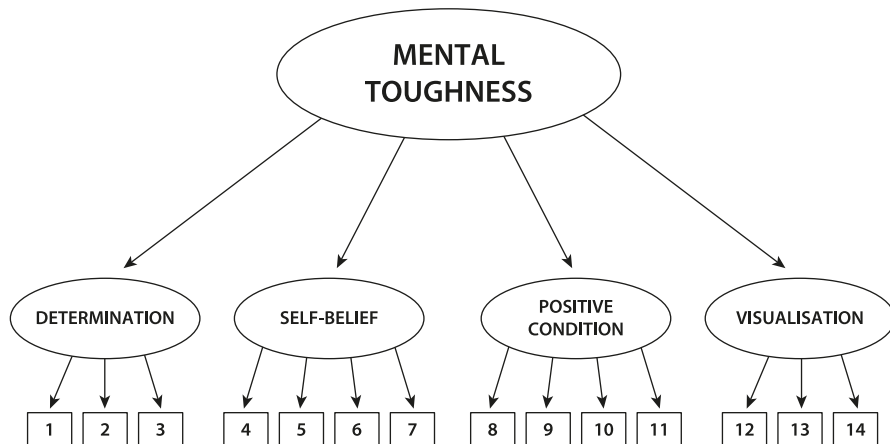


Fig. 1. General Mental Toughness model
(PPI-A, Golby et al., 2007)

This picture shows the Mental Toughness model (PPI-A) described in Golby. A. (2007). The model consists of four scales: Determination, Self belief, Positive Cognition and Visualization.

Research results

1. The respondents' answers were analyzed in the context of their gender and their results in the Olympic Games. The average age of the research respondents was 37 (see appendix), with the youngest participant starting to train in their chosen sport at the age of three and the oldest at the age of 16.

Having analyzed the respondents' answers, it can be concluded that females who were placed in the first ten at the Olympic Games had on average started to participate in sport at the age of 7.6. Those female Olympians who were placed 11-20 had started sports at an average age of 8.2, and those placed 21-59 had started sports at the age of 10.6. There is a big difference in assessments between the highest and lowest definite statement of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is high (8.33 ± 2.708).

In contrast, males who came in the top ten had started to do sport on average at the age of 11.9. Male Olympians who were placed 11-20 had started sport at an average age of 8.2, and those placed 21-59 had started sport on average at the age of 10.6. Once again, there is a big difference in assessments between the highest and lowest definite statement of respondent answers, with a high dispersion coefficient (10.33 ± 3.440).

The analysis of the results obtained allows us to conclude that females who started sports at an earlier age achieved higher results. This can be explained by early specialization advantages in those kinds of sport where it is important to learn techniques and to prepare psychologically and physically as early as possible. However, the males who started to do sports later got higher results. Compared to girls, boys develop later and start to do sport later when they are physically and psychologically more mature. Those Olympians who started sports at the age of 8 and placed 11-21 had surpassed those who started sport at the age of ten due to their early specialization advantages. The Olympians who started sport at the age of 10 had not put in place the necessary bases and had not reached the necessary level of psychological and physical maturity.

Having analyzed the respondents' answers, it can be seen that males who

placed in the top ten at the Olympic Games indicate parents as their main sports influence, averaging 4.29 points on a five-point scale from 1 (practically did not affect) to 5 (affected the most). A big difference can be seen in assessments between the highest and lowest definite statement of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is high (4.58 ± 1.165). The males who placed 11-21 indicate parents as their main influence for starting sport, averaging four points, while the males who placed 21-59 also cite parents as their main influence in starting sport, but with a lower average of 3.5 points.

Females who came in the top ten at the Olympic Games cite parents as their main influence for starting sports, averaging 4.29 points, while those female Olympians who placed 11-20 cite parents as their main influence at five points, as do female athletes who placed 21-59. A big difference can be seen in assessments between the highest and lowest definite statement of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is high (3.90 ± 1.261). The result analyses shows that parents affect young athletes the most in relation to starting sports training. For some Olympians, parents serve as a model, having themselves been Olympians or actively participated in sport.

Having analyzed the respondent answers it can be seen that females who placed in the top ten at the Olympic Games assessed sport organizations at 1.71 points on average as the factor that affecting their decision to train in sport. Those female Olympians who placed 11-20 place assessed sport organizations on average with 2.33 points. The females who in the Olympic Games took the 21st – 59th place marked sport organizations with one point. A big difference was noted between the highest and lowest definite statements of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is high (1.75 ± 1.215). But for the males who in the Olympic Games took the first ten places the influence of sport organizations on starting to train in sport mark with 1.14 points. The males who placed 11-21 mark the effect of sport organizations with two points, and the males who in the Olympic Games took from 21–59 place assess the effect of sport organizations with 1.88 points. A big difference was noted between the highest and lowest definite statements of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is high (1.67 ± 1.017). According to the obtained data it can be concluded that the influence by sport organizations on young trainee involvement is not big.

Having analyzed the respondent answers it can be concluded that the females who finished in the top ten assessed their satisfaction with their participa-

tion with 3.71 points, the female Olympians who placed 11-20 assessed their satisfaction with the result at 3.33 points, while those who placed 21-59 indicated that they were not satisfied and assessed their achievement at 1.50 points. There was a big difference in assessments between the highest and lowest definite statement of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is high (3.25 ± 1.422).

The males who came in the top ten at the Olympic Games assessed their participation at 3.71 points. The Olympians who placed 11-20 assessed their participation at 3.33 points on average, and the Olympians who placed 21-59 assessed their performance at 3.25 points. A big difference was noted between the highest and lowest definite statements of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is high (3.10 ± 1.375).

Having analyzed the respondent answers, it can be concluded that males in general are more satisfied with their results than females. The males who placed 21-59 are more satisfied with their result than those who finished in the top ten. Comparing males to females, the results show that females take failure more to heart and are more dissatisfied with their performance.

2. Having analyzed the respondents' answers, it can be concluded that females who finished in the top ten showed high results in the Determination scale – 13.86 points from a maximum of 15. The female Olympians who were placed 11-20 showed slightly lower results at 12 points, while the female Olympians who placed 21-59 also got 12 points. A very small difference was seen in the assessments between the highest and lowest definite statements of respondent answers, as there is a small dispersion indicator (13.08 ± 0.557). For their part, the males who finished in the top ten got 13 points, the male Olympians who placed 11-20 got 12 points, and those who placed 21-59 got 11.63 points. Very small differences are seen in assessments between the highest and lowest definite statement of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is low (12.19 ± 0.382). In general, both females and males showed high results in the Determination scale, which indicates that these Olympians are persistent, self-motivated and purposeful athletes, who are ready to make great efforts to be successful in their sport. However, on average, females showed better results: 13.8 points on average, compared with 12.19 points for males. We can conclude that females are more motivated, and this also holds after failures.

Having analyzed the respondent answers, it can be stated that females who finished in the top ten in the Olympic Games got 16.86 points (out of a maximal of 20), while the female Olympians who placed 11-20 got 14.33 points, and the females who placed 21-59 got 14 points. A very small difference is seen in assessments between the highest and lowest definite statement of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is low (15.75 ± 0.930). The males who finished in the top ten got 17.57 points, but the Olympians who placed 11-20 got 16.33 points, and those who placed 21-59 got 16 points. A very small difference is seen in assessments between the highest and lowest definite statement of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is low (16.62 ± 0.450). Taking into account the obtained data, it can be concluded that self-confident females and males do not lose their self-confidence and maintain positive emotions in competitions, achieving greater success than other Olympians.

Having analyzed the respondent answers it can be concluded that females who finished in the top ten got 16.57 points, while female Olympians who placed from 11-20 got 14.67 points, and females who placed 21-59 got 17 points. A very small difference is seen in assessments between the highest and lowest definite statement of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is low (16.17 ± 0.613). The males who finished in the top ten got 17.43 points, while the Olympians who placed 11-20 got 15.83 points, and the Olympians who placed 21-59 got 16 points. A very small difference is seen in assessments between the highest and lowest definite statement of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is low (16.43 ± 0.524). According to the results laid out in Figure 7, it can be concluded that the females who ended up in the lower places have shown the highest result on the "Positive self-cognizance" scale, as they can transform failure into a new opportunity and better control their thoughts and emotions, while those females who did not finish in the first ten places, but placed 11-20, were not so successful at recovering from failure and continue to suffer. The males who finished in the top ten places can successfully control their thoughts and emotions.

Having analyzed the respondent answers, it can be stated that females who finished in the top ten got 11.86 points, while female Olympians who placed 11-20 got 11 points, and females who placed 21-59 got 10.50 points. A very small difference is seen in assessments between the highest and lowest definite statement of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is low (11.42 ± 0.570). The males who finished in the top ten got 12.43 points, while the

Olympians who placed 11-20 got 11.33 points, and the Olympians who placed 21-59 got 12 points. A very small difference is seen in assessments between the highest and lowest definite statement of respondent answers, as the dispersion coefficient is low (11.95 ± 0.280). We can conclude from the results, which are presented in Figure 8, that the females who visualize how to cope with difficult situations more often during competitions or during training achieve better results when they participate in the Olympic Games. Comparing to females, males visualize more, irrespective of the competition result.

Conclusions

1. To solve the first research objective, 33 Latvia Olympians answered questions about the influence of different external social factors on their Olympic achievements and their responses were analyzed.

1.1. Parents were the most influential in encouraging young athletes to start their training in sport (4.15 ± 1.253) as well as in strengthening their interest to stay in sport (4.39 ± 0.814);

1.2. Coaches paid a big role in athletes starting to train in sport (3.55 ± 1.394), in strengthening their interest (4.15 ± 1.176), and in their participating in the Olympic Games (4.73 ± 0.452);

1.3. Low indices were shown in relation to the influence of sport organizations on starting to train in sport (1.70 ± 1.075), strengthening interest (1.88 ± 0.992). Sport organizations revealed an average influence on performance in the Olympic Games (3.27 ± 1.069);

1.4. For both females and males, the influence of sport management on athlete achievements in the Olympic Games reveals a statistically significant medium close positive interconnection ($r = .583$; $p < 0.05$). There is a medium close positive interconnection between sport management and the picked team coach ($r = .453$; $p < 0.01$). For females, there is a statistically significant positive interconnection between the influence of the picked team coach and athletic achievements in the Olympic Games ($r = .583$; $p < 0.05$).

2. To solve the first research objective, different psychological (internal) factors and the influence on respondent achievements in the Olympic Games have been analyzed.

2.1. In general both females and males showed medium results on the “Determination” scale (12.52 ± 0.320), indicating that these Olympians are persistent, self-motivated and purposeful athletes who are ready to make great efforts to achieve success in their sport. On average, females showed better results – 13.8 points compared with an average of 12.19 points for males. We can conclude that females are more motivated, including after failures;

2.2. Taking all the data into account, it can be concluded that both females and males, who are self-confident do not lose their self-confidence, maintain positive emotions during competitions, and achieve higher success than other Olympians. In general, both females and males showed average results on the “Self-confidence” scale (12.30 ± 0.441);

2.3. The females who achieved a lower placing reveal the highest results in “Positive self-cognizance” (17 points), as they can change failure into a new possibility and control their thoughts and emotions better. However, those females who did not get into the first ten places, placing 11-20, are not so successful at recovering from failure and continue to suffer as a result, scoring only 14.67 points, which is a low indicator. In general, on the “Positive self-cognizance” scale, females revealed results which are below the average (16.17 ± 0.613). The males who finished in the top ten places can successfully control their thoughts and emotions, showing average results (17.43 points). On average, males and females showed results under the average level on the “Positive self-cognizance” scale (16.43 ± 0.524);

2.4. The females who more often visualize how they cope with difficult situations during competitions or in their thoughts, train their physical abilities and achieved higher placings (1-10) when they participated in the Olympic Games. However, females showed results under the average level (11.42 ± 0.570) on the “Visualization” scale. Males visualize more than females, irrespective of their placing in competitions, but like the female results, the overall male results are under the average level (11.95 ± 0.280).

2.5. There are statistically significant positive interconnections between psychic stability total indicators. They are close to athlete “Self-belief” ($r = .762$; $p < 0.01$) and athlete “Positive self-cognizance ability” ($r = .805$; $p < 0.01$) scale content indicators. Medium close with athlete “Determination” ($r = .507$; $p < 0.01$) and weak with “Visualization” ($r = .420$; $p < 0.05$) scale indicators.

3. Taking the obtained results as the basis, the recommendations and their con-

tent for athlete psychic stability optimization, which includes the tasks, “Determination”, “Self-belief”, “Positive self-cognizance ability” and “Visualization” scale content development for future Olympians of Latvia have been worked out. Recommendations for social (external) factor development for coaches in their work with trainees and their parents, and recommendations for informative content for sport organizations in their work in athlete attraction and education have been worked out.

The hypothesis proposed in the thesis has proved to be true.

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1. Appendix

When answering the questionnaire, remember your participation in the Olympic Games. The survey is anonymous and the data will be analyzed only in aggregated form for a Master's thesis.

Please note:

Age _____ Gender _____ Sport _____

Highest achievements in the Olympic Games _____

	Almost never	Rarely	Some- times	Often	Almost always
The goals I've set for myself as a player keep me working hard	1	2	3	4	5
I don't have to be pushed to play or practice hard. I am my own best igniter	1	2	3	4	5
I am willing to give whatever it takes to reach my full potential as a player	1	2	3	4	5
I lose my confidence very quickly	1	2	3	4	5
I can keep strong positive emotion flowing during competition	1	2	3	4	5
I am a positive thinker during competition	1	2	3	4	5
My self-talk during competition is negative	1	2	3	4	5
I can clear interfering emotions quickly and regain my focus	1	2	3	4	5
Playing this sport gives me a genuine sense of joy and fulfilment	1	2	3	4	5
I can change negative moods into positive ones by controlling my thinking	1	2	3	4	5
I can turn crisis into opportunity	1	2	3	4	5
I mentally practice my physical skills	1	2	3	4	5
Thinking in pictures about my sport comes easy for me	1	2	3	4	5
I visualize working through tough situations prior to competition	1	2	3	4	5

2. Appendix

Remember how and when you started to play sports.

How old were you when you started your sport? _____

2. Who influenced you to start doing sports, and to what extent? Use the 5-point scale, where 1 indicates virtually no effect and 5 the greatest impact.

Parents (or other family members)	1	2	3	4	5
Peers	1	2	3	4	5
Coach	1	2	3	4	5
Sports teacher	1	2	3	4	5
Sports organizations	1	2	3	4	5
Mass media	1	2	3	4	5

3. Who helped you strengthen your interest in sports and to what extent? Use the same scoring scale.

Parents (or other family members)	1	2	3	4	5
Peers	1	2	3	4	5
Coach	1	2	3	4	5
Sports teacher	1	2	3	4	5
Sports organizations	1	2	3	4	5
Mass media	1	2	3	4	5

6. To what extent did the following people, organizations and social institutes impact on your start at the Olympics? Mark one answer in each row.

	Negative influence	Rather negative	No impact	Rather positive	Positive impact
Your personal coach					
National team coach					
Sports management					
Teammates					
Family members					
Mass media					

7. To what extent were you satisfied with your start? Mark one answer.

() Fully Dissatisfied () Rather Dissatisfied () Difficult to answer () Rather satisfied () Satisfied to the highest degree ()

WHAT FACTORS HAVE INFLUENCED THE EVOLUTION OF THE OLYMPIC MARATHON?

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Introduction

The long-distance footrace, the marathon, plays a unique role in the Olympic Games. Michel Brial idealized the race as a tribute to the legendary run of Pheidippides and suggested that Baron de Coubertin include it in the first modern Olympic Games (MOG) in Athens 1896 (Lennartz, 1998). The event would have a significant mythological meaning for the Greek people who would be hosting the new games. Over more than a century, many sports modalities have come and gone in the Olympic programme, but athletes from all over the world have contested the marathon at every edition of the Games. This historical significance makes the marathon one of the most eagerly-awaited sports events at the Olympic Games (Coubertin & Philemon, 1897). Furthermore, the road-race aspect, with the athletes running along urban streets with the public free to watch on and from closer range also contributes to the popularization of the event. Besides that, running is one of the most popular types of exercise around the world.

Although the marathon is based on a basic motor pattern that is quite simple in terms of technique (compared to other modalities whose technique is more complex), the long distance and environmental factors make it an extremely challenging event (Martin & Gynn, 2000). Each event is unique and a very singular experience for each athlete. Over 42,195 metres, athletes use a combination of muscular, cardiovascular, and neurological systems which all work together for optimal energetic balance (Joyner & Coyle, 2008). Challenging the physical limits of the human body, performance in the contest depends not only on the athletes' fitness, but also on their mental control during lonely moments of pain and stress.

Over the century plus of MOGs, performance in footrace events has improved significantly. Comparing race events presented in the first edition of the MOG with the results achieved by athletes in 2016, all modalities have consistently improved over time. The best 100m time has fallen by 18.2% (from 12.0 to 9.81 secs), the 400m by 20.3% (from 54.0 to 43.03 secs), the 800m by 22% (from 2:11 to 1:42.15), the 1500m by 15.8% (from 4:33.2s to 3:50), but the race with the greatest improvement of all is the marathon, where the winning time fell from 2:58:50 in 1896 to 2:08:44 in 2016, meaning a 31.7% improvement. This comparison illustrates the evolution of the Olympic marathon. However, as analyzed by Weiss et al. (2015), performances in international marathons (Olympic and non-Olympic) have not improved linearly over time; there have been moments of change in the rate of improvement.

It is well known that international wars and economic and political events impact on the Olympic Movement. Furthermore, the prevalence of financial support, boosted by professionalism, over the amateur spirit demands ever more dedication and specialization (Rubio & Mesquita, 2011). On the other hand, scientific and technological development has facilitated the evolution of sports science, providing a more detailed understanding of the physiological effects of exercise, the biological limits of exercise tolerance, and the biomechanical forces and patterns adopted by elite athletes (Bassett Jr & Howley, 2000). This body of knowledge favours the improvement of training methods, running shoes, and other technologies. Nevertheless, it is hard to determine which factors have had a greater impact on results. It is therefore essential to view the marathon times in their historical context in order to better understand what factors have impacted on the evolution of the Olympic marathon. The purpose of this research was thus to describe the evolution of the Olympic marathon, and to identify what factors may affect the results, via principal component analysis.

Methodology

We intend to answer this inquiry using a mixed method approach employing the statistical regressions methods with principal component analysis of the performances in every Olympic marathon and historical research into marathon races, environmental characteristics, organizational aspects, runners' profiles, training methods, and the context of each edition in terms of the Olympic Movement.

Data relating to the men's marathon performances were collected from the International Olympic Committee (IOC, 2017) databases. We only considered data for male events, since there have only been a few Olympic women's marathons run to date. Information regarding race structure and race days were considered as this data was reported by Marthin & Gynn (2000) and by the International Association of Athletics Federation. Other secondary sources (such as journals and books) were used to get a detailed description of the historical context. Extensive data was collected, the information was categorized into themes (athlete data, environmental data, context) and then analyzed to verify which components may have affected race performance.

Regarding athlete data, the variables obtained were: number of starters; number of finishers; geopolitical entities (GPE); athletes' age, results; coefficient of variation. Since the distance run changed over time¹, performance data had to be normalized. Thus, given time and distance values, the mean velocity was calculated using the PACE in minutes per kilometre to compare races. With the pace calculated for the first, second and third places, it was possible to calculate the coefficient of variation (mean/standard deviation).

The environmental data was composed of these variables: time of day; temperature; mean altitude; range of altitude; mean elevation; and vertical work. The last four variables were obtained using the altimetry report for each race. The range of altitude was the difference between the highest and the lowest level over the race. Elevation was calculated kilometre by kilometre, and the range of elevation was the difference between the highest and the lowest value over the race. Since the objective is to compare different races, the vertical work was calculated as the work needed to carry a standardized body mass of 60 kg per kilometre (force x elevation).

To describe the evolution of PACE, the regression line between performance and year was analyzed to identify, through piecewise regression, whether there were points of inflection on the curve. After that, the linearity of the curve was tested using Cusum's test. Where necessary, a polynomial approach was used to identify the best curve fit. The criteria for best fit were the coefficient of determi-

1. The distance of marathon was not initially standardized, varying between 40 and 42.75 km over the first five Olympic Games. It was at the International Amateur Athletic Federation Congress in Geneva in 1921 (Martin & Gynn, 2000) that the length of the marathon was standardized to 42.195 km (26 miles, 385 yards) the same distance used at the 1908 London Olympic Games.

nation (r^2), the number of residuals, mean squared differences and significance.

For the Principal Component Analysis (PCA), some steps had to be followed: firstly the normality of all variables was tested using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Secondly, the correlation between every independent variable and the pace was run to verify whether the variables would meet the criteria (significant correlation higher than 0.3). Then both the KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Barlett's test of sphericity were performed to test the applicability of PCA to the collected database. Lastly, PCA was used to remove the multicollinearity problem and to reduce the number of predictor variables.

All statistical treatment was completed using SPSS 17.0 (SPSS for Windows, IBM SPSS, IL, USA), SigmaPlot (Systat Software Inc., San Jose, USA) and MedCalc (MedCalc®, Belgium) and alpha equal 0.05 was set as the significance level.

Results and discussion

Performance times in the Olympic marathon are presented in Figure 1 and reveal that the pace has quickened over the 28 Olympic marathons (29 including the 1906 Intercalated Games). The tests for the best fit of the time series pace were performed together as one (for First, Second and Third place) and as a series for First place only. When everything was analyzed together, the association worsened. Consequently, only the First-place series was considered in this paper (the solid and dashed line in Figure 1). According to the piecewise regression, there were no points of inflection, meaning that the line was best described by a single regression line. This was confirmed by Cusum's test for linearity and a high coefficient of determination ($R^2 = 0.75$), which means that the time (years) explain 75% of the pace evolution ($p < 0.001$). However, with the third order polynomial model, it was possible to depict that performance improvements tend to decline and may even cease to exist ($R^2 = 0.86$ and $p < 0.001$).

The polynomial model indicates that there were no unique change points, but periods with different trends. The first eight Olympiads witnessed major changes in the race pace (with a 19% improvement). This was followed by periods of less change (7%), and in the later games after 1968, it is possible to observe a stabilization (only 3%). This behaviour accords with the theory of experience curve patterns, where it could be understood as the outcome of the experience accumulated by athletes, coaches and others involved in sports performance (Weiss et al.,

2015). According to this theory, many factors can explain the evolution of the race. This study will only present factors we were able to find.

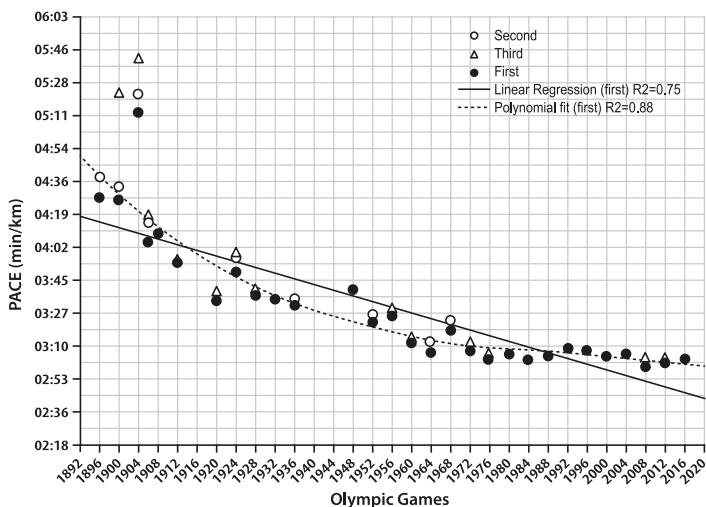


Figure 1 – Evolution of the Olympic Marathon results.
Time series analyses for the mean pace.

Improvements in the Olympic marathon's pace was accompanied by an increase in the number of participants from 17 to 154 in the last edition, and an increase in the percentage of finishers from 59% in the early games to 91% in the latest one, as well as an improvement in the number of GPE from 5 to 79. Furthermore, although at the start of the modern Olympic Games, the coefficient of variation among the First, Second and Third places was high (2.35% for 1896, 10.56% for 1900, 4.39% in 1904), after 1908 it drastically reduced through to recent games, as shown in Fig. 2 with the inflexion point identified by piecewise regression. These outcomes elucidate the significant improvement in the level of competitiveness, with it becoming harder to achieve victory in each successive Olympic Games. This meant that athletes needed to be better prepared in terms of their training, rest and nutrition.

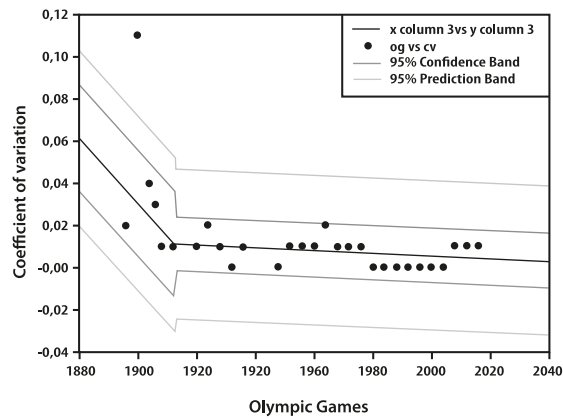


Figure 2 – Time series analyses for the coefficient of variation for first, second and third places in the Olympic marathon.

Spearman’s coefficient of correlation between all the independent variables and the pace are presented in Table 1. Of the 11 variables assessed, only vertical work, mean altitude, number of starts, percentage of finishers, geopolitical entities and pace coefficient of variation met the criteria for PCA. These results indicate that there is a weak association between vertical work and mean altitude and pace. On the other hand, there is a strong association between pace, finishers’ percentage and the coefficient of variation, and another strong association between the number of starters and the GPE.

Variable	Correlation Coefficient
Age	-0.09
Start time	-0.21
Temperature	0.16
Vertical Work	0.38*
Mean of Altitude	0.34*
Range of Altitude	-0.08
Range of Elevation	0.10
Starters	-0.84*
Finishers percentage	-0.63*
GPE	-0.91*
CV.pace	0.51*

Table 1 – Correlation of all the independent variables and the pace
(*statistically significant $p < 0.01$).

According to the PCA, the variables affect the pace as two different components. In Table 2, it is possible to see the weight of these components: Component 1 is responsible for 40% of the improvements in the Olympic marathon times, and this component is based on the athlete data. Component 2 explains more than 27% of the change and is based on altitude and the vertical work. This means that the GPE, CV and finishers percentage are the most important variables.

Variable	Principal component 1	Principal component 2
GPE	0.896	-0.223
CV.Pace	-0.819	0.134
Finisher percentage	0.727	0.282
Mean of Altitude	-0.009	0.846
Vertical Work	0.060	-0.730
Absolute weight	40.87%	27.14%
Cummulative weight	40.87%	68.7%

Table 2. Results of the Principal Component Analysis, the weight for each component and the load variables for selected components.

Regarding the race structure, the relevant points are terrain, weather and time. About terrain, there was great heterogeneity: all courses had uphill and downhill parts, some made a tour of the city, others passed through rural area or forests. Because of this variety, there was no systematic relationship between terrain and performance. Generally speaking, the races were run on warm humid days which made the race even more of a challenge. Indeed, two noticeable points at which performance deteriorated were in 1904 in St Louis on a very hot day with dust and irregular roads, and in 1968 in Mexico City with the challenge posed by the altitude. The time of the races was statistically tested and shown not to have impacted on performance.

The number of geopolitical entities (GPE) represented in each event is also an interesting issue in the history of the Olympic marathon, which has been directly influenced by the political context. After the two world wars, there were fewer GPE participating, and during the Cold War the number of GPEs varied, possibly due to the boycotts.

Unfortunately, there were some information that would be relevant but which we could not assess. One limitation of this study was the use of results from only

the Olympic marathon; including data from other international marathons would have improved the precision of the statistical analysis. On the other hand, the main purpose here was to investigate the context in terms of the Olympic Movement, and so restricting the data to the Olympics was appropriate. Moreover, it would have been interesting to interview athletes and coaches to obtain information about the training strategies used by the champions. Economic information about the investment of each nation for the marathon team would also have helped us understand its impact on performance in the Olympic Games.

Final considerations

The variables age, number of starters, time of day, temperature, mean elevation, and range of altitude did not correlate with performance in the male Olympic Marathon. Vertical work and mean altitude are important variables. Nevertheless, the number of finishers, GPE and the coefficient of variation comprise strong components with a major impact on performance. The level of competitiveness, expressed by the coefficient of variation, is a very important variable in active excellence, and internationalization (GPE) is a key element in improving the level of competitiveness.

Analyzing the scenario for each Olympic marathon race brought to light information relating to factors possibly associated with performance. Furthermore, the evolution in marathon performance was the result of the combination of previously mentioned aspects in its occasional context. Further studies relating to financial support, non-Olympic marathons and female results are suggested. Moreover, principal component analysis has shown itself to be an important tool which can help us understand which factors affect which modalities.

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THE INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC COMMITTEE MEDIA POLICY AND MANAGEMENT OF INFORMATION IN SELECTED OLYMPIC GAMES

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Summary

The purpose of this paper is to present the media and communication strategy of the International Olympic Committee pertaining to the Olympic Games in the modern era. In particular, the research looks at how the media and communication, which has increasingly influenced the Games over the years, has evolved over the past two decades as they keep up to speed with the latest developments in technology in order to disseminate correct information efficiently.

The method employed in this study is the review of literature, more specifically academic research articles, official final reports from the organizers, media articles and opinions pieces about the Olympic Games in Barcelona, Beijing, London and Rio de Janeiro.

In this context, the focus of the paper includes looking at the policies, protocols and procedures put in place by the International Olympic Committee and the host cities to govern and guide media and communication strategies in order to avoid unintended outcomes.

Without the media capturing the highlights and reporting on the various areas of sport at the Olympics, there would not have been such a pronounced increase in popularity witnessed in recent years, nor the incredible interest which the world public brings to the Games today. This connection between the Olympics and the media has advantages as well as posing challenges; this will be an

additional contribution of this paper, especially in light of the latest developments in the form of the launch of the Olympic Channel in tandem with the closing ceremony of the last edition of the Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro.

The findings of the paper suggests that the Olympic Movement and the host cities have done an adequate job in taking advantage of the benefits presented by the media for advancing their goals. This was evident in the early days, when the IOC decided to award media rights to the highest bidder in order to control communications while maximizing the financial benefits that come with the Olympic Games.

The development of policies and guidelines for both media organizations and participating athletes has proven effective in preventing the release of information about the Games that is inaccurate or not validated.

Also, there is evidence that more and more people around the globe are accessing the Olympic Games through varied media channels, which include print, television, online and –more recently– through social media as well as the recently launched Olympic Channel.

However, there is a clear disparity between the world’s “poor and rich” countries in how they access information on the Games. Prosperous regions such as North America, Europe and East Asia have better access compared to disadvantaged regions like Africa, the Middle East and certain countries in South America.

Literature review

The ability to communicate is an underlying skill that is essential in all walks of life, but often taken for granted (Seahawks and Mueller). In the sports industry, there is a constant exchange of information between teams and the media, brands and their consumers, scouts and their bosses, agents and their clients. The stream never ends.

We all have an audience, meaning someone we are trying to reach through our words or actions, but how effective are we at reaching them? To thrive in the multi-billion dollar sports industry, one must harness the skill of effective communication.

A lot of literature exists on how the International Olympic Committee (IOC) has thrived due to its effective communication and addressing various issues relating to their communication strategy and media policies. For instance, way

back in 1960, the IOC decided to give companies an opportunity to advertise as well as awarding exclusive TV rights to broadcast the Games to the television company that made the highest bid. The rights were awarded along with strict guidelines for the bidder which were designed to help the IOC and the Olympic Movement to communicate their message effectively to the world.

Hutchins and Mikosza (2010) found that the Beijing Olympiad represented the most successful assertion of market-based media logic over social production and exchange within digital, networked communications environments, offering more sanctioned online Olympic content to international audiences than any previous Games. Despite their potential to disrupt the Olympic Movement's command over the control and flow of media information, the 2008 Games experienced only limited problems relating to ambush marketing, broadcast media rights infringements, and unauthorized online communication by athletes or third parties.

Hosting a major event requires significant co-ordination between stakeholders as well as the skillful management of resources; when this is absent, a crisis may arise. The resulting negative media coverage needs to be correctly managed by organizers in order to mitigate any lasting damage to the reputation of the region and the event (Meaghan and Daniels, 2016).

Aiming at retaining customers by establishing, maintaining and enhancing relationships, sport organizations need to communicate and engage in dialogue with their customers. To achieve this on a continuous basis, sport organizations need to employ effective communication platforms and strategies. In this regard, social media (SM) is becoming an ideal tool for an ongoing two-way dialogue (Abeza, O'Reilly and Reid, 2013).

Theoretical framework

For the purpose of this work, the researcher employed the theory of media synchronicity as outlined in Dennis, Fuller and Valacich (2008). Media synchronicity theory (MST) focuses on media's ability to support synchronicity, a shared pattern of coordinated behaviour among individuals as they work together. It argues that communication is composed of two primary processes: conveyance and convergence. The familiarity of individuals with the tasks they are performing and with their co-workers will affect both processes. Media synchronicity theory proposes that in the case of conveyance processes, the use of media sup-

porting lower synchronicity should result in better communication performance. For convergence processes, the use of media supporting higher synchronicity should result in better communication performance.

The successful completion of most tasks involving more than one individual requires both conveyance and convergence processes, so communication performance will be improved when individuals use a variety of media to perform a task, rather than just one medium.

Main body

The planning and implementation of a sporting event can be a complex process due to the numerous stakeholders involved (Greenwell, Danzey-Bussell, Shonk, 2014). Media and communication management is an important aspect of the management of any event, especially mega sporting events such as the Olympic Games, the FIFA World Cup and the Commonwealth Games, as they have multiple stakeholders such as sponsors, organizers, participants and the public at large, each of whom is expected – and has a responsibility – to protect and enhance their images by disseminating and using accurate information prior, during and after events.

The International Olympic Committee (IOC) has a long-term vested interest in the positive communication of several factors when hosting Olympic Games. These include the IOC's collective organizational image and the image of key individual representatives as well as the communication of Olympic values and the protection of Olympic symbols.

The host cities, on the other hand, through their local Games Organizing Committees, have an interest in successfully communicating the desired constructed image of the Games, which involves balancing the interests of local, regional and national governments, interest groups and community groups. The management of this process is aimed at generating local public support, which is crucial for the successful organization of the Games.

For instance, even before the 2016 Rio Olympics began, the Games had already been playing out in the news for some time, mostly for the wrong reasons. Brazil was under intensive scrutiny for political instability, doping scandals, and environmental and safety concerns including the Zika virus. In their strategic communications plan, Rio's Olympic organizers relinquished a surprising

amount of storytelling power not only to journalists, but also to the general public on social media.

The aim of this paper, therefore, is to gauge the extent to which the media management and policy of the organizers (IOC and host cities) was successful in providing information about the Olympic Games that was both far-reaching and appealing as well as interpreted and understood in the same manner by people all over the world. This is important, because the Olympic Charter states that “any form of discrimination with regard to a country or a person on the grounds of race, religion, politics, and gender or otherwise is incompatible with belonging to the Olympic Movement”.

The last three Games – Rio 2016, London 2012 and Beijing 2008 – were selected along with Barcelona 1992. The purpose was to compare media management and policy over a period of 25 years up to the present in order to ascertain if there has been any change in terms of the reach, appeal and relevance of the information to the citizens of the world.

Methodology

In an effort to elicit the most accurate findings and achieve the research goals mentioned above, a variety of methods were planned, including an analysis of online media and IOC reports as well as the review of the academic literature.

The research took place over a period of three months, eight months after the completion of the Rio Olympics. This constituted an attempt to get the most recent information pertaining to the Games.

The focus was on the policies and procedures put in place by the International Olympic Committee and the host cities to govern and guide media and communication in order to avoid unintended outcomes. In an attempt to do this, the IOC reports on the four targeted Games were reviewed as the study’s main source of information. However, to get a balanced perspective, this was complemented by recourse to at least three scholarly research publications on each Games, as well as three news reports or analyses.

Which regions enjoy better access to information on the Games was also assessed, along with the factors contributing to this.

Attention was paid to policies and procedures put in place to guide and govern media management and information dissemination in relation to the

Games. To do this, tools used by the IOC and host cities to communicate and make the information easily available were examined, along with the size of the audience they reached.

Main Findings/Discussion

The results of this study show that, without doubt, the media has played a critical role in the growth of the Olympic Games. From the revival of the Modern Olympics Games in 1896, when Pierre de Coubertin had to beg for media coverage (Slater), the media has been credited for their significant contribution to the growth of the Games in terms of participants, spectators, revenue and media audiences.

After starting with only print (newspapers and magazines), the media has taken its coverage of the Olympic Games to the world with the latest platforms, with television used for the first time in Berlin 1936, before online premiered in Barcelona in 1992. Social media joined the fray at the Beijing Games 16 years later, and has since taken the world by storm with massive increases in social media usage seen in London and Rio.

The turning point for the total control of media by the IOC took shape in 1948, when the BBC paid IOC \$4,000 for exclusive rights to televise the Olympic Games in Great Britain. Slater indicates that the IOC, impoverished at the time, tried to sell the broadcasting rights for the 1956 Games in Melbourne for \$500,000, but the media refused, arguing that the Games were news and not entertainment and should be free.

The impasse led to a media blackout on the Games in Australia, with everyone (the IOC, the media and Australia) suffering as a consequence. Subsequently, the next Games in Rome saw CBS pay \$394,000 for the exclusive television rights, and the rest is history. The holders of the current exclusive rights to the Olympic Games paid some \$4.8 billion for the privilege, and the media has helped to grow the Games in terms of participants, spectators, revenue and media audiences.

However, there is evidence to suggest that Europe, North America and East Asia have been offered well-researched, highly produced and customized versions of the Games, while Africa, the Middle East and some South American countries have not.

During the Barcelona 92 Games, when 45% of the global population was estimated to have watched the Games (Langer, Kosaka et al, 1992), in Africa the

Olympic Games were found to have been mainly of interest to the literate sector of the population, who enjoyed better access to television and spoke the primary languages (English and French) used in broadcasts (Broadcasting the Olympics 92/99). The vision of the Olympic Games in professional and academic circles has been found to have emerged largely from western, developed countries.

For instance, in Cameroon, about 46% of the population was literate and the country's radio and TV used Canal France International as an immediate broadcaster. As a consequence, viewers in Cameroon saw the Games narrated by French commentators for French viewers. The presence of Cameroonian commentators was limited. In South African, which had a literacy rate of just 24%, the Barcelona Olympics were seen as being for the "westernized" population only. This was compounded by the fact that only 36% of the population used one of the three languages used for the Olympic broadcasts (English, Afrikaans and IsiXhosa) as a primary language, and that only 25% of the population owned or had access to a television.

According to the IOC report on Barcelona 1992:

For many cultures around the world, the Olympics creates more a sense of participating of 'others' than of participating in a universal event. [...] These disparities influence the presentation and interpretation of the Olympic Games and its actors by broadcasters around the world.

In Beijing 16 years later, the Olympic Games were delivered to the world via television, the internet and mobile phones, and an increased television audience of 64% of the global population watched the Games. However, of the 122 total television territories, only 78 were in Africa and Asia, meaning they covered only 35% of the world's territories and 70% of the global population (Mikosza and Hutchins, 2010).

In addition to print, broadcast and online, the Games in China saw the evolution of social media. The 2008 Beijing Olympiad represented the most successful assertion of market-based media logic over social production and exchange within digital networked communications environments, offering more sanctioned online Olympic content to international audiences than any previous Games (Mikosza and Hutchins, 2010). Despite social media's potential to disrupt the Olympic Movement's control over media information and its flow, the 2008 Games experienced limited problems related to ambush marketing,

broadcast media rights infringements, or unauthorized online communication by athletes or third parties.

This result suggests that complementary strategic practices and policies at the level of international and national sporting bodies (the IOC and the National Olympic Committees) and media management techniques at the level of teams and individual athletes can combat the radical mediatization of Olympic sport. These mechanisms circumscribed media communication in and around the Olympics, limiting the impact of networked digital communications to an evolutionary, rather than a revolutionary, effect. Mikosza attributes this to the policy planning, prescriptions, and athlete training designed and implemented by the IOC and the national teams, which proved effective in limiting what athletes were able to say as well as enabling them to self-regulate their online activities in order to avoid unintended outcomes (Hutchins & Mikosza, 2010).

While the television audience dropped to 53% in London in 2012 and to 47% in Rio in 2016, social media usage jumped in both Games. with the IOC and LOCOG's Facebook pages in London receiving over 1.2 billion likes, with this number increasing by 198% in Rio four years later.

Niko Rukavina of Overtime Sport Marketing commented that the biggest innovation when it comes to digital is that Rio 2016 was the first Olympics which could be watched in "virtual reality" (VR). People with compatible Samsung Galaxy smartphones and a suitable application could watch the Opening and Closing Ceremonies, the men's basketball, gymnastics, track and field, volleyball, diving, boxing and fencing as well as highlight packages in VR.

Dr Thomas Bach, the IOC President, concluded that:

With more than half of the world population watching, the Olympic Games in Rio 2016 were the most consumed Games ever. These figures show the great appeal and the relevance of the Olympic Games.

His conclusion indicates that, although a lot has been done to make the Games accessible to everyone around the globe, there is still a large percentage of the global population who are not watching the Games.

Rivenburgh (2010) attributes these challenges to the different financial commitments, staff sizes and commercial imperatives in different regions in the world. These, in turn, affect topic discussed, the balance of attention paid to Olympic rites, cultural performance, descriptions of other nations, and broad-

cast commentator styles: "Thus, not only do media constructions of the Olympic host vary from country to country, they can vary significantly from the image the Olympic host organizing committee wishes to project (IOC).

Seemingly, the IOC has responded to the problem by launching the Olympic Channel with the closing ceremony of the Rio Games in August last year. The Channel is working to build and strengthen collaborations with key stakeholders around the world, including athletes, international federations and national Olympic committees, Rights Holding Broadcasters, organizing committees, and recognized sport organizations. Seeking to disseminate the Olympic Movement throughout the year, the collaborations are aimed at sharing content relevant to stakeholders so as to reach as many people as possible in a manner that is appealing and understandable to them.

Conclusion

The media have played, and continue to play, a key role in the growth of the Olympic Games throughout the world. The IOC has not only put in place policies and procedures that govern the dissemination of information, but has also kept up with the rapid evolution of the communications world in terms of technology. The IOC Committee has its own official accounts for all communication channels, from television and printed media to online and social media. These resources have made it easy for the world to consume the Games when, where and how different audiences prefer to.

However, developing countries, particular those in Africa, South America and the Middle East, continue to lag behind in terms of accessing the Games in the same way as developed countries. By and large, this is due to financial resources. The launch of the Olympic Channel may be a step in the right direction.

Limitations of the study

Although this paper may indicate the media management and policy of the Olympic Games, the researcher struggled to find data relating to the global South when compared to the global North. A more in-depth and comprehensive study may be necessary to gather relevant information from Africa, the Middle East and South America.

Also, a more direct approach may be needed to collect higher quality information on the number of people who accessed the Games in different periods and different countries.

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POSITIVE ASPECTS OF THE YOUTH OLYMPIC GAMES: THE IMPROVEMENTS AT THE NANJING 2014 AND LILLEHAMMER 2016 YOG REFLECTED AS CRITICISMS AND RECOMMENDATIONS IN THE LITERATURE

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Abstract

This paper focuses on providing a balanced view of the Youth Olympic Games (YOG) by demonstrating how the criticisms and recommendations in the literature are reflected in the recent Summer YOG in Nanjing 2014 and Winter YOG in Lillehammer 2016. An extensive desk-based research method was implemented to identify the criticisms and recommendations on the YOG in the literature, and documentary analysis of the official reports published by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) was employed to demonstrate the positive aspects and improvements in the recent YOG. This paper utilizes sport career transition models as a theoretical framework in order to contribute to the YOG literature on career transitions in sport and to strengthen the Culture and Education Programme (CEP) that is crucial to the YOG vision.

Key words: Youth Olympic Games, Culture and Education Programme, Sport Career Transition, Sport Career Transition Organizational Intervention Programme, Youth Sport

Introduction

The Youth Olympic Games (YOG) has been the subject of many criticisms and recommendations over the last decade from scholars active in the area of Olympic Studies (Brennan, 2007; Digel, 2008; Hanstad, Parent, & Kristiansen, 2013;

Ivan, 2014; Judge, Kantzidou, Bellar, Peterson, Gilreath, & Surber, 2011; Judge, Petersen, & Lydum, 2009; Judge, Petersen, Bellar, Gilreath, Wanless, Surber, & Simon, 2012; Krieger, 2013; Kristiansen, 2015; Parry, 2012; Wong, 2011). The YOG's innovative "Culture and Education Programme (CEP)" initiative, which reflects the five themes of Olympism – Social Responsibility, Skills Development, Expression, Well-Being and a Healthy Lifestyle – has been the focus of many of the criticisms and recommendations (IOC, 2011). On the other hand, some studies have demonstrated positive aspects of the YOG as a positive Games experiences (Parent, Kristiansen, & MacIntosh, 2014); a vehicle for promoting Olympism and improve adolescents' health (Judge et al., 2011); an event closer to the Olympic ideals than the Olympic Games thanks to the CEP (Hanstad, et al., 2013); and an event promoting "wider participation within excellence" and the Olympic value of universality (Parry, 2012). In addition, other research has provided young Olympians' perspectives on the YOG (Parent, Kristiansen, & MacIntosh, 2014; Krieger, 2013), and demonstrated that there is evident room for improvement reflected in the young athletes' experiences (Krieger, 2013), despite their overall satisfaction with the YOG (Parent, et al., 2014).

There have been studies on the YOG since the IOC launched the event in 2007, and in particular when the Singapore 2010 and Innsbruck 2012 YOG were staged. However, little research has been carried out into how the second Summer and Winter YOG have improved in line with the criticisms and comments. In line with Pierre de Coubertin, who said "the best way of paying tribute to an illustrious past is obviously to learn from its teachings in order to prepare for the future" (Ivan, 2014), this paper will aim to provide an overview of the improvements in the Nanjing 2014 Summer YOG and Lillehammer 2016 Winter YOG, and the extent to which these improvements reflect previous criticisms and references. This paper emphasizes the positive aspects of the YOG rather than criticisms, in an effort to balance the perspectives on the YOG.

Another significant focus of this paper is to apply sport career transition theories as a theoretical framework. The theoretical sport career transitions models selected in this paper contribute to a better understanding of the development process of high performance athletes and transitions in the course of their sporting careers (Wylleman & Lavalée, 2004; Taylor, Ogilvie, & Lavalée, 2005). This raises awareness of the need for career development programmes and organizational interventions to help high-performance athletes balance their sporting and non-

sporting careers (Anderson & Morris, 2000; Lavallee, 2005; North & Lavallee, 2004). Such programmes and interventions are closely linked to one of the themes of the CEP: Skills Development. Sport career transition organizational intervention programmes¹ therefore have great potential to strengthen the CEP in respect of the career transitions within sport that high-performance athletes inevitably experience (Park, Lavallee, & Tod, 2012; Taylor, et al., 2005; Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004).

Methods

The current study is desk-based research which included reviewing relevant literature on the Youth Olympic Games and Sport Career Transitions and analyzing official IOC reports on the Nanjing 2014 and Lillehammer 2016 YOG. With regard to the literature review, a snowball sampling was carried out for both topics. The author started to review the literature on 1) the YOC from the reading list recommended for students in the “PE, School Sport and Youth Culture” module at the University of Stirling, and on 2) Sport Career Transitions from the list recommended by one of the leading experts in the area of sport career transitions in the UK. In order to analyse the official reports, documentary analysis was employed to demonstrate the positive aspects and improvements in the recent YOG. During the process of evaluating the contents of the official reports, a more qualitative discourse analysis was implemented, because it allows for a reading of texts that considers their connection to the positive aspects and improvements at Nanjing 2014 and Lillehammer 2016 YOG reflected in the existing criticisms and comments on the YOG (Wong, 2012).

Theoretical background

This paper utilizes sport career transition models as a theoretical framework in order to contribute to the YOG literature on career transitions in sport and to strengthen the Culture and Education Programme (CEP) that is crucial to the YOG vision (Judge, et al., 2009; Krieger, 2013; Kristiansen, 2015; Parent, et al., 2014; Wong, 2012).

1. Sport Career Transition Organisational Intervention Programmes are defined as planned programmes offered by a sporting organization specifically designed to assist athletes in preparing for their career after sport (Lavallee, Park, & Taylor, 2014).

A Developmental Model on Transitions

Wylleman and Lavallee (2004) proposed a developmental model for the transitions encountered by athletes. They agree that transitions are developmental in nature (Alfermann, 1995; Pearson & Petitpas, 1990; Wylleman, De Knop, Ewing, & Cumming, 2000) and that predictable and developmental factors determine transitions. The developmental model has four levels: athletic, psychological, psycho-social and academic vocational (See Figure 1).

AGE	10	15	20	25	30	35
Athletic Level	Initiation	Development		Mastery		Discontinuation
Psycho-logical Level	Childhood	Adolescence		(Young) Adulthood		
Psycho-social Level	Parents Siblings Peers	Peers Coach Parents		Partner Coach		Family (Coach)
Academic Vocational Level	Primary education	Secondary education	Higher education		Vocational training Professional occupation	

Figure 1: A developmental model on transitions faced by athletes at the athletic, individual, psychosocial, and academic/vocational levels (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004)

Note. A dotted line indicates that the age at which the transition occurs is an approximation.

Wylleman and Lavallee's (2004) Developmental Model on Transitions plays an important role in understanding varied perspectives on an athlete's transition process and can form the basis for finding a way to specifically assist athletes at each phase in their transition when they face different types of transition. The developmental model on transitions has made a significant contribution to our understanding of the youth Olympians (aged 14-18) who compete at the YOG on each of these different levels: the Athletic, the Psycho-logical, the Psycho-social, and the Academic Vocational. Understanding the development process of the specific age group (ages 14-18), and thus targeting the YOG, is crucial with regard to organizing the contents of the CEP, because the programme also plays a major role in the YOG's impact on young athletes' personal devel-

opment (Schnitzer, Peters, Scheiber, & Pocecco, 2014). In addition, the YOG itself can have a positive impact on the development of young athletes, allowing them to be better prepared to compete at the international and elite level (Wong, 2011).

Conceptual Model of Adaptation to Career Transition

Taylor, Ogilvie, and Lavallee (2005) proposed a “conceptual model of adaptation to career transition” which seeks to integrate theories and empirical studies by combining the perspectives of related theories, explaining previous research findings, and taking their own work with athletes into consideration.

The theoretical model suggests five stages of adaptation to career transition in order to provide a better understanding of the conceptual model (See Figure 2). The five stages are: 1) cause of career termination, 2) factors related to adaptation to career transition, 3) available resources for adapting to career transition, 4) quality of career transition, and 5) intervention for career transition. This is considered a useful, practical framework for understanding the career transition process from various perspectives and exploring how sport psychologists and related professionals can effectively assist athletes in working through transitions.

This paper considers organizational intervention to be crucial, given that the CEP is a form of organizational intervention developed and offered by each Youth Olympic Games Organizing Committee. The vision of the YOC also demonstrates that the IOC has a “key responsibility in encouraging and offering access to sport and to competitive sport for all ages and groups” (Doll-Tepner, 2009; Krieger, 2013). Sporting organizations assuming responsibility for athletes’ careers also plays an integral role in supporting high performance athletes in their career transitions. In particular, the national governing bodies (NGBs) have a responsibility to assist athletes in their career transition processes (Fleuriel & Vincent, 2009). Anderson and Morris (2000) also insist that sporting organizations have a responsibility to help high-performance athletes balance their sporting and non-sporting careers. From the perspective of organizational interventions and career transitions in sport, it is rational to actively involve sport career transition programmes such as the Athlete Career Programme (IOC), the Athlete Career Education Programme (the Australia Institution of Sport), and Performance Lifestyle Programme (UK) in order to strengthen one of the core themes of the CEP: Skills Development.

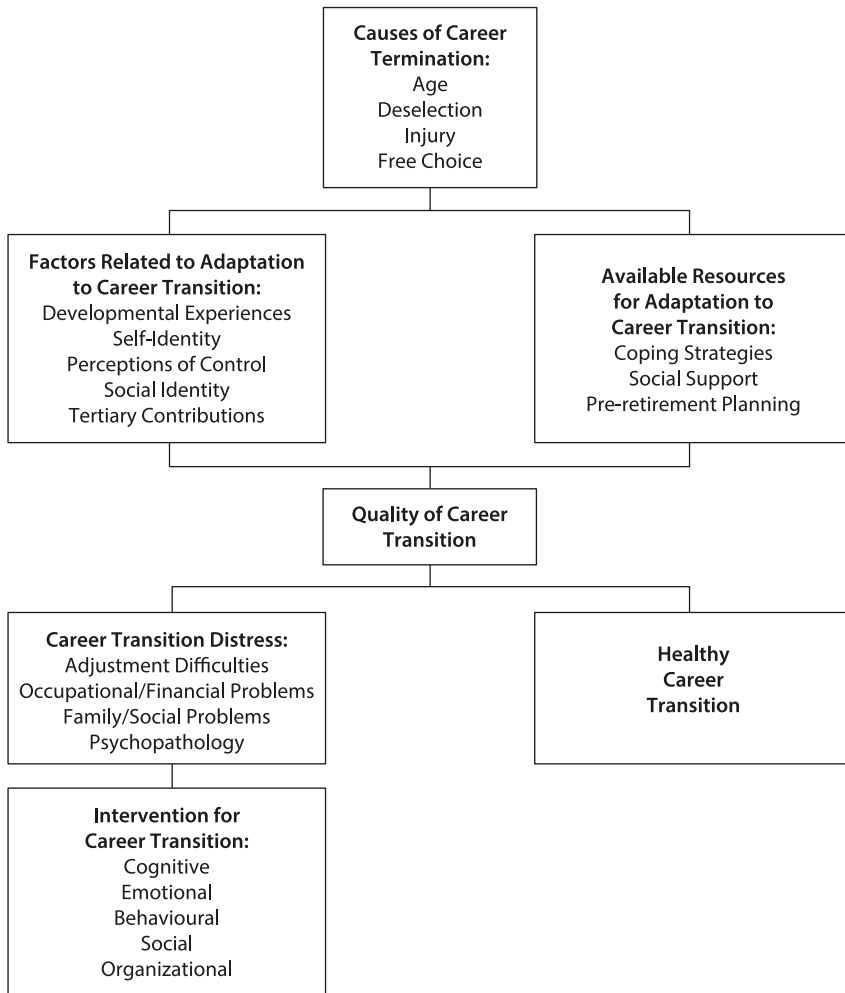


Figure 2: Conceptual model of adaptation to career transition
(Taylor, Ogilvie, & Lavalley, 2005)

The positive aspects and improvements of the YOG

There are four key themes identified with regard to positive aspects of and improvements in the recent YOG (Nanjing 2014 and Lillehammer 2016) as these reflect pre-existing criticisms: the Culture and Education Programme (CEP), the Youth Olympic Village (YOV), Legacies (Sustainability), and Media.

The Culture and Education Programme

The CEP is designed to contribute to the athletes' personal development and introduces them to the Olympic values based around the five themes of Olympism underlined in the introduction to *The Youth Olympic Games* (IOC, 2011). The CEP has attracted criticism from partners of and stakeholders in the Olympic Movement since its initiation (Judge et al, 2009; Wong, 2011; Wong, 2012): athletes' dissatisfaction with the CEP (Krieger, 2013); the tight training and competition schedule (Schnitzer, et al., 2014); the stressors of participating in the YOG (Kristiansen, 2015). While Krieger (2013) argues that the success and popularity of the CEP has to be seen from a more critical perspective, Schnitzer et al. (2014) demonstrate that young athletes participating in the CEP liked it very much and that the CEP has great potential both from an educational perspective and in terms of young athletes' personal development.

Event Schedules

Researchers reported that one of the main reasons for not attending the CEP in Innsbruck was scheduling problems (Hanstad, et al., 2013; Parent, et al., 2014). Having taken note of these studies, the YOG in Nanjing 2014 and Lillehammer 2016 made a significant effort to improve their scheduling.

In Nanjing 2014, full consideration was given to integrating the CEP and competition schedules, which enabled the NOC delegations to help and encourage their athletes to engage in CEP activities. The 1,498 CEP sessions were conducted in multiple locations around Nanjing during the Games, and were attended by a total of 1.23 million participants, who included youth athletes, team officials from 203 NOCs, non-athlete participants and local young people in Nanjing (IOC, 2015). A new concept developed by Lillehammer 2016 was Education Day, on which all competition and training ended at 2:00 pm and all athletes took part in educational activities for the rest of the day, with a number of International Federations creating and running activities especially for their athletes (IOC, 2016).

Personal Development

Schnitzer et al. (2014) demonstrate that the CEP plays a major role in supporting young athletes' personal development with regard to preparing and reflecting upon their future career paths. They identify in Parent et al (2014) the need to learn how to combine school, family life and sport – an issue raised by the

Norwegian athletes who participated in Innsbruck 2012. One of the five themes addressed by the CEP, Skills Development looks at the various elements of a professional athlete's life and helps young participants to prepare for their future sporting careers (IOC, 2011). Reflecting on the implications of these studies, it becomes clear that there is a real need for sport career transition organizational intervention programmes, and that this need is reflected in the contents of the CEP at both Nanjing 2014 and Lillehammer 2016.

The CEP in Nanjing 2014 consisted of themes such as "Athletes Role Models Lounge", "Safe Sport", "Injury Prevention", "Play Fair", "Athlete Career Programme and Inter-ACT", and "Play True Generation Outreach Programme" (IOC, 2015). Among these themes, the Athlete Career Programme (ACP)² has been developed by the IOC with a view to helping high-performance athletes to prepare for their careers after sport. At Lillehammer 2016, Olympism was the overall theme, but special focus themes included "social responsibility", "career planning", "training correctly", and "nutrition". A "Venue of Education" was created to allow youths to receive practical training within their career-choice areas as hands-on career development (IOC, 2016). Hong (2017) investigates sports career transition organizational intervention programmes in 19 countries and strongly indicates the importance of providing such programmes to high performance athletes in order to assist them in making healthy transitions in sport, which supports the ACP's vision of development³. Researchers into sport career transitions have emphasized proactive interventions (Gilmore, 2008; Wylleman, Alfermann, & Lavallee, 2004; Park, et al., 2012). Anderson and Morris (2000) argue that sporting organizations should ensure that athletes develop a well-rounded approach to life, and that athlete lifestyle programmes can allow sporting organizations to establish the best environment for athletes. In Hong's (2017) international study, most programmes focus on helping athletes balance their sporting career with other areas in their lives by offering educational, vocational, personal development, career development and life skills support services. With regard to this, sport career transition organizational intervention programmes have great potential to strengthen the CEP in respect of sport career transitions, and to raise young athletes' awareness of the importance of preparing for transitions during

2. <https://www.olympic.org/athlete-career-programme>

3. IOC President Thomas Bach unexpectedly took out his mobile phone during his address and invited athlete representatives from the five continents to take selfies (IOC, 2015).

their sporting careers in order to balance their athletic and non-athletic careers.

Youth Olympic Village

The Youth Olympic Village (YOV) aims to be the heart of the Games, housing all the athletes, coaches and other delegates from the participating National Olympic Committees. It also aims to be a key component of the YOG experience for young athletes and to be the main location for the CEP activities (IOC, 2011). The young athletes have an opportunity to interact with other athletes and learn more about the other cultures, since they stay within the YOY for the whole two weeks of the competition (Krieger, 2013).

Some of the issues Schnitzer et al. (2014) raised in their study were conflicts with the sports competition schedule and the distance between venues, which also impacted negatively on participation in the CEP. At Nanjing, the entrance to the Residential Zone was only a five-minute walk from the athletes' Dining Hall and an eight-minute walk from the Transport Mall. A wide variety of CEP activities were arranged within walking distance (IOC, 2015). The shuttle bus system was also mentioned as a stressor which would require improvement (Parent et al., 2014). The 23-year-old member of staff responsible for bus transportation at Lillehammer 2016 arranged thousands of bus trips. As a result of the hard work of the staff and the support of the organizing committee, the buses ran like a Swiss clock throughout the entire ten days, and the transport head reported that his work was much appreciated by the people who stayed in the Athletes Village (IOC, 2016).

Parent et al (2014) point out that food quality and availability/variety seemed to concern the athletes. In the YOY in Nanjing, 599 kinds of food for the athletes were prepared including Asian-style, European-style, Mediterranean-style and Chinese-style food, as well as cold dishes and fruits (IOC, 2015).

Legacy (Sustainability)

Since "trickle down benefits from the Olympics are not automatic" (Hindson, Gidlow, & Peebles, 1994), the importance of ensuring the sustainability of any positive impacts of the YOG has been emphasized (Wong, 2012).

Nanjing 2014 employed a new sustainable mode of Games organization that could be used by future YOG organizers. As a culture and educational

legacy, the CEP was carried out throughout the Games, allowing the 3,759 young athletes to accumulate competition experience, to respect their opponents, share experience and make friends during the competitions. The Nanjing Olympic Museum is intended to promote the Olympic spirit and values to the whole of society, transferring the knowledge of the Olympic Games and Youth Olympic Games to more people, spreading the Olympic spirit, and passing on the Olympic culture (IOC, 2015). In the case of Lillehammer 2016, the legacy was created through five different promises: a lasting legacy in terms of infrastructure and equipment⁴, changing the lives of the participants, contributing to a ten-year plan for developing Norwegian sport, renewed regional expertise and enthusiasm, and contributing to the creation of a Legacy Centre.

Media

Researchers criticized the lack of media coverage as a challenge for the YOG to tackle (Digel, 2008; Hanstad, et al., 2013; Wong, 2011). In Lillehammer 2016, the national broadcaster NRK secured the rights to the Games with live TV and radio broadcasts beginning with the Opening Ceremony broadcast directly on NRK3, with an edited version on NRK1. NRK mp3, the broadcaster's youth channel, established their own studio in Lillehammer to follow the pulse of the Games. National broadcaster NRK was pleased when 370,000 viewers tuning into the new event, 70% of all TV viewers. All told, over three million viewers enjoyed Lillehammer 2016 (IOC, 2016).

Hanstad, et al. (2013) demonstrated that alternative forms of media were used to foster interactions – exciting Facebook pages, for instance, or YOGGERS, USB sticks which allowed athletes to exchange contact information and increase the number of 'friends' they had in their Facebook-like profile. Taking advantage of the rise of social media, youthful smiles and jovial invitation, "Bach's selfie" was broadcast quickly by world live television and online media and "Bach-style" selfies swept the globe and quickly made the YOG known to the youth of the world. In addition, the Nanjing 2014 Virtual Torch Relay was designed and conducted according to the likes and habits of young people. This

4. For instance, the Youth Olympic Village lives on as 360 brand new student apartments in Lillehammer (IOC, 2016).

innovative Torch Relay model completely broke down geographical barriers and allowed young people throughout the world to follow the Nanjing Games Mascot NANJINGLELE along the virtual route of the YOG Torch Relay (IOC, 2015).

Limitations and Implications for future research

This paper aims to provide a balanced view of the YOG by demonstrating how the criticisms and recommendations from the literature were reflected in the Nanjing 2014 and Lillehammer 2016 YOG. This paper also contributes to the YOG literature dealing with the aspect of career transitions in sport by exploring the great potential which sport career theories and sport career transition organizational intervention programmes have with regard to strengthening the CEP.

The extensive desk-based research, which included reviewing the literature and analyzing the official reports, was well-suited to achieving the goal of this paper. Since this paper looks into the improvements in the recent YOG based solely on the official reports published by the IOC, the perspective is limited and possibly one-sided. Future research may therefore need to investigate and explore the perspectives of others with more critical approaches—NOCs, athletes, coaches, parents, for example – in order to provide a balanced view of the YOG.

As this paper demonstrates, the criticisms and recommendations from the literature have contributed greatly to positive aspects of and improvements in the recent YOG. Because of limits on time and space, this paper cannot include other positive aspects of Nanjing 2014 and Lillehammer 2016, such as inspiring volunteer work, various entertaining festivals, and environmentally-friendly policies and operations. In this respect, it would be worth investigating the different positive aspects and improvements in both YOG in future research, in order to gain more insights into the YOG and to provide constructive criticism and recommendations for future YOG.

Acknowledgements:

I gratefully acknowledge Team GB and the University of Stirling for their support in allowing me to attend the 24th International Seminar. I am deeply grateful to Professor David Lavallee for his support and supervision of my doctoral research. I wish to thank Professor Leigh Robinson for giving me a wonderful

opportunity to further my academic career in Olympic Studies and Sport Management. Lastly, I am very grateful to Dr Nicolas Scelles for his kind support and advice in relation to this paper.

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THE CONNECTION BETWEEN THE YOUTH OLYMPIC GAMES AND YOUTH SPORT DEVELOPMENT IN TAIWAN

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Introduction

The Youth Olympic Games (YOG) is currently one of the biggest changes promoted by the IOC in the sphere of youth sport development (Naul & Holze, 2011). The former International Olympic Committee (IOC) president Jacques Rogge actively proposed the Youth Olympic Games (YOG) during his presidency. The YOG not only gathers youth athletes from all over the world to compete together, but also offer the young athletes personal and educational development. At the same time, the YOG also enhances awareness of youth sport development in many countries and sporting organizations both international and national (International Olympic Committee, 2015).

The Olympic Agenda 2020, which has been advocated by the current IOC president, Thomas Bach, and which received the support of other IOC members at the 127th IOC session in Monaco, also focuses on youth participation as one of its three main aspects of reformation, the others being strengthening support to athletes, spreading Olympic values-based education, engaging with communities, and reviewing the YOGs' positioning (International Olympic Committee, 2016a). So why have recent IOC policies actively promoted the development of youth sport? It is a fact that peoples' lifestyles have changed over time. Contemporary social phenomena have also impacted directly on youth sport development across the world. For example, young people have been spending extensive amounts of time on online games and social media, and shifts in their daily activities is considered one of the main reasons for the fall in active sport

participation among young people (Lhéraud, Meurgey, & Bouchet, 2011). Furthermore, young people's willingness to participate in sports would influence the system for selecting and training potential youth athletes around the world. If the number of sports participation among young people falls, it would lead to countries suffering a shrinking of their talent pool and a decline in performance in the development of elite sport. From the IOC's perspective, the development of elite sport would influence performances at the Summer and Winter Olympic Games every four years, and thus impact on media rights and the Top Sponsorship of the IOC, which are its main sources of revenue.

Youth sport development in Taiwan is affected by the same social phenomenon facing the IOC. The Taiwanese government has acknowledged the problems of youth sport development, and is actively finding measures to tackle the situation. Its efforts have included sending young athletes and young participants to the YOG since the event was inaugurated in 2010 (Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee, 2010). Therefore, the aim of this paper is to explore the connection between the Youth Olympic Games and the Taiwanese government's efforts to reverse the decline in youth sports development.

The YOG rationale

According to the Olympic Charter, the purpose of the Olympic Games is to integrate sport, culture and education. The goal of the Olympic Movement is to create a peaceful and better world by educating young people through sport practised in accordance with Olympism and its values (International Olympic Committee, 2016b). However, the development of the Olympic Games is now becoming increasingly commercial and competitive, which shifts the purpose of the modern Olympic Games far from its original goals. The IOC, as the supreme authority of sport's governing body, takes the lead in promoting the Olympic values through its stakeholders: the International Federations, National Olympic Committees, Olympic Games Organizing Committees, and all the individuals who believe in the Olympic Movement. The former IOC Honorary Member of the Commission for Culture and Olympic Education, Zhenliang He, said that young people are the future of the Olympic Movement, and the IOC should therefore provide them with the opportunity to learn about the Olympic values (International Olympic Committee, 2008). Hence, the YOG is regarded as an

IOC initiative to regain the Olympic spirit and values (Loland, 2014). For the IOC, the YOG also have the potential to provide smaller or less wealthy countries with the opportunity to host them and win medals, and the YOG can also provide opportunities to reuse facilities. The IOC also realized the need for a youth multi-sport event (Houlihan, Hanstad, & Parent, 2014).

The scope of learning at the YOG

The YOG vision is to inspire young people worldwide to participate in sport and to adopt and live by the Olympic values of excellence, friendship and respect. The mission of the YOG is to engage, educate and influence these young athletes and other young participants, inspiring them to play an active role in their own communities. In order to improve the experience of all the young athletes and other young participants, the IOC has created new forms of competition and developed a series of Learn and Share Activities.¹ In addition, the Young Ambassadors, Athlete Role Models, Young Reporters and YOG Ambassadors all have roles to play in the Learn and Share Activities (International Olympic Committee, 2016c).

New forms of competition

One of the biggest distinction between the YOG and the Olympic Games is that the YOG allows International Federations scope to introduce new disciplines and events that catch the attention of young people, while encouraging new sports to be introduced at the YOG (Lucidarme & Parry, 2011). The introduction of, for example, 3-on-3 basketball, first moonlit dive, gymnastics, first horse draw, pistol shooting, coupled with mixed gender and nationality teams, has allowed the IOC to attract more young people and to bring them closer to the Olympic ideals (Parry, 2012).

Learn and Share Activities

The IOC claims that the YOG is different from other sports events as it is not only a sport competition, but also an educational programme which provides young

1. Known formerly as the Culture and Education Programme.

athletes and other young participants with a truly unique experience. One of Jacques Rogge's priorities is a return to the original Olympic values, and his key tool for achieving this goal were the Learn and Share Activities. The Learn and Share Activities are underpinned by five key themes: Olympism, skills development, well-being and a healthy lifestyle, social responsibility, expression (International Olympic Committee, 2017) (Table 1). Each Youth Olympic Games Organizing Committee (YOGOC) has the flexibility to design and organize the Learn and Share Activities around local elements, but the YOGOC also needs to develop the activities in close cooperation with the IOC in order to mould these five key themes into an impactful experience for young athletes and other young participants (International Olympic Committee, 2016c).

Theme	Content
Olympism	Participants have the opportunity to discover the true meaning of the Olympic spirit and to learn about the Olympic Movement in order to build a better world through sport.
Skills development	Participants have the opportunity to learn how to develop life skills (time management, networking, public speaking, budgeting, etc.) and to prepare for the transition to life after competition.
Wellbeing & a healthy lifestyle	The participants learn how to eat to maintain a healthy body and a healthy mind. Input on anti-doping and safe sport also teaches them how to protect themselves.
Social responsibility	The sessions address issues relating to awareness of global issues, environmental protection, and shows participants how to be a role model for their peers and the younger generation.
Expression	The sessions instruct participants in the right way to use social media to connect with our global network, as well as in ways in which to share their stories with and using the media.

Table 1. The five themes of the Learn and Share Activities

Source: International Olympic Committee (2017).

The problems of youth sport development in Taiwan

Although Taiwan has tried to build a multi-dimensional scheme to develop youth sports, every aspect of the scheme needs to be reviewed as society changes and young athletes at the youth stage are not mature. Currently, there are four major problems facing the development of youth sports in Taiwan.

Firstly, in an era of high technology use, most of the primary and secondary school students in Taiwan spend up to 5 to 8 hours on the internet per day (National Policy Foundation, 2009). In addition, the educational pressure in society work against the athlete stereotype and schools, teachers and parents force young athletes to give up their sporting careers. The decline in the participation of young people in sports makes it difficult to develop grassroots sports, which affects sports development overall in Taiwan (Sport Administration Ministry of Education, 2013).

Secondly, student-athletes are still in need of national compulsory education, and therefore tend to have a problem managing their time so they can both train and study. In order to reduce the imbalance between training and study hours for student-athletes, schools and other educational bodies need to strengthen school counselling and training management. The Taiwanese Ministry of Education set out “Implementation Regulations Governing High School PE and Sports Team” in 2010 to stipulate reasonable daily training hours for sport teams (Ministry of Education, 2010). However, many student-athletes are still training in a high sport performance environment, and coaches often ignore their students’ right to receive a normal education (Yen Liu, 2012). Furthermore, in order to enable student-athletes to balance training and their academic disciplines, the Taiwanese government implemented the “High School Athletic Class Act” in 2010. However, the division into sports and ordinary classes can reduce the educational content for sports class students considerably, which may make it harder for them to learn and discuss with ordinary class students (Chen & Chen, 2013).

Thirdly, young athletes have to deal with dual pressure to perform well at sports and academically, which can make it hard for them to adjust physically and mentally (Huang, 2013). Young athletes are still not mature enough either physically or mentally to deal with high-intensity training, and many young athletes suffer training interruptions due to overtraining injuries (Hung, 2016).

Fourthly, athletes spend a lot of time on their sports training and focus on

their sport performance. This can result in athletes not taking the time to think about their career or to plan for the transition away from being a full-time athlete. As a result, athletes tend to face challenges during their career transition (Chen & Chen, 2013). In fact, the IOC has been advocating its Athlete Career Programme since 2005, and the IOC hopes that both the National Olympic Committees and International and National Federations can help promote the programme. In addition, the IOC also signed a cooperation agreement with Adecco, and expects to promote its programme through the YOG (International Olympic Committee, 2016a). The Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee also signed a cooperation agreement with the Taiwan Branch of the Adecco in 2013, and has set up a dedicated counsellor for athlete career planning at the National Sports Training Centre to enhance the well-being of the athletes and to help them plan and transform their future careers (Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee, 2015). However, at present, athlete career planning is mainly aimed at top athletes, and there is room for improvement and an increase in scope for the athlete career planning for young athletes.

In conclusion, the current problems facing youth sport development in Taiwan include a fall in sports participants, an imbalance between training and study hours for student-athletes, overtraining injuries, and a lack of young athlete career development.

The YOG: inspiring youth sport development in Taiwan

Even though it is still too early to make a definite conclusion about the impact of the YOG on global youth sports development, the YOG has had at least a positive impact on the development of youth sports worldwide. As discussed in the previous section, Taiwan faces several problems in the development of its youth sports. By understanding the value of the YOG along with the potential of innovative competitions and educational programmes, Taiwan can benefit from the solutions and inspiration the YOG can provide for the development of youth sports in Taiwan. Firstly, in order to get young people to participate in mainstream sport, the Taiwanese government can promote new forms of competitions to boost young people's interest. Secondly, due to the competitive environment of youth sport in Taiwan, there is a tendency for student-athletes to be forced to pay more attention to their sport performance than to the value of

sport. As a result, student-athletes often juggle their study and training schedules and suffer from overtraining injuries. The Taiwanese government and the Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee should therefore consult the Learn and Share Activities in the YOG, especially on the themes of skill development, well-being and a healthy lifestyle with a view to helping young athletes manage their training and studying time, learn about healthy life development and other relevant fields of knowledge, and ensure their rights. Finally, the problem of young athletes' career development can be related to social responsibility and expression through the YOG's Learn and Share Activities. While the Taiwanese government can raise young athletes' awareness of career development by inspiring them through the YOG's Learn and Share Activities, one may ponder whether the Taiwanese government and the Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee should also provide guidance to assist young athletes in their sporting careers and, perhaps, to extend this much required assistance beyond sport into their subsequent careers.

Conclusion

This paper underlines current problems facing youth sport development in Taiwan, including a decrease in sports participants, an imbalance between training and study hours for student-athletes, overtraining injuries, and a lack of young athlete career development. The paper finds that the IOC acknowledges the issues that plague youth sports developments today, and has responded with the Youth Olympic Games, a quadrennial multi-sports Games for young people designed to convey a salient message to its stakeholders: the need to integrate sports, culture and education. The YOG also include a unique educational component, the Learn and Share Activities of which the IOC is justifiably proud, and which are not designed only for young athletes. Notably, the activities encourage the participation of young people from the nation hosting the YOG, as well as young people from around the world via a range of accessible means. However, given this borderless sphere of influence, it is hard to evaluate the YOG and its impact on youth, especially given that the first edition of the YOG concluded just seven years ago. However, what is certain is that the YOG is playing a vital role in inspiring the development of youth sports worldwide.

The author believes that the YOG have the potential both to raise awareness of the problems facing youth sport development in Taiwan, and to encourage

the Taiwanese government, the Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee, and other relevant organizations to pay more attention to the issues that Taiwan is facing in terms of the development of youth sport and young athletes' rights and interests.

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THE ROLE OF THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT IN ESTABLISHING SOCIAL CONNECTIONS AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

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Olympism and the Olympic Movement

The beliefs and aspirations of the Olympics and Olympism are a fundamental aspect of the Games and a major factor which differentiates them from other sporting events. The fundamental principles of Olympism state that: “Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind”, and “Olympism’s goal is to place sports at the service of the harmonious development of humankind, with a view to promote a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of dignity” (International Olympic Committee (IOC), 2004, p.13). This concept is very well known around the world and a universal philosophy that have been learned and practised in sport and education since the beginning of the modern Olympic era. Inspired by the history and philosophy of ancient Greece, Baron Pierre de Coubertin, an educator from France, revived the modern Olympic Games with the aims of educating youth in order to allow individuals to achieve their potential, and of making a better world through the idea of mutual respect and international understanding.

The Olympic Idea has arrived in every part of the world differently. Interestingly, this ideal has been instilled in the educational system in Thailand since the beginning of the modern Olympic era, thanks to the work of Chao Praya Dhar-masakmontri, a student in London during the first years of the modern Olympic era and a pioneer in Siam (Sattayawattana, 2015). The educational system put

a lot of effort into blending the Olympic Idea with Siam's education plan and curriculum. Chao Phraya Dharmasakmontri utilized Olympism as the foundation for the Thai education system. He inserted a policy in the first education plan that the full person has to study three subjects: 1) science to gain knowledge, 2) humanities to be able to behave correctly, and 3) physical education to be strong and healthy. This policy came from the Olympic Idea that a full person has to be knowledgeable, morally excellent, and physically strong (Vongton. 2007).

The Olympic Movement plays a very important role in promoting the harmonious development of human being through sport. Regarding the fundamental principles of Olympism:

The Olympic Movement is the concerted, organized, universal and permanent action, carried out under the supreme authority of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), of all individuals and entities who are inspired by the values of Olympism. The IOC has identified the following three Olympic values consisting of Excellence, Friendship, and Respect. This idea have been inspired and originated from Baron Pierre De Coubertin's initiation during his early work on reviving the modern Olympic Games.

Firstly, 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 benefitting from the combination of a strong body, will and mind. Secondly, Friendship refers to building a peaceful and better world through solidarity, team spirit, joy and optimism in sport. The Olympics and the Olympic Movement are to encourage the links and mutual understanding between people. The Olympic Games strive to inspire humanity to overcome political, economic, gender, racial or religious difference and forge friendships in spite of those differences. Lastly, Respect characterizes the ethical principle that should inspire all who participate in the Olympic programmes. It includes respect for oneself and one's body, respect for one another, for rules and for the environment (The International Olympic Committee, 2012).

The Olympic Movement is embraced all over the world as a sports event that forges social connections and interpersonal relationships. The Olympic

Movement operates through three groups of organizations at different levels—the International Federations (IFs), which are the governing bodies of sports, the National Olympic Committees (NOCs) that regulates the Olympic Movement within each country, and the Organizing Committees for the Summer Games (OCOGs), which take care of the organization of a particular celebration of the Summer Games.

In addition, The IOC also recognizes about 205 countries and regions, and hosts the Summer and Winter Olympics. All these organizations have to cooperate with each other while participating in a global sports festival as big as the Olympic Games, even if they come from different countries and regions. The Olympics Game is an international multi-sports event which takes place every four years. It covers all five continents and reaches its peak with the bringing together of the world's athletes at the great sports festival, the Olympic Games. Its symbol is five interlaced rings (IOC, 2004, p.13). The well-known symbol means that five parts of the world are connected to each other by the Olympic Games. It is a global sports festival and all athletes around the world want to participate in the Games. The aim of this event is to cultivate world peace through sport. Since the start of this event, all the countries involved have committed to maintain peace despite conflicts at the time of the event (UN News Centre, 2012). It is clear that these organizations have been working together by using sport to lead them into social connections and interpersonal relationships. In terms of interpersonal relationships, these form in the context of social, cultural and other influences. That is, sports can inculcate a spirit of mutual understanding, friendship, solidarity and fair play among people all over the world. This is one of the goals of the Olympic Movement (IOC, 2004, p.13).

Figure 1 below shows the connection between Olympism and the Olympic Movement, with all the organizations such as the IOA, TOA and their committee marked on it. It can be seen that the Olympic Movement plays an important role in promoting Olympism and Olympic values by using sport activities such as the Olympic Games, Paralympic Games, Summer and Winter Olympic Games.

Olympism and the Olympic Movement

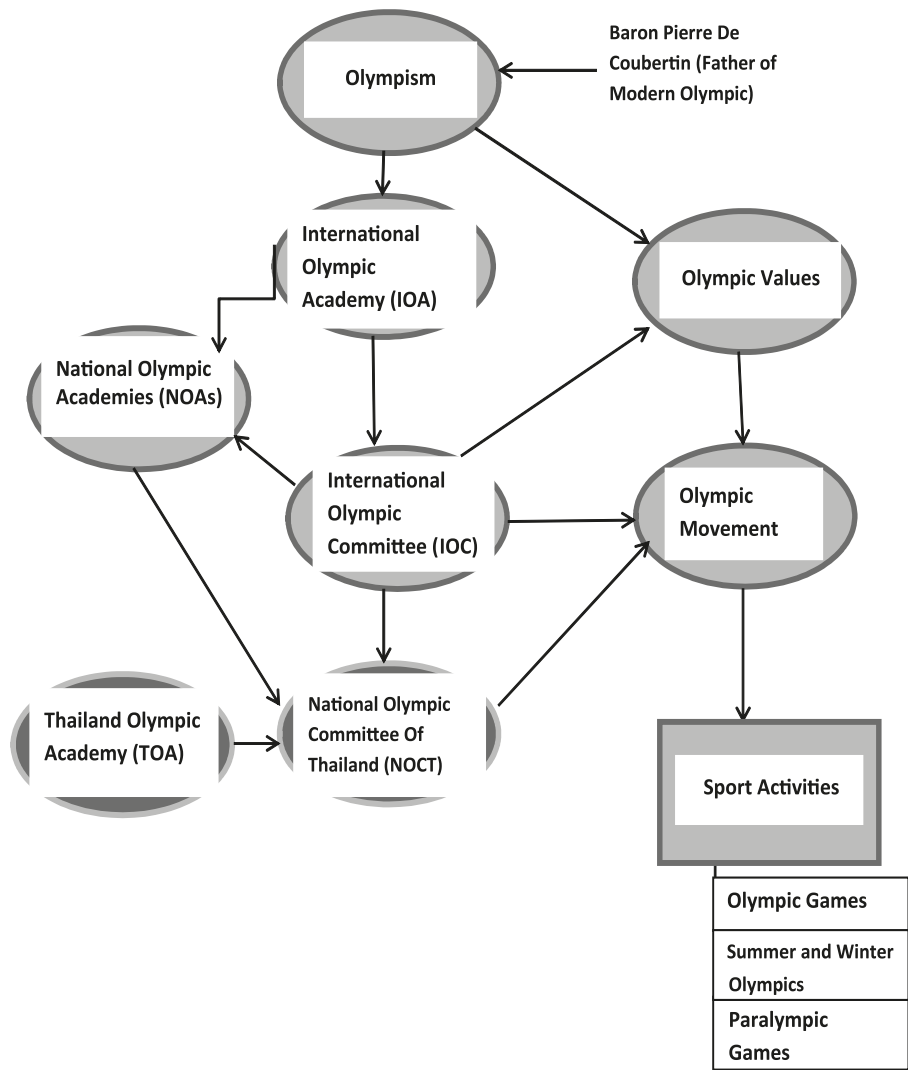


Figure 1: The connection between Olympism and the Olympic Movement

The Impact of the Olympic Movement

However, several papers on the mega-sport events such as the Olympic Games have presented the impacts of these events. The consequences of mega-sporting events have many positive and negative impacts for the host country and community. The impacts of mega sporting events have been reported by numerous studies. For example, mega-sport events like the Olympic Games impact on the host community and country in political, social, economic, physical, and cultural terms (Malfas, Theodoraki, & Houlihan, 2004; Dansero & Puttilli, 2010; Florek, Breitbarth, & Conejo, 2008).

The positive impacts of mega sporting events have been presented by many papers. For example, mega sporting events like the Olympic Games can promote economic activities, creating jobs and constructing sports facilities for the vast number of tourists visiting that city before, during and after the events (Malfas, Theodoraki, & Houlihan, 2004). In addition to this, Dansero and Puttilli (2010) suggest that the mega sporting events is a great opportunity to generate new facilities as a legacy that remains after the event is finished.

Many researchers have argued that mega sporting events have huge negative as well as positive impacts on the hosting city, regions and country. For example, preparing for mega-sporting events such as the Olympic Games has a socio-economic impact on low-income people. Because the urban environment is transformed, people have to be relocated from the urban space to make way for new landmarks structures such as parks, plazas and new housing. This situation can cause a problem for low-income people, if the host does not contribute to the stock of affordable housing (Hiller, 2000). In addition to this, Malfas, Theodoraki, and Houlihan (2004) indicate that mega-events lead to rising real estate values during and after the event. This situation can be a problem for poor people who live in the area, because the cost of houses and rent increase. From the previous literatures, it can be seen that mega-sports events have both positive and negative sides for hosts who want to stage a mega-sport event to promote their country.

Olympic Movement in Thailand

In Thailand, the Thailand Olympic Academy (TOA) and National Olympic Committee of Thailand (NOCT) are very important organizations which operate

under the principles of Olympism. The committees of this organization have promoted the Olympic Movement by organizing sporting events, traditional and physical activities which are attended by people from different regions of Thailand. The Thailand Olympic Academy (TOA) was established on 25 March 2002 and was the 103rd member country of the International Olympic Academy (IOA). The first Director of the Thailand Olympic Academy (TOA) was Prof. Dr Supitr Samahito, who served 2002-2017. The main mission of the Thailand Olympic Academy (TOA) is to be the centre of knowledge and understanding about Olympism. It is responsible for presenting the spirit of Olympism to the Thai people, for serving as a resource centre for the body of knowledge relating to the Olympic Movement, and for fostering teaching, learning and research activities within the framework of the Olympic Movement (Samahito, 2016).

The Olympic Movement in Thailand tries to promote Olympism and Olympic values by means of Olympic education, culture, and several sport activities. For instance, Olympic Day was an essential activity to make people understand more about Olympism and Olympic values by learning and practising activities relating to the Olympic Idea. Several activities are staged on this day, such as imparting knowledge and sharing information about Olympism, Olympic values and sport activities. The “Walk-Run” Olympic Day event (Walking four kilometres, then running 10.5 kilometres) was one of the sport activities organized by the TOA in Nakhonratchasima province, Thailand, to promote the Olympic Movement on this day. This event had many participants including both Thais and foreign people from different provinces of Thailand. Even though they did not know each other, they came together to engage in the same activity together and to make friends during their participation in this sport event (*Thairath News*, 2015).

Moreover, “Olympic Culture and Education” was another activity organized by the TOA. The main purpose of this activity was to improve young people’s understanding of Olympism and Olympic values by having them learn and practice some activities such as Olympic exhibitions, and cultural and sporting activities. The participants came from different schools to take part in this event, and they learned and shared from each other, making good friends and interpersonal relationship during the event. Similarly, the TOA has also organized its Sport Administration Course to promote Olympism and Olympic values to administrators from different sport associations and universities in Thailand. All the participants shared their knowledge and experience with each other and

networked during the event (Samahito, 2016).

Finally, the TOA also has an essential role to play selecting applicants for the sessions organized by the International Olympic Committee (IOC), such as the International Session for Directors of National Olympic Academies, the International Session for Young Participants, and the International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students. All these events were very beneficial for the participants, who learned and practised Olympism and Olympic values. This is because people from many countries come to stay together in the same place, where they have to adjust themselves to be with others from different countries, cultures and races with different experiences and perform several activities with them. This can teach them to be their best with other people, to make friends and learn how to respect others.

It can be concluded that the Olympic Movement have played an important role not only in the quality of relationships among athletes, but also in the spirit of friendship within social groups and in society. However, some of the events associated with the Olympic Movement such as the Olympic Games can have both a positive and a negative impact on the host community and country in political, social, economic, physical, and cultural terms. Therefore, the Olympic Movement should consider the consequences of sport activities in terms both of their benefits and their impacts.

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THE OLYMPIC VALUES IN FUNDAÇÃO TÊNIS ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE: BRAZILIAN NGO CASE STUDY¹

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1. Introduction

In Brazil, the 2016 Olympic Games host country, 11% of the population is aged between 12 and 17 years old; in other words, 21 million Brazilians are teenagers. Of these teenagers, roughly 38% live in socially vulnerable conditions (Unicef, 2011).

Currently, this social issue is being treated through official public policies and non-governmental organization (NGO) initiatives, some of which are sport-related. According to Todt (2009, p. 378), an education based on Olympism “may represent a public policy in order to achieve a fair, equal and fraternal human and social development through sport”. As such, the Brazilian Pierre de Coubertin Committee (BPCC) accredited three organizations in the country to work with young people and employ Olympic education to promote social inclusion (Todt, 2015).

This study aims to describe and analyse how an NGO that implements a socio-educational and sports programme incorporates Olympic values in aspects of its organizational culture.

Organizational culture – the values and norms implemented and transmitted in an organization – has been studied in a range of sports institutions (Mazzei & Nassif, 2013; Rocco, 2013, 2014). However, no research has yet been conducted into an organizations that applies Olympic values in its administrative structure.

1. This paper was presented during the 23rd International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students (2016), but an error led to it not being included in the proceedings of that Seminar.

2. Bibliographical review

2.1 Non-Governmental Organizations in Brazil

Since 1990, Brazil has seen the emergence of the so-called “third sector”. This term is used to designate non-profit organizations that take humanitarian action against social problems such as hunger, illiteracy and child labour. It refers also to a division of the social structure into three levels: the first sector relates to the state, represented by the government, the second is the market, represented by companies, while the third consists of civil society (Hudson, 1999; Montãno, 2002).

Thus, third-sector organizations are “established freely by citizens who are concerned about the lack of goods and services that the state cannot provide and the market has no interest in offering” (Oliveira & Haddad, 2001, p. 62). The term was coined in the 1950s by the United Nations (UN) to refer to non-governmental organizations (NGOs) “seeking space in the participation process regarding decision-making in a multilateral system” (Cabral, 2007, p.11).

Similarly, in Brazil, “NGO” is a widely used term today (Landim & Fernandes, 1988; Tozzi, 2015), which became increasingly relevant in the 1990s after the United Nations’ Conference on Environment and Development (ECO-92) in Rio de Janeiro.

Since then, there has been an increase in the number of NGOs that perform or operate public policies in the country. This increase has occurred in sport, too, which is now considered a social right secured by the 1988 Constitution (Brasil, 1988). In the context of Brazilian sport, such actions have resulted in the creation of the Ministry of Sports in 2003, an organization charged with “social inclusion through sports, ensuring the Brazilian population free access to sports, quality of life and human development” (Esporte, 2002).

Sport has thus taken a prominent position due to social projects aimed at youth and run by NGOs (Guedes, Davies, Rodrigues, & Santos, 2006; Melo, 2005), while Sport Studies have proliferated in the literature – especially nationally. However, relevant research into sports in the context of organizational culture and Olympic education is still lacking.

2.2 Organizational culture

In the 1980s, organizations were seen as rational instruments for coordinating and controlling a group of people. As a result, departments, authority relations and hierarchies made up the people's view of organizations, but they are more than that. Just like people, organizations have their own personality: they may be conservative or innovative, rigid or flexible, hostile or supportive (Robbins, 2005).

When an organization becomes institutionalized, it acquires its own life, independent of its founders and members. It develops value in itself, regardless of the goods and services it produces, and acquires immortality. Its initial goals become irrelevant; what matters now is that it reinvents and redefines itself in order to remain operational. Upon achieving institutional permanence, acceptable ways of behaviour become largely self-evident to its members; essentially, this is what Organizational Culture (OC) does (Robbins, 2005). This form of institutionalization emerges from the origin of culture as an independent variable, which is reflected in the employees' behaviour and produces a common understanding among the members of the organization regarding what behaviour is appropriate.

While there are different views on OC (Robbins, 2000; Schein, 2009; Vecchio, 2009), Vecchio points out that there are basic consonant elements which lead us to define OC as a set of established values and norms which are taught to new members of an organization.

In this sense, for Schein (2009), OC refers to the climate and practices that organizations develop when dealing with people, or to the exposed values and beliefs of an organization. The author also reiterates some basic OC assumptions: every organization has a culture which can explain most phenomena, which favours or hinders organizational performance, and which can be diagnosed, managed and transformed.

Robbins (2005) argues that the OC has four functions: differentiating the organization; giving a sense of identity to its members; facilitating commitment to something that supersedes individual interests, and encouraging the system's stability.

The OC can be explained, according to Mayo (2003), through *inter alia* its mission and goals, the company's mission, its dress code, preferred forms of communication, and office layout. The culture reflects the systems, processes and behavioural expectations that directly or indirectly influence every aspect of the organization (Mayo, 2003).

For Schein (2009), culture is a dynamic concept which can be learned, transmitted and changed, and which can be analyzed on three different levels which relate to how a cultural phenomenon is made visible to the observer. These are the levels of artefacts, the level of beliefs and values, the level of basic fundamental assumptions.

Artefacts refer to all the phenomena that can be seen, heard or felt by anyone who comes into contact with an unfamiliar culture. They also include unique aspects of the given group, such as the layout and architecture of its physical environment, its language, its technology and products, its dress code, its myths and stories about the organization, explicit lists of values, rituals and ceremonies observed, etc. (Schein, 2009).

Beliefs and values guide how and why people actually behave. A group reflects someone's beliefs and value in the sense that it learns that such values, as originally enacted by founders or leaders, are meant to reduce uncertainty in critical areas in the group functioning (Schein, 2009).

The third level takes the basic fundamental assumptions to be true. It is a degree of consensus that results from repeated success in implementing certain beliefs and values. When the solution to a problem works repeatedly, it is accepted as true. The deepest level of group sharing occurs when a set of beliefs and values become unconscious assumptions (Schein, 2009).

Also according to Schein (2009), leadership is the source of the beliefs and values of a group in handling internal and external problems. If what the leader proposes works and continues to work, what were once the leader's assumptions become shared assumptions (Schein, 2009).

Thus, the founder or leader of an organization implements a number of mechanisms ranging from explicit teaching to implicit norms (Schein, 1983). According to the author, culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin which complement each other and cannot be understood independently of each other. Culture is the result of a complex learning process that is partly influenced by the leader's behaviour. From this perspective, leadership and culture are conceptually intertwined. In this context, Schein identified ten mechanisms whereby the culture used by leaders and founders is developed and transmitted:

- 1) formal statements of organizational philosophy, beliefs
- 2) physical space design, facade, buildings

- 3) deliberate role modelling, teaching and leadership training
- 4) explicit reward and status system, promotion criteria
- 5) stories, legends, myths and parables about people and important events
- 6) focus on leaders, on what is relevant, measurable and controllable
- 7) leaders' reactions to critical incidents and organizational crises (when organizational survival is threatened, the rules are unclear, or when there is insubordination)
- 8) organization design and structure (work project, who reports to whom, degree of decentralization, functional criteria of differentiation and means of integration)
- 9) organizational systems and procedures (types of information, control and decision support systems in terms of category of information, cycle time, who receives the information, when, as in performance evaluation and other review processes)
- 10) recruitment criteria, selection, promotion, stabilization, retirement and banning of people

Moreover, Schein (2009) suggests that the leaders' only talent is their ability to understand and work with the culture. He also points out the most important thing for leaders is to be aware of the culture in which they are inserted; if they fail to do this, they will be managed by it. "Cultural understanding is desirable for everybody, but it is essential to those who are leading" (Schein, 2009, p.21).

3. Method

This is an exploratory case study utilizing a qualitative approach (Li, Pitts, & Quarterman, 2008; Matos, 2013; Yin, 2005). Data collection was focused on documentary sources (Martins, 2006) which related to the Fundação Tênis (FT), the constituent data analysis documents being: the FT's Rules and Procedures Manual (2012); Recruitment Standard v2 (2013); FT Activities Report Olympic Education 2014 (2014); informative *Na Rede* No. 24 November 2014 (2014); Best Centre (2015); Best Centre Certificate (2015); Culture, Mission and Vision (2016); Operating FT Standards (2016); Qualitative Goals v3 Centre Coordinators (2016); Coaching Court Team 1 v3 (2016); Coaching Court Team 2 v3; Organizational Structure, Culture and Functional Changes (2016) and the

organization's website (www.fundacaotenis.org.br).

The methodological technique chosen for processing the data is Content Analysis. The analysis categories defined *a priori* (Bardin, 2011; Queirós & Graça, 2013) are the ten mechanisms for culture development and transmission used by leaders and founders, as noted by Schein (1983, 2009).

4. The case studied

The Fundação Tênis (FT) was conceived of by a group of people from Porto Alegre who played tennis and were aware of the need to participate more effectively in social projects. It was founded in April 2000 and was legally recognized on 11 May 2001. Its goal is to teach tennis to children and teenagers from poor communities and establish their citizenship values.

The FT is a non-governmental, non-profit organization which offers a socio-educational and sports programme based on Olympic education. It assists over a thousand children and adolescents enrolled in the public schools where its activities usually take place. There are 11 centres in Brazil, nine of which are in Rio Grande do Sul with two in São Paulo.

The organization's mission is:

to promote the development of children and teenagers from poor communities, giving them the opportunity, through the systematic and disciplined practice of tennis, to rewrite their own life goals (Fundação Tênis, 2012, p. 9).

The institutional vision aims "to be a reference in the development of citizenship in children and teenagers whose social situation is vulnerable through the practice of sports" (Fundação Tênis, 2012, p. 9). In addition, the programme aims to transmit and enable the experience of the Olympic values of Respect, Friendship and Excellence.

The figure below illustrates the organizational structure of the FT:

Organizational Structure of the Fundação Tênis

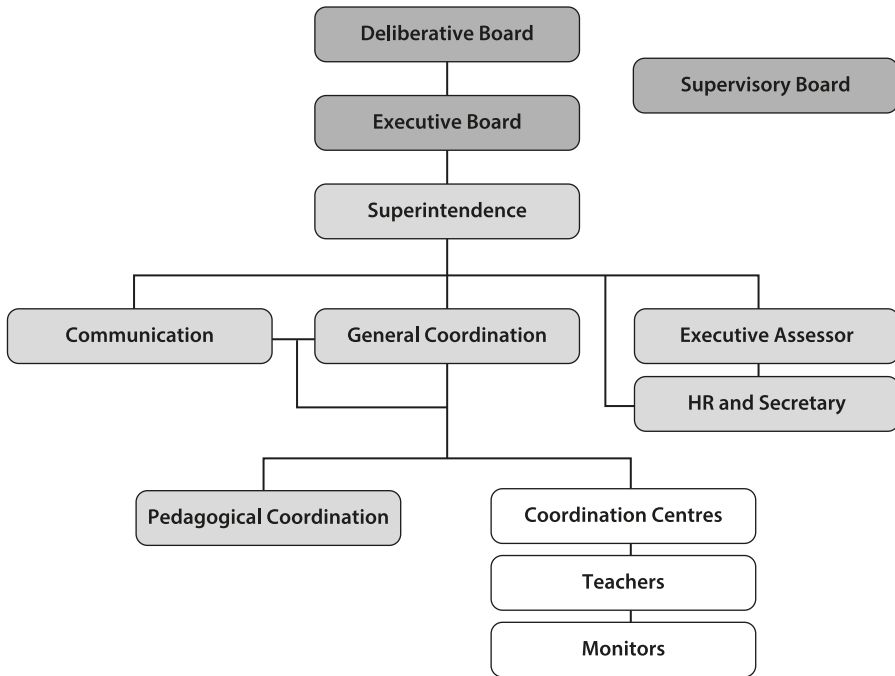


Figure 1: Organizational structure of the Fundação Tênis (adapted by the author)

In 2008, FT chose Olympic education as its pedagogical method. Earlier that year, the Brazilian Pierre de Coubertin Committee (BPCC) had found a home at the Pontifical Catholic University of Rio Grande do Sul (PUCRS) and partnered with the PUCRS Olympic Studies Research Group (OSRG) to achieve their goals, which include contributing to the creation of school programmes based on Coubertin's educational principles, social sports projects, and facilitating exchanges with schools in other countries. FT was the first Brazilian institution certified by the BPCC.

5. Results

The results from the categories defined *a priori* as the ten mechanisms of development and culture transmission used by leaders and founders, as defined by Schein (1983), are laid out below:

Formal statements of organizational philosophy

The item values to be transmitted are from the “Rules and Procedures Manual” document, which presents the Olympic values and the institution, along with an illustration of the Olympic Symbols (Olympic Flame, Olympic Rings and Olympic motto). The manual also identifies the BPCC and OSRG as supporters of the organization.

The “Culture, Mission and Vision” document states that the culture institution is bound to cause “indirect life change (*for Values through Olympic Education*), direct life change (through professional courses recommendation), learning (through student behaviour change), management indicators outcome (through performance, in order to pursuit excellence) and setting example (for practising what is taught)” (emphasis added).

Physical space design, facade, buildings

No evidence was found in the examined documents.

Role model deliberation, teaching and training leaders

In the “Rules and Procedures Manual”, the general coordinator duties item requires new trends regarding Olympic education to be researched and applied in the organization.

Explicit reward and status system, promotion criteria

The “Best Centre 2015” document refers to the motivational incentive that encourages the organization to “recognize the best team and coordination centre as a means of achieving the FT mission”. The best qualified teams receive a certificate containing the following text: “The Fundação Tênis gives the award to (...) in recognition of the best team and coordination centre for achieving the Fundação Tênis mission through the practice of *Olympic Education and the Olympic Values of Friendship, Respect and Excellence*” (emphasis added). The certificate includes the text, but also the FT and BPCC logos as well as symbols of the Olympic values.

Stories, legends, myths and parables about people and key events

The FT website contains two news items dated 2 October 2014 with the following

headlines: “Olympism authority visits Fundação Tênis centres” and “Fundação Tênis receives distinction from the International Pierre de Coubertin Committee”. Both refer to the international recognition of the FT by the International Pierre de Coubertin Committee on 1 October 2014, the 150th anniversary of the birth of Pierre de Coubertin, on which occasion a commemorative medal was awarded. This honour is given to people and organizations involved in humanitarian activity and committed to the practice and dissemination of Olympic education. The medal was awarded in person by Norbert Müller, President of the International Pierre de Coubertin Committee, during his visit to Brazil.

In addition, *Na Rede* No. 24, November 2014, dedicated its front cover and some pages to this particular event.

Focus on leaders, on what is relevant, "measurable and controllable"

The “Qualitative Centre Coordinators v3” document contains a description of performance indicators. These include the Olympic value indicator, which states the following qualitative goal: “to measure the responsibility of developing team practice perception, appropriation and appreciation of the good example regarding the Olympic values”.

Another indicator in the same document labelled “Coaching Notes” refers to “measuring the responsibility to ensure the Olympic education sustainability as a pedagogical line and methodological processes of teaching”.

Leader’s reaction to critical incidents and organizational crises

No evidence was found in the examined documents.

Design and organizational structure

Both validation by the Pedagogical Committee and the creation of a Pedagogical Coordinator position are cited in the “FT Activities Report Olympic Education 2014” document. Both were incorporated into the FT organizational structure, as the “Culture, Mission and Vision” document reveals.

The “Organizational Structure, Culture and Change” document includes the institution’s organizational chart with both the committee and the coordinator already integrated into the structure.

Systems and organizational procedures

The “FT Standards Operational” document contains detailed instructions relating to the steps that have to be followed in each of the operational procedures, including those relating to Olympic education lessons plan and attendance.

Criteria used when recruiting, selecting, promoting, stabilizing, retiring and banning individuals

The selection and stabilization criteria set out in the “Coaching Team Court 1 v3” and “Coaching Team Court 2 v3” documents address the sustainability and reliability of the Olympic education methodology along with possible improvements.

The “Recruitment Standard v2” document was consulted and, although it does mention recruitment onto educational and sports programme, it does not clarify the relationship between recruitment and the Olympic values.

No evidence was found in the documents examined relating to the promotion, retirement and banning of individuals.

6. Discussion and conclusion

Evidence relating to the development process was found in eight of the ten categories analyzed, indicating that Olympic values have been transmitted to and incorporated into the organization.

The two categories for which no evidence came to light were, on the one hand, the design of the physical space, facade, buildings and, on the other, leaders’ reactions to critical incidents and organizational crises. In relation to the first, it can be assumed that designing the space of its headquarters is beyond the purview of the FT. As for as leaders’ reactions to critical incidents and organizational crises are concerned, we can assume that these did occur, but they were not recorded in writing, as they form part of the leadership role repertoire and experience. The lack of information on this aspect may thus be due to data collection limitations; for example, relevant information could have been obtained through interviews (structured or semi-structured), which were not part of this exploratory work.

One of the key areas in the general coordination of the organization is the propagation of its values. It is also required to research new trends in Olympic education for future implementation. Another leadership area, the coordination

centre, is motivated by the Recognition Award given to those who excel in working towards the achievement of the organization's mission through the practice of Olympic values. It was found that both cited leadership spheres manage items relating to the Olympic values. These findings confirm Schein (2009), as they demonstrate that culture and leadership are conceptually related.

The analysis showed that Olympic values are embedded in the beliefs and values of the NGO Fundação Tênis in the majority of the categories analyzed.

In some ways, it might be said that the FT far surpassed the criteria required to be a certified organization by BPCC. The organization was found to have created and promoted mechanisms that formalize the process, focusing the group's attention and thus reinforcing the message it conveys, reducing inconsistencies and strengthening the Olympic education culture. It is also important to emphasize that this culture was evident not only as a teaching methodology, but also in effect as part of the institution's organizational culture.

7. Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research

The documentary research method was limited to capturing certain points listed in the literature, and in some cases did not allow for further analysis.

Future studies could combine documentary research with the interview method and include other cases in order to allow a proper comparison.

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Conclusions

THE ANCIENT OLYMPIC GAMES AND THEIR PHILOSOPHY

Introduction

In the inaugural week of seminars at the International Olympic Academy (IOA), lecturers Professors Crowther and Weiler presented their views and research on the ancient Olympic Games. The Games and their philosophies of sport and competition had some similarities with the modern Games and some differences. From the perspective of competition, training, location and logistics, there is historical evidence in support of the archives in the form of archaeological sites, statues, literature, vases, paintings and inscriptions. In ancient times, sport played a prominent role in both the Greek and Roman civilizations. Although sport could be viewed as a rudimentary endeavour, as it is today, it possessed cultural complexities as well as corruption. A lot of documentation examines the competitive nature (Agon) and sport practices of Greek athletics through the eyes of researchers who attempt to analyze the ancient Games and the Olympic Movement from a historical, philosophical and social perspective.

The ancient Games

According to Crowther (2006), the modern Olympics are known as the “Olympic Games”, as he illustrated in 17 languages, but the Olympics in both ancient and modern Greece (Olympiakoi Agones) are known as contests, not Games. In terms of the ancient Olympics, the competition was familiar to citizens because of war and conflict. In addition, the ancient Olympics had a religious factor and connections to mythology. The ancients respected the gods, especially Zeus.

According to Pausanias, the organizers of the Games in Elis, the Hellanodikai, were apprehensive of strange training methods and therefore specified how the athletes had to train during the month of obligatory preparation that preceded the Games in Olympia (Crowther, 2006).

During competition and training, athletes were usually naked and covered with olive oil to keep off the sun. They trained in the gymnasium or *xystos* (covered colonnade), and were often coached by past victors. To train for the Olympics and similar contests, the Greeks had two major training areas: the *palaestra*, known as a wrestling and boxing area, and the *gymnasium*, which was used for practising running.

The trainer in ancient Greece had a broad and scientific education in relation to the training of ancient Greek athletes, as well as knowledge about medicine and diet. In addition, it was very important that they also understood their athletes' character and temperament in order to determine the ideal sport and workout schedule for them. Undoubtedly, the contribution of trainers to athletes' progress in the ancient Olympics was significant.

Land travel in the ancient Greek world meant using carriages and horses for the wealthy; others had to rely on their own two feet. "Greece had an extensive road network connecting even the most remote settlements; however, the easiest and most comfortable way to travel was by sea, especially as the vast majority of the more important urban centres were located either on or very near the coast" (Cartwright, 2013).

Comparing the ancient and modern Olympic Games, the former involved the area of ancient Greece, while the latter is seeking to spread the Games around the world. However, when de Coubertin revived the Olympics, he also considered the relationship between the new Games he was creating and their ancient predecessors.

Unlike some of the earlier modern Olympiads, artists and poets were present at the Games, but did not compete against one another as they have occasionally done in modern times. As Sanada (2014) mentions, the modern Olympics have embraced theories relating to culture, divinity, inner enlightenment and peace. They have also adopted theories relating to education, women in sport education and peace through sport as a means of promoting Olympism in Society (IOC, 2017).

A truce or *ekecheiria* was observed during the ancient Olympics (Kotynski, 2006). During the truce, athletes' safety was assured. Visiting the Olympic Games was a popular activity in the ancient world, but one that was also perilous and full of hardships for those travelling by land or by sea, even with the benefit of the sacred truce (Crowther, 2006). In the ancient world, all warfare did not end

during the truce; in the modern world, however, the aim is to make the region or the whole world more peaceful.

The athletic circuit, or “Periodos”

Several Games were organized in ancient Greece. These sport contests had the peculiarity of bringing together the Greek world at a time when Greece was not yet a united state, but was made up of city-states. The Games were held in Olympia (Olympia Games), Delphi (Pythian Games), Isthmia (Isthmian Games), and Nemea (Nemean Games) either every two or four years, depending on the location (Valavanis, 2004). The Greek calendar was based on the first Olympic Games, which according to the records had been staged in 776 BC.

The Games organized in Olympia have been considered by some scholars to be of a Panhellenic nature. Other potentially panhellenic contests include the Nemean Games, which took place every two years in the valley of Nemea (Christopoulos, 1982). We note that athletic programmes were restricted to some of the Games. Only at Delphi and Isthmia were there musical events. At the Nemean Games, as at all the Games with the exception of Olympia, the athletes were divided into three groups: children aged 12–16, a second group of youths aged 16–20, and a third group of adults over the age of 20 (HMC, 2004).

The Isthmian Games took place in the sanctuary of Poseidon. The reason for this is to be found in their geographical location beside the great trading centre of Corinth (Christopoulos, 1982). The Isthmian Games took place every two years in the 2nd and 4th years of the Olympiad. The Games consisted of athletic and cultural events: the athletic events consisted of running, jumping, throwing, pentathlon and pankration as well as equestrian events and chariot races, which were afforded considerable importance. The cultural events consisted of music, recitations and paintings. At the end of the Games, the winners received a crown of pine in the early period and later a crown of celery.

The Pythian Games were dedicated to the god, Apollo. The first contest was a musical one and the first winner was Chrysothemis of Crete in 582 BC. Later, the Games developed into an organized equestrian and athletic programme modelled on that of Olympia (Christopoulos, 1982).

The Pythian Games were held every four years in the third year of the Olympiad and in the month of Boukation (August–September). The Games lasted for

about five days, with the first two days dedicated to religious ceremonies and a common dinner at which the meat of the sacrificial animals was consumed, and the other three were dedicated to contests. The athletics context was based on *diaulos*, *dolichos*, *stadion*, the race in armour, wrestling, boxing, pankration and the pentathlon. The winners received a laurel wreath as their prize.

The Olympia Games were the most famous Games in the ancient Greek world. These Games were organized in honour of the god Zeus. Olympia was not a city, but a sanctuary. The site consisted of a sacred space, the *Altis*, which was surrounded by a sacred wall. At the time of the competitions, athletes, spectators and merchants were estimated to have numbered in excess of 40,000 people. At these Games, athletes were split according to event and age. Females, non-Greeks and slaves were excluded. In these competitions, competitors travelled to Olympia on their own initiative, and while most of the athletes represented their native town, they were permitted to transfer their loyalty and victories to another state (Kyle, 2004). The contests took place over several days and the reward consisted of a crown of wild olives.

Females in ancient Greek sport with modern comparisons

It is clear that in ancient Greece, married women and athletics rarely came together. However, diverse scholars have attempted to piece together the evidence from myths, artefacts and literature to support claims that young girls were involved both as athletic participants and spectators at athletic events, with or without the presence and/or participation of males. Despite the respect afforded to goddesses such as Hera in ancient times, women in general appear to have been considered naturally inferior. Still, Miller (2004) argues that women did participate in sports and were an eminent feature of the athletic portrayal, although their contests were never the equal of the men's. From wrestling to chariot and foot races, there is historical evidence for female participation. As stated by Scanlon (2002), Pausanias offers the best description of an ancient athletic competition for girls: the *Heraia Games*, which were held in Olympia. Miller (2004) emphasizes that only unmarried virgins could take part in a footrace run in three categories, from the youngest through the marginally older to the eldest, as the proceedings were regarded as their transition to maturity. Other examples of girls in competition are provided by Miller (2004), who states that

achievements such as females winning victories in the *hippikos agon* [horse races] at Olympia merely strengthens the argument that girls were excluded from the male-dominated world's authentic nude sports competition, known as the *gymnikos agon*. As Miller (2004) states, the high priestess of Demeter was the only woman authorized to be present at the Olympic Games.

Scanlon (2002) mentions the myth of Atalanta, whom Miller (2004) describes as a fleet-footed, noble virgin huntress with no interest in marriage, who had many suitors take up her challenge to footraces and lost, resulting in their death. Until Hippomanes was given golden apples by the love goddess Aphrodite to distract her during the race, allowing him to win and to receive her hand in marriage.

Moving now from ancient times to the revival of the Olympic Games, Pfister (2013) stresses that founder Pierre de Coubertin maintained the myth of the weaker sex and the belief that only men were suitable for athletic events, leaving females with the duty of crowning the victors in the Olympic ceremony. As Pfister (2013) states, although women have endured a lengthy journey of more than a century progressing towards equality within the Olympic Movement, they continue to represent less than 50% of the participants. However, women were, for the first time, permitted to compete in all disciplines at the London 2012 Games. In support of women's athletics, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) has recognized "Sport and Gender Equality" as an element of its Olympism in Action (IOC, 2013), as a consequence of which the IOC has strongly encouraged National Olympic Committees (NOCs) worldwide to offer men and women equivalent opportunities to partake in sport.

Corruption at the ancient Olympic Games

The hot issues of corruption, doping and bribery do not only afflict the modern Olympic Games; they have their roots in antiquity. There are many cases of athletes who tried to achieve a victory by unfair means in the ancient Olympic Games. The examples are numerous. At Olympia, the first athlete caught for bribery, the forerunner of today's offenders, was Eupolus of Thessaly, who took part in the boxing in 388 BC (Crowther, 2016). However, he was caught bribing his opponents, which is a form of bribery we don't encounter in the modern Olympic Games. It may have been easier to identify the winner at the ancient

Olympic Games, because of the relatively small number of competitors in the ancient Greek world, especially if there were only two athletes in a competition, as was sometimes the case (Crowther, 2002).

The corruption in the ancient Olympic Games extended to the judges, the Hellanodikai, as well. According to Crowther (2016), there is evidence that the judges were bribed by the emperor Nero to allow him to win numerous events at the Olympics.

In the ancient Games, political pressure was also applied by local lords on Olympic officials. For example, in 322 BC, there was an unsuccessful attempt by the Athenian government to overturn a penalty enforced against their athlete (Crowther, 2002).

The use of performance-enhancing drugs can also be found in antiquity. In *Gymnastikon*, Philostratus mentions that the contributions of doctors to the athletes' preparation for the Olympic Games was significant. Opium, extracted from poppies, was used by the athletes, as they believed that it would help them with their performance. Specifically, the chefs prepared bread for the athletes containing juice from the plant. Pliny the Younger (1st century BC) also mentions that athletes in running events drank a decoction of a plant called 'hippouris' to build up their muscle mass and increase their strength (Papagelopoulos et al., 2004).

Finally, it should be noted that while disciplinary measures and laws were in place in antiquity for people who cheated in the Games (Olympiakos nomos, Enagonioi nomoi, etc), they were not very robust. Finally, Philostratus also mentions in his *Gymnastikon* that athletes and judges fell prey to illegal practices for the sake of money and a luxurious life.

Conclusion

The historical evidence indicates that sport played a prominent role in Greek and Roman antiquity. Despite cultural difficulties pertaining to the inequality of females and the presence of corruption, we can learn a great deal from the past and its various competitive events. Currently, the IOC is trying to fight rising corruption via Agenda 2020 and recommendations on improving the state of the Olympic Movement and the Olympic Games.

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THE MODERN OLYMPIC MOVEMENT, THE REVIVAL OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND THE HISTORY OF THE MODERN OLYMPIC GAMES

Lectures by the Supervising Professors:
Professor Dr Konstantinos Georgiadis (GRE)
Professor Dr Stephan Wassong (GER)
Professor Dr Karen Joisten (GER)

1. Introduction

This report is a summary of the proceedings from week two of the 24th International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students and highlights the key points from lectures. This content is interwoven with participant insights and discussion topics that occurred over the course of the week. The report will be structured into the key topics that were presented, as many of the lectures contained complimentary content in these areas. Firstly, the report will present a summary of the revival of the modern Olympic Games and Baron Pierre de Coubertin's influences in doing so. The group argued that it was crucial to position the modern Olympic revival in its historical period and subsequently decided to begin with this topic. Secondly, since the modern Olympic Games brought with it challenges of governance, we have gathered together the key messages from our lectures on amateurism, professionalism and doping. Finally, we have grounded these convoluted topics by concluding the report with a comment on ethics, sport ethics and philosophy.

2. Modern Olympic Games: History

The revival of the modern Olympics began with the ideology of Zappas in Athens. For example, the impacts of excavations in Olympia and the archaeological

sites of Elis, the reconstruction of the Temple of Hera and the Sanctuary of Zeus in the Roman period convinced Zappas to try and restage the Olympics. Zappas visualized a “Zappeia Olympia” to create common roots through sports. As he saw it, the Olympics were a chance for the Greeks to meet and compete together, as well as an opportunity for them to showcase the country’s financial, industrial and cultural progress and to introduce sport into the newly-born Greek state. The inaugural Zappas Olympics were organized in 1859 as an athletic event which would help define the cultural and political reunion of Greece. The second Games were held in 1870, just after Zappas died. Here, the idea was the development of physical education and body strength, national union, the refinement of the Olympic spirit and cultural development in the visual arts, poetry, sculpture and literature. Therefore, these Olympics included trade, an art exhibition and sports events (attended by 25,000 spectators). In the opening ceremony, there was an Olympic Hymn, a chorus and an athletic oath. Women participated in the fine arts competition. There were also poetry and music competitions, though the music was cancelled. At the closing ceremony, the athletes were celebrated. The third Zappas Games were held in 1875, and were influenced by military force, meaning shooting competitions were included in the Games. The last Zappas Games was held between 1888–1889, and they also included athletics, the visual arts, music and a painting exhibition. What was most significant here was that the event featured the foundation of Olympic Committees.

The professor asked us who first revived the Modern Olympic Games: Zappas or Coubertin? We discussed how, until Coubertin, the Games were national, but that after Coubertin, the Games began to be held internationally. So, the previous Zappas Games were influential in the revival of the International modern Olympics. Thus, while the Zappas Olympics were held in Greece, other national Games were held in Europe (England, Germany, France, Sweden), which also influenced Coubertin. In 1883, Coubertin visited England to learn from the public school system there. In the meantime, his reading and intellectual inspirations broadened his ideals. As sport was not in the French curriculum, he prepared to propose changes to the French educational systems. This was not a simple feat, and met with significant challenges. He also sought information about schools and American sports. In 1851, the World Fair in London, which showcased industry, culture and science, also had an impact on Coubertin, as did Queen Victoria’s speeches on world peace.

The role the Olympic Games could play in improving the state was a crucial reason for reviving the Olympic Games, and he organized a meeting/congress inviting the other countries to attend. A circular letter stated that the Olympics were to be re-established by unifying different sports, internationalizing sports and linking the Games to the ancient tradition of arts, science and culture within an ethical code of sorts. The main aim was to form the International Olympic Committee and to revive the modern Olympics. The first Congress was held in 1894 and 78 representatives from 37 sport clubs participated. The first President of the IOC, Dimitrios Vikelas, spoke of introducing Physical Education in schools and about the location of the first modern Olympic Games. Coubertin and Vikelas proposed Athens. London and Budapest were also proposed by other delegates. The participants supported the idea of staging the first Olympics in Athens. After the Congress, Vikelas went to Athens, but could not convince the Greek government to organize the first Olympics; when he asked Coubertin for his help, he too had trouble convincing people. This was one example of many political difficulties which Coubertin faced; only after the political situation changed in Greece could the Games be held in Athens, in 1896, and could Coubertin gather the momentum he required.

3. The modern Olympic Games: governance, amateurism, professionalism and doping.

Since its creation in 1894, the International Olympic Committee has governed the Olympic Movement. Etymologically, 'governance' has roots in the Greek and Latin words meaning 'to handle' or 'to be responsible' for the rudder of a ship, and the idea of governance was already present during the ancient Olympic Games. Of course, given that the revived Olympic Games have been international since their inception, it is clear that the IOC faces ongoing multinational challenges involving political, economic, educational and social parameters; this requires universal governance and policies. The Olympic Movement is constantly defining universal values of governance that connect all the members of the Olympic family. This could contribute to misunderstandings or multiple understandings of the rules of 'good governance', as there is no confirmation as to how 'good governance' should be interpreted. Additionally, what constitutes 'ethical standards' differs widely from one place to another, and of course this

creates concerns over whether governance is actually a global concept; could it be a Western idea? The discussion group spoke about this in further depth.

Even if governance of the Olympic Movement is based on the Olympic values of friendship, excellence and respect, governance is influenced by both individual and global factors as well as by the people who hold positions of power and leadership. The Olympic Movement is continually affected by commercialism, the increasing popularity of the Olympic Games, and the connection with mega-event risks including terrorist attacks, boycotts, bribery scandals, and even a recent lack of public support. An example of this could be the investigations into the Salt Lake City Bribery Scandal, which resulted in sanctions and the increased prominence (post 2004) of 'governance' in the Olympic Charter. Governance also had a more public presence after this time; see, for example, Dr Thomas Bach's speech on "Unity in Diversity: Respect, Responsibility, Reliability" in 2009.

Much of the debate on governance originated from initial conversations about amateurism and professionalism. This was a key focus of the lectures: the distinction between amateurism and professionalism started with the revival of the Olympic Games by Coubertin. The first mention of amateurs dates back to 1894, when in his report to the first meeting of the International Olympic Committee, Coubertin mentioned the need to separate the two categories of athletes. However, it is important to note that this idea came into being in the American sports system, which already made this distinction at this time. So who were these amateurs? Simply put, they were amateur athletes, who did not receive material profit from their performances in competitions and/or financial support from sponsors.

Since the level of competitiveness rose with each Games, athletes needed to be better prepared to achieve excellence. Their training thus came to impact more on their lives, demanding more dedication and sports specialization, and in this environment, some of them started to be paid, thereby becoming professionals. Two ways were used to control the participation of athletes for many years: when the International Olympic Committee received information that an athlete who had already won a medal had been obtaining financial support before their victory, the athlete was punished and not allowed to participate in any further Games.

This situation persisted for many years, and it is important to note that the first change only occurred in 1973, when many international sports federations

began to point out that it had become essentially impossible to administer this provision.

The first important changes date back to 1981, when the rules for participation in the Olympic Games were introduced and restrictions on the provision of material support to amateur sports and limitations on the time that could be spent in training camps were lifted. Finally, the line demarcating amateurs from professionals was completely removed at the 1988 Olympic Congress, when it was declared that athletes could henceforth sign professional contracts with private companies and start a professional career at any age, as long as this did not contradict the rules of their international sports federation. A good example of this was the Olympic Games in Barcelona in 1992, when NBA professionals won the right to participate in the Olympic Games. There, the so-called 'Dream Team' dominated their rivals, and the new rule was questioned. However, a more even playing field emerged at the very next Olympics in Atlanta, in 1996. Nowadays, amateur-professional rules exist only in some sports federations – the international boxing federation, for example. The group discussed how, given the realities of modern sports, the athlete needs to devote all their time to training and competition, and how simultaneously functioning in society, earning a living, and living a balanced holistic life made the amateur-professional distinction impossible to impose.

Our discussions then focused on perhaps the most contemporary and topical governance debate: doping in sport. The topic of doping formed part of the lecture on "Governance and the Olympic Movement" and was discussed comprehensively by Prof. Stephan Wassong. He explained in detail the historical context of the doping problem, starting from the birth of the modern Olympic Games. The death of the Danish cyclist Knud Enemark Jensen during the Olympic Games in Rome could be considered a pivotal point in this context – it provided the impetus for the International Olympic Committee (IOC) to establish a Medical Subcommission under the chair of Sir Arthur Porritt in 1961. Afterwards, in 1967, the Olympic Charter contained a definition of doping for the first time and doping tests for alcohol, amphetamine, ephedrine and cannabis were introduced in 1968. In 1975, the Medical Code was introduced and the International Federations were obliged to sign it. However, in the first years after its introduction, the IOC focused its anti-doping activities on the Olympic Games. The next turning point was the Festina Scandal during the 1998 Tour

de France, which also evoked criticism on the IOC's anti-doping policies, since it promoted itself as the world governor of sport. Therefore, in 1999, the World Doping Conference was held, and led to the foundation of the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) in 2000. Since the implementation of the World Anti-Doping Code in 2004, its acceptance has been a condition for inclusion in the Olympic Sport programme. Currently, the world of sport, and the IOC in particular, is facing a crisis in the fight against doping. Economic interests play a significant role and the whole environment of high performance sport has become extremely professionalized.

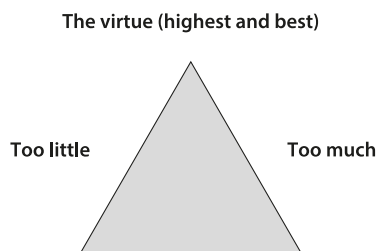
One of the challenges is that it is difficult to refer to a general definition of doping. However, in the context of sport, it is almost always considered as something bad. Nowadays, reference is mainly made to the definition in the World Anti-Doping Code² of the World Anti-Doping Agency. According to Article 1. of the Code, "Doping is defined as the occurrence of one or more of the anti-doping rule violations set forth in Art. 2.1 through Art. 2.8 of the Code". The basis of the Code is the "Prohibited List", which is updated annually and contains all forbidden means and methods. An abstract definition with general validity has yet to be developed. However, the term "doping" is also used in the context of what has been called "brain doping", implying mainly permitted performance-enhancing substances such as caffeine or medicines. These are not only used by top-flight managers or politicians, but also in school and by students. This is the reason that the term doping is also used without stigma in everyday life and commercials. Due to the increase in conflicts regarding this problem in sport, there is also an increased involvement of Sport Law. The participants therefore discussed the possibilities of athletes and International Federations being able and taking the ethical decision to sue the IOC directly. This prompted discussions about power, virtues and ethics. A further focus of the discussion was the situation in Russia and the reactions of the relevant organizations to that: Based on a TV documentary, the WADA initiated investigations through the Canadian lawyer Richard McLaren. His report, which was presented shortly before the Olympic Games in Rio 2016, revealed a state-directed doping system in Russia, leading to the question of whether the participation of a Russian team was in the interests of the Olympic Movement or not. The participants in the seminar showed a great interest in this topic and actively engaged in the discussions within and beyond the lecture. It also provided a perfect transition into the par-

adigmatic structure of the Olympic Movement, and into how governance has been shaped by philosophical influences from Coubertin's time to the more recent Games.

Modern Olympic Games: Ethics, Sport Ethics, Olympic ethics

Professor Dr Karen JOISTEN (GER) articulated the need to return to philosophy in order to position and understand the ontological paradigm of the Olympic Movement and its western ethical influence via, for example, Deontological Ethics (Kant), Utilitarianism (John Stuart Mill), and Virtue Ethics (Aristotle). Plato's allegory of the cave was used to illustrate the difference between morals and ethics, the power of enlightenment and wanting the safety of the cave as you begin to criticize your own moral system. Pivotal, however, this allows us to begin to think ethically and for ourselves. This exemplified the power of Sapiientia (wisdom) in living a virtuous life, and Socrates' proclamation that knowledge is virtue. When connected to the Olympic Movement, this revealed that values can just be words – an orientation of mind that requires acting upon. So, with regards to Olympism, a spoken value is nothing without virtue, and this demands praxis. Consequently, Olympism needs both theory (philosophy) and practice (education and lived experience) if it is to be realized. This shifts the notion of "values" to "virtues".

Virtue ethics is fundamental to Olympism, given Coubertin's educational influences and upbringing. Aristotle positioned virtue as the mean: not the middle on a line, but rather the highest point of a triangle between the extremes of too much and too little.



Here, virtue is habitual: you must practice it every day to live it; it is not a virtue unless you live this; you are this and this is your character; this is the ar-

gument for the acknowledgement of Olympic values as virtues through Olympic education. The acknowledgement of philosophical influence is useful to unpack Olympism. For example, the first principle in the Olympic Charter, “Olympism is a philosophy of life”, is not Kantian because this statement is not rational; life is subjective. Consequently, this would indicate an Aristotelian influence. The concepts of universality, however, are – conversely – Kantian: the importance of understanding and being empathetic to both when making ethical decisions, and the ability to understand the socio-cultural relevance and human element of a specific context, but being able to make decisions that can apply to communities or nations.

So, what does this mean for Olympic ethics? Philosophically, you can challenge the Games by means of virtue ethics. The amalgamation of culture and education, for example, is rarely seen in prime-time media and reporting, where the focus is on the athlete’s performance. However, if Olympic ethics is perceived as virtue ethics and Olympism is seen in this way, then the athlete will view their athletic performance from the perspective of their whole life and the unfolding of character; sport is secondary to the primary service of humankind.

The participants reflected on these lectures on ethics and considered the usefulness of exploring Eastern ethics as well. Eastern ethics differ from western ethics; for example, the theories of Confucius and Plato have both similarities and differences. A Chinese way of thinking, for example, emphasizes instinct and a harmonious connection between nature and human beings. Therefore, Confucius believed that physical education should be part of “benevolence”. The Chinese philosopher also believed that mind-education and physical education should be wholly integrated. For instance, Chinese kung fu emphasizes Takenori and the concept of Tai Chi that humans are an integral part of nature. Plato held the opinion that sports serve politics as an indirect service. As a result, the ancient Olympic Games prevailed using material rewards and competition to serve the interests of participants, such as medals and olive wreaths. Plato believed that sports should be active and intense, but Confucius preferred quiet and more moderate sporting pursuits. Confucius paid attention to dietetic hygiene and had a healthy life routine: for example, he advocated making no sounds when eating or sleeping. The two philosophers, Plato and Confucius, were similar in the way they opposed alcoholism and ate simple food (Yongjun Chen, 2004). The participants spoke of how it was incredibly important to con-

sider all aspects of philosophy from both Eastern and Western perspectives. There are many similarities between multiple philosophers, but also distinct differences that can help people understand interpretations of sport and the Olympic Movement.

In conclusion, this week's content was complimentary and the participants enjoyed debating and posing challenging questions with the professors. We learned about the modern Olympic Games from a historical perspective, and challenged our thinking by engaging with topics of governance: specifically, amateurism, professionalism, and doping. We had a chance to explore the ontological paradigm of the Olympic Movement and its western ethical influence and did this in several philosophical sessions on ethics, sport ethics and philosophy. Overall, this week presented some interesting and challenging topics that promoted both debates and challenges.

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OLYMPIC EDUCATION AND SOCIO-POLITICAL ASPECTS OF THE MODERN OLYMPIC GAMES (MEDIA AND COMMUNICATION, MANAGEMENT, ORGANIZATION AND MARKETING)

After studying the ancient Olympic Games and their revival at the end of the 19th century, Week 3 of the Seminar (September 18-24) covered topics as big as Olympic education and socio-political aspects of the modern Olympic Games, introducing media and communication, management and marketing as visible expressions of the 21st-century organization of the Games.

The lectures were given by Prof. Yannis Theodorakis, professor of Sport and Exercise Psychology at the University of Thessaly (Greece), and by Dr Otto Schanz of the department of Sport Science at the University of Koblenz-Landau (Germany).

The week gave us the opportunity to reflect on the symbolic scope of the Games and its impact on how Olympic values are perceived.

I. The Olympic Values: between continuity and flexibility

Pierre de Coubertin, widely recognized as the founder of the modern Olympics, was first and foremost an advocate of new methods of education. He based his theory on three key pillars: intellectual, moral, and physical education. At a time when liberalism was on the rise throughout the Western world, we took from the lectures that Coubertin could be considered a "man of his time", who was influenced by American and British theories and notably by utilitarianism.

Still, have Coubertin's Olympic values stood the test of time? Interestingly enough, their evolution has shown that a rather constant set of principles can come in many different forms.

Consequently, Friendship has gone on to become a root to the inclusion of everyone. The lectures provided compelling cases: the recognition of gender

equality thanks to pioneers like Kathrine Switzer; the Paralympic Movement through the ideological and practical barriers that had to be overcome before it could be created; and, more recently, the humanitarian situation of refugees, as at Rio 2016.

Respect has led to the promotion of fair play during competitions, most recently when Nikki Hamblin, after causing her fellow 5000m-runner Abbey d'Agostino to fall, helped the American athlete finish the race with her. Yet, the discussion also showcased the difficulties of using this particular event as a basis for the promotion of Olympic ideals.

Finally, the value of Excellence led to the questioning of what performance entails. One of the ethical issues referred to was doping, which was dealt with by Annett Chijnacki-Bennenmann (Germany), whose presentation focused on the recent Russian doping scandal and provided a critical comparison of the different decisions taken by the IOC and the IPC.

II. Olympic values and the quest for performance

Performance is in fact a crucial aspect of the ethical reflections surrounding Olympic studies. As Gabriel Espinosa (Brazil) showed by identifying the influence of performance on the pace of the Olympic marathon, the ever-stronger push towards higher sports performance seems to be leaving behind the one essential component: the human body.

First, it proved particularly difficult to suggest a generic definition of “optimal level of arousal” as the paramount goal of sport performance. By connecting this concept with the impact of aggressiveness in the sporting arena, many ethical challenges arose, since the potential of science seems to be as limitless as it is threatening. In this regard, Aleksandrs Astaficevs (Latvia) provided a thought-provoking perspective by developing a psychological model for high-performing team athletes through theories of mental toughness.

Looking ahead to the decades to come, we identified new challenges for the Olympic Movement posed by the use of technology within the human body. Post-humanism, defined as the augmenting of human capabilities using artificial components, will clearly pose philosophical and ethical threats in Olympiads to come.

III. Communication on Olympic values

The contradictions between the theory of Olympic values and the reality of the Olympic Movement eventually led to reflections on the way these values are promoted.

The Olympic values are aimed at the population of the whole world, but do the communication strategies adopted by the IOC serve this purpose? The presentation conducted by Myolisi Gophe (South Africa) revealed a gap between the ends and means, as well as a need to rethink communication in the Olympic Movement. In the same vein, Xinghui He (China) presented a case study of the business models that can be put in place in order to target specific markets, such as mobile users in China.

Still, is the IOC the only ambassador of its movement? As Javier Alonso Medina Ramirez (Chile) showed during his presentation using the example of the Chilean tennis player, Nicolas Massu, sporting success can be seen as another way of fostering the development of the Olympic values of respect and excellence within a nation.

IV. From sport to everyday life: Olympic education

In line with Pierre de Coubertin's theory, the Olympic Movement has supported operations focused on education and aimed at youth. Both the IOC itself and members of the Movement have contributed to this dynamic.

The Youth Olympic Games constitute one of the recent developments in Olympic education. As YuChi Huang (Chinese Taipei) observed in her research, the YOG has attempted to establish connections between youth sport and development in her country. Still, the growing concept of an alternative Games remains a work in progress, and the presentation of the evolution of the YOG by Hee-Jung Jong (South Korea) identified both the positive aspects of the last two YOG in Nanjing and Lillehammer, and the improvements brought about through critiques of the event.

The transferring of values to everyday life through sport can also be implemented via inclusion programmes such as the "Kallipateira project", around which discussions revolved during the week.

V. The influence of values

As it turns out, Olympic values do not only serve the purpose of education. Fellow-participant Sorachi Kasho of Japan provided us with a compelling example of how values can be transformed into an instrument of soft power through the case of Japan and the programmes connected with Tokyo 2020 that aim to help developing countries. Finally, Arporn Popa (Thailand) highlighted the work of the Thai Olympic Academy, and how it acts as an influential actor in her country.

Conclusion

To conclude, the Olympic Movement has developed a set of values, whose coherence lies in the way they have managed to adapt to social change. Throughout its 120 years of existence, the IOC has also transformed these values into commercial assets and used them as both a promotional tool and an educational instrument.

Another important takeaway from this week was the far-reaching potential of the Olympic Movement. In fact, the IOC legacy involves not only its targets, such as youth, but also the actors in charge of making the Games a reality. The presentation by Angeliki Bistaraki (Greece) therefore opened our eyes to how interagency collaboration developed between health and emergency services during the London 2012 Games, and emphasized the role of communication as a structural factor in better solidarity.

Finally, defining values of friendship, respect and excellence is a challenge, but has tremendous potential in terms of diffusing these values within populations. Two questions remain unanswered, whose study could prove beneficial to the future of these values:

First, where do the Olympic values rank among the interests of the many stakeholders in mega-events such as the Olympic Games?

Second, where do sport and the Olympic Movement rank among the many possible ways of conveying these essential values?

THE ETHICAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL ISSUES OF OLYMPISM AND ATHLETES' RIGHTS IN THE MODERN OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

Prof. Dr Jonas L. GURGEL

Physical Education Institute, Fluminense Federal University

1. Introduction

Before researching mega-event legacies, it is important to be aware of the issues involved in the study of such a complex phenomenon. Sport conceived as human and social practice is characterized by its complexity, meaning that the notion of complexity must be taken into consideration. Consequently, any student or scholar who aims to investigate this phenomenon must seriously consider every aspect of the issue under investigation. Unfortunately, the academic environment does not always encourage this kind of approach. Indeed, it is much easier from the point of view of results to study a given sports issue from just one perspective, whether this be the most necessary perspective, or the perspective with which the researcher in question is most familiar. At this point, there is a risk of considering the problem from just one point of view, which is, by definition, relative. How can we overcome this methodological problem? One possible solution might be to shift from a relative position to a relational one in which multiple sources of knowledge contribute to a holistic view of the given problem. In other words, the interdisciplinary account seems to be a possible and valuable solution, since by means of sharing and exchanging competencies, methods and knowledge, it is possible to enrich the discussion with the common purpose of reaching a better interpretation of the issue under investigation. Of course, the interdisciplinary approach needs the expertise of every single discipline, but instead of its scientific process stopping there, it opens its results and their related questions up to other disciplines. In so doing, the phenomenon can be under-

stood in all its complexity without a risk of its being reduced to only an ethical, social, physiological, economic or political problem. In the following lessons, we will see how this general issue concerning complexity is fundamental to a serious and informed perception of the sports phenomenon. Indeed, as Gestalt Theory taught us, the whole is more than the sum of all its parts.

2. Mega-event legacy

When talking about legacies, there is an urgent need to discuss the concepts and definitions relating to academic takes on sport mega events, their impact, sustainability and legacy. Legacy is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon and there is no common definition for the term. Legacy describes structural changes that remain in place beyond the event itself. The changes can be positive or negative, planned or unplanned, tangible or intangible (Preuss, 2007). “Legacy” must be distinguished, as a term, from “impact” and “sustainability”, which are often used interchangeably.

The Olympic Games are supposed to bring many positive legacies to a host city in the form of, for instance, health benefits, economic impacts, or tourism. However, it is necessary to take a closer look at the studies and their methodology to prove that there is scientific evidence for these legacies. Many studies use increased physical activity in the host city after the Olympic Games are over as a legacy metric, but there is no up-to-date study supporting this hypothesis.

Three studies were used to demonstrate that there is no scientific evidence to support increased physical activity as an indicator of a Games’ legacy. The first study relates to the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. The data collection was done six weeks after the Games were over, meaning that the data is not appropriate for evaluating a legacy in the form of increased physical activity. Many studies suffer from methodological problems, and the results are not therefore reliable. Perks (2015), for example, deals with physical activity and the Vancouver Olympic Games in 2010. Data were collected in 2005 and 2010, meaning there is a significant gap between the data collected. The data show no significant increase in levels of adult physical activity. Another study investigates physical activity in English schoolchildren before and after London 2012 (Sandercock, Beedie & Mann, 2016). The study shows no significant association between the level of inspiration provided by the Games and physical activity after it.

Systematic reviews and meta-analysis provide a more appropriate way to look deeper into scientific evidence. The systematic review by McCartney et al. (2010) found insufficient evidence to confirm or refute expectations about the health or socioeconomic benefits for the host population of previous major multi-sport events.

In conclusion, the cost of hosting mega-events cannot be justified based on the assumption that they will increase physical activity and produce health-related benefits.

3. The legacy of the Rio 2016 Olympic Games

After the 2016 Olympic Games had been awarded to the city of Rio de Janeiro, numerous advantages of hosting the event were promised. Yet, since March 2017 the state has been facing severe financial problems which make it difficult for it to fulfil its legacy promises. Due to mismanagement and corruption in the Brazilian Sports Federations, there are also additional problems.

Regarding the legacy of the Olympic venues, many buildings are now empty and in bad condition. The Carioca arenas in the Olympic Park are still waiting to be transformed to their legacy purpose. The Deodoro Sports complex is closed and the Olympic golf course, which was built in a national wildlife reserve, is run-down and empty. The Olympic Village is more like a ghost-town than a popular new district. Generally, the fragility of the legacy can be directly related to poor management and a lack of integration between private initiative, the Rio 2016 Organizing Committee, and municipal, state and federal government.

An important step towards overcoming these obstacles would be to start planning the legacy during the bidding process. However, many things change during the event lifecycle, and cities can often not keep the promises they make when bidding for the Games.

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Prof. Dr Dimitra PAPADIMITRIOU

University of Patras

1. The Olympic sponsorship programme

Sponsorship can be defined as the provision of resources by an organization directly to an event or activity in exchange for a direct association to the event or activity. The providing organization can then use this direct association to achieve either their corporate, marketing, or media objectives (Lee, Sandler & Shani, 1997).

The Olympic Movement's global sponsorship programme, known as TOP (The Olympic Partners) was initiated in 1980 by Dick Pound and Juan Antonio Samaranch. Operating on a four-year term in line with each Olympiad, the revenues of the TOP programme have grown from USD 95 million to more than USD 1 billion.

Initially named "The Olympic Programme", the Worldwide TOP programme generates revenues that are distributed throughout the Olympic Movement to *inter alia* the Organizing Committees of the Olympic Games and the National Olympic Committees. Ultimately, the revenue also supports the athletes.

In addition to the financial support generated by the sponsorship programme, partners such as Coca-Cola, Acer, Atos Origin, GE or Samsung also help to promote the Games worldwide through their marketing campaigns and sponsorship activations, which help the Olympic Movement reach a wide global audience.

In return for their support, Worldwide Olympic Partners enjoy exceptional global exposure through an association with the world's biggest sporting event and with the most widely recognized symbols in the world: the Olympic rings.

2. Understanding the value of the Olympic Sponsorship Programme

The Olympic Games are one of the most effective international marketing platforms in the world, reaching billions of people in over 200 countries and territories throughout the world.

The Olympic Games are the world's largest sporting event, and participation in them is a dream come true for any athlete. Moreover, as the world's largest marketing platform, the Games are also a dream come true for any corporation that has the funds required to join in the festivities. It is estimated that, for instance, the Winter Games in Vancouver cost about C\$2 billion to stage. All of that money was privately raised and distributed by the International Olympic Committee, which oversees the whole shebang through various entities associated with host countries. While more than half of the money came from the sale of broadcasting rights, 34% of the cash came from sponsorships. There are all sorts of levels of sponsorships, but none more prestigious – or expensive – than the elite members of the IOC's TOP Programme.

Furthermore, support from the business community is crucial to the staging of the Games and the operation of every organization within the Olympic Movement. Revenue generated by commercial partnerships accounts for more than 40% of Olympic revenue and partners provide vital technical services and product support to the whole Olympic Family. Each level of sponsorship entitles companies to different marketing rights in various regions, category exclusivity, and the use of designated Olympic images and marks.

To sum up, we can say that TOP partners must commit to a four-year cycle that covers both the Summer and Winter Games. They gain exclusive worldwide marketing rights to the Olympics and provide both products and services to the Games themselves. During the cycle that covers the 2010 Vancouver Olympic Games and the 2012 Summer Olympic Games in London, the IOC pulled in more than \$860 million from its nine TOP partners and hopes to pass a billion in revenue.

3. The Olympic licensing programme: product meanings

According to Covell (2000), sports licensing is a contractual method of developing and exploiting intellectual property by transferring rights of use to third parties

without the transfer of ownership. Sports licensed products are produced by the licensee in the context of an agreement with the licensor for trademarks protected legally. Products that can be licensed include athletic apparel and footwear, sporting goods, accessories, video games and toys, gifts or novelties. There are several reasons why people might like to purchase sport licensed products. Thus, they allow fans and sport consumers to take away something tangible from the intangible sport product; to express loyalty and support for their favourite teams; to establish affiliation with and membership of a group of team supporters; to connect to the athletes they cheer for; and to make a fashion statement. The IOC also offers Olympic licensed products which promote the Olympic image and brand along with the unique local culture. Moreover, even though the Olympic licensed products are under the supervision of the IOC, the Organizing Committees for the Olympic Games (OCOGs) also have the right to manage the products, which makes the products unique to every Games (Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou & Dantsiou, 2007).

4. The consumer of the Sport Licensed Products

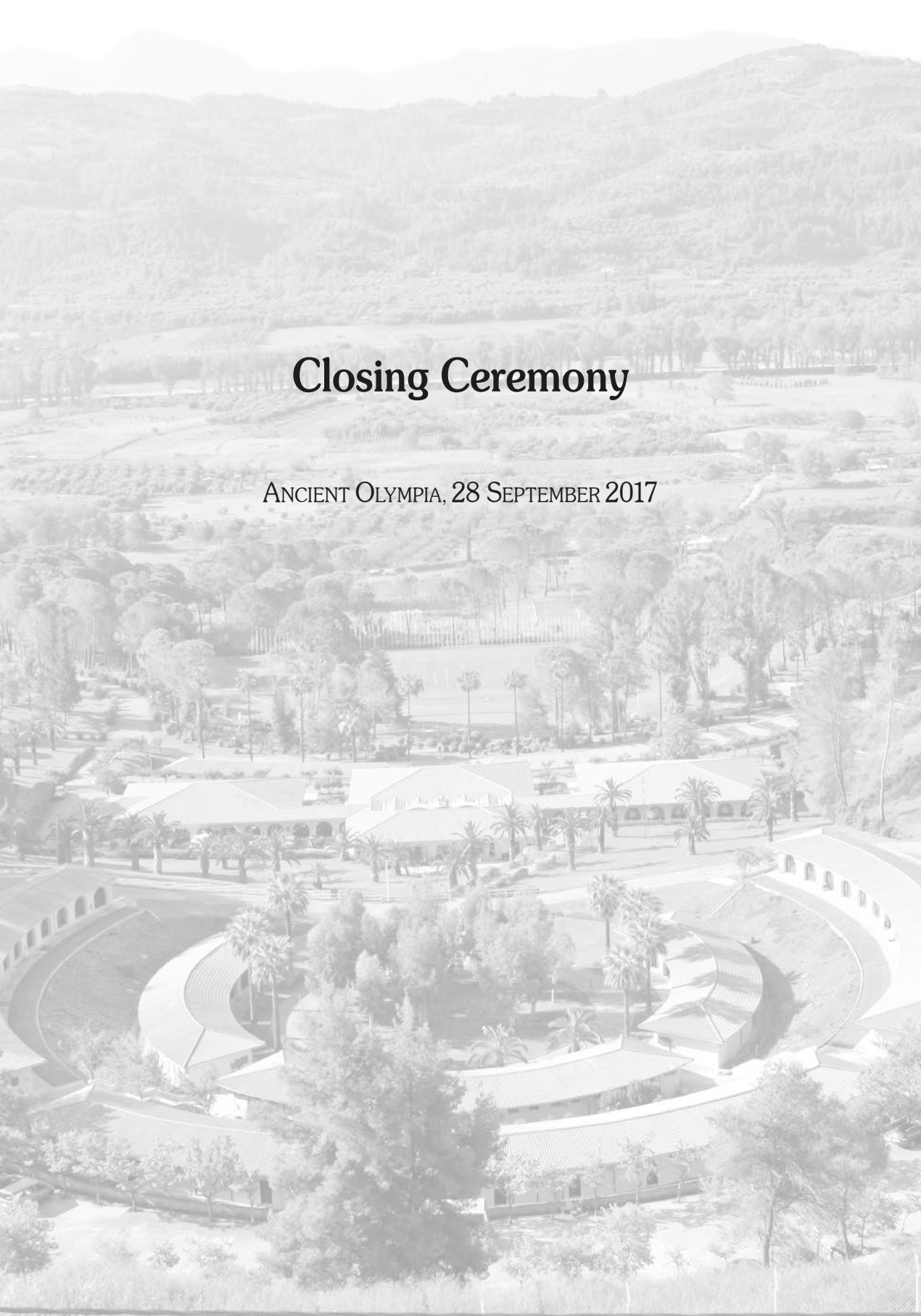
Consumers buy products because of their quality, needs, price etc. What the consumer buys tells us something about their reference group (friends, family, work). They buy products to create a self-image, whether it is an actual, ideal or social self-image. We buy products and services to feel good, and we often buy products because of their brand. The consumers of sport licensed products are highly identified because they buy and display items to support their team. Consumers buy, consume and display products and service on the basis of their meanings to themselves and others. Consumption has manifest and latent functions: the manifest function relates to the intended purpose, while the latent function is an unintended or unexpressed outcome. For example, when you buy a car the manifest function is transport, while the latent function may be that you want to express good taste/aesthetics, that you are a part of the middle or upper class and a member of society. Another latent reason can be that you want to show that you have the money to buy the car and express your power.

Consumption can be symbolic and/or experiential. In order to understand consumers, we need to understand the meaning of value (Richins, 1994, p.519). The meaning can be drawn out from four main sources: utilitarian value, enjoyment/

experience, representations of interpersonal ties, and identity and self-expression. Studies in this area have focused on five meanings: experience, socialization, aesthetics, personal history and loyalty. This model is called the Meanings of Sport Licensed Products (MSLP) scale and is designed to capture the meaning of sport licensed products.

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An aerial photograph of the Ancient Olympia archaeological site in Greece. The image shows the ruins of the Temple of Zeus, the Pagan Altar, and the Temple of Hera, surrounded by lush greenery and palm trees. In the foreground, there are modern buildings and a large, curved, semi-circular structure, possibly a stadium or a modern reconstruction. The background features rolling hills and mountains under a clear sky. The text "Closing Ceremony" is overlaid in the center of the image.

Closing Ceremony

ANCIENT OLYMPIA, 28 SEPTEMBER 2017

CLOSING ADDRESS
on behalf of the Seminar Participants
by Annett CHOJNACKI-BENNEMANN (GER)
and Maciej ADAMCZYK (POL)

We are honoured to express our gratitude on behalf of the participants in the 24th International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students at the International Olympic Academy in Greece.

First of all, we would like to thank the International Olympic Academy and everyone involved for hosting us and giving us the opportunity to experience Olympism. We would like to thank the Honorary Dean of the IOA, Prof. Kostas Georgiadis: you are the spirit of the Academy, and our journey began with you, on the football pitch as well as in the lecture theatre.

Of course, we would like to thank the fantastic professors who came here from different countries to give us the chance to receive and share in their knowledge and the science of Olympism.

But we haven't forgotten about our roots, so we would like to thank our National Olympic, Paralympic Committees and Olympic academies as well as our universities and colleges for making it possible for us to be here, and for supporting us as we strive to develop personally and professionally.

And even if they are not here, we would like to thank the people closest to us, who support us in our everyday life: our family and friends! They are in our hearts and we are looking forward to seeing them again soon.

As a consequence of the Seminar, we can add two new friends who deserve our thanks:

Panos, who made yourself available to us even before the Seminar started, and answered all our questions patiently and precisely with a smile.

And Nikos, whose engagement with our group, whose support and round-the-clock availability have been priceless. Thanks to you, we have been able to discover Greece and its culture.

Finally, each and every one of us would also like to thank you all. We had an extraordinary time, and everyone here contributed to that. When we first met in Athens, we were strangers from 24 countries around the world. Most of us were nervous or even scared, but we were all curious and open-minded, too, about the upcoming adventure. Over time, we have got to know each other. We have lived together, studied together, learned some words from each other's languages, presented our cultures and countries, and spent some nights singing and dancing together. Strangers have become friends.

However, it wasn't always easy! Every one of us encountered individual challenges during the Seminar. Some of us have never been abroad for such a long time, some of us struggled with the presentations or the papers; for some, participating in sports activities seemed like a massive obstacle, and most of us just missed our families and friends. But we helped each other in different ways. We created a support network for the papers, we established groups for different kinds of sport, so everyone could find a place, and some of us taught others how to play tennis or how to swim. We were there for each other when there was a problem or when someone simply needed company. And out of this arose a community based on excellence, friendship and respect.

The Olympic values! We have discussed them during the lectures but we experienced them for ourselves over the last four weeks during every minute we spent together. We are proud to be part of this inspiring group. Now we share common memories and knowledge, and despite our different backgrounds we will be forever linked through our experiences in the unique atmosphere of the International Olympic Academy!

Coubertin said: "In order to respect each other, people must first know each other". We know each other. We respect each other. We are friends! Our wish for the future is that we take all this as personal gain in our daily lives, and that we keep the spirit alive among us.

This is our legacy.

CLOSING ADDRESS
by the Coordinator
Nikolaos PAPACHARALAMPOUS (GRE)

Dear Professor Georgiadis, dear professors, dear staff of the Academy, dear Olympic Friends, we are almost at the end of our session, which has proved to be successful and of course valuable in many ways for everyone.

First, I would like to express my gratitude to the IOA, as an institution, for providing us with the precious opportunity to come here and become part of its big Olympic family. Last year, I had the honour to participate in the 23rd International Seminar on Olympic Studies for Postgraduate Students. This year, I have had the even greater honour of returning to this special place as a coordinator for new participants. Although it has been a big responsibility, I assure you that it has been a great pleasure for me to be here with all of you and to have spent this wonderful and productive month together. Specifically, I would like to thank Mr Kostas Georgiadis and, of course, the tireless staff of the IOA for all their effort and involvement during our stay in this beautiful venue.

The IOA has provided the perfect surroundings and environment for us to come together as a group of people from five continents and 24 different countries around the world; to experience the Olympic spirit; and to discover the origins of the Olympics in the place where they were born. We have also had the opportunity to visit the most renowned archaeological sites of the ancient Pan-Hellenic Games and to become familiar with the magnificence of ancient Greece. The chance to live, work and socialize with world-class professors, some of whom also began their Olympic journey at a session like this, was another thing we really appreciate. During this session, we have been exposed to many areas of Olympic Studies, which has in turn broadened our awareness of the large and complex field that is Olympism, in an environment free from prejudice over race, religion, language, age, gender or political views. But the most valuable experience of all has been the cultural diversity of this unique group of peo-

ple. Being part of such a group is definitely a once-in-a-lifetime opportunity. We have developed career-long academic contacts but, more importantly, we have created lifelong friends – it is great to know that wherever we travel, in nearly every corner of the globe, we will have a friend and a place to stay. As young and active people from all around the world, it will now be our turn to bring our knowledge to the world, to spread the Olympic ideals, and to share our research and new ideas throughout our communities, our countries and beyond in an honest and direct way. By doing so, we can have an impact on the progress of the Olympic Movement in society and – who knows – maybe one day some of us will be back here to teach the next generation.

Closing my speech, I feel the need to note that, regardless of the path we choose, whether we teach in schools and universities, work in management and business, or try our hand at sports and training athletes, our shared values of fairness, taking joy in effort, peace and mutual understanding will always be with us.

CLOSING ADDRESS
on behalf of the Supervising Professors of the Seminar
by Prof. Nigel CROWTHER (CAN)

I feel honoured and humble to be addressing you this morning on your last full day at Olympia. I echo everything my colleagues have said. I would like to thank the Honorary Dean and others for all the hard work they have put into making this seminar such 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 prepare well for success in the future. As Mark Spitz put it: "If you fail to prepare, you're prepared to fail".

Believe that everything is possible in life. "If you dream and allow yourself to dream, you can do anything." (Clara Hughes, Canadian Olympian)

Learn from your mistakes. "The only real mistake is the one from which we learn nothing." (Henry Ford)

Treasure your experience at Olympia.

Learn from your experience.

Be a better person from your experience.

Your educational experience in Greece is not quite over. You have still to visit the site of Elis, where you can envision the 30-day training period for athletes and the two-day processional walk to Olympia, linking city and sanctuary.

You also have to witness the wonderful location of Delphi, the home of the Pythian Games and the famous oracle.

You may have been on a high at Olympia, and you may reach a low when you go home (or vice-versa), but "Don't cry because it's over, smile because it happened". (Dr Seuss)

It is wonderful that 32 postgraduate students have come together from so many different countries, which are not always the best of friends, to discuss the Olympics. Today there are no strangers in the room, only friends. That is the

Olympic spirit.

“We all take different paths in life, but no matter where we go, we take a little of each other with us”. (Tim McGraw)

Echoing my colleagues’ comments about returning to Olympia someday, I hope you will say to yourself, as a famous movie character once said: “I’ll be back!”.

So, as a tribute to some of the many different languages represented here, I will say a few words of farewell:

Austria–“Servus”, Brazil/Portugal–“Falou”, Canada–“See you soon, eh”, England–“So long for now”, France–“à la prochaine”, Germany–“Bis bald, gute Reise”, Hong Kong–“Joigin”, Ireland–“Slán”, Italy–“Ciao”, Japan–“Sayonara”, Korea–“Anyoung hee gaseyo”, New Zealand–“Gotta jet, bro”, Poland–“Do widzenia”, Scotland–“Haste ye back, mon”, South Africa–“Meet up”, Spain–“(H)asta la vista”, Ukraine–“Do poh-BAH-chen-yah”, the United States–“Catch you later” or, as in my day, “See you later, alligator”, Wales–“Hwyl (hoil)”.

Kalo taxiidi.

And thank you all for speaking English.

CLOSING ADDRESS
of the Seminar proceedings
by the Honorary Dean of the International Olympic Academy
Prof. Konstantinos GEORGIADIS

Dear students of the 24th IOA Postgraduate Seminar,
With the conclusion of our seminar on Olympic Studies at the IOA, it is my pleasure and honour to address you for the last time this year. The International Olympic Academy is well known for its pedagogical and educational role in the contemporary Olympic Movement, through its activities since 1961. A constant feature over this time has been the education we offer covering a wide range of contemporary Olympic historical, pedagogical and philosophical themes through the organization of international sessions. It is our aim to approach the Olympic ideas and Olympic values through science and dialogue.

Gradually, the growth of education internationally with the introduction of new educational programmes, and specifically those in the sphere of Olympic education, at all levels, led the Academy after 1991–1992 to create this international postgraduate seminar.

With people from all over the world meeting, interacting and cohabitating in an area as historically and emotionally intense as the birthplace of the Olympic Games, friendships develop, ideals are inspired, and new scientific subjects examined in depth by young academics like yourselves, contributing to the development of Olympic Studies worldwide.

The Postgraduate Seminar on Olympic Studies has now been run for 25 years, despite the difficult financial conditions in Greece. An IOA event with a distinct structure and function which more closely resembles a university curriculum than anything else, this seminar has managed to give the IOA a different image, allowed it to expand its horizons and strengthen its presence in the field of tertiary-level Olympic Studies. Above all, it has been able to offer 800 students from all over the world an important hands-on experience of Olympism in

a location as beautiful as Olympia.

You are all part of the IOA family, and we all owe it to ourselves to become torch bearers for Olympic education and Olympic values. We kindly ask you to keep up your communication with each other and with the IOA, to maintain a flourishing network of contacts that will allow us to participate actively in the Olympic Movement.

We all know how important this meeting is: you are a living cell that has been trained in the Academy and will now go out into the world as multipliers of ideas, travelling back to your countries to diffuse the messages of Olympism and the Olympic values.

I am sure that this Seminar will stay in your memory in the future, especially since it has given you the opportunity to meet here and to spend beautiful and creative moments together in an atmosphere of solidarity and respect, as it is appropriate to the Olympic Movement, and to expand your knowledge. Moreover, your enthusiasm will motivate you to continue your Olympic Studies and to perhaps pursue an academic career. I would be very glad to see some of you as NOC or NOA officials. I would like to thank the coordinator of the seminar, Nikolaos Papaharalampous, and all of you in particular because, apart from your notable academic level, which was obvious from your active participation in the programme and the original academic papers you presented, you have also respected both this place and the staff of the Academy. Additionally, you experienced the values of Olympism through team and social events, you showed solidarity with your fellow students and understanding of other people's diversity. You have forged friendships that will continue long after this Seminar is over. This is how we will create an academic network of colleagues that will probably accompany you throughout your lives and help diffuse the scientific knowledge generated in different cultural zones. This, in any case, is the aim of the Olympic Movement.

Finally, in this farewell speech, please allow me to wholeheartedly thank the professors who contributed to the success of this programme. I would like to thank Nigel B. Crowther, Ingomar Weiler, Stephan Wassong, Karen Joisten, Otto Schantz, Yannis Theodorakis, Jonas L. Gurgel, Dimitra Papadimitriou and Erofili Kollia, and the staff of the IOA: Vangelis, George, Themis and Panos.

The beginning of the future starts in the past. I hope this seminar will be a new beginning for every one of you.

All the best for your lives and have a nice trip back home!



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ISBN: 978-960-9454-46-9