



INTERNATIONAL OLYMPIC ACADEMY



Olympic Studies

25th INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR
ON OLYMPIC STUDIES FOR POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS

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1–30 SEPTEMBER 2018

Editor

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

ANCIENT OLYMPIA

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25TH INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR ON OLYMPIC STUDIES
FOR POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS
1-30 OF SEPTEMBER 2018



Ancient Olympia, Theodorakis Y. & Postgraduate students from 25 countries in the world

25TH INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR ON OLYMPIC STUDIES FOR POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS - IOA 2018
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CLOSING CEREMONY
Ancient Olympia, 28 September 2018

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FOREWORD

For yet another year, the Postgraduate Seminar continued its educational journey at the International Olympic Academy, in collaboration with leading Greek and foreign academic scientists in the superb historic venue of Ancient Olympia. Together, students and educators working harmoniously and constructively at an advanced educational level achieved the aims that have been set by this Seminar over many years. And these aims are nothing more than the comprehensive approach of the Olympic Movement and the interconnecting of people sharing common values within the framework of the Olympic Community.

This Seminar, in such great demand from both students and professors, has succeeded in attracting people from all over the world and creating a strong network of scientists who, in their turn, will be the teachers of future generations. The combination of the ancient and modern history of Olympism provided by the venue of Ancient Olympia and the Academy doubtless constitutes a powerful motive for the choice of this Seminar for young people. No place on earth, except for the International Olympic Academy and its environment, provides such an opportunity for simultaneous communication with both the ancient and modern history of the Olympic Games.

The 25th Postgraduate Seminar (1–30 September 2018) was attended by 33 students (16 men and 17 women) from 23 different countries. The curriculum had been considerably broadened to contain multi-themed and dedicated lesson modules. In the cycle of scientific lectures, historical, ethical, philosophical, social and political subjects relating to Sports and Olympism were analysed. In this framework, the students, following suggestions from their supervising professors, were asked to investigate these subjects through active discussion, and to summarise their views in writing. The students' presentations centred around the Olympic Games' intangible legacy, the athlete as role model, the challenges faced by the modern Olympic Movement, etc.

Among the distinguished professors from various countries teaching at

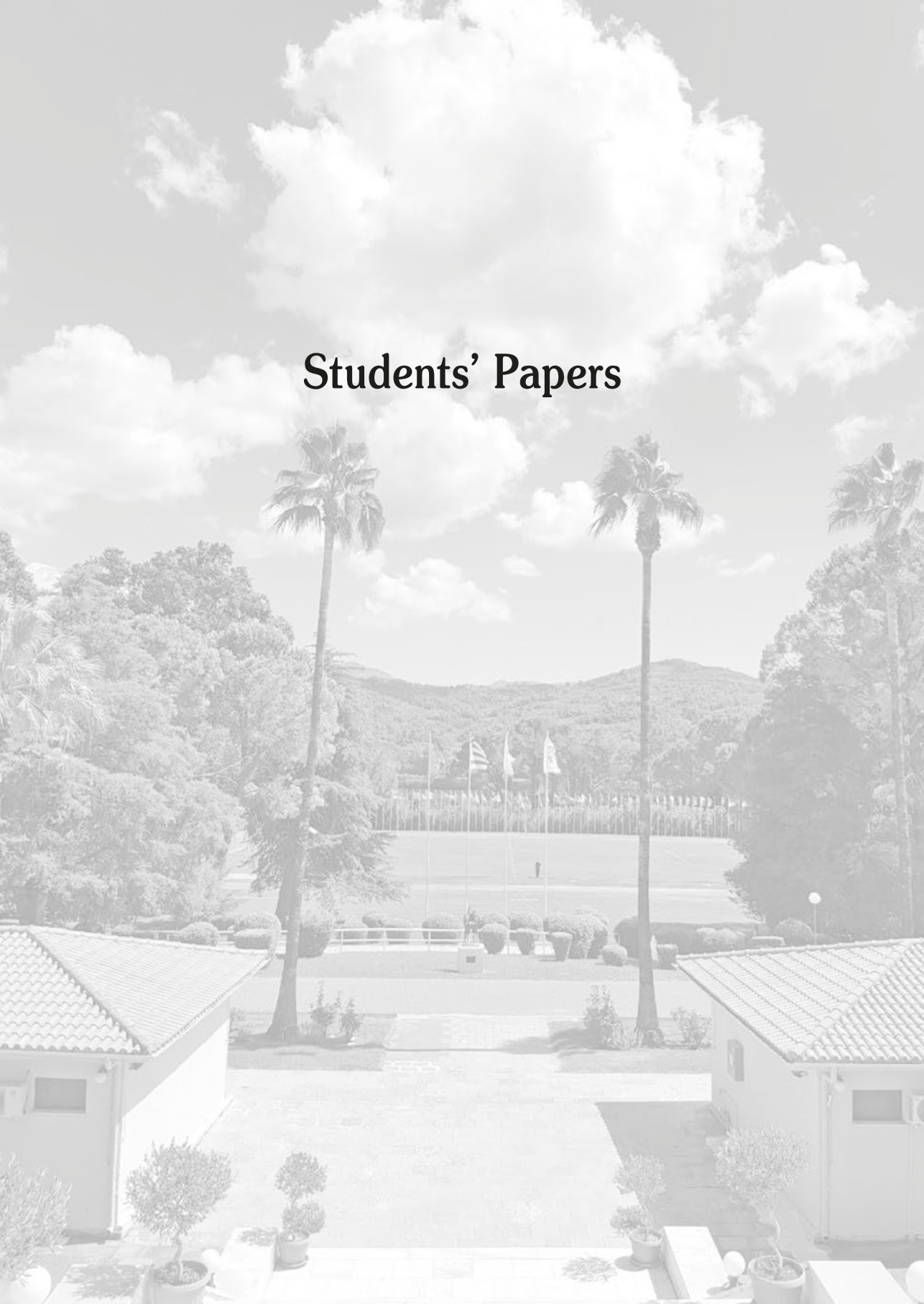
the Seminar were Norbert Müller and John MacAloon, who have contributed greatly to Olympic research and Olympic studies. Extended discussion on lesson themes focused on Olympic education, the social, economic and political aspects of the modern Olympic Games, the ancient Olympic Games and their philosophy, the ethical and philosophical characteristics of Olympism, the history of the Revival and in general the modern Olympic Games, the development of the modern Olympic Movement and the role of marketing, the media and the athlete as role model in society and sport.

The students showed great interest throughout the Seminar, with lively participation in lessons and discussions with their professors. Here an additional role was played by the location where they were staying, since the Academy offers that unique element for communal living and exchange of views.

Ex ante, this Seminar predisposes participants to active learning activities and a scientific deepening of knowledge, diffused and resupplied through daily activities, together with the exchange of views and joint experiences. In the framework of the Seminar, the students constitute a repository of Olympism for the understanding of the Olympic Movement. For all the above reasons, the IOA's Seminar has continued over so many years to be pioneering and multi-faceted among Olympic studies and continues its uninterrupted presence within the scientific community.

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

Students' Papers



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

ANCIENT OLYMPIC VICTOR AS A ROLE MODEL

Dr Jiří KOUŘIL (CZE)

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Introduction

This paper is about ancient athletes –Olympic victors– as the role model and about their prizes, advantages and their influence on the ancient Greek society and Greek youth. Ancient Olympic Games played a very important role in Greek society. Each victor entered the next level, which was close to the heroes and gods. They acquired semi-divine status and the homages for them by all society and mainly by the city-states were greatly important for cultural outputs and conception of all society. The influence of victors on youth was huge and this influence was one of the most important educational parts of all ancient Greek culture. The winners of great Panhellenic Games, especially the winners of the Olympic Games or *περιοδοῦνικοι* (*periodonikoi*), were the best role models with great cultural power. Successes of ancient athletes supported sport education of young Greek boys, thus also the military training and this conception created better warriors and defenders of the city-states.

Methodology

The paper is a historical essay. The data was gained mainly from primary sources, relevant professional literature and ancient arts.

The methods used were gathered from the primary and secondary sources. The methods that were used were comparison method, biography method, progressive method, direct and indirect methods.

As a way of processing data, results from primary and professional literature

and ancient arts, as well as criticism of the sources, interpretation and synthesis were compared.

The main objective of this paper was to describe how ancient Olympic victors were role models, their influence on the youth and their educational significance as well as the advantages that the city-states provided to the winners.

Winner as a role model in the antiquity

Níkn, nike, in ancient Greece, was not only a victory itself, but also Greek goddess, the daughter of Pallas (Combat), the Titan, and Styx (Hatred), her sister was Bia (Force) and her brothers were Kratos (Strength) and Zelos (Emulation/Endeavour). In the war between gods and titans she fought for Zeus¹. The goddess was often depicted as standing or a flying creature. She held a winner's wreath or a ribbon in her hands and brought this to the victors. Thus, she was the *nikephoros*, "bringer of victory"².

The success of ancient Olympic victors was something godlike. With the victory at Olympia, ancient athletes entered into the significance level, which was similar as the stratum of the gods and demigods. Equivalent of this great glory was only possible to find on the field of warfare. On the battlefield ancient Greeks could gain the collective glory. This collective glory and individual glory gained from the great games, mainly at Olympia, was something more than ordinary parts of Greek lives. Here, nothing was as highly valued as fame and inside of fame was really immortality^{3,4}. The victors gained a great fame and they were hailed with a hymn to Heracles by Archilochus of Paros at Olympia⁵. The celebration of the victors with hymns, etc. was a favourite part of this

1. Hes., *Th.* 383-400.

2. Weiler 2012: 22.

3. "When they died they went down to their joyless existence among the shades. Their only hope of immortality therefore was to perform some great deed which would live on in the minds of men. The deed was not important in itself. What mattered was that it should be celebrated by the world" ... "Their names lived on when they themselves were dead" (Drees 1968: 101).

4. Drees 1968: 101.

5. Scheiner 1891: 165.

act – e.g. Xenophon of Corinth⁶, the winner of the foot-race and pentathlon in 464 BC (79th Olympic Games) was welcomed at home by singing before the city gate and then by the hymn before the temple of Apollo, which was lead and created by Pindar. Here, we can mention also warlike (e.g. *ἀνδρείᾱ*⁷, *ἀριστείᾱ*⁸) and sports (e.g. *ἀρετῆ*⁹, *καλοκάγαθία*) ideals, which were equally the basic ethical ideals that created all society in Greek antiquity and were strongly connected with fame. Sport and Olympia were parts of the Greek miracle. The importance of the Olympia's victories played an important role in the propagation of each *πόλις* (*polis*) and its political system. Demonstration of their power and superiority was also important for the education of the youths. The winner's example and successes were emulated by others, especially by the youth. This trend was supported and promoted by the elites. The elites understood very well these principles and they knew that the public celebration of the victors and the advantages provided to them were the best educational examples for young people. The relationship of the ancient Greek culture and society to the Olympic winners was the basis of Olympism and Olympic education in antiquity. Thus, the transition from the status of an ordinary person / *ἄθλητής* to the highest human level under the gods and demigods or mythological heroes was highlighted.

The reward (*ἄθλον*, *athlon*¹⁰) in the most famous and the greatest ancient Greek games was a wreath – an olive wreath at Olympia, a celery or parsley wreath at Nemea, a laurel wreath at Delphi, and a pine wreath at Isthmia¹¹. The winner also received a palm branch and red ribbons symbolising his victory, which were tied around his head and arm or leg. The olive wreath, called *κότινος* (*kotinos*), was made from the sacred olive tree, which the Greeks

6. It is possible, that famous Myron's *Discobolus* was the statue of Xenophon of Corith (Kouřil 2015: 120-121).

7. *Andreia* was derived from the term *ἀνδρός*, man; courageousness, bravery, red-blooded power; fortitude displayed in the struggle.

8. *Aristeia* was a Greek term for unusual valiant behaviour in the battle, heroism, valour, daring, rare proof of courage; as compared to the term *aristeion*, *ἀριστεῖο*. Thus, heroism and also honour, reward, victorious prize for the biggest valour in the battle (Kouřil 2016: 15; Prach 1998: 86).

9. *Arete* = excellence, athleticism, proficiency.

10. Originally, it was a specification for a loot in the battle.

11. Paus. 5.7.6-7, 8.48.2-3, 10.7.8; Pind., *I.* 2.15-17; Pind., *O.* 13.33-34; Plut., *Mor.* 676f; Plut., *Quaes. Conv.* 5.3.1.

named *Kallistefanos* (“donor of the beautiful wreaths”). Either the goddess Pallas Athena gave the tree to the Greeks or Heracles planted it there¹². The Greeks believed that this wreath had a supernatural power and the victory provided protection by Zeus himself. The *κότινος* also contained a huge honour and peak of earthy bliss. The winners could be also honored in the form of festive poems (*epinikions*) and a statue could be built in their hometown or in the place of their victory, or in both¹³. The triple victors were allowed to erect realistic statues, called *iconica*¹⁴. The significance of the statues of the prominent people, especially the winner from Olympia confirms a funny story about an excellent Greek athlete, Theagenes of Thasos, who (when he was 9 years old) stole the bronze statue of a god from the *αγορά* (*agora*). However, later, he was an Olympic victor himself and had several statues made. One of his statues, after his death, fell and killed one of Theagenes’ enemies, who was walking to this statue and was flogging it everyday¹⁵.

Each Olympic Games was named after the victors of the *δρόμος* (*dromos*)¹⁶. The winners could eat for free (paid by the state) until the end of their life (in the *πρυτανεῖον*, *prytaneion*) and hold important political, religious, etc., positions in the state. In the struggle of battle (in the *φάλαγξ*, *falangx*) victors were stationed in honorable places. Victors also had a special honorary place in the theatre¹⁷ and during festivals.

The Olympic victor was the best man similar to a Homeric hero; in *ἄθλα ἐπί Πάτροκλῳ* only the best heroes competed and won. Examples include: Diomedes, the king of Argos (*συνωρίς*), Epeius (*πυγμαίη*), Aias/Ajax the Great – Odysseus (*πάλη*), Odysseus (*δρόμος*), Diomedes – Aias/Ajax the Great (*ὄπλομαχίᾳ* with *δολιχόσκιος ἔγχος/δόρυ*), Polyroetes (*δίσκος*), Meriones (*τοξικός*), Agamemnon (*ἄκρον - ἦμα*)¹⁸. A lot of ancient games, originally the

12. Zamarovský 2003.

13. Kössl et alii 1982; Newby 2006.

14. “*Effigies hominum non solebant exprimi nisi aliqua inlustri causa perpetuitatem merentium, primo sacrorum certaminum victoria maximeque Olympiae, ubi omnium, qui vicissent, statuas dicari mos erat, eorum vero, qui ter ibi superavissent, ex membris ipsorum similitudine expressa, quas iconicas vocant*” (Plin., *NH* 34.9.4).

15. Golden 2005: 163.

16. Drees 1968: 102; Schöbel 1965: 116.

17. Athen., *Deipnos*. 6.237.

18. Hom., *Il.* 23.

funerary games, were held in the honour of important dead men. The victor of these games received valuable prizes such as a slave girl, a mule, a bronze tripod, etc.¹⁹

The ceremonies of the Olympic winners were also spectacular and inspiring. “*The sentiments expressed during the ceremonies of victory include elation, joy, honor and pride*”²⁰. In smaller competitions at local races, the ἀθληται (*athletai*) won ἄθλον and material prizes (shield, cloak, various amphoras filled with olive oil, agricultural products, etc.), as we can see already during ἄθλα ἐπί Πάτροκλῳ, or money prizes.

The winners could choose to create the *epinikion* at the expense of their own, their family or *poleis* (πόλεις) and in which he was often filiationed with god or gods. These were also one of the appropriate means of youth education (the Olympic education). Their most famous author was Pindar (others were Bacchylides and Simonides), and in almost every Olympic *epinikions*, Pindar celebrates the winner and his family or πόλις. The winner thus became an ideal example for young boys, the role model and one of the best citizens, who spreads the glory not only his own and his family but also his πόλις.

“Τυνδαρίδαις τε φιλοξείνοις ἀδείν καλλιπλοκάμῳθ’ Ἐλένα
κλεινὰν Ἀκράγαντα γεραίρων εὐχομαι,
Θήρωνος Ὀλυμπιονίκαν ὕμνον ὀρθώσας, ἀκαμαντοπόδων
ἵππων ἄωτον”^{21,22}

“γὰρ δὲ συνεφαπτόμενος σπουδᾷ, κλυτὸν ἔθνος
Λοκρῶν ἀμφέπεσον μέλιτι εὐάνορα πόλιν καταβρέχων”^{23,24}

The Olympic victory had for the winner a tremendous prestige; just as

19. Pleket 2012: 131; Sommer 2003.

20. Kefalidou 1999: 105.

21. “*I pray that I may be pleasing to the hospitable sons of Tyndareus and to Helen of the beautiful hair while I honor renowned Acragas by raising my song in praise of Theron's victory at Olympia won by the choicest of horses with untiring feet*” (translation by D. A. Svarlien, 1990).

22. Pind., O. 3.1-4a.

23. “*While I, earnestly lending my hand, have embraced the famous tribe of the Locrians, showering with honey their city of fine men*” (translation by D. A. Svarlien, 1990).

24. Pind., O. 10.101a-103. Also e.g. Pind., O. 2.52-56; 7.20-27, 76-88; 11.16-20; 13.1-5; 14.17-24.

important for the athlete's πόλις – as the name of the city-state was next to the name of the winner. The πόλις through its ἀθληταί gained political significance and influence and at Olympia its official delegations / ambassadors (θεωροί²⁵) had the opportunity to sign agreements of international significance.

For the winners spoke their performance, movement; they did not need to boast with external features like wealth or political power. Their wealth was something higher than ordinary things. Their movement leading to victory was “*the result of the dialogue with the Gaia*”²⁶. After the ceremonial procession, the winners were hosted in the *πρυτανεῖον*. Taxes were largely forgiven to them in their birthplace and given honour similar to kings and gods. Some of them were receiving monthly or annual allowance and later, some famous winners received payment by the organisers of lesser games when they participated in these events. The πόλεις were extremely proud of their Olympic victors and a lot of cities pampered them and supported and subsidising the trainings and travels of these men or their other promising and gifted athletes²⁷. The famous winners were also often released by the enemy after a lost battle²⁸; one such example of the famous *παγκρατιαστής* (*pankratiastes*, pankratist) Dorieus, the son of Diagoras, who was captured and released by the Athenians²⁹. The victors were also the leaders of some state expeditions (e.g. Euthyclus of Locri, Gaius Perelius Aurelius Alexander). The winners were sought by the rulers of some πόλεις and empires as suitable husbands for their daughters³⁰ or they were friends of kings and elites (e.g. Milo, Dexippus). The winner was dressed in purple³¹ and he rode a chariot with white horses, through not a gate, but a newly made hole in the wall. It was to refer to the fact that this missing part of the wall filled the bodies of the winners who covered it and protected it against enemy attack³². For example Suetonius mentioned that this homage was utilised by

25. From *θεωρῶ*, to observe, to be a spectator or a messenger at a feast.

26. Hogenová 2000: 150.

27. Pleket 2012: 132-133.

28. Bouzek & Ondřejová 1989.

29. Paus. 6.7.1-7; Thuc. 3.8.1.

30. Osborne 2010.

31. Purple was used for a high status. With the ancient Olympic victors there was lots of symbolism – purple and red colour, wreaths, the *φυλλοβολία*, etc.

32. Tyrš 1968.

Nero, the Roman emperor³³. Exainates from Akragatos was accompanied to the city by 300 two-team chariots with white horses³⁴. The victor's entrance to the city was simultaneously a triumphal procession (similar to the Roman triumphs³⁵) with flowers and twigs (*φυλλοβολία*, *fyllobolia*³⁶) – assurance of fertility and strong genus of victors. This shower of flowers and leaves probably also occurred at Olympia and the victor was lifted and carried on the shoulders of friends and spectators during the procession. The first steps of the winner led to the main temple of the city-state where he sacrificed and devoted to the gods his wreath. The procession continued also to the *αγορά* and victor's home. In Sparta, the winners had the right to march and fight next to the king. This was illustrated by the example of a Spartan wrestler who refused to lose in the final when to him there was offered a huge sum of money as a bribe. When they asked him after the race what he has now from his victory, he said that now he can fight in the battlefield before his king³⁷. In Alexandria, the winners became the members of the Musaeum (it could be said that it was some kind of an academy of science and art). In Athens, the victors received 500 drachmas³⁸, in Sybaris 100 drachmas, and later, according to Dio Chrysostom³⁹, the winners could receive even 5 talets⁴⁰ (= 30.000 drachmas)⁴¹. For victors who came from Athens and according to Solon's census, this point was important not only because of the money but also for the reason that the possession of 500 drachmas meant that the man belonged to the highest class of society. In many cities the victors could eat for free until the end of their life in the *πρυτανείον*. "Sporting" buildings were named after them and to most of them was offered an important position in the religious or city administration. A lot of the winners

33. Suet., *Nero* 25.

34. Diod. Sic. 12.82.1, 13.33.1; Scheiner 1891: 166.

35. For the Greeks, the victory at Olympia was more important than the triumphs over the Romans – "*Hoc est apud est Graecos, quoniam de eorum gravitate dicimus, prope maius et gloriosius quam Romae triumphasse*" (Cic., *Flac.* 13.31).

36. Kefalidou 1999: 96; Trianti & Valavanis 2015: 130.

37. Sábl 1960: 149-150.

38. Plut., *Solon* 23.5.

39. D. Chr., *De Gloria* 1.

40. 1 talent was 26,2 kg of silver.

41. At this time, 1 drachma was the price of 1 sheep and 500 drachmas was equal to the annual profit from the manor.

were worshiped as heroes, either during their life (e.g. Euthymos of Locri⁴² as son of god of the local river) or when they died (e.g. Theagenes of Thasos as son of Heracles, Polydamas of Skotoussa, Phillipos of Croton, Kleomedes of Astypalia). According to Bacchylides the winner could have every woman. The victor's names were on a roll of fame of each city-state and winners received special symbols of the city-states (different for each *πόλις*). Several victors also received honorary citizenship of other *πόλεις*, and some of them were called "the citizens of all the world"⁴³. Kings were allowed to have special coins made to commemorate their victories⁴⁴ (e.g. Gelon of Syracuse, Phillip II of Macedonia). A very interesting fact is that Gelon did this after his victory at Olympia in 488 BC in *tethrippon* but not after his victory in the important battle of Himera (480 BC⁴⁵). In ancient Greece, many legends were created about the victors (e.g. Koroibos, Milo, Theagenes, Euthymos) as well as about other great people: Homer, Empedocles, etc. According to Plato and in his ideal state, the winner could be the guardian and this was a great honour – to be the guardian and the Olympic winner⁴⁶.

In regard to advantages and money, it is possible to compare the victors to present football stars⁴⁷. However, as Thomson⁴⁸ noted, although the winners received considerable honours, they must not want too much or even want to become gods and thus to be subject to *ὕβρις* (*hybris*). The winner with the honours was only one, the first, the other competitors fell into oblivion. In contrast to that the original Homers' warriors-*ἀθληταί* were awarded with prizes in the *Ilias*, even if they did not win. This was also seen in other games, e.g. the Great Panathenia, where the winner received the best prize, but others received some smaller prizes – the second, third and even the fourth and fifth place.

The organisation of such a glamorous welcome in the *πόλις* had one big advantage – increasing the interest in physical activities and raising the love of "sport" for the youth. That is how the *πόλις* guaranteed the trained defenders of their homeland. This also had a very strong educational impact on the youth.

42. He saved a girl and killed a black daemon with wolf's skin and a horrible gaze.

43. Drees 1968: 106; Sábl 1960: 149-150.

44. Drees 1968: 102.

45. This battle took place in the same day as the more famous battle of Salamis.

46. Plat., *Rep.* 425D.

47. Zamarovský 2000.

48. Thomson 1952.

The relationship to the Olympic winners, thus the transition from the status of an ordinary person to the status in which the *ἀθληταί* entered, were the basis of the Olympic education. Youths were inspired by the best of the examples, which were reflected by the *ἀριστεῖᾱ πρόμαχοι* (*aristeia promachoi*⁴⁹) and also by the *ἀριστεῖᾱ ὀλυμπιονίκαί* (*aristeia olympionikai*) with this jointed collective and individual glory. As the basis of Olympism and Olympic education in antiquity, and without a doubt, we can name the relationship of ancient Greek culture and society to the Olympic victors.

The best Greek *ἀθληταί*, who achieved victories in all great Greek games –the Olympian, the Pythian, the Isthmian and the Nemean– received the honorary title of *περιοδονίκης* and they were celebrated by all contemporaries. The winners of the Panhellenic Games were also elites warriors or commanders. Spartan victors fought next to their kings⁵⁰. As ideal examples we can show the best of the Greeks *ἀθληταί*, the wrestler Milo of Croton, called “the king of wrestlers”, who was six times the *περιοδονίκης*⁵¹. At Olympia he won seven times (once as a junior at the age of 14), at Delphi also seven times, at Nemea nine times and at Isthmos ten times⁵². Before the end of his athletic career, Milo took part in a war against neighboring Sybaris, where he commanded the right wing, was dressed in lion’s skin and armed with a club to remind others of Heracles. He strongly helped to defeat the enemy⁵³. Significant soldiers from Messenia were the *ὀλυμπιονίκαί* Androclus, the victor of *δρόμος* from 3rd Olympic Games, who died in defense of his country against Sparta, and Fanas, the victor of *δολιχος* (*dolichos*) from 26th Olympic Games⁵⁴. Another famous commander in the 7th century BC was Phrynon of Athens, a double winner in *παγκράτιον*. We can name the commander Alcibiades of Athens, the victor of *τέθριππον* from the 91st Olympic Games, and pentathlete and the champion of disk throw Phayllus of Croton, who bought and armed a warship and alongside the Athenians he fought against the Persians and died at Salamis in the year 480 BC. We can also mention Philip II of Macedon, the father of Alexander the

49. *Promachoi*, sg. *πρόμαχος* (*promachos*) – ahead/combatant in first line; anterior warrior.

Πρόμαχος was also a famous epithet of Greek goddess Athena.

50. Garland. In: Vernant [ed.] 2005.

51. Olivová 1988: 119; Sábl 1960.

52. Olivová 1979.

53. Miller 2004; Newby 2006; Potter 2012; Sábl 1968.

54. Paus. 4.4.4; Golden 2005: 10; Sábl 1960.

Great. Military and “sport” were closely linked in the antiquity, and so Olympic education and Olympism were dependent on both. All “sport”-military education led to the education of an ideal citizen in the sense of the education to “sport”-military and cultural ideals as the *ἀνδρείᾱ*, the *ἀρετή*, the *ἀριστεία*, the *ἀβροσύνη*, the *καλοκάγαθία*, the *σωφροσύνη*, the *τίμη*⁵⁵, etc.

For all these reasons and conception of Greek “sport”, the winner was greatly important as a role model and his influence affected the youths very strongly.

Conclusion

Each Olympic victor should be a role model in all of ancient Greece and he was the best example for youth – according to his fame. To better understand the ancient Greek society, educational impact and status of the winners, an ordering of the fundamental awards and advantages might be helpful. Three separate categories have been created for this purpose:

- 1) The rewards with a supernatural power, which raised the victors between heroes and strengthened their fame. E.g. wreath, red ribbon, statue, *epinikion*, *φυλλοβολία*, coins celebrated victory, special symbols of the city-states, creation of the legends about winners and their worshiping as heroes.
- 2) The rewards primarily focused on the fame of victors and their educational impact on the youth. E.g. all welcome of the victors (hymns, hole in the city walls, dressed in purple, etc.), eating for free in the *πρυτανεῖον*, honorary places in the theatre, stadium, ..., placed on the city’s roll of fame, honorable places in the *φάλαγξ* on the right wing or also before the king, released by the enemy after a lost battle, name of “sporting” buildings after the winners.
- 3) Practical rewards, which reflected victors’ new position in the *πόλις* and in the eyes of the community. E.g. political and religious positions in the state, searching of the victors as suitable husbands or friends of ancient elites, honorary citizenship of other *πόλεις* and various advantages because of this, membership in the Musaeum in Alexandria, forgiveness of taxes and money profit in Athens, Sybaris, etc.

55. *Andreia, arete, aristeia, habrosyne, kalokagathia, sophrosyne, time.*

The victory at Olympia was not only an olive wreath, but it was also education principle especially for Greek boys as later athletes and warriors-defenders of their city-states. All celebration of the one –the best– had to be the most powerful image on the youth and thus it meant the best way to educate children.

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EVOLUTION OF THE PARALYMPIC MOVEMENT FROM THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT AND ITS CONTRIBUTION TO THE PARALYMPICS

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Abstract

Aim: The aim of this study is to give insight into how the Olympic Movement influenced the Paralympic Movement and it contributed to Paralympics. *Method:* A systematic search of the electronic databases for publications published since 1980 was conducted. Titles, abstracts, and keywords were searched in Google Scholar, PubMed/Medline, Science Direct, Scopus and Web of Science, using the following search terms combined with the Boolean Operator “OR”: “Paralympic*”, “Olympic*”, “Move*”, “Olympics*”, “Paralympics*”. These databases are probably the most popular citation databases for calculating bibliometric statistics and have been commonly used for conducting literature search in bibliometric studies. *Findings:* According to findings, important six key periods for the development of the movement were identified (1944–1952; 1952–1959; 1960–1964; 1964–1987; 1987–present; and the future). In this research, for each period an overview is provided and in some instances key events are identified and expanded upon. For instance, inclusion of wheelchair racing as demonstration events for the first time at the 1984 Olympic Games helped develop the Paralympic sport as elite. This raised the profile of Paralympic sport enormously and, because of the status of the Olympic Games as an elite sports event, made a clear statement that Paralympic sport is elite sport. At the present, the relationships between IOC and International Paralympic Committee led the practice of holding the Paralympic Games shortly after the Olympic Games in the same host city since 1988. *Conclusion:* The Paralympic

Movement is very young; it is still in its early stages compared to the Olympic Movement. Currently the Olympic and Paralympic Movements have become so closely aligned and this relationship has been instrumental in transforming Paralympic sport into the high performance spectacle that it currently is, as well as facilitating unprecedented growth in terms of athlete numbers and number of countries competing.

Introduction

The Olympic Movement has its start by the pioneer, Baron Pierre de Coubertin, who founded the IOC in 1890 and birthed the Modern Olympic Games in Athens in 1896 (7). The IOC's priority is to promote the Olympic Movement and its core values to reinforce the unity among its stakeholders such as sport organisations, athletes, coaches and fans (5). The Olympic Movement spreads among all continents. It unites all the athletes across the globe at the greatest sport festival, the Olympic Games. As outlined in the Olympic Charter (14); the Olympic Movement strives to ensure that sport is practiced without any form of discrimination; the Olympic Movement organises and delivers programmes in a way that promotes sustainable economic, social and environmental development; the Olympic Movement's activities place people at the centre of its attention, ensuring that the practice of sport remains a human right; sport belongs to everyone; in all its decisions and actions, the Olympic Movement takes into account the universal impact sport can have on individuals and society; the Olympic Movement is committed to developing programmes that, together, create a meaningful and comprehensive social response to issues it can help address; and, the Olympic Movement is committed to promoting the spirit of Olympism-the point at which sport, culture and education converge. The aim of the Olympic Movement is to promote to create a peaceful and better world by sport practiced in accordance with Olympism and its values. In this, the IOC has been remarkably successful. The soft diplomacy of sport has broken down the barriers of paranoia enough that world saw a unified Korea marching together in the opening ceremony on 9 February, and competing in some sport disciplines during the XXIII Olympic Winter Games, PyeongChang 2018.

The Olympic Movement has encouraged the creation of the Paralympics where athletes with diverse abilities have been able to compete on the world

stage (5). The inclusion of athletes with a disability into the Olympic Games has been at the forefront of the disability sport movement since the inception of the Paralympic Games (13). There is a wealth of research related to Olympism and the Olympic Movement yet literature is scarce for history of the Paralympic Movement and how the Olympic Movement influenced the Paralympic Movement. It can be argued that one of the specific reasons appear to be the lack of faith in Paralympic Games for the ones who were involved in those early Games. In other words, early antecedents might have believed that Paralympic Games would ever reach a size or importance that would make them worthy of academic historical documentation and study of it (4). Henceforth, the Paralympic Movement is very young; it is still in its early stages compared to the Olympic Movement, but evolving extremely fast and serious documentation of its history and development have started in the last decade (3,16). Nevertheless, Paralympic Games is the biggest sporting event for people with disabilities, it is the second largest mega sporting event on earth after the Olympic Games and athletes taking part in it dramatically increases in quadrennial Paralympics (Figure 1). Numbers were even augmented in Rio 2016 Summer Paralympic Games with 4328 athletes taking part, six new National Paralympic Committees making debut and two new Summer Paralympics Sports added. One can argue that these numbers will likely increase with 2020 Tokyo, 2024 Paris and 2028 Los Angeles Summer Paralympic Games as these cities are the confirmed hosts of Summer Paralympic Games.

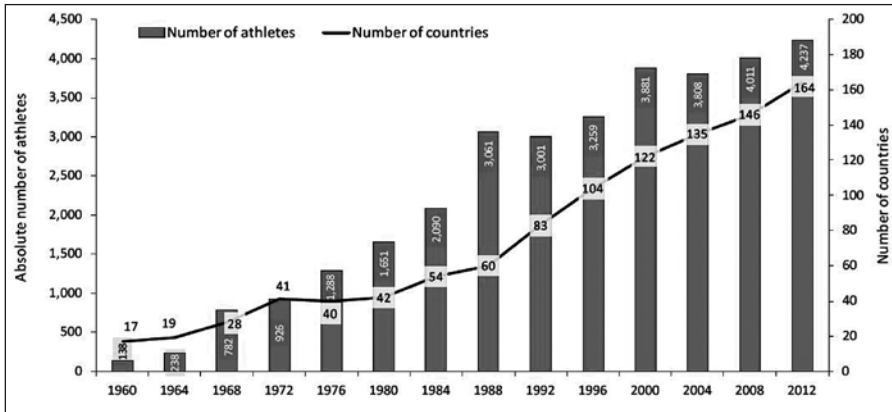


Figure 1. Global participation (athletes and countries) in the Summer Paralympic Games, from 1960 until 2012.

Background of the Paralympic Movement

It is commonly accepted that the Paralympic Movement began in England in the 1940s (see Table 1 for a brief history). However the concept of providing sports opportunities specifically for people with disabilities was pioneered much earlier. The Glasgow Deaf and Dumb Football Club was founded in 1871 and the first international match took place between England and Scotland in 1891 (11). The first Sports Club for the Deaf was founded in Berlin in 1888 (10). An international sports federation for the deaf was founded in 1922 (1). The first two International Silent Games were held in the year of the Olympic Games and in the same city: the 1924 Paris Games and the 1928 Amsterdam Games (6). Since 1935, the International Games for the Deaf have been held in the year immediately following the staging of the Olympic Games. In 1966, the Games were renamed the World Games for the Deaf and the current official name-Deaflympics-was adopted in 2000. Winter Games for the Deaf have been held since 1949 and are held in the year following the Winter Olympics (16). Among the earliest sports organisations for people with physical disabilities were the Disabled Drivers Motor Club (1922) and the British Society of One-Armed Golfers (1932) (2).



Dr Guttmann (standing) was a passionate believer in the power of sport to inspire and motivate so he introduced an athletic competition in the grounds of the hospital to coincide with the London Olympics in 1948.



The U.S. took on the Netherlands at basketball in the 1955 Paralympic Games at Stoke Mandeville Hospital for spinal injuries.

“Dr Guttman, you are the De Coubertin of the Paralyzed!” His Holiness Pope John XXIII exclaimed these words in 1960, as a crowd of several hundred enthusiastic wheelchair athletes greeted him in the Vatican City (1). Indeed, there is little doubt that, just as Baron Pierre de Coubertin is considered the founder of the modern Olympic Games, Sir Ludwig Guttman (1899-1980) deserves to be considered founding father of the Paralympic Movement (16). He was a Jewish medical doctor, born in Germany but he and his family moved to England in 1939. After working at Oxford University until 1943 he became the inaugural Director of the National Spinal Injuries Unit at the Ministry of Pensions Hospital, Stoke Mandeville, Aylesbury (8). It was at Stoke Mandeville that Guttman began a number of highly innovative methods of rehabilitation for people with spinal cord injury (SCI). Chief among these was the inclusion of sport as an integral part of physical rehabilitation, an initiative which ultimately led to the establishment of the Paralympic Games. The Paralympic Movement began effectively with a desire to reintegrate individuals with disabilities, particularly allied war veterans from World War II, Korea and Vietnam, into mainstream society through recreational and rehabilitative use of sport (15). Thus, for more than 50 years the issue of reintegration has held a significant

place within the growth of disability sport including the development and the evolution of the Paralympic Games themselves (13). The philosophy of the Paralympic Movement is one of self-realisation through competitive sport; the expression of personal determination and the exploration of one's own boundaries are there for those brave enough to commit themselves (1).

The Paralympic Term

The meaning of the term has been defined to indicate its meaning in the current context—the English prefix “para” (i.e., a bound morpheme derived from the Greek) meaning alongside and the stem “Olympic” referring to the Games, with the term Paralympic indicating that the Olympic and Paralympic Movements exist side by side. Basically, “Para” stands for parallel and, in many respects, this is now a clear reality for the Paralympic Games (7). However, originally, the term “Paralympic” was considered a pun combining “paraplegic” and “Olympic” although its origins are unclear (16). Although Guttman was a determined promoter of the link between the Olympic and Paralympic Movements, the record shows that he preferred the “International Stoke Mandeville Games” to be used officially and did not promote use of the term Paralympic (16).

The International Olympic Committee (IOC) approved the use of the term Paralympic in connection with the 1988 Seoul Games and following these Games the term was incorporated into the name of the new governing body for the Games, the International Paralympic Committee (IPC). The term Paralympic has been the correct term of reference for the Games and the movement ever since. Officially the IPC has retrospectively recognised the 1960 Rome Games as the first Summer Paralympics and the 1976 Örnsköldvik Games as the first Winter Paralympics.

Table 1. Chronological development of the Paralympic Movement¹

<i>Key facts</i>	<i>Effect</i>
Antecedents of the Paralympic Movement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concept of providing sport opportunities dates back to the 19th century as the first sport club for the deaf was founded in Berlin in 1888. • The Paralympic Movement began in England in the 1940s with Sir Ludwick Guttman at the Stoke Mandeville Hospital.
The “Paralympic” term	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Originally, the term “Paralympic” was considered a pun combining “paraplegic” and “Olympic” although its origins are unclear.
<i>Key dates</i>	<i>Key events</i>
1. 1944-1952	1. Sport as rehabilitation
2. 1952-1959	2. Leaving the hospital
3. 1960-1964	3. Material link to the Olympic Games
4. 1964-1987	4. Defining the scope of the movement and the beginnings of a unified voice for Paralympic sport
5. 1987-present	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Expansion of the disability groups comprising the movement – The Winter Games – Development of a unified voice
	5. Paralympic sport comes of age
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Evolution from the ICC to the IPC – Closer and more functional ties between IPC and IOC

1944-1952: Sport as rehabilitation

At the request of the British government, Dr. Ludwig Guttmann founded the National Spinal Injuries Centre at the Stoke Mandeville Hospital in Great Britain in 1944 and he introduced sport as a form of recreation and as an aid for remedial treatment and rehabilitation (<https://www.paralympic.org/the-ipc/history-of-the-movement>). Upon discharge from the Unit, patients were expected to have high levels of physical independence. On 29 July 1948, the day of the Opening Ceremony of the Olympic Games in London, the Stoke Mandeville Games were founded, and the first competitions for athletes with

1. Adapted from Vanlandewijck & Thompson (16).

spinal cord injuries took place on the hospital grounds in Stoke Mandeville. From then on, the Stoke Mandeville Games were to be held annually. In 1952, Dutch ex-servicemen joined the movement - the International Stoke Mandeville Games were established. These took place every year in Stoke Mandeville.

1952-1959: leaving the hospital

An important antecedent of elite Paralympic sport appeared during this period, with the first official link between the Paralympic and Olympic Movements. The Olympic Movement is synonymous with elite sport; and in 1956, one of the guests invited to the International Stoke Mandeville Games (ISMGs) was Sir Arthur Porritt, a surgeon and a British member of the IOC. Porritt was apparently so impressed by the Games that he nominated the Games for the Fearnley Cup, an IOC award for “outstanding achievement in the service of the Olympic ideals”. At this point the symbol of the International Stoke Mandeville Games Federation (ISMGF) was three entwining wheels that represented friendship, unity, and sportsmanship, a clear echo of the symbolism of the five Olympic rings.

1960-1964: a material link to the Olympic Games

The 1960 ISMGs were extremely important in the development of the Paralympic Movement and are officially recognised by the IPC as the first Paralympic Games. They were the first ISMGs ever held outside the Hospital grounds, and they were conducted in the same city as the Olympic Games had been. The association with the Olympic Games was strengthened by the fact that competitors at the ISMG competed at Olympic venues. In 1960, the International Stoke Mandeville Games were staged for the first time in the same country and city as the Olympic Games in Rome, Italy. They have gone down in history as the “First Paralympic Games”, attracting 400 athletes from 23 countries. The Rome Games were the first to be conducted under the auspices of the ISMG Committee (ISMGC), which was formed in 1959. Inspired by the great success of the Rome Games, the ISMGC made a formal decision to align the ISMGs with the Olympic cycle, so that in the year of an Olympic Games the Committee would endeavour to hold the annual Games in the same city (or country) as the Olympic Games (1,2). This highly ambitious aim was achieved in 1964, when

the ISMG were held in Tokyo. The 1964 Tokyo Games were similar to the Rome Games in a number of ways—they were held in the same city and year as the Olympic Games, Olympic facilities were used by ISMG competitors.

1964-1987: defining the scope of the movement and the beginnings of a unified voice for Paralympic sport

In 1964, only athletes with SCI participated in Paralympic sport and only Summer Games were held. By 1987, the scope of the movement had expanded dramatically to include all the groups that are currently eligible to compete in Paralympic sport (impaired muscle power, impaired passive range of movement, limb deficiency, leg length difference, short stature, hypertonia, ataxia, athetosis, visual impairment, intellectual impairment); the Winter Paralympic Games had been established [The concept of an International Winter Games for persons with a disability was proposed by Sweden at an International Sport Organisation for the Disabled-ISOD – meeting in 1974, and in 1976 the first Winter Paralympic Games –*Winter Olympic Games for the Disabled*– were hosted by ISOD in Örnsköldvik, Sweden (9)].

By 1981, no single organisation existed that had the authority to speak or act on behalf of disability sport organisations. This made dealings with the Paralympic Movement very complicated and fractious, concerns that had been expressed on a number of occasions by the IOC (1). And finally, the first international umbrella organisation for Paralympic sport—the International Coordinating Committee of World Sports Organisations for the Disabled (ICC)—had been formed. The explicit aim of the ICC was to become the organising body for the Paralympic Games and it gave the Paralympic Movement its first united voice, permitting improved lines of communication with the IOC and relevant Olympic Games organising committees. The advantages conferred by a unified voice undoubtedly facilitated arrangements that permitted the 1988 Summer Olympic and Paralympic Games to be held in the same city and in close cooperation for the first time since 1964. Following on from this, the 1992 Winter Olympic and Winter Paralympic Games also engaged in a similar shared organisation for the first time ever.

During the period 1964–1987, recognition that Paralympic sport was elite and inspiring did not make a major contribution to the growth of Paralympic

sport. This was due principally to the fact that for the majority of this period the movement had been too fractured and disparate to develop effective working relations with the IOC, relations that later proved pivotal in developing the image of Paralympic sport as elite. However, there were two developments that helped develop the image of Paralympic sport as elite. The first was the inclusion of wheelchair racing (men's 1500 m and women's 800 m) as demonstration events for the first time at the 1984 Olympic Games (12). This raised the profile of Paralympic sport enormously and, because of the status of the Olympic Games as an elite sports event, made a clear statement that Paralympic sport is elite sport. The other notable trend toward elitism from within the movement was the tailoring of the Paralympic events programme so that it became more closely aligned with the Olympic sports programme.

1988–present: Paralympic sport comes of age



Current official logo for the IPC, adopted in 2003. It comprises three Agitos, symbolising "Spirit in motion".



Three Tae-geuks, symbolising "Mind, Body Spirit". This logo was adopted by the IPC in 1992 and was used until 2003. From 2003 it remained in limited use until the 2004 Athens Games.

During this period, the predominant factor that has driven development of the movement has been recognition that Paralympic sport is elite, exciting, and inspiring. Specifically, factors that have contributed to this recognition have included an evolution from the ICC to the IPC and closer, more functional ties between the IPC and the IOC.

The ICC was established in 1982 and achieved its intended purpose, coordinating the staging of both the Summer and Winter Paralympic Games of 1988 and 1992. On the whole these four Games were considered outstanding

successes, bearing testimony to the effectiveness of the organisation and the advantage of having a single representative organisation for Paralympic sport (2). The IPC was formed in 1989 and replaced the ICC as the lead agency for organisation of the Summer and Winter Games in 1992. Currently, the IPC is the global governing body of the Paralympic Movement, as well as the organiser of the Summer and Winter Paralympic Games.

Between the 1964 Tokyo Games and the 1988 Seoul Games the IOSDs did demonstrate an ability to resolve differences and work together for mutual benefit with IOC. The first meeting between the newly established ICC and then IOC President Juan Antonio Samaranch took place in 1983. One of the outcomes from the meeting was: IOC would provide patronage and financial support to the ICC; and demonstration of Paralympic events would be included at the 1984 Sarajevo Winter Olympics and the Los Angeles Olympics (2).

In the lead-up to the 1988 Games the IOC agreed to the term “Paralympic” being used for the Seoul Games and all games from then onward. In 2001, relations between the IPC and IOC reached an unprecedented level of formality with the signing of a detailed cooperative agreement which stipulated, *inter alia*, bids for the Olympic and Paralympic Games would be contractually linked and new levels of financial support for the IPC.

Currently the Olympic and Paralympic Movements have become so closely aligned that it is reasonable to posit that Guttman’s 1948 vision—that the Paralympic Games would become the “disabled men and women’s equivalent of the Olympic Games” – has been realised. Closer ties between the IPC and IOC have been the hallmark of the IPC stewardship to date and this relationship has been instrumental in transforming Paralympic sport into the high performance spectacle that it currently is, as well as facilitating unprecedented growth in terms of athlete numbers and number of countries competing.

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EMINENT SHOWING OF THE GREEK ATHLETIC ROLE MODELS: STORIES OF THREE CHARIOT VICTORS IN ANCIENT OLYMPIC GAMES

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Abstracts

By reconstruction of the victory lists of Panhellenic horse and chariot races, especially in ancient Olympic Games, some aspects on these races in the Age of the polis were reconsidered. As a dangerous and expensive athletic event, horse and chariot races were the privilege of Greek nobles and eminent persons, whose depiction of victory in horses and chariots competitions in Olympia and other Panhellenic sports festivals sometimes pointed to an all-around personal power and a political interest besides and beyond the public sports. Generally, the paper argued that prominent athletes in ancient Greece were almost monopolized by the elites, so their positive social influences as the sports role models were limited, which made some essential differences from that of the modern Olympic oriented by the principles of democracy and human rights.

KEY WORDS: Athletic Role Model; Ancient Olympic Games; Chariot Victors; Eminent Showing

Questions and Methods

The ancient Olympic Games undoubtedly influenced the Greek world from the 8th to the 5th century BC, the age of polis. Based on the ancient historical context, the athletes in Olympia playground, especially those who won the games, naturally became the role models for all Greeks at that time. Who won the games? What the victors wished to and did do beside or beyond the race

arena? How did these role models affect the public sphere of the classical Greek city-states world? These are the questions the paper will explore.

Historical studies, especially the historical context analysis based on the ancient writings will be the main method of the paper. That means by reading and checking the original materials left by classical writers and analysing the messages under the historical context, tentative conclusions could be reached.

The first-hand materials are the cornerstone of history study. The two most critical sources for this study are *Olympia Odes* by Pindar (Greek poet in the 5th c. BC) and *Descriptions of Greece* by Pausanias (Roman travel writer in the 2nd c. AD). Other valuable historical materials include Herodotus' *The Persian Wars*, Plutarch's *Lives*, Thucydides' *History of the Peloponnesian War*, Plato's *Laws*, Aristotle's *The Athenian Constitution*, etc. The archaeology reports of the Olympics also can support the discovery work.

For the limitation of historical materials, it will be very difficult to make a general review and some solid conclusions about the deeds of the ancient Greek Olympic role models. So, the basic logic in the coming historical exploration will be the rule of case study. Three chariot victors of the Greek Olympic Games will be selected as the narrative point, the historical materials about them were more recorded by the classical historians. In addition, the analysis to their athletic performance will uncover what common roles they played in the social context of Greek city states.

PART I. Who could be a victor: Discovery from the Records by Pindar and Pausanias

A general survey to the chariot victors in Olympia and other festival sites will be made according to the two lists (Table 1, 2 of next page) of the horse and chariot races victors of Panhellenic Festivals, the messages of which were from works of Pindar and Pausanias. As the represented role models of sports, many of these victors were elite Greek family and left more historical evidence, which could just provide enough materials to outline the following stories about three Olympic victors.

PART II. Story of Alcibiades: Victory of An Athens Politician and His Polis

As a popular polis star and a renowned role model to Athens, Alcibiades sent seven chariots to the Olympic Games in 416 BC and gained the 1st, 2nd and 4th place with his own property. The glory victories brought great benefits both to his public reputation and Athens' significant position in the Greek world. Just as Greek historian Thucydides' detailed narrative to Alcibiades' words in his *History of the Peloponnesian War*:

For those things for which I am railed at bring glory to my ancestors and myself, as well as advantage to my country. For the Hellenes, who had previously hoped that our state had been exhausted by the war, conceived an idea of its greatness that even transcended its actual power by reason of the magnificence of my display as sacred deputy at Olympia, because I entered seven chariots, a number that no private citizen had ever entered before, and won the first prize and the second and the fourth, and provided everything else in a style worthy of my victory. For by general custom such things do indeed mean honour, and from what is done men also infer power. And again, although whatever display I made in the city, by providing choruses or in any other way, naturally causes jealousy among my townsmen, yet in the eyes of strangers this too gives an impression of strength. And that is no useless folly, when a man by his private expenditures benefits not himself only but also his state¹.

1. Thucydides. *History of the Peloponnesian War*, Vol. 3, London and Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1921, pp. 211-213.

Table 1. The Horse and Chariot Races Victory List of Panhellenic Festivals in Pindar's Odes

No.	Time (BC)	Place	Name of Victors
1	476	Olympia	Hieron of Syracuse
2	676	Olympia	Theron of Acragas
3	452	Olympia	Psaumis of Camarina
6	470	Delphi	Hieron of Aetna
7	475 circa	Thebes	Hieron of Syracuse
8	482	Delphi	Hieron of Syracuse
9	462	Delphi	Arcesilas of Cyrene
10	490	Delphi	Xenocrates of Acragas
11	476 circa	Nemea	Chromius of Aetna
12	474 circa	Nemea	Chromius of Aetna
13	458 circa	Isthmia	Herodotus of Thebes
14	472 circa	Isthmia	Xenocrates of Acragas
15	477 circa	Isthmia	Melissus of Thebes

Table 2. The Horse and Chariot Races Victory List of Panhellenic Festivals in Pausanias' Description of Greece

No.	Time (B.C.)	Place	Name of Victors
1	no record	Olympia	Cleogenes of Elis
2	372	Olympia	Troilus of Elis
3	no record	Olympia	Cynisca of Sparta
4	no record	Olympia	Anaxandcr of Sparta
5	no record	Olympia, Delphi etc.	Xenarces of Sparta
6	no record	Olympia	Lycinus of Sparta
7	no record	Olympia	Arcesilaus of Sparta
8	no record	Olympia	Lichas of Thebes
9	no record	no record	Timon
10	no record	no record	Aesypus

No.	Time (B.C.)	Place	Name of Victors
11	no record	Olympia	Eubotas of Cyrene
12	488	Olympia	Gelon of Sicily
13	516	no record	Cleosthenes of Epidamnus
14	no record	no record	Philip, Alexander and Seleucus of Elis
15	no record	Olympia	Hieron of Syracuse
16	no record	Olympia	Aratus
17	no record	Olympia	Timon of Elis
18	no record	no record	Theochrestus of Cyrene
19	508	Olympia	Sons of Pheidolas
20	no record	Olympia	Telemachus of Elis
21	no record	Olympia	Pantarces of Elis
22	no record	Nemea	Aristeides of Elis
23	no record	no record	Polypeithes of Laconia
24	no record	no record	Glaucon of Athens
25	no record	no record	Archidamus of Elis
26	no record	no record	Cratisthenes of Cyrene
27	648	Olympia	Myron the tyrant of Sicyon

Alcibiades' notable performance as the horses and chariots owner in the playground and its benefits were reconfirmed by other original records as *Plutarch's Lives*² and Isocrates' *The Team of Horses*. The son of Alcibiades traced proudly the deeds of his father as following:

About the same time my father, seeing that the festival assembly at Olympia was beloved and admired by the whole world and that in it the Greeks made display of their wealth, strength of body, and training, and that not only the athletes were the objects of envy but that also the cities of the victors became renowned, and believing moreover that while the public services performed in Athens redound to the prestige, in the eyes of his fellow-citizens,

2. Plutarch. *Alcibiades*, London and Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1916, pp. 27-29.

*of the person who render them, expenditures in the Olympian Festival, however, enhance the city's reputation throughout all Greece, reflecting upon these things, I say, although in natural gifts and in strength of body he was inferior to none, he disdained the gymnastic contests, for he knew that some of the athletes were of low birth, inhabitants of petty states, and of mean education, but turned to the breeding of race-horses, which is possible only for those most blest by Fortune and not to be pursued by one of low estate, and not only did he surpass his rivals, but also all who had ever before won the victory*³.

Among the competitive sports items in ancient Greek, generally, the position of horse and chariot races was far higher than that of the Gymnastic contests. Because, as the son of Alcibiades said, breeding race-horses, perchance of chariots and renting the excellent drivers need to cost a huge amount of money which were more than the medium income families could afford. While, it was just this sport item that Alcibiades participated in especially to show the uncommon wealth of his family, also, for his hidden political ambition, as historian Thucydides' comments, "he had a strong aspiration to gain the position of Athens general"⁴.

Eminent showing of Alcibiades was not a solo example alone, and the same to Syracuse tyrant Dionysius. He also sent several four-horse teams to the Olympic Games, which, according to historian Diodorus, "far surpassed all others in swiftness". He also sent the best professional reciters that they might "win glory" for his name⁵. Both Dionysius and Alcibiades used the horse and chariots victories as political tools for gaining more reputation in the Panhellenic world.

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3. Isocrates. *The Team of Horses*, Vol. 3, London and Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1945, p. 195.
 4. Thucydides. *History of the Peloponnesian War*, Vol. 3, London and Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1921, pp. 211-213.
 5. Diodorus. *Library of History*, Vol. 6, London and Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1954, pp. 295-297.

PART III. Story of Cimon: The Fluctuating Political Career of a Chariot Victor

Cimon was another legendary politician. He was brought up in an aristocratic family in Athens and retained the Olympic chariot league title for three times in 536, 532 and 528 BC. He escaped a political trap for transferring one of his victory titles to Peisistratus, a powerful Athens tyrant, which reflected the interlinks between the Olympic athletes and polis networks. Another renowned Greek historian, the founding father of western history writing told an exciting story of Cimon and his official circles.

Being an exile, Cimon had the luck to win the prize for four-horse chariots at Olympia, by this victory gaining the same honour as his mother's son Miltiades had won. At the next Olympiad he was a winner again with the same team of mares, but suffered Peisistratus to be proclaimed victor, for which surrender of his victory he returned to his home under treaty. A third Olympic prize he won with the same team; after that, Peisistratus himself being now dead, fate willed that Miltiades should be slain by Peisistratus' sons; these suborned men and slew him by night in the town-hall. Cimon lies buried outside the city, beyond the road that is called Through the Hollow; and the mares that won him the three Olympic prizes are buried over against his grave. None others save the mares of the Laconian Evagoras had ever achieved the same⁶.

Three critical meanings at least could be read from the lines of the narrative above. Firstly, the victory of the Olympic Games could be exchanged as the currency in the 6th century among athletic role models and politicians. Upon these special social circumstances, Cimon regained his free citizenship of Athens by transferring his chariot legendary performances. Secondly, the horse and chariot victors were always related by blood or marriage: father and son victors, such as family of Theochrestus of Cyrene, whose grandfather won chariot victory at Olympia and father won another one

6. Herodotus. *The Persian Wars*, Vol. 3, London and Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1922, pp. 255-257.

at Isthmus⁷; or brothers such as Cimon and Miltiades mentioned above. Only wealthy heritage could support the expensive chariot sports in ancient Greece which might explain the making of the family of athletic role models. Thirdly, Cimon's horses, the mares brought competitive glories to Cimon also should be recorded into the ancient sports history as well as the name of their owner.

PART IV. Story of Cynisca: The Unique Female Victor in the Male-dominated Olympia

Different from the above male Olympic victors, Cynisca indeed represented an "other" in the male-dominated city states power structure. For her special position in the Sparta royal blood kinship and the power brought with, she gained two chariot victories in 396 and 392 BC. However, her story only provided a replicable role model for the mass female in ancient Greece.

The Roman traveling historian Pausanias arrived at Olympic relics in the 2nd century and made a detailed investigation to the ancient remainders there. The statues of Archidamus, king of Sparta and his daughter Cynisca were two of his archaeological findings, but the more valuable finding was a basement of stone, "whereon are a chariot and horses, a charioteer, and a statue of Cynisca herself, made by Apelles; there are also inscriptions relating to Cynisca"⁸. On the life and deeds of the king, Pausanias had recorded in his book named by the biography of the Lacedaemonian kings. For Cynisca, the renowned Sparta princess, Pausanias left the following words:

Archidamus had also a daughter, whose name was Cynisca; she was exceedingly ambitious to succeed at the Olympic games, and was the first woman to breed horses and the first to win an Olympic victory. After Cynisca other women, especially women of

7. Pausanias, *Description of Greece*, Vol. 3, London and Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1933, p. 73.

8. Pausanias. *Description of Greece*, Vol. 3, London and Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1933, pp. 5-7.

*Lacedaemon, have won Olympic victories, but none of them was more distinguished for their victories than her*⁹.

She was the first chariot victor in Olympia! It was well known that the ancient sports games were arenas for Greek male adult citizens. The public spheres constructed mainly by the Greek men in Panhellenic festivals, especially the Olympic Games indeed were closed circles which excluded Greek females. It is in this sense that chariot Olympic victor Cynisca set herself as an athletic role model for the Greeks, especially for women in ancient times.

The name and story of this female athletic victor were also noticed by other classical writers. Roman historian Plutarch also wrote a biography for Agesilaus, the brother of Cynisca, another member of Sparta king lineage. The intimate associations between brother and sister were also involved in Agesilaus biography:

*However, on seeing that some of the citizens esteemed themselves highly and were greatly lifted up because they bred racing horses, he persuaded his sister Cynisca to enter a chariot in the contests at Olympia, wishing to show the Greeks that the victory there was not a mark of any great excellence, but simply of wealth and lavish outlay*¹⁰.

Earlier than Plutarch, Xenophon, the Greek historian living in the 4th century BC, had recorded how Agesilaus persuaded his sister Cynisca to breed chariot horses and the huge benefits brought by the victory to “high personal renown”¹¹.

But, those females appeared at Olympia by occasional reasons, as the eminent showing of Cynisca in Olympia, had few essential connections with the structure of Greek politics. The high social position of Sparta women, especially the lady of quality was made by the special political structure and cultural tradition in Sparta. For females in this warrior polis, the primary meaning for sports

9. Pausanias. *Description of Greece*, Vol. 2, London and Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1926, p. 45.

10. Plutarch. *Agesilaus*, London and Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1917, p. 53.

11. Xenophon. *Agesilaus*, Vol. 7, London and Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1968, p. 123.

lied in “breeding strong male soldiers”¹², rather than for the healthy bodies of the mothers.

Reflections and Conclusions

Critical examinations to the original history were necessary to the validity of the numerous historical hypotheses.

Basing on the reconstruction of the victory list of Panhellenic horse and chariot races, all sources reveal the event’s historical trends in the Age of the polis. As a dangerous and expensive athletic event, horse and chariot races were the privilege of Greek nobles and eminent persons, whose depiction of victory in horses and chariots competitions sometimes points to an all-around personal power and a political interest besides and beyond the public sports.

The Greek public space which included the Olympic Games was a privilege which belonged to men in polis. The appearance of females in the Olympia meant nothing to the patriarchal Greek public sport. The demonstrating meanings of Cynisca as a female athletic role model to women in ancient Greek polis world had clearly limitations.

Generally, the paper argued that prominent athletes in ancient Greece were almost monopolized by the elites, so their positive social influences as the sports role models were limited, which made some essential differences from that of the modern Olympic oriented by the principles of democracy and human rights.

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12. Plutarch, *Lycurgus*, London and Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1914, p. 247.

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UNDERSTANDING ATHLETE MALTREATMENT AND PREVENTION INITIATIVES

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Introduction

Over the past 20 years, several high profile cases have come to light involving maltreatment of athletes. In 1995, British Olympic Swimming Coach, Paul Hickson, was convicted of fifteen counts of sexual assault, and was among the first to draw attention to sexual abuse in sport (Lang & Hartill, 2014). Shortly thereafter, Graham James, a Canadian coach of several National Hockey League athletes, was charged with 350 sexual acts against his athletes, and subsequently convicted and sentenced (Puxley, 2017). In December 2017, Gymnastics Canada became embroiled with cases of sexual misconduct involving two national level coaches. Most recently, Larry Nasser was convicted of sexual assaults of more than 250 gymnasts, many of whom competed for Team USA at the Olympic Games and became Olympic Champions (Kirby, 2018). The gymnastics cases have come at an interesting time in light of the sexual misconduct being observed within other sectors of society, spurring movements including *Me Too* and *Times Up* (Langone, 2018).

The majority of athlete maltreatment that has prominent in the media has involved sexual misconduct, however, it has also been revealed that athletes have experienced maltreatment in the forms, including physical and emotional abuse (Stirling, 2009). During the Larry Nassar trial, the gymnasts reported they experienced various types of abuse. While giving testimonies during the trial, gymnasts admitted that “the doctor provided a sharp contrast to the overtly abusive environment overseen by USA Gymnastics” (Hutchinson, 2018). One gymnast described the training environment as restricting, saying that Gymnas-

tics USA coaches “controlled what we ate, controlled how we stood, how they wanted our hair, how we should talk, when we could talk” (Hutchinson, 2018). Furthermore, athletes also reported a fear of disclosing injuries, and instead would push through them, and in some cases, competed with broken bones (Hutchinson, 2018). These reports suggest that athletes were also experiencing emotional and physical abuse from their coaches while they were training.

In addition to better understanding maltreatment, the recent gymnastics cases highlight the importance of structuring sport systems in such a way as to enable and facilitate the reporting of concerns or suspicions. During the Larry Nassar trial, for example, it became evident that many people in authority were aware of the abuse occurring, however, little action was taken to protect the athletes and prevent future occurrences (Hauser, 2018). As a result, USA Gymnastics and The United States Olympic Committee have been called into question about their involvement in these incidences and their complicity. A common attribute amongst cases of athlete abuse is that the offending coaches develop strong allies within the sport organization and leverage these bonds to support their denial (Boocock, 2002).

In response to incidences of athlete maltreatment, sport organizations have begun to develop policies and have mandated educational programs for coaches and administrators in an effort to protect athletes from maltreatment (Boocock, 2002). Educational programs have been created around the world, including Safe4Athletes, Respect in Sport, SafeSport USA and most recently SafeSport International (Kerr, Stirling, & MacPherson, 2014; Safe Sport International, 2017). This paper will address related research and cases regarding all forms of athlete maltreatment, a critique of preventive initiatives, and recommendations for future safeguarding measures.

Defining Maltreatment

In the present state, maltreatment in sport is categorized based on the relationship the perpetrator has with the victim. If there is a critical relationship present—where one party relies on another for a sense of security, trust and fulfilment of needs (Crooks & Wolfe, 2007)—maltreatment is considered relational. Examples of critical relationships in sport include parent/child and coach/athlete relationships. Relational maltreatment includes sexual, emotional and physical

abuse, as well as neglect (Stirling, 2009). On the other hand, non-relational maltreatment does not occur in the context of a critical relationship and includes harassment, bullying, corruption, exploitation, and child labour (Stirling, 2009). Examples of non-critical relationships in sport may exist between athletes and sport administrators, officials, and teammates. This distinction is important because it allows us to recognize the influence of the power differential that can contribute to the potential for harm within these relationships.

Athletes often cite that their relationships with their coaches are one of the most important relationships they may have in their athletic career. Not only do athletes spend upwards of 30 hours a week with their coaches, they often describe their coach as a family member, or having a relationship similar to a parent-child (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Stirling & Kerr, 2009). These relationships often extend beyond the hours of training and technical expertise, to coaches having influence over their mental training, diets, sleep patterns, social life and interpersonal relationships (Stirling & Kerr, 2009; Tomlinson & Yorganci, 1997). While this is often viewed as a positive influence on the training and development of an athlete, the power coaches hold, along with the closeness and trust valued by the athlete can be a climate where exploitation and maltreatment may occur (Tomlinson & Yorganci, 1997). Consistent with child abuse literature, abusive relationships can share many similar characteristics of positive relationships, which can create a grey area between a healthy and harmful relationship (Burke, 2001).

Research on maltreatment in sport primarily began with a focus on sexual abuse (Brackenridge, 1994; Brackenridge, 1997), partially in response to the high profile cases of sexual abuse reported in the media – including the cases of Graham James and Paul Hickson. To this day, sexual abuse research continues to have the most attention in research and in the media compared to other forms of relational abuse. Sexual abuse has been defined as “any unwanted sexual activity, with perpetrators using force, making threats, or taking advantage of victims not able to give consent” (American Psychological Association, 2018). This includes contact (oral or genital penetration, fondling, groping, kissing, etc.) and non-contact offenses (exchange of rewards for sexual favours, indecent exposure, jokes, comments, etc.) (Brackenridge, 1997; Stirling, 2009). Sexual violence can occur with athletes of any race, class, gender and age, however, there is an increased risk for minors, females, athletes with a disability and LGBTQ athletes (Mountjoy et al., 2016).

Despite the predominance of research on sexual abuse, Kirby, Greaves, and Hankivsky (2000) reported that emotional abuse may be the most frequently occurring form of abuse in the sport environment, with 22-25% of competitive athletes reportedly experiencing emotionally abusive coaching practices. More recently, Alexander, Stafford, and Fry (2015) sampled over 6000 athletes in the United Kingdom and found that 74% of athletes competing at the national and international levels reported experiencing emotional harm in their main sport, and that 20% of national level athletes, and 32% of international level athletes reportedly experience emotional harm on a regular basis. The behaviours most commonly responsible for emotional harm include being criticized about performance, being shouted or sworn at, and being embarrassed, teased, humiliated and bullied (Alexander et al., 2016).

One of the primary challenges in preventing this type of abuse is the normalization of these behaviours in sport. The behaviours that are consistent with emotional maltreatment are often considered “just coaching techniques”. Moreover, the culture of sport is often laid in a foundation of aggression, and the “win-at-all-cost” mentality is praised and glorified (Hills & Kennedy, 2012; Stirling & Kerr, 2013). However, despite the normalization, there are a variety of negative physical and psychological outcomes that occur because of emotional maltreatment, including decreased physical and psychological health, personal development, social development, and self-esteem, and can result in eating disorders, somatic illnesses and self-harm (Mountjoy et al., 2016; Mulen et al., 1996).

Research on physical abuse in sport has also been limited, with the topic only being addressed through the analysis of emotional-physical abuse (throwing objects and other physical acts of aggression) and using exercise as punishment (Stirling & Kerr, 2008; Kerr et al., 2016). Exercise as punishment is understood as an action being administered to an athlete to cause discomfort or pain, or to correct a behaviour that is not connected, or logically related to, to sport performance (Canadian Centre for Ethics in Sport, 2018; Durrant & Ensom, 2004). This can include holding a position for a long period of time (splits, planks, wall-sits, etc.) and additional conditioning (sprints, running laps, pushups) that are not associated with typical or planned training (Kerr et al., 2016). Other forms of physical abuse that have not been explored in empirical literature include restriction of food and water, unsafe training and/or environmental conditions, and physical violence (Stirling, 2009). Outcomes of physical abuse include

decreased motivation in sport, negative emotions towards coaches, reduced concentration and fatigue (Kerr et al., 2016), indicating this is an important area to be explored in future research.

At this time, there is a complete absence of empirical work in sport on neglectful forms of maltreatment, so there is no data to report. In sport research, the only time this subject has been addressed is through neglect as a form of emotional maltreatment, in which athletes reported they were most affected when being denied attention by their coaches, compared to their coaches' verbal or physical behaviours (Stirling & Kerr, 2008). Altogether, this overview of relational maltreatment signifies the importance of deepening our understanding of the various forms of relational maltreatment in sport.

In the current state of athlete maltreatment research, the primary focus has been on relational maltreatment, specifically in the coach-athlete relationship, because this is the most commonly reported form of maltreatment. However, it is also important to recognize other areas in which athletes can experience harm in sport. This can include harm from other teammates, for example, hazing, bullying, and sexual misconduct, as well as at an organizational level, including maltreatment from spectators, medical mismanagement and doping (Mountjoy, Rhind, Tiivas, & Leglise, 2015). To the author's knowledge, none of these areas have yet to be explored by researchers, however, are deserving of attention when discussing the safeguarding of athletes.

Current Safeguarding Measures

Reacting to the various cases of maltreatment in sport, sport organizations around the world have been pressured to demonstrate their efforts in prevention and protection of their athletes. As such, policies, procedures, educational programs and advocacy initiatives have been created (Kerr et al., 2014). Protection initiatives include Respect in Sport (Canada), Play By The Rules (Australia), Safe4Athletes (United States), SafeSport (United States) and the Child Protection in Sport Unit (United Kingdom) (Kerr et al., 2014). Most recently, the International Olympic Committee released its IOC Safeguarding Toolkit in 2017, an online resource designed to provide sport organizations with principles and guidelines for safeguarding the health and wellbeing of athletes, particularly in regards to harassment and abuse (Safeguarding Toolkit, 2017, p. 6).

While these initiatives were created in a need to protect athletes, Kerr, Stirling, and MacPherson (2014) noted that these programs have not yet been empirically evaluated and lack evidence of effectiveness in reducing harm or effectiveness in the programs' intended outcomes. The programs were predominantly created to address the growing number of high profile cases on sexual abuse, however, also expanded their reach to include physical and emotional abuse, while overlooking neglect altogether (Kerr et al., 2014). Moreover, while systematically reviewing safeguarding initiatives, Kerr and colleagues (2014) found that the definitions and examples of the various forms of abuse were not consistent with relevant research, and were, at times, inaccurate. The programs failed to address the power differential held between coaches and athletes, which is a large contributor to a potentially harmful environment (Kerr et al., 2014).

Many of these programs are also available through online portals. The strength of this distribution is the accessibility to a high volume of people at a low cost to the organizations. However, because many of these programs are run through online videos, it can be a very passive style of learning, and the effectiveness of this program being delivered in this manner has yet to be evaluated at this time. Overall, the analysis found that improvements can be made to include information based on relevant research through the educational programs.

As previously noted, the prevention of maltreatment in sport should extend beyond the perpetrator and victim to involve a cultural and organizational shift to ensure change (Mountjoy et al., 2015). For example, going back to the Larry Nassar example with USA Gymnastics, there were a several organizational regulations that could have been in place to protect the athletes, including ensuring the athletes were not left alone with the doctor during treatments, having a safe and confidential way for the athletes to report the incidences, and outlining consequences that would be enforced within the organization if these instances occur. In the present state, safeguarding initiatives have not yet addressed the external factors that are required for a societal change, including addressing the normalization of abusive behaviours, particularly those of emotional abuse, within the sport domain (Kerr et al., 2014). This suggests that more attention needs to be devoted to addressing the issue at a broader level, instead of placing individual responsibility on actors involved (coaches and athletes). By involving a greater number of people, including sport organizations, parent organizations,

and coaching associations, there is an increased likelihood of a cultural shift occurring and a decreased tolerance of the harmful behaviours that have become normalized in sport (Mountjoy et al., 2016).

Future recommendations

Based on this review, it is evident that efforts are being made to eradicate maltreatment in sport and safeguard athletes from potential harm, however, there is still a long way to go to ensure safe sport. From a research perspective, there are still several gaps in the literature that should be addressed to gather a deeper understanding of the issues and to better inform potential solutions and prevention measures. Future directions include: establishing consistent definitions and conceptualizations of maltreatment; collecting more data on the prevalence of various forms of relational and non-relational maltreatment around the world; and broadening the understanding of experiences based on gender, sexual orientation, ethnoracial considerations, sport type, gender of coach, and influence on single gender versus mixed team.

In practice, there is a need to ground prevention programs in research; improve education of all stakeholders involved in safeguarding (coaches, administrators, organizations, etc.); conduct empirical evaluations of current preventative programs; establish neutral, third-party reporting avenues; and implement an ethic of care approach to sport to counteract the performance focus that has been the prominent discourse in sport. While this review is encouraging in the sense that there is movement on this issue, it is important to remember that sport has many benefits to youth –physically, mentally, socially, and developmentally– and, therefore, we must act in a way to protect our athletes and provide a safe and positive environment.

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BEYOND THE BANK: PUBLIC DIPLOMACY OF THE MODERN OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

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Introduction

It is nearly impossible to imagine the Olympic Games without branding. From the five interlocking rings that make up the Olympic logo to well-known sponsors including Coca Cola and Visa, you cannot travel around a host city without seeing some sort of branding at work. Cities themselves are responsible for their own brand with the creation of unique logos meant to distinguish their time as host from others. Some have used the opportunity to create a memorable logo using a hint of culture, as happened when Sydney 2000 organizers used the likeness of the world-famous Sydney Opera House in the flame of their logo and a boomerang as the torchbearers' legs. Others have chosen more perplexing logos leading to criticism, as happened with London 2012's logo¹.

Beyond logos and branding, the Olympic Games provide an opportunity for the host city to market itself to billions of people over seventeen consecutive days and nights. Through the years however, events beyond the control of Olympic organizers have derailed their intended messaging, including the massacre of the Israeli Olympic Team at the 1972 Summer Olympics in Munich.

1. Lepper, J. (2007). *Controversial London 2012 logo sparks public backlash*. Retrieved from <https://www.campaignlive.co.uk/article/controversial-london-2012-logo-sparks-public-backlash/662581>

Other hosts have had the opportunity to promote their cities and countries thwarted altogether by world wars.

But these cases are the exception, not the rule. Think back to Beijing 2008, when 2,008 drummers left those who watched the opening ceremony on 8 July 2008 (08/08/08) both at home and at the Beijing Olympic Stadium (Bird's Nest), in awe at the astonishing synchronicity achieved by the performers. Four years later in London, facsimiles of Queen Elizabeth II and actor Daniel Craig parachuted out of a helicopter hovering above London Stadium, while the instantly recognizable theme from the James Bond films played on the stadium's sound system. These choreographed examples of nation branding are specifically designed to invoke something that resonates in someone watching the spectacle. It is part of much larger, yet relatively unexplored field known as public diplomacy, which is the role communications plays when dealing with an international audience.

If you look at cities considered the most successful at hosting the Olympic Games over the years, they tended to invest not only in athletes' training and infrastructure but making sure after the fortnight of competition was over and athletes, coaches and visitors from around the world returned home, they would never forget what they had been a part of. These hosts not only marketed themselves during the Olympics, but before they commenced and after the Olympic flame was extinguished.

Previous hosts that maximized their public diplomacy legacy and achieved lasting success included Sydney, London and Vancouver. Those that failed in this regard and left themselves open to criticism from local residents, press and the International Olympic Committee itself include Atlanta, Sochi and Rio. This article examines what went wrong in two of those cities (*Atlanta and Sochi*) and what went right for two others (*Sydney and Vancouver*).

Atlanta 1996

The Games of the XXVI Olympiad were scheduled to be held a century after 241 athletes from fourteen countries competed in Athens at the first modern Olympic Games. As such, many expected the city to be awarded Centennial Olympic Games of 1996. Other cities were interested in hosting them as well, and competition quickly emerged from Toronto, Melbourne and Atlanta. Cho-

sen by the United States Olympic Committee over Nashville and Minneapolis, Atlanta was selected with hopes of repairing the image of the American South around the world after decades of racial injustice and violence².

But when International Olympic Committee officials convened in Tokyo in 1990, it was Atlanta, not Athens, that was awarded the Centennial Olympic Games. Almost immediately, Greek and Australian media cried foul, wondering how a city of Atlanta's size and stature could possibly host the world's biggest sporting event instead of Athens or Melbourne. Further accusations were leveled at IOC members from the German magazine, *Der Spiegel*, Australian Olympic Committee President John Coates and others, accusing Atlanta of dirty tactics in order to secure the Games³.

While the city may have been awarded the Olympics under a cloud of suspicion, organizers planned the opening ceremony around American icons known the world over. John Williams conducted "Olympic Fanfare", the anthem he composed for the 1984 Summer Olympics in Los Angeles, that has since become synonymous with the Olympic Games. Legendary boxer Muhammad Ali was chosen to light the Olympic cauldron, bringing those in attendance to their feet. The closing ceremony featured performances from music royalty, including Gloria Estefan and Stevie Wonder.

While the United States dominated the medal table, bringing home thirty-six more medals than second place Germany, the legacy of Atlanta 1996 has largely been forgotten⁴. Unlike Los Angeles, which hosted its opening and closing ceremonies at a renovated Los Angeles Memorial Coliseum in 1984, Atlanta's venues, including the Georgia Dome and Centennial Olympic Stadium, have in large part been torn down or repurposed. However, Atlanta 1996 is most remembered not for shoddy venues or scandal, but terrorism.

Five years before September 11th, the Olympic Games became the target

2. Weisman, S. (1990). *Atlanta Selected Over Athens for 1996 Olympics*. Retrieved from <https://www.nytimes.com/1990/09/19/sports/atlanta-selected-over-athens-for-1996-olympics.html>

3. Drape, J. (1999). *OLYMPICS; Atlanta Games' Organizers Set to Face Questions*. Retrieved from <https://www.nytimes.com/1999/01/27/sports/olympics-atlanta-games-organizers-set-to-face-questions.html>

4. The 101 medals the United States won represented a decline of seven medals from Team USA's performance in Barcelona four years earlier at the Games of the XXV Olympiad.

of a terrorist attack for the second time in a generation, as explosions rocked Centennial Olympic Park, killing an Atlanta resident and injuring 111 more including a Turkish cameraman who later died of a heart attack he suffered while rushing to cover the bombing. By the time of the closing ceremony, IOC President Juan Antonio Samaranch refused to acknowledge Atlanta as the greatest Olympics ever, as was tradition. People simply wanted to put the “Bubba Games” behind them.

Sydney 2000

The Games of the New Millennium are considered one of the most critical ever in terms of advancing the Olympic Movement, and a leading benchmark that future hosts looked to emulate⁵. Why? In part because Australia maximized its cultural diplomacy in the lead up to Sydney 2000. Ansett Australia Airlines, which flew people around Australia and across the Pacific, changed the livery on many of its planes to a Sydney 2000 theme. Foster’s, the world-renowned Australian lager, released limited edition cans in packaging that read, “We’re backing Australia’s Olympians with every drop of Foster’s on Earth”⁶.

During the opening ceremony, event organizers paid tribute to the most recognizable parts of Australia, including the Great Barrier Reef and Aborigines. When the Games commenced, Australia showed its prowess in the pool, bringing home eighteen medals from the Sydney International Aquatic Centre alone, second only to the United States’ thirty-two. Aboriginal track-and-field star, Cathy Freeman, who lit the Olympic flame during the opening ceremony, won gold in the women’s 400-meters, electrifying the home crowd in attendance.

At the closing ceremony, Australian culture was on full display once more. Sun shaped balloons, as well as performers dressed as surfers filled the stage. Almost every Australian pop icon was there including singer Kylie Minogue, golfer Greg Norman and Crocodile Dundee actor Paul Hogan. Men at Work, whose hit song, “Down Under”, was seen as instrumental in furthering Austra-

5. Rogge, J. (2012). *Was London 2012 the best Olympics ever?* Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2012/nov/23/london-2012-olympics-best-ever>

6. Latham, R. (2015). *15 Years on From the Sydney Olympics*. Retrieved from <https://www.nla.gov.au/blogs/web-archiving/2015/09/29/15-years-on-from-the-sydney-olympics>

lian diplomacy in the early 1980s, reunited to perform the quasi-anthem before a crowd of 114,714 at Sydney Olympic Stadium.

Following their performance, NBC Olympics host Bob Costas commented on how the song was played after every Australian victory at the Aquatic Centre and how everyone had fallen in love with Australia during the Games. Before the lights went out and athletes returned home, country music icon Slim Dusty took the stage with his signature acoustic guitar to sing “Waltzing Matilda”. A song of loss and sorrow, it was the perfect way to say goodbye to the Games of the XXVII Olympiad.

Less than a year later, nineteen terrorists with links to Al-Qaeda flew two hijacked aircrafts into the World Trade Center towers in New York City, another into the Pentagon just outside Washington, D.C. and crashed a final plane into a field in Shanksville, Pennsylvania. The Olympic Movement would never be the same. From the Winter Olympics held months later in Salt Lake City onward, increased security and precautions taken in order to prevent another Munich or Atlanta, have taken an event aimed at bringing the world together in peace and harmony and transformed it into one of the most heavily fortified locations on Earth.

Vancouver 2010

In one of the closest votes ever, the 2010 Winter Olympics were awarded to the city of Vancouver over PyeongChang, South Korea, 56-53. The Vancouver Organizing Committee realized early on it didn’t have the same financial resources to build state-of-the-art venues that previous and subsequent Olympic host cities spent billions constructing. Instead, VANOC renovated B.C. Place to host the opening and closing ceremonies and improved existing infrastructure around Whistler-Blackcomb for skiing events.

With venues in place, Vancouver got to work on an ad campaign aimed at increasing awareness of the Olympic Games, while boosting tourism after their conclusion. Collectively known as “Hello B.C.”, the ads featured celebrities including Steve Nash, Eric McCormack, Michael J. Fox and Ryan Reynolds, showcasing British Columbia from its majestic mountains to pristine coastline. Each celebrity described the province as something (e.g. big, beautiful, sophisticated, etc.) before telling people they, “had to be here!” The campaign was

a hit, scoring millions of views around the world, leading to a rise in tourism, notably from Australia and the United Kingdom, where the number of tourists increased one hundred percent from the year before. There was also a significant increase in German tourism, which increased thirty-three percent⁷.

During the opening ceremony, Canada maximized already famous national icons including singer Bryan Adams, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police and a traditional pow-wow performed by First Nations tribes. While Canada brought home twenty-six medals, its victory over the United States in the men's ice hockey gold medal game gave the country the win it coveted most. The excitement surrounding U.S.A. – Canada was so intense, that Canadian Prime Minister Stephen Harper and U.S. President Barack Obama wagered a case of beer on the outcome of the game. Two weeks after the closing ceremony, a case of Yuengling arrived at Harper's home in Ottawa, courtesy of the American ambassador.

While "Hello B.C." and Canada's success on the medal stand were more than most countries could hope to accomplish as host of the Olympic Games, Vancouver's legacy is proof the Games can operate on budget using existing infrastructure. Remodeling B.C. Place, rather than constructing a new stadium solely for the purpose of hosting the opening and closing ceremonies, as was the case four years later in Sochi, is already being adopted. Beijing has begun the process of converting venues used during the 2008 Summer Olympics, including the Water Cube, for different uses as they prepare to host the 2022 Winter Olympics.

Sochi 2014

While the estimated cost of hosting the 2014 Winter Olympics exceeded the combined costs of Vancouver 2010, London 2012, Rio 2016 and PyeongChang 2018, Sochi nonetheless faced concerns as to whether or not the city would be prepared when athletes and visitors arrived in the Black Sea resort town. Social media posts from athletes showing photos of paint drying on walls and shower curtains still in their original packaging did nothing to alleviate the stress felt by

7. CBC. (2011). *Vancouver Olympics drove big tourism boost*. Retrieved from <http://www.cbc.ca/news/vancouver-olympics-drove-big-tourism-boost-1.1076592>

organizers. Around the same time, the Russian Federal Assembly passed anti-homosexual legislation that was widely condemned around the world. Making matters worse were reports of stray dogs and cats being rounded up and culled⁸.

However, the headlines and calls for boycotts leading up to the Sochi Olympics dissipated as the opening ceremony approached. While the ceremony became famous for the fifth Olympic ring failing to open from a snowflake hanging above the floor at Fisht Stadium, the remainder of festivities showcased Russian history and culture, including a balloon version of iconic St. Basil's Cathedral, Matryoshka (nesting dolls) and performances from the world-famous Russian Ballet. Russia then proceeded to dominate its competition during the Games, bringing home twenty-nine medals, nearly doubling the amount it won in Vancouver four years earlier. During the waning days of the Sochi Olympic Games, Russian armed forces invaded the Crimea, putting a damper on the closing ceremony. Little did anyone know this was only the beginning of Sochi's nightmare legacy.

Two years after the closing ceremony, Canadian lawyer Richard McLaren published a detailed report accusing the Russian government of attempting to cover up widespread doping during the 2014 Winter Olympics⁹. The report included damning evidence of FSB operatives breaking into testing labs and tampering with containers filled with athletes' urine; in some cases, switching tainted urine samples with clean ones from the opposite gender, a dead giveaway.

In response to Part I of the McLaren Report, the IAAF –track-and-field's governing body– banned the Russian athletics team from competing at the 2016 Summer Olympics in Rio de Janeiro. Likewise, the International Weightlifting Federation (IWF) banned Russian weightlifters from competing, a ruling that was upheld on appeal to the Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS). While the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) recommended the entire Russian Olympic Team be banned from Rio, IOC President Thomas Bach decided against a blanket ban.

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8. Malloy, A. (2014). *Sochi killing stray dogs in preparation for the Winter Olympics*. Retrieved from <https://www.independent.co.uk/news/world/europe/sochi-killing-stray-dogs-in-preparation-for-the-winter-olympics-9105046.html>
 9. McLaren, R. (2016). *The Independent Person Second Report – Professor Richard H. McLaren O.C.* Retrieved from https://www.wada-ama.org/sites/default/files/resources/files/mclaren_report_part_ii_2.pdf

Before the 2018 Winter Olympics in PyeongChang, the IOC ruled that Russian winter athletes must prove their clean drug testing history and only allowed those with one to compete as Olympic Athletes from Russia (*OAR*). When the team entered PyeongChang Olympic Stadium during the opening and closing ceremonies, they carried an Olympic flag instead of a Russian one.

When Russian athletes won gold, the Olympic anthem played, not the Russian anthem. The performances of Russian athletes at the 2018 Winter Olympics will be recorded in history under Olympic Athletes from Russia. Separately, the McLaren Report, Crimea and pre-Olympics controversies would be enough to damage any Olympic legacy. Combined they permanently overshadowed any positivity to come out of Sochi 2014.

Conclusion

Hosting the Olympic Games is incredibly difficult, a problem exacerbated by media coverage of host cities in the years after the Games have ended showing abandoned venues and graphs of cost overruns in cities that failed to create a positive legacy. Moreover, there is no exact blueprint for future hosts to follow to create a public diplomacy legacy on par with Sydney and Vancouver. Over the years, cities that failed to invest in a long-term legacy end up being criticized in *The New York Times* or *The Guardian*, as was the case less than a year after Rio.

In the case of Sydney and Vancouver, each took a different approach to hosting the Games while establishing a positive legacy that exists today. Sochi's short-term legacy has gone from a country returning to Winter Olympic greatness, to a country only returning there through deceit and doping. Atlanta's complicated legacy of terrorism, bribery accusations and the failure of a sitting IOC President to proclaim the Games as the "best ever", as was tradition, has prevented the city from leaving an indelible mark on the Olympic Movement.

Moving forward it's clear that future hosts of the Olympic Games put not only their own legacy in danger, but the Olympic Movement as a whole if they fail to adopt a successful public diplomacy plan. In 2015 and 2017 when the last two Olympic Games were awarded, there were only two cities to choose from during each bidding cycle. What once saw dozens of world-class cities ruthlessly competing to host the Olympics has now become less than a handful

of cities, some of which the IOC has stated are ill-prepared to host the Games, with feign interest in the hosting the Games. If the Olympic Movement is to succeed in future decades, public diplomacy must take as important role in organizing committees as the logos and stadiums they design¹⁰.

Links

Vancouver 2010 ad -<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RVcQ86Omn0I>

Sydney 2000 closing ceremony video - <https://www.dailymotion.com/video/xfpqqf>

10. *This article is an abridged version of Mr Essex's master's thesis from the University of Southern California (2018). If you have any questions, comments or would like a copy of his entire thesis, please email Mr Essex at messex@usc.edu*

DEVELOPMENT OF LONG-TERM ATHLETE DEVELOPMENT TRAINING SYSTEM FOR JUDO ATHLETES IN LATVIA

Einārs PIMENOVŠ (LAT)

1. Abstract

The dream of each trainer is to raise the Olympic champion. First of all, you need to find a very talented and motivated person who will be able to train a lot and achieve the goals. To find a good athlete you need a great selection from a lot of athletes.

In Latvia, the two main problems seen in developing young judoka are a lack of the foundational skill development and an over-emphasis on competition versus training. This project goal was to increase the number of athletes in Latvian judo by introducing a new training system (katas) and new style competition (skilled-based versus fighting-based). Using theory adapted from the Long Term Athlete Development model (LTAD) model, a new short LTAD theoretical description was created and research into Kata competition was conducted.

2. Problem statement

When examining the current approach used in Latvia to develop young judoka, two main problems are apparent. Firstly, there is a lack of the use of a foundational training practice, which is called katas. There are two principal ways of practicing Judo: Kata and Randori. Kata, which literally means “form”, is practiced following a formal system of prearranged exercise, while Randori, meaning “free exercise” is practiced freely, like sparring/ fighting. Kata of Judo

is the best way of defence and attack in various cases, being theoretically systematised. Katas develops synapses and movement skills.

A second issue with athlete development deals with the area of early specialisation. There is a heavy emphasis on competition for young judo athletes in Latvia 6-8 years young kids. This results in a problem with children not having fun, crying after fights (because it is not easy to accept that the other guy beat you by catching your neck, squeeze it and then smash you to the ground). This is causing fear and unpleasantness and is taking away from skills development.

Latvia can choose another way to work to develop young judo athletes. This can start with changing rules in kids competition and introduce new competition disciplines.

3. Mission

Using aspects of the Long Term Athlete Development model, the mission of this project is to help develop kata as part of the training of young athletes and use this to create kata competitions focused on skills development. And for better training of children another mission is to create *New style* competition for kids.

4. SWOT

Strengths

- Coaches who will share this
- Support of LOC
- Support of LDF

Weaknesses

- Many coaches are not knowledgeable in this field
- Lack of information and research

Opportunities

- Available people and places to host judo training
- Increasing number of players

- Coaches' education
- Increasing the number of coaches

Threats

- Financial constraints
- Coaches who are resistant to change

5. Intended outcomes

The intended outcomes of this project are listed below:

1. Create new short LTAD (Long Term Athlete Development) theoretical description for Latvian judo trainers which incorporates judo "Kata" historical and theoretical description. This will also include analysis of Wrestling, Judo classification, systematics and terminology.
2. Creation of *New style* and *Kata* competition rules and organisation description.

6. Theoretical framework

6.1. Theory used in project

The following theory was used to inform the project:

- Literature analysis about judo kata
- Sport theory literature
- Judo technique classification
- LTAD for JUDO
- Judo games for sportsmen in trainings
- Psychological literature

Each sports coach and teacher must know age peculiarities of movement learning, physiological peculiarities as well as know how much the load and intensity to use in trainings. Therefore, in this project is good information about these topics:

- Age factors in movement acquisition
- Load amount and intensity
- Classification, systematics and terminology of wrestling, JUDO

- Psychological preparation
- Training methods

6.2. Long term athlete development (LTAD)

Taking into account generally accepted and researched theory on specific characters of age groups, the materials on long-term training of athletes (LTAD) prepared by Canadian sport scientists was used.

6.3. Introduction of LTAD

A long-term development model can provide guidance for a significant period of time, from early childhood to one's golden years. The Judo Canada Long-Term Athlete Development Model (LTADM) is a comprehensive document designed to provide the Canadian Judo community with a blueprint to facilitate options for development and life-long participation in the sport of judo.

The Government of Canada, intent on continually improving Olympic results, decided to provide tools to help generate superior results. The lack of systematic development of young Canadian athletes was identified as a major factor in our athletes' inability to compete against the best in the world.

The new approach focuses on the general framework of athlete development with special reference to growth, maturation and development, trainability, and sport system alignment and integration. This approach suggests that in order to develop a world-level contender in any sport, progress must systematically focus first on developing well-rounded athletes and then on sport specific training. [1]

“There is no secret to why the Japanese are the strongest judokas in the world. They train hard”.

– Doug Rogers, Olympic Silver Medallist 1964

Such facts cannot be ignored and it requires Judo Canada to address the following general objectives:

1. To attract new participants of all ages to judo.
2. To fully understand and satisfy the initial and ongoing motivational needs of new participants.
3. To make judo fun and enjoyable for all participants (new and experienced).

4. To continuously seek new ways and means of engaging, developing and retaining recreational and developing judoka.
5. To develop long-term plans for improved success of our high-performance participants.
6. To provide meaningful opportunities for high-performance participants after withdrawing from the competitive/elite stream.

Regardless of who is involved in judo and what motivates them, all participants have the right to the best sporting experience possible. To accomplish this task, Judo Canada's approach addresses the principal needs of athletic development to achieve one's maximum potential. The principles behind this approach are based on the physical, mental, emotional, and cognitive development of each age group. Each stage reflects a different point in athlete development.

Ensure physical literacy upon which excellence in all sports can be built by:

- Promoting physical literacy in all children, from early childhood to late adolescence, through quality daily physical activity in the schools, and a common approach to developing physical abilities in community recreation and elite sport programmes.
- Involving all Canadians in LTAD, and including athletes with a disability.

Long Term Athlete Development For Judo In Latvia

When looking at the above statements, consideration must also be given to the importance of Long Term Athlete Development. The LTAD is a process whereby sport organisations, coaches and trainers use scientific principles of human growth and development in physical, mental, emotional and cognitive components to design appropriate training, competition and recovery programmes so that participants develop at appropriate rates and are not placed in unsafe and/or inappropriate training or competition situations which could potentially be dangerous or harmful, or cause them to prematurely drop out of the sport and/or physical activity system. Parents, teachers and coaches are demanding winners at all ages. Most training is competition specific and tactical, aimed at obtaining immediate result. Chronological age is used rather than the athlete's developmental age. Training programmes are often watered down adult versions. The key to the success of any sport training programme, and especially for a late specialisation sport such as judo, is creating a solid foundation of both fundamental movement sports skills. [1]

Judo is thus classed as a late specialisation sport and it is not beneficial for the child only to do Judo at a young age. T. Bompá (Bompá & Haff, 2009) suggested that the suitable age to start practicing Judo is 8-10 years and to start with Judo specialisation is 15-16 years old.

According to Judo Canada LTAD the development pathway for a judoka is as follows [1]:

- ACTIVE START – (Age U7)
- FUNDAMENTALS – (Age U10)
- LEARNING TO TRAIN – (Age U12, U14)
- TRAINING TO TRAIN – (Age U16)
- TRAINING TO COMPETE – (U18, U21)
- TRAINING TO WIN – (Age 18+/-)
- ACTIVE FOR LIFE – (enter at any age)

The Latvia Judo Federation currently does not have an implemented LTAD in place, but because of the important role that it plays in our sporting lives, it is of the utmost importance to develop and implement a LTAD structure for Latvia Judo. Virtually all other countries that have National or single sport LTAD programmes however compared to Latvia they have much larger populations, stronger economies, larger sport participant populations and better developed sport systems in terms of availability of funding for sport, training programmes, trained and full time personnel, more and better dedicated sport facilities and well-established sport club systems.

7. Methodological procedure used

To conduct this project the following methods were used:

1. Analysis of literature sources
2. Pedagogical observation
3. Testing
4. Competition
5. Questioning

8. Results obtained/Project produced

8.1. New short LTAD theoretical description created

ACTIVE START – (Age U7)

Focuses on daily, physical activity in unstructured and semi-structured environments emphasising basic movement skills.

FUNDAMENTALS – (Age U10)

Focuses on the ABC'S of athleticism in a fun, participatory environment. Basic movement skills and general development leading to physical literacy are most important. [1] At these ages judo coaches must use JUDO GAME COLLECTION [4] and of course start to use simple games from PSYCHOLOGICAL PREPARATION. [2]

At this age group judo coaches must use “NEW STYLE COMPETITION” for kids and of course start to learn and compete in JUDO KATA COMPETITION. Start to learn self-defense.

LEARNING TO TRAIN – (Age U12, U14)

Begins integration of physical, emotional, cognitive and affective development; emphasis on skills development. For the purposes of Judo we have found it necessary to sub-divide this category into two stages, based on age. [1]

We must use JUDO GAME COLLECTION [4] and of course we must to use games from PSYCHOLOGICAL PREPARATION. [2] And of course compete in KATA COMPETITION. Start to learn self-defense.

TRAINING TO TRAIN – (Age U16)

Consists of sport-specific skills development with emphasis on aerobic and strength development according to Peak Height Velocity indicators. [1]

We must start learn relaxation method and a lot of other psychological training methods. And of course compete in KATA COMPETITION. Continue to learn self-defense.

TRAINING TO COMPETE – (U18, U21)

Emphasises sport-specific technical, tactical and fitness preparation. [1]

At this age athletes need to know PRT (psyche regulatory training). [2] Compete in KATA COMPETITION. Continue to learn self-defense.

TRAINING TO WIN – (Age 18+/-)

Maximises all physical, mental, emotional, and ancillary capabilities with a view to succeed competitively on an international stage. [1]

At this age athlete need to know PRT (psyche regulatory training). Compete in KATA COMPETITION. Continue to learn self-defense.

ACTIVE FOR LIFE – (enter at any age)

Provides an opportunity to remain in or move into an active, recreational or age group competitive lifestyle with increased participation in other facets of the sport experience (refereeing, coaching, instructing, administration). [1]

Compete in KATA COMPETITION. Continue to learn self-defense.

9. Kata historical and theoretical description

Jigaro Kano categorically opposed a training philosophy depending on the “survival of the fittest”. According to him, the word “Judo” had two connotations: “Judo in the wide sense” (jodan judo), and “Judo in the narrow sense” (gedan judo). He explained: Judo in the narrow sense is that form which has evolved from the ancient military art of jujutsu. [3]

Ten chief purposes of kata:

1. To afford a basic training method for Judo.
2. To develop representative basic Judo techniques.
3. To ensure harmonious technical development and a wide range of Judo techniques.
4. To ensure a harmoniously developed body.

5. To improve mental control.
6. To display the mechanics and spirit of Judo by exhibition.
7. To promote the development of the Judo spirit.
8. To ensure the development of self-defense principles and values.
9. To provide a suitable kind of Judo practice for all.
10. To ensure the preservation of the traditional symbolic values of Judo.

10. Judo questionnaire results

The questionnaire can be found in the Appendix 11. The majority of respondents are athletes ranging from age 7 to 16. All respondents answered that they like to engage in judo, and that is already cheering news. That means that all athletes come on their own free will. They more likely want to master throwing techniques of judo than grappling techniques. The 67% of respondents like holding techniques, 62% –choking techniques and only 51%– joint lock techniques.

By questioning on NEW STYLE COMPETITION for kids:

54% of respondents (almost all athletes, age 12, gave positive answer) like fights for tail, older athletes prefer other disciplines. 69% like sumo wrestling and 72% like fighting for a ball. By researching this type of activities, I came to the conclusion that children prefer them better, because youth pay more attention to judo and “KATU” competitions.

Answering the question on acquisition of throws of the judo “KYO” (student level), 79% of respondents answered positively. Asked to answer, whether you want to participate in judo competition, only 54% of respondents answered positively and 46% said no. As I suspected, not all of judokas like to participate in the competitions. However, on the question would you like to participate in Katu competitions and do you consider it a great opportunity to earn medal, 77% of respondents gave a positive answer.

Consequently, each age group has their own wishes and needs. Not all can be champions and not all want and can fight in judo competitions, because there are tens of reasons why they cannot do that. But as a great opportunity they consider participating in competitions for kids (NEW STLYE COMPETITION), as well as “KATU” competitions.

Studies in this field will be continued and it is suggested also that other

trainers create questionnaires in order to find out the opinion of athletes, to vary training approach and make some changes.

11. New style competition (skills based)

This is a new style competition that was created in order for children to have greater motivation to attend practices and give them a good opportunity to participate in competitions where they can earn desired medals. In comparison to the real judo competition, here everything happens as a game. The athletes compete for a tail, a ball and try to push each other out of the field – sumo. From the psychological point of view, it is easier for younger athletes to participate in this kind of competitions. By this we prepare athletes step-by-step. We train them to get used to the model of competition. Children learn to walk on the mat, taking into account rituals and learn to overcome the losses. In comparison to the judo competitions where you are taken by the neck and are being thrown with a force against the mat, the new style competition is gentler. It is a very good method for preparing the new athletes. The same as the greatest part of sports specialists, I very well understand the task – to develop children, youth and adults mentally and physically. In my working experience I always have tried to find the best methods for my work. I prefer game and competition method. Taking into account generally accepted and researched theory on specific characters of age groups, I really liked the materials on long-term training of athletes (LTAD) prepared by Canadian sport scientists.

12. Conclusion

In 6 April for the first time in Latvian judo history was created KATA competition – Kata is the fire in which Judo was, and is being, forged. It stands as the epitome of the great principle which underlies Judo. Yet, due to a lack of comprehension of what Judo really is, most students of Judo, and some instructors, regard kata as vague and having only a casual relationship to the Judo of the day. On account of this unawareness, kata has been placed on the margin of Judo knowledge. The complete meaning of kata cannot be expressed by words alone, for it becomes understandable only through experience with the performance of kata.

Begin your study with the idea that Judo is a system of physical education. This was the founder's idea, and it allows you to interpret kata in various ways as he did. Let us examine the most important of those ways.

The sensitive period is determined by child's genetic development. Transforming of innate abilities into specific physical abilities will have a positive impact on student's development; however, ignoring of the innate abilities will cause a delay in development of physical abilities and an overload to functional systems, e.g., a nervous system overload, mental and physical development disorders. If the sensitive developmental periods are taken into account while developing physical abilities, the adaptation reactions to a physical load are adequate and develop the body's functional reserves.

When looking at the above statements, consideration must also be given to the importance of Long Term Athlete Development. The LTAD is a process whereby sport organisations, coaches and trainers use scientific principles of human growth and development in physical, mental, emotional and cognitive components to design appropriate training, competition and recovery programmes so that participants develop at appropriate rates and are not placed in unsafe and/or inappropriate training or competition situations which could potentially be dangerous or harmful, or cause them to prematurely drop out of the sport and/or physical activity system. Parents, teachers and coaches are demanding winners at all ages. LTAD must be learned by all sports teachers.

When we apply knowledge, improve the quality of work, we will have more people involved in sports, so the probability of finding the next Olympics is also increasing.

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THE MIRROR IMAGE: THE FEMALE ATHLETE AS A ROLE MODEL

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Abstract

Historical, unprecedented fights for gender equality in the sporting arena has remained prominent, even after “Title IX”¹ was introduced. This paper seeks to examine the relevance of the female athlete as a role model; however, this work will focus on the female athlete as not just any role model but as a “sporting role model”² (SRM). Being a role model means incorporating the challenges faced and the “mirror image”³ needed to assist females in attaining their goals. The lack of female SRMs is one common thread among sport as this phenomenon is global. This is an issue as there are sociocultural associations between sport and masculinity which continues to influence and promote the predominance of male “sporting role models” in many parts of the world. To shed light on this issue, this paper has drawn upon research findings from peer-reviewed journals and information published from reputable sources.

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1. Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 expresses the nation’s collective aspirational belief that girls and boys, women and men, deserve equality in educational experiences and opportunities.
 2. A role model is someone with whom an admirer identifies or desires to emulate (Giuliano, Turner, Lundquist, Knight, Jennifer, 2007) Therefore, as a SRM is a merge of the above and also someone having had some direct affiliation to sport, either athlete or support staff.
 3. A person or object that is very similar to another.

Introduction

There are many factors which are associated with the female athlete as a role model. These factors are vast in number and span numerous areas while simultaneously encapsulating history and social progress. This paper will draw inferences between the normative of both the masculine dominant world in which we reside in and the “sometimes” unforgiving heterosexual mindset of said society. Therefore, we keep in mind Benjamin Elijah Mays (1894-1984) words, “It is not a disgrace not to reach for the stars, but it is a disgrace not to have stars to reach for”. Therefore, females of all ages need a mirror image that reflects them and their aspirations. With Mays’ statement it summons the question to the forefront, “Why are females so often denied the opportunity to view their mirror image in society?”

Although sport participation opportunities for girls and women have skyrocketed since the passage of Title IX, the percentage of women in coaching positions has drastically declined (Moran-Miller; Flores, 2011). However, it is astonishing to see that although this seems evident there has been a constant decline in females who occupy leadership positions in sport. This alarming result can be one of the factors why there is a disassociation between the female and the sporting role models, as numbers in the “mirror image” category are minute, hence not visible. Therefore, the rhetoric in this paper will also seek to address the decrease of a visible and vibrant “mirror image”, which is indeed necessary to see continued advancement of females in sport.

Historical findings

Historically, we have seen the adulation of various individuals in societies who have been held in high esteem and revered for their power, leadership, or talents. These individuals may be today referred to as “role models”. These individuals who are revered in society are those who often have characteristics which show them to be psychologically and physically strong, have good morals, and in sport, are athletically powerful. As society has become more advanced there has been a need to shift the paradigm of the role model and the need to avidly represent the populous correctly. Humans long to identify and see likeness of themselves in others. Humans become more empowered through seeing gender likeness in sport. “Without women leaders, decision makers and

role models and gender sensitive boards and management with women and men within sport and physical activity, equal opportunities for women and girls will not be achieved” (Helsinki Legacy IWG, 2014, p. 7).

However, this suppression of women can be dated back to even when sports was class bound. “Marxist structuralists... viewed sport as a super-structural expression of ideological control by the capitalist class (Gruneau, 1983; Hargreaves, 1982)” Messner, 1988. Therefore, people were viewed as nothing more than passive objects according to the deterministic Marxian framework, meaning they were duped into meeting the needs of capitalism. With this said women were even lower on the spectrum of sport as it was a capitalistic era. Additionally, this comes on the heels of a historical landscape where women were deprived of their right to sport among other things, until its dissipation began during the World-war. During war, females became factory workers and provided for their families while the men went to war. In some cases, females became a part of the countries’ line of defence. “These changes, along with women’s continued movement into public life, undermined and weakened the already shaky breadwinner role as a major basis for male power in the family (Ehrenreich, 1983; Tolson, 1977). And the declining relevance of physical strength in work and in warfare was not accompanied by a declining psychological need for an ideology of gender difference” (Messner, 1988).

However, society has long demanded that females present themselves a certain way and behave according to the norms which they uphold. As the times are changing it has become evident that every individual cannot be placed into a box and classified. For that reason, society has then brought about the need to resort to overly judging and questioning female athletes about their morals, values and beliefs. After the introduction of Title IX, the landscape of equality has changed a mere bit more than previous, as there has been more acceptance of the female in sport. The introduction of such policy comes after females were long regarded as frail and incompetent and seen as undeserving in regard to their participation in sport.

Why the Mirror Image?

It is said that the lack of female sporting role models is a result of few numbers of females filling these roles. Therefore, the development of female sports has

been low and slow rising. “Since societal values and norms differ in each setting, the ‘lack of culturally relevant role models’ is identified as an especially significant obstacle to female physical activity (UN 2007, 18)” (Meier, 2015). Due to this obvious lack of female role models it can be seen why this mirror image is necessary for the propulsion of females in sport. Research has shown that it is “in gender-stereotyped domains such as sport”, that causes the “selection of male sport role models by females... stating that this in fact could be due to females’ unavailability”. The scarcity, and invisibility of female SRMs does not allow for younger, tender age females to thrive towards a goal while seeing a star to reach and surpass (Ely, 1994; Gibson and Cordova, 1999; Singh, Vinnicombe, and James, 2006).

It begs the question of why “20 years after Brighton, this is still an inhibiting issue and a hinderance to female athletes, as it appears in the 2014 Helsinki Legacy (IWG 2014, 7): Without women leaders, decision makers and role models and gender sensitive boards and management with women and men within sport and physical activity, equal opportunities for women and girls will not be achieved”.

Another “similar directive to increase the number of actively involved females in sport was provided in a study that specified the importance of female SRMs to be locally rooted for the sake of ownership and sustainability: The organisation of sports groups and programmes should include women in key roles, such as coaching and mentors, and role models drawn from within local communities and schools. These should reflect differences in perspectives and interests, (...), to ensure continuity of engagement in sports and physical activities throughout life” (Bailey, Wellard, and Dismore, 2005, 7).

Morrow, Gore, & Campbell (1996) have gone on to “speculated that outcome expectations may have exerted a greater influence than self-efficacy beliefs in the career development of marginalized groups due to oppression”. Therefore, stating that marginalized groups such as females have been oppressed, thus lacking the ability to be in the fore front.

The Truth

Now, it is true that societal morals, values and norms differ across religions and ethnicities, thus the “lack of culturally relevant role models” is identified

as an ongoing obstacle to female physical activity (UN 2007, 18). Female role models of this decade although very successful have faced the harsh reality of being a female. These include Sam Stosur who Dominika Cibulkova said was “like playing a man”. “Amelie Mauresmo, former tennis dynamo, received flak about her sexuality, her gender and her physique”, as she was not seen as feminine (Kendall, 2015). 6’8” WBNA athlete Brittney Griner standing at 6’8” in the WBNA showed off her dunking skills, she too was called “a man”. Griner’s response to the criticism? “Hey, that’s my body, and I look the way I look” (Kendall, 2015).

Researchers’ opinions have also suggested that there is a need to see one’s likeness and reflection, and that this is key to advancement of self. This thought predates this phenomenon of females as role models in sport, but rather goes to the thought that children have shown to be mimickers⁴, just as humans have gained knowledge through socialisation as they evolved, Stel & Vonk (2010). Because of this thought one can assume that sociology and psychology have a place in this discourse of discuss.

The Decline

Regarding the impact of few female role models, researchers have found that female teams with male coaches, tend to associate this with inequality, with their perception of this as discrimination in coaching (Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011). However, coaching is not the only leadership position impacted by the lack of females but also the International Olympic Committee (IOC) executive board as well. This issue arises even though the IOC has tried to lead the way in mandating that executive boards must appoint women in positions on these said boards. Noting that of the 206 National Olympic Committees (NOC) only eleven of the presidential positions are held by women and only 14% of International federations executive boards were women in 2017, which that equates to nine women of the 67 men.

Further, researchers have continuously emphasized the importance of positive female role models in athletics (Acosta & Carpenter, 2008; George, 1989; Hilliard, 1996; Thorngren, 1990; Williams & Parkhouse, 1988). While, others

4. Mimicry is defined broadly as “doing what others are doing”.

have expressed concerns about the negative consequences of limited exposure for female athletes (George, 1989). The limited exposure results in the lack of development of female sport as the United Nations has implied through the forming of their mandate.

If an individual has no one with whom to identify, then the pressures of the ordeal become greater than otherwise thought. Not only are the lack of individuals as role models an issue for up and coming athletes, but it is also psychologically taxing on female athletes who are role models and must constantly deal with contextual myths, tradition, popular memory, and value systems (Meier, 2015). Because of these added pressures if many female athletes want to achieve heroic status or role model status, then he or she has to “embody [y] the elements that a society holds most dear” (Maguire, 2009, p. 1261). This also means that the implications of key issues such as ethnicity, sexual orientation, patriarchy, type of sports, patriotism, and media coverage are constantly at the forefront of minds, sometimes with female athletes questioning themselves (Meier, 2015).

The Lack of Female Sporting Role Models

Sociologically, role models have been a means for individuals to parallel themselves with persons they aspire to be. They have seen it as a way to draw on strengths, thus using role models as a means of acceptance and justification of their reality. Few dominate female athletes have rose to the pinnacle of their careers and are beacons which illuminate the still male dominate world of sport. These greats include; Serena Williams (Pro US tennis player), Carla Overbeck (US national soccer captain), Rhonda Rousey (Pro US Mix Martial Arts fighter and black belt), Shelly-Ann Fraser-Pryce (Pro Jamaican track athlete), Caster Semenya (Pro South African track athlete) and Hayley Matthews (Pro Barbadian cricketer) to name a few. But although they are dominate this was not an easy road to the top because of critics and many whom would have had similar thoughts to that of Baron de Coubertin. De Coubertin in the 19th century “did not think well of women perspiring in public, assuming positions he deemed ungainly, and appearing in public riding horses, skiing or playing soccer”, according to Spears, 1988.

Over the years these said greats have been an example of females who have

been ostracized for their active involvement in sport. However, it is in hopes of building and pushing the mirror image that more females are inspired to participate and strive for success bringing into fruition the Olympic dream of equality through sport.

It is sad when tennis power house Serena Williams can be still likened to a gorilla and without grace, as she has been dealt a harsh hand so many times (Carney, 2017). Critics have even said that females should not be playing sport. Had the negativity persuaded them to stop, females such as former US National Team Captain, Carla Overbeck, would never have been able to advocate for females as she has. Overbeck notes her struggles as a female saying “When I grew up, there weren’t any women professional soccer players that I could want to be like. With this league there will be 200 role models who are very willing to make a positive impact on some child’s life. That’s important to all of us” (Building a Foundation, 2001, p. 19).

Therefore, the factors associated with the lack of the mirror image of the female athlete as a role model is not only what society assumes (the sociological). But also, the lasting impact it has on the minds (psychological) and aspirations of persons, most particularly young persons’ due to the unavailability of such role models. Lockwood and Kunda suggest, that the behaviour of elite athletes’ “is more likely to be imitated by young people when they are considered relevant, i.e. with some similarity to the observer. As the elite female footballers talk to and coach the young people, sharing their experiences and encouraging their sporting participation through play, this bond of similarity is enhanced” (Dunn, 2016). The presence of the female role models as a mirror image can then be deemed as a performance enhancer and aid for other females.

Conclusion

For a vibrant and relatable mirror image not to be visible to those who need such a visible aspiration is an injustice to the fight towards equality. The constant and ongoing prejudice towards female athletes pumps the brakes on the discussion of female athlete role models. Female femininity has continually been scrutinized, such is the case of Mixed Martial Arts reporter, Loretta Hunt. Therefore, any female sport role model must be willing to overcome the barrier

of stereotypes and heterosexual norms, as the world waits for the redefining of femininity.

The modern world has continued the predominant use of male figures just as centuries gone by, while the fight for female equality continues. It beckons the question, "Have females even started to excel in sport to show what they are capable of?" and "How many females are still oppressed and stopped from participating in sport?" Another question is "How many women are waiting to see their mirror image in society accurately portrayed just to give them the desired push?" Will these questions ever be answered or has William Shakespeare tarnished females for eternity when he said "Frailty, thy name is woman." I argue that women are strong, have already served as powerful role models and will continue to do the same, particularly in sport. Therefore, we need to celebrate them and to support them in their sporting endeavours and accomplishments.

Additionally, we need to accept the benefits to having a mirror image for females to identify with. This addition of a more present mirror image will allow female athletes to be more empowered socially, and psychologically. This is not ever disputing the fact that the female mirror image can and should be promoted as a performance enhancer.

I argue, therefore, that, the presence of the female role models as a mirror image may in fact be deemed as a performance enhancer and aid for other females both as a psychological boost and social empowerment tool.

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THE COACH AS ROLE MODEL: APPLYING THE LENS OF ETHICAL LEADERSHIP

Bram CONSTANDT (BEL)

Introduction

Sport in general and football in particular are believed to be facing a so-called moral crisis (De Waegeneer, 2015). This crisis is regularly illustrated with examples on and off the playing field. For example, the testimonial of Andy Woodward, a former English football player who was faced with severe sexual violence during his career, caused people from all over the world to speak up about similar cases. This particular case –referred to as “one of the biggest crises in the sport’s history – shows the extensive impact sport coaches have on their athletes (Bennhold, 2016).

However, in contrast to this extraordinary and extremely negative case, many sport coaches actually operate as positive role models for their athletes, indicated by respectful coach-athlete relationships in which the personal development of the athlete is centralized (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003). Actually, coach-athlete relationships can be approached as some kind of exchanges between leader and follower. Although extensive research attention has already been paid to leadership in sport, little focus has been put specifically on the ethical dimensions of the leadership relationship between coach and athlete (Welty Peachey, Zhou, Damon, & Burton, 2015). Given the current prominence and importance of ethics in sport, ethical leadership presents itself as an interesting concept to study coach-athlete relationships. Ethical leadership focuses on how a leader should act in an ethical manner, while at the same time emphasizing that the leader should also transfer personal ethical behavior to his/her followers (Kaptein, 2017).

Interesting in the light of the special topic of this year's Olympic seminar, is that role modelling is central to the ethical leadership conceptualization. After all, it is believed that an ethical leader will only be effective if (s)he is a credible and sufficiently visible role model (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). As coaches operate as one the most nearby role models for their athletes (see Boardley & Kavussanu, 2009), this present paper will analyze the effectiveness of the coach as ethical leader on his/her athletes. Empirical results will focus merely on the influence coaches have on their athletes within the context of football clubs. Nonetheless, the discussion section will also examine how these results are broadly applicable to other sports and to coaches in the broad context of the Olympic Movement.

Theory

Ethical leadership

Over the last decade and a half, ethical leadership has become a very popular line of research within business ethics and related research domains (Ko, Ma, Bartnik, Haney, & Kang, 2018). According to the academic literature, ethical leadership is defined as “the demonstration of normatively appropriate and new conduct to followers through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making” (Kaptein, 2017, p. 12).

Inherent to the ethical leadership conceptualization are the three roles that an ethical leader is expected to embody (Kaptein, 2017). First, an ethical leader is a *moral person*, namely someone who combines certain characteristics, traits, and values, such as honesty, trustworthiness, respect, and empathy (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). Second, as a *moral manager*, an ethical leader aims to transfer these characteristics, traits, and values to his or her followers, while investing in being a role model through action, clear communication, reinforcement, and empowerment of the followers (Brown & Mitchell, 2010). Third, ideally, an ethical leader is also a *moral entrepreneur*, someone who implements new and innovative behavioral norms, when current norms fail to sufficiently deal with an occurring situation (Kaptein, 2017).

Next to the mapping its three distinct roles, the academic popularity of the ethical leadership conceptualization is also motivated by its strong theoretical

base, which is formed by social learning theory and social exchange theory (Lawton & Paéz, 2015).

Social learning theory. Social learning theory represents one of the most influential theories when it comes to explaining ethical behavior. The seminal work regarding this theory dates back to Albert Bandura (1977, 1986), who states that individual ethical behavior is formed by the combination and interaction of personal as well as environmental factors. In fact, leaders are one of the most significant environmental factors (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005). People are most likely to turn to other people who operate closely to observe the behavioral standards that are executed and promoted, after which they imitate and absorb these standards themselves (Kavussanu & Stanger, 2017). In sum, observation, imitation, and identification are fundamental in peoples' modelling of their own actions (Brown et al., 2005). Leaders operate as important and observable environmental influences, not only due to their close position, but also due to their authority.

Social exchange theory. Social exchange theory stipulates that people engage in social relationships with others, out of the idea that doing so will be rewarding for them (Blau, 1964; Miles, 2012). Central to social exchange theory is the notion of reciprocity, which implies an interdependent relationship between two parties (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The premise of this interdependent relationship is that, when one party does something in favor of the other party, it is expected that this favor will be returned one day by the other party (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The exchange linked to this relationship can be both transactional (involving material goods) or socioemotional (involving respect and trust) (Blau, 1964; Miles, 2012). The socioemotional variant is especially relevant in the context of leader-follower relations.

The coach as ethical leader

The sport coach can be regarded as one of the most influential figures when it comes to influencing the ethical behavior of his/her athletes (Boardley & Kavussanu, 2009; Chow, Murray, & Feltz, 2009; Thompson & Dieffenbach, 2016). When doubting, athletes are believed to turn to their coaches to see how certain behaviors are interpreted, stimulated or punished. In these situations, coaches operate as role models for their athletes (Boardley & Kavussanu, 2009; Bortoli, Messina, Zorba, & Robazza, 2012). Moreover, coaches contribute to an

organizational environment in which ethical behavior on behalf of their athletes is encouraged, whereas unethical behavior is discouraged (Bortoli et al., 2012; Chow et al., 2009; Constandt, De Waegeneer, & Willem, 2018).

The effectiveness of ethical leadership

After the nature of ethical leadership and of the coach as ethical leader have been discussed, the question remains how the influence or effectiveness of coach ethical leadership can be assessed. Measuring the effectiveness of ethics management in general and of ethical leadership in particular is heavily debated (De Waegeneer, 2015). In general, three approaches are available to examine the effectiveness of ethical leadership.

First, academics often turn to the study of official reports of incidents to analyze the prevalence and the handling of ethical issues (Kaptein & Schwartz, 2008). More specifically, this approach takes into consideration the (number of) incidents that are reported. However, these seemingly objective data are not without bias, since different interpretations of the same reported data may be possible (Webley & Werner, 2008). More precisely, someone may judge an organization with a lot of incidents reported as unethical (because there are a lot of incidents), whereas someone else may interpret the same organization as ethical (because these incidents are reported and dealt with). Moreover, it appears that the number of incidents represents the effectiveness of the reporting mechanisms and whistle-blowing facilities within an organization, rather than the effectiveness of ethical leadership itself (De Waegeneer, 2015). This approach also neglects relevant organizational characteristics, such as a general fear for retaliation or prevailing apathetic attitudes (Kaptein, 2011; Webley & Werner, 2008).

A second option to scrutinize the effectiveness of ethical leadership is using observation, both in the form of fieldwork and experiments (Kavussanu, 2008). For example, researchers could engage in an organization for a period of time, while observing how the organization in general and people in leading positions in particular deal with ethical issues (De Waegeneer, 2015). In this situation, the researcher may be assisted by recording his/her observations, after which these audio or video tapes can be analyzed in a research lab (Kavussanu, 2008). Nevertheless this second approach poses a number of limitations, such as strong observer biases, practical

limitations concerning time and space, and a lack of generalizability of the findings (De Waegeneer, 2015).

Finally, scholars often turn to the study of perceptions of practice as a tool to measure the effectiveness of ethical leadership (Kaptein & Schwartz, 2008). In this situation, the shared perception on how ethical issues are dealt with are used as some kind of proxy for the actual ethical character of an organization (De Waegeneer, 2015). Although this approach also contains certain limitations, specifically with regard to self-report biases and the social desirability inherent to people's perceptions, it remains a valuable approach to study the effectiveness of ethical leadership (Mayer, 2014).

When it comes to the study of these perceptions, several concepts are available. However, the ethical climate concept is one of the most widely applied and theoretically most solid concepts in this regard (Newman, Round, Bhattacharya, & Roy 2017). The ethical climate of an organization refers to the shared perception on ethical behavior in an organization, and on how ethical issues are dealt with (Arnaud, 2006, 2010). The strong theoretical nature of ethical climate is formed by the fact that it takes into consideration all four psychological steps that are necessary to come to ethical behavior, based on the influential theory of moral action of James Rest (1986). These four steps are: *moral sensitivity* (being aware that an ethical issue is at hand), *moral judgment* (judging the situation based on own internalized frameworks), *moral motivation* (making a trade-off between ethical motives and other motives such as financial gain or striving for pride), and *moral character* (the actual implementation of (un)ethical behavior) (Arnaud, 2006, 2010).

Methods and results

The empirical work of this paper draws strongly on the results of a study that has recently been published in *Journal of Sport Management* (Constandt et al., 2018).

The data collection started after obtaining the approval of the independent commission of medical ethics of Ghent University, and of Football Flanders, which is the major nonprofit football federation in Belgium. The data collection encompassed an online questionnaire, containing validated 5-point Likert scales to measure coach ethical leadership ("Ethical Leadership Scale", one

dimension, 10 items, by Brown et al. 2005) and the ethical climate of the football club (“Ethical Climate Index”, four dimensions, 36 items, by Arnaud 2006). Via Football Flanders, the questionnaire was sent to all associated football clubs accompanied with the question to send it to all their adult athletes. In total, 438 football athletes (players) completed the questionnaire, which also targeted the age, gender, organizational tenure, and level of play of the athlete. These four variables were considered as control variables.

After the data collection had been finished, the data were analyzed using SPSS 22 software. All variables were approached on an individual level, as perceived by the athletes. Correlation analyses showed that coach ethical leadership was positively correlated with all four dimensions of the ethical climate of the football club. As the four dimensions of ethical climate were in their turn strongly correlated, it was decided to work with the average scores for the four dimensions as outcome variable in the forthcoming regression analysis.

This regression analysis yielded findings indicating that coach ethical leadership was positively associated with ethical climate ($\beta = 0.42$, $p < 0.001$). Furthermore, in total, 28% percent of the variations in ethical climate were due to coach ethical leadership, with gender ($\beta = 0.15$, $p = 0.02$) and level of play ($\beta = 0.05$, $p = 0.001$) included in the model (adjusted $R^2 = 0.28$, $F(3, 517) = 69.81$, $p < 0.001$).

Discussion

This study indicates that coach ethical leadership is positively associated with the ethical climate of football clubs, as perceived by the athletes. Formulated differently, there is a positive link between football athletes believing their coach operates as an ethical leader on the one hand and the athlete’s perception of the ethical climate of the football club on the other hand. This perceived influence of coach ethical leadership on the ethical climate of the football club is meaningful, as it has been shown that there is a strong correlation between ethical climate and actual ethical behavior (Arnaud & Schminke, 2012). As such, by leading by example, the football coach contributes to the ethical climate of the football club, which in turn promotes individual ethical behavior of the athletes (Constandt et al., 2018).

Although empirical findings are limited to adult athletes and to football only,

the study offers an interesting angle to shed light on the position of the coach as role model within the broader context of the Olympic Movement as well. In fact, coaches in all kind and levels of sports are shown to be able to operate as role models, to which their athletes might turn to receive guidance in terms of learning what kind of behaviors are encouraged and discouraged (Boardley & Kavussanu, 2009; Bortoli et al., 2012, Chow et al., 2009).

As such, this study supports role modelling actually also takes place *within* sport organizations, relating to the process of leadership (Brown et al., 2005). To the contrary, the effect of role models in sport is currently quite narrowly interpreted as the influence of star athletes (such as Olympians) or well-known referees on other people from *outside* the organization aiming to follow in their successful footsteps (Wicker & Frick, 2016).

The ethical leadership conceptualization offers an interesting viewpoint in the context of the coach as role model. After all, it suggests that someone in a leading position should not only be a *moral person*, but (s)he should also engage in promoting this kind of behavior as a *moral manager* and a *moral entrepreneur* (Kaptein, 2017). As an ethical leader, Olympic coaches are suggested to personally invest in good managerial (i.e., role modelling through action, communication, reinforcement, and empowerment) and entrepreneurial (i.e., implementing new and innovative norms) skills. As such, Olympic coaches would not only be able to improve the sportive achievements of their athletes, but also to emphasise the importance of certain values that are strongly associated with the Olympic Movement, such as diversity, equality, tolerance, and friendship (Koenigstorfer & Preuss, 2018).

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THE OLYMPIC GAMES OPENING CEREMONY: AN ANALYSIS IN THE CONTEXT OF EXPERIENTIAL MARKETING

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1. Introduction

Since their ancient beginnings, the Olympic Games are a symbol for festival, culture and ceremony. This continues today as the Games invite the world to celebrate fair play, peace and cultural exchange (IOC, 2015/2018a).

In the course of these celebrations, the Olympic Games Opening and Closing Ceremonies provide a universal framework for rituals, symbols and ceremonials. As an essential part of the Games, the ceremonies are a combination of IOC protocolled components (e.g. lighting of the Olympic flame) and the cultural-artistic elements specifically created by the host city. Thereby especially, the long-standing ceremony rituals comprise the fundamental ideas and values of the Olympic Movement (MacAloon, de Moragas & Llinés, 1996; Lattipongun, 2010; Adair, 2013; IOC, 2016a).

The Opening Ceremonies are particularly celebrated as global mega spectacles. The secrecy about the artistic programme as well as the involvement of famous figures fosters the worldwide anticipation prior to the event. The event is furthermore an exceptional chance for the host nation to present its culture, its history and its hospitality on a global stage. Therefore, the ultimate goal is the creation of a unique show that captivates the billions of spectators in the stadium and at home (IOC, 2018b; Belam, 2018).

In recent years, the staging of such mega sporting events has been influenced by a shift in marketing tactics. Herein, traditional marketing is gradually

replaced through so-called experiential marketing. This concept takes a more holistic approach by establishing an emotional connection to the customer and by considering visual as well as intuitive personality traits. The Opening Ceremonies feature the most prominent characteristics of experiential marketing and exemplify the core of this model: to create an everlasting, emotional experience (Schmitt, 1999; Kotler, 2003).

However, the contribution of the concept experiential marketing towards the Olympic Games Opening Ceremonies requires an evaluation from miscellaneous perspectives. This essay therefore aims to provide a critical analysis of the research question whether this marketing approach enhances the presentation of the Olympic rituals or whether it solely supports spectator entertainment and show.

The paper firstly elaborates the history of the Opening Ceremonies followed by the origin and rise of experiential marketing. This forms the foundation for the subsequent analysis, which presents the enhancing power of this interrelation as well as critical considerations. The essay concludes with a future outlook.

2. The History of the Opening Ceremonies

During the ancient Olympic Games, the victory and end of competition festivities commonly involved singing, drinking and the presentation of poetries. However, the origin of the Opening Ceremonies as known today goes back to the introduction of the modern Olympic Games. The Athens 1896 Games contained first essential elements like the opening of the Games through the head of state as well as the Olympic Anthem, which set the basis for subsequent ceremonies. The subject gained importance in the 1906 Paris Advisory Conference, where Pierre de Coubertin, founder of the International Olympic Committee and pioneer of the modern Olympics, advocated the reestablishment of arts and sports within the Games. De Coubertin referred to the ancient Games by stating "...the fine arts were combined harmoniously with the Olympic Games to create their glory. This is to become reality once again". Till this day, the Olympic Games Opening Ceremony includes artistic elements and symbolises the official commencing of the Games (Linés and Georgiadis in MacAloon et al., 1996; Swaddling, 1999; IOC, 2016a; 2018c/d).

Following the Parisian conference, the IOC started to develop a ceremony

protocol. Over time, components were added to the protocol like the hoisting of the Olympic flag and the torch relay. Today it provides the joint basis for all opening ceremonies, which follow a fixed procedure. Certain elements such as the Olympic oath and the artistic programme are IOC protocolled and must be included in each Opening Ceremony. However, their presentation and design is the individual responsibility of the host city, which usually integrates cultural, historical and humorous parts (Adair, 2013; IOC, 2015/2016a; Time Inc., 2018).

The integration of these Olympic rituals ultimately endorses the ideology and history of the Olympic Games, while simultaneously seeking to create a celebratory, united atmosphere. The ceremony elements aim to deliver a combination of truthfulness, solemnity and worship, while strengthening intercultural exchange and the persistence of the Olympic Movement. Furthermore, the aspect of universality as an essential part of the movement is supported. Pierre de Coubertin highlights the importance of the Olympic rituals by stating: "Their role and destiny is to unite the past and the future through the fleeting moments of the present. They are the ultimate celebration of youth, beauty and strength. Therefore, these elements should form the basis of the Olympic ceremonies" (IOC, 2002; MacAloon et al., 1996; Lattipongpun, 2010; IOC, 2014).

3. Experiential Marketing

Over the years, the design and staging of the Olympic Games Opening Ceremonies changed rapidly due to technology and globalisation amongst other reasons. Most recently, the concept of experiential marketing has been a predominant force herein.

Experiential marketing succeeds traditional marketing, which follows the principal notion that customers are rational decision-makers and operates with a functional product focus. However, fostered by customers longing for happiness and fulfilment, traditional marketing is gradually moving to the background, while experiential marketing is becoming the new forerunner (Schmitt, 1999; Same & Larimo, 2012).

Experiential marketing takes a more holistic approach and identifies the customer as an emotional buyer, while considering visual and intuitive personality traits (Schmitt, 1999; Kotler, 2003). It has entered the stage with Holbrook and

Hirschman's indication (1982) that consumer behaviour includes an emotional aspect. Their work supported the shift from information processing to an experiential perspective. Pine and Gilmore (1999) foster this understanding by introducing the experience economy, which highlights the economic transition from commodity focused to goods and service and finally to experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1998).

Over time, this concept evolved into an integral element of marketing tactics. Industry experts accentuate the method's interactivity as its biggest advantage. Another benefit refers to the notion that these campaigns create higher resonance amongst the target group due to their outstanding customer interaction. Additionally, positive emotions evoked through an experiential marketing campaign are more likely to be shared, which consequently increases the power of word-of-mouth marketing. Furthermore, businesses consider this concept as a sufficient source for competitive advantage due to its inimitability and limited substitutability (Tsaur, Chiu & Wang, 2007; Forbes, 2016).

Alongside many other industries, the sporting industry has integrated this concept in its habits. Experience, intensity and high customer involvement are fundamental aspects in sporting events and provide various opportunities to create everlasting experiences. Furthermore, it was stated that these events could be considered pure experience products (Howat & Murray, 2002; Filser, 2002; Chanavat & Bodet, 2014).

Considering this background, distinct characteristics of experiential marketing are visible in the Olympic Games Opening Ceremonies. Firstly, the essential element of emotions can be recognised. The establishment of an emotional connection amongst all involved stakeholders is a crucial objective of the Opening Ceremony. In more general terms, Kuntz (1973, p. 307) highlighted this notion by stating that "For sporting events, just as for plays, purposeful, directed, and structured activity is enhanced with props and performed with the end of providing a gratifying experience for participants and spectators alike".

Throughout their development, outstanding emotional moments can be identified in every Opening Ceremony such as Mohammed Ali lighting the Olympic cauldron in Atlanta, 1996 or the entrance of the first ever refugee team during the 2016 Rio Summer Olympics amongst many others (IOC, 2016a/2018e).

Secondly, experiential marketing is driven by the engagement and interaction of its consumers. It allows participants to escape reality, through entertainment or

education and by staging the experiences in aesthetic places. In return, spectators are becoming co-producers and a crucial element in the experience development. The immediate reaction of stadium spectators on the performance in front of them is part of the Opening Ceremonies just like their cheering during the Parade of Nations. The spectators' active contribution is vital to establish emotional experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1999; Zhang, 2010; Gibson, 2016).

But most essentially, the Olympic Games Opening Ceremonies aim to create a unique, ever-lasting experience. The ceremony is an outstanding event and creates the opportunity to have an experience that goes beyond everyday happenings. Ric Birch, the mastermind behind the ceremonies of 1984 Los Angeles, Sydney 200 and Beijing 2008, considered the event as something "larger than life". Furthermore, it provides the chance to engage with the culture and history of a country, which one might not have any previous linkages to. This is true not only for athletes, coaches and officials, but also for the communities of the host nation as well as the viewers around the world (Dimanche, 2008; Osborne, 2012; Ng, 2015).

4. Analysis of the Olympic Games Opening Ceremony

Considering the introduced interrelation, the following analysis will critically elaborate whether experiential marketing enhances the Olympic Games Opening Ceremony and the display of its essential rituals or whether it predominantly boosts spectator entertainment on the expense of these elements. The analysis draws upon a wide-ranging literature review.

4.1 Positive Contribution

Firstly, experiential marketing contributes towards the "Fascination Olympic Games". For more than 120 years, the Olympic Games capture the attention of spectators around the world and have developed into the most anticipated and most watched regularly staged event in human history.

A holistic explanation for this phenomenon is diverse. However, the Opening Ceremonies play an important role herein as they represent not only the essential Olympic values and display the Olympic rituals to a global audience, but also establish a long-term connection between spectators and the event. The concept of experiential marketing fosters this relationship through its distinctive characteristics,

especially through the component emotion. This notion is supported by previous research that identified a strong correlation between positive experiences, provoked by positive emotions, and loyalty intentions of customers (MacAloon et al., 1996; Chen, Colapinto & Luo, 2012; Bruwer et al., 2013; Lee & Chang, 2012).

Secondly, the Opening Ceremonies are considered an exceptional opportunity for the host city and the respective host nation to present their culture and history as well as their contribution to the staging of the Olympics on a global stage. Consequently, the organising committee aims to create memorable and innovate images. To reach this goal, the latest technology and methods such as experiential marketing are used as recently done during the PyeongChang 2018 Winter Olympics. During the Opening Ceremony, characteristic elements such as the symbolic dove and the Olympic rings were projected into the sky above the stadium using approximately 1.200 drones. This unseen form of design as well as the overarching usage of stadium ground and airspace created an unforgettable experience for spectators worldwide. Furthermore, the audience was emotionally addresses through various ceremony components such as the joint entrance of North and South Korea during the Parade of the Nations (Lattipongun, 2010; Hogan, 2018; IOC, 2018b/f; Intel Corporation, 2018).

Furthermore, the images created through experiential marketing enhance the educational and symbolic aspect of the Opening Ceremonies. The ceremony provides an opportunity to educate a global audience on the values of the Olympic Movement and initiate their transfer into everyday life. Furthermore, it allows the engagement with a nation and its history as well as its culture from an internal, unadulterated perspective (MacAloon et al., 1996; Ng, 2015).

Moreover, the Olympic Games Opening Ceremonies possess high symbolic power due to their role as indicator for the contemporary stability of the world as the Games were only suspended during times of war (1916, 1940, 1944). Consequently, the persistent rituals, the artistry and the vibrant colours of the Opening Ceremonies transmit an important message of historical continuity of the Olympic Movement and peace (Guttman, 2002; IOC, 2009/2018b).

4.2 Critique

Besides the important contributions of experiential marketing towards the Opening Ceremonies, different aspects of this interrelation have to be critically assessed.

It is unarguable that the technological advance that accompanies experiential marketing allows the design of new forms of presenting the Olympic rituals. In contrast however, a wide-ranging debate on the spectacle character of the Opening Ceremonies has simultaneously evolved. In particular, criticism has been raised that the ceremonies are predominantly constructed for the media and the entertainment of the millions watching in front of the TV, while thereby losing the underlying context of the Olympic rituals (Schantz in MacAloon et al., 1996; Cui, 2013).

While the projection of the Olympic rings into the sky above the stadium in PyeongChang 2018 was a unique experience, it characterises precisely the mutual sides of the conflation of experiential marketing and the Opening Ceremonies. During the actual event, the drone stunt was shown through a pre-recorded tape, as organisational and technological conditions did not allow the execution on the spot. Afterwards, this show element was awarded with a Guinness World Record (Intel Corporation, 2018; Stuhlberg, 2018; IOC, 2018g). Ultimately, it can be argued that in this case the spectacle and the necessity to provide great images and set new records outweigh the essential meaning behind the Olympic ritual.

Associated herewith, is also a discussion around the ceremonies' staging costs. Although the Olympic protocol clearly states, which elements to include, their costs vary greatly due to their realisation through the host city. This consequently opens up debates on the proportionality and the economic burden of the ceremonies (Preuss, 2004; Milliken & Haynes, 2016).

Secondly, experiential marketing enhances perceptual differences regarding the presentation of the Olympic rituals within the Opening Ceremony. Linked to the first point of critique, the perception of the ceremony varies between stadium spectators and TV audience due to various stimuli such as the influence of the national broadcaster as well as differing commentary. Moreover, it was noted that certain show elements do not have the same effect on the stadium audience as on the TV viewers. During the PyeongChang 2018 ceremony, the augmented reality technology was used to build a dome of stars as part of the artistic programme. While this created a remarkable image for the TV viewers, it failed to impress the stadium spectators, as it was simply not visible in the same way for them (Larson & Rivenburgh, 1991; MacAloon et al., 1996; Hayashi et al., 2016; Belam, 2018).

Additionally, concerns have been expressed about the pressure for host cities

to outperform previous ceremonies. This dilemma is fuelled by the media, who is constantly comparing consecutive Opening Ceremonies based on aspects such as creativity, length and attendance of head of states. Furthermore, a small number of ceremonies have been awarded with the prestigious Emmy Award (e.g. Sochi 2014 for Outstanding Lighting Design), which nourishes the expectations and the desire of spectators to witness once-in-a-lifetime experiences (Academy of Television Arts & Sciences, 2018a/b).

5. Conclusion and Future Outlook

The Olympic Games Opening Ceremony provides an exclusive opportunity for the creation of a unique, ever-lasting experience. Building upon a long-standing history, the staging of the ceremonies has recently been influenced by the concept of experiential marketing, which takes a more holistic approach and focuses on emotional customer connection. It was found that the Opening Ceremonies comprise the most essential characteristics of the approach: emotions, customer engagement and experience creation. Even more as it can be said that experience and emotions form the essential foundation on which the ceremonies are built.

Against this background, the presented analysis exemplifies the contradictory perspectives on the interrelation between the Opening Ceremonies and the concept of experiential marketing with reference to the Olympic rituals. On the one hand, the enduring “Fascination Olympic Games” is strengthened, while the host nation is simultaneously supported in the creation of a unique artistic programme that educates the global audience on their history and culture. Moreover, the symbolic power of the Opening Ceremony can be enhanced through the usage of experiential marketing to display essential rituals. On the other hand, a wide discussion on the transition of the ceremonies into a spectacle or plain media event that aims predominantly towards entertainment has evolved. Additionally, perceptual differences foster the consideration about the negative influence of experiential marketing methods.

As the Olympic Games Opening Ceremonies and the concept of experiential marketing are constantly evolving, it is expected that their interdependency will equally continue to grow. It is understood that mainly technological advance with regard to virtual and augmented reality will gain importance and create

even more realistic experiences, especially for those following the Games on screen. The borders between experiencing the Opening Ceremony in the stadium or at home are likely to blur (MacAloon et al., 1996; Storey, 2017; IOC, 2018g/i).

Additionally, the opportunities for customers to engage with the Games are increasing. For example, the organising committee of Tokyo 2020 asked the Japanese people to provide their out-dated electronic devices so their metal could be integrated in the Olympic medals (Tokyo Organising Committee, 2017). The establishment of the host nation as a partial co-producer is a core element of experiential marketing and is enhanced through such new methods. This development currently peaks in the belief that the Olympic Games of Tokyo 2020 will be the most innovative Games yet.

Conclusively, it can be said that the expectancies of the Olympic Games Opening Ceremonies are continuously rising. Herein, the concept of experiential marketing provides unique opportunities to support the transmission of the Olympic ideas and values on a global stage and with regard to the event's significance, these benefits should be used to their largest extent. At the same time, the ceremonies' greatest challenge is found herein: the conveyance of the essential meanings of the Olympic rituals without overemphasising the entertainment aspect on their expense.

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IOC AND ENVIRONMENTAL CONCERN: HISTORICAL AND SPORT MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVES

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Over the past 25 years climatic change has been a central topic of world politics. Global institutions such as the United Nations have an agenda to implement environmentally sound policies and practices all over the world (UNEP, undated). Due to pollution by human-produced greenhouse gases global warming on earth increases. This causes higher temperatures, melting ice, extreme weather conditions and an unbearable environment for several animal species and even human beings (Northon, 2017). In July 2018, 195 countries have signed the Paris Agreement which is a contract to keep the temperature from rising more than 1.5 degrees Celsius from 1850 to 2100. The responsibility of decreasing the CO₂ consumption of the world population is a global obligation (United Nations, 2018). From this perspective all countries, companies and communities have a responsibility for protecting our planet, this also includes the community of sports.

Environment concern has become a part of IOC policies. The IOC is cooperating with the United Nations and in 1999 they adapted the Agenda 21 aiming to protect the environment and secure a sustainable development of the Olympic Games (Olympic Games, 2007). The IOC has declared environmental sustainability as one out of three pillars in the Olympic Agenda 2020 (Olympic Agenda, 2014). Their policies are described in the “IOC Guide to Sport, Environment and Sustainable Development” (Olympic Games, 2007).

Despite well-developed goals and policies however there is no doubt that the IOC and the Olympic Games face significant challenges in terms of extravagant and environmental hostile practices. The Olympics in Beijing 2008 were criti-

cized for neglecting human rights (Hayes G. & J. Karamichas 2011), the venues in Athens 2004 are empty and overdue (Smith, 2012) and the Co2 emissions, deforestation and the use of energy is an undergoing issue (Chappelet, 2008). Keeping the global climatic challenges in mind it is easy to argue why the IOC should take actions for sustainable sports. Being an important part of global politics, I believe that environmental concern for a sustainable development will be of core significance in the years to come. Therefore, there is a need to increase knowledge and strengthen positive attitudes in the field.

This paper aims to get an insight in the development of IOC's environment policies over the past two decades and examine to what degree they are followed by organising committees hosting the Olympic Games. More specifically based on the IOC policies and the execution by the organising committees this article attempts to answer these key questions:

- *What are the environmental policies of the IOC today and how has the policy changed during the last two decades?*
- *In what way have the policies had an impact on the organisation of the games?*

In the first part of the article the IOC's environmental policies over the past two decades will be presented. The Summer Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro 2016 and the Winter Olympic Games in Sochi 2014 will be used as cases to review how the Organising Committees handled the environment before, during and after Olympic events. The main arguments will be summed up in the conclusion.

The development of the IOC environmental policies

IOC is the owner of the Olympic Games, and the leader of the Olympic Movement. As an organisation with global vision IOC has the power to influence and inspire people from all over the world. More than 200 countries have national Olympic committees, tens of thousands of athletes participate in the Olympic Games and millions of people watch it on the TV which makes it the world's most foremost sport event. The purpose of this part is to present a brief overview of how the IOC environmental policies have developed the past two decades.

Prior to the 1990s IOC had shown little interest in the development of an environmental policy. The 1992 Winter Olympics in Albertville was criticized for

major environmental damage which caused the IOC to change their interests and direct attention towards the environmental impacts of the Olympic Games (Chappelet, 2008, Cantelon & Letters, 2000). IOC followed the agenda set by the world politics and changed quickly by establishing a thorough environmental policy. Some argue that the critique of the Games in Albertville by spectators and global organisations forced the IOC to create a sustainable policy (Cantelon & Letters, 2000).

The new focus on environmental sustainability was supported by the “green” Olympic Games in Lillehammer 1994. The 1994 Winter Olympic Games can be viewed as a turning point in sustainability legacy as it successfully demonstrated how to host the Games with a reduced environmental damage (Hayes & Karamichas, 2011).

1994 was also the year where environmental protection was declared a third dimension of Olympism alongside with sport and culture. This was a crucial step in recognizing sustainability in the Olympics, but also in sport in general (Trendafilova & Bemiller, 2017). The following year the IOC established the “Sustainability and Legacy Commission” to advise the executive board on environmental matters. The commission has also created a partnership with the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) to secure knowledge and recommendations by a globally recognised environment organisation.

In 1996 the IOC changed the set of rules, values and guidelines for organising the Games so environmental concerns were included and a positive legacy for the host countries were valued. These rules and guidelines are known as the Olympic Charter and governs the organisation, action and operation of the Olympic Movement (The International Olympic Committee, 2015).

In 1999 the IOC adopted the Olympic Agenda 21 – Sport for Sustainable Development. This is a non-binding action plan based on the United Nations Agenda 21 for sustainable development. The purpose of the Olympic Agenda 21 is to improve the social and economic conditions in host communities, improve practices in environmental conservation and strengthen the inclusion of women, youth and indigenous people in the Olympic Games (Trendafilova & Bemiller, 2017).

The Organising Committees are also obligated to consider the environment before, during and after event. The 2000 Sydney Summer Olympics were the first to include environment in their bid. Now an extensive document covering the plans for environmental issues is required in the bidding process. Both the

Rio and Sochi Games had ambitious environmental plans mentioned in their bid which will be exemplified in the next part of the article.

Legacy is an important part of the arrangement of the Games IOC launched the Olympic Games Global Impact (IOGG) which is a study that the host city is required to complete before, during and after the event. The purpose of the study is to create comparable data so the effects of the Olympic Games are researched and to help bidding cities maximise the benefits of hosting the event. The IOGG has been criticized for its reliability and the potential bias due to the lack of a sustainable standard (Leopkey & Parent, 2011).

During the last 25 years the IOC has established an environmental policy that is attempted to be implemented in the Olympic Games. It is cooperating with one of the most recognised global organisations in the world; the UN. Both planning and legacy requires a conscious relationship towards sustainability. The critical question is to what extent sustainable ideas are realised in practice. In the next part I will attempt to exemplify how the policies described above have had an impact on the organisation of the Games.

2016 Summer Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro

In October 2009 the IOC announced that Brazil would be the first South American country to host the Olympic Summer Games. The reactions from the Organising Committee were ecstatic and the citizens were celebrating in the streets of Rio (Downie, 2009).

The Olympic Games were expected to bring several positive impacts to the inhabitants of Rio. The bid to host the Olympic Games proposed an extensive plan for environmental protection including renewable energy use, soil protection, sustainable construction, and improving waste management. In the bid the word “environment” is the second most used term which shows the dedication the organising committee had for the green theme. The Games were billed as “A Green game for a blue planet” (Geiling, 2016). To secure the environmental proposal to be fulfilled the Organising Committee created a governmental organisation called Olympic Sustainability Division (Trendafilova & Bemiller, 2017).

The Organising Committee listed the water quality issue as a top environmental priority as it would benefit both athletes and citizens. The benefits would

be cleaning the waterways at the beachfronts and improve the water quality in and around the city. Weeks before the opening ceremony the Organising Committee realised that they would not be able to fulfill the promise of cleaning 80% of the water around and in Guanabara Bay. Even though last-minute efforts were completed by removing visible trash from the bay, it didn't reduce bacterial or viral counts in the water (Geiling 2016).

Sport facilities are large and built to accommodate both athletes and spectators. In Rio ten permanent new sites and seven temporary sites were built. These kinds of construction raise concerns about traffic, air pollution, waste management and water consumption. Rio also reused sport facilities from the Pan American games and the 2014 World cup which were supposed to be a sustainable and economic solution (Trendafilova & Bemiller, 2017). A new golf course was built in the city of Rio de Janeiro prior to the games. The course was built in an environmentally protected area with threatened species of butterflies and lizards. Despite critique and demonstrations, the construction of the course moved on (Geiling, 2016).

Six months after the Olympic Games the venues were overdue and the benefits for the citizens and the public legacy were questionable. The pitch at the famous Maracana stadium was dried out and filled with holes. The stadium was closed for tourists due to high electricity bills and management costs. The swimming pools were filled with dirt, rainwater and are not available for any use. The cited golf course was dried out because it didn't attract enough players to cover the expenses of maintaining the course (The Guardian, 2017, Davis, 2018, Grebey & Shaw, 2018).

Because of economic issues in the period between the bid and the Olympic Games Rio de Janeiro was in a financial crisis in 2016. Political corruption and scandals plagued the Brazilian government at the time. After the Olympic Summer Games in Rio 2016 the city still must face severe environmental issues in addition to political and financial struggles (Trendafilova & Bemiller, 2017). These issues will not be further addressed in this paper, but rather mentioned as a possible reason for the neglected environment.

The Rio 2016 bid was ambitious when it comes to the environment both during and after the event. But after financial issues and political struggles the sustainability were neglected. The evidence of the abandoned facilities and the water quality in Guanabara Bay shows that both the government, the Organis-

ing Committee and the IOC disclaims their responsibility for the “Green Games for a Blue Planet”.

2014 Winter Olympic Games in Sochi

The 2014 Winter Olympic Games were held at the Black Sea Coast in Sochi, Russia. The Games had the highest number of athletes, events and participators compared to any prior Winter Games. The Sochi games were also the most expensive games ever held with a cost of \$55 billion (Müller, 2015).

The vision for the Olympic Games in Sochi stated that the event would be hosted in a sustainable, inclusive and environmentally responsible manner. In addition, the infrastructure had been selected to ensure both sustainability and legacy. The bid book written by the Organising Committee promised carbon neutrality, zero waste and mobilisation of international experience to deliver these commitments (Müller, 2014).

The Games in Sochi were supposed to be a turning point when it comes to sustainability in the Russian state. Putin declared that ecology would be the top priority during the process of the Olympic Games (Müller, 2014). The purpose was to spread the sustainability from Sochi to all of Russia. The focus on the “Green Games” by both the Organising Committee and the state of Russia were underscored by the geographical location of the Olympic Games. The Snow Sports took place in the fragile ecosystem of the Western Caucasus Mountains which is a UNESCO natural world heritage site (Müller, 2014).

During construction of the sport venues the Mzymta River was caused severe damage (Digges, 2014, Müller, 2015, Golubchikov, 2016). The construction took place alongside and in the riverbed, which led to destruction of its ecology due to pollution. The dumping of construction waste and discharge of toxic fluids made the water undrinkable for thousands of residents. After concerted pressure by the IOC, the Russian government and the UNEP the companies involved in the construction agreed to restore the Mzymta River. The restoration of the river was presented as a milestone for hosting a green event. But this restoration would not be necessary if the environment would have been a priority from the beginning (Müller, 2015).

In similarity to Rio the reuse of the venues built for the event in Sochi is problematic. The organisers focused on a green event and one of the main

achievements was building venues according to a sustainable standard following the BREEAM (Building Research Establishment Environmental Assessment Methodology). This ensured that the venues at the coastal cluster had the highest standard for the efficient use of resources and for waste reduction (Müller, 2015).

The hotels and the venues in the mountain cluster were supposed to be used by tourists and as a training site for future Olympic athletes. The hotels and the venues in the mountain cluster were called a “ghost town”. The skiing resort did not attract as many tourists as they hoped for which caused the places to close down (Müller, 2015). Now Russian tourists are travelling to the skiing resorts which is a welcoming gift for the citizens who endured the years of construction and disruption (Golubchikov, 2016).

The purpose was to reuse the facilities by the ocean for shows and events, but it turns out Sochi will not be able to fill up with events and exhibitions as planned. One stadium has been used as an arena for the 2018 Football World Cup, but Sochi does not have a football team with enough spectators to fill up the stadium after the event (Müller, 2015). When there are no sporting events the facilities seem rather empty and their future is uncertain (Golubchikov, 2016). The non-sporting venues such as a combined motorway and railway link with the capacity of 20.000 passengers an hour was built to connect the mountain cluster and the coast. The utilization of the roads has been rather low since the games (Golubchikov, 2016).

The 2014 bid claimed to create an edition of Olympic Games without leaving any carbon footprint. They cooperated with international experts to secure a sustainable standard on any new buildings. But along the way they intoxicated inhabitants’ water, polluted the nature with waste from construction work, and fewer events were then planned in venues after the event. Once again, the idea the bid had ambitious plans for the environmental sustainability, but once again the legacy and the label of “The Green Games” is questionable. With smart managing, coordinating efforts and involvement of stakeholders the venues may be turned into social and economical values rather than white elephants (Golubchikov, 2016).

Conclusion

The purpose of this article is not to shed light on the negative impacts on the Olympics, but rather see how the IOC environmental policies affect the Organisation of the Games and to learn how the implications can improve the event more in the future. By presenting the development of the IOC's environmental strategies the past 25 years, and examine two cases of the Olympic Games to see whether the strategies were implemented by the Organising Committees these key questions were attempted to be answered:

- *What are the environmental policies of the IOC today and how has the policy changed during the last two decades?*
- *In what way have the policies had an impact on the organisation of the games?*

There is no doubt that during the past 25 years the IOC and the OCOG's have developed ambitious strategies for a sustainable development of the Olympic Games. The Organising Committees follows the thorough environmental policies developed by the IOC in their bid for the Olympic Games, but when economic issues appear the environment gets neglected. In this article some of the climatic threats are mentioned, and these examples show severe challenges in the implementation of the strategies in the Olympic Games. On the other hand, the examples mentioned are recent games, and with sustainable consciousness the possibility for the reuse of the venues is still present. Although the Olympic Games have been associated with several negative aspects when it comes to environment, the Games also have the potential to be a contributor in making Mega Events greener if the policies written down are put into action.

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THE CONTEMPORARY STATE OF THE OLYMPIC INFRASTRUCTURE IN CORTINA D'AMPEZZO AND THE SURROUNDING AREA¹

Dr Karolina NAZIMEK (POL)

Introduction

In over 100 years of modern Olympic history, cities - organisers fit permanently in the historical heritage of the modern world. They commemorate great sports events through material objects, museum souvenirs, publishing and a living continuation of tradition. A special role in this commemoration is played by the old Olympic cities associated with the Winter Olympic Games.

The purpose of this paper is to present the current traces of the 7th Winter Olympic Games on the terrain of Cortina d'Ampezzo and the surrounding area (as of 2012). These traces are nothing but remnants (including Olympic objects), souvenirs (including medals, sports equipment) or memorabilia, memories of people taking part in the games or press articles. Olympic objects or ruins are real and objective traces and are a testimony of the idea of Olympism, while souvenirs and memorabilia are *"signs of what has happened before, what has been incorporated into a given object ("souvenir"), and what can be and is reproduced in memories, triggered by the appropriate attitude of the ones commemorating subjects"*². J. Lipiec describes a trace in this way: *"(...) they constitute a remnant and a souvenir of being, which ended its present stage in reality and there is no –here and now– chance to return to the former positions,*

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1. This article was based in part on my doctoral dissertation (University of Physical Education in Cracow).
 2. J. Lipiec, *Powrót do Estetyki. Uroda Świata-Piękno Sztuki*, Kraków 2005, p. 101. Translated by the author.

and so it cannot be there and here simultaneously”³. That’s how it is with the Olympic Games. They do not exist themselves anymore, they are only a memory preserved in the traces that remained after them.

Hypothesis and research questions

The main theoretical assumption of the conducted research is: although the Olympic Games in Cortina d’Ampezzo happened over half a century ago, the remains such as Olympic objects, souvenirs and memorabilia are still present and are kind of attraction for present and future generations.

The paper attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What are the current traces of the 7th Winter Olympic Games?
2. Are there any monuments in Cortina d’Ampezzo commemorating the games (museums, monuments, memorial plaques)?
3. What is the state of the Olympic objects?
4. Have all the Olympic objects survived to modern times?

Research methods and techniques

This work is interdisciplinary – it contains concepts from the borderline of sociology and history of sport and Olympism. Therefore, it requires various research methods and types that provide answers to the questions posed.

The main research method used will be the historical method, used for direct analysis and interpretation of the acquired facts (induction method)⁴. When using it, the following sources will be explored:

- depicting mainly the material culture of the society: objects and sports facilities and those commemorating the Winter Olympic Games (Olympic museums, statues, Olympic stones)

3. Id., *Fenomenologia wędrówki. Studia z filozofii turystyki*, Kraków 2010, p. 161. Translated by the author.

4. K. Toporowicz, *Elementy metodologii badań historycznych w naukach o kulturze fizycznej*, [in:] *Metody empiryczne w naukach o kulturze fizycznej*, (ed.) H. Grabowski, Kraków 1996, pp. 131-132.

- printed: documents (including: Official Reports), press releases regarding the Games (including: “Przegląd Sportowy”)
- iconographic: photographs showing the events, maps of ski trails, Olympic emblems, images of Olympic mascots
- linguistic: sports facilities names⁵.

Official internet websites supplemented the abovementioned sources.

Another method used is the analysis of urban and sports space, applied to Olympic objects and objects commemorating the winter games.

In addition, analysis of visual data will be used (both as direct analysis of the objects observed and later analysis of photographs taken at that time). This way, all details will become clearer, because they were entrusted not only to the memory, but also “photographic film”.

The next method-free interview, in this case based on the categorisation mentioned by K. T. Konecki⁶, is conducted with a focused technique. During the collection of research material, authorised interviews⁷ with two respondents were carried out, unregistered on the tape:

1. Antonio Colli – coordinator of tourism and sports events and director of Gestione Impianti Sportivi (GIS) in Cortina d’Ampezzo (interview 27.04.2012, Cortina d’Ampezzo).

2. Giovanni Perale – GIS employee in Cortina d’Ampezzo (interview 27.04.2012, Cortina d’Ampezzo).

These interviews are aimed at deepening and enriching knowledge related to the topic.

7th Winter Olympic Games

Historical outline of the Winter Olympic Games in Cortina d’Ampezzo

The 7th Winter Olympics took place in the Italian town of Cortina d’Ampezzo in

5. Ibid., pp. 124-125.

6. K. T. Konecki, *Studia z metodologii badań jakościowych. Teoria ugruntowana*, Warszawa 2000, pp. 169-170.

7. The content of the interviews can be found in the collection of the Author.

1956. The town is located in the north-east of the country, in the Veneto region, in the Dolomites at an altitude of 1200 m above sea level⁸.

In 1949, during a meeting of 43 IOC sessions in Rome, it was decided that the host of the 7th Winter Olympics in 1956 will be Cortina d'Ampezzo⁹. The Italian town had only a few objects that could have been the arena of struggle for the players during this most important sports event. As part of the preparations for the Games, a decision was made to build new facilities, which were financed from the money received from the Italian football lottery¹⁰.

The 7th Winter Olympic Games in Cortina d'Ampezzo took place from 26 January to 5 February 1956. The Olympic Games were attended by 821 athletes (including 134 women) from 32 countries (Australia, Austria, Belgium, Bolivia, Bulgaria, Chile, Czechoslovakia, Finland, France, Greece, Spain, the Netherlands, Iran, Iceland, Japan, Yugoslavia, Canada, South Korea, Lebanon, Liechtenstein, Germany, Norway, Poland, Romania, the United States, Switzerland, Sweden, Turkey, Hungary, and Great Britain, Italy and the Soviet Union). During the 7th Winter Olympic Games 24 competitions took place in five sport disciplines (bobsleigh, ice hockey, figure and fast skating, skiing). Women competed in two competitions (figure skating and skiing)¹¹. Medal classification was won by the debutants from the Soviet Union who received seven gold medals. They were better than the team of Austria (four gold medals), Finnish team (three gold and silver medals, one bronze medal) and Swiss team (three gold, two silver, one bronze medal). The hosts of the Olympic Games –Italians– won one gold and two silver medals and were classified in the 8th place¹².

The contemporary traces of the 7th Winter Olympic Games.

Olympic objects. Stadio del Ghiaccio (Olympic Stadium)

The opening ceremony of the 7th Winter Olympic Games took place at the

8. *Encyklopedia geograficzno-turystyczna Europa Zachodnia*, Vol. I, (ed.) Z. Długosz, W. Nowak, J. Rajman, Bochnia-Kraków 2004, p. 72.

9. G. Młodzikowski, *Olimpiady ery nowożytnej: idea i rzeczywistość*, Warszawa 1984, pp. 147-148.

10. D. Miller, *Historia igrzysk olimpijskich i MKOL: od Aten do Londynu 1894-2012*, Poznań 2012, p. 165.

11. The women's competitions did not include dance couples and couples in figure skating; Z. Porada, *Zimowe Igrzyska Olimpijskie 1924-2006*, Kraków 2007, p. 69.

12. *Ibid.*, s. 23.

Olympic Stadium on 26 January 1956 at 11.30 AM¹³. It was attended by members of the International Olympic Committee (including the president of the International Olympic Committee – Avery Brundage)¹⁴ and the chairman of the Italian Olympic Committee – Count Paolo Thaon di Revel, who gave a welcome speech. The opening of the Olympic Games was made by Italian President Giovanni Gronchi¹⁵. The torch was ignited by the great Italian speed skater, Guido Caroli¹⁶. The Italian Olympic skier Giuliana Chenal Minuzzo made the Olympic Oath on behalf of the participants as the first woman in the history¹⁷. On 5 February 1936 at 5.00 PM medals and diplomas were awarded to the winners and the closing ceremony was held¹⁸. It was conducted by the president of the International Olympic Committee – Avery Brundage. “*On behalf of the International Olympic Committee, I express my greatest gratitude to the President of the Italian Republic Gronchi and the Italian people, the authorities of the city of Cortina d’Ampezzo and the organisers of the Games and at the same time I declare the 7th Winter Olympic Games closed. According to tradition, I call the youth of all countries for a meeting in Squaw Valley, where in four years we will be celebrating the 8th Winter Olympic Games together*”¹⁹. During the 7th Winter Olympics at the stadium there were such Olympic disciplines held as: ice hockey and figure skating²⁰.

The Olympic Stadium is located in the northern part of Cortina d’Ampezzo. In 1952, as part of preparations for the 7th Winter Olympic Games, the con-

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13. VII OWG *Cortina d’Ampezzo 1956. General Rules and Programme*, Organising Committee of the VII OWG, Cortina d’Ampezzo 1956, p. 65.
 14. K. Procházka, *Zimné olympijské hry: od Chamonix 1924 k Lake Placid 1980*, Praha 1982, p. 90.
 15. *Cortina 1956. VII Giochi Olimpici Invernali*, Comitato Olimpico Nazionale Italiano, Cortina D’Ampezzo 1956, p. 573.
 16. J. Mrzygłód, *Znicz olimpijski zbliża się do Cortina d’Ampezzo. W czwartek salwy artyleryjskie obwieszcza światu o otwarciu VII Zimowych Igrzysk. Kto wygra “trzydziestkę”?* – *zastanawiają się w Cortinie*, “Przegląd Sportowy” No. 11/1956, p. 1.
 17. J. Nendel, *Cortina d’Ampezzo 1956*, [in:] *Encyklopedia of the Modern Olympic Movement*, (ed.) J. E. Findling, K.D. Pelle, London 2004, p. 332.
 18. *Cortina 1956. VII Giochi Olimpici Invernali*, op. cit., p. 691.
 19. J. Mrzygłód, *Cortina żegna olimpijczyków: do zobaczenia w Melbourne. Salwy radości i przyjaźni zakończyły VII Igrzyska w Cortinie*, “Przegląd Sportowy” No. 16/1956, p. 3. Translated by the author.
 20. Based on an interview with Giovanni Perale, further on: interview with G. Perale.

struction of a modern stadium began²¹. The newly created facility was designed by architects: Mario Ghedina, Francesco Uras and Riccardo Nalli²². The official inauguration of the stadium took place on 26 October 1955²³. Reconstruction of Stadio del Ghiaccio took place in 2003. This resulted in a full roofing and reconstruction of the stands, which can accommodate 10,000 spectators²⁴.

The Olympic Stadium comes alive in the period from September to May, when the ice rink is open, used both for sporting purposes (competitions, ice hockey tournaments, figure skating, short track, etc.) and recreational purposes. During this period, it is rarely adapted to team games such as volleyball or basketball, due to large costs of creating the ice rink again. Next to the main surface there is an ice rink for curling, where karate, judo and wrestling competitions are organised in summer. The stadium is also used to host various cultural events (e.g. music performances, sports exhibitions, etc.)²⁵. Inside and outside the facility, there are numerous souvenirs related to the Games: photographs depicting the 7th Winter Olympic Games, two plaques commemorating the Olympics, bust of Giulio Onesti²⁶, Olympic torch with Olympic symbols and mock-ups of Olympic objects from 1956. Visiting Cortina d'Ampezzo, it is worth going to the Gestione Impianti Sportivi (GIS) organisation, whose headquarters is located in the building at the Stadio del Ghiaccio. This organisation was founded by the city and its main purpose is to manage urban sports facilities, including to take care of the Olympic facilities from 1956.

Romano and Armando Apollonio Stadium

During the 7th Winter Olympics at the Apollonio Stadium (additional ice rink), ice hockey matches were played²⁷. Currently, the stadium houses tennis courts²⁸.

21. Interview with G. Perale.

22. Cortina 1956. *VII Giochi Olimpici Invernali*, op. cit., p. 130.

23. *Ibid.*, p. 132.

24. Interview with G. Perale.

25. Interview with G. Perale.

26. The boards and bust will be described in detail in the chapter "Monuments commemorating the 7th Winter Olympic Games".

27. *VII OWG Cortina d'Ampezzo 1956. General Rules and Programme*, op. cit., p. 134.

28. Interview with G. Perale.

“Italia” Olympic ski jump

In 1923, the “Franchetti” ski jump was built on Zuel (suburbs of Cortina d’Ampezzo). It was named after the local hotel-keeper, baron Carlo Franchetti, who sponsored the facility. The record of the newly created ski jump (42 m) was established in 1924 by two Austrian jumpers – Greising and Schatz. In 1926 the ski jump was rebuilt (record of 54 m – Tore Edmann from Sweden), and in 1939 it was demolished. In 1940, on the site of “Franchetti”, a modern ski jumping “Italia” was built, meeting the FIS standards. The newly created facility was built according to the design of Mario Giacobbi and Federico Terschanka. The record of “Italia” ski jump was set by the sensational jumper Laaksonen – 78 m²⁹. On 15 April 1955, in preparation for the 7th Winter Olympics, the old “Italia” ski jump was demolished. The new “Italia” was created, with K-point: 72 m. The Games in 1956 included ski jumping competitions and some competitions in Nordic combination. The designers were Guglielmo Holzner, Reinhard Straumann, Piero Pozzati, Enzo Montovani and Luciano Berti³⁰. The competition in 1956 was won by the sensational Finnish contestant Antti Hyvärinen, who jumped 81 and 84 m and set a new ski jump record, winning the gold medal. Until 1990, the ski jump in Cortina d’Ampezzo hosted national and international competitions (including the World Cup in 1979). After this year, the ski jump was not modernised and ceased to meet the FIS requirements. Since then, no sports competitions have been carried out here³¹.

On the right and on the left side of the “Italia” ski jump, judges’ towers and stands for fans have survived to this day. Around the out-point of the ski jump, currently a football pitch, we can see flagpoles on which the national flags were hung.

The only relic from the Olympics is the symbol of five Olympic rings, placed on the threshold of the ski jump.

Olympic bobsleigh track “Eugenio Monti”

The first bobsleigh track, 1200 m long, was built in 1923 near the village of Ronco. In 1928, international bobsleigh competitions were held there.

29. VII OWG Cortina d’Ampezzo 1956. *General Rules and Programme*, op. cit., p. 137.

30. *Ibid.*, pp. 138-139.

31. Ski Jumps Archive: Cortina d’Ampezzo, Retrieved 16 August 2013 [online] <http://www.skisprungschanzen.com/PL/Skocznie/ITA-W%C5%82ochy/Cortina+d%60Ampezzo/0330/>

Due to changing requirements, it was rebuilt in 1936 and adapted to the new standards in Garmisch Partenkirchen and St. Moritz. It had 15 bends, and was 1500 m long. The next extension took place in 1948 (16 bends, 1700 m)³². During the 7th Winter Olympics, bobsleigh competitions took place for two-person and four-person teams³³. “Eugenio Monti” bobsleigh track had 16 bends and 1700 m during the games³⁴. The next years were fruitful for the Olympic bobsleigh track, as it hosted numerous national and international competitions³⁵.

There are no sports competitions held on the natural bobsleigh track closed in 2008. Despite the passing years, its original course has survived to this day. The area next to the Olympic bobsleigh track was developed into a playground - the so-called “Adventure Park”³⁶.

The Olympic bobsleigh track “Eugenio Monti” got its name to commemorate this outstanding bobsleigh rider, a multiple Olympic medallist³⁷.

Misurina

Lake Misurina is located about 13 km from Cortina d’Ampezzo, 1750 m above sea level. During the 7th Winter Olympic Games in 1956, on a frozen ice sheet (400 m circuit), speed skating competitions were held. The fast speed ice track is located in the northern part of Misurina³⁸. After the Olympic Games, this track was recognised as one of the fastest objects of this type³⁹.

Lake Misurina is currently a tourist attraction.

Cross-country trails in Cortina d’Ampezzo

During the 7th Winter Olympic Games in Cortina d’Ampezzo women and men competed in cross-country skiing. Women competed at a distance of 10 km,

32. VII OWG Cortina d’Ampezzo 1956. *General Rules and Programme*, op. cit., pp. 175, 177.

33. Interview with G. Perale.

34. VII OWG Cortina d’Ampezzo 1956. *General Rules and Programme*, op. cit., p. 178.

35. Interview with G. Perale.

36. Interview with G. Perale.

37. Based on an interview with Antonio Colli, further on: interview with A. Colli.

38. VII OWG Cortina d’Ampezzo 1956. *General Rules and Programme*, op. cit., p. 180.

39. *Ibid.*, p. 181.

while men at 15, 30 and 50 km (including 15 km run in the classic combination). The competitors also took part in relay races (women 3x5 km, men 4x10 km)⁴⁰. The start and finish of the races were located at the stadium⁴¹. This stadium, with an area of 250x44 m, was built 2 km from Cortina d'Ampezzo on Campo di Sotto⁴².

The races on which cross-country skiing took place are currently partly used. Sports and recreational events take place there. Other cross-country trails were "absorbed" by the infrastructure (including hotels, residential houses, pavements, streets, roads, etc.). The stadium has been liquidated, and the place is now a meadow⁴³.

Faloria

During the 7th Winter Olympic Games at Mount Faloria, located next to Cortina d'Ampezzo part of the competition was held in alpine combination - men's giant slalom. It was carried out on the route called "Illo Colli".

The starting point was at an altitude of 2336 m, the finish at 1713 m. The route was 2660 m long⁴⁴.

It is now used by skiers⁴⁵.

Tofana

During the 7th Winter Olympic Games at Mount Tofana, located next to Cortina d'Ampezzo part of the competition was held in alpine combination - women's giant slalom, downhill, men's and women's special slalom.

Women's giant slalom was carried out on the route called "Canalone". The starting point was at an altitude of 2020 m, the finish at 1612 m. The route was 1366 m long⁴⁶.

Men's and women's slalom took place on the route named "Col Druscìè". The starting point of the men's slalom was at an altitude of 1748 m, the finish

40. Z. Porada, op. cit., pp. 130-131.

41. Interview with G. Perale.

42. *VII OWG Cortina d'Ampezzo 1956. General Rules and Programme*, op. cit., p. 156.

43. Interview with G. Perale.

44. *VII OWG Cortina d'Ampezzo 1956. General Rules and Programme*, op. cit., p. 590.

45. Interview with G. Perale.

46. *VII OWG Cortina d'Ampezzo 1956. General Rules and Programme*, op. cit., p. 588.

line at 1477 m. Women's slalom started at 1673 m, and the finish line was placed at 1498 m. The length of the men's slalom route was 617 m, while in the case of women it was 161 m⁴⁷.

The women's downhill race was held on the same route as the women's giant slalom. The starting point was at an altitude of 2114 m, the finish at 1612 m. The route was 1552 m long⁴⁸. In the case of men, this competition took place on the route called "Olympia". The starting point was at an altitude of 2282 m, the finish at 1380 m. The length of the route was 3461 m⁴⁹.

Those routes are now used by skiers for both recreational and sports purposes (e.g. Olympia run – women's World Cup competition)⁵⁰.

Objects commemorating the 7th Winter Olympic Games

Monument in Cortina d'Ampezzo (Olympic Stone)

Opposite the Olympic Stadium, we can see a monument (Olympic stone) dedicated to the Olympic Games and Italian competitors (so-called azzurri) from Cortina d'Ampezzo. On the Olympic stone we can see, among others, symbols of the Olympic Games (five Olympic rings) and pictograms of sports disciplines.

Plaques commemorating the Olympic Games

On the walls of the Olympic Stadium there are two plaques commemorating the Olympic Games. The first was created due to the 50th anniversary (1956-2006) of the 7th Winter Olympic Games in Cortina d'Ampezzo, while the second was devoted to the winners of individual sports disciplines in 1956. Symbols of the Olympic Games (five Olympic rings) are also placed on the plaques.

Bust of Giulio Onesti

Before entering the Olympic Stadium, we can see a bust of Giulio Onesti, who

47. Ibid., pp. 592, 594.

48. Ibid., p. 596.

49. Ibid., p. 598.

50. Interview with G. Perale.

during the 7th Winter Olympic Games in 1956 was the president of the Italian Olympic Committee⁵¹.

Summary

The 7th Winter Olympic Games were the last games that were held on objects located a short distance from each other⁵².

Some of the objects are currently used for typical winter disciplines (e.g. Stadio del Ghiaccio, routes for alpine competition on Tofana and Faloria). Among the objects remembering the times of the Games, some are not currently used for sports (ski jump “Italia”, Olympic bobsleigh track “Eugenio Monti”). Mentioning objects from 1956, it is worth taking a look at Misurina, cross-country trails and Apollonio Stadium. Cross-country trails are now partially used, and Apollonio Stadium has been transformed into tennis courts. The last object –Lake Misurina– is a tourist attraction.

In addition to Olympic facilities, the memory of the Olympic symbols is also very important. The memory of the Olympic Games in Cortina d’Ampezzo is visible and nurtured. It is seen in objects commemorating 1956 (Olympic Stone, plaques commemorating the Olympic Games and the bust of Giulio Onesti). Remembering these types of objects, it is worth mentioning GIS as an organisation creating, among others, events commemorating the Olympics (50th anniversary in 2006)⁵³.

Apart from the memory about the games, symbols (five Olympic rings) are also important, the presence of which in the area of the “Queen of the Italian Dolomites” is negligible (at the Olympic Stone, at the Olympic Stadium and at the threshold of “Italia”).

51. Interview with A. Colli.

52. Interview with A. Colli.

53. Interview with G. Perale.

COST AND REVENUE OVERRUNS OF OLYMPIC GAMES 2000–2018

Maike WEITZMANN (GER)

1. Introduction

In recent years, interest in the Olympic Games has changed. This is most notably seen in media reporting, which eagerly reports on speculation regarding future Olympic bids (Bull 2016). For example, several cities including Hamburg, Boston and Oslo, have withdrawn their applications during the application process (Bull 2016; Reuters 2014). In addition, there has been a decline in the number of bids for the Olympic Games. Between 2002 and 2014, there were usually nine or ten candidates for hosting the Summer Olympic Games and seven to nine for the Olympic Winter Games, while in recent years, these numbers have reduced respectively three or even two (OlympStats 2017). This may be due to increasing costs and gigantism of the Games.

Despite this, there are several positive factors generated by hosting the Olympic Games (Andranovich, Burbank & Heying 2001). City representatives have an opportunity to increase media attention towards the region, nationally and internationally, without any significant costs. In addition, the Olympic Games can be seen as a factor helping to improve tourism, leading to higher tourism revenues (Andranovich et al. 2001). Hosting the Games offers the opportunity to create an appealing image and further develop a city's development strategy (Andranovich et al. 2001). In order to speed up the development of the city, the Olympic Games are the mega event of choice (de Lange 1998). Nevertheless, even if politicians personally promote and support the Games, the participation of the citizens in the process of bidding is extremely low (Hiller 2000). This low participation can be explained by the high costs that such a mega-event entails – the flip side of the coin. In this context, the phenomenon of cost overruns can be integrated (Zimbalist 2015). Cost overruns are, “the amount by which the

actual cost exceeds the budgeted, estimated or target cost” (BusinessDictionary n. d.). The alleged rising cost overruns are bothering citizens, whereupon many cities revise their application for the Olympic Games (Oberli 2017). To find out how far cost overruns are affecting the Olympic Games exactly, this study evaluates the costs and also the revenues of the Organising Committees of Olympic Games (OCOGs) as well as the costs for Olympic related infrastructure for the Olympic Games and Olympic Winter Games from 2000–2018.

2. Literature review

Mega-sport events are not the only project where cost overruns incur (i.a. Cantarelli, Flyvbjerg & Buhl 2012; Kostka & Anzinger 2015; Lundberg, Japonitsub & Pyddoke 2011; McKinsey 2015; Sovacool, Enevoldsen, Koch & Barthelmie 2016). Delays in project implementations and cost overruns have repeatedly been a problem at public sector projects (Satyanarayana 1974). Studies on cost overruns deal primarily with infrastructure projects involving the construction of rail, bridges and tunnels, roads, wind farms and buildings in general (i.a. Abdulkadir, Muhammad, Gidado & Nuruddeen 2017; Abusafiya & Suliman 2017; Ali, Ali Mangi, Sohu, Jamali & Kateemullah 2017; Flyvbjerg, Holm & Buhl 2002; Pickrell 1990; Singh 2010; Sovacool et al. 2016). Nevertheless, there is a lack of research on organisational projects such as the Olympic Games.

It is important to understand the manifold factors leading to cost overruns. Roughly, the general factors causing cost overruns can be categorised into technical, economic, managerial, political, environmental aspects and project resources (Abdel-Hafeez, El-Attar & Abdel-Hafez 2016). In addition, these factors may be supplemented by specific event-related factors.

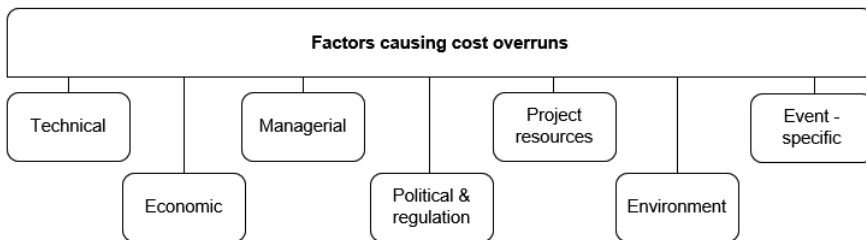


Fig. 1: Factors causing cost overruns (modified according to Abdel-Hafeez et al. (2016))

Technically-based cost overruns deal with changes in the design, poor technical performance, technical complexity of projects, delays in handover, lack of experience, bad organisation of the site or changes of the scope (i.a. Ali et al. 2017, 30; Creedy, Skitmore, & Wong 2010; Jackson 2002; Mahamid & Bruland 2011; Memon, Abdul Rahman & Abdul Azis 2011; Senouci, Alsarraj, Gunduz & Eldin 2016; Toh, Ting, Ali, Aliagha, & Munir 2012). In the economic sector problems arise through insufficient funding, changes in money exchange rates, interests and inflation rates and poor contractor management (i.a. Bageis & Fortune 2009; Khodeir & Hamdy 2015; Jackson 2002; Le-Hoai, Dai Lee & Yong Lee 2008; Mahamid & Bruland 2011; Memon et al. 2011; Morris 1990; Toh et al. 2012). In the field of management, an inaccurate or bad estimation of final costs can lead to cost overruns, which is complemented by the theory of optimistic bias, which was established by Kahnemann & Tversky (1979). “The optimism bias is defined as the difference between a person’s expectation and the outcome that follows. If expectations are better than reality, the bias is optimistic; if reality is better than expected, the bias is pessimistic” (Sharot 2011, R941). Additionally, an insufficient project-analysis, changes in the planning, poor site management, complexity of organisational structure, poor coordination and communication are also circumstances that favour cost overruns (i.a. Bruzelius, Flyvbjerg & Rothengatter 1998; Creedy et al. 2010; Flyvbjerg 2011, 322; Gajewska, & Ropel 2011; Khodeir & Hamdy 2015; Le-Hoai et al. 2008; Mahamid & Bruland 2011; Toh et al. 2012). Further factors causing cost overruns exist in the field of politics and regulation. Reasons are non-supportive governmental policy and lack of governmental control. These reasons are supported by the theory of strategic misrepresentation. People systematically underestimate the costs and overestimate the resulting benefits (Flyvbjerg, Holm & Buhl 2002, Wachs 1989) which relates to the “winner’s curse” of overvaluing the benefits and undervaluing the costs of hosting the Olympic Games (i.a. Andreff 2012; Colman 2015, 822; Khodeir & Hamdy 2015; Senouci et al. 2016). Furthermore, changes in cost of materials, unqualified labour and missing material were observed to be responsible for cost overruns in the range of project resources (i.a. Bageis & Fortune 2009; Creedy et al. 2010; Gajewska, & Ropel 2011; Khodeir & Hamdy 2015; Memon et al. 2011). Environmental factors responsible for increasing costs can be unforeseen weather conditions or the decision for an unsuitable site (i.a. Creedy et al. 2010; Le-Hoai et al. 2008; Mahamid & Bruland 2011; Senouci et al. 2016).

This theoretical model of Abdel-Hafeez et al. (2016) is complemented by event-specific factors. Follow-up costs and time pressure, since the event is long scheduled to take place at a certain time, might also be responsible for higher costs. However, there are also sport specific factors, like when the sporting disciplines of international federations' change, which leads to the building of more or different sports facilities, also have an influence on cost overruns. The sudden need for an increased security level (e.g. after 9/11 in Athens) or occurring illness (e.g. Zika virus in Rio) were also identified as cost drivers (CBC 2015; Gratton & Preuss 2008; Homewood 2017; Müller 2014, 634; Preuss 2004; Sanburn 2012; Zagorsky 2016).

To sum up, the main reasons for cost overruns are the underestimation of the risks for complexity, scope and changes etc. during the implementation period (Flyvbjerg 2011). Jackson (2002) supports this fact by describing one serious problem in project management: The budget is always estimated with inadequate information, but it is important for good planning to define the scope and complexity of the project in a clear manner already in the early stages. In general, the challenge in project management is to minimize the risks of cost overruns and thus keep the project on budget (Abusafiya & Suliman 2017).

The comparison of studies of cost overruns in public sector projects shows country and project specific differences (Aftab, Ismail, Noor & Ahmad 2014; Aibiniu & Jagbonon 2002; Flyvbjerg 2009; Inuwa, Saiva & Alkizim 2014; Singh 2010).

Baloyi & Bekker (2011) compared the causes of cost overruns in general projects with those occurring in the FIFA World Cup 2010 in South Africa. They concluded an existing difference between those factors that create cost overruns for general projects with those for the construction of stadiums in South Africa for the FIFA World Cup 2010. Factors that lead to cost overruns on general projects are material price changes, changes in work or additional work and time delays. Material costs also have the biggest impact on the construction of FIFA World Cup stadiums, while inaccurate material estimates and a lack of skills are the other most influential factors.

Obviously, the Olympic Games always end up being expensive if the host city plans intensive investments in traffic infrastructure, communication systems, housing and sports facility construction (e.g. Sydney 2000, Barcelona 1992, Seoul 1988, Montreal 1976 and Munich 1972). The costs are more modest

though when the host city focuses only on organising and staging the Games (e.g. Atlanta 1996 and Los Angeles 1984) (Preuss 2006). Nevertheless, mega events are often used as a catalyst for urban development (Preuss 2004). Furthermore, projects usually generate cost overruns if they are delayed and could not stick to the deadline (Andreff 2017).

3. Methodology

Generally, the budget is divided into operational cost, revenue and capital investment cost. The operational revenues and expenditures are included in the budget of the OCOG. In addition to the OCOG budget, the city, regional or state authorities and the private sector finance a so-called non-OCOG budget. These investments are capital investments and include the building and renovation of the airport, roads, accommodation, sports venues, Olympic and media villages (IOC 2010). Since the focus is on Olympic related investments, the study only deals with sports venues, villages and the broadcasting and media centre. Table 1 shows an overview of revenue and expenditure categories of the OCOG. Similarly, the study uses a basket of facilities for evaluating the non-OCOG costs due to a lack of availability of data for all sports venues. The chosen selection represents the biggest venues of the Olympic Games as well as general and specific facilities. Therefore, it can be assumed that the cost increases are likely to be overestimated. Due to the strong changes of the scope of the Olympic Games as well as the availability of data, the research focus is on the Games from Sydney 2000 to PyeongChang 2018.

The data basis on costs and revenues of the Olympic Games over the preparation period is very low. Therefore, the first budget estimation in the candidature file is compared to the final cost and revenue breakdown. Despite the detailed search for cost and revenue statements by the OCOG and the non-OCOG area through self-research, support from scientific experts and the Olympic Studies Centre in Lausanne, little material was found. The existing gaps were partly filled in by IOC's internal and collected data. The data on costs and revenues of Olympic Games shows numerous discrepancies. Therefore, this review only covers the changes from the first estimation to the final and total costs and revenues of the Olympic Games. The cost estimations in the candidature file have to be seen critically, because the assessment is made eight

years before the Games and thus the inflation is an unknown quantity. Because of this problem, the actual inflation rate by means of the GDP deflator respectively the construction price index of the host country must be added to the cost estimates for each year. Similarly, the data from the candidature file was converted into the national currency on the basis of the former exchange rate.

Table 1: Overview of the OCOG and the non-OCOG budget

OCOG Revenue	OCOG Expenditure	non-OCOG Olympic Games	non-OCOG Olympic Winter Games
IOC Contribution	Venues	Olympic Stadium	Olympic Stadium
TOP Sponsorship	Workforce	Swimming-Pool	Ski Jumping Hill
National Sponsorship	Technology	Multipurpose Hall	Sliding Centre
Ticket Sales	Services	Velodrome	Ice Stadium
Licensing	Marketing & Events	Olympic Village	Olympic Village
Lotteries	Administration & Coordination	IBC/MPC	IBC/MPC
Donations	Other		
Disposal of assets			
Subsidies			
Other			

4. Results and discussion

Since organising and hosting of the Olympic Games and the Olympic Winter Games differ greatly, the results are discussed separately.

In all ten cases the costs of organising the Olympic Games (OCOG budget) are usually covered by its revenues, which are almost explicitly privately financed resources. Table 2 summarizes the main findings for the Olympic Games.

All Olympic Games had more revenue and expenses than estimated in the respective candidature files. It clearly shows that the revenues are underestimated relatively more than the costs. In average the revenues increased by 45% and the expenditures by 33%. Likewise, no OCOG ran a deficit. In the cases of Sydney 2000, Athens 2004, Beijing 2008 and London 2012 there was even a profit. The cost for non-OCOG investments had a range from 29% to 56% with an average of 43%, which is similar to other projects' cost overruns.

Table 2: Total cost and revenue overruns of Olympic Games

	Sydney 2000	Athens 2004	Beijing 2008	London 2012	Rio 2016 ¹	Ø 5-Games Olympic Games
OCOG Revenue	72%	51%	8%	50%	N/A	45%
OCOG Expenditure	51%	30%	4%	48%	N/A	33%
Non-OCOG	56%	29% ²	N/A ³	43%	N/A	43%

Sources: Athens 2004 Olympic Bid Committee (1996); ATHOC (2005); Beijing 2008 Olympic Games Bid Committee (2001); BOCOG (n.d.); DCMS (2012); IOC data; Kasimati (2015); LOCOG (2013); London 2012 Candidate City (2004); OCA (2002); Panagiotopoulou (2014); SOCOG (2002); Sydney Olympics 2000 Bid Limited (1993)

Considering the Olympic Winter Games (Tab. 3) all Games except Sochi had more revenue and expenses than estimated in the candidature file. On average the revenues increased by 43% and the expenditures by 45%. The higher average value of expenditure is due to the fact that Turin had a rather high overspending while there was no final revenue available for the city. Salt Lake City 2002 experienced major changes in its OCOG budget while Vancouver 2010 had very good planning. Likewise, no OCOG ran a deficit. The cost increases for non-OCOG investments in Salt Lake City 2002, Turin 2006 and Vancouver 2010 were moderate with 13%-28%. The outlier is Sochi 2014 with a cost overrun of 178%, resulting in a relatively high average of 60%. These results show that the organisation of Olympic Winter Games seem to be more unpredictable than the Olympic Games.

1. The Olympic Games in Rio 2016 have not yet been formally finalised, so there are no final numbers.
2. Additional venues were used due to the fact of bad estimations in the candidature file.
3. There was no data about the non-OCOG cost of Beijing 2008 available.

Table 3: Total cost and revenue overruns respectively underruns of Olympic Winter Games

	Salt Lake City 2002	Turin 2006	Vancouver 2010	Sochi 2014	Pyeong-Chang 2018 ⁴	Ø 5-Games Olympic Winter Games
OCOG Revenue	119%	N/A ⁵	12%	-3%	N/A	43%
OCOG Expenditure	114%	58%	12%	-6%	N/A	45%
Non-OCOG	28%	20%	13%	178%	N/A	60%

Sources: Anti-Corruption Foundation (n.d.); Aumüller (2014); Bottero, Sacerdotti & Mauro (2012); Fay (2018); Roche (1994); Salt Lake City Bid Committee (1994); SLOC (2001, 2002); Sochi 2014 Bid Committee (2006); SOOC (2014); Torino Bid Committee (1998); TOROC (n.d.); Vancouver 2010 Candidate City (2002); VANOC (2010, 2014)

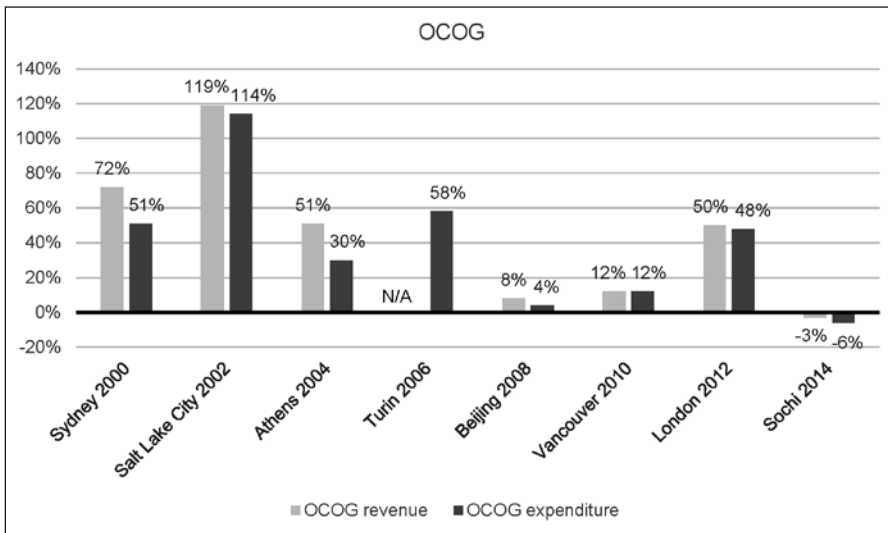


Fig. 2: Total cost and revenue overruns of the Organising Committees of the Olympic Games

4. The Olympic Games in PyeongChang 2018 have not yet been formally finalised, so there are no final numbers.
5. There was no data about the final revenues of Turin 2006 available.

Figure 1 compares the revenues and the expenditures of the respective OCOGs. All OCOGs generated more revenue than they had expenditures, with the exception of Vancouver, which had a balanced budget. That means all other Games could make a profit. It also became clear that all but Sochi had more income and expenses than they had assumed in the candidature file. Beijing 2008, Vancouver 2010 and Sochi 2014 were very close to their estimates, while Sydney 2000, Salt Lake City 2002, Athens 2004, Turin 2006 and London 2012 deviated by more than 30% to almost 120%.

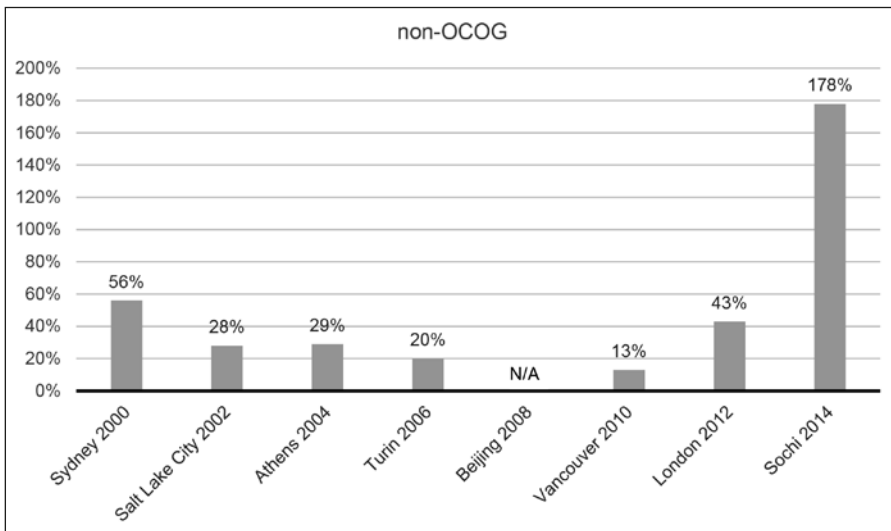


Fig. 3: Non-OCOG investments of Olympic Games and Olympic Winter Games.

The consideration of cost overruns in the non-OCOG budget (Fig. 2) shows that the costs are likely to increase. Sydney 2000 experienced a 56% cost overrun. After the implementation of the “Olympic Games Knowledge Management” programme in 2000, where the experiences of host cities are passed on to future host cities, the cost overruns seem to decrease. From Salt Lake City 2002 onwards to Vancouver 2010 the cost overruns was about 13-29%. It began to increase with London 2012 by 43% and reached the highest cost overrun with Sochi 2014 at 178%. If Sochi 2014 as an outlier is not considered, the trend seems to be that Olympic Games have a slightly higher cost increase. This may be because the host cities of the Olympic Games tend to develop their entire city.

5. Conclusion and Outlook

In order to regain the trust of the people and consequently a higher number of applications for the Olympic Games in the future, some recommendations can be derived. The results of this study show that in many places there is still room for improvement. Primarily on the part of the IOC it is important to develop a unified and detailed system of categorisation and classification to better compare the Games. This should be used consistently by all applicant cities from the candidature file through the entire period to the final financial statements. Therefore, the development of costs within an edition of the Games as well as different Olympic Games can be compared. Likewise, the IOC must take the pressure for systematically low cost estimates and realistically assess these assessments based on their initial situation. Generally speaking, it is important that the planning from the candidature file is carried out systematically and the master plan is not changed afterwards. In addition to this, it is problematic that persons who are later mostly not employed in the organisation committee are responsible for making the first estimate. In summary, good planning should be done right from the start and all actions should be constantly monitored. By increasing the transparency towards the public of the respective cities and countries, we believe that the trust of the population towards such projects would grow again, along with the acceptance of the Olympic Games.

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CAN KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER BE SAFEGUARDED IN SPORT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES?

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Olympic Youth Development Centre Zambia

1. Introduction

This research project addresses the question, if knowledge transfer can be safeguarded in sport development programmes. This research question evolved from a sport organisational process. The International Olympic Committee with its Olympic Agenda 2020 sets the target in recommendation 24 on the evaluation of its Sport for Hope Programme (IOC, 2014). The Olympic Youth Development Centre (OYDC) in Zambia is one of the biggest and most visible youth sport development facilities of the IOC. It is the first of two centres which was established under the Sport for Hope Programme in 2010 (Sitali, 2017). The evaluation of the Sport for Hope programme is highly relevant to the IOC and its current President, Dr Thomas Bach. Although it is directly included in the current main sport political agenda, there is no visible progress in this matter until now.

Only a few publicly accessible studies are focussing on the IOC Sport for Hope Programme as well as on the OYDC in Zambia. The existing literature focuses more on the description of the centre, its programmes and other stakeholders being directly and indirectly involved (cf. Sitali, 2017; Burnett, 2015; Chileshe, 2014). As being the essential part of the Sport for Hope programme, the sport centres need to monitor and evaluate their approaches (cf. IOC, 2014). On the one hand to improve their programmes and to safeguard knowledge transfer

1. Katharina Neumann participated in the Seminar and presented this paper.

and on the other hand to showcase impacts contributing to the success of the IOC's Sport for Hope programme.

“Without regular evaluation and systematic impact assessments, the knowledge transfer of good education and training practices are lost” (Burnett, 2015, p. 46). Therefore, this project makes use of already conducted research within the field of human resource development (HRD). Sport development trainings, being part of OYDCs offers, are closely related to HRD. The aim of both approaches is to provide knowledge and empower programme participants to apply, generalise and transfer what they have learned into their work and life domains. Under which preconditions transfer of knowledge can succeed, builds the focus of this research project.

1.1 The Framework – Sport for Hope

The Sport for Hope programme was initiated in 2007 by the International Olympic Committee, *IOC*, to promote sport, education and social development in developing countries (IOC, 2014). As a joint initiative between the IOC, its Olympic Movement stakeholders and local governments, the Sport for Hope Programme involves the construction of multi-functional sports centres, which have been set up in regions in dire need of sports facilities (cf. IOC, 2014). According to the IOC (2017a) these state-of-the-art training facilities are offered to the National Federations and the athletes of the respective countries. It is an offer for young people and communities to practice sport actively and develop their bodies, minds and wills within the Olympic spirit by providing Olympic education opportunities (Sitali, 2017). The Olympic values of excellence, friendship and respect should be spread. By creating access to sports and physical activities for as many people as possible. *Sport for All* is placed at the “heart of the approach” of the Sport for Hope programme and its commitment to promote the development of sport at all levels (IOC, 2017a).

Currently there are two existing Development Centres under the Sport for Hope umbrella. One in Zambia, the Olympic Youth Development Centre founded in 2010, and one in Haiti, which was inaugurated in 2014 (IOC, 2017a). The IOC (2017a) wants, as an objective that the local communities take *ownership* of the venues and adopt them as their centre for social and cultural development. The National Olympic Committees as well as an increasing number of International Federations are interested in using both Sport for Hope

Centres as a platform to support the development of their sport in the respective country and/or the entire region (IOC, 2015). But according to Burnett (2015) the different roles and responsibilities e.g. of the Zambian centre, as well as the aims and needs of various stakeholders involved, cause therefore challenges to the management of the Olympic Youth Development Centre.

This research project will focus on the first multi-purpose sports centre in Zambia, OYDC, to benefit from the experience gained over time and to use the already existing information and materials.

2. Theoretical Framework

The aim of an educational training is, that participants are able to transfer and apply the learned content to different contexts, work environment and other live domains and maintain the knowledge over a period of time. This is called knowledge transfer – the application of knowledge (Burke-Smalley & Hutchins, 2007).

2.1 Transfer

Basically, there are existing three forms of transfer: *positive* – problem solving is facilitated by previous learning, – *negative* – previous learning hinders the solving of new tasks – and *neutral* – previous learning has no impact (cf. Springer Gabler, 2017).

The theory of identical elements by Thorndike and Woodworth in 1901, postulates that transfer mostly happens from one situation or activity to another when they share identical or similar elements. The more similarity exists the more transfer will occur (cf. Burke-Smalley et al., 2007; Yamnill et al., 2001) but this is limited due to the fact that the learning and transfer situation are never completely identical.

Judd assumes that the generalisation of experience – what is learned in task (A) can be transferred to task (B), because by learning in task (A) the learner develops a general understanding, strategies or skills which can be applied in both tasks. This is highly dependent from the motivation of the learner and occurs rarely spontaneously (cf. Judd, 1936).

The same assumption applies also to the sport context:

[Transfer is] the ongoing process by which an individual further develops or learns and internalises a personal asset [...] in sport and then experiences personal change through the application of the asset in one or more life domains beyond the context where it was originally learned (Pierce, Gould & Camiré, 2016, p.194).

This definition developed by Pierce et al. (2016) refers to the successful transfer and application of sport skills used as life skills beyond sport, which is the aim of sport for development programmes. Sport is used as a tool or a field where participants learn and reflect on certain habits, skills and experiences to generalise the knowledge and apply it to other situations of their daily life (cf. Right to Play, 2008).

2.1.1 Transfer of Learning in Human Resource Development (HRD)

Organizations of various areas spend a lot of money on further education, to improve and generate knowledge, believing that training will improve their employees' performance and hence the firm's productivity (Yamnill & McLean, 2001).

Research identifies knowledge transfer as the important factor of an effective and successful training measure and therefore, to lessen the gap between learning and sustained workplace performance, it is a core issue for human resource development (Burke-Smalley et al., 2007).

Baldwin and Ford (1988) empirically derived a pragmatic model of the transfer process, cf. figure 1. The determined factors of transfer are classified into three categories: (1) the training inputs, including trainee characteristics, training design, and work environment; (2) the training outputs, consisting of learning and retention; and (3) the conditions of transfer, focussing on the maintenance and generalization of training.

The *trainee characteristics* and *work environment* are hypothesized to have direct effect on the conditions of transfer, regardless of learning during the training programme (Baldwin et al., 1988). The *training design* furthermore influences transfer indirectly through the impact on learning and retention (Burke-Smalley et al., 2007).

Different studies point out (Baldwin et al., 2009; Burke-Smalley et al., 2007), that various factors within these categories facilitate, as catalysts, or limit, as barriers, the transfer of training.

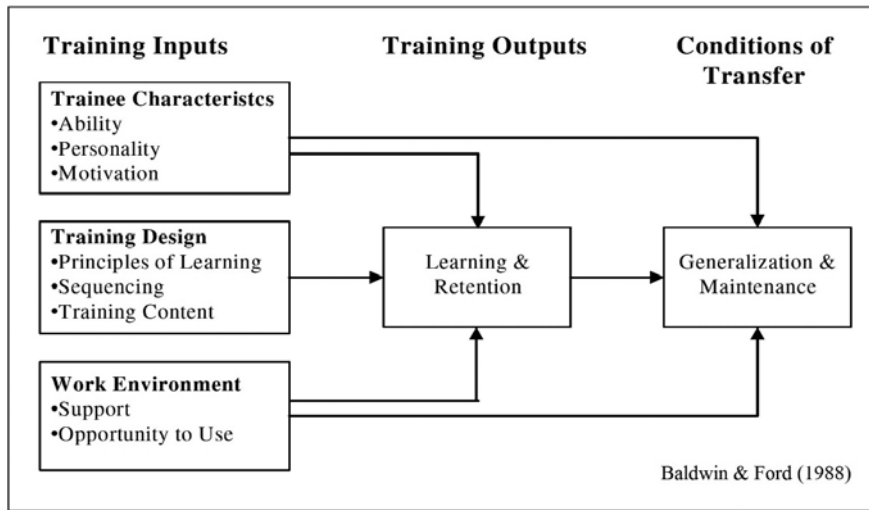


Figure 1: A Model of the Transfer Process. Baldwin & Ford, 1988.

2.2 Evaluation

Evaluation is a requirement to understand catalysts and barriers of a transfer process. Therefore, a comprehensive evaluation is directly linked to knowledge transfer and helps to safeguard it. According to Kirkpatrick (2006) the success of training needs to be measured at different levels. His four-level model includes the evaluation of *reaction*, *learning*, *behaviour* and *success*.

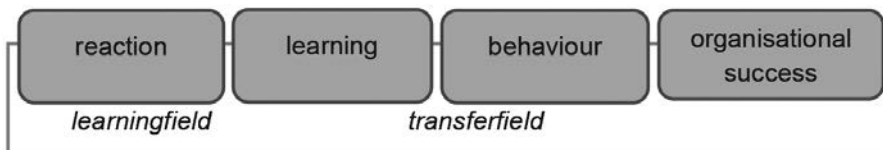


Figure 2: The four levels of evaluation and measuring success (by Kirkpatrick, 1976) adapted by Kauffeld et al., 2013.

The model (figure 2) states that each level is important and has an impact on the next level (cf. Kauffeld & Massenberg, 2013). To measure training success and therefore the knowledge transfer, all four levels according to Kirkpatrick have to be taken into account.

Evaluation can be used during a training session, as well as a follow-up measurement. According to Witte (2002), follow-ups are mainly concerned with the reflection and assessment of the first transfer efforts of the new acquired knowledge and the changed behaviour in the professional environment or other contexts. Evaluation can be used also for subsequent clarification, enrichment, reinforcement and modification of settings, knowledge and skills. Furthermore, evaluation gives the possibility to reveal the barriers, as well as the catalysts of knowledge transfer (Witte, 2002).

2.3 Methodology

Holton (1996) provided a conceptual evaluation model of training, figure 3, focused on individual performance. This model proposes three primary outcomes of training intervention: Learning, individual performance, and organizational results. He expects that learning only leads to success and change when the three primary influences: Motivation to transfer (A), transfer design (B) and transfer climate (C) are at an appropriate level (cf. Holton, 1996; Yamnill et al., 2001).

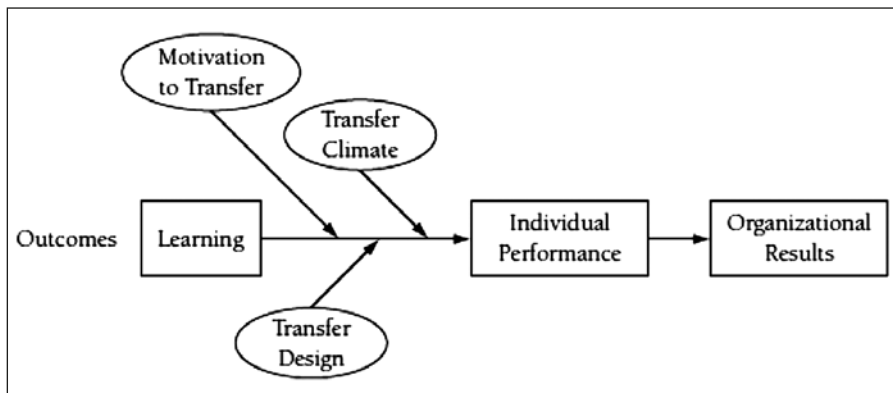


Figure 3: Holton's Factors affecting Transfer of Training. Holton 1996
adapted by Yamnill et al. 2001

The methodological approach of this research project will be covered by a survey based on the hitherto provided theoretical framework. The study applies an already well-established instrument: Holton et al. (2000) further developed the model of "Transfer of Learning" by Baldwin and Ford (1988) and established a self-report inventory, the *Learning Transfer System Inventory* (LTSI).

The LTSI is a standardised, internationally validated instrument, linked to human resource development (cf. Kauffeld et al., 2013; Holton et al., 2000). It includes the three transfer determinants of Baldwin and Ford and elaborates them into factors. Examples for these factors are e.g. content validity, opportunity to use, motivation to transfer, etc.

Holton (2000) subdivides his factors into items which cover all questions of the survey, e.g. *I get excited when I think about trying to use my new learning on my job; People in my group are open to changing the way they do things.* The questionnaire uses a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (cf. Kauffeld et al., 2008). The LTSI assesses whether the factors, mainly related to the participants, their learning and working environment or the actual training design, act as catalysts or barriers for knowledge transfer (cf. Kauffeld et al., 2008; Holton et al., 2000).

The instrument exists in various language versions and data was collected in 17 different countries, this speaks for a strong generalizability and validity of the questionnaire (cf. Bates et al., 2012; Yamnill, S., & McLean, 2005; Khasawneh, Bates & Holton, 2006). The LTSI was designed to identify participant's perceptions of the catalysts and barriers to knowledge transfer. Therefore, it has a diagnostic potential to identify targets for organizational interventions. It can be used as a follow-up tool of existing training programmes or to target interventions designed to enhance transfer (Holton et al., 2000).

2.3.1 Transferability to sport context

For the present research, the LTSI will therefore be used as a follow-up evaluation measure to investigate knowledge transfer problems within OYDCs sport development programmes.

As far as known by the authors the application of the LTSI within the sport context is not prevailed. Nevertheless, reflecting on the overall design, the target groups, the topics of training measures and the strong dependency and linkage to human resource development the general adaptability of the tool to sport related trainings is worth to explore.

To keep it feasible the research project will focus on only one particular programme of the OYDC. The aim is to assess the learning transfer of programme participants as well as to identify factors enabling or limiting this transfer. As mentioned, learning transfer is closely related to the success of a training and

can therefore be used as an evaluation tool for the OYDC to contribute with new results to the overall evaluation of the IOC Sport for Hope programme. Being aware of those enablers and limitations to knowledge transfer, the results of this research project will support the work of the OYDC and give implications on how knowledge transfer can be safeguarded in its particular sport development programme.

As a first working step the LTSI items need to be adjusted to the sport development context. In contrast to ordinary human capacity trainings, a sport specific leadership training does not fully apply to the questions referring to the work environment and capacities of further education, where the LTSI has been originally developed and tested. To sustain the validity of the instrument those, sport related amendments, need to be smallest possible with regard to the original LTSI questionnaire.

A survey needs to be target group-oriented. Due to its application field, this research design has been used so far only for adult learning (cf. Bates, 2012). The questionnaire design of the LTSI and its dimensions are rather applicable for adolescents and adults. This means in the context of the OYDC to target young leaders and trainers as participants of this study. Therefore, the comprehensibility of the questions will be checked through a pre-test with the local target group of the OYDC before the participants of the survey will be provided with the final questionnaire at the end of their training programme.

3. Discussion and further implications

Referring to the relevance of recommendation 24 for the IOC, evaluating the sport for hope programme, different opinions of researchers can be identified. For example, MacAloon (2016) clearly states that this recommendation is notably noncommittal and unlikely to interest anyone not directly concerned about sport for development and peace initiatives. But with the recent development of closing the United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace and shifting the competencies towards the IOC, especially those initiatives have to been seen in a new light (cf. Brook, 2017).

With a closer consideration of the method the LTSI has not been developed explicitly for the sport development context. But transferring the tool from human resource development and applying it to the sport context seems to

be possible, because these topics are closely related. A sport development programme focussing on skills development of young leaders and future trainers, is definitely comparable to an educational work-related training: Regarding leadership development soft skills, like social abilities including teamwork, fair play, and fostering self-esteem are essential. Furthermore, methodological competencies like communication, interaction and coordination of groups as well as being able to settle disputes peacefully are relevant skills to both fields (cf. Pierce et al., 2016). Additionally, emotional competencies such as empathy and resilience should be learned and promoted because they are necessary at professional life as well as in sport. Building upon and further developing human resources is the aim of educational trainings in both areas.

Nonetheless the LTSI has to be adapted to this research project. The employment relationship of young leaders and trainer in sport varies especially compared to contracts within the work environment. It is often voluntarily based and preconditions for the subsequent application are often uncertain.

When it comes to the language of the questionnaire it is possible that an English version is not totally sufficient for the local participants at the OYDC. English is the official language spoken in Zambia, but Chileshe (2014) points out, that for fully capturing the views from a wide range of participants, it is also necessary to use the two local languages namely Nyanja and Bemba.

Working with the instrument of a questionnaire in a developing country can also cause difficulties when it comes to the access of illiterates to the study. Therefore, a trustworthy person, like a supervisor, needs to be identified to support the completion of the questionnaire on-site, to be able to have a representative sample of OYDCs' audience.

The LTSI is free of charge for purely research purposes but if the instrument needs to be translated in other local languages than English, the authors of the instrument need to be involved. This and the fact that the LTSI authors policy is to retain the scoring algorithms means that this research project can highly depend from their favourable support.

One strong limitation of the LTSI is, that the tool focuses exclusively on subjective participant perceptions of their learning transfer. Therefore, the inclusion of the administrative level of the organisation, to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the programme and its outcomes, should be considered in a follow-up study (cf. Roth, 2014; Kauffeld et al., 2013).

The heterogeneous composition of participants because of different socio-

demographic backgrounds, education and different settings can be assumed. Even though following the planned research design, it can be difficult to get generalizable results when it comes to the participant's perception of individual knowledge transfer.

Due to the fact that the structure of the OYDC is rather complex (cf. Burnett, 2015) it could be a challenge for this research to apply the Learning Transfer System Inventory to a new sector where it has not been tested before. Therefore, the researchers' intention is to get a deeper insight into the programmes and its participants.

The evaluation on-site needs a collaboration with the OYDC and creates a strong dependency of the research project on the organisation. A contact to the OYDC administration has already been established between the German Sport University Cologne and the Director of the OYDC in Zambia but the project needs a permanent commitment of both sides.

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KRISTEL KOBRICH SCHIMPL: THE OLYMPIC TRAJECTORY OF A SWIMMER AND THE IMPACT OF HER LEADERSHIP ON CHILEAN ATHLETES

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1. Summary

This investigation reconstructs the athletic biography of Olympic Chilean swimmer Kristel Kobrich from the methodology based on *Present Time History*. As a result, her sporting career has been researched from her beginnings. The research shows the definite influence imparted by a family environment surrounded by sports. Both of her parents were P.E. teachers and similarly both sisters were swimmers. Her important Olympic achievements were also supported by the key influence of Coach Daniel Garimaldi.

2. Research objective

This research annualizes and delves into the sporting and Olympic career of Chilean swimmer, Kristel Kobrich Schimpl. The objective is to understand the circumstances that led her to become a member of the Olympic National Chilean Team competing in the London and Rio de Janeiro Olympic Games. Through the chronological investigation of her career other athletic influences and leaders will be identified. This research paper will look at the influences which impacted the decisions made by Kristel that influenced her athletic de-

velopment, and in the same way, see if her qualities, character and results as a swimmer have inspired and incentivised other athletes.

3. Objectives

- To understand the sporting historical background of Olympic athlete Kristel Kobrich by identifying her role models in sports and influences on her development and achievements as a swimmer.

The previous general objective is set on the following specific objectives:

- Understand and analyse the circumstances that enabled Kristel Kobrich to achieve the athletic level necessary to become part of the Olympic Chilean team since year 2004.
- Understand how other social role models influenced her athletic career and how Kristel is considered at the same time a role model in Chile.

4. Methodology

The following paper is an investigation from *Present Time History (PTH)* which has been defined by several authors and from various perspectives. For instance, Fazio Vengoa states that “*present time history is, above all, the study of an event occurred in our proximity*”. Thus¹, its methodology is conditioned by the beginning of the systematic approach of identification, research and source search, followed by organization and assessment of said sources, and the structure of the provided data that are relevant to the investigation’s objective”.

For that reason, we studied the *sporting biography* of Kristel Kobrich based on the information researched through oral testimonies from her mother and herself. The information has been contrasted with publications and a thorough study of journalistic data based on her sport background. As a result, we have put together a fragment of Chilean sports history from oral testimonies and other secondary sources. Sources that are not found in any other internet web source, since the sports records found are from year 2003 on. The same year in

1. Fazio Vengoa, H. (1998). *The Present Time History: a history under construction* p. 52. *Critical History*, 17, 47-57.

which she became famous for winning the first medal in the history of Chilean sports in the Pan American Games held in Santo Domingo, where she received the bronze medal in 800 metres freestyle².

5. Sporting biography of Kristel Kobrich Schimpl

5.1 Early stages in sporting: family environment as crucial influence

Kristel Arianne Kobrich Schimpl was born in *Santiago de Chile*, 9 August 1985. She was raised under the influence of constant athletic stimuli, which brought her the ultimate sports role model. Her parents were P.E. teachers and it was her mother who was personally close to swimming. Silvia Schimpl was the swimming coach of the “Santiago Swim” Centre. Her older sisters Katherinne Andrea and Stephanie Carolina, had been participating in swimming competitions from their childhood. At age five, Kristel started attending the same Sports Centre where her sisters went. Regarding this, Kristel remembers not doing it by personal choice: “*at that age you do not have many options*”³. Since she had working parents, she was enrolled in this same Sports Centre. What better place for her to spend her afternoons surrounded by family and teammates? This led to young Kristel to be called “the little one”, later she would also be called “*the german*” and the “*cobra*”.

That is how the story of the best Chilean swimmer began. At age five, unwillingly, simply because she needed a place to stay in the afternoons. Kristel was not only swimming at this time. During her childhood, she went to the pool three times a week and the other two days did track and field in her school. Before her last three years of high school she switched to another school called *Athletic Study Centre*, which helped her development as an elite athlete. Here she was able to balance her school duties with the extended practice hours and trips she needed to take for competitions.

Silvia, her mother, and a colleague of the same centre were the first coaches Kristel had. They encouraged her to keep swimming, despite not having the best conditions. In the interview Silvia remembers those times:

2. Article by EMOL (online newspaper) 15 August 2003.

3. Information obtained from the interview with Kristel given by Matilde Burgos of CNNin-timos Chile, on 16 September 2014.

“Well, this is very interesting. My colleague and I had a sports club, we didn’t have a permanent pool, and we got a pool in a -4 floor, close to a military school. The pool was 20 metres long and had three tracks. We did everything there. It was the place where she began swimming and continued until she was 16 or 17 years old”⁴.

From Silvia’s testimony, we found out that Kristel never received any kind of professional training when she first began, *“she just went there and play in the water. She grabbed on the pool edges and tried to swim from string to string”*, she explained⁵.

Nationally, Kristel obtained modest results; she was in third, fourth and seventh position. It wasn’t until she was seventeen that she achieved significant results on a professional level. Her mother reflects on her distinctive results, saying *“even though she was receiving little training, she got bronze medal in the South American Youth Tournament in JOAO Pessoa, a Brazilian state in Paraiba”*. Silvia remembers the victory as being an incredible motivation and encouragement for Kristel to continue in competitions and make the future decisions that would lead her to become the elite athlete she is today.

5.2 Kristel Kobrich and her big decision

After winning the medal in Santo Domingo, the 17-year-old Kristel, began questioning her future in sports, and saw the opportunity of moving to Argentina which would provide more promising prospects. Also, as consequence of her results, the Chilean Olympic Committee named her the flag bearer of the Olympic Games in Athens 2004⁶.

Although Kristel faced a very tough decision in moving to Argentina, she did it for her family. Her mother talks about the circumstances:

“Argentina was the result of many things. 2003 was the year of the World Championship, the Pan American Games, and her high

4. Interview conducted by the author with the mother of the athlete, Silvia Schimpl Busam on 22 April 2018.

5. Ibidem.

6. Through various newspapers, the decision of the COE to assign Kristel Kobrich as flag bearer at the Olympic Games in Athens is notified. 1 July 2004.

school graduation. She missed several classes that year. When the Games began, everybody wanted her to train with them. They were saying “train with us, we have a pool for you”, and offered her things she didn’t have at the moment. So for her, those last three months were emotionally complex. She had already been asked to be a swimmer for the Cordoba Swimming Club”, a club which allows two foreign athletes”⁷.

Kristel had a very complicated year. She was completing her final exams at school but had to miss five weeks to train and attend the Pan American Games.

“So, she was asked to go train for two weeks in Cordoba in December. She had to ask someone for accommodation, and well, that’s what she did. She went to the Argentinian Nationals, participating as a swimmer and was later asked to stay for January and February”. In March, the Adult South American tournament was held, where she set her first South American record in 1500 freestyle in a 50-metre pool⁸.

Later, the possibility of continuing her training for a couple of weeks was presented. She stayed at the same club in Cordoba through April. Her mother talks about it: *“Everyone in Chile kept asking about her”⁹.*

Finally, with family support, she made the decision to stay in Argentina where she had been training since April 2004¹⁰.

5.3 Kristel Kobrich and Daniel Garimaldi

Coach Daniel Garimaldi has been training Kristel from 2004 up until now. He has been one of her main pillars along with her family that helped her achieve her present high success. They have encouraged persistence and determination to accomplish everything she has done. Silvia, her mother, tells us that she herself refers to Daniel as her “second dad”¹¹.

Kristel met Garimaldi through an opponent she had at the time who was

7. Interview conducted by the author with the mother of the athlete, Silvia Schimpl Busam on 22 April 2018.

8. Ibidem.

9. Ibidem.

10. Ibidem.

11. Interview conducted by the author with the mother of the athlete, Silvia Schimpl Busam on 22 April 2018.

coached by him. She started questioning her own performance: “*I’m not doing what it really takes to be a high-performance athlete*”¹². Garimaldi contacted her during one of the national championships, and Kristel started to make arrangements to see if she could work with him and hence, improve her level.

A mature decision, which was made based on her future. In some interviews, she claims the decision was made only by her, but we know that family played an important part in that decision. Regarding this, her mother tells us that her family was always hoping that Kristel achieved her goals and that the idea was for her to feel “*fulfilled and happy with what she was doing*”¹³. In fact, the decision of leaving the country wasn’t the first tough decision. The first step was changing schools at fourteen, choosing to go to a sports school in order to be able to study and practice at the same time. Then, she went to Argentina, after getting a bronze medal in Santo Domingo. However, the hardest part was, according to her mother, being away from her family. Even though she was in touch with them, they were apart. Although personally, Kristel’s family has always been with her, nowadays she has become another member of Garimaldi’s family.

5.4 Key Support

At age seventeen she started a new life in Argentina. Although she competed in Argentinian tournaments, when it came to international competitions she has always represented Chile.

Regarding economic support, Kristel stated that during her beginnings she received none:

“It was all me, but then, once you’re awarded with international recognition, governmental institutions seem interested, and that is what happened. Among the institutions that helped were the National Sports Institute and the PRODDAR (a scholarship program for high performance athletes). They help you financially as long

12. Information obtained from the interview with the athlete conducted by Matilde Burgos of CNNintimos Chile, on 16 September 2014.

13. Ibidem.

as you keep setting records and winning medals and improving, their support increases”¹⁴.

Since Kristel has been winning medals and improving since 2003, she still receives financial support. She also has sponsors who, according to her, have been committed, loyal and serious with her. Some have been constant, others have not. Her mother tells us that some of them willingly decided to help her and that “*Kristel didn’t look for sponsors, they just contacted her*”¹⁵.

Nonetheless, emotional support from her family has been essential: “through all the unconditional and moral support that can be given to a daughter who is looking for new directions to improve both personally and athletically”.

During her career, she had the incredible and selfless support of her second family, Coach Garimaldi’s family. Kristel lived with his wife Patricia, her daughter Carla, her sons Luca, Marco and little Stefano. Kristel became part of the family, as another daughter and sister. About this extraordinary living situation in Argentina, Kristel says:

*It was natural... the connection, the feeling, the great environment, the respect that there was and still is. I am happy and grateful, we truly created a beautiful bond, and it helped me to grow and experience, and that just makes me happy*¹⁶.

5.5 Kristel Kobrich and Sporting Leadership of Alexander Popov

Many high-performance athletes are admired and become role models to other athletes. They are role models because of their hard work and achievements, even though at times they might not share the same sport. Kristel’s mother recalls the Russian sprinter Alexander Popov as a positive inspiration for Kristel as an athlete, “*She’s always been a fan of the famous Russian sprinter Alexander Popov, whom she met in one of her many trips around Europe*”¹⁷.

14. Ibidem.

15. Interview conducted by the author with the mother of the athlete, Silvia Schimpl Busam on 22 April 2018.

16. Information obtained from the interview with the athlete conducted by Matilde Burgos of CNNintimos Chile, on 16 September 2014.

17. Interview conducted by the author with the mother of the athlete, Silvia Schimpl Busam on 22 April 2018.

5.6 *Kristel's changes from 2004 until today*

Living in Argentina meant a significant change in her common routines and lifestyle. Everything was different; the people, the places, the training, her daily routines, the food, etc. In Kristel's words "*not many people have experienced what I've lived since I made the big decision*"¹⁸. She has been constantly participating in South American sports events, The Pan American Games and worldwide competitions, in many of them as finalist. She competed in the Olympic Games in Athens, where she was the flag bearer; the person who would lead all of the Chilean athletes in the opening ceremony of the games.

5.7 *Kristel Kobrich, the flag bearer in Athens*

She was in Argentina when she was given the duty of carrying the Chilean flag. About the nomination she stated:

*"I see it as a very positive thing, it is the dream of any athlete. I know that a lot of people will support me and will be happy"*¹⁹.

Later in 2007, in an interview with Andrés Bello National University, Kristel spoke with a much more mature attitude about her future participation in the second Olympic Games:

*I'm so proud and honored. It's so beautiful to experience these things, I wish someone else could experience them. It's so unique to be this supported and have the opportunity to be the flag bearer, to walk at the front and feel all the support from the Chilean delegation behind me. It was a very special moment for me and if more people can experience it, great, and if it is my turn to do it again, I will try to do my best, and if it's not me, I'll support whoever stands in the front*²⁰.

18. Information obtained from the interview made to the athlete by Matilde Burgos of CNNintimos Chile, on 16 September 2014.

19. Interview "Al Aire Libre" Radio Cooperativa. 1 July 2004.

20. Interview conducted by Universidad Andrés Bello to the athlete in 2007 but published on the internet on 15 October 2010.

5.8 Kristel Kobrich and the Olympic spirit

The Olympic spirit is something unique, is something that you have to live to explain it better, it's a type of magic that doesn't die every four years and should never die and I was lucky to participate in 2004 and now in 2008. Hopefully I will be able to participate for much longer. I was a fan who watched it on TV and I think that is why I respect it so much. One must value it now and always²¹.

By the end of 2009, she had fourth place in the world ranking for 1500 metres front crawl in 50 metres pool, and second place in 800 metres front crawl in 25 metres pool. She marked an important milestone in the history of Chilean swimming, by placing herself among the top five in the world ranking of both distances.

Due to her excellent results and places that year, Kristel was awarded with the title of “the best of the best” to the best athlete of the year, prize granted by the Sports Journalist Association of Chile²².

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21. Ibidem.

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THE OLYMPIC REPRESENTATION AS A RESCUE OF A FAMILY IDENTITY

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When participating in an Olympic Games edition, the athlete assumes the status of a representative of the nation. Symbolic elements, such as the flag, anthem and the colours of the country, help to reinforce the image of national representatives. After all, to participate in an Olympic Games, the athlete must be attached to a national committee. However, recently in the Rio Olympic Games 2016 we had the presence of the first refugee's delegation, showing that this is a paradigm under discussion. Also in 2018 Winter Olympic Games we had the presence of athletes who competed using the Olympic flag with the delegation being identified as "Olympic Athletes of Russia" due to a punishment imposed by the International Olympic Committee to the Russian Olympic Committee.

Therefore, it is necessary to discuss what the role of national representativeness is all about. Poli (2010) found that 270 athletes who participated in the 2004 Olympic Games in Athens were naturalised. In a transnational world, where the speed of traveling and communication is huge, several individuals have taken the opportunity to exchange nationalities and participate in Olympic Games in countries other than those in which they were born.

Spiro (2012) points out that a large number of citizenships are granted in an instrumental way, aiming only at improving the sporting performance of the

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countries in the Olympic Games and provoking a flight of talent from peripheral locations. However, it should be emphasised that there are social and intimate aspects which must be considered when analysing the trajectory of athletes who were born in other territories and represented Brazil in the Olympic Games. In the Rio de Janeiro Olympics 2016, Brazil had 23 athletes in this situation.

Under Brazilian law, direct descendants of Brazilians born in foreign territory may apply for nationality. This prerogative was used by 15 of the 23 athletes who were born in other countries and competed for Brazil in Rio de Janeiro Olympic Games. The objective of this work is to present the trajectory and discuss the identity formation in five of these athletes.

Methodology

Using the methodology of Biographical Narratives developed by Rubio (2014), this work sought to understand how the representation in the Olympic Games served to reinforce, or even build, identity bonds between these athletes and Brazil. The athletes were interviewed, but there were no forms or questionnaires. The interviews began with the same request: please tell your life story. From each individual's response some questions were developed, from this narrative related to the theory of the subject, and an analysis was developed. One of the major concerns during the interviews was to allow athletes to talk about the subject naturally, avoiding any influencing of their thinking – something that Rubio (2016) names as contaminating the interview. We are also in agreement with the one preached by Medina (2000), for whom questionnaires are similar to straitjackets, which inhibit social interactions. The realisation of this type of interview requires the researcher to take special care, because as Ferreira Junior (2014) states, when the athletes recall some moments of their sporting career, they end up re-experiencing and rediscovering parts of their life, subjectively.

The subjects of the research

Based on the interviews, we present a brief profile of the chosen athletes.

Nathalie Moellhausen (fencing)

Born in Milan, Italy, granddaughter of a Brazilian, Nathalie Moellhausen began

practicing fencing in her childhood. She was part of the Italian fencing team and participated in the team's World Cup win in 2009 and was also part of Italy's bronze medallist team in the 2011 World Cup. Between the two podiums, she won another bronze medal in the individual World Cup. In 2012, Nathalie joined the Italian team at the London Olympics.

After practically two years away from the sport, she felt that there would be a new opportunity as an athlete at the 2016 Olympic Games. The final incentive came from the maternal grandmother, who is Brazilian. "It was a very, very crazy decision. My grandma was super happy, because in fact it was her, after the event that I said, that I would like to do fencing again, she said 'but Nathalie, why you do not move now to Brazil, that there will be Olympic Games, this is the moment'. I said, maybe. She still cries nowadays so happy that I represent her country. You cannot even imagine it, but it was difficult"².

The decision came up against some obstacles, such as the need to regain space in the world ranking. Well received in Brazil, she faced resistance from the Italian team, who did not understand the exchange of nationality well. Nathalie got the Olympic position and reached the sixth place in Rio de Janeiro, the best classification of a Brazilian in the history of the Games in fencing. She continues to represent Brazil at international events.

Isadora Cerullo (rugby)

Born in the United States in 1991, Isadora Cerullo is the daughter of a couple of Brazilian physicists who studied at the University of São Paulo who decided to leave Brazil in the 1980s to graduate and chose not to return. According to Isadora "They left Brazil at a difficult time for the country itself. They kind of ran away from the dictatorship. And they also realized that because they were academics, there was no future for them, at that time, in Brazil"³. The decision to leave the country provoked estrangement from the rest of the family. Isadora only knew Brazil when she was nine years old.

Having a typically North American childhood, she was introduced to the sports universe at school and soccer was her preferred modality until adoles-

2. Interview granted by Nathalie Moellhausen to the project "Olympic Memories by Brazilian Olympic Athletes", of which this article is part.

3. Interview granted by Isadora Cerullo to the project "Olympic Memories by Brazilian Olympic Athletes", of which this article is part.

cence. As a biology student at Columbia University, she discovered rugby in her sophomore year of college and went on to reconcile training with her studies. After graduating, Isadora remained attached to the University of Pennsylvania, working in the hospital and studying to try out the college entrance examination. The change in trajectory occurred at the end of 2013, when she learned that Brazil was looking for athletes for the national team.

Although this was her personal desire, Isadora suffered with the resistance from her family at the time she announced her wish to move to Brazil and take a test in the Rugby Brazilian Nation Team. “My flight to move here (Brazil) left from Washington DC and I lived, my parents live, in North Carolina. Then my mother drove me there, which is a five-hour drive. And during those five hours, she only kind of tormented me, saying that I did not know what I was doing, that I would surely regret it, that I do not know Brazil, that it is very difficult, that I would hate here”⁴.

Despite the warnings made by her mother, Isadora considered that it was important to experience this moment. “It was this Olympic dream and also this opportunity to get closer to the family, but also, like, the family that I did not know well”⁵.

Approved in the tests, she received the invitation to move to Brazil in July, already aiming to integrate the Brazilian team, but as an athlete who composed the cast. Isadora only had the confirmation that she would be in the Olympic Games in the last list divulged by the technician. Shortly after the end of the Olympic Games, she volunteered at the seven-a-side Paralympics football arena. Isadora still lives in São Paulo and continues acting as a rugby player.

Juliano Fiori (rugby)

Jorge Fiori left Brazil during the period of the military dictatorship, when his family was persecuted for political reasons. Initially, he lived in Chile, where he met his wife, with whom he moved to England after the hardening of the dictatorship in Chile. Years later, in 1985, he had a son: Juliano Fiori, born in London in 1985, who represented Brazil at the Olympic Games in Rio. Juliano

4. Idem 2.

5. Idem 2.

started playing rugby at school at the age of six and also played football, tennis, athletics and cricket.

Juliano's first contact with the Brazil rugby's team was made through his father. In a trip to Brazil for a lecture in 2010, Jorge met the rugby Brazilian delegation at the airport. After telling the manager of the team that he had a son who played rugby, he took the manager's card and gave it to Juliano. After a series of disagreements, he performed the first tests with the Brazilian team in 2014, and from the beginning, he felt good. "I immediately felt welcomed, by the players, by the commission, affectionate... finally, they accepted to have a 'gringo' (foreigner) [laughs]. I do not think I'm 'gringo', I have a half-rolled accent, but partly because I speak Portuguese, and also because I know Brazilian culture a little, jokes, jokes, until they joked that I was more Brazilian than them"⁶.

A graduate of Classical Arts and with a master's degree in international relations, Juliano was an employee of Save the Children in England until 2016, when he took a sabbatical to dedicate himself to the Brazilian team that participated in the Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro. After the Olympic Games, Juliano maintained his residence in Rio, but was not again called to the Brazilian rugby team.

Patrick van der Heijden and Yuri van der Heijden (field hockey)

Patrick and Yuri van der Heijden are brothers and were born in the Netherlands, children of a Dutch father and a Brazilian mother. Their parents met in Holambra, a city with large numbers of Dutch immigrants in Brazil. Their mother decided to move to Netherlands after the marriage, but she always had a relationship with her family in Brazil, and it was common for them to spend their holidays in Brazil.

Field hockey was always part of the family routine: some uncles and their father practiced the sport. Even during vacations in Brazil, they searched for some place where they could practice – in this process they found a club in Rio de Janeiro.

In 2008 they were called for a week of training with the Brazilian national

6. Interview granted by Juliano Fiori to the project "Olympic Memories by Brazilian Olympic Athletes", of which this article is part.

team. Shortly after these trainings, the coach summoned Yuri to integrate the team that played the Championship South American adult, in Uruguay. Months later, it was Patrick's turn to make his debut for Brazil, but playing for the Under-21 team. Throughout the Olympic cycle of 2016, Patrick and Yuri were part of the national team. The Rio Olympic Games mobilised the Van der Heijden family: they brought 27 people from Netherlands to cheer for them in Rio de Janeiro.

Even though he was born and lived in Netherlands for most of his life, Yuri believes that the opportunity to participate in an Olympic Games in Brazil was special. "I think it was the best way for me to have a connection with my mother's country and to know a little more about how this is a good country. I always had this connection and I like it, it's perfect"⁷.

Patrick also saw the opportunity to represent the country as a milestone in his relationship with the country. "Now I think I feel more Brazilian everyday when I was there, and I love the country, it's a great country, we've been at great places, and yeah, I might want to move to Brazil now, and before that I didn't have that feeling"⁸.

The brothers' connection with the country was maintained even after the Olympic Games. Yuri moved to Belgium to finish university and perform for the Royal Victory Hockey Club. Patrick is based in the United States, majoring in sports management. However, even in different countries, both continue to represent the Brazilian national team.

The construction of a multifaceted identity

Ianni (2001) points out that the increase of the peoples' flow allowed an increasing hybridization, which leads to a possibility of choosing with which society the subject identifies the aspects of daily life. Also ancestor connections are evoked as a way of connecting with places where people have never been but with which they maintain an affective relationship.

Therefore, we think of identity as a constructed concept, and not as simply

7. Interview granted by Yuri van der Heijden to the project "Olympic Memories by Brazilian Olympic Athletes", of which this article is part.

8. Interview granted by Patrick van der Heijden to the project "Olympic Memories by Brazilian Olympic Athletes", of which this article is part.

as something acquired or imposed. Montagna (2017) argues that such construction occurs in contact with other individuals and it can be reconfigured according to the way we act with those around us. This line of thinking is corroborated by Mendes (2002). According to him, not only the similarities, but also the accidents and distinctions as formatters of our identity. In case of the analysed athletes, it is possible to consider the moment of migration as one of these disruptions with Brazil. However, such a break is never definitive and leaves marks in these individuals and also in their descendants – in this case, the children and grandchildren, who became athletes and then ended up representing Brazil in an Olympic edition.

Lee and Maguire (2011) point out that sports can be an important factor for individuals to build identification ties with their communities, regions or nations. According to the authors, these ties become even stronger in big events, when the athletes assume the role of national representatives.

The speeches of Nathalie Moellhausen, Yuri and Patrick van der Heijden make it clear that the choice of Brazilian nationality in the competitions helped bring them closer to the country even though none of them lived in Brazil. In the cases of Isadora Cerullo and Juliano Fiori, this connection becomes even clearer, as we realise that both have decided to move and live in Brazil today – Isadora, even, does not rule out a new change of country, but states that she can no longer see herself leaving and never coming back to Brazil.

To understand the situation of these athletes, we can use Houlihan's (2010) reasoning which points out that today existence is sort of blurred, fused and ambiguous identities due to the ease of movement and communication promoted by globalization. Santos (2002) points to the existence of communities of feeling, transnational symbolic universes that are experienced by individuals who migrate. That is, even if they live in a place different from the one in which they were born, they carry with them some factors that bind them to their places of origin. In the case of the athletes cited in this study, however, what we see is a "return" of these athletes to a country in which they were not born, but that is part of their life histories for their ancestors.

In studying migration and sport, Maguire (2007) points out the existence of different profiles: pioneers, residents, nomads, mercenaries and returnees. In this case, I consider that the athletes who are descendants of Brazilians and, even those born abroad decided to defend the country, they approach the

figure of the returnees, taking into consideration that they make a “return” after a family departure.

Mendes (2002, p. 56) gives another important clue to the understanding of this phenomenon, in saying that, in modern times, it is possible for individuals to evoke different identifications according to the situations in which they live. According to the author “Personal identity articulates in the temporal dimension, in a project of life. This permanence in time, the relation of personal identity with time, can be understood as a constant work in a spectrum of variations, as a synthesis of the heterogeneous”.

Therefore, it is possible for individuals to adopt multiple identifications, with different places and situations, evoking the different nationalities according to their conveniences. The opportunity to participate in an Olympic edition can be framed as one of these opportunisms. However, this does not mean that this is an easy or simple choice to make: it is enough to look at Nathalie Moellhausen’s speech and the difficulties she cited at the moment of the transition of nationality: a resumption of the world ranking, former Italian team-mates and others. In the case of Isadora, it is curious to note that, despite being born in Brazil, her mother feared the difficulty of her daughter’s adaption to a new culture.

Considerations: the new Brazilians

The exercise of listening to athletes, together with the search for an understanding of the reasons that led them to migrate and the reasons why they decided to defend Brazil. This then makes it clear that the option for Brazilian nationality goes far beyond the simple economic advantages that an athlete can have when participating in an Olympic edition. In the cases presented, we see that sport was an important tool of contact between the lives of these athletes and the culture of Brazil and that, to a certain extent, they became closer to the country after Olympic participation.

The possibility of inhabiting different places, of moving quickly around the world and of having contact with cultural elements even for miles away makes these subjects feel Brazilian. These individuals feel this way even though they know that some of their cultural or intimate elements are different from most of other compatriots. This, however, does not preclude them from creating an identification with the nation, which was expanded after Olympic participation.

While we recognise the professional nature and influence of economics in today's sport, we believe that it is necessary to look at sports more broadly, understanding all of its potential. It is not our intention to exhaust the theme, or to generalise by saying that all athletes who have become naturalised or who have chosen a nationality for family reasons have created ties with the country. However, such examples show that sport is a broad, complex phenomenon that allows subjects to reflect on themselves even in intimate aspects, such as belonging to a nation.

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WHY VILLAGE IS AN IMPORTANT ARENA OF STUDY FOR SPORTS AND TALENT IDENTIFICATION IN INDIA?

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Abstract

Sports and physical education has been a driving factor for the all-round development of the youth for any country. However, the central and the on-going problem of villages in rural India, which is very vital to a nation, is of the accessibility to the facilities that lead to that all-round development. It shouldn't be confined to the elite upper middle class of the urban India as has been the norm. Perception is also largely responsible for it. Sports are assumed to be worthless in development of character, body and conscience and are considered as just another means of entertainment for young kids and adolescents. A review of the development of sports facilities in different parts of the world shows the differing association of importance to sports. This poses for a strong question of why.

The paper tries to answer the "why" bringing into notice the problem that sports and physical education face in villages and further leads to mention how these problems can be remedied and what initiatives and policies would help curb the pre-conceived notions of sports in a country like India where there stands a huge gap between rural and urban areas that can also be felt in the area of sports.

All of these issues need to be accounted with a hope of things to change with changing times and perceptions.

Introduction

“India is a diverse country” regardless of it being one of the most heard statements, its diversity has never been utilised in its most efficient form and the question of what role can it play for sports remains unexplored yet. While the rest of the world is aging, India is relatively young. A nation with an average age of the population standing at 28 years old¹ holds a great advantage in terms of human capital. Demographically, it also has the second largest population. The rural part of this nation houses 68.8%². This number indicates villages as the powerhouse of the unexplored potential.

Perceptions strongly need to change and boost in encouragement for sport for all the possible reasons. Integrated child development means mental and emotional compatibility along with the ability to think, analyse and argue and emerge as a physically strong individual. Conventional education alone cannot supply all of this and this marks the point where there has to be an acknowledgement, acceptance and implication of holistic views of education, sports and of physical education. One needs to stop seeing sports as independent of education but as an extension of it. It is not something just “professional” but that what always acts in our daily lives as ways of socialising, learning and playing. Where a lot of people are adapting to the changes the world brings and the growth in youth participation rates in sports certainly has gone up but India has not been an active contributor to this broader picture.

It certainly is a challenge to change the perception and to create a climate for sports and it sure looks like an uphill climb given the stagnant growth of economy over the past few years because of which people are more inclined to make their offspring opt for a career option that provides a more stable income because of the persistent high rate of unemployment and unpredictability of the employment market. And sports have always been a hindrance in the pursuit of that end.

And even though it’s a long course we need to exploit this challenge and actually tap into the rural part of India standing as a powerhouse for what Gandhi once said “The soul of India lives in its villages”. The share of the

1. Census of India 2011, censusindia.gov.in

2. http://censusindia.gov.in/2011-prov-results/paper2/data_files/india/Rural_Urban_2011.pdf

population that villages hold singularly shows the influence that it can create in the arena of sports. Not just sports, villages have always played an important role for politics in India as well. With the decentralisation of power that came with the Panchayati Raj system, the influence of villages in Indian politics increased substantially. Indian villages, however, have received minimal attention and contribution in macro-economic policies. The share of agriculture (cited as the primary activity of rural India) has been continuously declining in the national income and yet they employ 49% of the population. It is imperative for sports to evolve to maintain the vitality of the human mind. Sports and physical education provide another view to combat the problems of productivity. Sports and physical education not only provides an arena for human interaction but that interaction combined with rural surroundings will facilitate development and put them in contact with their cultural domain. Following the pattern of politics, there should be put forth a plan for decentralisation of sports, just one united association in major cities having no reach to the remote areas will not do any good. The reach of sports is important enough as just lack of facilities and non-indulgence in sports have implications that go far beyond just the physical health. An individual has a high probability of being exposed to drugs, migrations, involvement in criminal activities, undisciplined behaviour etc.

Methodology

This paper involves intensive literature review along with theoretical background. The study also involves the review of sports policies in India. A lot of written information about the policy formation and implementation is taken with reference to Sports Authority of India, an extension of Ministry of Youth affairs and sports and the allocation of yearly budget to sports should be representative of its position in the country, however there is no rural-urban distinction for the budget. The review of the following literature is relevant for the purpose of this study:

1. Daniel Levay (2014), *Leisure in the Production of Social Capital: Evaluating Sport Participation as a Method for Increasing Volunteerism in Rural Communities*.
2. Greval et al. (2000), *A comparative study of rural athletes of four states in India*.

3. Akbar A. O and Masoud M. *Sport as a Factor for Development of Rural Areas* (Case Study: Badreh, Darreh Shahr). *Bull. Env. Pharmacol. Life Sci.*, Vol 3 (1) December 2013: 289-296.
4. *Whither Indian sport?* India International Centre Quarterly, Vol. 3, No. 4, 1976.
5. *Talent Identification and Development Programmes in Sport Current Models and Future Directions* by Roel Vaeyens, Mattheiu Lenoir, A. Mark Williams.

Sports and Culture

Culture is the very fabric of a nation that which makes it unique and forms a strong part of people's behaviour. Rural India has culturally close-knit communities. It is manifested in behaviour through customs, rites and rituals which has always played an essential role in establishing and reaffirming certain religious beliefs, beliefs that eventually lead to the development of the body, mind along with the idea of morality. The conscious development of mind and body also show how certain communities perceive sports and in what light it is kept in. In a country, where people are surviving to make the ends meet, the lack of facilities by the government just renders it impossible for the people with certain athletic talent to pursue it. Another aspect that can be looked at is the caste system in India³. Caste system has always had a permanent status in Indian. However, sports go a step beyond that. What matters isn't what caste you belong to as B.R Ambedkar in his book *Annihilation of Caste* also advocates and hence, the focus must be on how you perform at the track or in the field. And this evilness that is caste although is absent from the arena of sports, not to debate that other forms of hierarchy do exist.

Culture influences the world through the concept of soft power as well. The term, coined by political scientist Joseph Nye in 1990 means, "the ability to shape preferences of others through appeal and attraction". The concept of soft power is not coercive like military but more complicated. The diffusion of cultures and coming out as more hegemonic entity in the end provides proof

3. A way of division of labor in India where a son enters the occupation of his father and the occupation is determined by the caste they belong to.

for that. It does not necessarily come under the influence of government but is operated out of multiple co-operations and organisations, like International Olympic Committee or a non-profit organisation called Sports international. The idea of using sports as soft power comes from using the major international platforms as a means of gaining economic and cultural prominence. As shown by Francois Carrard, “the relationship between the political authorities and the world of sport is permanent, often unpredictable and fascinating⁴”. Sports bring people together to create this platform for discourse on personality development, body growth, improvements of health and debate and discussion on politics, diversity, cultures etc. Mobility and exercise also strengthens relationships among the kin and revitalises the human body. However, in a world where 10 sq. metres of green space for sports is essential within 800 metres of residence⁵, India shows considerable gaps with the more developed countries. Major metropolitan cities like Mumbai have only 1.24 sq. metres per person, Chennai at 0.81 sq. metres and Bangalore at 2.01 sq. metres. The figures alone show the attitude that people have towards sports and physical activity and the efforts that government is making in that direction and with what urgency. However, the problem of inaccessibility to open space is majorly urban in nature showing another area where villages hold vital importance and yet there is seen hardly any change in sports participation in rural India.

Another point which is generally lost in debate is to create a space for the development of indigenous sports in India. As can be seen, kabaddi, a game that originated and is traditionally played in rural India, is gaining global prominence in recent times. A lot of indigenous games have the potential to reach that level of recognition, however the complete lack of interest of the government to invest accordingly and the lack of resources in sports and physical education in general renders it impossible for that to happen.

Villages and talent identification

Distribution of athletes in India between rural and urban areas is very interesting.

4. F. Carrard, *Sport and politics on the international scene*, Rivista di studi politici internazionali, Vol. 78 n. 1 2011, p. 25-32.

5. City Liveability index, The Ministry of Urban Development of India.

Close to 70% of the 152 athletes covered by TOP scheme⁶ by Sports Authority of India come from rural areas. This shows how significantly skewed the data is for rural areas. If we further subdivide the athletes who belong to rural India on the basis of sports, one would reach to a very interesting conclusion showing the influence of rural elite athletes in certain games and sports and not so much in others. The absence of talent identification programmes from rural India renders it impossible for the talent to be identified and extracted and yet we have such a huge number coming from villages. Talent identification extracted at the early age is an absent concept in rural India.

Sports like wrestling, javelin throw, discus throw, kabaddi, boxing, athletics, weightlifting have a huge influence of athletes from rural India. Citing the most recent example would involve Hima Das, a girl who started off playing football with boys in a mud pit near her village in Nagaon district of Assam. She is the first ever Indian to claim a gold at a world track event. One of the reasons why they show on radar so much for certain sports and not on others could have something to do with the availability of infrastructure and equipment as evidence from the sporting events mentioned above. For example, entry to golf courses is a huge entry barrier for a lot of athletes hence creating a differentiating factor of class. The counter argument could be to look at sports that involve huge investment from the athletes' end such as lawn tennis, badminton, shooting etc. The problem with status of sports in Rural India isn't with the lack of talent. Talent exists in abundance but the problem is with the lack of opportunities, awareness and perceptions.

The traditional talent identification and development programmes⁷ do not extend sufficiently to cover the sporting talent in villages. The limited range of parameters, the inaccessibility of sports programmes and the lack of resources invested prevent talent from getting identified. Another issue that grips the sports structure in India is the influence of politically significant figures. The system is prone to be rigged through people who hold important positions in the power hierarchy.

6. Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports (Department of Sports) have formulated "NSDF Target Olympic Podium (TOP) Scheme" in the National Sports Development Fund (NSDF) with the objective of identifying and supporting potential medal prospects for 2016 and 2020 Olympic Games.

7. The process of recognising current participants with the potential to excel in a particular sport.

Conclusion

In a nutshell, sports being very impactful, vital and influential need to be scrutinised and all its tiers must be taken care of. It affects a country on a very large parameter along with affecting the athletes or the coaches or the sports economy of the country. Sports have been known to impact a lot of aspects of a country indirectly as well. Persistently good performance of a country in different world events is known to gain global reputation. Unites States of America, known for performing exceptionally well in Olympics, attracts considerable amount of attention and critique. Either way, the hegemony of USA over the medal tally demands respect and attention from different countries of the world. It increases the confidence of the people in the infrastructure of the country and eventually in the country. Sport contributes considerably to the GVA of any country and increase in the gross value added can be attributed to the improvement in performance in sporting events at a global platform. Tourism in a lot of countries is a contribution of the sporting industry. For example, Germany is an active sports holiday choice and on the other hand the history of sports that Greece has to offer also brings a major chunk of tourism⁸. Hence, to think of sports and physical education in just binary terms would be to completely understate the effect that it has on health, body, mind, economy etc.

For sports to have better representation, we need to have a decentralisation of sports associations so that the quest for talent identification in India could become unbiased and efficient. Investment in sports and recreational activities and infrastructure to support that should be sanctioned in rural India on a rolling basis and a follow up should be done. The government should also invest extensively in research to check the barriers for the dismal state of sports in rural India. And finally, the sporting behaviour should be internalised. People should be at the forefront of promoting such a behaviour among youth and such a change will come with a change in perception. Keeping the people in rural India well informed about the advantages of sports and recreation will go a long way in ensuring the persistence of such a culture.

Another problem why sports in rural India lag behind is the increasing influence of politics in sports. The level of corruption and strong political affiliation

8. <http://ec.europa.eu/assets/eac/sport/library/studies/study-contribution-spors-economic-growth-final-rpt.pdf>

has been proven successful in moving forward as elite athletes in a particular sport or event. Even though that is not the only parameter that helps in such gains but they play a major role especially in team events where an individual performance of an athlete is subjective to an extent and hence, manipulative. This is the reason why we see so many cases of bribery in cricket and football than archery or shooting. Efficient implementation and use of policy should help curb the problem to an extent.

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PRO-SOCIAL AND ANTISOCIAL VALUES (FAIR PLAY) IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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Abstract

Background. Physical Activity (PA) Sport and Physical Education (PE) have a variety of outcomes to offer to a person, from physical and well-being benefits, to socialisation and values achievement. Attached to a sport experience are sets of values which can be achieved like; respect, fairness, enjoyment, tolerance, collaboration, team cohesion, inclusion etc. But at the same time there can be a negative relationship among values and some team sports participation (Shields & Bredemeier, 2007).

Aim. The aim of this pilot study was to measure pro-social and antisocial values on middle school students during their PE class, to evaluate if there is any significant difference between males and females and between public and private schools.

Method. The instrument used in this study was the Fair Play Questionnaire in Physical Education (FPQ-PE) developed by Hassandra, Goudas, Hatzigeorgiadis, & Theodorakis (2002) that measure pro-social and antisocial behaviours in PE class. The questionnaire consists in two pro-social scales (respect toward teammates, respect for conventions) and in two antisocial (gamesmanship and cheating), and it is based on a Likert scale, cantered on a scoring system from 1 to 5, detecting the level of frequency (1=Never, 5=Always).

Sample. There were 259 students from Tirana, Albania involved ($M=14.07$, $SD=6.62$). They were subsequently divided into 134 males and 125 females of which 141 students were from public schools and 118 from private schools.

Results. Significant differences were found between males and females and between public and private schools. This divide was later seen amongst the gender variable in both antisocial scales. And between public and private schools differences were found in both pro-social scales and in gamesmanship for the antisocial.

Discussion. According to the differences found between schools, it might be related to the socio-economic level, but this needs to be better explored in future research, where the sample size can be larger. For the differences that were highlighted on gender, it could be related to sport participation and the examples that children are following.

Key words: fair play, pro-social /antisocial values, gender, schools, Physical Education.

1. Introduction

Sport and Physical Education (PE) plays an important role in health and well-being, but for sure are not the only benefits that can be archived from a sport experience. Attached to a sport experience are sets of values which can be achieved, therefore it is so important the way in which these values get transmitted to children and young people.

The concept of value system got the attention of Rokeach since (1967) which gave a very important contribution through his work on Values Survey, a work that is related to the most important values system on individuals or groups. Furthermore Rokeach (1973) argued that general values should occupy a central position across all social science; according to that, he wrote five assumptions about human values.

1. The number of values that a person possesses is relatively small.
2. Everyone possesses the same values to different degrees.
3. Values are organised into systems.
4. Human values can be traced to culture, society and institutions, and personality.
5. The consequence of human values will be manifested in virtually all phenomena the social sciences consider worth investigating and understanding.

Very important contributions related to values systems assisted Schwartz

(1992), in his work regarding basic human values as very important on leading peoples' behaviour across context and time. The same idea goes even further in future studies like the one of Bardi & Schwartz, (2003) and Rosnati, Barni, & Uglia, (2014) when the values appear to be goals that guide human behaviour, cited by (Danioni, F., Barni, D., & Rosnati, 2017).

Related to sport Bardi & Schwartz, (2013) in their study link sport values with Schwartz's values theory, and according to them, sport values are related to the "basic values" and lead to different behaviours' expressions in sport. So if we concentrate on sport values we can list a variety of positive values that can be implemented through a sport experience like; respect, fairness, enjoyment, tolerance, collaboration, team cohesion, inclusion etc. But at the same time there can be a negative relationship among values and some team sports participation (Shields & Bredemeier, 2007). Nowadays sport has become more professional and commercial and is getting more difficult to get the good examples from it. Clifford, & Feezell (2010) argue that principles of sportsmanship are no longer demonstrated to young players, there is a need to reclaim moral language and respect for opponents, teammates, officials, coaches and for the game itself. This reality has a very strong impact on children growing, most of the time children act like their favorite players and most of the time they play to win.

Anyhow it is generally agreed that sport teaches values, but sometimes they can be transformed from positive to negative, and this depends on the way sport is played, taught and practiced (Butcher & Schneider, 1998).

Concentrating on sport values our focus is "fair play", a term that holds different and numerous values. According to Siedentop, Hastie, & Van Der Mars (2011) "Fair play means not just playing by rules, but also respecting others, participating always with the right spirit and attitude, valuing equal opportunity and behaving with responsibility towards a teammate or a player".

Fair play, Code of conduct stated by the International Olympic Committee

- Be True, – Always do your best regardless of the circumstances, do not try to fix an event.
- Be Safe, – Never beg for your sport or your competition, you know best.
- Be Careful, – Do not share information that could be used for betting purposes.
- Be Open, – If you are approached to cheat, do not keep silent, don't be afraid, speak out!

The concept of fair play in PE involves sports behaviour, to play by the rules and show respect for officials (Siedentop, Hastie & Van Der Mars, 2004).

Fair play is a term that is present in different areas of everyday life, and Pinheiro, Camerino & Sequeira (2013) underlined the question: why and who promote fair play? In basic to their study fair play is something related mostly to sport and it can be learned between mates of a team or a class, and it is something transmitted from PE teachers, coaches, and parents [Fig. 1].

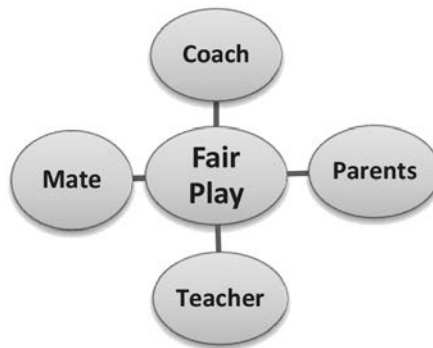


Fig. 1 Fair play and components that work together to implement values.

For Butcher & Schneider (1998) fair play is considered an applied concept that uses sport to teach sets of moral and social values, and they examine five different philosophical treatments of fair play: (a) fair play as bad of virtues; (b) fair play as play; (c) sport as contest and fair play as fair contest; (d) fair play as respect for the rules; (e) fair play as contract of agreement. Social skills are very important on the process teaching-learning, so teachers should use different strategies in their curriculum, otherwise, this important concept can be undeveloped in the PE class. Vidoni & Ward, (2009) cited different authors and reported important findings related to fair play as part of Sport Education. Based on their study, fair play represents a variety of social skills like: (a) the effort students put forth in terms of their engagement, (b) the accomplishment of class expectations, (c) respecting other students' rights how to learn and to participate, (d) demonstrating respect for the roles of opponents and referees, (e) being supportive with peers and playing by rules (Giebink and McKenzie 1985; Patrick, Ward and Crouch 1998; Hellison 2003; Siedentop, et al. (2004); Vidoni and Ward, 2006). Vidoni & Ward, suggested also different indicators

for PE teachers to set up their lessons, which might help them implementing fair play behaviour: (a) on students that do not have any fair play behaviours, (b) to motivate the ones that know about this behaviour and (c) to increase occurrences of fair play behaviours of students that already know about them.

2. Method

Instrument

To confront pro-social and antisocial values in PE class we used “Fair Play Questionnaire in Physical Education” (FPQ-PE) developed by (Hasandra et al., 2002). The questionnaire was translated and validated into Albanian from the English version (the validity of the work is under review), and consists of two pro-social values (respect toward teammates, respect for conventions) and two antisocial values (gamesmanship and cheating). The instrument measured students’ behaviour though PE class, and is based on a Likert scale, cantered on a scoring system from 1 to 5, detecting the level of frequency (1=Never, 5= Always).

Sample

This pilot study involved 259 middle school students from Tirana, Albania (M=14.07, SD=6.62) divided into 134 males (M=13.6, SD=13.22) and 125 females (M=14.5, SD=9.43), of which 141 students were from public schools (M =14.09, SD=8.92) and 118 from private schools (M =14.05, SD=1.25). The sample was selected according to the convenience method from one public and one private school, and it was distributed from PE teacher during their theory lessons, and took 5-7 minutes to complete it.

Based on the average scores obtained in each sub-scale we used the independent samples T-test through SPSS to evaluate the differences when the significance level was set at 0.05.

3. Results

Comparative analysis between males and females

Significant differences were found only in the antisocial values gamesmanship and cheating. Gamesmanship for males was (M = 7.23, SD = 3.87) and in

females ($M = 5.95$, $SD = 2.54$) conditions; $t(257) = 3.11$, $p = 0.002$; and the scale cheating male ($M = 4.56$, $SD = 2.27$) and females ($M = 3.80$, $SD = 1.65$) conditions; $t(257) = 3.05$, $p = 0.002$ [Fig. 2].

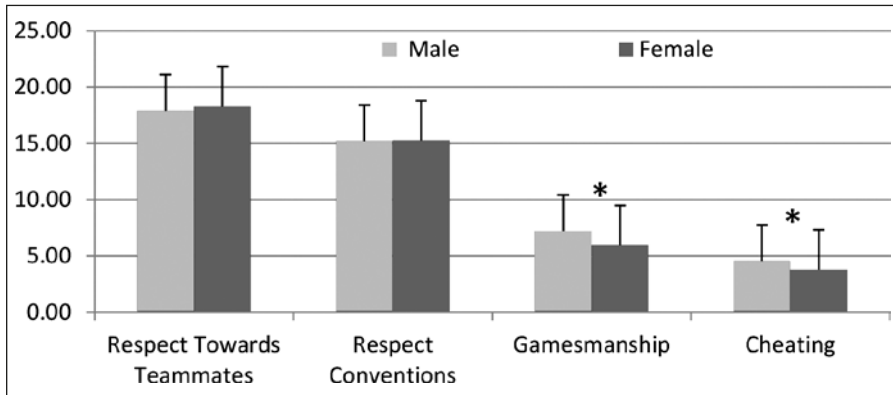


Fig 2. Comparative analysis between males and females.

Note: (*) highlights the significant differences.

Comparative analysis between public schools and private schools.

Regarding the comparison between public schools and private schools, significant data has been highlighted on three scales: respect towards teammates, respect for conventions and gamesmanship in favour of public schools.

The scale respect towards teammates for public schools was ($M = 18.51$, $SD = 1.78$) and for private schools ($M = 17.62$, $SD = 2.45$) conditions; $t(257) = 3.37$, $p = 0.001$; respect for conventions; public schools was ($M = 15.91$, $SD = 3.12$) and private schools ($M = 14.47$, $SD = 3.88$) conditions; $t(257) = 3.32$, $p = 0.001$; the scale gamesmanship for public schools was ($M = 6.10$, $SD = 3.02$) and for private schools ($M = 7.23$, $SD = 3.63$) conditions $t(257) = -2.73$, $p = 0.007$ [Fig. 3].

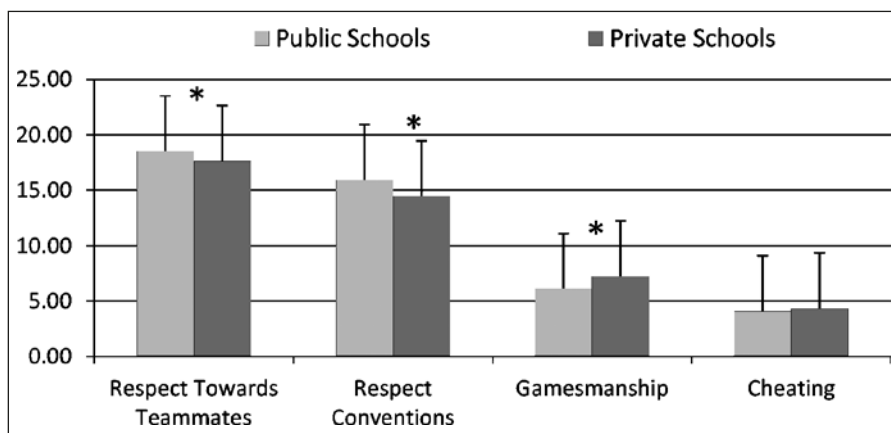


Fig 3. Comparative analysis between public schools and private schools.

Note: (*) highlights the significant differences.

4. Discussion

The purpose of this pilot study was to identify if there were significant differences regarding pro-social and antisocial values between boys and girls, and between public and private education system in Albania. The measurement was made through the FPQ-PE Hassandra et al (2002). Considerable differences were found in our sample size between boys and girls, with girls showing a higher score on antisocial behaviours. The result could be related to sport participation and the examples that children are following, referring to other studies gender differences are related to the sports that children are following. Klomsten et al. (2005) gives details about masculine and feminine values related to sport participation and cites Metheny (1965), Eccles & Harold (1991), Fasting (2003), Pfister (1993) who gave very important findings about the different sports that children are following and participating in. Also the studies when authors determine the sports that are mostly participated for girls and boys and that the boys' sports are more risky, dangerous and violent so this might influence also on fair play behaviours (Klomsten, Skaalvik & Espnes, 2004, Koivula, 2001; Koivula, 1995; Matteo, 1986).

Regarding the differences between genders it goes on the same line with the study of Mirzeoğlu (2015) which used the same instrument on Turkish students, when the study showed a high score on all sub-scales in favour to girls.

Moreover the differences found in our sample size related the type of school; it might be related to the socio-economic level. Reflecting and trying to interpret the result obtained from the study we range the socio-economic as the only indicator or area which can influence the results, but this needs to be better explored in future research, where the sample size and the number of schools involved can be larger.

As conclusion of this work we can recommend our results as possible indicators for parents, teachers and education systems, which are the ones that play the most important part on children's development. They need to collaborate and work together on the process of implementing values that might lead attitudes and behaviours of children, young people and the future adults of our society.

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PYEONGCHANG 2018 ON SOCIAL MEDIA: THE IMPACT OF THE TOP ATHLETES DURING THE WINTER GAMES¹

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Abstract

This paper discusses the impact of the modern Olympic stars and its followers on social networks during the PyeongChang 2018 Winter Olympic Games, which is key to understanding the logistics of contemporary sport, based on the close relationship between the two. The process of demolishing the barriers between sports idols and their fans has led to the reconciliation between personal brands and institutions with the mass of clients, which has modified or expanded the traditional forms of that interaction. The article studies the role and impact of the top athletes on Facebook and Twitter during the 2018 PyeongChang Olympic Games, offering a data-driven analysis based on the systematic extraction of raw data using the tools Netvizz and Twitter Capture and Analysis Toolset (TCAT), which have been designed for academic use.

Keywords: PyeongChang Winter Games, social media, sports stars, Twitter, Facebook

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Introduction

The 2018 Winter Olympics, officially known as the XXIII Olympic Winter Games and commonly known as PyeongChang 2018 ran from 9 to 25 February 2018. The Games featured 102 events in fifteen sports, with a total of 2,952 athletes from 92 National Olympic Committees slated to compete, making it the first Winter Olympics to surpass 100 medal events.

With thirteen worldwide Olympic partners, a broadcasting coverage of 200 countries, five billion people who had access to more than 500 hours of television coverage captured by 450 cameras of the Olympic Broadcasting Services (Settimi, 2018) and a record number of events and countries participating, these Games were an ideal place to position oneself on the net by creating a personal brand and taking advantage of the exposure this media coverage offered.

In 2017, 61% of sports viewers followed sports online and 80% interacted on social media (Karr, 2017), a percentage that will probably keep growing. At present, 56.8% of consumers think social media is an impactful technology on sports and we can notice the importance of the Olympic Movement on the net at a glance: the Olympics (IOC profile) on Facebook is the most liked international sports organisation with 15 million likes and the second most followed on Twitter with 5.6 million.

In regard to the public in PyeongChang 2018, 33.05% of Olympic fans online discussed skiing at the Games, the most of any winter event, of which 68% were millennials. 3.5% of millennial-aged Olympic fans online Facebook-like skiing, which is the most popular Winter Game among the demographic followed by ice hockey (Synthesio, 2018). These are just some statistics that show the relevance of these Games, where some of the most followed athletes took part.

This paper studies the role and impact of the main athletes on Facebook and Twitter during the 2018 PyeongChang Olympic Games. The analysis of these participants and the reception of the users to the contents that they emit will allow us to demonstrate that social networks are a valuable conduit between athletes and fans. This also can be used to determine the most outstanding moments and the most used formats to communicate in social networks.

Background

Olympism and social media: a new era

The modern Olympic Games have always had a close relationship with the media. In fact, the father of the modern Olympic Games, Pierre de Coubertin, frequently wrote in newspapers. Today, the Internet and social media have become central sources of news (Huffington, 2009).

The Olympic Games and the Olympic Movement are, by their very nature, open to public participation (Fernández Peña, 2016) and social media are architected by design to readily support peer-to-peer conversation, collaboration and community (Meraz, 2009), therefore there is a clear pattern for a natural convergence between the two. This tendency of allowing the public in general to get involved is at the core of the Olympic Movement, opening the way for new social media devices that have an enormous ability to connect audiences and allow them to share the Olympic values and ideals, as acknowledged by the former president of the International Olympic Committee, Jacques Rogge (Koop, 2011).

The 2008 Beijing Olympic Games were the Web 2.0 Olympic Games (Hutchins & Mikosza, 2010), marked by the abundance of information from Internet media, blogs of digital journalists and athletes (Miah, Garcia & Zhihui, 2008). They were also the beginning of the alliance between IOC and social media.

For the 2010 Vancouver Winter Games, the IOC and the Local Organising Committee of the Olympic Games had a presence for the first time on social networking sites showing great capacity for growth, receiving more than 2.5 million friends and followers during the Games (Huot, 2010).

The London 2012 Games, classified by the media as the first “social Olympics” (Rooney, 2012) saw the spread of the Olympic presence to other new social platforms, blogs and photo-sharing. In the past Rio Olympic Games, Facebook recorded 1.5 billion interactions from 277 million unique users, while Twitter saw over 187 million tweets posted about Rio 2016, resulting in 75 billion impressions (IOC, 2017).

Methodology

Measuring the top athletes of the Olympics

Previous research indicates that these new tools, which allow athletes to communicate with their fans directly, generate support for their views and commentary (Sanderson, 2010) and to provide exclusive or “insider” information to fans that would be difficult to otherwise obtain (Hambrick, Simmons, Greenhalgh, & Greenwell, 2010; Hutchins, 2011; Pegoraro, 2010; Schultz & Sheffer, 2011). The term used in social networks that measures the relevance of published content and the commitment of followers or fans is *engagement*, understood as the indicator that measures the degree of interaction between organisations or brands and users (Fernández Peña *et al.*, 2014; Nuñez, 2017). According to the specificities of Facebook, there are three levels of participation: reactions (or “likes”), shares and comments. These three degrees of active participation by users are combined (added) in a single metric known as the engagement rate. In terms of Twitter, retweets, likes and replies are used instead (Lim & Lee-Won, 2016).

The present investigation is focused on the activity carried out on Facebook and Twitter by ten of the most relevant Olympic athletes of the Olympic Games of PyeongChang from 9 to 25 August 2018. The election of these athletes is based on sporting merits and previous professional trajectories, the volume of followers in the previously mentioned networks and the medal prospects that several media coincided in attributing to them (Carbajal, 2017; NBC Olympics, 2018; Ernesto, 2017). With this set of criteria, the ten athletes selected that include the final dataset are: Lindsey Vonn (most followed female Winter Olympian, former Olympic champion, alpine skiing, USA), Martins Dukurs (world champion, skeleton, Latvia), Mikael Kingsbury (Sochi 2014 silver medal, freestyle skiing, Canada), Javier Fernández (world champion, figure skating, Spain), Shaun White (the most followed Winter Olympian, three-time Olympic gold medallist, snowboarding, USA), Johan Niklas Edin (world champion, curling, Sweden), Marie-Philip Poulin (Sochi 2014 gold medal, hockey, Canada), Mikaela Shiffrin (Sochi 2014 gold medal, alpine skiing, USA), Sven Kramer (three-time Olympic champion, speed skating, Netherlands) and Tessa Worley (world champion, alpine skiing, France). It is necessary to mention that, while all athletes selected have Twitter accounts, not all have an official fan page on

Facebook, probably due to the limited interest their respective sports engage. In this case, Martins Dukurs, Marie-Philip Poulin and Johan Niklas Edin do not have any official fan page on Facebook.

This study employs the tools Netvizz and Twitter Capture and Analysis Toolset (TCAT), which have been designed for academic use, to monitor and collect data (Borra & Rieder, 2014). These applications access the data via the Application Program Interfaces (APIs), which is the ecosystem that regulates access to data from other applications in accordance with the platform's terms and conditions of access (Rieder, 2013). By accessing the Facebook and Twitter accounts in a systematic and automatic way, the data of the page is extracted, always respecting the privacy conditions and the personal configuration (Rogers, 2013).

To that end, we pose the following research questions:

RQ1a: What kind of messages obtained the highest engagement on Facebook?

RQ1b: What were the moments with the highest activity on Twitter?

RQ2: What formats were the most used?

RQ3: Who were the most popular athletes of the dataset?

Results and discussion

For Twitter, the dataset consists of the names of the athletes overall, so the 511,512 tweets recovered and analysed encompass the activity on the platform whenever they wrote or were mentioned during the Olympic Games. Of this half a million tweets, 92,345 included links (18%), 218,282 included hashtags (42%) and 109,954 included media uploads (21%). Table 1 shows the activity peaks on days 14, 17 and 21 that coincide with Shaun White winning the gold medal in the men's halfpipe, Javier Fernández winning the bronze medal in men's figure skating and Lindsey Vonn becoming the oldest women's Alpine skiing Olympic medal winner, respectively.

Shaun White was the most popular athlete on Twitter as the most retweeted tweets and the most mentioned accounts show (Tables 2 & 3): of the top five tweets, three are related to the American snowboarder. This allows us to answer RQ1b and part of RQ2 and RQ3, since having a considerable number of tweets with either links and/or media uploads (photos, videos) helps us point out how

popular these kind of messages are compared to those that are just plain text. Moreover, an overwhelming majority of these tweets came from mobile devices, especially from iPhones, followed by Android devices (Table 4).

As for Facebook, Figure 1 shows the specific messages with the highest engagement among the athletes of the dataset during the Games. The bigger the circle is, the more engagement it got. There is a clear pattern that emotional content gets through to the public more successfully (RQ1a): Lindsey Vonn, the most popular athlete on Facebook (Table 5, RQ3), achieved the first place with a message devoted to her grandfather and some emoticons, just like Mikaela Shiffrin who posted a photo of herself with the gold and silver medals she won and three monkey smileys. To complete the answer to RQ2, Figure 2 demonstrates that posts with photos, besides being the most common (81% versus 11% of videos and 8% of just links), are also the ones with the highest engagement rates on average.

Conclusions

Both platforms, Twitter and Facebook, share the same trend: public participation is key and it is purely emotional. The most popular content on the former came from a user who showed Shaun White in his teenage years making some jokey remarks, thus appealing to people's nostalgia. On the latter, Lindsey Vonn got 40,000 likes with a dedication to her grandfather. Exclusively pieces of information are not so influential anymore and anonymous users can become *trending topic* as long as they know how to engage with the public. Twitter seems to be more open to public visibility and participation, whereas Facebook makes the celebrity the centre of attention due to enhanced self-promotion. Social networks offer a powerful new way for athletes to gain exposure, coverage and fans, but only if they use social media effectively (Hardin, 2009; Weinburg, 2009). In some cases, for example Shaun White's, the athlete is widely popular on one platform but forsakes the other which can relegate them to the back burner.

The research leads to the conclusion that, during the Winter Games, common users utilise much less (21%) audiovisual content (photos, videos) than athletes themselves (81%). Clearly this relates to what psychology scholars have concluded: posts on social media are often "aimed at making certain impres-

sions on other people” (de Vries, 2014:12) so celebrities have soon assimilated social media to maintain and reinforce the link with their followers (Marshall, 2010; Lee & Shin, 2012) and establish a number of strategies and practices that aim to further enhance their fame (Marwick & Boyd, 2011). Nonetheless, *spreadability* (Jenkins *et al.*, 2008) is increasing, as demonstrated by the fact that many users now share Olympic family member’s publications with their friends. By doing so, content is reaching a higher number of people, including those who have not previously shown any interest in the Olympic Games.

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Appendix

Table 1. Twitter dataset activity during the Olympic Games

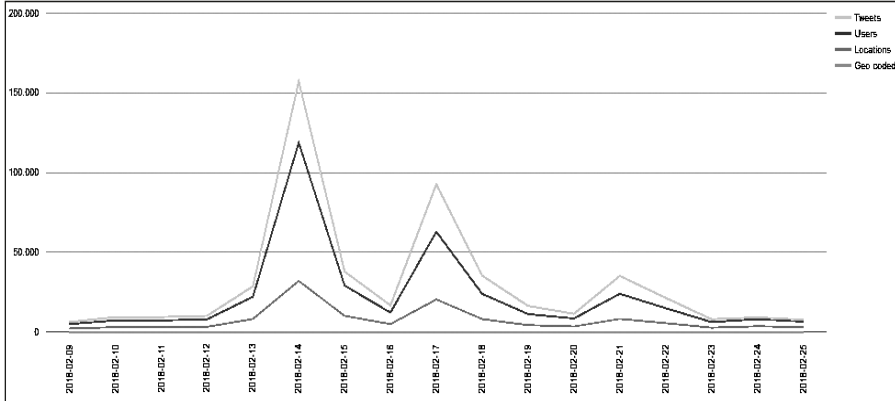


Table 2. Most retweeted tweets of the dataset

Frequency	User	Tweet
36635	@oilygemini	never forget when shaun white said this #ShaunWhite #Olympics2018 #BestOfUS https://t.co/gP8hHK5EHR
19529	@AyumuB	Congrats to @shaunwhite @scottyjames31 そして今回オリンピックで滑った皆に、おめでとう.. みんなの滑りがめちゃくちゃ良くて自分もあげられました。また4年後を楽しみにしています！最... https://t.co/Yi1EbwU4V6
8422	@shaunwhite	WE DID IT... #OLYMPICS https://t.co/JQ4x-hz4H9p
7204	@javierfernandez	Hoy ha sido un día mágico... ¡Gracias a tod@s por vuestro cariño! #JFTeam #OlympicMedalist #JJOO2018 https://t.co/SWrgVOXNSk
3958	@BoyangFanpage	The Figure Skating Express. #BoyangJin #JavierFernandez #MishaGe #YuzuruHanyu #ShomaUno #JunhwanCha Cr.BoyangJin's... https://t.co/GqmrS11PWg

Table 3. Most mentioned accounts of the dataset on Twitter

Frequency	Account
178811	shaunwhite
146497	lindseyvonn
54906	javierfernandez
42533	NBCOlympics
36907	oilygemini
32963	MikaelaShiffrin
24826	AyumuB
21583	scottyjames31
20764	TeamUSA
18348	SvenKramer86
14166	JulieFoudy
10985	MikaelKingsbury
8638	usskiteam
8523	COE_es
7839	POTUS
7144	Olympics
5962	olympicchannel
5609	Eurosport_ES
5491	nbc

Table 4. Source frequency for tweeting

Frequency	Source
257446	iPhone
132588	Android
65618	Twitter web client
18629	Twitter for iPad
18514	Twitter lite
3987	Tweetdeck

Table 5. Reactions, shares and comments on Facebook

Athletes	Comments	Reactions	Shares
Javier Fernández	~1K	~25K	~5K
Lindsay Vonn	~1K	~95K	~5K
Mikael Kingsbury	~1K	~10K	~5K
Mikaela Shiffrin	~1K	~90K	~5K
Shaun White	~1K	~35K	~5K
Sven Kramer	~1K	~55K	~5K
Tessa Worley	~1K	~5K	~5K

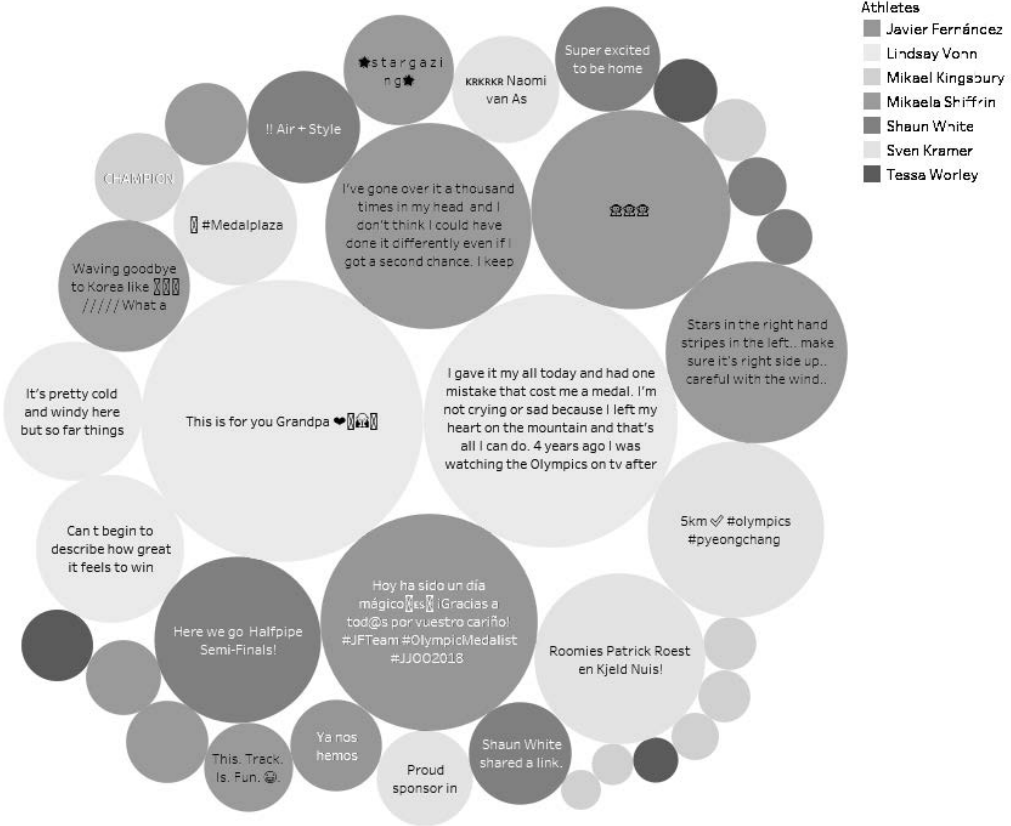


Figure 1. Posts on Facebook with the highest engagement

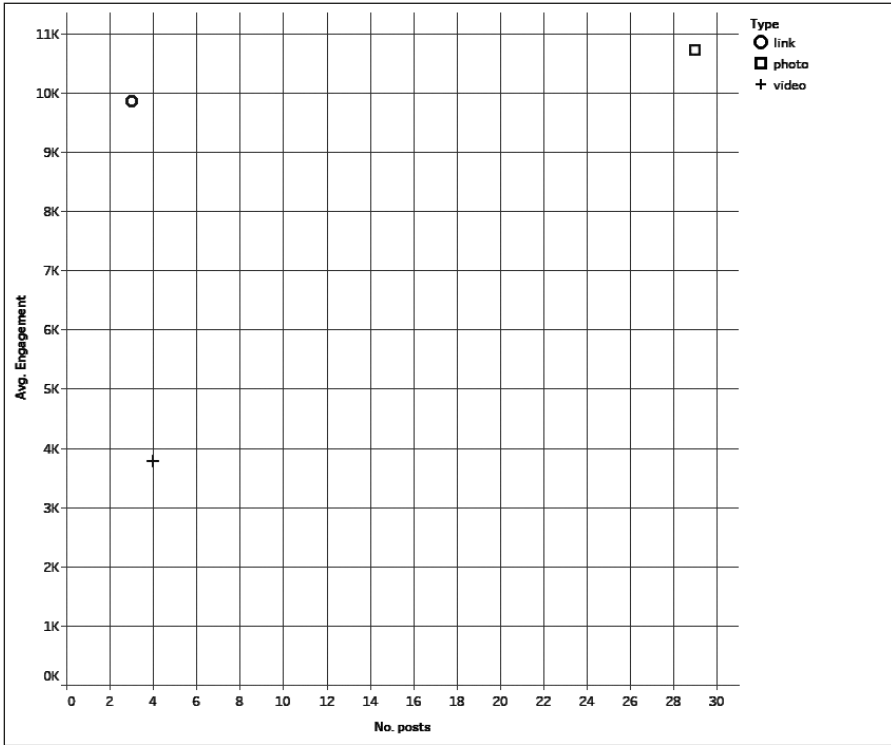


Figure 2. Average engagement per type of content on Facebook

CHALLENGES FACING OLYMPIC ATHLETES IN MARTIAL ARTS SPORTS IN JORDAN (AS ROLE MODELS)

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Objective

The purpose of this paper is to identify the challenges that face the Jordanian Olympic martial arts athletes (taekwondo, karate, boxing, judo, jiu-jitsu and wrestling) within the Olympic Preparation Programme.

Methods

The study is based on thirty-two Olympic martial arts athletes between the ages of 15 to 40. The Data Collection process will be conducted through carrying interviews and two focus groups (divided the 32 athletes into two groups).

Introduction

The key to success in sport depends on how well the athletes meet with the demands of the competition and their ability to overcome the challenges that they will face.

Sports and competitions require high level of dedication, focus, and sacrifice from athletes to achieve success and excellence. Individual sports like martial arts (taekwondo, karate, jiu-jitsu, and wrestling) require unique effort from athletes than that from team sports and very much depend on the

athlete himself, where athletes depend completely on their skills and level of achievement. Being an Olympian and world champion representing your country in high performance competitions is every athlete's dream, winning a gold medal is the ultimate dream. These athletes will dedicate their time and effort to follow a strict training schedule; it might require them to skip their school sometimes, also to sacrifice their social life and any family related activities. Which means that their lives will be revolved around training hard, winning and excelling in their sport.

In the past, the challenges an Olympian and champions used to face were related to the physical and psychological aspects. Such as: stress, over-training, time management, fear of injury and losing...etc. In the current time, the 21st century introduced our athletes to a whole new challenge such as social challenge and pressure forced them to act as role models to their peers, family, young athletes and society as whole (though they never practiced the role of a role model), especially in this technological era that our generation is going through, Olympians and champions face these challenges everyday moreover when preparing for international competitions and we feel that this must be addressed and resolved positively and proactively.

Olympians and champions face a lot of challenges before, during and after competitions and the main goal of this paper is to highlight the most common challenges addressed, identify them and try to reduce their impact on our athletes' results and performance.

My role starts as a strength and conditioning coach within the Olympic Preparation Programme (Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games) for Taekwondo athletes and a team member inside the Olympic preparation centre in Jordan, I have direct contact and first-hand interaction with the athletes on daily basis, I also have weekly contact with athletes from other martial arts who are preparing for Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games. This will allow me to conduct the study effectively. I assume this study paper is necessary and of great importance which will provide a general criteria that could facilitate minimising the challenges on these athletes, and provide basis on what are the major challenges they face as athletes who are indirectly acting as role models, at the same time I am hoping that this study might tackle some hidden issues that the athletes face and not open about, from that I will try to draw a module where they can adopt to be able to effectively activate their roles in society to address any issues and help maintain the wellbeing of our societies at large.

Literature review

The studies have mentioned different kinds of social role model responsibilities and challenges that face athletes, regardless if the athlete lived in ancient Olympia or the athletes of current days, they both share some mutual challenges such as: the heroic role, and invincibility, dedicating their entire life to achievements and excellency, the ideal character and the physical appearance. The introduction of the digital media to the world of sports role models increased the social responsibilities for the athletes, such as: the stress of representing a whole nation that is watching them minute by minute, the pressure of showing best democratic behaviour, the obligation of being the ambassadors for Olympic values and the values of their own countries. Looking through the gender lens we can also identify several additional challenges that face the female athletes in particular when it comes to being a social role model. Female athletes always have to step up their game to prove that they are as worthy of their counter male athletes and to get the support they deserve by the community and the media. Furthermore, female athletes have to deal with criticism on their overall appearance from the way they are dressed, their communication manners, body language and femininity (body structure and muscularity).

After reviewing some papers related to the athlete challenges as a role model the researcher in this paper decided to cover the community and the media impact on the athlete as a role model.

Focus group sample

The researcher conducted two focus group discussions with the athletes, the first one consisted of two jiu-jitsu athletes, seven judo athletes, and eleven taekwondo athletes which was conducted on 26 June 2018. The second one consisted of twelve karate athletes whom we've met on 3 July 2018. The total female athletes in both focus groups were six. The two focus groups were held in the Olympic preparation centre.

Focus group discussion guide

Facilitator introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Introduce speaker and note taker - Introduce the discussion purpose with the focus group process
Participants Introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Name - Years of practice - Age - Reason for practising martial arts
Subject introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Who is your role model? - Why did you choose him/her? - Who looks up to you as a role model?
Community support and role	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What kind of support does your community give you? - What kind of support do you wish to receive from your community?
Media support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What kind of support does your local media give you? - How does media impact your role in your community? - What kind of support do you wish to receive from the media in your country?

Findings

Most athletes agreed that:

- Their community doesn't provide them with the educational support. They have to skip classes, exams during training camps and competitions which reflects on their academic achievements and success. Which is also considered a high cost for themselves and their parents as they keep enrolling each semester then being expelled from classes. Taking into consideration that some of them are in critical age, high school (tawjihi) which is considered a very important stage in our country's educational system.

- They are unable to find fixed jobs that can provide flexibility to allow them to travel and compete or to train. They can't rely on the income they get as national athletes, which leaves them in a position where they need financial support from relatives.
- They are passionate about their sport, that's why they stick to it although they miss a lot of friends and family events, adding to it that their families are proud of them and they support them but they don't necessarily believe that sports is a career.
- They receive most of the moral support from their coaches (motivation).
- Their small circle of community sees the opportunities that the athletes have rather than the challenges and the responsibilities that they face in taking these opportunities.
- Their community denies the hard work and only notes that athletes have chances to constantly travel or meeting high profile people.
- Usually the financial support dedicated to team sports such as basketball and football is more than the financial support dedicated to martial art sports.
- Sponsorship to athletes is not common and our athletes get negatively impacted in international events when they are surprised with huge campaigns for less skilled athletes from other countries, on the other hand achieving a unique or a recognised sports achievement may encourage some sponsors to use the athletes for marketing purposes.
- They are careful about what they post on their social media channels because some of them are coaches and they have some young followers, and others like to keep their personal life private.
- As they are not trained to make interviews and to speak in public they don't deal personally with the local media as they prefer to be under the coach's supervision before any interview. As the local media focuses on attracting more audience to their platform therefore they look for and try to create negative news by either misinterpreting the athlete's talks or by writing negative criticism that focuses on the athletes' miss falls.
- They are not well known within the community so they don't have enough media exposure to cover their athletic achievements, and many of them receive negative comments (if they get the chance to be in the media) about their appearance (body type) especially if they were heavy weight or feather light.

- Now, all of them are training at the JOC Olympic Preparation Centre in which this made a turn over of many of the issues they faced, it is a step in providing them with an athlete's friendly space, well-planned annual training programmes, health care, nutritional meals and nutrition related trainings. Which made them feel confident and dedicated to achieve good results since the Jordanian Olympic Committee is investing in them.

Challenges

- Some athletes don't consider themselves as role models because most of them they don't clearly know what does it mean to be a role model or the component of a role model, they all believe because they are not famous and they don't have a lot of followers on their social media channels they are not role models.
- The researcher could not meet with boxing and wrestling athletes since they were out of Jordan for competitions during the focus groups meeting. Accordingly she couldn't meet the target number of participants in the focus group, therefore the research sample was reduced from 38 to 32.
- Time frame and athletes engagement in training and traveling to prepare for the Asian Games made it hard to adopt a more specific methodology for this research.

Recommendations

- Local media channels should promote the athletes and link them with their community, and positive motivational journalists and media specialist should be trained to support athletes.
- To try to encourage the Jordan Olympic Committee to increase the financial support to all sports.
- The Olympic Preparation Centre is a great value to the athletes these days, to try to include more athletes in the programme, and maybe adopt a special programme to educate and promote athletes as role models.
- Athletes should be trained on how to deal with different media channels,

and how to be an active ambassador in their community, so they can have a better understanding of their role as role models.

- Provide athletes with educational scholarships, and tuition support during their school and university.
- Starting a sports school where athletes can get good and flexible education through their secondary and university level education.
- Private sector companies should support and sponsor athletes to provide them with financial income or flexible job opportunities to consider sports as a career.

THE LONG-TERM CAREER PLANNING OF ATHLETES UNDER THE THEORY OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN TAIWAN CASES

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Athletes receive countless applause in the competitive arena, but the life test just begins after retirement (Kerr & Dacyshyn, 2000; Lally, 2007). Career track transfer is a compulsory course for every athlete. In digital age, development of science and technology already change our daily life, and the labour market has also changed. Diversified career management has become a new challenge and opportunity for the development of athletes' career and capacity. More and more athletes escape from traditional career choices such as coaches and teachers, and instead to devote themselves to business, media, technology and other industries, including starting a business. Good job transfer coaches enable athletes to re-recognise themselves and pursue self-growth, giving athletes a higher mission, thus becoming a benchmark and model for society.

In the spectrum of human resources, athletes are a most special group, and the wonderful but short-term athletic career makes transition inevitable (Huang, Z. 2002). In Taiwan traditional thinking and government systems, sports training or academics can only choose one, which is the biggest obstacle to the entry of sports talents into the long-term sports career period. This study will focus on Taiwanese athletes' long-term career planning and policy content in practice oriented, emphasising the diversification of athletes' skill in the workplace in order to prepare for their future work environment. At the same time, athletes should break away from traditional framework by cultivating second expertise and self-improvement.

“What should I do next?”

When every elite athlete approaches the end of his or her career, they will ask themselves deep in their heart from time to time. The average retirement age of an Olympic athlete is about 30 years old. Therefore, it is an important lesson for retired players to find their next career path. After all, when they retire from competition, most of them take a second job planning consulting. Common career development problems of athletes include: psychological issue regarding the ability to find a job which has adverse effects on their career development; along with the lack of career development planning that prevent athletes falling into career development confusion, and in retirement players will encounter problems in career transition and employment; these are typical issues of athletes' human resources in the development of competitive sports.

The Proposal and Connotation of Career Development Theory

In the 1950s, Donald E. Super proposed career development theory based on differential psychology, self-concept theory, developmental psychology, and research on the direction of professional behaviour development, and continued to develop and improve the theory. Super believed that the career development of a person consists of three levels: First, is career development. Based on age, career development is divided into five stages: growth (birth to 14 years old), exploration (15 to 24 years old), establishment (25 to 44 years old), maintenance (45 to 64 years old) and decline (65 to death). Each stage of career development has different characteristics and tasks. The completion of the previous stage of career development tasks directly affects development of the latter stages of career. The second is the breadth of career development. This refers to the nine different roles that a person's life has to play, namely children, students, leisure, citizens, workers, couples, parents, father or mother and retirees. With age, these characters will appear one after another, and in many stages of development there will be several different roles alternating with each other, the role: interaction between. The third is the depth of career development. This refers to the extent an individual plays each role.

Career development is an irreversible process of continuous dynamics. The past is part of the present and simultaneously affects the future. A person's

current behaviour and expectations of the future will have an impact on their career development. Career planning and career guidance are implemented as part of the process of assisting and promoting individual career development. The benefits of having a sound career development plan in your career include:

- Identifying the career development stage and setting goals for mastery of tasks unique to each stage.
- Helping students clarify self-concept because any task that enhances self-knowledge will increase vocational maturity. Then help them relate their self-knowledge to occupational information.
- Expose students to a wider range of careers because occupational options narrow over time. Consider lifestyle implications and consider the vocational and vocational relevance of subjects studied in school.
- Direct work experiences are vital. Try on roles in real workplace situations.

Super's developmental view of career development in the context of the self allows for changes over time. This is very appropriate in the 21st century workplace.

Super's Conception of Life Stages and Development Tasks of Taiwan's athletes

<p>Growth <i>Beginning at Birth Around age 14</i></p>	<p>Characteristics Young athletes, through their athleticism and personal interests, actively or passively choose what they love.</p> <p>Sub stages Specialised training was carried out in grassroots school units such as junior and senior high school, and the concept of self-confidence and self is gradually established during this period.</p> <p>Tasks Developing what kind of person they want to be. Discovering and developing athletes' athletic talents and abilities.</p>
<p>Exploration <i>Around age 15 to 24</i></p>	<p>Characteristics 15 to 24 years old is an important stage in an athlete's career. The role played by athletes in this period is mainly athletes and students. There is no other role or task pressure, which is more conducive to putting time and energy into sports training and learning growth.</p>

<p>Exploration <i>Around age</i> <i>15 to 24</i></p>	<p>Through long-term, systematic and disciplined professional training, self-learning, self-examination and role identification have been gradually completed, and the professional orientation has gradually become prominent, thus completing the exploration process of career choice.</p> <p>Sub stages From the ages of 20 to 24, some excellent athletes gradually emerge across major sports. The completion of their career exploration stage will directly affect their awareness of career choice and confirmation, behavioural decision-making and long-term career development.</p> <p>Tasks Guiding their athletes to establish a sense of professionalism, and set clear development goals for career development. A clear goal setting around the goal mission. Prepare to be a springboard for professional athletes.</p>
<p>Establishment <i>Around age</i> <i>25 to 44</i></p>	<p>Characteristics Around the ages of 25 to 30, psychologically, I am more determined about my career choices, with the highest level of professionalism and clearer career goals, that is, sprinting better athletic performance. (The average retirement age of athletes is 35 years old)</p> <p>Sub stages Athletes at this stage are being tested and the players' career has entered the most critical period. They may have outstanding grades, injuries (reduced athletic performance), marriage, childbirth, entering the workplace or giving up.</p> <p>Tasks This stage is a test of the concentration and persistence of professional athletes. More career guidance methods and tools (such as assessment software and scale test) are needed to intervene (like self-confidence shaping and old concept expansion).</p>
<p>Maintenance <i>Around age</i> <i>45 to 64</i></p>	<p>Characteristics By the age of 40, most athletes have lost their physical strength, exuberant energy and good athleticism of their youth.</p>

<p>Maintenance <i>Around age</i> <i>45 to 64</i></p>	<p>Sub stages The development of a career is an irreversible process of continuous development. The previous accumulation of professional experience and life as an athlete has a profound impact on current and future career development. At this time, athletes should plan and prepare for their own career transformation, such as participating in comprehensive quality training, vocational transformation training, employment and entrepreneurship skills training, etc. This is also the guiding focus of Taiwan's long-term career planning. It is the strategy of the sports genus and the Taiwan Olympic Committee to try to promote it.</p> <p>Tasks Accept the reality, look forward, and develop a healthy and positive state of mind and body, plan the follow-up development of your career, and meet the challenges of life in the future.</p>
<p>Decline <i>Around age</i> <i>65 & up</i></p>	<p>Characteristics For athletes, decline means the end of their sports career and the maintenance of career. Retirement is a reality that every athlete has to face. Their role as an athlete is gradually weakened. After retiring, they enter a new professional field and face a broader living space, which will give retired athletes more roles. These roles are closely related, and together, affect future career development. The particularity of an athlete's occupation and the limited nature of sports life, make this stage much earlier than other occupations.</p> <p>Sub stages This stage includes employment information and policy introductions, entrepreneurial counseling, workplace capacity improvement, employment internships and professional referrals.</p> <p>Tasks How to successfully achieve professional transformation, better realise their own value and career development after retirement, is the main task of athletes at this stage.</p>

Super's career development theory shows a good application in solving the employment dilemma of laborers and the confusion of career development.

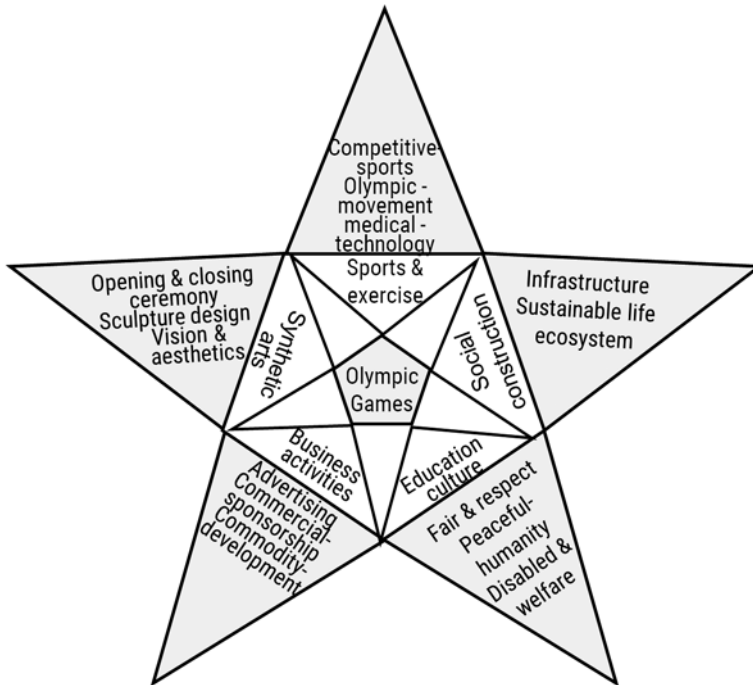
Because athletes are in a relatively closed training environment for a long time, coupled with the more prominent contradictions between them, they are not aware of the society, the cultural level is low, and employment skills other than motor skills are lacking, so athletes will retire or find employment difficult. The career development and transition employment issues of retired athletes needs to be resolved. Then, drawing on existing experience, it is of great practical significance to study how to use career development theory to guide athletes' career development.

The development of athletes' career guidance is an inevitable trend in the future

After many excellent athletes retired, they achieved a better career development and became a model for athletes to transform their employment. In Taiwan, the Sports Department of the Ministry of Education and the Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee jointly promote the excellent athletes' career counseling programme, which lets more players pay attention to and start their career planning as soon as possible, in order to facilitate their career transformation after retirement. For example, Chen Yi-An (陳怡安) originally did not think she was suitable for sports but coincidentally become a top taekwondo master. In the 1988 Taekwondo demonstration competition at the Seoul Olympics, she kicked her way to Taiwan's first Olympic gold medal in history. After she retired, she entered the highly competitive job market. This work includes: sports reporters, anchors, marketing plans, etc. Finally, because she liked craftsmanship, she started a business with friends selling handmade soap. Now Chen Yi-An has turned into a hand-made fragrance soap business and sells to the top department store market. Another athlete, Weng Ming-Yi (翁明義), is the only person to represent Taiwan in the Winter Olympic Games three times. Since he became a ski instructor in 1985, he was introduced to a new type of grass slide in Europe and returned to Taiwan to start a business. And it has created a new era of Taiwan's grass-sliding movement. Now he is the founder of Taiwan's famous grass-sliding equipment brand "Grass-flying". After retiring, he moved to the mall and became the head of three skiing, grass-skiing equipment companies and precision machinery companies. He is also the current vice president of the Taiwan Ski Association.

At this stage of retirement, many excellent athletes will be transformed from a single athlete to a multi-role of bosses, coaches, wives, mothers, daughters, etc.; only in the career of the players in self-care planning and long-term mentoring programmes for athletes only by working together can we get better development. The accumulation of work and the achievements of the workplace are inseparable from their valuable past athletic experience and the unwillingness of the will, and the spirit of their own efforts. Of course, this cannot be cut with the policy of national sports and the career planning of athletes. Lin Peng-Soong (2003), who has long observed Taiwan's Olympic sports affairs, has proposed that Olympic athletes extend their reference to the most interesting interests and future career developments around the extended tasks related to sports games. (Translated by this study)

According to Lin (2003), it is very promising to focus on the relevant work and career opportunities around Olympic Games. With the advent of the digital age, more new forms of entrepreneurial work and opportunities are born, athletes should learn to look far, and start planning for the future from now on.



Opportunities and industries around the Olympic Games, Lin (2003).

The career guidance work path of Taiwan athletes under Super’s career development theory

In Taiwan, the introduction of career development theory is an objective and necessary condition for realising the overall growth of athletes and career connections. At present, the training mode of Taiwanese athletes is to exchange athletes’ training time for a large number of cultural courses and self-learning in exchange for sports achievements. Therefore, it is difficult to ensure the continuity of learning and deep learning in the future; the old sports concept only cares about athletes. At this stage, citing career development theory and introducing it into the athletes for analysis will help athletes to further understand themselves and promote more comprehensive growth and career development.

In order to complete the long-term career planning of athletes, the concept of future career planning must be deeply rooted in the hearts of the people. This study sorts out the five phase steps that are actually implemented in Taiwan, and guides athletes to complete career planning and development guidance step by step.

Cooperating with Super’s Conception of Life Stages and Development Tasks of Taiwan’s athletes to establish a guiding path for Taiwan athletes’ career exploration

<p>Growth: Have the long-term career planning self-concepts</p>	<p>The concept of career planning is deeply rooted in people’s minds, integrated into daily training, competition, school education and family life. In the formation of self-concept, the consciousness of athletes can be stimulated, and career planning can be faced with optimistic and positive attitude.</p>
<p>Exploration: Explore a career direction that suits your own characteristics</p>	<p>Comprehensively evaluate the players’ advantages and dilemmas in career development under the best physical conditions and make predictions. Combining the family structure and economic conditions of athletes with the status of social relations, considering the roles played by each stage of their current and future career development, they propose rationalized career development and transformation plans.</p>

<p>Establishment: Accurate assessment and support</p>	<p>Use scientific, objective and accurate career assessment and tracking tools to achieve employment transformation; provide training and support for occupational characteristics, demand characteristics and mental state according to athletes' future career goals and needs.</p>
<p>Maintenance: Establish a consulting platform to training regularly</p>	<p>The professionalization of career planning and the establishment of a talent database are key priorities. Establishing a professional sports consulting platform requires manpower and resources, but it is the guarantee for the future transition and training of athletes.</p>
<p>Decline: Establish a comprehensive integration system and continue the inheritance</p>	<p>Establish a comprehensive sports career guidance work system to provide support, management, evaluation, and mediation for athletes' career stages, and provide comprehensive protection from multiple aspects such as competitions, injuries, thoughts, psychology, and vocational training.</p>

From a long-term perspective, with planning, both the athletes themselves and the staff in all aspects, the athletes' career development can be counted, and the scientific, systematic and continuous career guidance work has also been obtained. Guarantee is conducive to the better development of the athlete's career, and even to the stability and prosperity of the entire society. If you really explore the roots, the main solution is the problem of ideas and methods. On the one hand, we must change our mindset. Whether it is managers, coaches and team leaders, or individual athletes, we must establish the concept of full-time career development. Career guidance must run through all stages of athletes' career development. Athletes must establish self-planning awareness. To exert the subjective initiative in their career planning; on the other hand, through effective career planning, development of assessment tools, construction of work platforms, establishment of support systems and other methods and means, effectively integrate government, society, families, individuals and other parties strength, establish a comprehensive vocational guidance work support system for athletes, society, families and individuals, and provide support for the vocational guidance of Taiwan athletes, in order

to ensure better development of athletes in their careers. Research information can be used for reference by relevant Taiwan authorities.

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ATTITUDE MEASUREMENT OF EFFECT OF FEMALE IRANIAN
ATHLETES' SUCCESS IN OLYMPIC GAMES ON PROMOTING
INVOLVEMENT OF IRANIAN WOMEN IN SOCIAL AND SPORT SPHERES
CASE STUDY: FEMALE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS OF TEHRAN

Narges TAGHIZADEH MOGHADDAM (IRI)

Abstract

Women's participation in public arenas and collective activities is one of the main research concerns in the field of national development. This group that forms one half of Iranian society perhaps has been driven out of the social arenas and their social abilities have been ignored due to cultural, political and other components. This issue is rooted in traditional culture of society so this variable has changed deprivation and disability from an external component to an inner sense for women. One of the factors that can remove such concepts in the mind of Iranian girls is the presence of Iranian women in sport events like Olympics. The international aim of these matches is to convey the empowerment and self-confidence message to all of world groups. However, women' sports in Iran have considerably changed so that those women who had numerous problems for exercise and sport activities now can compete in international events despite the barriers and difficulties adding Olympic colorful medals to their awards. This research attempts to indicate the effect of the presence of Iranian women in Olympic events on high school girls' tendency toward participation using quantitative method and questionnaire. Sample size obtained to $n=384$ using Cochran formula and random sampling method; the obtained results showed that the presence of women in Olympic sports events led to more tendency of high school girls in Tehran toward pres-

ence in social events and taking part in public roles in three fields of belief, motivation and action.

Keywords: Women's Participation, Olympic, Attitude Measurement, High School Girls in Tehran

1. Introduction

Athletes and sports champions, in particular those champions at highest sports level such as Olympic events are beyond an ordinary sports champion. Many believe that athletes at such level have passed through sports borders and become an ideal for young people. These individuals can be a target model for adolescences and young people because of their perfectionism and priority that create a specific social position for them (Zhike & Rudai, 2018, p. 36). Sport has been always an important event in Iran; athletes have had a higher social position and presence of Olympic champions in political events implies the trust of people in athletes. Since sport plays a vital role in society and is related to all of social groups, it can be a perfect motive for more frequent presence of women in society (Khalili, 2007, 165).

Attention to Olympic Movement ideals made this hypothesis more possible that the presence of Iranian athletes in Olympic matches may have considerable effect on the attitude and action of high school girls. In general, Olympism tradition is tradition for effort, hatred for fear, love for homeland, generosity, chivalry morale, and close relationship with art and literature. Likewise, good values, freedom and magnanimity, peace and friendship, etc. are values of the Olympic Charter related to Olympic training. These values are familiar in Iranian culture rooted in our ancient history. As it is mentioned in chivalry charters, it is based on three principles: first, do what you say; second, do not do something against truth; third, do actions in patience. Thus, any trait associated with chivalry is relied on three principles: wisdom, truth and people (Sajjadi, 2000, 24).

Some specific cultural and social circumstances have made barriers to women's presence in social and political events in Iran; nevertheless, the increasing presence of female athletes in global games can facilitate the situation. The success of women's presence in social events have been in doubt due to male dominance on society making women's success in international sports

events under question and this issue has made women to be present more in social arenas (Tuchman et al. 2000, 21). The other issue in this case is related to women's self-esteem so that many women contribute to men's attitude assuming that they are not born for social activities.

2. Theoretical foundations

According to the mentioned points, this study was conducted to examine the role of Iranian women's success in Olympic events measuring the attitude of high school girls in Tehran, Iran in order to investigate how the success of female athletes has led to increased tendency and belief of female students to be present in society and accept social roles (Aggrawal, 2003, 54). For this purpose, the researcher used attitude measurement. Experts in public relations have paid more attention to public thoughts and attitude measurement in recent years (Khalili, 2007, 170). The creation of a good relationship is subjected to recognition of attitude of intra and extra-organisational individuals so that the outcomes can be used as significant communicational loops between managers and audiences, because planning is not possible without identifying public thoughts and analysis of its aspects. In fact, upcoming events and incidents can be anticipated relying on the public opinion in order to reduce negative attitudes and intra and extra-organisational crises. In this regard, public opinion is a phenomenon that is discussed when there is a clash of ideas; otherwise, it is not visible. Hence, public opinion is presentation of the idea about a debatable issue; public opinion is not the consequence of personal thoughts (Tara Grillos, 2018, 118).

Women play an active and creative role in various steps of creation, formation and institutionalization of social development trend (Marie Sjödin, 2018, 619). It seems that each society should employ all of human resources like women who are the fundamental forces in this case in order to achieve development-oriented goals attaining a sustainable, balanced, holistic and indigenous development. Such development cannot be along with realities that are anti-development. Iranian society is now transitioning from old attitudes toward modern concepts. Therefore, it is more likely that there are emerging pros and cons in terms of all of social, political, cultural and economic aspects.

The cultural structure comprises a set of beliefs, art, ethics, law, rituals and habits if human as a society member (Abramson, 2004, 54).

Political and social engagement is basically a significant and requiring condition for a developed society but is not enough (Bashirieh, 2004, 54). However, this is acceptable that women play a minor role in social life and are not taken as a perfect political and social member so that women's participation in the public arena of social life has not been seen in practice (Evans, 2018, 187).

Baron Pierre de Coubertin recreated the Olympic Games in 1894. Baron Pierre de Coubertin and some of his friends founded the International Olympic Committee (IOC) on 23 June 1894 in Sorbonne University, Paris. They aimed at ending social crises at that time by creating Olympic Games. Coubertin tried to revive the Olympic Games in order to fulfill his educational objectives. He defined sport as democracy and introduced the most important task of the Olympic Movement support for exercise and worldview. The four goals of the Olympic Movement are as follows:

1. Promote and foster ethical and physical specifications that are bases for exercise
2. Educate and train young people through sports in order to create a world full of peace and friendship
3. Promote and expand Olympic principles throughout the world regarding world peace
4. Gathering world athletes together every four years in a festival called Olympic (Sajjadi, 2000, 43).

The strong presence of women in various sport fields and international arenas in recent years has shown that there will be successful presence of them in public arenas if we trust in them (Takayama, 2018, 222). Successful presence of women along with international achievements in global competitions and Olympic events has introduced Iranian women and girls to the world as champions. It seems that the successful presence of Iranian girls can change their attitude toward presence in social arenas and public participation leading to their presence in social arenas. Now, the basic question of this paper is about the effect of the presence of female Iranian athletes in global events on women's attitude toward presence in international events.

Attitude means public appraisal of behaviour, reality or issue; attitude is different with belief; beliefs form our attitude toward a subject. The importance of attitudes is highly considerable so that American politicians attributed the

failure in the war against Vietnam and Cuba to public opinions that disagreed with these wars (Yao, 2018, 99). Now, the most common form of attitude measurement, in particular in management, is scaling based on the measurement theory. Of these scales, Likert Scale is the most popular scaling method (Takayama, 2018, 219). Attitude measurement is generally done within three phases including belief, motive and action cycle. In this regard, it is usually attempted in attitude measurement questionnaires to find individuals' beliefs in a subject, their motive and action associated to the issue. It should be noted that these three steps are done serially and each of the factors provide the field for the next component. As it was mentioned, it is tried to design a conceptual model; accordingly, attitude measurement is addressable in three fields of belief, motive, and action. In other words, a person's attitude is a triple cycle including the person's belief in an issue, motive to do it or not and ultimately the person's action. With respect to this triple cycle, conceptual model of study will be:

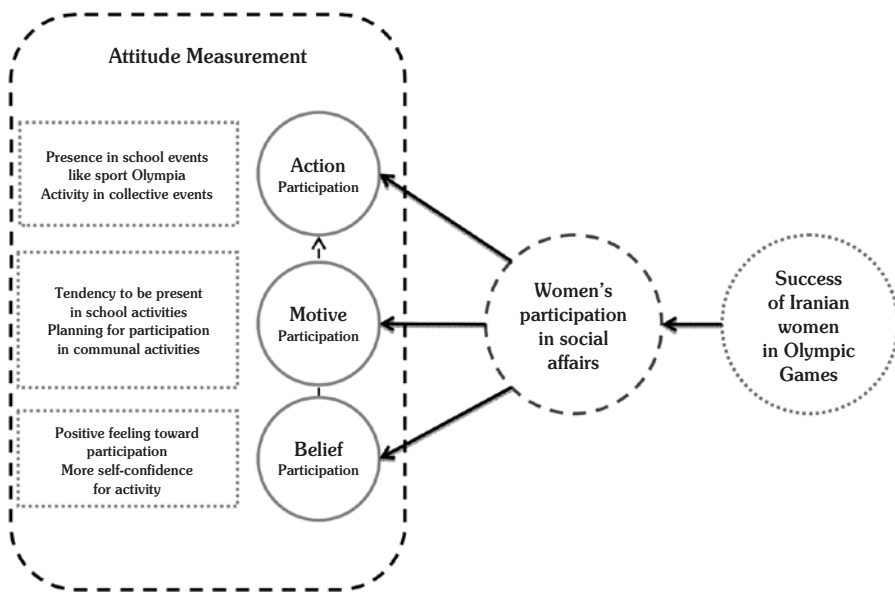


Figure 1. Conceptual Model (Reference: Sjödin, 2018)

3. Methodology

This was an applied research in terms of objective and a descriptive study in terms of type and nature. Since it is a specialised subject, a questionnaire was used and to collect relevant literature and antecedents, library and note-taking methods was used. The statistical population of the study comprised all of female high school athletes; to determine sample size, Cochran formula was used and sample size obtained to 384 and finally questionnaires were distributed among them then information was collected. In the studied group, 39.3% were at first grade, 39.1% at second grade, and 21.65 at third grade of high school; 31% of respondents were 16 years old, 28.4% were at age of 17, and 40.6% were at age of 18.

4. Analysis

To test improvement or lack of good situation of students in terms of studied variables, one-sample t test was used. The results obtained from this test are summarised in the following table.

Table 1. Results of one-sample t test for studied variables measurement

Variable	Theoretical average=3.0				
	Observed mean	SD	t value	df	P
Belief in social participation	3.6089	1.56384	28.901	383	0.000
Motive for social participation	3.0789	1.50803	28.143	383	0.000
Social participation action	3.8211	1.25970	30.869	383	0.000
Success of Iranian female athletes	4.1684	1.00951	36.917	383	0.000

To test hypotheses, correlation inferential statistics and regression were used. Hypothesis 1 explains that Tehran high school girls' belief in participation in social and sport spheres has direct association with success of Iranian female athletes in Olympic Games. Results indicated in the table below indicate that if significance level is above error value, then null hypothesis will be confirmed and if significance value is lower than error value then null hypothesis (H_0) will be rejected.

Table 2. Result of Pearson correlation test for students' belief and success of Iranian female athletes

	success of Iranian female athletes	
Students' belief	Pearson correlation	0.240
	Sig	0.001
	N	384

As can be seen in table 2, there is a significant relationship between students' belief and success of Iranian female athletes at significance level of 95%; correlation coefficient obtained to 0.240. To examine effect amount; regression model was analysed through fit method. Following part indicates this process.

Table 3. Correlation between variables (regression fit indicators)

D-W	Error Sd	Adjusted R2	R2	Correlation coefficient
1.844	1.14289	0.053	0.058	0.240

Correlation between independent and dependent variables obtained to 0.240. The obtained R^2 indicates that 58% of changes in success of Iranian female athletes is related to students' beliefs.

Hypothesis 2 explains that Tehran high school girls' motive for participation in social and sport spheres has direct association with success of Iranian female athletes in Olympic Games. Results indicated in the table below indicate that if significance level is above error value, then null hypothesis will be confirmed and if significance value is lower than error value then null hypothesis (H_0) will be rejected.

Table 4. Result of Pearson correlation test for students' motive and success of Iranian female athletes

	success of Iranian female athletes	
Students' motive	Pearson correlation	0.038
	Sig	0.000
	N	384

As can be seen in table 4, there is a significant relationship between students' motive and success of Iranian female athletes at significance level of 95%; correlation coefficient obtained to 0.038.

Table 5. Correlation between variables (regression fit indicators)

D-W	Error Sd	Adjusted R2	R2	Correlation coefficient
1.895	0.86130	0.004	0.001	0.038

Correlation between independent and dependent variables obtained to 0.038. The obtained R^2 indicates that 1% of changes in success of Iranian female athletes is related to students' motive and since this value does not consider degree of freedom, adjusted R^2 is used for this purpose; this value obtained to 4% and since Durbin-Watson value is at interval of 1.5-2.5, thus, residuals are independent. Considering the studied indicators, the model is fit.

Hypothesis 3 explains that Tehran high school girls' action for participation in social and sport spheres has direct association with success of Iranian female athletes in Olympic Games. Results indicated in the table below indicate that if significance level is above error value, then null hypothesis will be confirmed and if significance value is lower than error value then null hypothesis (H_0) will be rejected.

Table 6. Result of Pearson correlation test for students' action and success of Iranian female athletes

	success of Iranian female athletes	
Students' action	Pearson correlation	0.038
	Sig	0.047
	N	384

As can be seen in table 6, there is a significant relationship between students' action (X) and success score (Y) of Iranian female athletes in accordance with the fit indicators of model.

Table 7. Correlation between variables (regression fit indicators)

D-W	Error Sd	Adjusted R2	R2	Correlation coefficient
1.685	0.86129	0.004	0.001	0.038

Correlation between independent and dependent variables obtained to 0.038. The obtained R^2 indicates that 1% of changes in success of Iranian female athletes is related to students' actions.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The effect of Olympic events on women's participation in public events and communal activities is one of concern for women's rights advocates in developing countries like Iran. Studies have shown that the presence of female Olympic and world champions in some countries such as Iran has a considerable effect on promoting women's participation in these societies. As we know, the success of Egyptian female athletes in Olympic events indicates increasing presence of women in public events. In addition, the effect of other Muslim countries also reveals the fact that Olympic events play a vital role in the growing presence of women in social arenas. For instance, Sjödin et al. (2018) indicated the fact that women's presence in some traditional societies like Pakistan is directly associated with female athletes' presence in international events in such countries. Accordingly, the results of the present paper are in line with findings obtained by Sjödin et al. (2018) and Zhike et al. (2018).

As the goal of Olympic Games is to facilitate women's presence in public and social events, the results of this study indicate that the presence of Iranian female champions in international sport events has a substantial effect on high school girls' attitude toward presence in public events so that this group is more included to participate in social affairs. Results obtained from this study demonstrate that high school girls' attitude in Tehran has been considerably improved in three fields of belief, motive and action. This case has occurred due to the mind of high school girls that is looking for an ideal in order to take part in public events. Results of this research are in line with findings obtained from studies conducted by Panahi (2013) and Davani (2005) approving the hypotheses. In addition, our findings are matched with results obtained by Grillos (2018) since both of studies have indicated effect of ideal and model on young girls in field of social participation. It is recommended to Olympic holders to employ more women in ceremonies related to these matches like Olympic opening. Furthermore, it is possible to appreciate women giving them a specific award at the end of matches in different sport fields thanking them

for their effort and winning. In addition, they can consider a different award for developing countries whose women are facing more problems when they decide to participate in such events.

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SOCIAL LEADERSHIP IN THE LIFE OF JAVIER GUERRA POLO AND ITS INTER-RELATIONSHIP WITH THE OLYMPIC VALUES

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1. Summary

The objective of this investigative piece of work is to discover the social leadership factor in the life of Javier Guerra Polo and its inter-relationship with the Olympic values. The interviews that have been carried out to go deeper into the information and unite three aspects have been with Francisco Guerra González, father and idol of the subject, Pedro Luís Gómez, psychologist and friend of Javier and Antonio Serrano, the coach of Javier Guerra Polo. Due to it being history still in the present, the semi-structured interview system has been an essential technical part. The script was developed from an elaboration of the Sporting Life and History, constructed from secondary sources researched for this purpose: articles, interviews and documentaries about the life of Javier Guerra Polo and his father Francisco Guerra González. After the analysis and the three-way coordination of data obtained from different sources, the following conclusion has been reached: Javier Guerra Polo is a clear example of a social leader, who defends and emits Olympic values to all around him, proof of which is the Medal of Sporting Merit which has been awarded to him by the town of Segovia this past May.

2. Object of Study

In the following piece of work the intention is to familiarise with and further discover the sporting trajectory of Javier Guerra Polo and identify the possible

leadership that his family could have imposed on the selection of sport and sporting trajectory, analysing the influence of his father, Francisco Guerra, on the outset and evolution as a sportsman.

Looking from another angle, as a consequence of both Francisco and Javier Guerra developing their sporting progress in the context of a small town like Segovia, another intention is to discover whether his sporting successes and fighting spirit have influenced the beginning of other sporting progresses in his local geographical surroundings.

3. Objectives of the Study

3.1 Main Objective

To discover the sporting progresses of Javier Guerra Polo, and the possible role of social leadership that he may have been able to perform as well as the presence of the Olympic values in their sporting disposition.

3.2 Secondary Objectives

To establish the influence of Francisco (Paco) Guerra during the childhood of Javier, with the aim of identifying the activities and focuses that could be influences in the base of the leadership role.

To analyse the level and capacity of leadership that Francisco and Javier Guerra have had on their social environment in the different stages of their sporting development.

To understand and analyse the importance of the coach and psychological trainer in the creation of the leadership model of Javier Guerra.

4. Methodology

The temporary situation and the circumstances of the object of the study, lead to the identification of it as an investigation about History in the Present Time (HPT) that Martínez Gorroño, M.E. (1996) describes as the stage of Contemporary History that counts on the theory of its reconstruction using live sources. These can offer the investigator qualitative information from live circumstances that it is not possible to discover from written sources. Soto Gamboa, A. (2004)

affirms that the investigator of HPT “has the possibility of appreciating and observing the mentalities and the perceptions of contemporaries about the subject and their own experiences”.

For that reason, the methodological design begins from the principle of the life history of the sportsmen in the study. For this, according to the methodological composition carried out at the Autonomous University of Madrid, the procedure is to identify and categorise the primary oral sources that will be definitive in the study. On one side, the lead subjects: Francisco and Javier Guerra. On the other side, Pedro Luís Gómez Moreno, psychologist and friend of Javier, and Antonio Serrano, the first coach of Javier Guerra Polo. These last two people, part of the sporting and social environment of both the sportsmen, have lived through the circumstances which are the object of study and can give their testimonies. These spoken sources of information were in the form of semi-structured interviews with an open end, carried out under the parameters quoted by Hammer and Wildasky (1990).

Another important factor is the process of getting close to the subject, which was carried out by searching for and collating newspaper sources and also graphic documents from various origins: interviews carried out through different media available on internet, and articles published in different newspapers. These documents have been subject to an extremely detailed documental analysis in order to collate information about the sporting lives of Francisco and Javier Guerra, with the end purpose of building their sporting trajectories and putting together their life histories which are the primary object of this study. On the other hand, the content from these newspaper sources at the same time has provided information about the influence and repercussion that the sporting trajectory of these athletes has had on their city.

5. History of sporting life of Javier Guerra Polo: Introduction

Javier Guerra Polo is at present, the most honoured Spaniard in the distance of the marathon. He attended the last Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro, where he was unable to participate due to thrombophlebitis in a calf muscle. His first steps in athletics were stimulated by the trail that his father, Francisco Guerra González, left. During his sporting and personal progress he fulfilled a definite leadership role, since from being a child, his father was a reference to imitate.

6. The foundations of a sporting leader

To get to know the figure of Javier Guerra Polo, it is important to highlight Francisco Guerra, his father who founded in him the early sporting and social values and exerted on him personal and sporting leadership which has been decisive in making vital progress.

6.1 A father's influence: Francisco Guerra, sporting leader

Francisco Guerra was a prestigious runner from the early years of the 80s to the early 90s. His progress as an athlete developed in two stages. In the 80s, running with the elite, he realised that he was unable to train as much as was necessary, and decided to abandon athletics. Before retiring for the first time, however, in the 80s, Francisco merited a trip to the World Cross Country Championships representing Spain, and also recorded some very worthy times in the 1,500m. After a spell of seven years of athletic inactivity, he returned and became Spanish Cross Country Champion, representing his country in another World Cross Country Championship and in various European Championships. Through this he became the oldest athlete to represent Spain in a Men's non-veteran international event. He was 40 years old.

As a result of the testimonies that have been given through the interviews, it can be confirmed that Francisco Guerra has transmitted to his son Javier the fondness for practising physical exercise as a means of personal improvement, especially through athletics and long distance races. Pedro Lu s G mez Moreno specifically mentions this aspect in the interviews that were held with him:

“For Javier, the prime athletic reference is his father and because of this he copies from him the values of commitment, hard work, constancy, professionalism, competitiveness and love of his sport”¹.

But Francisco Guerra has not only left a legacy of positive things for his son, Javier. It has also been documented that he has equally transmitted a way of sensing the competition that has led Javier to repeat certain forms of anxiety, creating various mental blocks before competing. These reactions and behaviours in the moments before competition had been happening before his

1. Interview with Pedro Luis Gomez Moreno, Javier's sports psychologist. Held on 18 April 2018 and referred to 20 April 2018.

return to Segovia in 2011. Francisco Guerra reflects on this in the interview held with him:

“I am a person who is not very strong (mentally). I was very nervous, with a lot of anxiety. The night before a competition I couldn’t even sleep”².

About the episodes of anxiety of his father, as a consequence of his sporting competitions, lived through with him, Javier remembers some special moments that he relates in the following way:

“My father became Spanish Cross Country Champion in Amorebieta. Returning home, via Vitoria, my father stops the car, and gets out, saying that he cannot breathe”³.

The transmission of that anxiety, perhaps produced by the added responsibility, joined as well with the demands he put upon himself of never quitting, have also been characteristics shown by Javier Guerra. These mental blocks, experienced by his father and idol have also been present in his sporting trajectory along with his values, his constancy, and his love for athletics. However, as he has come to realise, Javier himself has also suffered the same hardship as his father.

6.2 The importance of being a person and then an athlete

Since 2011 Javier put himself in the hands of a friend and at the same time pedagogue Pedro Luís, with the aim of overcoming his mental blocks. From that moment, the change in Javier has only been upwards.

“I felt a lot for Javier, because you saw him there every day working hard and then when the moment arrived, nothing came of it”⁴.

For Javier, beginning to work with Pedro has been a good decision, since

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2. Interview with Francisco Guerra Gonzalez, Javier’s father. Held on 24 April 2018 and referred to 26 April 2018.
 3. Interview with Javier Guerra Polo, protagonist. Held on 27 April 2018 and referred to 29 April 2018.
 4. Interview with Antonio Serrano Sanchez, Javier’s Coach. Held on 3 May 2018 and referred to 5 May 2018.

they have been working together Javier recognises that he has learnt how to face up to and overcome the pressure in the competitions.

From the start of Pedro Luís Gómez's influence, the mental blocks that Javier had, little by little have disappeared, to the point of transforming this weakness into a strong point.

The mental blocks are water under the bridge in the life of Javier. For that reason he himself catalogues them as: learning, toughness, knowing yourself, managing anxiety and overcoming things.

For all of that, it is fair to highlight the fact that with effort, willpower and the right orientation Javier has converted a weakness into a strength, sufficient motive for everyone in his circle to consider him a leader and his objective to improve every day is valued and serves as an example.

“Looking back on this trajectory of overcoming difficulties as an athlete, Javier has shown that he is particularly grateful to Pedro.... and he realises that not only has he led him to be a better athlete (sporting leader) but also to be a better person (social leader)”⁵.

6.3 Consolidation of a sporting leader

Once his problems of anxiety were overcome, Javier has managed to establish himself as the best Spanish athlete at this time in the Marathon. In the Spanish Championships Marathon of Seville he ran a time of two hours eight minutes. This time is the best Spanish time for a Spaniard run in Spain.

6.3.1 The coach and his definitive sporting leadership

Antonio Serrano is a coach who has known how to get the potential from what the capacities of Javier Guerra offered, although his work has not been easy. Those are his memories from the interview held with him; that in the early years he continued to fail to deliver in the top level competitions.

“A coach must bring different aspects to his athletes, the most valued of which is his physical aspect”⁶.

5. Interview with Francisco Guerra Gonzalez already quoted.

6. Interview with Antonio Serrano Sanchez already quoted.

Antonio thinks that he connected better with Javier due to his own personal past as an athlete.

“Having been an athlete, I think I empathise better with my pupils”⁷.

It's necessary to reflect that Antonio Serrano has always maintained an understanding position as a coach. The circumstance of Javier Guerra deciding to leave Madrid was a fact that could have led to a rupture but Antonio reacted in a positive way to the change and offered him his support at that difficult time of his life.

“He made a very big decision which was to return to Segovia, with his girlfriend, his family and his friends”⁸.

On another point, Antonio was also one of the pioneers for Javier to leave the track and turn to road running, distances in which he has won all the Championships in Spain: 10km, Half Marathon and Marathon. That vision of Serrano has turned Javier into one of the current Spanish references in athletics.

“He was very focused on the track and cross country and I encouraged him to change to road running”⁹.

7. Creation of a social leader

With respect to the role that Javier Guerra is filling as a good social leader, Antonio Serrano reviewed the values and aptitudes that Javier is showing on a daily basis:

“He is a lad who comes from a family rooted in athletics, which in this case has shown that he is very polite, helps whenever he can, is a great professional, brings tranquillity, believes that sport is necessary in people's lives and through his friendly manner gains the trust of everybody, including myself”¹⁰.

7. Interview with Antonio Serrano Sanchez already quoted.

8. Interview with Antonio Serrano Sanchez already quoted.

9. Interview with Antonio Serrano Sanchez already quoted.

10. Interview with Antonio Serrano Sanchez already quoted.

Javier is a person who communicates a series of values, both educational and of improvement that sport can transmit and without doubt these are the example seen in the sporting trajectory of his father and that which has been instilled by his coaches. All of them are a reflection of the values that make up the Olympic ideal: effort, sacrifice, the spirit of overcoming and constancy.

“Whether it is cold or raining or snowing, you have to go out to train, or even when it doesn’t feel good or you have bad days”¹¹.

As a conclusion, it is thought that a leader should know how to act in the correct way in different situations and aspects of his daily life and the sporting training means a specific education in this. Javier worked with Pedro on different race situations, through visualisation. In one of the sessions Pedro asked him what would happen if at kilometre 4 in a marathon race, one runner pushes you and knocks you over.

8. The injury before the Rio Olympic Games

Javier has lived through some very complicated situations since 2011, in spite of having overcome his mental blocks. Before the Rio Marathon 2016, he received a terrible piece of news. He cannot participate in the Olympic Games, because the doctors have detected a thrombophlebitis in one of his calf muscles and say that he must return home, dashing the dream of Javier of competing in the Rio de Janeiro Olympic Games.

“When they told me the news that I couldn’t run, it caused another shock”... “the case in Rio was a progressive wear and tear that we didn’t think was going to get so far, but we all knew that I wasn’t in my best moment”¹².

That circumstance was a hard blow for Javier, due to him having achieved the minimum time to participate in the Rio Olympic Games a year before in the World Championships in Beijing. At that time Javier was guided by a doctor who failed to detect the problem in time which led to Javier continuing training, to the point that his body no longer reacted to stimuli.

11. Interview with Javier Guerra Polo already quoted.

12. Interview with Javier Guerra Polo already quoted.

“The act of trying to make the Olympic Games meant that I pushed my body to the limit, so far that it produced a thrombosis. It’s true that there were mistakes, the first of which was mine, but these were aggravated by poor sports medicine management”¹³.

9. The Medal of Sporting Merit from the City of Segovia

One aspect that would seem definitive to confirm the role of social leader that without doubt Javier Guerra Polo has filled in his city, is the fact that in 2018 he was awarded the Medal of Sporting Merit in the city of Segovia, unanimously voted. Speaking about the moment he was given the award:

“We’ve come to the meeting today, since Marian (Sports Minister in Segovia) asked me to and because she believed I should be there. The truth is that I received a pleasant surprise, because the vote was taken and I won unanimously”¹⁴.

10. Sources and Bibliography

Primary sources

In order to present the current piece of work, four interviews were carried out by the author with the following primary sources:

- Javier Guerra Polo. Interview held in Segovia 27 April 2018 and referred to 29 April 2018
- Pedro Luís Gómez Moreno. Interview held in Segovia 18 April 2018 and referred to 20 April 2018
- Antonio Serrano Sánchez, coach of Javier Guerra. Interview held in Madrid, 3 May 2018 and referred to 5 May 2018
- Francisco Guerra González, father of Javier Guerra. Interview held in Segovia, 24 April, 2018 and referred to 26 April 2018

13. Interview with Javier Guerra Polo already quoted.

14. Interview with Javier Guerra Polo already quoted.

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EVOLUTION OF FOOTBALL IN THE OLYMPICS: THE ROLE OF THE OLYMPICS IN THE LIFE OF THE YOUNG FOOTBALLER

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Abstract

Aim: The aim of this study is to determine whether the men's football event in the Summer Olympic Games provides a platform for the young footballer into a good sporting career. *Method:* The number of Olympic Gold Medallists who make it to World Cup squads were calculated via cross referencing the official squad lists since 1992. Players above the age of 23 were not considered in the data. Only Gold Medallists were taken to analyse the best performing team. A similar study was conducted for the FIFA U20 World Cup to provide a different frame of reference and perspective. *Findings:* Every Olympic Gold Medal nation has always qualified for the following FIFA World Cup. An average of 46% i.e. more than seven Olympic Gold Medallists of the Country make it to a FIFA World Cup. An average of 21% i.e. more than four FIFA U20 World Cup winners make it to a FIFA World Cup. *Conclusion:* The Olympic Gold winners always contribute to a portion of the World Cup squads. The Olympics provide a platform for the young footballer to grow and exhibit their talent, and thereby move on to a distinguished footballing career.

1. Introduction

For the average footballer, participation in the FIFA World Cup is considered the pinnacle of his sporting career. However, football was an event in the Olympics about more than a quarter of a century before the inception of the World Cup in

1930 (8). Even though the FIFA World Cup possesses a much higher viewership and popularity today when compared to Olympic football (The 2014 World Cup had a TV viewership of 3.2 billion whereas the whole of the Rio Olympics 2016 had the same), football has a lucrative history in the scenario of the Olympics, especially in the careers of many aspiring footballers, who have used the historic games as a platform to their first success (6). The footballer named Lionel Messi comes to mind, who led his team to the gold medal in the 2008 Summer Olympics in Beijing. A meteoric rise to fame and 5 FIFA Ballon d'Ors later, he is arguably considered the greatest ever football player to grace the planet. But do the Olympics really provide a platform for the young player to develop into an aspiring footballer? Does football in the Olympics provide any value to a young footballer looking to grow? This study aims to answer these questions.

2. Overview of the Games

Football has been a regular event since the Olympic Games in Paris 1900, and became a FIFA recognised event in 1908 (8). FIFA is responsible for conducting the event with the IOC as a governing body (7). There existed no age restrictions owing to the fact that the games then followed the values of amateurism, where professional athletes were not allowed to compete. When professionals were allowed to compete in 1984, FIFA laid down the restriction that for Europe and South America, only professionals who had not participated in a FIFA World Cup could compete, to ensure fair competition for all (7). In 1992, all existing rules were scrapped and football in the Olympics was made an U23 event. The ruling was made to ensure that the Olympics did not rival the World Cup as the concept of the competition was the same. The 1996 Olympics saw the introduction of a new rule stating that the teams could have a maximum of three players who were above the age of 23, and football in the Olympics has followed this rule format since. Similar to the World Cup, the sixteen participating nations undergo rounds of qualifying to compete in the final event, and only the best teams participate in the competition (4).

3. The Peak Age of a Footballer

The peak age of a footballer is between 25-27 i.e. the average footballer is

considered to be in his maximum physical capabilities at said age (1). This data excludes that of a goalkeeper, as they peak at a higher age. The average age of every FIFA World Cup winning squad from 1930-2018 is 26.6 (2). For an U23 Olympic Footballer, he has the chance of competing in the immediate following World Cup after two years when below peak age, or in the following one after six years at peak age. Judging by performance, the player may obviously be selected to compete in the competition by the coach well past peak age as well.

4. Methodology

The official squad lists from the FIFA World Cups and Olympic Games since 1992 were cross referenced to check participation. Only the events since 1992 were considered since the 1992 Olympics was the event that saw the introduction of the U23 rule. Players above 23 years of age who competed since 1996 were not included in the data. Since the study revolves around the Olympics providing a platform for the young player to grow, only the Gold medallist nations i.e. the best performing players and teams were analysed. The same was carried out for the FIFA U20 World Cup as well since 1991 not to compare, but to provide a different frame of reference and perspective.

5. Findings

The 1992 Olympics – Barcelona

Spain would win Gold at the 1992 Olympics in Barcelona. Out of the twenty U23 players who competed, 7(35%) would go on to play in a FIFA World Cup (Santiago Canizares, Alberto Ferrer, Luis Enrique, Pep Guardiola, Alfonso Perez, Francisco Machon, and Abelardo Fernandez), with five of them participating in the immediate following event in 1994. The average age of the Spanish National side in the 1994 World Cup was 26.18, compared to 26.83 which was the average squad age at the event.

FIFA U20 World Cup (1991-1995)

Portugal lifted the U20 World Cup in 1991, and of the eighteen players that competed, six (33.33%) would go on to play in a FIFA World Cup (Luis Figo,

Rui Costa, Jorge Costa, Abel Xavier, Capucho and Vieira), with all six of them participating in the 2002 edition.

Brazil ran out winners in the 1993 edition, and of the eighteen players that competed, only one (5.55%) went on to play in a FIFA World Cup (Dida – 1998, 2002, 2006).

Argentina would win the subsequent edition in 1995, and again only one of eighteen (5.55%) went on to play in a FIFA World Cup (Juan Pablo Sorin – 2002, 2006).

The 1996 Olympics – Atlanta

In the revised format of the event, Nigeria would take Gold to bring Africa's first ever in the event. Of the sixteen U23 players who competed, eleven i.e. a staggering 68% went on to play in a FIFA World Cup (Celestine Babayaro, Taribo West, Nwanko Kanu, Tijani Babangida, Wilson Oruma, Jay-Jay Okocha, Victor Ikpeba, Garba Lawal, Daniel Amokachi, Sunday Oliseh and Mobi Patrick Oparaku), with all eleven competing in the immediate following World Cup in 1998. In the 1998 World Cup, Nigeria had an average age of 25.9 in comparison to 26.99 which was the average squad age at the event.

FIFA U20 World Cup (1997-1999)

Argentina retained their crown in 1997, and a total of seven of 18 (38.88%) went on to play in a FIFA World Cup (Leo Franco, Leandro Cufre, Walter Samuel, Esteban Cambiasso, Juan Riquelme, Pablo Aimar and Lionel Scaloni).

Spain ran out winners in the 1999 edition, and only three (16.66%) went on to play in a FIFA World Cup (Carlos Marchena, Xavi Hernandez and Iker Casillas).

The 2000 Olympics – Sydney

Cameroon ensured that the Olympic gold stayed in Africa in 2000, and out of the sixteen U23 players that participated, nine (56%) went on to play in a FIFA World Cup (Pierre Wome, Nicolas Alnoudji, Geremi, Samuel Eto'o, Daniel N'Gom Kome, Lauren, Patrick Suffo, Joel Epalle and Carlos Kamani), with all nine competing in the immediate following World Cup in 2002. The 2002 World Cup saw Cameroon compete with an average age of 25.08, in comparison to 26.98 which was the average squad age at the event.

FIFA U20 World Cup (2001-2003)

Argentina would win back their crown from Spain in 2001, and five of nineteen (26.31%) would go on to play in a FIFA World Cup (Nicolas Burdisso, Fabricio Coloccini, Javier Saviola, Maxi Rodriguez and Willy Caballero).

Brazil took home the honours in 2003, and out of twenty that participated, four (20%) would go on to play in a FIFA World Cup (Dani Alves, Nilmar, Jefferson and Fernandinho).

The 2004 Olympics – Athens

2004 marked the beginning of a period of domination for Argentina, with them winning the Olympic Gold. Eight of their fifteen participants (53%) would go on to compete in a FIFA World Cup (Willy Caballero, Nicolas Burdisso, Fabricio Coloccini, Javier Mascherano, Javier Saviola, Carlos Tevez, Clemente Rodriguez and Lucho Gonzalez), with six of them playing in the immediate following World Cup in 2006. The 2006 World Cup saw Argentina compete with an average age of 26.13, in comparison to 26.84 which was the average squad age at the event.

FIFA U20 World Cup (2005-2007)

Argentina would win consecutive FIFA U20 World Cup trophies in 2005 and 2007, and in the 2005 edition, out of the 21 players who competed, a total of eight (38.09%) players would go on to compete in a FIFA World Cup (Oscar Ustari, Gabriel Paletta, Lucas Biglia, Pablo Zabaleta, Ezequiel Garay, Fernando Gago, Lionel Messi and Sergio Aguero). Gabriel Paletta would go on to represent Italy and not Argentina in his senior career.

In their 2007 victory, Argentina saw a total of six out of 21 (28.57%) players go on to play in a FIFA World Cup (Sergio Romero, Federico Fazio, Gabriel Mercado, Ever Banega, Sergio Aguero and Angel Di Maria). This would be the second time Argentina retained their World U20 Champions crown.

The 2008 Olympics – Beijing

Argentina would win consecutive Olympic Gold in Beijing, and out of the sixteen U23 players who participated, a staggering ten (62.5%) of the players would go on to compete in a FIFA World Cup (Ezequiel Garay, Pablo Zabaleta,

Fernando Gago, Federico Fazio, Ever Banega, Ezequiel Lavezzi, Angel Di Maria, Lionel Messi, Sergio Aguero and Sergio Romero), with four of them playing in the immediate following World Cup in 2010. The 2010 World Cup in South Africa saw Argentina compete with an average age of 27.1, which was higher than the squad average age of 26.83 at that World Cup.

FIFA U20 World Cup (2009-2013)

Ghana would win the 2009 edition of the U20 World Cup, and saw a total of five in a squad of 21 (23.80%) go on to play in the FIFA World Cup (Jonathan Mensah, Emmanuel Badu, Andre Ayew, Daniel Opare and Dominic Adiyiah).

Brazil would add another U20 title to their collection in 2011, and four of the 21 players (19.04%) would go on to play in the FIFA World Cup (Danilo, Casemiro, Coutinho and Oscar).

France won the 2013 edition of the competition, and saw an impressive six of the 21 man squad go on to play in a future FIFA World Cup (Alphonse Areola, Samuel Umtiti, Paul Pogba, Lucas Digne, Youssouf Sabaly and Florian Thauvin). Sabaly would go on to represent Senegal and not France in his senior international career.

The 2012 Olympics – London

The 2012 Olympics saw Mexico beat Brazil in the final to win gold, and of the fifteen U23 players who participated, six (40%) of the players would go on to compete in a FIFA World Cup (Hector Herrera, Marco Fabian, Giovanni Dos Santos, Javier Aquino, Raul Jimenez and Diego Antonio Reyes), all six of which competed in the immediate following World Cup in 2014. The 2014 World Cup in Brazil saw Mexico compete with an average age of 27.30, in comparison to 27.33 which was the average squad age at the World Cup.

FIFA U20 World Cup (2015-2017)

Serbia won the 2015 edition of the competition, and in the FIFA World Cup that followed, four of the 21 players participated (Predrag Rajkovic, Milos Veljkovic, Andrija Zivkovic and Sergej Milinkovic Savic).

England took the trophy in 2017, but none of the players from the squad understandably competed in the FIFA 2018 World Cup.

The 2016 Olympics – Rio

Brazil ended their long wait for Olympic Gold in Rio, when they won the competition courtesy of a penalty shootout in the final. Of the fifteen U23 players who participated, only two (13.33%) of the players would go on to participate in the FIFA World Cup in Russia (Marquinhos and Gabriel Jesus). The 2018 World Cup saw Brazil compete with an average age of 28.60, which was higher than the average squad age of the World Cup which was 27.8.

6. Observations

Since 1992, every Olympic Gold medallist nation has always qualified for the immediate following FIFA World Cup. An average of 46% i.e. more than seven Olympic Gold Medallists make it to a FIFA World cup, and an average of 21% i.e. more than four FIFA U20 World Cup winners make it to a FIFA World Cup. This does not mean that the Olympics is a better platform for the young player, since it is not possible to make a comparison given the difference in ages in both the competitions as three years can make a huge difference in the development of a young footballer. Finally, with the exception of two cases, the average age of the Olympic Gold winning nation in the immediate following World Cup is always lower than the average squad age at that World Cup.

7. Conclusion

The Olympic Gold winners in the football event always contribute to a portion of the FIFA World Cup squads. From the 1992 Olympics in Barcelona, the event has been a platform for the youth to launch into their professional footballing careers, with a high percentage of the Olympic winners moving on to represent their countries in a FIFA World Cup. The fact that every Olympic Gold medallist since 1992 has qualified for the subsequent FIFA World Cup points to that country building on their Olympic victory and more importantly, the young potential nurtured at the Olympics to further develop both the country's and the player's performance, and in turn, their professional careers. The Olympics help in promoting young talent and exhibiting their capabilities on and off the pitch, and it is no surprise that marquee players from the likes of Pep Guardiola

to Samuel Eto'o to even Lionel Messi have an Olympic medal in the initial steps of their footballing career.

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PLACES OF OLYMPIC MEMORY, EVENTS AND TOURISM: THE CASE OF SPORT DEVELOPMENT IN NITERÓI, BRAZIL

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Topic: C - Olympic Education and Social Political Aspects

Introduction

The present study aims to test the theory of lieu de memoire using the perspective of event tourism as a practical outcome from surveys and analyses of the municipality of Niterói, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. This town, located on the eastern shore of Guanabara Bay, opposite side of the famous –and now an Olympic city– conurbation of Rio de Janeiro, is a city with a high touristic potential and solid tradition in sports, having accommodated the first three Olympic clubs of Brazil founded in the 1880s (DaCosta, 2005). These historical sport initiatives raised under similar circumstances involving the foundation of the San Francisco Olympic Club, the oldest Athletic Club of the United States created in 1860.

Surely, the mention of the clubs of San Francisco and Niterói –originally denominated as “Olympic”– is due to the fact they were both organised in most parts by English immigrants and become active well before the popularization of the Olympic Games beginning in 1896. In addition, the first Olympic clubs of the Americas were pioneers in their countries, contributing in the case of the city of Niterói for local sports influences. Actually, a first review consulting Cantarino Filho (2006) noted that Niterói has started up various sport disciplines in Brazil, as sailing (the first yacht club and the first races); rowing (pioneers clubs settled in Niterói and the first competitions against crews from Rio de Janeiro); football

(the Rio Cricket Club located in Niterói, in 1901, hosted the first football game held in the State of Rio de Janeiro); and rugby, a sport from which the first club appeared in Niterói. Furthermore, Niterói is also a pioneer location of Paralympic sports, as far as the Brazilian Paralympic Committee was created in that here supposedly sport cluster.

In terms of development of this study, a qualitative and exploratory analysis were planned beforehand in order to observe the impact of the Olympic clubs and their successors in the sporting life of the Niterói area.

For this purpose between February and April 2018 were held 50 interviews with the participation of sports leaders, academics, businessmen, social leaders, sportsmen, journalists and city planners in order to detect the assumed sports culture and improve the knowledge about the development of phenomenon sport tourism in the city Niterói nowadays.

Sport, Events and Memory Spaces

Sports events are fundamental motivating factors for the phenomenon of tourism and figure prominently in the development and commercialization of products from many international destinations (Getz, 2007). More specifically, sport and tourism are two cultural phenomena that intertwine with various opportunities generated by their relationships, especially in the context of events (Getz, 2007; Higham, 2005; Hinch & Higham, 2003).

Until the end of the nineteenth century, sporting practices were constituted by local and informal pastimes, related to traditional and/or religious festivals, without any governmental interference, except for activities that ensure exclusivity of certain practices for local elites, such as hunting, or for the encouragement and improvement of strategies related to military combat. Since then, the diversification, popularization and development of the sport has undergone the need to build common protocols and to organise events and competitions, which has given rise to a series of organisations, established at national and international levels dedicated exclusively to management and development of the sport (Bueno, 2008).

Literature review proposed by Horne & Manzenreiter (2006) shows that there is convergence amid three main reasons for the breadth and the planetary dynamism of the Olympics and the FIFA World Cup as mega events while the

International Exposition led to a minor scene. First of all, the advancement of communication technologies made possible the emergence of the phenomenon of audience around the world. Secondly, the international transmission of these events and the appeal of the sport as a fundamental activity for the human being stimulates the construction of a link between the exclusive rights of broadcasting, sponsorship and wide possibilities of merchandising. The third point relates to how “mega” sporting events have been perceived by the local governments, design promotion of cities and countries in terms of economic, socio-cultural and environmental heritage and sport.

The tradition of the modern Olympic Games that occur since 1896 includes the construction of memory and of symbolism attached to the place where they took place (Tagsold & Niehaus, 2013). In this sense, Carvalhedo (2002) reports that the Olympic Games in Ancient Greece encompassed travel and visits as a primitive form of tourism involving the participating cities. DaCosta (2002) proposes that the symbolism associated to Olympia and the respective Games happened and remains alive until today due to the fact of being a traditional destination of travelers; also they watched the competitions participating in the myth of Olympia which had become and still is a *lieu de memoire* (French expression meaning “place of memory”); that is a location referenced by events of athletic competitions and religious rituals. The same author attributes to contemporary French historian Pierre Nora the theoretical proposition of the *lieu de memoire* as connected to the creation of memory by visits and displacements concerning special geographic and historical places.

Given to Nora’s theorization that also suggests the relation of tourism with the construction of collective memory, it is not surprising that Pierre de Coubertin has included tourism in his sports classification as ascertained in a text published in 1916 (Müller & Todt, 2015). In this regard, DaCosta (2002) follows Coubertin and interprets the theory of *lieu de memoire* applied to Olympic mega events as a cultural proposal in which the sport is present by expanded views in terms of location and circumstances. To summarise, the relationship between sport and tourism is supposedly legitimised by historical data presented by Olympic facts and ideas.

In addition, at the end of the year 1999 the International Olympic Committee and the World Tourism Organisation have signed an agreement of cooperation, where both institutions concluded about the important relationship between tourism and sport. Since then both agencies began to work together to

consolidate the sport tourism as a product and held the first World Conference on sport and tourism in Barcelona in 2001 (Latiesa & Paniza, 2006).

Higham (1999) proposed that communities wishing to develop sport tourism should focus on regular season sports or hosting smaller scale sports events. He suggested, “the tourism and economic development opportunities presented by sporting occasions of a more modest scale are generally positive” (p. 87). He also introduced the idea that small scale sport tourism may “comply with the principles of sustainable tourism more so than sporting mega events” (p. 87). To illustrate this suggestion Higham (1999) pointed out that small-scale sport tourism tends to generate a reliable flow of visitors, use existing infrastructure, be an appropriate size for the community, and to require very little in the way of public funding (H. J. Gibson et al., 2012).

In particular Chalip (2006) emphasises that the nature of the celebration created by some events promotes a space of linearity, particularly by the capacity of the events have in creating an experience different from the usual, providing the integration between people of different social levels, creation of a regular sports practice and opportunities for development of other proposals for events.

In the case of Niterói, several small and medium-sized sporting events have been developed within its territory using the natural characteristic of the city, its relief, climatic, economic and social conditions. However, traditional sports clubs have lost much of their ability to be the main reference of the local sports as we will observe further.

Niterói, a place for sport activities

There is an old joke which says that the best thing about Niterói¹ is the view of Rio, but a good many feel that it is neither funny nor true. While Rio’s sister city certainly enjoys panoramic vistas from the other side of Guanabara Bay, there is much more to Niterói than just its outlook.

With a small, wealthy population of close to half a million people, Niterói is the highest human development index of any city in Rio de Janeiro state. Many of the people who live there commute to Rio by boat or across the famous

1. Niterói has interesting tourist attractions like Niterói Contemporary Art Museum, City Park, Serra da Tiririca State Park, Itacoatiara Beach, Fort Santa Cruz, Niemeyer Way.

Rio-Niterói road bridge which, at over eight miles long, is the longest in the South Hemisphere.

The municipality occupies an area of 130 square kilometers, is densely populated and brings within its limits a landscape lush and diversified, composed of urban beaches, mountains, historic sites, lakes, large buildings and public parks.

Niterói has 0.837 points in Human Development Index (HDI), it is positioned between the twenty cities with the best quality of life of Brazil, and has a doctor under inhabitants average considered excellent by the World Health Organisation (WHO), water system serving 100% of its population and the tertiary sector as primarily responsible for the economic development of the municipality.

However, in recent years the municipality has gone through a process of economic recession due to the lack of investments mainly in its shipbuilding industry, a factor that has generated a series of consequences for the municipal development as unemployment, low tax collection, increased violence, among others.

The report produced by Sebrae (2015) describes Niterói as the city with the highest rate of inequality among its inhabitants when compared to other cities in the eastern Fluminense area. The GINI index is 0.596.

Recently, the formulation of Director Strategic Plan “Niterói que Queremos 2013 – 2033” offers from a structured planning based on targets delineated, retrieves the process of economic development and social inclusion of the municipality (Niterói, 2013).

Regarding the areas of tourism and sports, the Director Strategic Plan of Niterói sets as challenges the leverage of the natural vocation for the sport and boost economic growth from traditional activities of the city such as tourism (Niterói, 2013).

However, all this attractive potential has been slightly explored since the city does not strategically position itself in the sense of promoting and capturing sporting events that can move the tourism industry still based on travelers who do not stay overnight in Niterói.

It should be noted that there is a great distance between sports clubs, public power and entrepreneurs, a factor that ends up inhibiting a greater development of the sport in the context of Olympic modalities.

To get an idea of the challenge, the city does not have an annual calendar of

events either, reports of the major sporting events that have happened in recent years in its territory.

Data collected for this research in the municipal sports office, pointed out the main sporting events by the number of participants, held in the city between 2015 and 2017. (See figure 1 and 2 below).

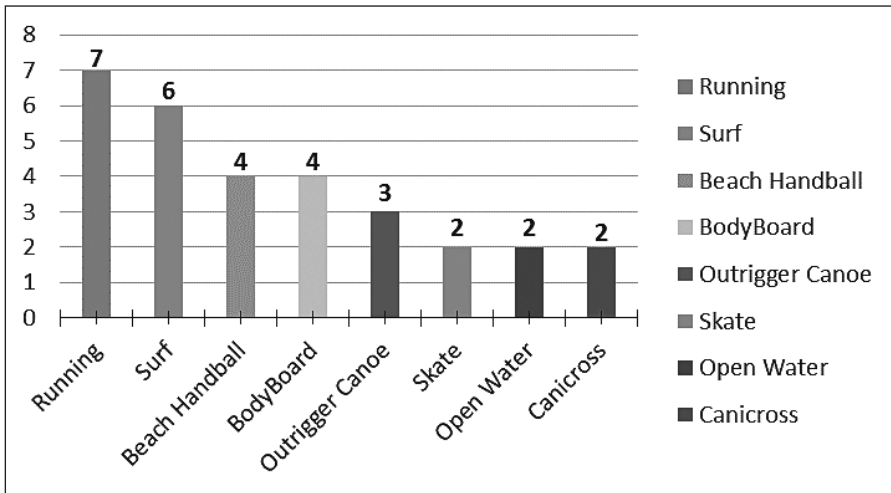


Fig. 1. Main sport events by modality in Niterói 2015 and 2016.

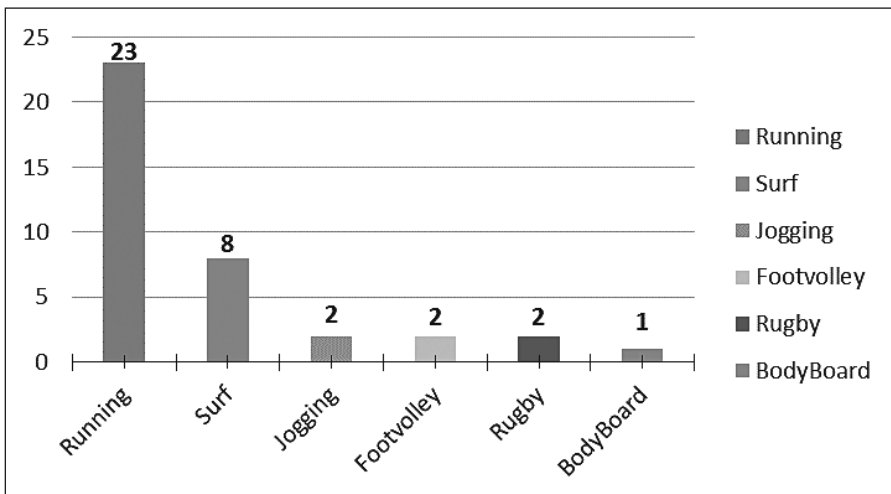


Fig. 2. Main sport events by modality in Niterói 2017.

From these data it is possible to identify that the biggest impact on the sport tourism of the city comes from events of non-Olympic disciplines and without support of athletes and traditional sports clubs. Add to that, the fact of the physical space of the clubs as an area for events and competitions does not have the necessary relevance when considering the location and characteristics of the sports events of greater amplitude.

Niterói, sport clubs and new perspectives

Sports and recreational clubs are the basis on which formed the national sport. In the case of Brazil can be considered one of the most prominent socio-cultural phenomena seen that emerged in the 19th century and still have reach in the community.

The elite clubs it was molded in accordance with the practices of the commercial bourgeoisie (19th century) and the industrial bourgeoisie (20th century). The popular clubs, more numerous and proactive in comparison with elite's clubs used represent initiatives linked to the community necessities or local interests, usually with the competitive sporting character positioned in the background.

The city of Niterói-RJ (located in Baía de Guanabara opposite to Rio de Janeiro) is one of the most important sports clusters in Brazil, primarily because it was where British and German clubs were located in the 1850s. It can be explained by a successful combination of leisure sports and competition as a lifestyle in a typically beach city.

The creation of clubs rooted in the community and the existence of foreign communities that brought in innovations and examples, also contributed to make Niterói a sports cluster. The proximity of the clubs and the fact that players and sports participants attended the same beaches, neighborhoods and the sea proper for navigation may also have produced stimuli and identities that may have spread around the city in a phenomenon that is very typical of sports and of its invented traditions. It is then not surprising that the pioneer Brazilian activities of tennis and sailing took place in Niterói, which already had a club named "Olympico" – Clube Olímpico Ganabareense back in 1883.

In the midst of a number of sports clubs, most of them created between the

last decades of the 19th century and the early 20th century, Niterói currently has about 50 clubs. It follows that initially the clubs were mostly concentrated in a cluster immediate to the coastline of the city, however today there are a number of clubs spread over the territory, including the neighborhoods of low per capita income with major social imbalances. In general they are sports clubs of different aesthetic, social, ideological features and in some cases, dedicated almost exclusively to a single sport.

However, the change of parameters of contemporary society in the last 30 years, led by the phenomenon of globalization, has affected a number of habits of people and their relationship with the community. These changes influenced directly the consumption of sports activities and automatically the routine of sports clubs.

In the case of Niterói, it is important to point out that some traditional Olympic disciplines have misplaced for various factors the impact and attractiveness during the 20th century, highlighted rowing, ornamental jumping and athletics.

Traditional clubs that offered these modalities ended up being extinct or abandoned such sports. However, other disciplines as running, outrigger canoe, CrossFit, bodyboarding and beach tennis have attracted an increasing number of fans, often associated with minor private sports companies that offer a more personalised service and in accordance with the needs of a new generation².

The study also showed that despite all the sporting history of Niterói clubs, its tradition, location and capacity for insertion in the society, the impact of these associations on the local Olympic sport has been diminished.

This is due to several reasons that may vary in intensity from club to club, such as reducing the number of members, breaking the culture of participation / life in the club boosted by the expansion of residential condominiums, the advent of electronic games and the practice of new disciplines, “free” in outdoor spaces.

Other key points are the reduction in the amount of financial resources for infrastructure investment, lack of training and exclusive dedication of its manag-

2. Nowadays you can find in Niterói about fifteen outrigger canoe associations and more than twenty CrossFit boxes spread over Niterói. On the Icaraí beach are concentrated many running consulting. Bodyboarding is a traditional sport practice in Itaquatiara beach.

ers, changes in the socio-economic profile of the partners, lack of articulation with other segments of society (including other sports clubs), internal political interests, not updating sporting disciplines, decrease the level of internal and external competitions (local and regional level).

Obviously, the most traditional sports clubs in Niterói have sought to re-structure, creating alternatives to overcome internal crises and again reposition among its partners and the local community. These transformations, although incipient, go through the improvement of its statutes, new lines of private financing, exchange of knowledge among managers, professionalization of their departments, expansion of sports disciplines by outsourcing for sports professionals and sponsorship of Olympic disciplines.

Conclusion

The preliminary results of the study have shown that sports clubs from Niterói highlighted its urban area as a powerhouse of outstanding athletes in different Olympic disciplines. Moreover it was also demonstrated the construction of a sports culture forthcoming Niterói's coastline, favoring until the present days the holding of sport events, as well as attracting athletic participants and tourists for coexistence in that common ground sport and Olympic memory.

However, after years of development of its sport clubs changes in the contemporary society affected attendance for traditional sports practices inside the clubs' environment.

Finally, it is important to say that Niterói has not ceased to be a reference city in sports practice, in revealing high-performance athletes, incorporating modalities, nor a community that abandoned the tradition of sports and leisure practice. However, it is important for sport and tourism managers to review priorities at this sport cluster in order to rethink products and experiences that may highlight the natural potential of the city and its clubs.

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IMPACT AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE COMMONWEALTH VILLAGE – AN ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-CULTURAL LEGACY SINCE THE 2010 GAMES

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Introduction

The Commonwealth Games (CWG) were India's and Delhi's biggest sporting event ever, claimed Boria Majumdar, a leading sports scholar and author of a number of bestselling books on Indian sport. With an initial estimated budget of over one billion dollars, it was touted to lay the foundation for a "culture of winning", thereby, transforming India into a major sporting presence and Delhi into a global icon of sports tourism (Majumdar, 2011). Historically, the capital had also hosted the Asian Games twice, the first of its editions in 1951 and then again in 1982 but neither of them were as expensively large-scaled as the 2010 Games which hosted around 6,000 athletes from over 70 countries of the Commonwealth (India China Economic and Cultural Council, 2014).

The aspirations that drove the Indian government to make its bid to the Commonwealth Federation and host the mega event in its grandest form was clearly stated in the official CWG website. Apart from the immediate impact of international exposure of brand India and improved image of New Delhi as an attractive tourism destination, CWG also had presented an opportunity to alternatively drive a social, economic and physical regeneration of the city. Its legacy of urban renewal, job creation, increased investment into the hospitality, transportation and energy sectors and a major developmental upgrade for the cultural heritage of the city were in order to drastically change the landscape of New Delhi and provide social welfare to its resident communities. However,

most importantly, it was aimed to boost the sports culture and broad-base elite sports in the country (“Legacy of Delhi 2010”, n.d.). In theory, Delhi managed to deliver on its promise of a state-of-the-art Games Village with supposedly world-class stadiums for hosting sports competitions and international athletes, and its medal tally at the Games established records and statistics for years to come. However, a more pragmatic perspective through the looking glass exposes the background narrative of the Games which invited harrowing journalistic criticism and widespread protest (Kalra, 2010).

There was a clear divergence between the agenda set by Delhi government to host CWG and the repercussions of the Games’ legacy in present day India which required a further investigation and hence, became the central focus of the author’s dissertation. The research was designed to be an exploratory analysis of the Commonwealth Games 2010 in the form of a case study profiling the perceptions of people associated with the event and the general public impacted by its remnants.

Research Methodology

Comparing the various research strategies such as histories, experiments and case studies, the author believed that the holistic exploration of the Commonwealth Games 2010 required precedence for the case study research. By investigating the relationship between various structures and powers in a complex and multi-dimensional manner, the above method provides an advantage to the researcher with “intensive knowledge of a case and its history and thus a more in-depth view of causation” (Iosifides, 2011). The decision was influenced by three conditions put forth by Yin (2014), “(a) the type of research question posed, (b) the extent of control an investigator has over actual behavioral events, and (c) the degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to historical events”.

The author’s research focused on investigating the aftermath of the Games and posed questions such as “what”, “how” and “why”, essentially including a gap analysis between planning and impact perception, to pinpoint gray areas of government operations and provide recommendations to revitalise its failing sports culture and boost its sport tourism industry. While questions pertaining to “what” could have been explored by a simple survey design, the answers to the

“how” and “why” required the author to take a more all-round research design of a case study comprising of quantitative analysis of surveys and qualitative analysis of interviews conducted on participants directly involved or impacted by the event. To add to this, the author also made several visits to understand the tourism development products of the Games village still available to date. Addressing the extent of the investigator’s control over and access to actual behavioural events, the Games held in 2010, although an eight year old phenomenon, was still accessible to the author through the vicarious experiences of the organisational members and the viewers or sport tourists for the events, hence, excluding the need to conduct a historical research on the same. What makes the case study a more preferred methodology is the focus on direct observation and systematic interviewing which could be employed for such contemporary events (Yin, 2014). An experimental research also could not be conducted as the author could not manipulate the behaviour of the participants directly. The participant’s experiences of organising, viewing or benefitting from the CWG had several unpredictable variables associated which cannot be controlled in a laboratory setting. Given that the research aim, purpose and questions satisfied the three aforementioned conditions, a case study approach was taken.

Given that there could be single or multiple case studies which, in turn, reflect different design situations and could have single or multiple units of analysis, Yin (2014) broadly classifies case study designs in the following four categories, “(a) single-case (holistic) designs, (b) single-case (embedded) designs, (c) multiple-case (holistic) designs, and (d) multiple-case (embedded) designs”. The design strategy employed for the purpose of this research is the single-case, embedded design with the rationale that it will serve as an exploratory device for further study. The single case is that of the contemporary phenomenon, the CWG 2010 with clear dimensions of sport tourism, socio-cultural impact and organisational strategy for the future. The units of analysis for the dimension of socio-cultural impact are the athletes impacted by the Games, for the organisational strategy is the administrative staff associated with the Games and for sport tourism are both, that is, the attendees of the Games in general. Apart from this, the fact that the author had close connections with the sporting fraternity directly involved or impacted by the Games facilitated the choice of this particular case. The assumption was that this might ease the process of reaching out to research participants and aid in data collection.

Results

Perception Analysis

Perception was analysed using the statistical measurements of standard deviation and sample mean. Arguably, in recent statistics literature, calculating the mean as a central tendency for ordinal data is not a standard practice if the questions are to be treated as standalone Likert items. However, when a series of questions can be combined to measure a particular perception, they are to be treated as a Likert scale and in such cases, mean and standard deviation are to be utilized (Boone & Boone, 2012). In this regard, the sample mean is the average value of the sample data set and generally provides the central tendency of the range of responses where 1 (or “Strongly Disagree”) was the minimum and 6 (or “Strongly Agree”) was the maximum. Provision was not provided for neutrality as a response to garner an interval scale of data ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree”. A logical assumption was then made to distinguish between a positive and a negative response with the scale midpoint at 3.5. A mean value above 3.5 was considered to be a positive perception while a value below 3.5 would indicate a negative perception. Additionally, standard deviation was tracked for each question which is a measure of how spread out the dataset is around the central mean or average value. Lower standard deviation value exhibits higher consistency as the responses are more clustered around the mean.

Impact 1: The Commonwealth Games 2010 improved the socio-cultural legacy of sport in India

On an overall level, the sample mean was five and a standard deviation of 0.87 which can be interpreted to suggest that the diverse group of respondents were in agreement with the notion of the Commonwealth Games contributing to the socio-cultural legacy of sports in the country. A low standard deviation value also suggests lesser divergence of opinions between the respondents.

Table 1. Socio-cultural Impact of CWG

Category	Mean	SD
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	5.10	0.85
Female	4.78	0.88
<i>Age</i>		
10-20	4.79	0.79
20-30	5.02	0.86
30-40	5.28	0.89
40-50	5.50	0.55
50+	4.85	0.86
<i>Current Profession</i>		
Administrator	5.00	0.89
Athlete	5.00	0.82

The overall results slightly differed when classified on the basis of socio-demographic information. As can be observed in Table 1, males were in higher agreement or had a more positive perception (5.10) of the above impact as compared to women (4.78). They also had fewer differing responses (SD=0.85) as compared to women (SD=0.88). Age categories of “50+” and “20-30”, which constitutes 73% of the sample population, had mean values above five indicating a high agreement and less divergence owing to an SD value of 0.86. Lastly, between the two focus groups of administrators and athletes, a mean value of five indicated a positive perception of a socio-cultural impact of the Games and SD value of 0.89 and 0.86 respectively suggested greater congruence in their responses.

Impact 2: The Commonwealth Games 2010 boosted the sport tourism industry in India

On an overall level, the sample mean was 4.82 which can be interpreted to suggest that the diverse group of respondents were in moderate agreement with the notion of the Commonwealth Games contributing to the sport tourism industry in the country. A standard deviation value of 1.12 also suggests that the responses were more spread out with differing opinions as opposed to Impact 1.

Table 2. Sport Tourism Development during CWG

Category	Mean	SD
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	4.84	1.10
Female	4.26	1.22
<i>Age</i>		
10-20	5.00	0.86
20-30	4.63	1.16
30-40	4.93	1.01
40-50	5.42	0.68
50+	4.45	1.25
<i>Current Profession</i>		
Administrator	4.59	1.25
Athlete	4.87	0.93

The overall results varied when classified on the basis of socio-demographic information. As can be observed in Table 2, males were in higher agreement or had a more positive perception (4.84) of the above impact as compared to women (4.26). They also had fewer differing responses (SD=1.10) as compared to women (SD=1.22). Age categories of “50+” and “20-30”, which constitutes 73% of the sample population, had mean values around 4.5 indicating a moderate agreement and more divergence owing to an SD value of 1.25 and 1.16 respectively. Lastly, comparing the two focus groups of administrators and athletes, the latter were in greater agreement with Impact 2 (Mean= 4.87) with lesser divergence (SD= 0.93) as opposed to the former (Mean= 4.59) with more inconsistent responses (SD= 1.25).

Impact 3: The Commonwealth Games 2010 was a stepping stone to a future Olympics bid

On an overall level, the sample mean was 4.5 which can be interpreted to suggest that the diverse group of respondents were in moderate agreement with the notion of the Commonwealth Games readying the Indian government to bid for future mega events. A standard deviation value of 1.10 also suggests

that the responses were more spread out with differing opinions as opposed to Impact 1.

Table 3. Strategic Planning for a future Olympics bid

Category	Mean	SD
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	4.65	1.12
Female	4.32	1.21
<i>Age</i>		
10-20	4.55	0.62
20-30	4.48	1.08
30-40	4.70	1.20
40-50	4.87	1.51
50+	4.50	1.16
<i>Current Profession</i>		
Administrator	4.50	1.22
Athlete	4.66	0.80

The overall results varied when classified on the basis of socio-demographic information. As can be observed in Table 3, males were in higher agreement or had a more positive perception (4.65) of the above impact as compared to women (4.32). They also had fewer differing responses (SD=1.12) as compared to women (SD=1.21). Age categories of “50+” and “20-30”, which constitutes 73% of the sample population, had mean values around 4.5 indicating a moderate agreement and more divergence owing to an SD value of 1.16 and 1.08 respectively. Lastly, comparing the two focus groups of administrators and athletes, the latter were in greater agreement with Impact 3 (Mean= 4.66) with lesser divergence (SD= 0.80) as opposed to the former (Mean= 4.50) with more inconsistent responses (SD= 1.22).

Thematic Analysis

The interviewees comprised of three high ranking administrative professionals who had previously worked in the Organising Committee of CWG 2010, one

athlete who had previously participated in the Games and three players who are currently enrolled into the sport development programme of the IG & JLN stadia, which were previously utilised as CWG 2010 venues. The administrators and athletes were provided with two different sets of research items (can be referred in the Appendix section) which were carefully worded to ask relevant research questions and derive the essential themes. Through a read of the interview responses, the author was able to pick out three critical questions which could effectively answer the primary research questions regarding sport tourism, socio-cultural legacy and India's assertion as a sport nation/ brand for future event bids. While there were seven other primary questions that were asked during the interview which delivered rich data in their own right, the concerned themes in the selected three questions could be directly tied back to the core research questions. For the administrators, the selected interview questions were:

1. Did CWG 2010 help the country in encouraging tourism, especially sport tourism? If yes, how?
2. Did the organisation of CWG help India in establishing itself as a sport brand? If yes, how?
3. Has CWG helped India in building its sports culture? If yes, how?

For the athletes, the selected interview questions were:

1. Has the organisation of the Games been able to encourage sports tourism in the country, as envisaged in the prologue of the CWG Committees Agenda? If yes, how?
2. Has CWG 2010 built any sports legacy for the future of the Indian sporting community? If yes, how?
3. Did the organisation of CWG 2010 help India in bidding for International Tournaments in coming years? If yes, how?

Analysing the first concept of sport tourism, majority of the respondents (five of them) favored a positive perception of this impact and some interesting themes were revealed supporting the above notion:

1. Greater inflow of sport tourists from overseas to avail the sport infrastructure,
2. Affordable tourism as part of CWG organisation to boost sport tourism in the country,
3. Higher focus on elite sport tourism as opposed to the general mania of cricket in the country,

4. Development of better transportation systems and hotels in the city.

Of the two interviewees who expressed a negative contribution of CWG to sport tourism, they suggested that a sophisticated sport tourism infrastructure was not available as opposed to other economies like China or South Korea.

Analysing the concept of socio-cultural legacy, majority of respondents (six of them) agreed with the idea that CWG 2010 contributed to improving the socio-cultural capital in the country in terms of sport. The emerging themes were as follows:

1. Better infrastructure for sport development and training.
2. Higher participation in sports (especially amongst youth).
3. More emphasis on elite sport as compared to cricket.
4. Better athletic performance at the international level.

One respondent did not favor the improvement of socio-cultural legacy as a direct link to CWG 2010.

Analysing the concept of India's dominance as a sport nation for future bids, majority of respondents (four of them) had a positive perception to the notion of CWG readying the country to make further bids. The emerging themes were as follows:

1. Greater experience in hosting future mega events
2. Greater emphasis on sport as an integral part of society

Of the two respondents who opposed the notion, they suggested that India showed lack of preparedness during CWG and at a fundamental level, do not have the right socio-cultural frame to host sport events.

Conclusion

The study comprised of three relevant questions encompassing the Commonwealth Games 2010, centered on the potential of sport tourism in the country, the lasting socio-cultural impact of the Games and India's organisational strategy for future event bids. Firstly, India, being a historically and culturally enriched country with diverse topographies, is a hot spot for sport tourism. With a more positive media image created of its incredible tourism destinations and travel made more affordable by subsidising the national airlines, the government should be able to attract greater share of tourist visits from overseas. Sport has always been strongly regulated by the government as can be seen in the

case of the Commonwealth Games 2010 and there was little or no support from private partnerships. The government needs to emphasise attracting larger private investment to boost the sport tourism industry, which currently contributes to about 9.6% of the country's GDP (Aulakh, 2017). To add to this, the government's cooperation with operators in the tourism industry in preparation for a sport event would also facilitate a more holistic tourism experience for the visitors.

With respect to the country's indigenous culture of cricket fanatics, it can be conclusively said that the culture is gradually shifting towards elite sports at present. This trend needs to be supported by the government through public schemes to encourage greater participation amongst youth for sport, with more focus on women's representation. Interestingly, there is commercialization of elite sports presently – a concept which only existed for cricket earlier. There is, in fact, growing viewership and sponsorship for non-cricket sports such as kabaddi and wrestling which should be leveraged by both public and private enterprises by extending this popularity to other sports such as hockey. This can be achieved by introducing televised, franchise-based money leagues such as the IPL. This could result in better athletic performance which would have a trickle-down effect on the mindsets of the larger population towards sports as a viable career option. Unfortunately, the country's leisured roots in sport still prevail in their perception of it. Merit-based sponsorships for national level athletes would also encourage parents to send the young players to join national sport camps and eventually create a talent pool for the international stage.

Finally, with respect to organisational strategy for future bids, a more classical perspective needs to be undertaken to formulate a bidding plan in advance (Bramwell, 1997). This should deliberately take into account the overall costs in advance, given the learning from the trial and error experience of organising CWG 2010. It is premature to claim that the country is ready for a mega event the size of the Olympics as relevant structural changes would still need to take place at the Sports Authority of India for organising such an event. Issues of corruption as part of government operations still prevail in the country. It would instead be more benefitting if an independent, not-for-profit committee comprising of volunteers was institutionalized which would work in accordance with SAI to organise future Games. Moreover, Melbourne in Australia had hosted the 1956 Olympic Games and then the Commonwealth Games 50 years later, and between the two events, organised several world championships, the 2002

World Masters Games and is currently the venue for the Australian Tennis Open, F1 Grand Prix races etc. (Chappelet, 2012). Similar strategy should be adopted by India to provide considerable time gap for its Olympic bid and gain much needed experience in the meantime by hosting smaller-scaled international tournaments that would create a stronger sporting brand for India.

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ROTATION OF THE SPORTS INCLUDED IN THE PROGRAMME OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES BASED ON THE EVALUATION OF THEIR DEVELOPMENT

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The programme of the Olympic Games is one of the most important components of the Olympic sport as the popularity and attractiveness of the sports included in its structure largely depends on this very programme. It mainly determines the strategy of Olympic sports development in most countries of the world, international sports federations, national Olympic committees, representatives of mass media, business structures[1,2].

In more than a century of Olympic Games history, their programme has been constantly modernized: if at the first games (Athens, 1896) it included nine sports and 43 kinds of competitions, then at the XXXI games in Rio de Janeiro (2016)-35 sports and 306 kinds of competitions. At the same time, the Olympic Programme cannot be static, it must be constantly updated and improved.

Initially, the formation of the Olympic programme was determined by the recommendations of Pierre de Coubertin and the preferences of the host city. This tendency was continuing until 1925, when at the 23rd session in Prague, the IOC took a decision aimed at ensuring a balance between different sports, taking into account the interests of different international sports federations, advocating the expansion of their sports.

The rapid development of sports and the expansion of the programme of the Olympic Games in the mid-twentieth century led to the fact that the IOC could no longer take into account the interests of all International sports federations. As a result, the IOC President E. Brandage in the late 1960s pointed to the need to change the principles of formation of the Olympic Games Programme.

At the 67th session of the IOC (Mexico city 1968), it was decided to establish a permanent Commission on the Olympic programme (currently working) and twelve criteria were worked out, which should correspond to the sports that apply for inclusion in the Olympic programme.

At the present stage of formation of the Programme of the Olympic Games, members of the Executive Committee of the IOC voting for the inclusion or exclusion of a sport from the Olympic Games, are often subjected to political pressure making decisions that are not always objective and often do not reflect the real level of development of sport or competitive discipline.

Currently, to reduce the political pressure exerted on the international Olympic Committee, it proposed 77 criteria for assessing the development of sports in seven categories: the history and traditions of the sport, universality, popularity, image, health of athletes, the development of the international federation, the financial costs of the competition.

However, the rapid development of sports in recent decades, has led to the fact that the number of sports that claim to be included in the programme of the Games has increased dramatically. At the moment, there are 35 ISF recognised by the IOC in the world, and each of them can be included in the programme of the Olympic Games as it meets all the developed criteria. But since the programme can no longer be expanded due to its limitations, the only way out of this situation is to replace sports in the Olympic Games programme.

Unfortunately, the proposed criteria do not have estimates of the development of sports, which reduces their objective assessment, deprives specialists of the opportunity to objectively assess a situation and influence on its development in general, to provide a replacement of sports in the programme of Games. It becomes obvious that there is a need for the development of new approaches to the formation of the programme of the Games on the basis of objective evaluation criteria.

Organisation of the study

The most significant criteria developed by the IOC were taken as the basis of our study. In addition, we analysed the materials of the development of sports included in the programme of the Olympics Games and world Championships over the past twenty years.

The obtained data were transferred to an automated system of calculation of results in the Microsoft excel. Using our calculated equations of the regression, we estimated the level of competitiveness of sports included in the programme of the Olympic Games on a 100-point scale of assessments.

The first block is the history of development of International Olympic sports federations:

- The period of functioning of the international sports Federation;
- Number of world Championships held;
- Number of national federations in the international sports Federation;
- Number of world Junior Championships.

The second block is the development of winter sports in the Olympic Movement:

- Number of countries participated in the last five Games of the Olympics;
- Number of male participants;
- Number of participants among women;
- The number of sets of medals to be played.

The third block is the development of Olympic sports within the world Championships:

- Number of countries participated in the last five world Championships;
- Number of male participants;
- Number of participants among women;
- The number of sets of medals to be played.

The fourth block-information activities of sports:

- The number of subscribers and views in the video hosting “YouTube”;
- The number of readers and the number of “tweets” in “Twitter”;
- The number of “likes” in the social network “Facebook”.

For the compilation of the general and the particular (in blocks) of the development rating of the sports of the Olympic Games programme, we put the sum of scores of all indicators and divided them into a number of study criteria.

We have also introduced the coefficients of significance for each block of the development index, it was done in order to identify more significant and arduous indicators.

Results of the study and their discussion

The leader of the first block of indicators was Cycling track – 85.61 points. It has been operating for 125 years, 120 world Championships and 54 world Junior Championships were held; 187 national federations are part of the international Cycling Union. Second place is for football–81.19 points, the international sports Federation has been functioning for 114 years, 21 World Championships and seventeen World Cups among juniors were held and it has 207 national sports federations.

Beach volleyball became an outsider of this block-this sport has operated for 22 years, during this time eleven World Championships and nine World Championships among juniors were held, 200 national federations are a part of the international sports Federation of beach volleyball.

Table 1 – Indicators of development of sports included in the programme of the Olympic Games, points

Kind of sport	Block of indicators				
	History of development of a sport	The development within the World Cup	The development within the Olympic Games	Information activity	The sum of all blocks
Athletics	61,06	86,91	99,56	67,04	314,56
Swimming	81,19	70,13	61,10	92,76	305,18
Beach Volleyball	55,74	78,40	77,52	43,13	254,79
Hockey	75,15	59,40	58,80	49,01	242,37
Football	76,33	59,21	58,54	32,14	226,22
Basketball	85,61	37,84	37,19	52,66	213,29
Volleyball	72,41	48,72	46,32	43,92	211,37
Handball	49,68	70,60	49,59	37,20	207,07
Water Polo	55,98	54,45	50,36	46,27	207,06
Canoe Sprint	69,45	71,14	56,87	8,81	206,27
Rowing	63,16	59,19	51,53	31,84	205,72
Judo	71,85	42,80	39,53	50,92	205,10
Gymnastics Artistic	62,06	53,30	49,86	37,96	203,18

Kind of sport	Block of indicators				
	History of development of a sport	The development within the World Cup	The development within the Olympic Games	Information activity	The sum of all blocks
Fencing	76,95	47,00	44,93	31,53	200,40
Taekwondo	67,26	42,27	49,46	37,70	196,68
Tennis	64,14	43,88	43,89	43,07	194,99
Shooting	53,08	55,44	50,63	32,96	192,11
Archery	75,28	52,94	53,60	7,89	189,71
Diving	48,79	53,83	48,40	38,62	189,64
Badminton	55,74	45,03	48,27	35,71	184,74
Softball	45,32	46,44	50,02	42,91	184,68
Table Tennis	53,20	46,87	48,28	36,02	184,36
Sailing	25,01	50,14	76,60	32,14	183,90
Weightlifting	45,46	48,13	44,46	45,71	183,76
Wrestling Freestyle	38,91	55,71	62,65	18,53	175,80
Trampoline	57,87	49,47	35,32	31,93	174,58
Equestrian	55,74	41,05	42,96	33,74	173,49
Triathlon	63,16	41,13	41,22	27,78	173,30
Swimming marathon	45,77	41,90	47,53	36,74	171,93
Canoe Slalom	39,62	39,36	40,17	48,12	167,27
Golf	45,03	39,08	44,04	37,81	165,95
Cycling Track	33,13	42,62	43,45	35,87	155,07
Cycling Road	53,08	39,14	36,44	25,80	154,46
Modern Pentathlon	40,83	29,30	32,28	50,10	152,51
Cycling M.B.	35,90	29,87	36,17	50,34	152,28
Rugby	45,46	29,65	29,93	43,97	147,24
Boxing	38,11	50,18	46,85	7,85	142,99
Cycling BMX	41,50	47,07	35,35	18,41	142,33
Syn. Swimming	33,11	36,40	44,97	27,35	141,82
Wrestling G.R.	45,03	30,25	27,01	37,81	140,09
Rhythmic Gymnastics	44,86	29,87	31,84	31,58	138,15

The second block of indicators is headed by athletics – 99.56 points. At the last five Olympic Games, 980 countries, more than ten thousand athletes took part in the athletics programme of the competition, 235 sets of awards were played. The second place of the rating is swimming, 729 countries, 5.4 thousand athletes took part in these competitions and 168 sets of awards were played.

Rhythmic Gymnastics became an outsider of this block – 34.60 points, 107 countries, 387 athletes took part in competitions and ten sets of awards were played at the last five games of the Olympic Games.

After analysing the structure of the estimated indicators of sports of this block, the main weak component of Rhythmic Gymnastics is the fact that they have no competitions among men, and a small number of sets of medals played at the Games of the Olympics.

The third block of indicators was again headed by Athletics– 86.91 points. 1370 countries, thirteen thousand athletes took part and 328 sets of awards were played in the last seven World Championships. The second place in this block is for Swimming – 87.96 points. 9.9 thousand athletes from 1296 countries took part and 313 sets of awards were played in competitions.

Cycling BMX closes the rating of indicators of this block – 32.87 points: in the last seven World Cup 201 countries, 1000 participants took part and fourteen sets of awards were played.

It is obvious that this sport has a small number of awards and low involvement of countries in these competitions in comparison with others.

The leaders of the fourth block of indicators with a wide margin took Football – 92.76 points. The number of subscribers and views in YouTube is 2.1 million and respectively 567 million. Number of readers on Twitter is 1million 170 thousand, 70 thousand tweets and 3.5 million “likes” in Facebook. Second place is for Athletics – 67.04 points, this sport has 65 thousand subscribers, 21 million views, the number of readers on Twitter is 215 thousand, 21 thousand of tweets, 850 thousand “likes” in the social network Facebook.

The last place in this block is for Softball – 7.85 points: YouTube – 35 thousand subscribers, 659 views on the official channel, 973 readers, 4 thousand tweets, and 10 thousand “likes” in Facebook.

According to the analysis of all blocks, the rating of sports included in the programme of the Olympic Games was determined. Ten kinds of sports have become the most developed in this rating, they have score more than 205;

Athletics heads this rating – 314.56 score, football – 305.18 points, swimming – 254.78 points.

Next there are 24 sports that are in the middle of the rating. It should be noted that Freestyle wrestling which wanted to exclude from the programme of the Olympic Games in 2013 under the pretext that this sport isn't developed and isn't popular in the world, it takes the 21st place in a rating, and it is far from elimination from the programme of the Olympic Games.

As for the outsiders of this rating, it includes such sports as softball – 142.99 points, Rugby – 142.33 points, Sailing – 141.82 points, Rhythmic Gymnastics – 140.09 points, Wrestling G.R. – 140.09, Synchronized swimming – 138.11 points, they are the main contenders for the elimination from the programme of the Olympic Games.

As 35 international sports federations claim to be included in the programme of the Olympic Games, we compared their level of development with the level of development of sports that are already in this programme.

Table 2 – Indicators of development of sports, applying for inclusion in the programme of the Olympic Games, points

Kind of sport	The development within the World Cup	Information activity	History of development of a sport	The sum of all blocks
Karate	55,06	34,84	48,11	138,01
Rhythmic Gymnastics	31,09	37,81	45,46	114,36
Syn. Swimming	30,71	31,58	45,29	107,58
Sports climbing	45,23	27,45	28,62	102,31
Waterski and Wakebord	36,84	23,59	41,51	101,94
Sailing	37,42	27,35	33,43	98,20

Note: The sports that are in the programme of the Olympic Games are highlighted.

As an example, we took such sports as karate, sports climbing and water skiing, and those sports that are in the last three positions of our rating: Synchronized Swimming, sailing and softball. As a result of the comparative analysis it

was revealed that two of three sports which seek to get to the programme of the Olympic Games, surpass those sports which are at the last two positions now on level of the development. It should be noted that the leader of the contenders - Karate, with the sum of points of its development would take 22nd place among all sports included in the programme of the Olympic Games.

Conclusion

Thus, the use of rating assessment criteria for the development of sports will allow to form objectively the programme of the Olympic Games, to include the sports that are the most developed in the world, as well as increase the popularity of the sport due to the activity of federations in the dissemination of the sport.

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1. Bubka S.N. *Olympic sport in society: history and current state of development* / S.N. Bubka. - Kiev: Olympic literature, 2012, p. 260.
2. Chiglintsev E. A Revival of the Olympic Games as a socio-pedagogical project of Pierre de Coubertin // Scientific notes of the Kazan state University. Series: *Humanities*, 2008, T. 150, No.3, p. 256-260.

OLYMPIANS AS ROLE MODELS; HOW EXECUTING COMPLICATED SKILLS UNDER PRESSURE PROVIDES A ROLE MODELLING EXPERIENCE

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A role model has been defined as “an individual who is looked up to and revered by someone else and someone who other individuals aspire to be like, either in the present or in the future”¹. The modern Olympic Games is set on the world stage with 206 competing countries and a TV viewership of 3.2 billion people at the recent 2016 Rio de Janeiro Olympics². Olympic athletes competing at the Olympic Games are required to perform their skills in front of the world’s eye and this worldwide exposure brings a high level of significance to their actions and achievements. The athletes compete against each other in fierce battles for a number of reasons; love and passion for their sport, achieving success for their country but more importantly promoting Olympism through the virtues of the Olympic charter. I say “more importantly” because the values and true essence of the Olympic Movement is far more significant to the purpose of the Olympic Games than any nation or individual success that may be achieved. This essay will focus on how athletes promote Olympism by role modelling a high level of performance during competition by focussing on how athletes execute their skills under immense pressure and how they react in the face of adversity. The

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1. Business dictionary. (2018). Role Models. Retrieved from; <http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/role-model.html>
 2. Number of Olympic Games TV viewers worldwide from 2002 to 2016. (2018). Retrieved from; <https://www.statista.com/statistics/287966/olympic-games-tv-viewer-ship-worldwide/>

coaches' role in training athletes to execute skills under pressure will also be explored in this essay.

The definition of Olympism is “a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind”. Athletes are confronted with certain performance pressures, some perceived and some concrete but in order to perform well, they are required to utilise and integrate body, will and mind. I believe that the mind is the most significant aspect of the three qualities due to the control it has over the body's actions and an athlete's willpower. The mind and mental strategies used by athletes to combat pressure during competition will also be a focal point of this essay.

Performance Pressure

In the context of sport performance, *pressure* can be defined as “the presence of situational incentives for optimal, maximal, or superior performance” and “forms of pressure include the contingency of rewards or punishments on level of performance, presence of an evaluative audience, presence of competition, performance reflection on self (ego relevance) and likelihood that athlete will not have a second chance”³. It is clear from this definition that this pressure exists for athletes when they perform at the Olympic level. With the Olympic Games occurring every four years and qualifying for positions on the national teams being a competitive process, there is only a small window for athletes to achieve success. When you compare this window to the significant amount of time and energy that goes into their training and preparation, performing at the Olympic Games would be a highly-pressured task. The aforementioned factors have the potential to disrupt the thought processes of athletes and create the potential for the effects of self-focus theories to occur. Self-focus theories suggest that “pressure raises self-consciousness and anxiety about performing correctly, which increase the attention paid to skill processes and their step-

3. Baumeister, R., & Showers, C. (1986). A review of paradoxical performance effects: Choking under pressure in sports and mental tests. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 16(4), 361-383.

by-step control”⁴. When elite performers execute their motor tasks, it is done in an autonomous fashion without conscious thought. The self-focus theory suggests that through pressure, an athlete’s execution of skills can be hindered if they begin to think consciously about the specific step-by-step movement tasks and this altered thought process inhibits the athlete from performing a task they would normally have no issues performing during training. An Olympic athlete’s ability to avoid internal distractions such as the self-focus theory and execute their motor tasks in a pressure-filled environment is something to be respected and thought of as an educational opportunity. The opportunity for others to learn from the efforts of Olympic athletes lie within the strength it takes to overcome supreme challenges and commit everything they have to give in order to deliver their greatest performance possible for their nation, loved ones and themselves. I believe that this shows a strong message to others, particularly the youth of the world that the most important part of facing a challenge is preparing the best you can and when it comes time to perform, you give it all you have. If every person in the world strived to achieve success to their full potential, the world would be a more peaceful and better place.

Importance of Automaticity for Task Execution

The Olympic sporting environment provides many challenges to the athlete that extend beyond the execution of a sport task. These challenges can be used for sport training as “potential sources of interference of the kind that would enhance learning rather than inhibit learning”. This has been referred to as “contextual interference effect” which is defined as “the effect on learning of the degree of functional interference found in a practice situation when several tasks must be learned and are practiced together”⁵. A study comparing the putting performance of expert and novice golfers while simultaneously monitoring a stream of auditory signals, found that the “difference in putting performance (single-task vs dual-task) was due to the fact that experts have sufficient atten-

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4. Beilock, S., Carr, T., & Newcombe, N. (2001). On the Fragility of Skilled Performance: What Governs Choking Under Pressure? *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 130(4), 701-725.
 5. Magill, R., & Hall, K. (1990). A review of the contextual interference effect in motor skill acquisition. *Human Movement Science*, 9(3), 241-289.

tional resources available to perform the auditory monitoring without hindering putting performance, whereas novices do not”⁶. This finding is relevant to a task such as Tennis, where there are contextual factors such as; game situation, pressure exerted from opposition (movement and tactics), quantitative data on past performances and maintaining position in Olympic standings. This form of practice is referred to as variable or random practice and its place in a training schedule raises the question of validity of task specificity.

Task specificity was extensively discussed in a study that investigated the stabilisation and adaptive phases of motor learning of a temporal control task and a force control task in random (variable) practice and constant (blocked) practice groups. One of the conclusions of this study was that practice scheduling were “general and specific to the adaptive process of tasks with different demands (temporal and force), general in terms of task goal performance and specific regarding the movement pattern”⁷. This outcome of generality-specificity being complementary was also supported by other research^{8,9}. Specifically, Keetch et al 2008 investigated set-shot performance versus jump-shot performance in basketball shooting. The aim was to contrast two different hypotheses; “learned-parameters hypothesis” with “visual-context hypothesis”. Learned-parameters hypothesis predicts that with massive amounts of practice at 15-ft free-throw area, no difference of a set-shot at 15-ft at seven different locations due to “instantiation of the same learned parameters for a 15-ft shot”⁹. Visual-context hypothesis predicts that “altering the visual angle changes the embedded visual context of the set shot and therefore the performance at the six other locations would be less accurate than at the free-throw location”⁹. The findings of the study supported the visual-context hypothesis, the rationale was that the excessive amounts of practice at the free-throw line appeared to have not transferred

6. Beilock, S., Wierenga, S., & Carr, T. (2002). Expertise, attention, and memory in sensorimotor skill execution: Impact of novel task constraints on dual-task performance and episodic memory. *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology Section A*, 55(4), 1211-1240.
7. Barros, J., Tani, G., & Corrêa, U. (2017). Effects of practice schedule and task specificity on the adaptive process of motor learning. *Human Movement Science*, 55, 196-210.
8. Breslin, G., Hodges, N., Steenson, A., & Williams, A. (2012). Constant or variable practice: recreating the especial skill effect. *Acta Psychologica*, 140(2), 154-157.
9. Keetch, K., Lee, T., & Schmidt, R. (2008). Especial skills: specificity embedded within generality. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 30(6), 723-736.

into success of other 15-ft shots and is a specific representation to the free-throw shot. The significance of this is that it is crucial that a coach prescribes random/variable practice drills that consider the in-game application of the motor skills required. In terms of the components of a sport training programme, the literature suggests that either low (blocked), moderate (mixed) or high (random) interference practice schedules can be effective for beginners¹⁰. It is just as crucial for the coach to include specific training such as blocked practice in conjunction with the inclusion of variable practice.

It has been suggested that a reduction in attention demands may be due to an increased role of subconscious or reflective correction processes in motor control¹¹. This is suggested to occur because performers may become “less reliant on conscious error correction processes and more reliant on reflexive closed-loop control mechanisms”¹¹. Given an expert’s extensive practice in their training, the relationship between a particular stimulus (short-pitched delivery in cricket) and a response (avoidance or hooking action by the batsman) become more “compatible” resulting in more rapid actions. However despite the great amounts of training that experts undertake in perfecting such stimulus-response actions, automaticity has the potential for “skill de-automatisation due to shifts of attentional focus due to performance pressure”¹². The suggestion is that when a skill becomes automatic, it does not require conscious attentional and working-memory processes and in fact, they “stay out of the way” of skill execution¹².

Social Status of Olympic Athletes

The grand social status of Olympic athletes amongst the community has been evident throughout the history of the Games, ever since the Ancient Olympic

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10. Cheong, J., Lay, B., Grove, J., Medic, N., & Razman, R. (2012). Practicing field hockey skills along the contextual interference continuum: a comparison of five practice schedules. *Journal of Sports Science and Medicine*, 11(2), 304-11.
 11. Williams, A., Davids, K., & Williams, J. (1999). *Visual perception and action in sport*. London; New York: E & FN Spon.
 12. Gray, R. (2015). Movement automaticity in sport. In Baker, J., & Farrow, D. (2015). *Routledge handbook of sport expertise* (pp. 74-83). London; New York: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

Games in 776 BC which took place in the Sanctuary itself¹³. During these Ancient times, the public were brought up on the heroes of Greek mythology and as such the emergence of these huge, heroic athletes who showed a love for a challenge, strong physique and extraordinary appetites captured the imagination and reverence from society¹⁴. The victors in particular were said to have been rewarded by the wealthy and powerful who spent large sums to pay poets such as Simonides, Bacchylides and Pindar to sing about them and also commissioned the leading sculptors to construct statues in their honour¹⁵. On top of this, it was reported that visiting victors earned themselves free meals for life in the Prytaneion, front row seats at festivals and events as well as cash bonuses. It has been quite a change from the Ancient Olympic Games to the Modern Olympic Games, with the vast majority of athletes competing at the Olympic Games participate without the expectation of huge sponsorship deals, songs to be made about them or significant attraction from the wealthy and powerful. Rather, athletes are funded by the financial distribution set by the national governing bodies, who in most cases offer minimal salaries compared to more commercialised sports and is based on the performance at the Olympics e.g. Australia's swimmers at the London Games were paid fifteen thousand Australian dollars for the year for low performance and medal incentives worth tens of thousands of dollars¹⁶. With the apparent minimal financial rewards on offer, it can be assumed that athletes compete at the Olympic Games for reasons that relate to national pride, competing at the highest level in their discipline and participation and representation of the Olympic Movement.

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13. Welcome to the ancient Olympic Games. (2018). Retrieved from; <https://www.olympic.org/ancient-olympic-games/history>
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Sports Participation Legacies

One of the three objectives of the Modern Olympic Games was to improve the profile of sports through better opportunities for practice and competition and this objective was addressed by the Sydney, Athens and Beijing Olympic Games¹⁷. There are expectations from the public and Sporting Officials that the “staging of mega-events such as the Olympic Games will generate sport-related benefits even in situations where there has been no explicit sport development objective or strategy – this has been described as a ‘trickle-down-effect’”¹⁷. This “trickle-down-effect” has been described as having two different mechanisms by which the Olympic Games increases sports participation, direct and indirect. The direct process indicates that “individuals would themselves be inspired by the Olympic Games to take up sport” and this could be assumed to be via watching Olympic events on television or attending the events live in person¹⁸. The indirect mechanism involves “hosting of the event which enhances the context and support for mass participation in participating communities including establishment of built and organisational sporting infrastructure”¹⁸. Surprisingly however, there has been no scientifically valid evidence of the effectiveness of the trickle-down effect occurring and in fact some reported statistics show a continued minor decline in sports participation¹⁸. Despite this evidence, the statistics shown in the table below indicate that in the years following the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, the participation of children aged 5-14 in Olympic sports had an overall aggregate increase. This evidence supports the notion that the Olympic Games and the athletes who compete in the competition are having a direct effect to grow sports participation at the grassroots level. The goal of the Olympic Movement is to “contribute to building a peaceful and better world by educating youth through sport” and the suggestion from these results is that a focus on youth education through the Olympics is justified.

17. Reis, A. C., Frawley, S., Hodgetts, D., Thomson, A., & Hughes, K. (2017). Sport participation legacy and the Olympic Games: The case of Sydney 2000, London 2012, and Rio 2016. *Event Management*, 21(2), 139-158.

18. Veal, A., Toohey, K., & Frawley, S. (2012). The sport participation legacy of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games and other international sporting events hosted in Australia. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 4(2), 155-184.

Table 1. Participation in sport by children aged 5-14, Australia, 2000-2003.

	Olympic sports	Non-Olympic sports
Number of sports showing an increase 2000-2003	10	4
Number of sports showing a decrease 2000-2003	3	6
Number of sports showing no change 2000-2003	4	7
Change in aggregate participation rates 2000-2003	+6.7	-0.7

Olympic Education

Education in the school system in modern times involves the use of a structured curriculum delivered to students via explicit instruction of sequential learning. There has been much debate over de Coubertin's notion that social and moral learning can take place automatically through sport participation, with educational theorists suggesting that the confidence placed in sport to deliver positive socio-moral outcomes reflects pedagogical idealism¹⁹. Despite this critique over the notion of "Olympism" for education, one of the greatest parts of "Olympism" is the fact that it is a fluid and flexible term that has shown the ability to adapt to changing cultures and social priorities. Over time, the Modern Olympic Games has become a more inclusive event, quite rightly so with the participation of women at the Olympics in London 2012 being 44% of athletes, a massive increase from the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics where participation of women was 23% of athletes. All new sports entered into the Olympic Games must contain women's events. Gender equality is a prominent issue in today's society and it is important that an institution such as the Olympic Games which promotes equality for all people through Olympism upholds these values and provide an equal opportunity to female athletes.

Unfortunately Olympism in the educational system is yet to become part of the school curriculum (particularly schools in Australia), there is literature

19. Barker, D., Barker-Ruchti, N., Rynne, S., & Lee, J. (2012). Olympism as Education: Analysing the Learning Experiences of Elite Athletes. *Educational Review*, 64(3), 369-384.

that suggests it could be a useful and meaningful tool in education due to the promotion of social and moral idealistic values. These suggestions include²⁰;

- Focus less on technical aspects of the games
- Put more emphasis on the philosophy practice of Olympism / and on pedagogical coherence which encourages and fosters critique and debate
- Acknowledge and align with a country's national PE curriculum requirements
- Aim to develop a type of active citizen who can contribute to building a more peaceful and better world

This would also be useful for fostering an “active” culture for people at a young age who prioritise their physical health in order to assist the national and global economy by potentially reducing the expense of disease burden. This is due to the impact that physical inactivity has on the risk of developing multiple chronic disease conditions. Bringing this to the forefront of people's minds at an early age could potentially limit the engagement in unhealthy lifestyle habits.

20. Chatziefstathiou, D. (2012). Olympic Education and Beyond: Olympism and Value Legacies from the Olympic and Paralympic Games. *Educational Review*, 64(3), 385-400.

MATCH-FIXING: A THREAT TO THE INTEGRITY OF OLYMPIC SPORTS

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Introduction

This study aims to identify which types of match-fixing are threatening the Olympic sports and in what ways such practices may affect the Olympic Movement integrity. Match-fixing has been considered as one of the main threats to the integrity of sports, being one of the most relevant and topical issues with regards to sports governance. It is defined as a combination or agreement to arrange the final result and/or interfere in certain events of a sport competition removing its degree of uncertainty (UNODOC, 2013).

Recently, cases of match-fixing have been identified in the Olympic Games in badminton, ice hockey, figure skating, boxing and sailing. In addition, football, basketball and tennis that are part of the Olympics official programme have already uncovered cases of manipulation in competitions organised by its federations. This makes match-fixing in Olympic sport a relevant issue with practical implications for sport organisations and the Olympic Movement as a whole.

Theoretical Background

Corruption is a constant threat in environments where money, competition and power are involved, as is the case with sport (Transparency International,

2009). Among the forms of corruption in sport, match-fixing stands out as one of the most prominent.

According to Rogge (IRIS, 2012, p. 7) and Play the Game (n/a), match-fixing attacks the Olympic Movement social and moral values, affecting its credibility. Holowchak (2002) relates the integrity in sport to the Greek ideal of physical and moral excellence, “*arête*”, which implies dedication and commitment to the attempt to win. For Bredemeier and Shields (1995), integrity in sport is the athlete’s intention to act in a sporting way, adhering to principles such as fair play, respect for the game, honesty and a positive attitude (Keating 2007; Feezel 2007; Morgan 2007; Festini, 2011). A study published by Oxford (2010) classified match-fixing one of the main threats to the integrity of modern sport along with doping, money laundering and misuse of funds in sports federations or payment of bribes to federation officials.

Although match-fixing is an old practice (see Mountford, 2014), what is occurring today is a completely new phenomenon. For Brasseur (2012) the problem is related to the growth of the betting market in the last 20 years in sports worldwide and to the involvement of criminal organisations in this sector.

According to Andreff (2013) the sports betting market in the world varies between £800 billion to £1.0 trillion annually. For Eaton (Vice, 2017) this value is even higher: £1.5 to £2.0 trillion a year. There are currently more than 8,000 operators operating in the world (IRIS, 2012). Carpenter (2014) argues that there was a tenfold increase in the amount of money placed in bets at the London Olympics compared to Beijing.

Data presented by Feltes (2013) show that between 60 and 70% of these operators operate illegally, mainly from Asia. For ICSS (2014), however, this percentage is even higher, reaching 80% of illegal operators. The Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe (2008) demonstrates the seriousness of this situation by stating that the majority of fraudulent bets on sporting events are made through the services of these illegal operators.

This situation has aroused the interest of international organised crime. Former France’s sports minister Valérie Fourneyron (apud L’Obs, 2013) said that approximately 10% of global organised crime money is laundered through sports betting. For Noble (2012), the combination of high financial gains associated with illegal gambling, the vulnerability of athletes, the low severity of penalties in most countries, the difficulty of detecting such practices and the

easy access to betting on the Internet are factors that make the increase in the number of sporting events fixed around the world.

In a resolution of the Council of Europe (2014), however, it was defined that match-fixing is not always related to bets and may be associated with manipulation that strictly aims at sporting advantages. For the organisation Play the Game (n/a) the manipulation of results ends with one of the essences of the sport: its unpredictability. By directly influencing the values of sport, the manipulation of results raises doubts about the fairness of the competitions and, mainly, attacks its most valuable asset: its credibility, which can have effects throughout the economic chain of the sector.

In order to combat match-fixing, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) established partnerships with UNODOC and INTERPOL that resulted in the adoption of education and monitoring strategies and the inclusion of specific recommendations on match-fixing into its code of ethics.

Method

The study comprised two parts: literature review and document analysis. A search on academic journals and books related to the concepts of match-fixing, gambling and sports corruption was carried out in international data bases, resulting in 53 studies. For the document analysis, official documents on match-fixing and sport's integrity produced by sports and intergovernmental organisations (IOC, European Union, United Nations and INTERPOL) were consulted.

Results and Discussion

The results showed two types of match-fixing in sports:

1) Manipulation related to sports betting: for ICSS (2014), a match-fixing involving sport betting is undoubtedly the greatest threat to the integrity of sport among the types of match-fixing. It occurs when there is any influence on the outcome or other aspect of the game for the purpose of making money through sports betting (IRIS, 2012).

In this situation there is a third party, usually an external bettor who has no direct relationship with the game, who contacts athletes, referees, coaches or managers to try to change the final result or some variable of the match in order

to gain particular advantage. With the growth of the global betting market, there has been an increase in the types of bets available to bettors. It is possible to bet not only on the winner of the match, but also on the total number of goals or points in a game or on events that are not related to the final result of the game (such as the first foul of the match).

According to Forrest (2012), online sports betting has increased the liquidity of the markets and has allowed stakes to be made from anywhere on the planet, circumventing regional restrictions and control of public authorities. Thus, it can be said that sports betting is present in all countries, even in those where gambling is prohibited, as operators offer the possibility of betting even on sports leagues from countries where bets are illegal. Due to these factors there was a consequent increase in the complexity of detection of such practices. In addition, it is difficult to establish if a match was actually manipulated or if certain events occurred within the normality of the game, which facilitates the manipulators' performance.

The most famous match-fixing case related to sports betting in the Olympic Games occurred in the 2008 Beijing Olympics in the sailing competition. On the occasion, the Irishman Peter O'Leary made two bets on the victory of the British boat, in a race that both would compete the following day. After an investigation by the IOC, the athlete received a warning that such an act could not be repeated (Chappelet, 2015).

2) Manipulation related to sports gains: It may be defined as any unlawful influence on the course or outcome of a sports competition in order to gain an advantage for itself or for a third party (Aquilina, 2013). Within this second category, there are three main match-fixing practices:

a) **Financial payment:** when an individual or sports club tries to obtain a positive result through the payment of bribes for their opponents to have a performance below their normal. In this type of situation the main objective is to change the result of a game aiming at a sporting gain. Such a practice may occur when a team no longer has an interest in the competition or goes through financial difficulties, being more susceptible to accepting money in exchange for the less effort to obtain a result.

In Olympic Games such a situation occurred twice: after the 1988 Seoul Olympics, three boxing judges were suspended by Olympic Boxing International Federation (AIBA) after declaring victory for the South Korean fighter in the final of the middleweight category (The Guardian, 2012). Another case

occurred in the figure skating at the 2002 Salt Lake City Olympics. A French judge and the president of the French Skating Federation were excluded from future Olympic Games because they were possibly influenced by the Russians in the final (ISU, 2002).

b) Division of points: when team A (who needs to win) offers team B (who is no longer interested in the competition) a future defeat in exchange for a win in that event. It is a process based on trust between the parties and does not involve money or material evidence. For this, team A offers a defeat in the game against team B in the next championship in exchange for a victory in the current tournament. Studies have detected the existence of such practices in modalities such as sumo, in Japan (Dugan, Levitt, 2002), and chess, in the former Soviet Union (Moul, Nye, 2006), which had a dispute format that ultimately favored such practices.

Cheloukhine (2013) cites a hypothetical example of a more sophisticated combination involving five highly rated clubs at relegation at the start of a competition. The clubs could combine that each of them would win their home games and would lose their matches as visitors in direct confrontations with each other. Such a practice would guarantee a total of four wins for each team and would lessen the chances of all being relegated to the end of the competition. For Matveev and Dogovrnak (2009), this type of combination is difficult to identify given that within the logic of many sports that such results would be considered “normal”.

c) Tanking – when a team purposely loses its game to face a theoretically weaker opponent in the next phase of the competition. An example of such a practice occurred at the 2012 Badminton Olympics, where four women’s doubles were excluded from the competition by “not putting their maximum effort” into their final group games to manipulate the clash of matches and choose their opponents in the knockout phase. This also occurred in 2006 Turin Olympics when the coach of the Swedish ice hockey team stated that their team would purposely lose out to Slovakia, thus avoiding facing Canada or Czech Republic in the quarter-finals.

This type of practice was also known because of its relation to the orderly process of selection of players, known with draft. Mainly employed in the main US basketball and football competitions, in this process the teams that obtained the worst placements in the previous year have priority in the choice of the athletes coming from the university sport, in order to level the teams for the

following season. Balsdon, Fong and Thayer (2007) and Taylor and Trongdon (2002) identified that teams that no longer had a chance to go to the final stages were more likely to deliver the results of their last games of the year. Thus, they would be ranked lower in the table and, consequently, would have better conditions for the draft in the following season.

3) Impacts on the sport's integrity. Regarding the impacts of match-fixing on the sport's integrity, the research evidenced that these occurrences are reflected in a threat to the entire economy of the sector, according to figure 1:

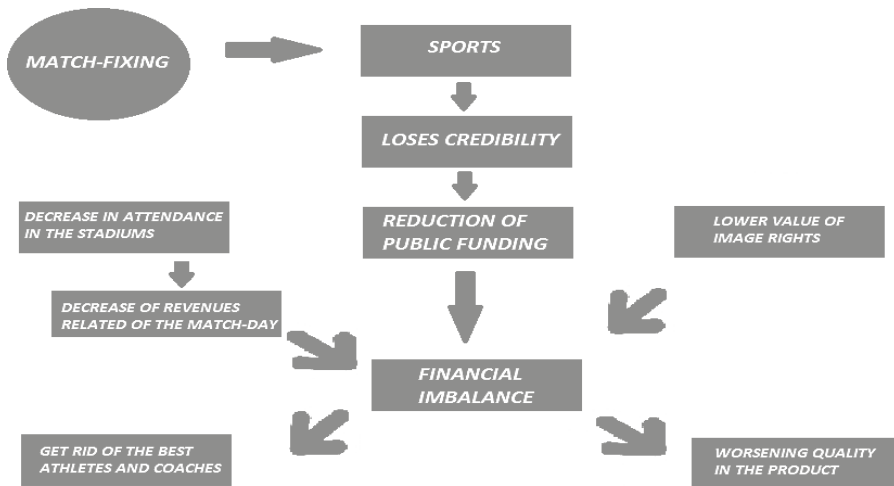


Figure 1 – Impact of the match-fixing in the sports economy.

a) Decrease of public interest

The loss of public interest is a possible factor to occur due to the existence of match-fixing cases in the sport, leading to a decrease in the number of spectators in the arenas. The most prominent example of lost revenue motivated by corruption in sport occurred in cycling. After a series of cases involving the systematic doping of his best athletes, such as Lance Armstrong and Marco Pantani, the sport suffered a marked decrease in the interest of spectators: only the Tour of Flanders had a 77% drop in its face-to-face audience in the first year post-disclosure of doping cases (Moller, 2010).

Buraimo, Migalli and Simons (2012) showed a marked decrease in attendance in soccer championships shaken up by match-fixing, such as Malaysia, China, Italy and Greece (Table 1).

Table 1 – Average variation of attendance in leagues affected by the match-fixing in soccer.

Country	Championship	Year	Variation of attendance post match-fixing cases
Malaysia	Super League	1989-1993	-40%
China	Jia A-league	2001-2004	-31%
Italy	Calcio	2004-2006	-22% in the games of the teams involved in the manipulations -15% in the other games
Greece	Super League	2008-2010	-37%

Source: adapted from Buraimo, Migalio and Simmons (2012).

In the four countries there was a marked decrease in the average number of fans present in the stadiums. It should be made clear, however, that such data cannot be entirely attributed to a rejection of manipulation of results, but they are strong indicators of the loss of public interest.

The decrease in the public in the stadiums leads to the decrease of all revenues related to the day of the game, aggravating the financial impact caused by this scenario. According to Marchetti and Reppold (2015), the sources of income from the day of the game are related to catering services, rent of cabins and VIP areas and sale of tickets for the event, all of them directly related to the number of spectators present in the sports facilities.

b) Reduction of public funding: In Brazil, as well as in countries like Germany, Australia and England, the Government is responsible for financing high-performance sports. For the English Government (Sport England, 2015), public funding is a privilege that brings with it the responsibility of presenting high levels of transparency and integrity. It needs to create an environment of trust and security, not only for its financiers, but also for society in general. If the image of the sport is denigrated, it may be considered incompatible with public investments.

This was the situation with cycling in Germany, transmitted annually by the country's state television: after cases of systematic doping surfaced, public opinion forced the authorities responsible to break the contract of transmission of the Tour de France, thus diminishing its ability to reach the public.

c) Lower value of image rights (sponsorships and television): the main sources of revenue for modern sport are related to the marketing of image rights, television and sponsorship. The sports entities, however, know that this business model is based on a kind of trust agreement with fans and sponsors, in which the unpredictability of the game is one of the pillars of support. Since the modality is ethically devastated and loses its credibility, its financing possibilities drastically reduce, since the possibility of loss of interest of the public and of investors is huge.

For ICSS (2015), the sponsorship process in sport is based on a presumably positive image capitalization of an athlete, team, federation or league, through a process of association between sports values and brand. In cases where there is evidence of corrupt practices there is a tendency for companies to withdraw their sponsorship, as they would not like to associate their brands with such illicit activities. A relevant case occurred in the Indian Premier League of cricket – after match-fixing scandals, the League lost its main sponsor and an annual contract of approximately U\$370 million.

The combination of these factors could lead to a financial imbalance on the part of sports organisations, since their revenues are directly affected by such factors. With less circulation of money, there is a tendency to exit the best human materials (athletes and coaches) of these institutions, causing a worsening in the quality of the product offered to viewers and the media. This creates a negative cycle because a worse product attracts less attention from the public and, consequently, there is less appreciation from sponsors and the press.

Conclusion

The study showed that in Olympic sports match-fixing is related to sports betting and to obtain advantages in the match and in the sport competition itself. In addition to the ethical aspect involved, it was also inferred that match-fixing poses a major threat to the Olympic sport as it may affect the entire sport industry chain's credibility. The manipulation of results could lead to loss of attendance, public funding and sponsors, bringing serious economic implications for the Olympic Movement.

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STUDENT ATHLETE: AN ALTERNATIVE MODEL OF OLYMPIC ATHLETE? 1923 TO 1939 (FRANCE, ITALY)

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Abstract

Similar to the modern Olympics revived at Sorbonne in 1894, the international student sports movement took its origins in France in the aftermath of World War I. Its founders were inspired by Coubertin's Olympic ideal, promoting pacifism, mutual comprehension and fair play through sporting encounters. At the same time, they attempted to emphasise university students as role models. Student sports had to demonstrate an example of a true amateurism, where the enjoyment mattered more than results. At the same time, in France and in totalitarian countries, students seemed to correspond to the icon of a "new man", which reinforced the external propaganda.

Keywords: *university sports, student sports, role model, Olympic ideal*

University sports – an essential part of the Olympic Movement

In his message to the participants of the Amsterdam Olympics in 1928, Pierre de Coubertin expressed his hope that students "would once become passionate about the Olympic ideal"¹. It is since 1930, when the World University Games (WUG) have become one of the major international multisport events, and

1. De Coubertin, P. Message to the Athletes and All Taking Part in the Olympic Games at Amsterdam, *Le Gymnaste Suisse*, 2e year, August 1928, p. 3.

gathered a number of participants comparable to those of the 1932 Olympics in Los Angeles².

Initially, the WUG had been conceived as a space of international cooperation, by the French student sports leader Jean Petitjean in 1922. Indeed, in the post-war context, the interaction between the students –which were the future leaders of their countries– around sports meetings, was seen as a promising peace building method. On the other hand, the idea of putting students on the stadiums reflected a vital need for sociability inside this social group, similarly to workers or women³. Anyway, the transformation of athletic competitions into a political instrument emerged quickly.

A strong relationship between the Olympic and university sports movements was visible as well at an individual level: nowadays, one does not have to look far to find former or present Universiade athletes among Olympic champions or international sports leaders. For instance, should we mention Thomas Bach, who took part in the Universiades (1973, 1979) and in the Olympics (1976)?

But can we consider Olympic athletes as a role-model for university athletes? What is the difference between them? Are they complementary or competing models? Finally, what are the values these models are based on?

The purpose of this study was to find out similarities and differences between university and Olympic athletes, taking into account national peculiarities.

Review of the literature

Student athletes as role models seem to have rarely attracted scientific interest in historical and anthropological perspectives.

Lenk (1984)⁴ analysed the essence of Olympic man from the point of view of philosophical anthropology. He demonstrated the major traits of the personality of Olympic athletes and considered the Olympic athlete as a myth

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2. 1332 participants from 37 countries in the Xth Olympiad vs. about 1000 participants from 29 countries in the IVth World University Summer Games in Darmstadt.
 3. For instance, Spartakiades, International Workers' Olympiade and Women's World Games.
 4. Lenk, H. (1984). "The essence of Olympic man: Toward an Olympic philosophy and anthropology", *International Journal of Physical Education*, Vol. 21, p. 9-14.

about a hero representing the European culture. Krüger (1993)⁵, in his study on *religio athletae*⁶ pointed out the emergence of national interests for sports and Olympics before World War I, while Loland (1995)⁷ shed light on the sources of inspiration of Coubertin's Olympic ideology, among which he mentioned internationalist influences. Holt (1996) revealed different origins of sports heroes in contemporary European culture⁸. Clastres (2011)⁹ introduced "*sportsmen chivalry*" as a new social category created by Coubertin, transcending hierarchies and imposing behaviour norms, such as loyalty, distinction, politeness and bravery.

Another approach to analysis on athletes as role-models is focused on physical education and sports systems of totalitarian regimes and, sometimes, heroisation of the champions. For instance, fascist Italy (Felice, 1976¹⁰; Gori, 1999¹¹; Ponzio, 2009¹²; Baci, 2002¹³). Two issues of *the International Journal of the History of Sport (IJHS)*¹⁴ were devoted, in 1999 to the creation of supermen by the totalitarian countries.

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5. Krüger, A. (1993). "The Origins of Pierre de Coubertin's Religio Athletae", *Olympica: The International Journal of Olympic Studies*, Vol. II, p. 91-102.
 6. The importance of an individual athlete had been first stressed through Coubertin's *religio athletae* concept in 1929.
 7. Loland, S. (1995). "Coubertin's Ideology of Olympism from the Perspective of the History of Ideas", *Olympica: The International Journal of Olympic Studies*, Vol. IV, p. 49-77.
 8. Holt, R., Mangan, J.A. (ed.) *European Heroes: Myth, Identity, Sport*. London, Frank Cass & Co., 1996.
 9. Clastres, P. *La chevalerie des sportsmen: Pierre de Coubertin (1863-1937)*. Doctoral dissertation, Paris, Institut d'études politiques, 2011.
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 11. Gori, G. (1999), Supermanism and culture of the body in Italy: the case of futurism, *The International Journal of the History of Sport*, Vol. 16, Issue 1, p. 159-165; "Model of masculinity: Mussolini, the 'new Italian' of the Fascist era", Vol. 16, Issue 4, p. 27-61.
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 13. Baci, A. *Lo sport nella propaganda fascista*, Torino, Bradipolibri, 2002.
 14. The International Journal of the History of Sport (1999), "Superman Supreme", Vol. 16, Issue 4.

Methodology

In order to fill this historiographical gap, we used archival materials and press in French and Italian. The archival materials on student sports are largely missing and scattered in Europe, which was one of the decisive factors in the data collection. Our study was based on the archival materials available at the FISU and the IOC in Lausanne, as well as at the state archives and libraries of France and Italy.

We had access to the organising committees' publications and reports, press, brochures, bulletins, magazines, official speech and correspondence for a discourse analysis. The main goal consisted of finding out the characteristics of the student athletes which set them apart from the rest of the sports world. Second, we studied the opinion of Pierre de Coubertin concerning the identity of student athletes. Finally, we focused on the peculiarities of student athletes as role models in the context of totalitarian or democratic states.

Coubertin's conception of student athlete

Pierre de Coubertin did not seem to be enthusiastic about the university sports progress. His writings were often devoted to American and British universities, meanwhile international students' sports movement itself had never been mentioned. One of his latter essays (1936)¹⁵, which is particularly relevant for our study, could maybe resume the Coubertin's perception of university sports. He regretted their modest growth in Europe and explained this phenomenon by an "*incompatibility of muscular culture and an intellectualism of European students imposed by the old doctors, for whom run, jump and fight alleviated the body, but burdened the brain*". In contrast, Coubertin considered American and British universities as models of sporting development for the Europeans. Not without admiration, he wrote about the photograph of the Princeton University team taken in Athens in 1904. According to him these young men with "*ancient stones*" on the background, symbolised "*the access of the university spirit to the revived Olympism*". Coubertin had never talked about students as role models, but only pointed out their capacity to become true sportsmen.

15. De Coubertin, P. (1936). *Les Universités, le sport et le devoir social*, Revue universitaire suisse, p. 45-47.

Coubertin's vision of a student did not much differ from his general idea of an Olympian: they were young gentleman and consequently supposed to be an icon of vitality, force, as well as of harmonious physical and mental development. He insisted on the necessity of maintaining of "*balance between muscular and cerebral values of student*".

Even though Coubertin said he was regretting students "*could not take the dominant place inside the growing Olympism*", his other considerations gave away his slight worry about an expansion of students' competitions at the international level, potentially threatening to the prestige of the Olympic Games. He stated that the multitude of championships and abuse of tournaments could disrupt an intellectual and physical harmony of students. In addition, he prevented from an excessive penetration of collective sporting life, which menaced biasing the University. Hence, he considered that students had to privilege an individual effort.

Student athletes seen by the university sports movement

We anticipated that a unique character of student sports consisted of a marriage of sports values of Olympism and to those of university internationalism and pacifism. Indeed, Olympic spirit quickly took roots in the student sports movement. In particular, peace, mutual understanding, friendship, fair play and knightly combat became unchangeable behaviour patterns, creating a specific atmosphere during the WUG and playing a role of an additional value in the education process of future leaders.

Petitjean had a rather firm position regarding the fundamental principles of student sports, which he exposed (not counting other notices and articles), in his short essay written in 1927¹⁶. His student athletes as role models had "*irreproachable moral qualities and leadership*", essential in running their countries in the future "*independently of the political regime*". According to Petitjean, playing sports was useful for "*pleasure, health and moral balance*". On the other hand, some competitive elements "*could exceptionally be introduced in order to defend national and university prestige and glory*".

The protagonists drew inspiration from Olympism but surely avoided copy-

16. Petitjean, J. *Le sport universitaire*, FISU Archives.

ing the Olympic Games, as they could not, or maybe would not, be able to claim a similar grandeur. Even though the WUG, inherited a lot from the Olympism, it did not aim to become a philosophy. We only deal with a *cultural transfer*¹⁷ of the Olympic model to university sports, especially regarding the adopted code of behaviour. On the other hand, among the main imperfections of the changing Olympism included the mention of the pursuit of records and a false amateurism. Student sports had to remain a conservatoire of true sports and consequently to keep a strictly recreational character, being a complementary element of personal education.

Students as role models in a national perspective

Coubertin's idea of physical and moral education was largely promoted by some political regimes and adapted to their ideological strategies. A "new man" fitted by the characteristics of the *homo sportivus* was performed both by totalitarian regimes and democracies¹⁸.

Italy

The question of role models and the creation of a New Italian under the influence of the Futurist ideas during the Fascist era was studied by Gigliola Gori¹⁹, who stated that Italian Fascism, "supermanism" and masculinity were strongly linked. Italian authorities aimed at a transformation of the masses into a race of "supermen" endowed with willpower and ready to become the leading elite of a new nation. According to the author, Fascism was the cult of aggression, virility, youth, speed, sport, and the classical masculine beauty²⁰. The values promoted by the Futurism, such as instinct, strength, courage, youth, dynamism, and speed were revolved around a culture of the body, greatly encouraged as the discipline.

17. Espagne, M. (2013). "La notion de transfert culturel", *Revue Sciences/Lettres*, No.1.

18. Benoussan, G., Dietschy, P. & al. *Sport, corps et sociétés de masse: Le projet d'un homme nouveau*, Paris, Armand Colin, 2016, p. 22.

19. Gori, G. (1999). "Model of masculinity: Mussolini, the 'new Italian' of the Fascist era", *op.cit.*, p. 29.

20. Gori, G. (1999). "Supermanism and culture of the body in Italy: the case of futurism", *op.cit.*, p. 162.

The fascist press clearly demonstrated the peculiarity of Italian students as role models:

*The awareness of the ideal value of sport that must differentiate the physical exercises of the students from those of the other layers of the Italian population. Because the students, for their intelligence and their culture, are able to understand that the ultimate goal of sport is the education of the character... the development of that sense of cavalry and of generosity, which are the soul of the sporting battle...*²¹

According to Andrea Baci (2002)²², students corresponded to the “new man” model thanks to their physical, moral and intellectual qualities, while the last one seemed to remain a prerogative of students as the future governing elite. Students were inclined to be excellent athletes by the fact of winning in competitions without forgetting to “grab” a diploma²³. According to Fabrizio (1977)²⁴, Augusto Turati, one of the most important Fascist sporting leaders dreamt a physically healthy, a solid and strong and peaceful student.

France

The creators of Service for the French Works Abroad (SOFÉ) estimated the importance of external sporting contacts for the university propaganda. The most representative example of the exhibition of French student athletes as role models was the 7th World University Games. The competitions were organised in Paris in 1937 under the Popular Front, in response to the growing totalitarian regimes. Actually, this left-oriented government formed in 1936 aimed at a revival of the French race by contributing into youth and sports. One year after the Berlin Olympiad, the University Games responded to a necessity for the French rematch.

The publications preceding the WUG in 1937 highlighted the ideas of peace, comradeship, loyalty and uprightness. The directors of the OISU Jean Chappert and Paul de Rocca-Serra highlighted that the games had to demonstrate to the

21. Fontana, A. “Lo sport tra gli student”, *Lo Sport fascista*, 1928, No. 1.

22. Baci, A., *op.cit.*, p. 75.

23. Fabrizio, F. *op.cit.*, p. 122.

24. *Idem*.

world the “*ideal of peace and international friendship*”, “*noble face of France*”, “*a true amateurism*”, etc.²⁵ On the one hand, we could see a strong accent on the French republican values. On the other hand, the French student athlete as a role model was close to the Olympic one, as was abovementioned.

Conclusion

This study demonstrated that the conception of the university athlete as role model was inseparable from the Olympic ideal. A gentleman’s qualities firmly promulgated by Coubertin were welcomed by the founders of the World University Games, although they queried the veracity of Olympic amateurism. At a national level, university athletes occupied an important place in the internal and external propaganda. In three chosen countries, students as role models had rather similar characteristics, namely harmoniously developed physical and intellectual qualities. However, the French student athlete was the closest model to the Olympic one. It had to reject nationalist feeling, but to privilege friendly behaviour toward their competitors. In Italy, it seems that the “*supermanism*” and sporting results were important for the promotion of the regime abroad. They both admired the Anglo-Saxon university sports system.

25. Bulletin de la Confédération Internationale des Etudiants, May 1936.

THE THAILAND OLYMPIAN: SUCCESS AND SUPPORT

Narintra CHANTASORN (THA)

The Olympic Games, the largest sports event of humanity, has begun in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. For any athletes, receiving the Olympics medal is considered to be the “peak” of athletic profession. Not only does it bring the reputation and money, but the athlete also feels proud to share joys with the people of their country. For Thailand, many athletes also aim to bring happiness to the Thai people by attempting to get success in the Olympic Games; the most popular sport is amateur boxing.

Thailand first participated in the Olympic Games in 1952, and has sent athletes to compete in every Summer Olympic Games since then. Thailand has also participated in the Winter Olympic Games since 2002. The National Olympic Committee of Thailand was established in 1948 and recognised in 1950.

Thailand won its first medal at the 1976 Games in Montreal, Canada, when the boxer named Payao Poontarat took home a bronze in the Men’s Light Flyweight category. Thailand’s first gold medal was also received in boxing category at the 1996 Games in Atlanta, United States of America. It was Somluck Kamsing who won the Men’s Featherweight category. Since then, Thai athletes have won gold medals at every subsequent Summer Olympics with the exception of the 2012 Games in London in United Kingdom. So far, all its gold medals to date have come from men’s boxing and women’s weightlifting. Thai athletes have won a total of 33 medals from Boxing, weightlifting and Taekwondo. Thailand’s most successful Games to date were the 2004 in Athens, Greece, where they won eight medals, three of them were gold (NOCT, 2004). But at the Games at Rio de Janeiro 2016, amateur boxing athletes of Thailand

could not do as good as ever. It is considered a failure of the Thai Boxing Association. For the first time in 40 years since Payao Poonrat won the bronze medal at the 1976 Olympic Games in Montreal, Canada. Such phenomena occurred to the amateur boxing sport association. The conclusion is that the failure and the statement; both are caused by internal factors and external factors. Internal factors indicate that athletes have a relatively high level of pressure from the expectations from the whole country, little experience from the world stage competition, and a lack of coaches with knowledge, skills, techniques and competitive experience. This makes it impossible to reinforce the athletes to peak performance. External factors may include political issues such as the lack of transparency of the World Boxing Association (FIBA), the shortage of athletic resources, and the selection of athletes.

For the above reasons, the Amateur Boxing Association has found some points of failures, even though it took time to find supported research studies. More related literature and interesting things will bring benefits to the development of athletes to success. They studied and reviewed the relevant literature to determine the factors that will lead to successful completion of previous case studies and important to the Olympic athletes.

The challenges for the Olympic athletes may consist of different environment in the Olympic Games as well as the psychosocial factors related to their success and performance at the Olympic Games. Vernacchia et al. (2000) showed that the emergent themes of the psychosocial characteristics of Olympic track and field athletes were mental skills and attitudes; developmental concerns; socio-economic factors; and spiritual/religious factors to success in Olympic Games. The details are explained as follows:

Mental Preparation: establishing a plan, routine, and clear tactical strategies in mental preparation has been established by researchers as a key factor for Olympic athletes in preparing, performing well and winning a medal at the Olympic Games (Eklund, Gould & Jackson, 1993; Fletcher & Sakar, 2012; Gould, Eklund & Jackson, 1992a; Gould, Greenleaf, Guinan, Dieffenbach & McCann, 2001; Gould, Guinan, Greenleaf, Medbery & Peterson, 1999; Greenleaf, Gould, & Dieffenbach, 2001; McGuire & Balague 1993; Portenga, Aoyagi, & Statler, 2012; Vernacchia, McGuire, Reardon, & Templin, 2000). Athletes from teams that met or exceeded expectations at the Olympics identified the importance of sticking to the plan and continuing to use the mental preparation routines that had been established prior to the Olympics (Gould

et al., 1999). While many Olympians use mental preparation strategies, the specifics of how they prepare may differ greatly on an individual basis. This was the evidence from the study of Ecklund et al. (1993), which found that one Olympic gold medallist wrestler described his mental preparation as removing all distractions from his thoughts by intentionally focusing on the task at hand and was developed as an automated process. Another gold medal winner described his mental preparation as a complex routine of relaxation, breath control, perspective taking, focusing on strengths, motivating thoughts, self-talk, and purposeful mental focusing. Furthermore, there were differences among the six medallists in how they approached the technical strategy of each opponent. Some were very detailed in focusing on specific situations and tactics on offense and defense with an opponent, while others intentionally avoided such thoughts. One medallist discussed the need to be alone prior to matches, while another needed other people around, specifically someone to help keep him from getting too serious in his thoughts and preparations.

Motivation: It can be a complex process to understand and one that is heavily researched in athletes in an attempt to help the athlete achieve peak performance. As previously mentioned by Balague (1999) in order to truly understand and develop motivation, it is important to first start with identity and values. Mallet and Hanrahan (2004) investigated motivation within a sample of five male and five female elite (top ten performances at 1996, 2000 Olympic Games or 1995, 1997, 1999 World Championships) track and field athletes from Australia and found that they were strongly driven by personal goals and achievement. They also had a strong belief in themselves, and track and field was a pivotal part of their lives. They discovered that the athletes used self-determined forms of motivation and goal attainment improved their views of competence, which in turn helped reinforce self-determined forms of motivation. **Growth Mindset:** It is often defined as athletes' identity by their talent which is determined by genetics and is fixed when determining how successful they might be. This is a reflection of how the society views the potential of an athlete. A healthier approach is one that not only looks at talent but also takes ability into account, which can be controlled and improved through time and effort in deliberate practice (Dweck, 1986). **Resiliency:** Another theme that emerged from their findings from Vernacchia, McGuire, Reardon and Templin (2000) was the mental attribute of patience. Patience helped the athletes deal with challenges in their careers from injury or illness (acute or chronic); training

and performance plateaus; and legal issues (Vernacchia et al., 2000). Along with patience, the athletes addressed work ethic and perseverance as important factors to their success. And, young athletes should focus on developing such attributes (Vernacchia et al., 2000). **Confidence:** Researchers have found that successful Olympic athletes were confident. More specifically, athletes discussed the challenges of overcoming self-doubt and becoming confident (Pensgaard & Duda, 2002; Vernacchia et al., 2000). They accomplished this by developing trust and belief in one's physical preparation and the importance of this link between physical confidence and psychological confidence (Pensgaard & Duda, 2002; Vernacchia et al., 2000). **Spirituality:** Spirituality, religion, or prayer was an integral part of the athletes as they used it to help them stay committed to goals and belief in their abilities as an athlete (Balague, 1999; McGuire & Balague, 1993; Vernacchia, McGuire, Reardon & Templin, 2000).

Goal Setting and Attainment: these were important aspects that athletes discussed the ability to set and attain goals and to have dream goals and pursuits as sources of motivation. In her experience, Balague (1999) has found that goal setting with elite athletes aligns with the literature and that it should be specific, flexible, written down and imagined. Action plans are a key component in getting from goal setting to goal attainment. **Focus:** Researchers have identified that the ability to focus on the task at hand prior to and during competition is a key psychological attribute of successful Olympic athletes (e.g. Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 2002; Gould, Dieffenbach, & Moffet, 2002; Gould, Greenleaf, Guinan, Dieffenbach & McCann, 2001; McGuire and Balague, 1993; Vernacchia & Henschen, 2008; Vernacchia, McGuire, Reardon, & Templin, 2000). More specifically, athletes cited the emphasis on the process, focusing on what one can control and focusing on one's self as methods for helping improve their performance (Gould et al., 2002; Vernacchia et al., 2000). Teams and athletes that failed to meet expectations identified issues related to focus as one of the reasons for being less successful. **Imagery/Visualization:** Researchers have found that the use of mental skills, for example, imagery/visualization was a common practice among Olympic track and field athletes (Balague, 1999; Dale, 2000; McGuire & Balague, 1993; Vernacchia, McGuire, Reardon & Templin, 2000). **Positive Attitude:** Olympic athletes discussed the importance of having a positive attitude toward their sport (Greenleaf, Gould, & Dieffenbach, 2001; Haberl, 2001; Pensgaard & Duda, 2002; Vernacchia, McGuire, Reardon & Templin, 2000). Researchers' analyses have found that for track and field

athletes “enjoyment of their sports appeared to be an outgrowth of their passion for excellence” (Vernacchia et al., 2000 p. 22). **Social Support Systems:** Olympic athletes discussed the importance of social support systems, which typically consisted of family, parents and spouses (Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 2002; Gould, Dieffenbach, & Moffet, 2002; Gould, Greenleaf, Guinan, Dieffenbach & McCann, 2001; Gould, Guinan, Greenleaf, Medbery & Peterson, 1999; Vernacchia, McGuire, Reardon & Templin, 2000).

Identity: For elite athletes, their identities are often strongly tied to their performance (Balague, 1999). When working with elite athletes, it is important to understand this piece and help them understand their identity (Balague, 1999). **Quality Practice:** Teams and athletes that met or exceeded expectations at the Olympic Games cited participation in resident training programmes as one of the reasons for their success (Gould, Guinan, Greenleaf, Medbery, & Peterson, 1999). Olympic track and field athletes identified their abilities to partake in quality training over the course of their career as important to their success (Vernacchia, McGuire, Reardon, Templin, 2000).

The literature review found that under social psychology theory there are many elements that will bring success in the Olympic Games, such as Mental preparation, Motivation, Goal setting and attainment, Growth mindset, Focus, Resiliency, Imagery/Visualization, Positive attitude, Social support system, Confidence, Spirituality, Identity and Quality practice. In the last element is a physical factor, which should result in the athlete being successful as well.

Nicole et al. (2013) studied how the “good-to-great” athletes had competed in at least two Olympic Games, demonstrated a pattern of good performance over a minimum of 5 years. The results revealed five dimensions (performance enhancement skills and characteristics, support and resources, motivational issues and orientation, skill mastery and quality of training, and accumulated training time) as influencing the initial shift from good to great in good-to-great athletes, of which three of these dimensions (accumulated training time, performance enhancement skills and characteristics, and motivation issues and orientation) were described as contributing to sustain this transition. Both groups of athletes reported implementing similar strategies; however, the direct comparison athletes were less successful in their use of strategies. Additionally, the results provided support for the mental toughness framework in good-to-great athletes.

It is clearly seen that not only psychological but also physical factors are

the main factors that make the athlete successful. Another important thing is to combine them with related theories. These are to make athletes succeed in Olympic Games between athletes or coaches. Besides, one of the aspects similarly cited by athletes and coaches is the coach-athlete relationship and the impact this could have on performing well at the Olympic Games (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Vernacchia et al., 2000). Johnson shared his and the other athletes' stories of success, failure, lessons learned personal weaknesses and vulnerabilities (Johnson, 2011). In talking about the coach-athlete relationship, Johnson mentioned that "the coach-athlete relationship is crucial to Olympic success" (Johnson, 2011, p. 267). In describing his relationship with his coach, "To me, Clyde felt much more like a teacher than a coach". These examples illustrated the coach developing autonomy, which is a part of self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000). The coach in each example provided autonomy by empowering the athlete to make decisions about things that were important to him. Research studies found that when people/athletes have autonomy, they were more intrinsically motivated and experienced improved satisfaction, well-being and performance (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Lafreniere, Jowett, Vallerand & Carbonneau, 2011; Mallet, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Apart from the coach-athlete relationship, there are many factors that go into performing well at the Olympic Games. Aside from the obvious needs for physical talent and skills the psychological aspects of peak performance at the Olympic Games play an important role as well. Olympic athletes from a variety of sports have identified and highlighted the coach-athlete relationship as being important to their success (Gould, Greenleaf, Guinan, Dieffenbach, & McCann, 2001; Gould, Guinan, Greenleaf, & Chung, 2002; Gould, Guinan, Greenleaf, Medbery, & Peterson, 1999; Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Mallet, 2005). In the last decade research has picked up in this area and in looking at coach-athlete relationships.

Coach-athlete relationships and Olympic success: Truly great coaches have mastered the art of coaching largely because they master their capacity to: listen, respect, challenge, believe, care and support. In the preparation and lead-up phase to the Olympic level events, listening, respecting and challenging athletes in positive ways are critically important. In the on-site performance phase, demonstrating belief in each performer and supporting them in simple ways become the central factors in facilitating excellence (Orlick, 2002, p. 12).

From the previous studies, most of the features of the coaches have contributed to the success of athletes as the following steps:

1. Athlete-Centered Approach. Coach-athlete relationships that are developed by a coach with an athlete-centered philosophy have been suggested to be beneficial to the athlete's development (Bloom, Durand-Bush, Schinke & Salmela, 1998; Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Poczwadowski, Barott, Henschen, 2002; Zuleger, 2011; 2012).

2. Self-Determination Theory and Coach-Athlete Relationships. Mallett (2005) used self-determination theory as his basis for creating an autonomy-supportive motivational climate in his study where he acted as researcher and coach with Australia's two men's track and field relays for the 2004 Olympic Games. He stated, "Promoting a healthy coach-athlete relationship is posited as the key to high quality sport performance and positive affective outcomes" (Mallett, 2005, p. 421).

3. Trust and Belief. In the study by Vernacchia, McGuire, Reardon and Templin (2000) on Olympic track and field athletes, the impact of the coach was highlighted by seven of the fifteen athletes. They discussed the importance their coach(es) had in their development through their knowledge of training design, application and the development of a strong trust and belief in the coach (Vernacchia et al., 2000).

4. Communication. Researchers have suggested that communication between coach and athlete is the key to having a successful relationship and limiting stress for both individuals, thus creating a positive experience (Frey, 2007; Sagar & Jowett, 2012). "When there are problems within a coaching context, is rarely related to an absence of technical knowledge. It is almost always a communication issue" (Orlick, 2002, p. 12-13).

5. Role of the Coach. Not all athletes view the role of the coach the same, though, as evidenced in the study by Eklund, Gould, & Jackson, (1993), the researchers found that one of the medallists saw the role of coach support as someone to help them relax and have fun, while another medallist referred to the need to have a very task-oriented coach to help narrow his focus and respect his need to be alone in pre-competition preparation. Thus, coaches were seen as a source of confidence (Eklund et al., 1993).

6. Negative Coach-Athlete Experiences. The researchers found that negative attitudes toward the coach, poor athlete-coach communication, and lack of athlete-coach trust were identified by teams that were not as successful at

the Olympic Games and failed to meet expectations (Gould et al., 1999). Lack of experience at the Olympic Games on the part of the coaching staff was also mentioned as being an issue that affected performance.

Competing at the Olympic Games is different from competing in any other performance setting and presents many challenges to the athlete and coach. As outlined above, the coach-athlete relationship can have a positive or negative influence on performance outcomes, especially in the highly chaotic environment of the Olympic Games. In order to succeed in this context, it is important to have a solid detailed plan that includes mental preparation.

The coach can have a large role in acting as a positive or negative model for the athlete. Some examples are: having a positive or negative attitude; how they respond and react in times of distress; and communication between coach and athlete. Successful coach-athlete relationships occur when the coaches are authentic in their commitment to their athletes and have an athlete-centered approach that exemplifies a caring relationship placing the needs of the athlete first. Additionally, the coaches provided the athletes with an autonomy-supportive environment.

More evidence that presents the strength of their relationship between these athletes and their coaches demonstrated various benefits such as: creating an autonomy supportive environment, developing a caring relationship, and developing and maintaining mental strength. Coaches and athletes perceived the coach-athlete relationship to have helped in the process of developing an Olympic medal winner. For Thailand, there are not many successful athletes at the Olympics. But for athletes, who have failed and succeeded by applying the principles of physical psychology, they are well supported by coaches and other environmentalists, such as Somjit Jongjohor, Amateur Boxing Hall of Fame; it took more than 12 years to succeed at the Olympic Games.

Somjit Jongjohor was a Thai Boxer and expected to be a favorite at the 1996 Summer Olympics and Asian Games, but he could not win the medal as expected. He had been thinking about quitting several times. He has succeeded every major item in the world. It is also his only medal is the Olympics. He was determined to win the medal. Before Athens, Greece, he was very sad because of the lottery in the second round put him to compete with the Cuban players. But, things did not go according to plan. Somjit was defeated again. When he went back to Thailand, he was back to a new start and goal setting to win medal in Beijing 2008. At Beijing 2008 Summer Olympics, he was finally able

to win a gold medal in the 51 kg race (Flyweight Category). He defeated Andrés Havilipa, a Cuban fighter.

“I have been waiting for this day for twelve years; trying hard, which included quality practice and social support system from family and Thai Boxing camp. Otherwise, it will not be successful today. I am happy to make Thai people happy. This fight was originally intended to be cautious. But it is just changed. I think about the best. The first is sure to win. The future for me is to be a coach. I have learned from Juan Fontanil and others”. Somjit said (Thai boxing association, 2008).

In describing his relationship with his coach, “To me, Juan Fontanil is much more like a teacher than a coach. Because he has a lot of knowledge and put more intrinsically motivated and experienced to improve satisfaction, well-being and performance to me. Juan Fontanil has performance enhancement skills and characteristics, support and resources, motivational issues and orientation skill mastery and quality of training, and accumulated training time success in Olympic Games”. Currently, Somjit Jongjohor, a Thai Olympic gold medallist has developed himself as an amateur boxing instructor for amateur boxers. He needs to pass on his experience and knowledge that he has received from his coach, Juan Fontanil. It is intended to be for later generations so that Thailand’s amateur boxing will return to stand out in the Olympics again in Tokyo 2020.

The case study of Thai athletes who have been medallists at the Olympics revealed that the factors leading to success came from variety of principles, such as psychosocial characteristic theories (Vernacchia et al., 2000). Besides, motivation, goal setting and attainment, focus, resiliency, social support system and quality practice cannot be neglected. More importantly, the relationship between athlete and coach is extremely needed to prepare athletes to be Olympic champion. In addition, the important thing that contributed to the Olympic athlete’s success came from the coach support with scientific knowledge, strengthen the physical and mind, fixing weaknesses, and resolving them to succeed.

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THE OLYMPIC ATHLETE AS A MODEL OF NEVER-ENDING CONSTRUCTING IDENTITY? THE PEDAGOGICAL POINT OF VIEW

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Ending elite sport is a problem to cope with for many athletes (Grove, Lavallee, & Gordon, 1997). The reason why is the shift from a non-ordinary life, such as the one that athletes use to live in during the sport career, to another one, such as ordinary life. It may cause different forms of emotional discomfort related to a deep change, not only in lifestyle but also in personal, social, and financial factors. The motives are related to the *re-configuration of identity*, which often represents as dramatic for all the individuals who, by changing their role, have the necessity to restructure their personal identity all-round.

Identity changes during the transition are connected with a sort of "identity confusion" that interests both professional and personal identity. Many athletes, in fact, are still hooked on the sport context because it represents a real resource of their identity all-round (Kerr & Dacyshyn, 2000). It seems that many athletes are unable to imagine themselves like individuals able to be different from the past. However an exclusive identification with the athletes' role can have both negative and positive consequences, some positive effects are related to the achievement of *transferable skills* to other working contexts (McKnight, et al. 2009). However, it is important to underline that the way in which an athlete lives this turning point, socially and emotionally, directly influences the quality of the transition (Clemmet, Hanrahan & Murray, 2012), positively or negatively (Grove, Lavallee, Gordon, 1997).

Pedagogy is interested in athletes' identity transition out of sport because

this phenomenon calls into question an important educational process the *construction of subjectivity*. This ongoing process interests the whole individual's life, independently from the single context. Subjectivity is something built from the combination of the different spheres of our life and it needs an educational guide, above all during the many transitions and developmental tasks that individuals always had to overcome. During athlete's identity transition out of sport, in fact, an athlete "descends from the heights of the extraordinary into the mundane world of ordinariness" (Sparkes, 1998, p. 644). From this perspective, an athlete may face some challenges when rethinking about his life after sport, where the athletic identity can have an important role in influencing post-retirement depression and anxiety symptoms. From this point of view, the degree of athletic identity may be a risk factor for the psychiatric distress in the months following the retirement, and identity-focused screening or an intervention during athletes' sport careers could moderate psychological difficulties associated with sport retirement (Giannone, Haney, Kealy, Ogradniczuk, 2017). Imaging differently from the present is optimistically linked with a good quality of the transition and the ability of experimenting different forms of identities outside of sport context can be considered as a key part of athletes' identity transition out of sport process (Lally, 2007). For this reason, it is of a fundamental importance to work on education, to lead athletes to think about themselves in different and original ways of being.

From a pedagogical perspective, there is the necessity to foster and maintain the mental health and general well-being of the individuals throughout this transition, but not only. Pedagogy is mostly interested to reflect on the different educational components that influence the whole educational process, to propose strategy of intervention useful to sustain the identity crisis and the possible discomfort related to it. After all pedagogy –as the science interested in the educational and formative process from a lifelong, lifewide and lifedep point of view– looks at the educational intervention not only as a process strictly oriented to develop technical skills and ability, but as a path of definition and re-definition of one's own Self. This may put reflexively the individual to research one's own identity, an identity that is at the same time something stable and variable. In other words, if on one hand the individuals feel the necessity to embrace the ongoing changing processes linked to the natural inclination to learn in the environment, on the other hand the individuals feel the necessity to perceive him/herself as an individual that may have stable nucleus of personal-

ity. This allows him/her to stay in the world in relationship with the category of space, time and others. This refers to the individual project of life, pushing the individual to constantly think about his/her competences, what he/she knows and knows-how.

From a pedagogical point of view, the key educational components at the basis of athlete's identity transition out of sport are¹:

- Athlete's identity develops starting from the role that the athlete assumes in the sport context, mixing it with other identities developed outside it;
- Elite sport represents a part of athlete's life that assumes a substantial role and that literally polarizes athletes' interests and involvement;
- Significant adults can influence positively the quality of the transition.

We can consider the points above as the three *core educational components* in athlete's identity transition out of sport. The pedagogical perspective leads us to think at this phenomenon as a real *biographical transition*, a process rather than a single event that needs to be managed both from a pedagogical and a didactics point of view. For this reason, it is important to foster during the whole sport career, since the beginning, educational paths that lead the athletes to reflect in a critical perspective about their project of life and life planning, as well as giving them the possibility to test a variety of different forms of identities outside the sport context.

Can the Olympic athlete be a model of never ending constructing identity? It can be surely considered as a model, but pedagogy and education assume a fundamental part in this process.

Behind this approach, there is an idea of sport different from the most common. A sports vision, coherent with educational developments described here, assumes a greater integration among the various experience's fields of the athlete's life. This implies the aim to give athletes the opportunity to experiment their different identities in other contexts, giving them a chance to use their abilities, skills and competences acquired through sport outside of it, experimenting in often original contexts and thus formulating hypothesis about one's one Self in antagonism, addition or completion of the sport identity. Experiencing

1. To better understand athlete's identity transition out of sport from a pedagogical point of view: Bellantonio S. (2018). *La vita dopo lo sport. Orientare le transizioni identitarie*. Milano: FrancoAngeli.

that, sport does not take over the incidence of a unique and exclusive context, decreasing the pervasive quality that it generally takes (Cunti, 2016). From this point of view, education is an essential support which accompanies the athlete along the conquest of an autonomy and differentiation of Self, an emancipator process that allows the definition of personal identities that constantly changes over time, with respect to the succession of the experiences and the emergence of new needs and desires (Guichard, 2012). Trainers, Federations and Olympic Committee have a fundamental role in this process, since that they often mainly insist on the sport performance, overlooking those educational aspects that significantly and proactively can contribute to a good quality of life of the athletes.

The guiding value of sport necessitates a teaching and didactic quality focused on subjectivities, on the analysis and the choice capabilities that must be sustained and educationally oriented. It is necessary that all trainers, mostly in general all teachers and educators who turn around athletes, may use appropriate instruments able to promote the expression and the emancipation of the subjectivity, promoting the integration of experiences. The solution is to *re-think from a systemic perspective* the relationships that are established in these learning contexts, in order not to risk that the athletes' identity, as well as self-esteem and self-efficacy, primarily builds itself starting from their sporting achievements.

Being involved in elite sport, in fact, should not prevent the opportunity to experiment individual life. After all, any intentionally-oriented educational process should always lead the individual to live life fully, so that each component of one's own identity should be able to globally influence personal lives. In this sense, sport should ensure the individual to learn how to be permeated by what he/she lives, harmonizing the different shapes of identity in a continuous educational process that never ends.

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CONTROVERSIES OF GENDER TESTING IN SPORT

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For a long time women were deprived of the opportunity to do sports. Over the years women's participation in sports competitions engendered a new challenge. At the end of the 1960s international sports organisations adopted a special procedure of gender testing which for more than 30 years was obligatory for female athletes participating in sports competitions. Nowadays gender testing occurs on case-by-case basis, but controversies related to this procedure raise questions regarding the existing gender categories in sport and the consistency in sports organisations' policy regarding genetic and biological variations.

Why do gender testing?

The purpose of gender testing was to preserve women's sport. Due to usual men's physical advantage, it was obvious that men and women should compete separately in order to ensure the fairness of competition. According to scientific studies, men's world records in track and field events are between 9% and 18% better than women's records for those events; similar performance advantages are in cycling, swimming and speed-skating events (Tucker & Collins, 2009). Thus, it was necessary to ensure two different gender categories in sport competitions. Otherwise, it would be pointless for women to participate in the majority of sports disciplines, because most likely they would never win competing against men. In order to preserve two gender categories, sports organisations had to come up with some regulations. It was required to find criteria under which an individual would be considered a woman. As the result, gender testing (or gender verification) procedure was adopted.

The initial idea was to prevent men from participating in women's competitions. Sports organisations had reasons for this anxiety. The story of Heinrich (or Hermann) Ratjen who finished fourth in women's high jump at the 1936 Berlin Olympics and broke the world record at the European Championships in 1938, is well-known. In 1957 he confessed that during the Nazi era he had been forced to compete as a woman under the name of Dora Ratjen.

At the end of the 1960s international sports organisations headed by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) adopted a special procedure of gender verification which for more than 30 years was compulsory for female athletes participating in sports competitions. Gender verification procedure passed several stages:

- physical examination (European Athletics Championships in Budapest, 1966);
- chromosome testing (European Athletics Cup in Kiev, 1967);
- sex chromatin test, also known as the buccal smear test (Olympic Games in Mexico City, 1968);
- determination of the presence of the Y chromosome (Winter Olympic Games in Albertville, 1992).

Finally, in 1999 the IOC made a decision to suspend gender testing of all female athletes. Nowadays gender testing occurs on case-by-case basis.

Is gender testing ethical?

When the testing was first introduced in Budapest, all female participants were required to undergo physical inspection, meaning they had to appear nude in front of a panel of female doctors. After that a manual examination was conducted by a gynaecologist (Ljungqvist, 2000). With science development gender verification made a big step from a physical examination to laboratory-based genetic testing. The initial examination was humiliating for female athletes, but can the mandatory genetic testing of biological samples be considered as a very progressive step forward?

On one hand, any athlete participating in sports competitions faces the need to be compulsory tested for doping, to do medical tests. Athletes are forced to obey certain rules. On the other hand, no requirements of sports organisations can infringe the universally recognised human rights. Visual examination and

gender testing have been mandatory procedures for more than three decades; refusal to pass these procedures entailed withdrawal from competitions. However, Article 7 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966) states: “no one shall be subjected to [...] degrading treatment [...]. In particular, no one shall be subjected without his free consent to medical or scientific experimentation”. Is it possible to talk about truly voluntary agreement in case of a mandatory visual and gynaecological examination which athletes themselves considered humiliating, and later in case of compulsory genetic tests and laboratory examination of biological samples? It does not seem so. Nevertheless, athletes had to go to all lengths, proving their right to participate in women’s competitions which was a consequence of their outstanding sports results and to prove their right to be called women.

Nowadays gender testing procedure is not any longer compulsory for all women athletes. But women who do not conform to standards of femininity become targets for gender investigations (Camporesi, 2016). According to several studies (Trivino, 2013, Camporesi, 2016), gender verification procedure has a traumatic effect due to doubts that it generates. One of the most famous cases is Caster Semanya, whose great results at 800-m distances together with her not feminine look caused plenty of rumours, discussions and investigations, causing moral harm to her and her family.

Is gender testing useless?

It is necessary to keep in mind that the initial goal of gender verification was to reveal men trying to pretend to be women for the purpose of sports competitions. According to academic literature and documents of sports organisations, no such cases were recorded since the establishment of gender testing. Meanwhile, it would be hard not to notice a man among women competitors because of drug testing procedure when athletes have to give urine samples under direct observation (Reeser, 2005).

From the medical perspective biological sex differentiation is programmed by sex chromosomes: XX for female and XY for male. Sex chromosomes serve as a primal criterion for determination of foetus’ sex before anything else; it’s named genetic sex (Vasilchenko, 1983). However, for a long time already experts have been considering sex to be a complex phenomenon with biological,

social, psychological components (Vasilchenko, 1983, Bukhanovskiy & Andreev, 1993, Sullivan, 2011). Though at first glance it may seem that there can be no difficulty to determine the sex of an individual, due to experts' opinion determination of sex is very complicated. Even without mentioning extreme cases (either an absolute norm or pathology when it is too hard to determine sex of an individual), there is a wide diversity of sex variations.

The whole procedure of gender testing was based on the conception that females possess two X sex chromosomes (46,XX karyotype) while males possess one Y chromosome and one X chromosome (46,XY karyotype). No other variations were taken into consideration.

However, there are cases when women are not 46,XX.

Spanish hurdler Maria José Martínez Patiño failed gender test during the University Games in Kobe in 1985. Being female anatomically, she had a classical male 46,XY karyotype – the condition of androgen insensitivity (also known as androgen insensitivity syndrome) (Dreger, 2000, Ljungqvist, 2000, Reeser, 2005). As a result, gender verification test defined her as a man. After being disqualified from international athletic events, she spent three years challenging the decision. She became the first athlete to publicly protest against the test as a ground of disqualification. Finally, the IAAF restored her status after deciding that her X and Y chromosomes gave her no any advantage over other female competitors with a classical 46,XX karyotype (Ferrante, 2008).

At the same time, this gender testing procedure would not be able to identify individuals with a possible competitive advantage. The karyotype of an individual with hermaphroditism is usually 46,XX (the same as a classical female one) (Verma, 1996). According to gender verification test, persons with hermaphroditism would be considered women. But hermaphroditism cause hormonal, physical and psychological peculiarities (Dubrovskiy, 2002) which give such individuals an advantage over “ordinary” women in the majority of sports (Chogovadze & Butchenko, 2004). So, an athlete with hermaphroditism competing in women's competitions would not be recognised by the gender test and would have a competitive advantage, harming the hopes of other female athletes. It proves a strong imperfection of genetic based gender testing which has been used in sport for more than thirty years.

There is an ethical dilemma here, though. According to Trivino (2013), even though hermaphrodite individuals have testosterone level higher than women usually do, they are “not in a situation as a result of their own decisions, but

rather because they have been born with these sexual characteristics by a random act of nature” (p. 66). This is a fair argument. However, the question is which gender category should individuals with hermaphroditism compete in? Should sports organisations allow those individuals with a clear physiologically caused competitive advantage compete against women athletes just because they were “born that way”? Or should there be established a new gender category, changing classical gender binary system with only “man” and “woman”? In this case would individuals like to perform under the category of a “third sex”, opening themselves for more investigations, discussions and rumours? This is one of the challenges which sports organisations have to face today.

Sports organisations inconsistencies?

Even though sports organisations are trying to regulate some biological aspects, the issue is more complicated than it might seem at first. According to Camporesi (2015), there are plenty of genetic variations that are not regulated by the IOC, the International Association of Athletic Federations (IAAF) or any other international sports organisation, and which are advantageous for athletic performance but are not being considered unfair.

Such cases are not rare among athletes. 1960s Finnish winner of seven Olympic medals Eero Mantyranta had a genetic mutation (primary familial and congenital polycythemia) which increases up to 50% in the blood oxygen carrying capacity (a great advantage for endurance events). Another example is Michael Phelps who has Marfan syndrome, a rare genetic condition characterised by long limbs and flexible joints which gives an obvious advantage in swimming.

Athletes have always been using advantages coming from their biological variations, and in this regard gender disorders such as hyperandrogenism (enhanced testosterone level) and some others are not different. According to Sullivan (2011), “there will always be genetic variations that provide a competitive edge for some athletes over others. We readily accept the genetic, athletic gifts that elite athletes possess without trying to find ways to ‘level the playing field’” (p. 414). According to Camporesi (2015), all exceptional biological and genetic variations are a part of what the elite athlete is, and these variations are ethically acceptable.

From this viewpoint sport organisations banning athletes with some biological variations and not banning others do not behave consistently. Banning hyperandrogenism or another gender genetic variation means that it might be possible to ban athletes for such characteristics as oxygen carrying capacity, or very simply height, too. The reason why the IOC and IAAF are focused on androgens and other gender variations is because they need to keep the binary classification system (man/woman), though nowadays there is evidence of the diversity in human sex and gender identities. According to Camporesi (2016), requiring women to “undergo androgens suppressive therapies or other sexual ‘normalization’ surgeries in order to compete” means only that “the world of competitive sports is still living in the nineteenth century” (p. 184).

Conclusion

Gender verification was aimed at preserving women’s sports and preventing men from participating in women’s competitions. Methods of gender verification were changing but achievements of genetics and medicine did not make it trustworthy enough. The procedure began to reveal women with chromosomal aberrations but could not identify individuals who really had an advantage over other female competitors due to certain disorders, such as hermaphroditism. Gender verification testing and the development of gender policies have put into question the very meaning of “man” and “woman” and the existence of only two gender categories in sport. Besides, gender testing opened a gate to question levels of acceptance of other biological and genetic variations, such as height or long limbs. Nowadays sports organisations demonstrate inconsistency in policy regarding biological and genetic issues, accepting one and not accepting other variations.

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EDUCATED AND ETHICAL JUDGING – A BEDROCK OF MODERN OLYMPISM

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“Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy found in effort, the educational value of a good example, social responsibility and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles” (Olympic Charter, 2017, p. 11).

A common perception is that the Olympic Games are the premier sporting event in the world because they continue to embody the principles outlined by Pierre de Coubertin in 1894 when he established the International Olympic Committee. A daunting mystique surrounds the Games – a magic that must be nurtured and protected. The Games support the development of athletic ability and the creation of leaders in today’s youth. Figure skating judges in Canada and the United States aid in nurturing athletes from very young ages to grow and evolve into exceptional role models. With demanding requirements for qualifications and varied teaching tools used by facilitators, volunteer judges provide a broad base from which to encourage role model development. The training of judges, their recruitment, and retention must be carefully considered. These components must align with the high degree of integrity demanded not only of Olympic judges but also of all figure skating officials from “Learn to Skate” to the World Championships. Without the utmost integrity, the Olympic Movement would suffer from a corruption of its world-wide reputation. An ethical blot is devastating for the Modern Olympic Games such as the judging scandal in Salt Lake City in 2002 (Smith, 2002) and similar problems at the PyeongChang Olympics this year (Waldeck, Bohm, & Petricevic, 2018). Of-

officials took steps to ameliorate these problems but we must exercise constant diligence in order to maintain their initiatives.

The broad principles of Olympism must be applied to the training of all officials in every sport. Generally speaking, Olympism is a comprehensive word which includes a complete philosophy of life. Its main goal is promoting peace and preserving human dignity through the practice of sport, without discrimination of any kind. Within Olympism, sports organizations have the right to determine their governmental structure, to control the rules of their sport, and to hold free elections (Olympic Charter, 2017). In the case of figure skating, Skate Canada and United States Figure Skating are able to write their rules for the selection and education of their own officials.

Why do individuals volunteer as figure skating officials? Two of the strongest motivators for volunteerism are altruism and personal development. Officiating is a highly professional activity which gives the volunteer feelings of increased self-esteem. Status can be a factor, as well, because the official is in the position to assist in the development of skaters – who may be any age or skill level. For many, a passion for figure skating drives them to volunteer after their skating careers are over. For these volunteers, the maintenance of social contacts is important. It is challenging and rewarding to analyze and evaluate the performance of others, always striving for excellence as a judge and helping to elicit the best performance from the athletes (Sales, 1982). Finally, many officials cite wanting to give back to their sport as a motivating factor (Livingston & Forbes, 2016). Whatever the person's motivation, officials are essential to all sports.

Currently, within Canada and the United States, a new figure skating judge must attend an in-person multi-day clinic to receive an initial promotion. This clinic is often located far from the participant's home requiring: travel, accommodations, and time off from life's commitments. Fortunately, in Canada, new judges receive reimbursement for their expenses because the cost is covered by their provincial governing body; however, in the U.S., judges are responsible for all costs associated with their training. While it is hard to predict the actual expenses for each individual judge, the amount easily reaches into the thousands over their judging careers. Attendance at these clinics does not guarantee a promotion at the end of the instructional period. A new judge in Canada is required to have a defined skating background of Skate Canada tests, while in the U.S., a skating background is not mandatory but having one does lead to a faster promotional pathway. The first event for a new judge in Canada will

be a STAR 1-4 competition. These events for beginner skaters are judged to a standard: Gold, Silver, Bronze, or Merit (Skate Canada, 2015). In the U.S., a new judge will begin his or her career at a Basic Skills competition and judge using the 6.0 system of comparison (U.S. Figure Skating, 2017). To move up the ranks in both countries, judges must learn the 'new' judging system. This often can lead to confusion for judges at having to learn two systems of evaluation in each country. It also requires further attendance at clinics and increased experiences of trial judging events. To reach the National level of judging, officials have gone through numerous clinics for each discipline: Singles, Pairs, Ice Dance and Synchronized Skating, judged countless regional events, spent considerable time away from their families, and put in the equivalent of a university's tenure process with the attendant peer-reviewed reports and exams (Skate Canada, 2015) (U.S. Figure Skating, 2017).

It is no secret that universities are increasingly using the latest advancements in technology. The University of Waterloo, in Canada, launched its pioneer distance correspondence courses in 1968 (physics), introduced the first fully online course in 1995, and currently has more than 525 online courses, including 19 completely online programs (University of Waterloo, 2018). No one can deny the usefulness and expansion of online educational programs at this university or worldwide. For figure skating in the future, the blending of traditional judge training methods with an increased educational online presence is mandatory. This combination will create a hybrid alternative in learning. Technology should be used as an additional teaching tool to reach a larger participatory group. Leroy Robinson states that "one of the new environmental dynamics is the increased desire by students to have a variety of instruction delivery options e.g., face-to-face, fully online, and hybrid alternatives" (2017, p. 99). While he is speaking about attracting students to institutions of higher learning, the same premise can be applied to officials who are motivated to contribute to figure skating "as a process of personal development and self-actualization" (Sales, 1982, p. 36). It cannot be argued that all education leads to personal development no matter what the area of study might be. Self-actualization is a term first coined by Kurt Goldstein which according to the *Oxford English Dictionary* means "a realization or fulfilment of one's true nature or ideal self". Abraham Maslow used self-actualization as the highest level of psychological development in *Psychology Review* published in 1943 (Oxford University Press, 2018). One element of self-actualization, among many others, is the quest for

knowledge. Consequently, the process used by institutions of higher learning and the motivations of skating officials are very similar in their pursuit of an ideal self – an Olympic ideal, as well.

Professors and learning facilitators need to know what leads to the successful implementation of instructional technology. Considering the variety of learning environments, Bristow, Shepherd, Humphreys, and Ziebell (2011) state that both student perception and attitude have a huge impact on the progress of online learning and on the direction that this progress will take. F. D. Davis outlines a technology acceptance model to evaluate a person's attitude toward technology and how it is influenced by its perceived usefulness and anticipated ease of use (Robinson, 2017). Learners embrace technologies that will give them an advantage and increase their productivity. For maximum efficiency, the learner needs a perceived lower learning curve, which results in an enhanced output, an increased perception of functionality, and lends itself to an increase in energy. This increase allows the learner to become more utilitarian in other aspects of his or her endeavour which results in over-all improved performance (Robinson, 2017). These concepts can easily be applied to the methods used by learning facilitators when training officials using new technology.

Individual differences account for variations in a willingness to try new technologies. For those who are reluctant, learning facilitators must meet these officials at their comfort level. At the same time, they need to encourage them to develop increased computer competency to a point where all are secure with online programs. Aypay, Celik, Aypay, and Sever think that when people are given adequate support, they develop a positive attitude toward the acceptance of technology (Robinson, 2017). Students and learning facilitators have varying degrees of preparedness and as a result, this fact must be considered when determining the degree of technical support. With an adequate amount of support and a positive attitude, the student or learning facilitator is able to promote online learning and act as an agent for change.

On one hand, the benefits of training officials online include affordability in the delivery model and a low cost for the receiver. Accessibility is a prime advantage for those who work full-time or have life responsibilities. On the other hand, a disadvantage may be the lack of face-to-face interaction. However, there are methods to circumvent this deficiency by using support personnel such as remote access to qualified judges who would be available to answer questions on the telephone or in person. A process of real time video com-

munication could be used, as well as in-home support and in-home training (Robinson, 2017). Another disadvantage of online education arises when students are undisciplined, not dedicated, or lack an extended focus; the individual must develop these qualities for future judging success, as officials need these characteristics. An extended focus is of prime importance as judging hours are long, often lasting multiple days, and take place in a cold environment.

The successfulness of these suggestions will only be acknowledged when they are put into real-life praxis. The ultimate aim is to encourage figure skating to modernize its delivery method of educational programs for the attraction and retention of officials, who will continue to uphold the highest standard of integrity demanded at the Olympic level.

Without an exemplary benchmark of honour, the result can be something similar to the judging scandals of Nagano 1998 (Elliott, 2002), Salt Lake City 2002 (Smith, 2002), and PyeongChang 2018 (Waldeck, Bohm, & Petricevic, 2018). These scandals deface and embarrass figure skating officials and the world of sport. The 2002 scandal ultimately led to the new judging system which was first used at Worlds in 2005 (International Skating Union, 2005) and at the Olympics in 2006 (International Skating Union, 2006). This system aims to eliminate judging blocs between or among countries – alliances which seek to pre-determine the outcome of events. Both Canada and the U.S. have a long and complex process to qualify as officials for the highest level of sport – the Olympics. By making the process an extended one with built-in steps along the way, the type of person who might act in an unethical manner will most likely drop out of such a structured and rigid system.

However, no organization involving humans is infallible. Inga Wolfram, a sport psychologist, points out that the brain has too many steps to deal with in forming judgements about complicated movements in sport. According to her, humans do not have the capacity to process so much complex information with time constraints and an inherent desire to do the right thing. In figure skating, the official must consider both the technical and the artistic aspects of each element. Wolfram suggests this is beyond human capabilities so judges are forced to rely on their own knowledge which in turn is based on the athlete's reputation, previous performances, and team affiliation. Therefore, decisions are influenced by many types of bias: patriotic, reputational, rank order, and memory-influenced. Wolfram advocates making the system less complex and thus, it would be easier for a human to navigate it fairly (2010). Another fac-

tor to consider with regard to ethics is the fact that ethical behaviour must be represented at the top of any organization so that it will trickle down through all levels of the institution and become expected behaviour. Those at the top of the hierarchy must lead by example and must be transparent in all of their activities (Heskett, 2011) in order to promote and maintain ethical actions.

Everyone involved has a part to play in the recruiting of ethical officials and also in their retention. Recruiting needs to be an active endeavour not one accomplished merely by happenstance. Both Skate Canada and U.S. Figure Skating need to recognize their part in this recruitment by promoting judging through internal media: for example, informational articles, advertisements expressing the need for more officials, and spin-off opportunities of officiating. At the national level, both associations could interview well-known judges to speak to their level of satisfaction gained by the personal challenge of officiating. An unwritten requirement exists for coaches and current judges to be aware, at the club level, of skaters who may be interested in officiating. It is important to identify skaters who are ready to enter university or college so they can extend their involvement in the sport. For these athletes, it is a good way to remain connected to something for which they have an established interest (Livingston & Forbes, 2016). Advertising is useful at the club level through small informal educational workshops put on by current officials in each area. This form of endorsement could be as simple as verbal encouragement of a skater by a coach or an official during a skating lesson (Sales, 1982). It is imperative to encourage all skaters as without them, there is no demand for future judges.

Once an official is recruited, then retention comes to the forefront. Again, media, in the form of the U.S. *Skating* magazine and Skate Canada's e-blast newsletter, are useful in highlighting officials' profiles and encouraging judges in order to increase their personal satisfaction. Where possible, the streamlining of the promotional system may be necessary to aid retention. This time-consuming process of advancing through the ranks is very rigid, which has its benefits and its drawbacks. One might question if a system which is too rigid is conducive to retaining the very best calibre of judge; however, a structure which is too flexible promotes the wrong idea of the commitment needed for a strong official. Often, officials in remote areas do not have the number of judging opportunities afforded to people in more densely-populated regions. This situation is caused by financial considerations for transportation, accommodation, and meals for the remote official. In the interest of fairness, these isolated officials need to

have opportunities similar to those in highly-populated areas. Everything possible, including creative strategies, is necessary to recruit new officials and retain the best ones.

It is interesting to note that when Pierre de Coubertin went about the “grandiose and salutary task” of re-inventing the modern games, nations observed the transition from “the ancient world with its games” to the “modern world [which] played sport” (Goldblatt, 2016, p. 6, p. 1). The survival of the Olympic Games depends on the critically important role that officials play (Livingston & Forbes, 2016) and figure skating judges are an integral part of this group. Judges have an extremely visible media presence which along with their marks must be transparent and in tune with the highest degree of Olympism to ensure the future of the Olympics. Once recruited, judges must be continuously trained using a variety of teaching tools with an emphasis on twenty-first century online education and the goal of allowing them to fulfill their altruistic objectives. Everyone must play a part to ensure that the Olympic Games remain the premier sporting event in the world.

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Conclusions

THE ANCIENT OLYMPIC GAMES AND THEIR PHILOSOPHY

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The Acropolis located on top of the hill in Athens used to be an important site for ancient Greeks and nowadays is part of the UNESCO world heritage. The findings from the archaeological site of the Acropolis of Athens are displayed in the Acropolis Museum, which opened in 2009. The Zappeion is a building in the National Gardens of Athens. It has always been integrally linked to the Olympic Games. The Panathenaic Stadium is located on the site of an ancient stadium and it hosted the first modern Olympic Games in 1896. The Ancient Theatre of Epidaurus is considered to be the most perfect ancient Greek theatre with regard to acoustics and aesthetics. The Archaeological Museum of Epidaurus displays artefacts unearthed in the ancient site of Epidaurus.

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Palamidi is the oldest castle in Nafplio which overlooks the city. Its structure is great in magnitude with great stone architecture, walls and steps that lead from its apex right to the cathedral in the city. This site refers to the Romans, Franks, Venetians and the Turks.

Nemea, home of rich Greek history in the form of the site of the Nemea Stadium which housed one of the four Panhellenic sanctuaries of antiquity. This site was archeologically unearthed by professor Stephen Miller and his colleagues of the University of California, Berkeley, USA. The Nemea games were revived in 1994 and every four years people travel from all over the world to participate as in times of old.

Mycenae was deemed a world heritage site by UNESCO; the site has been

dated back to 15th to 12th centuries BCE during its reign of dominance in the Eastern Mediterranean.

4 September 2018

The Ancient Olympic Games have been an integral part of the Greek culture for at least one thousand years, but it is hard to define exactly when they started and ended. They took place every four years, were of great interest, held a sacred oath and had been a sport festival. There were several differences between them as well (the games only took place in Olympia, women were not allowed to participate, etc.). The typical Games programme began with the athletes arriving after 30 days of training in Elis. The participants of the Ancient Olympics had to be free male Greeks. Thieves, criminals, immoral or sacrilegious people were not allowed to participate. Concerning the social status of the participants, the Olympic Games in the 8th-7th century BCE were a noble pursuit, because they could afford training and travelling expenditures. The introduction of democracy meant other class athletes were attracted in the 6th-5th BCE, but the aristocrats still dominated because they could afford trainers.

5 September 2018

Until 1875, the German archaeological team was fully excavating with the consent of the Greek government.

The archeological site of Ancient Olympia contained the ancient Gymnasium, the Palaestra, Phidias' workshop, the Leonidaion, the Bouleuterion, and the sacred center *altis* which included Philippeion, Heraeion, Pelopion and the Temple of Zeus. The ancient Stadium where the competitions took place was a very important part of the site.

The lecture by Prof. Dr Mauritsch "From Homer to Lukillios, ancient sport in literary sources" was about the most important primary sources related to ancient Greek athletics (Homer, Herodotus, Plato, Aristotle, Plutarch, Pausanias, Philostatus, etc.).

The lecture by Prof. Dr Albanidis "The Olympic Games in Antiquity from those in Olympia" was devoted to Macedonian games (Dion), local Olympic

Games and iso-Olympic Games in the Hellenistic world. The Greek athletics after the death of Alexander the Great were also covered.

6 September 2018

Lecture by Dr Senff, the Director of excavation at Ancient Olympia, was devoted to the history of excavation and the archeological site.

The next two lectures were presented by Prof. Dr Albanidis. The first one was about the ancient Gymnasium, an athletic ground and playing field where all sorts of sports took place. It contained a running and wrestling complex. The institution of Ephebia existed in 124 places was covered during the lecture as well. In that time the Greek world was changing, allowing foreigners to participate in Gymnasium and Ephebia, as well as the games.

The second lecture was about “The music in antiquity”.

It was fundamental as it was essential to the religious ceremonies. There was music for boxers and pentathletes. The association between music and athletics was always very close and Greece created the basic ideal *kalokagathia*.

First presentation

Student name: Jiří Kouřil (CZE)

Title: *Ancient Olympic Victor as a Role Model*.

Second presentation

Student name: Esatbeyoglu Ferhat (TUR)

Title: *Evolution of the Paralympic Movement from the Olympic Movement and its contribution to Paralympics*.

7 September 2018

Today's lectures by Prof. Dr Peter Mauritsch were about four topics: the first topic was about social status and the winners, the second was about women's sport, the third one was about combat sports and the last one about spectators. The benefits of the victors contained mainly an Olympic wreath and *philobolia*. Ancient combat sports (boxing, wrestling, *pankration*) were the cruellest part of the ancient Olympics. Women's sport also existed in Olympia and other locali-

ties but was not as common as male sports. Women were not permitted into the stadium. Many ancient Greeks enjoyed watching and practicing sports.

8 September 2018

The modern Olympic Movement, the revival of the Olympic Games and the history of the modern Olympic Games, by Prof. Dr Georgiadis.

The Contribution of Pierre de Coubertin and Dimitrios Vikelas in the revival of the Olympic Games was about the endeavor to restore the Olympic Games, the Greek emancipation and the importance or role of some great people in this historical period. “*Zappas’ Olympic Games in 1875*” was about Zappas’ games and other similar games in Greece and other countries. It is interesting that sport was not so much important here; however art competitions had a very important role (musicians, sculpture, painting and dramatic poetry) and the trade exhibition. The second part of this lecture was about the Olympic Movement in England (W. P. Brookes); this took place e.g. the Olympic Games in Liverpool for the amateurs (1862, 1863, 1864, 1867). The third lecture by Prof. Georgiadis was about philhellenism in the end of the 19th century (Coubertin, Vikelas) and about the 1st Olympic Games in Athens (1896).

The Museum of the History of the Olympic Games of antiquity, which contained a lot of ancient sports relics, bases of the Olympic victor statues, ancient vases and tools for ancient Greek athletics (discuses, *halteres*, tips of the javelins, *aryballoi*, strigils...) was visited. The museum is separated into several rooms – one for women competitors, other for the victors or room for another Panhellenic Games, the Roman period of Olympia etc.

THE MODERN OLYMPIC MOVEMENT, THE REVIVAL OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND THE HISTORY OF THE MODERN OLYMPIC GAMES

This week saw the introduction of two new professors, Dr Norbert Müller (GER) and Dr John MacAloon (USA), as well as moving onto the Modern Olympic Movement after spending the previous week discussing Ancient Olympia and the founding of the Olympic Games thousands of years ago. Dr Müller began by discussing his background, connections to the Olympic Movement and the work he has done with the correspondence left behind by Pierre de Coubertin following his death in 1937. He then asked each student to use a chart he created detailing 120 years of modern Olympic history, seeing how much they already knew, in addition to educating them on countless other topics they could potentially research and explore. This was followed by a discussion of the more important points on the chart.

The second lecture featured Dr MacAloon, whose career studying the Olympic Movement has spanned over forty years. He presented his credentials to the class and described his research interests especially the understanding of history, not just its recording. His anthropological and sociological background, featured an emphasis on the comparative and holistic study of international cultures, including its usefulness in terms of studying the Olympic Games. Not only is each host city/country different than the last, but thousands of athletes, coaches and spectators flock to witness the best in international sport every four years.

We then examined a few photographs to show various differences in terms of cultural context. He explained how we project a person's country onto his/her achievements and treat their individual accomplishments as national ones, such as the playing of said athlete's anthem after they win a gold medal while they wear uniforms emblazoned with their country's flag, emblem and name sewn onto them. He also spoke about how Olympism has addressed the relationship

between individuality, nationality and humanity. Dr MacAloon continued by discussing the differences between ancient and modern Olympic Games in these terms. Olympism, he added, aims to promote patriotism and diminish nationalism.

After the professors' lectures, we heard from fellow seminar participant, Dr Shao-li Wang (CHN), who presented his research paper, "*Eminent Showing of the Greek Athletic Role Models: Stories of Three Chariot Victors in Ancient Olympic Games*". Dr Wang's interest in ancient equestrian events occurred after Chinese participation in modern equestrian competitions at recent Olympic Games. Our day concluded with a presentation by Dr Müller featuring films about the 1900, 1912 and 1920 Olympic Games.

Tuesday's lecture by Dr MacAloon focused on matters pertaining to the revival of the modern Olympic Games. He began by discussing various threats to the Olympic Movement from different political systems, nationalism, commercialization, corruption and doping. Dr MacAloon used the symbolism of an athlete's body, which represents the individual, national and human, in addition to non-recognised identities, including race, education, language, religion, which can sometimes prevail. We then moved onto the "religious" character of the Olympic Games. According to the conception of "social space" developed by the French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu, sport is likely to have its specific rituals. The torch relay, the opening, closing and victory ceremonies, as well as the competition make up particular "Olympic rituals", divided in three steps: separation, liminality, re-aggregation. In each situation individual, national or human identities are emphasised.

Dr Müller then took over and began his presentation on the Olympic Charter, which represents the fundamental principles of Olympism, rules and bylaws adopted by the International Olympic Committee. His goal was to emphasise and analyse the ethical and educational aspects of the Olympic Charter. We discussed the relationship between education and culture, two factors which differ between not only person to person, but country to country. We then proceeded to analyse the core of the Charter and its focal points relating to upholding the values of the Olympic Movement for future generations. Professor Müller emphasised that social responsibility, human rights, non-discrimination, human dignity and its preservation were among the most recent additions to the charter which was last updated after the last IOC Session in September 2017.

After our lectures we had presentations from Ms Erin Willson (CAN) and Mr

Matthew Essex (USA). Ms Willson presented her paper “*Understanding Athlete Maltreatment and Prevention Initiatives*”. The paper discussed the physical and emotional abuse athletes suffer at the hands of coaches, doctors and trainers. She emphasised both recent and past examples including the USA Gymnastics scandal involving former team doctor, Larry Nassar. The topic of abuse in sport has gained prominence in the previous twenty years, due in large part to extensive media coverage. Her presentation concluded by discussing organisations launched in response to the abuse crises faced by athletes and how they aim to prevent further maltreatment via educational programmes.

Mr Matthew Essex (USA) then presented his paper “*Beyond the Bank: Public Diplomacy of the Modern Olympic Movement*”, explaining the different legacies of various Olympics in recent decades. He began by discussing how intended messages from Olympic organisers in Salt Lake City and München were overshadowed by scandal and terrorism respectively. He then presented case studies on the Atlanta 1996, Sydney 2000, Vancouver 2010 and Sochi 2014 Olympic Games and how their legacies were shaped by public diplomacy before, during and after their time as Olympic host. His presentation aimed to show how different countries use various communication strategies to effectively communicate what they want a global audience watching in the stands or on televisions at home to see. However, Mr Essex’s presentation was met with some disagreement from both the professors and fellow students who argued his paper was relative and what he considered a factor in terms of legacy, might not be by someone else.

On Wednesday, Dr Müller continued his reflection on the Olympic Charter and its relevance and importance to upholding the Movement around the world. He began by discussing how the role of the International Olympic Committee is, “to take action to strengthen the unity of the Olympic Movement, protect its independence and preserve the autonomy of sport”. For example, the 2018 Olympic Winter Games in PyeongChang weren’t just about sport but thawing of relations between North and South Korea before and during the Games, including an overture from the North Korean leader, Kim Jong-un, who sent his sister to represent the country at the opening ceremony.

Other important points expressed in the Olympic Charter were the support and promotion of women in the Olympic Movement as well as doping amongst Olympic athletes. Current IOC President, Dr Thomas Bach (GER), and his immediate predecessor, Dr Jacques Rogge (BEL), have both expressed their belief

in a zero-tolerance policy in regards to doping. Another role of the International Olympic Committee as expressed in the Olympic Charter is, “to encourage and support initiatives blending sport with culture and education”, including the activities, seminars and events hosted by the International Olympic Academy (IOA) in Ancient Olympia. The Olympic Charter also emphasises the role National Olympic Committees (NOCs) must play in order to develop, promote and protect the Olympic Movement.

We then switched gears as Dr MacAloon continued his discussion regarding rituals and the games. A key aspect he focused on was the victory ceremony at the Olympic Games, which are broadcast in their entirety in some countries around the world, while others receive only snippets. This is due in large part to outside factors including political, social and cultural differences between countries the Games are broadcast in. The medal ceremonies also provide an interesting look at the life of an Olympic champion. On the one hand, the athlete receives their medal, sturdy and made of gold, symbolising the fact that for the rest of their lives, they will be an Olympic champion and that is something that can't be taken away from them. On the other, the athlete also receives a bouquet of flowers, symbolising the short careers most athletes face. Most are lucky to make one Olympics, yet alone qualify for a second, third or fourth. Eventually someone will come along and beat their records, become the new Olympic champion and receive their own eternal glory. Additionally, Dr MacAloon compared festivals and spectacles. Festivals, he said, were usually associated with joy and happiness, while spectacles were more of an event causing a sensation in people that makes you wonder if it's all a big show and someone is trying to manipulate your emotions.

After the lectures, we had two more student paper presentations from Ms Kendia Brathwaite (BAR) and Mr Einārs Pimenovs (LAT). Ms Brathwaite presented her research on female athletes as role models and discussed the decline of women in leadership and coaching positions across sport, as well as the importance of women as role models for young girls. Mr Pimenovs presented his research on judo training entitled, “Development of Long-Term Athlete Development Training Systems for Judo Athletes in Latvia”. This included an introduction to the sport, the main challenges it faces as well as how athletes can succeed and become judo champions.

The following morning, Dr MacAloon began his lecture on opening ceremonies. This day's lectures focused heavily on how they have been used as av-

venues of creation by various artists from various backgrounds including film and theatre. The ceremonies also represent a partnership between the International Olympic Committee, the host city/country, scholars, artists and the public it is intended to amaze. These ceremonies are also incredibly difficult to orchestrate, as billions of people from around the world will be watching them, and as Dr MacAloon alluded to during his presentation, if the director gets it wrong, the consequences can prove to be catastrophic and deadly. In large part, ceremony directors take this into account and put on a spectacular show. Dr MacAloon also discussed how individual cultures can influence the lead up to the Games. For instance, during the torch relay for the 1988 Summer Olympics in Seoul, torch bearers wore white gloves out of respect for the flame and its sacred meaning. In addition, thick smoke bellowed from the torch, a departure from traditional torch relays, but meant to signify incense, an important part of South Korean culture added by the host city and country to differentiate their relay from everyone else's.

Dr Müller then began his presentation on Agenda 20+20, a central aim of IOC President Thomas Bach that he presented shortly after taking over from Jacques Rogge. Agenda 20+20 represents 40 goals and aspirations he hoped the international Olympic Movement would achieve including reductions in the cost of bidding for the Games, raising awareness of opportunities and risks of hosting the Games and building an Olympic channel. Other objectives include maximising synergies within the Olympic Movement, protecting and honouring clean athletes as well as encouraging participation in sports regardless of sex, age, gender or physical abilities.

The day's student presentations featured Ms Vivien Altmann-Morrelli (GER), Mr Bram Constandt (BEL) and Ms Heidi Gromstad (NOR). Ms Altmann-Morrelli applied her expertise in experiential marketing to the opening ceremonies of the Olympic Games. This discussion revolved around maintaining the spirit of rituals (lighting the Olympic cauldron, raising of the Olympic and national flags, the Olympic anthem, etc.), applying technology and encouraging improvement in the experiential marketing process. Mr Constandt presented his research on ethical leadership and influence of coaching figures. The coach as a role model, he argued, can have critical influence on the morality of young athletes and become a good source instilling Olympic values in them. Ms Gromstad then presented her research on the environmental issues facing the International Olympic Committee, specifically tackling issues from Sochi 2014 and Rio 2016.

She discussed how environmental policies have changed since the “Green Games” of Lillehammer in 1994 and that Agenda 20+20 calls for sustainability as a top priority including taking more seriously the issues that arise with the construction of Olympic venues.

Friday featured the final lectures from Dr MacAloon and Dr Müller. Dr MacAloon continued his discussion on the opening ceremony of the 1988 Summer Olympics in Seoul. He informed us that each colored ring of parachutists entering the stadium was made up of different nationalities’ special forces (United States, United Kingdom, East and West Germany, South Korea and the Soviet Union). We then saw a tae-kwon do (South Korea’s national martial art) demonstration (representing the collective), followed by a single child playing with a traditional toy (representing the individual). Our discussions also included how Seoul 1988 was opened by the first democratically elected president of South Korea in generations, the fact that these were the last opening ceremonies hosted in the daytime and the lighting of the Olympic cauldron led to international outcry after some pigeons resting on the cauldron were believed to have been incinerated by the flame. Since Seoul ’88, the “releasing of the doves” has replaced live doves and pigeons with a facsimile demonstration created by the organisers of the opening ceremonies in various countries.

Mr Müller discussed Olympic education and its role in keeping the Olympic Movement alive. This included peace education in the post-World War I era and how South Korea and North Korea coming together at the 2018 Winter Olympics in PyeongChang represented an opportunity for two countries still in a technical state of war, to come together through sport. He also discussed how bringing the youth of the world together for an Olympic conference such as this one, based in Olympia, and centered around the literal heart of the modern Olympic founder, Pierre de Coubertin, helps foster closer relations between peoples of the world in order to discuss challenges facing the Olympic Movement.

We then heard presentations from Ms Karolina Nazimek (POL), who discussed the current state of Olympic venues in Cortina d’Ampezzo, host of the 1956 Winter Games, and Ms Maike Weitzmann (GER), who presented her research on cost and revenue overruns of the Olympic Games from 2000-2018. Our week concluded with a tour of the Athens 2004 Museum where we learned about the city’s bid and Olympic memorabilia related to the Games.

OLYMPIC EDUCATION AND SOCIO-POLITICAL ASPECTS OF THE MODERN OLYMPIC GAMES (MEDIA AND COMMUNICATION, MANAGEMENT, ORGANISATION AND MARKETING)

The first lecturer for this week was Prof. Dr Yannis Theodorakis (University of Thessaly, Greece). His main message was “through sport, we can change the world”.

On Monday, the topic of the day was “from sports to everyday life all people are different, all people are equal”. The Olympic Games from previous years aimed to promote education and inclusion. This was showcased in order to give the overview of the upcoming activities for the week. Participants of the seminar discussed whether it was possible to change the world through sport or not. Sport was recognised by the group as a universal language which has the capacity to unite people of various backgrounds. Topics regarding the promotion of Olympic values, fair play and solidarity were offered to the participants for group discussions.

On Tuesday, Professor Theodorakis discussed Olympic education. He started the class asking the students about gender equality and a lively debate followed. The professor spoke of educational programmes and the importance of Olympic values: respect, friendship, and excellence. He also talked about other important values: determination, equity, inspiration and courage. He brought up the case of Kathrine Switzer, first woman participant in the Boston Marathon and showed a short video interview with her. He reviewed the programme of Olympic education used in Greece between 2000 and 2005.

On Wednesday, Dr Theodorakis spoke about two different educational initiatives. The project “all different, all equal” was introduced and he explained the underlying political reasons, which are strongly linked to the values of the European Union (e.g. gender equality, peace, solidarity). The project aims to fight intolerance, prejudice, racism and discrimination among others. Following the introduction, the question was raised whether sport plays a role to support

this movement or whether it is mainly theory, which was discussed among the students.

Consequently, the professor stated that the original project was continued in the Kallipateira project, which was an Olympic education programme in 2005 and named after the first woman to visit the Ancient Olympic Games. This project aims to solve problems without violence, promote fair play and support the initial message “all different, all equal”. Ultimately, the professor highlighted that the focus of the lecture was on the inclusive spirit of sport and many examples of physical education games were tried by the participants.

On Thursday, the first lecture was related to aggression in sport. Aggression is very prevalent in many sports, especially team sports. The professor highlighted aggression through different photos, and the difference of a violent situation and a sports situation that might be aggressive outside the sports arena. He explained other factors that might influence aggression in sport: level of arousal –difficulties in controlling their emotions and stress levels, the coach can increase the aggression in their athletes, aggression from themselves– athletes may not control their emotions well, the behaviour of the coach in confronting the referee –bad impact on athletes, spectators and aggression– alcohol during the game, and media – for him, media has a strong impact on sharing violent and aggressive behaviour.

The second half of the lesson was dedicated to the working in groups discussing, “How might you limit, or stop spectators’/athletes’ aggression in sport?” The groups decided that some solutions for athletes might be working more on self-control, the coach-athlete relationship, and improving communication within the team. Some solutions for spectators could be no alcohol in the stadium, separating spectators of both teams, using players to calm down the spectators, and more security in the stadium.

On Friday, Dr Theodorakis spoke about sports psychology. He gave some examples of imagery with a soccer kicker and receiver and showed various videos related to the topic. He reiterated the importance of positive self-talk and how it can affect an athlete’s performance.

The second lecturer for the week was Prof. Dr Jonas L. Gurgel (Fluminense Federal University, Brazil). His main topic was the study of sports mega-events legacy: from the impact to leveraging.

Throughout the week Prof. Gurgel focused on sports mega events and the legacy they leave in the wake. However before sharing the initial thoughts on this

topic, a background was given on the correct methods to gather such information about the topic. Professor Gurgel looked at different types of perspectives, making it clear to all that “there are no methods without limitations”. Definitions of terms were given to help aid in the further understanding and studying of the topic. Terms such as “interdisciplinary” research, a mode of research by teams or individuals that integrates information, were given. Further concepts were defined such as impact, sustainability and legacy. The source and credibility were also engrained as key factors which are necessary for the development of both an ethical and reliable study of such a topic.

As the week progressed the professor sought to ask two major questions for discussion:

- Why do states invest in sports mega-events?
- Who benefits from hosting sports mega-events?

On the second day the professor began another group discussion with participants to stimulate a talk about “why states invest in sports mega-events and who benefits from hosting such events”. All of the participants’ views were taken into consideration with most sharing similar opinions stating: soft power, attractivity, stimulation of economy and prestige of the games were all reasons associated with hosting a mega event. The professor proceeded to explain the difference between giga-event, mega event and major events.

The topic “Sports Mega Event Legacy: Concepts & Definitions” from the previous class was continued by introducing the concept of Scientometrics (the study of measuring and analysing science, technology and innovation). Consequently, the professor took a more detailed approach toward scientific evidence by introducing the relevance of meta-analysis, integrative and systematic reviews. Integrative review is a specific review method summarising past empirical or theoretical literature to provide a more comprehensive understanding of a particular phenomenon or healthcare problem. Systematic review answers a defined research question by collecting and summarising all empirical evidence that fits pre-specified eligibility criteria. Meta-analysis uses statistical methods to summarise the results of these studies. These topics were then related to practical examples such as when Rio De Janeiro won the rights to host the 2016 Olympic Games.

On the following day Professor Gurgel reviewed “Scientific Evidence: from Dogmas to the Transient Truths” by raising the topic through question of “Will SME increase the physical activity level and sports participation in the

population of the host city and country?” Scientific evidence was presented using Sydney 2000 as an example. The lecture concluded by stating that there is a lack of evidence of the impact of major multi-sport events on the host population as well as pointing out the need for long-term evaluation as essential element of these events.

On the final day the question was posed “Should the Olympics exist?” For this purpose, three discussion groups were created and a mock trial was conducted. The aim of this debate was to emphasise the knowledge of mega events. It was concluded that organising Olympic Games could have a positive impact in various aspects of the host country (e.g. raising awareness of the Olympic vision among the public, breaking the barriers among countries such as North and South Korea) but at the same time there could be negative outcomes (e.g. political issues, finances, human right and environmental issues). It must be noted that the final verdict was given by the jurors against mega events being hosted due to the arguments presented by both groups.

Student Paper Presentations

Throughout the week, the following students presented their papers:

- Katharina Neumann: “Can knowledge transfer be safeguarded in sport development programmes” devoted to knowledge transfer at the Olympic Youth Development Centre (OYDC) in Zambia, which belongs to the Sport for Hope programme of the IOC.
- Fernando Enrique Heiden Zapata: “Kristel Kobrich Schimpl: the Olympic trajectory of a swimmer and the impact of her leadership on Chilean athletes” related to the role of a personal athlete’s example and its influence on other athletes.
- William Douglas de Almeida: “The Olympic representation as a rescue of a family identity” devoted to athletes’ connections with countries they represent at international competitions, their nationalities and family identities.
- Eridiola Buzi: “Pro-social and anti-social values (fair play) in Physical Education” devoted to the definition of fair play, previous academic work and the presentation of her study of the topic within the context of Albanian schools.

- Manika Tomar: “Why villages are an important area of study for sports and talent identification in India and how does politics play a role in guiding it” devoted to the explanation of the theme’s relevance and the exemplary data from India.
- Adolfo Nieto Losada: “PyeongChang 2018 on social media: the impact of top athletes during the Winter Games” devoted to the historical facts about Olympics and social media as well as the usage of big data techniques study the engagement between people and ten athletes on Facebook and Twitter.
- Riham Aljallad: “Challenges facing Olympic Athletes in Martial Arts Sports in Jordan” devoted to her multi-disciplinary study on the multiple encounters professional athletes face in Jordan.
- Narges Taghizadeh Moghaddam: “Attitude measurements of effect of female Iranian athletes’ success in Olympic Games on promoting involvement of Iranian women in social and sport spheres” devoted to the situation and development on woman’s participation in sports in Iran.
- Chuan-Yu (Joey) Tseng: “The long-term career planning of athletes under the theory of career development in Taiwan cases” devoted to the application of a theoretical model on the current athletic situation in Taiwan.
- Rodrigo Tadini: “Places of Olympic memory, events and tourism: The case of sport development in Niteroi, Brazil” devoted to possibilities to improve the tourism in Niteroi with sports events.
- Rashid Abdul Rahiman: “Evolution of football in the Olympics” devoted to an analysis of the interrelation between Olympic Gold Medallists and their participation in subsequent FIFA World Cups.
- Jorge Martin Martin: “Social Leadership in the life of Javier Guerra Polo and it’s inter-relationship with the Olympic values” devoted to the importance of the family in the career of the marathon runner Javier Guerra Polo.
- Sukriti Bhardwaj: “Impact and Tourism development in the Commonwealth Village – An analysis of the socio-cultural legacy since the 2010 Games” devoted to multi-disciplinary impacts of the Games on the host city and society.
- Andrei Brovkin: “Rotation of the sports included in the programme of the Olympic Games based on the evaluation of their development” devoted

to the necessity to apply objective criteria for the inclusion/exclusion of modalities in the Olympic Games.

- Daniel Whitten: “Olympians as role models; how executing complicated skills under pressure provides a role modelling experience” devoted to the complexity of internal and external factors of pressure towards the performance of the athlete.

THE ETHICAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL ISSUES OF OLYMPISM AS WELL AS THE ATHLETES' RIGHTS IN THE MODERN OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

Day 1

The topic of the week is “The ethical and philosophical issues of Olympism as well as the athletes’ rights in the modern Olympic Movement”. The first lecture presented by Prof. Dr Irena Martinkova had the title “Phenomenology: An Introduction, The human being as the role model”.

Prof. Dr Irena Martinkova presented herself and the programme for the rest of the week before explaining that a common understanding of what the human being is in a phenomenological perspective is fundamental for the rest of this week’s lectures. Further the differences between analytical and phenomenological traditions were defined to establish an understanding of the field.

Prof. Dr Martinkova defined phenomenology as going back to the things themselves and acknowledge the process of the experience. Seven important phenomenologists were mentioned, but the lecture was based on the ideas of Heidegger and Sartre. Three main characteristics of phenomenology were explained: 1) First person perspective. 2) Ontology-What does it mean “to be”, and the difference between ontic and ontological. 3) How do we experience? Based on the theories of Heidegger. The main concept of Sartre was that through our existence we create our understanding of humans.

Based on the concepts mentioned above Prof. Dr Martinkova concluded that athletes are role models even though some are more visible than others, athletes should be aware of their impact and act accordingly to their role. It is important to mention that the theories presented by her stress that every human being is an example and a role model, and every person will act in the best way possible for yourself.

The second lecture was held by Prof. Dr Emanuele Isidori with the topic

“Role model education and its key points”. After an introduction and background the professor mentioned examples such as Rudyard Kipling and *The Jungle Book* understand the importance of role models in the education of youth. Further the social learning theory by Bandura (1986) was interpreted. The main concept of the theory explains the basis of experiential learning with how we are through values, beliefs and attitude through interaction. In this process role models are considered key players. Education can be both formal through an institution e.g. a school or informal e.g. parenting or other social interaction.

The Bucher’s experiment was presented, and the result shows young people from Austria and Germany consider personalities of social nearness as the most important role models before movie, television and sport figures. It is hard to define a role model, but qualities such as using their position to share messages of inspiration and hope, behave in ways that reflect high moral values, present him/herself in a realistic and responsible manner and accept their role was mentioned as important features. Prof. Dr Emanuele Isidori concluded that Olympic athletes are role models whether they choose it or not, but the term role model is complex because of different perceptions of what a role model is may be different in cultures, countries and groups of people.

The first student presentation was held by Felipe Marchetti on the topic “Match-fixing: A threat to the integrity of Olympic sports.” Match fixing is manipulating the final result or incidents during the match to gain financial profit. There are two different types of match fixing; 1) Related to sport games and 2) Related to sport betting. This has been an internationally increasing problem after the internet became accessible for everyone. Match fixing may have an economical impact on sports due to lack of credibility. Further recommendations are protection and education of athletes, international cooperation and investigation, and severity of sanctions.

The second student presentation was held by Lidia Lesnykh with the topic: “Student athlete: an alternative model of Olympic athlete? 1923 to 1939 (France, Italy)”. The international university sports movement was founded in 1919. Lidia compared students from France and Italy in within the timeframe and concluded that even though there were some international differences due to the regime (fascism in Italy) the values of the international university sports movement were similar to the Olympic Movement. Both France and Italy supported the Anglo-Saxon sport system.

The final presentation was held by Narinthra Chantasorn and the topic was “The Thailand Olympian: Success and Support”. She presented some examples from the Olympic Games, more specific some successful stories from Thailand during the games. Several reasons for success and support were mentioned. Both psychological and physiological factors were crucial for both success and support. Motivation, goal setting, social support system and quality training were key principles of success. The most important factor found was the relationship between the athlete and the coach.

Day 2

The morning lecture began with Professor Jim Parry posing the question “what is wrong with doping?” This topic was met with excitement because it is a highly relevant issue the International Olympic Committee is dealing with today. In fact, just last week it was announced that Russia has been reinstated by the World Anti-Doping Agency. The professor’s question lead to group discussions where we came up with a variety of reasons as to why doping is wrong. These answers included: Enhancement; unfair in terms of cost, medical, investment in science not sport, unequal access to resources; unnatural; illegal; coercion; and goes against the spirit of sport.

Once the class came up with the reason, we were faced with a new task, find a way to argue against each of these points. This was a great exercise in learning how to build an argument and create a strong opinion. The theory behind this is that by facing objections to your argument, you can be able to better defend your standpoint, or provide clarity to help prove your point. Conversely, if the counter argument is stronger than your initial point, it may be an indicator to change your point of view. After an hour long discussion looking at both sides of the ethical debate of doping, it was determined that the reason why doping was wrong was because as an athlete, you take an oath that you would compete honestly and then went against this oath.

The second lecture was a discussion about athletes as role models. The professor suggested that successful athletes should use their power to positively influence younger generations. Several characteristics were provided as to what makes a good role model including: being enthusiastic about promoting change, sharing messages of inspiration and hope, and making a commitment to behave in ways that reflect high moral values. The last point about having

high moral values became an interesting debate, where many students questioned whether a successful athlete should be required to be a positive influence in all aspects of life.

Professor Parry asserted that to be considered a role model, you must not only exemplify good qualities on the field, but also in the other aspects of life. This was met with the argument that a role model may be an inspiration in one area, for example, their skill, determination, work ethic, but this does not mean they necessarily have to be a positive example in every other manner, for example, spend time volunteering, having a drama-free home life, staying away from partying, etc. Some of the students argued that athletes do not need to be a role model in every way. For example, Tiger Woods can be admired for his golf ability and his hard work to break down racial barriers in sport, and can be considered a role model in that regard, but we do not view his infidelity and personal choices to be exemplary, so while this aspect had some imperfections that his role model status should not be taken away.

During the student presentations, the ethical considerations of gender testing were discussed. This included the history of gender testing to identify and protect the women's category in sport, and some of the more recent issues that have emerged when athletes do not meet the criteria of the women's category even though they were born a woman and identify as a woman. For example, having a higher level of testosterone in the blood than the typical women. This was particularly a debate around other genetic predispositions that have enhanced sport performance, including Michael Phelps' Marfan syndrome. Why is this genetic modification allowed and praised, while having a naturally increased level of testosterone can disqualify a female from participation.

In the afternoon we learned about six different countries during the country presentations. We learned the history of Chinese Taipei and the differences between this name and Taiwan, and the beautiful land of Croatia, along with its extensive history of war. We learned about the democratic systems in India, and the complexity around voting in the country, and the intricacies and uniqueness of Turkey. We saw the many sides of Iran, often not seen on TV, and finally were told about the wine and olives of Italy.

Day 3

Wednesday 26 September 2018 marked the second last day of lectures of

the Seminar. The programme of the day was structured based on the lectures of both Professor Emanuele Isidori (University of Rome “Foro Italico”) and Professor Irena Martinkova (Charles University in Prague). As the student paper presentations had been finished the day before, sufficient time was present for Professor Jim Parry (Charles University in Prague and University of Leeds) to enrich the planned programme with an additional lecture. All content fitted nicely within the central theme of the week, namely the ethical and philosophical issues related to Olympism.

The first lecture of the day was provided by Professor Emanuele Isidori on the Greek athlete as a role model. Guided by a detailed explanation of the virtues Greek athletes were expected to strive for, such as *aidos* (respect), *andreia* (courage), and *harmonia* (citizenship), professor Isidori indicated the aim of these athletes was to come to a distinct way of living or lifestyle, called *diaita*. Moreover, the content of the lecture was illustrated by a short, yet informative video. Finally, a discussion took place regarding the connection between the different concepts related to the Greek virtues and their relevance for the Olympic Movement of today.

After that Professor Irena Martinkova informed us about the different meanings related to authenticity in sport. Authenticity is often used in our societies in rather ironic commercial contexts (e.g. campaigns convincing kids to be Barby and their selves at the same time). The same conclusion applies for sport, in which authenticity is a common and important term. Drawing on the work of seminar philosophers Heidegger (and his concept of *dasein*) and Sartre, Professor Martinkova demonstrated two levels of authenticity exist, namely an ontic/empirical and an ontological level. The philosophical content of her lecture was then supplemented with a lively discussion regarding such topics as being an authentic athlete under increasing social and cultural pressures, and the authenticity of certain Olympic sports (e.g. surfing in a swimming pool with artificial waves).

The third and final lecture of the day was given by Professor Jim Parry, who argued philosophy of sport is all about discussing ideas in function of proposing simple solutions to complex issues. Furthermore, we implemented this way of thinking in an engaging and active exercise to define the meaning of sport. In the end, six necessary conditions (e.g. human, physical, rules-governed, competitive, skillful, and institutionalized) were identified to draw the demarcation

line for the concept of sport. The importance of having a clear definition of sport was then reinforced with several examples of what sport is not.

Day 4

Lecture 1

Dr Isidori presented the lecture on *Ancient Olympics Myths and their Function*. Role modelling from ancient times involved the athletes and the re-enactment of heroic virtues, they were performing mythological religious rituals which eventually had links to military practices. Myth was at the very base of Olympic function. For Ancient Greeks, myth was a form of scientific knowledge about the world. Myth was for them an educational tool.

Functions of Myth

- Cosmological – means universe
- Historical – ancient sport had a religious implication on social values and people
- Sociological – social order changes all the time
- Psychological – always gives a mental order

Myth can be a wonderful pedagogical tool to teach Olympic values in schools and universities when focused on these concepts.

The group then watched a video about the Greek Gods “The Gods of Mount Olympus”;

- Explained to be flawed
- Myths helped the Greeks understand; nature, morality and history
- Greeks were like us – enjoyed stories being told Socrates put forth the Euthyphro Dilemma
- Hubris – arrogant, the demigods had Hubris and were as such punished by the gods

The lecturer spoke about the stories about each god –made links of myths to the topics of Olympic education– proposed that the myths can still be used in modern society. We then separated into groups and linked myths to how it can be educational for athletes.

Lecture 2

Fair or Temple? The Choice Athletes must make

Philosophy of Existence is an example of an application of ideas of phenomenology. Values – form the understanding of ourselves and the world as well as our sporting engagement. Olympism and Pierre de Coubertin were stressed as an important educational strategy. Dr Martinkova made the distinction between Sports Championships (SC) and Olympic Games (OG) by referring to both being comprised of competitive sport but SC being without education and OG being with education. The lecturer referred to an important quote from de Coubertin regarding Fair and Temple – sportsmen must make their choice; they cannot expect to frequent both one or the other...let them choose.

Choice	Description	Values	Consequences
Fair	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sport practised in the spirit as we are usually used to live • Development of a set of skills • Orientation on the self (egoism) • Tough struggle • Defeating others • Greediness • Endless progress • Vulgar competition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Victory • Profit • Self-assertion • Self-confirmation • Similar to everyday life 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One against another • Sadness and frustration • Failure to respect opponents • Animosity to opponents • Violence • Cheating • Performance enhancing drugs
Temple	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of a set of skills • Regulated competition • Do sport with others • Sharing of experiences • Improving the whole self with joy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding the self and others • Respect the self and others • Friendship with other athletes • Regular joyful participation • Seeking excellence • Balance and harmony 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Better self-understanding and understanding of



Closing Ceremony

ANCIENT OLYMPIA, 28 SEPTEMBER 2018

CLOSING ADDRESS
on behalf of the Supervising Professors of the Seminar
by Prof. Dr Irena MARTINKOVA (CZE)

For me it is both an honour and a responsibility to represent the lecturers, to speak as one for many, even though I did not have the chance to meet those who lectured during the previous weeks. Together, all of us, the ten lecturers from seven different countries have been a diverse group from different backgrounds, with different languages, ideas, customs and traditions. This gives a great opportunity to learn from one another, but we also learn from you, the participants.

Your attentiveness in lectures and development of your own understanding of the topics in our lectures has not gone unappreciated. Obviously, not every lecture will be meaningful to everyone, but it is our hope that each of you will take home some new ideas, an appreciation for the discussed topics within the main theme of the seminar, “Role Models”, that was discussed from various perspectives in relation to sport and Olympism, a better understanding of Olympism and the desire to continue your involvement in the Olympic Movement. If we have accomplished this, we will have met our challenge.

Our life together here at the Academy has been enhanced, not only by the idyllic setting, but especially by our interaction with one another and with you. New friendships and new understandings emerge in various ways which accompany the formal lectures – especially through discussion in groups, both formal and informal; during sporting activities; by sharing time during the meals or standing outside the cafeteria during morning breaks; during the walks to Olympia and visits to the site of the ancient Olympic Games.

And so the circle of friends of all of us has widened. Together we enclose the goodness of the Olympic spirit and Olympism, while keeping out the negative external forces that endanger it.

All of the good times and fond memories each of us will take home, how-

ever, are not entirely of our own making. They are due, in large measure, to the ever-present Greek hospitality. Our thanks are expressed to all of the staff at the Academy: the cooks, the groundskeepers, the administrators, the audio-visual technicians, the bus drivers, the maids, and all those “behind the scenes” who create the smooth operation of daily life. And, of course, none of us would be here without the gracious invitation of the Hellenic Olympic Committee and the Ephoria of the International Olympic Academy.

It only remains for me to wish you a good trip home. Καλό ταξίδι! - Kaló taxídi!

CLOSING ADDRESS
of the Seminar Proceedings
by the Honorary Dean of the International Olympic Academy
Prof. Konstantinos GEORGIADIS

The Seminar began its works in 1993.

Twenty-five years full of friendships, educational memories, experiences, creative discussions, ideas and dreams.

Gradually, the Seminar gained a glory thanks to the participation of young researchers on Olympic issues from all over the world, who enriched with their ideas its structure, philosophy and content.

The selected Professors, eminent on Olympic Studies, who embraced the philosophy and the humanistic approach of the Olympic Movement, contributed in this effort. Their educational ideas were relayed to the younger ones who, on their turn, returned to the Academy in order to hand them over to the next ones, like a torch-bearer passes on the Olympic flame.

In cooperation with your Supervising Professors, during this Seminar you developed high level academic discussions and dialogues, searching the deeper meaning of sports action and Olympism.

Moreover, you lived and experienced the values and the principles of Olympism through a wonderful and unique relationship that you created with each other. Values and principles are the basis in order to shape virtuous citizens and to live in a peaceful and socially fairer world.

The high level of your education and your universal training, places you in a small group of people who will most likely be asked to serve demanding positions in our society.

The IOA expects you to become active citizens and ambassadors of the Olympic ideal in your countries. You should become active members in your NOAs and create respective programmes of Olympic education.

Each one of you contributed to the success of this Seminar following the

Olympic ideas and in this way you should continue to show respect, solidarity and friendship to the others regardless of their social status, religion or nationality.

I would like to thank each one of you not only because you created an excellent academic environment together with your Supervising Professors, but also for the positive image you gave as a group.

I would like to thank Professor Martinkova and Professor Isidori, as well as all the Supervising Professors, for their contribution to the Seminar. I would also like to thank all of you wholeheartedly and especially Ivana who coordinated the works of the Seminar so successfully with hard work and administrative skills in a friendly and social way.

Finally, I would like to thank Vaggelis and all the IOA staff.

We wish all of you wholeheartedly the best of luck.

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