

# **A Meta-narrative Review of Olympic Education and its Implications for Realist Evaluation of Programmes for Tokyo 2020**

By

Bo Ra Hwang

Doctoral Thesis

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of  
Doctor of Philosophy of Loughborough University

September 2018

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## Abstract

This thesis has sought to examine the conceptualisation(s) of the field of Olympic education identified in the English language literature, and to evaluate the planning of Olympic education in practice, specifically in relation to the preparation of Olympic education programmes and systems for the Tokyo 2020 Olympics and Paralympics.

When Pierre de Coubertin introduced the modern Olympic Games, one of the ideas for the revival of the Games was to educate young people through sport. Despite Coubertin's educational philosophy, the Olympic Games have long failed to represent ideals of fair play, equal opportunity, and international harmony but being replaced by bribery, corruption, commercialism, drug use and gender discrimination instead. The IOC has strengthened the roles and mission of the Olympic bodies in particular relation to the promotion of Olympic values and Olympism through the implementation of Olympic education. As a policy aim for the Olympic Movement, the development of Olympic education programmes has become a key goal for the IOC and thus host cities/nations. Providing a concept of Olympic and Paralympic education programmes in preparation for staging the Olympic Games is a compulsory requirement for host cities and nations. However, in spite of the IOC's recent explicit and intended commitment to the development of Olympic education policies in practice, explanation of Olympic education as a concept and a set of practices is imprecise and relatively underdeveloped in the Olympic related area. In addition, there is a lack of understanding of how universal values and concepts of Olympic education are perceived and communicated in culturally diverse contexts.

The thesis is divided into two related parts, which seeks to provide two fundamental contributions to knowledge in this field. Part One is focused on *a meta-narrative review* of the English language literature on Olympic education. The methodology of a meta-narrative review is an extension of the systematic review process and facilitates the identification of the contribution of research traditions to the phenomena under review, in this case the conceptualisation and operationalisation of Olympic education. Through the process of meta-narrative review, six research traditions were identified: educational philosophy; critical sociology; curriculum development; education psychology; development of evaluation measures; and policy analysis and evaluation.

The results of the review identified how Olympic education has been conceptualised with various unfolding storylines in different research traditions, and this analysis subsequently provided the basis for the second key element of the study in the form of ‘templates’ against which to evaluate the Olympic education programmes and systems associated with Tokyo 2020.

Part Two employs a case study approach and is focused on the analysis of six cases using a *realist evaluation* methodology, employing analytic logic models and analysis of Context-Mechanism-Outcome (CMO) configurations. This facilitates the development of explicit and/or implicit causal claims about changes brought about by Japanese Olympic education programmes.

The research has also contributed to developing a critical review of Olympic education programmes in a culturally specific, non-western context. Provision of Olympic education, within the context of national legislation requiring its introduction into the school curriculum developed by various stakeholders, represents a unique and culturally specific context for its study. Not only its education system, but also the cultural and historical values embedded within Japanese Olympic education programmes derive from the Japanese understanding of Olympism and universal Olympic values based on the Japanese values such as harmony, in particular applied in the effort in the recovery from national disasters, moral values learned from Judo and physical education, and Japanese ways of expressing hospitality. Thus, this case study of Tokyo 2020 acts as an exemplar in the diffusing of ways of developing and delivering the benefits of Olympic education programmes in culturally specific context.

*Key words: Olympic education, Tokyo 2020, Tokyo 2020 Olympic education, meta-narrative review, realist evaluation, logic model*

## Acknowledgement

The four-year journey of doing PhD was not necessarily easy for me to go through but I have learned about life from every single experience whether it was a delight or painful. I am such a lucky person to have been blessed by having very supportive people around me.

First and foremost, I was honoured to have Professor Ian Henry as my supervisor and mentor. I would like to express my deepest gratitude to him for not only supervision with expertise, knowledge and dedication throughout the study but also encouraging and inspiring me throughout. I would also like to thank Dr Do Young Pyun who was examiner for the end of year reviews which every Loughborough PhD student is required to undergo in order to progress to completion of the study. His advice and insightful comments were extremely helpful in developing the argument and content of the thesis.

I would like to thank the IOC PhD Grants Committee for having awarded me a Postgraduate Research Grant to fund the fieldwork element of this thesis. In relation to the completion of the fieldwork in Japan, I am also grateful to all of the people from the University of Tsukuba, who helped me to undertake the work and to have an enjoyable and productive period of stay in Japan. I would like to express my special thanks to CORE staff members; Associate Professor Akiyo Miyazaki, Professor Hisashi Sanada, and Assistant Professor Taro Obayashi. In addition, I would like to express my appreciation of the interviewees who were willing to give up their time to participate in this research, providing rich data and valuable insights.

Nor should I neglect to thank my PhD student colleagues who accompanied me on this journey, assisting me along the way, and sharing so many enjoyable memories. Sharing time with my friends was indeed precious, and I wish all of them the best of luck in their future careers!

Last but not least, my family has always been so supportive and patient, and have contributed to any achievements I might have made. My parents have sacrificed everything for my sister, brother and me, and my sister and brother, who are my best friends, have always respected, believed in, and supported me. If I had had to live on my own in this country, I doubt that I would have been able to achieve anything. For my part I recognise my responsibility to be the best daughter and 'big sister' to my family for the rest of my life.

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# Chapter 1. Introduction

This thesis focuses on the conceptualisation(s) of the field of Olympic education identified in the literature and a review of the planning of Olympic education policy in practice in terms of development and delivery of programmes in preparation for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. This chapter aims to provide the reader with an understanding of the nature of Olympic education as a research topic along with the IOC's policy context being developed through time, and the rationale for carrying out a two-part study in this thesis.

## 1.1 Olympic education as an object of research

When Pierre de Coubertin introduced the proposal for the modern Olympic Games in 1894 with the establishment of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), one of the ideals for the revival of the Games was the centrality of education, bound up with proposals for which Coubertin was campaigning (MacAloon, 1981; Weber, 1970). He was concerned about several social problems such as poverty, disease, class conflict, and despair resulting from rapid industrialisation and urbanisation (Kidd, 1996). He sought solutions to overcome social and political crises in part through educational reform (Hoberman, 1995).

Before he had a mind to found the modern Olympic Games, in the 1880s, Coubertin in researching educational reform investigated the approach employed at Rugby School under the leadership of Thomas Arnold, who is credited with having sought to transform English physical education. Coubertin visited public schools in England and reviewed teaching approaches in order to learn how to introduce team sports like cricket and football as part of the school curriculum, not only for the purpose of physical training but also for character building among young people (Naul & Binder, 2017). He described his experiences in his book titled '*L'Education en Angleterre (Education in England)*', referring to two fundamental principles, strengthening the body by means of sport, while at the same time, developing characters, an approach adapted from Arnold's principles of public school education (Naul, 2008). Coubertin was also influenced by the ancient Greek gymnasium of antiquity. He envisioned it as a cultural site dedicated to the cult of eurythmy as a means of training body, will and mind (Naul & Binder, 2017), which became a central concept of Olympism defined as "a philosophy of life,

exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind” (IOC, 2017, p.11).

In this regard, Coubertin started to organise an international sporting event for educating young people and for creating international goodwill. His passion and enthusiasm for education was thus directly related to the establishment of the IOC and the revival of the modern Olympic Games in 1894. Along with the establishment of the IOC, as Binder (2001, p.15) cites, Coubertin and the IOC came to specify the four aims of the Olympic Movement as follows:

1. To promote the development of those physical and moral qualities which are the basis of sport
2. To educate young people through sport in a spirit of better understanding between each other and of friendship, thereby helping to build a better and more peaceful world
3. To spread the Olympic principles throughout the world, thereby creating international goodwill
4. To bring together the athletes of the world in a great four-yearly sports festival the Olympic Games

These are considered to have been reflected in the original version of the Olympic Charter<sup>1</sup>. It is evident that the goals are collectively a reflection of the nature and goals of Olympism and the Olympic Movement in their relationship with educational philosophy. In particular, Coubertin’s original perspectives on the positive promotion of education through Olympic sports have continued to be promoted and the significance of educational ideas and values are highlighted in the Fundamental Principles of the current Olympic Charter (IOC, 2017). While Coubertin introduced the concept of a modern Olympic Games with pedagogical, moral and educational ideals and wrote extensively about his educational philosophy, for example, in his publication called ‘*Pedagogie Sportive*’ (Coubertin, 1922) and multiple essays and speeches (Müller, 2000), he did not coin or employ the term ‘Olympic education’ (Naul, 2008). In

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<sup>1</sup> The Olympic Charter is the codification of the Fundamental Principles of Olympism, Rules and Bye-laws adopted by the IOC. It governs the organisation, action and operation of the Olympic Movement and sets forth the conditions for the celebration of the Olympic Games (IOC, 2017). The Charter which had been handwritten by Coubertin in 1899 (Müller, 2000) was first published in 1908 in French, under the title of *Annuaire du Comité International Olympique*. Its last revision is in force as from 15 September 2017. Although all the editions are referred to as the Olympic Charter, it is only since 1978 that it has appeared under this title.

addition to this, until the term Olympic education came into the Olympic lexicon in the 1970s (Müller, 1977), the concept of Olympic education (at least the term of Olympic education) had not appeared in the literature. Moreover, the IOC took little interest in promoting Olympism through educational initiatives as one of its main missions. Hence, explanation of Olympic education as a concept and set of practices is relatively imprecise in the IOC's policy as well as the literature. Despite the lack of understanding of the field of Olympic education, it does not mean that the IOC did not provide explicit and implicit contribution to the development of Olympic education policies in practice.

For a better understanding of the IOC's policy context relating to Olympic education, it is worth examining how the field of Olympic education has been conceptualised by the IOC as well as the relevant Olympic bodies based on specific initiatives and programmes to promote Olympism and the Olympic Movement in compliance with the IOC's policies and strategies<sup>2</sup>. The author has focused on the three following questions: 1) for what purpose was the organisation/body established? 2) what kind of policies and initiatives have been developed for the promotion of Olympic education and how have these actions been implemented? and 3) what kinds of outcome have been produced and are set to be achieved through the strategies? Five phases are identified with regard to policy development of Olympic education in the IOC's context along with a range of actions taken by the IOC stakeholders and the application of these actions and policies to the development and implementation of Olympic education.

Phase I (before the 1960s): In the earliest stage after the establishment of the IOC, the IOC mainly focused on making technical regulations relating to the Olympic Games, the eligibility rules of the IOC, and the requirements for cities/nations which desire to host the Olympics (IOC, 1955). In terms of the concept of Olympic education, the IOC at this time placed emphasis on the delivery of physical education and sport activities organised by educational institutions, without providing explicit initiatives of its own (IOC, 1933, 1955).

Phase II (1960s – 1970s): During this period, the IOC established three main organisations namely the IOA (1961), the Olympic Education Commission (1967), and the Olympic Solidarity Commission (1971). These organisations encouraged as many NOCs as possible to get involved in the promotion of educational ideals

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<sup>2</sup> The IOC's key policies and strategies in relation to the development and implementation of Olympic education identified for an understanding of the IOC's policy context here are described in Appendix A.

through various programmes. The programmes and practices were largely focused on the development of athletes, coaches, and assistance of administration but not on promoting Olympic values among young people through Olympic education (IOA, 2017; Olympic Solidarity, 1977). Nevertheless, some schools in the host cities before and during the Munich 1972 and Montreal 1976 Games taught the topic of Olympic Games in the classroom with Olympic related educational materials (Naul, 2008). In addition, the term ‘Olympic education’ came into the Olympic lexicon at the IOA Session held in 1976 (Müller, 1977). In 1978, the IOC incorporated in the Olympic Charter published for that year, a range of issues and topics (such as what had been published in a document previously entitled the Olympic Rules) within a single unified publication (IOC, 1978). In the 1979 version of the Olympic Charter, the topic of Olympic education was addressed, promoting the educating of young people in relation to its philosophy through the ‘school education system’ (IOC, 1979). This information indicates one way of delivering of Olympic education for future practices.

Phase III (1980s – 1990s): In this phase, the nature of the Olympic Games changed. It was increasingly recognised that the Olympics had failed to represent ideals of fair play, equal opportunity, international harmony with these intended outcomes being overshadowed by negative actual outcomes such as bribery, corruption, commercialism, and doping scandals instead. The IOC, thus, strengthened the roles and mission of the Olympic bodies in particular in relation to the promotion of Olympic education as an ultimate goal along with the developing the definition of ‘Olympism’ and the goals of the Olympic Movement. In addition, the IOC provided at this time a complete set of the Fundamental Principles in the Olympic Charter, which have remained unchanged from 1991 up to the present version of the Principles (IOC, 1991, 2017). Consequently, the IOC composed the IOC 2000 Commission to examine the IOC governance and the bidding process and then provided 50 recommendations for the reform (IOC, 1999). The creation of a ‘Culture and Education Commission’ was one of the recommendations. It did not stand to benefit from the integrated Commission with the separate actions of culture and education. Nevertheless, *Reform 2000* encouraged the host cities and nations to develop and implement Olympic educational programmes (Recommendation 32).

Phase IV (2000 – 2013): During this period, as the IOC brought in various policies relating to the practice of Olympic education, the concept of what precisely was to be disseminated through Olympic education and how to develop Olympic education programmes in school curricula was unclear. The IOC, thus, provided a standard model for the Olympic bodies in particular for those who are responsible for developing education programmes or activities, and for delivering them in educational settings with the key set of principles including the three core Olympic values (excellence, friendship, and respect) (Maass, 2007, p.30), and the Olympic Values Education Programme<sup>3</sup> (OVEP) (IOC, 2014a). Since 2007, candidate cities have prioritised applying these values to the development of Olympic education<sup>4</sup> (IOC, 2012b). The concept of Olympic education was evolving from seeking not only to educate young people through sport activities and physical education to delivering various elements relating to the topic of Olympic education integrated within the school curriculum. In addition to this, the Youth Olympic Games<sup>5</sup> (YOG) and its cultural and education programme were also intended to provide a direct application of these initiatives (IOC, 2012a).

Phase V (2014 - Current): In this phase, the Culture and Education Commission was divided into two separate Commissions once more: the Olympic Education Commission and the Culture and Olympic Heritage Commission (IOC, 2014d). The IOC aimed to ensure greater efficiency, considering the specifications of each of the education and culture fields respectively. The host cities/nations have been

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<sup>3</sup> With a sponsor generated donation running over for years (2005-2009) from Raymond Goldsmith, International Sports Multimedia Limited (ISM), the *OVEP* was developed in 2007 (IOC, 2014a, p.1). The *OVEP* consisted of two parts: a teaching toolkit, which was developed by Binder (2007) on behalf of the IOC, and a collection of initiatives around world, together with a web-based database available through the IOC website. The focus was on how to teach and learn the educational values of Olympism, not on Olympic facts and information. For the first time, the five educational themes of Olympism were introduced: ‘joy of effort’, ‘play fair’, ‘practising respect’, ‘pursuit of excellence’ and ‘balance between body, will and mind’ which flowed from the three core Olympic values.

<sup>4</sup> Candidate cities are required to submit an overall concept of the Olympic Games relating to the integration of culture, education, ceremonies, and city activities as part of the Games product. In the *Candidature Procedure and Questionnaire* (IOC, 2012b), Question 2.7 states that “Describe your concept for the educational programmes for the promotion and a healthy lifestyle as well as the Olympic values both in the years leading up to and during the Games” (p.72).

<sup>5</sup> The IOC accepted a proposal to organise the YOG at its 119<sup>th</sup> Session in Guatemala in 2007 (IOC, 2012a). The creation of the YOG is an explicit effort on the part of the IOC to promote Olympic education with the vision to ‘inspire young people around the world to participate in sport, and to live by the Olympic values’ (IOC, 2012a, p.1). The YOG integrates a unique Cultural and Education Programme (CEP), based on five main themes: Olympism, Social Responsibility, Skills Development, Expression, and Well-being and Healthy Lifestyles.

required to provide the concept for educational programmes for the promotion of sport and the Olympic values to be set up before and during the Olympic and Paralympic Games in the preparation process for hosting the Olympic Games (IOC, 2015). It is also evident that the IOC Agenda 2020 has influenced the development and implementation of Olympic education practices in terms of the Recommendation 22 of the Agenda 2020 with its achievements being required to be assessed and reported (initially for 2014-2017) in a formal report (IOC, 2014b, 2017). The IOC stresses two elements. The IOC's support for the spreading of the Olympic values, for 'Olympic values-based education programme' integrated within school curricula worldwide. In addition, the Olympic Solidarity Commission in particular has been assisting the NOCs to disseminate Olympic values-based education through its World Programme of grant aid.

Four key implications have emerged here. First, the IOC has realised that the range of the field of Olympic education should be expanded from educating young people through the Olympic Games per se, and physical education, to promoting the key elements in the fundamental principles (values of Olympism) including the core Olympic values through various programmes at all levels in school curricula. Second, the Olympic bodies including the IOC, the IOA, the Olympic Education Commission, and the Olympic Solidarity Commission have acted not as the main players that undertake the delivery of Olympic education programmes but as a co-operator with, or supporter of, in particular, the NOCs/OCOGs by providing explicit policy goals and strategic directions relating to the development of Olympic education. Third, the analysis provides the IOC's official (intended) position on the delivery of Olympic education policies, which has become progressive and more explicit through time. However, there is a lack of understanding of how universal values and concepts of Olympic education are perceived and communicated in culturally diverse contexts. Last, although Olympic education has become a key goal for host cities and nations staging the Olympic Games in compliance with the IOC's policies and strategies, there is a 'missing link' between operationalisation of Olympic education and evaluation to identify whether intended goals have been achieved. In other words, current policies are focused on merely 'planning' of Olympic programmes in terms of development and delivery during the 7-year preparation period and the Olympic Games. But ironically the generic aim of undertaking Olympic education is for 'leaving a lasting legacy', which can be assessed by the practice of evaluation, and can be achieved through ongoing promotion of Olympic education.



The IOC for the first time formally added the definition of ‘Olympic education’ to the Olympic terminology. It stated that Olympic education refers to “*Information and activities that promote the development of the knowledge, values, and behaviours that promote Olympism and the mission of the Olympic Movement*” (IOC, 2016c, p.119). This definition, however, still does not give a clear definitive understanding of how the concepts of Olympic education, Olympism and Olympic values have been operationalised.

In considering the IOC’s explicit contribution to the promotion of Olympic education in the Olympic Movement, it is evident that the development of Olympic education has become and remains a key goal for the IOC and for host cities and nations staging the Games. However, there has been a lack of specificity in the definition of the concept of Olympic education as well as of evaluation of the ways in which an Olympic education programme is developed and implemented to achieve its legacy goals in culturally diverse contexts. In this respect, Olympic education as a research topic is relatively imprecise and underdeveloped in Olympic related studies. Thus, there is a need to map out the field of Olympic education and the philosophies underpinning it in the literature on Olympic education. Furthermore, empirical investigation of Olympic education (programme) requires reviewing the planning of Olympic education policy in practice in terms not only of development and delivery, but also evaluation.

Informed by how the field of Olympic education has been conceptualised in the literature, this thesis sets out to investigate the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education policy in practice in terms of development and delivery of programmes in the preparation stage of Tokyo 2020. Considering the context of the planning of Olympic education policy in practice for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games, there have been a number of Olympic education programmes designed and implemented throughout Japan by different levels of stakeholders being actively involved in the promotion of Olympism and the Olympic Movement (TOCOG, 2016). As Olympic education was introduced as an integral element within the national education curriculum for the first time (MEXT, 2012), Japan represents a particularly interesting context as non-western setting for the study of the Olympic education phenomenon.

## **1.2 Research aims and questions**

The aims of this thesis are to identify and evaluate the nature of the conceptualisations of Olympic education and to review the planning of Olympic education policy in practice in terms

of development and delivery of programmes in preparation for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games.

In order to achieve these aims, the thesis has adapted a ‘two - part’ approach. The first part is undertaken through a *meta-narrative review*, an approach developed by Greenhalgh et al. (2004), in order to, on the one hand, review the existing literature and subsequently provide a framework for the application of key principles in the empirical case study, and, on the other hand, offer implications for developing approaches to the evaluation of policy and programmes relating to Olympic education in practice.

The second part is focused on the empirical cases of Olympic and Paralympic education programmes which have been developed and implemented by various stakeholders and actors responsible for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. Analysis of case studies is undertaken through *realist evaluation*, developed by Pawson and Tilley (1997), by applying analytic logic models and Context - Mechanism - Outcome (CMO) configurations.

Based on the two-part approach, the following specific research questions have been identified:

- 1) What bodies of knowledge and specific research traditions are relevant to the understanding of the nature of Olympic education?
- 2) To what extent are key concepts, theories and methodological approaches for the development of the conceptual framework to inform evaluation of Olympic education initiatives identified?
- 3) How have the various stakeholders in the Japanese Olympic governance system designed and implemented Olympic education programmes and initiatives for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games?
- 4) What is the relationship between generic features of the Olympic education and the culturally specific elements of Japanese Olympic education (system)?
- 5) By applying realist policy evaluation to various Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education programmes, to what extent is there any (explicit or implicit) explanation of the relationship between contexts, mechanisms, and outcomes?

### **1.3 Thesis structure**

This thesis has six chapters. Chapter 1 aims to provide readers with an understanding of the nature of Olympic education as a research topic, and research aims and research questions.

Chapter 2 and 3 are included in the first part of the thesis (the Meta-narrative review). Chapter 2 introduces the notion of a meta-narrative approach to systematic review and discusses how this methodology has been applied to the thesis followed by an adaptation of the review process that Greenhalgh et al. (2004) propose. Chapter 3 provides a narrative summary of the nature of the studies in six research traditions identified through the review process (section 3.2) and then interprets the findings from the separate research traditions with a view to building a rich picture of the field of Olympic education (section 3.3).

Chapter 4 and 5 are included in the second part of the thesis (empirical case studies). Chapter 4 has three main sections. Section 4.2 presents the understanding of the promotion of Olympic education in the Japanese context over time and the governance of the Japanese Olympic system for Tokyo 2020. Section 4.3 discusses the theoretical framework for policy analysis and evaluation adopted in this empirical work, mainly focusing on policy analysis on governance and realist evaluation. Section 4.4 outlines the methodology of an empirical case of Tokyo 2020's Olympic education programmes and initiatives.

Chapter 5 provides the findings of the six cases of Olympic education practices developed and delivered by different levels of stakeholder and actors of Tokyo 2020. In each subsection, the background and policy aims for developing certain Olympic education initiatives are introduced and analysis of the empirical evidence of each case is presented through an analytic logic model, and then the application of Context-Mechanism-Outcome (CMO) configurations is discussed. This is followed by the findings section of each case study (section 5.2-5.7), Section 5.8 presents the summary of the final CMO configurations of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and education programme.

Chapter 6 is the concluding chapter of the thesis. This chapter aims to identify the research findings, integrating the results of the meta-narrative review (section 2.4) with the findings from the case studies (section 5.8). Then, the contribution to knowledge made by the thesis is presented in terms of the field of the research topic, and theoretical and methodological developments. Finally, limitations of the research are presented followed by opportunities for further research building on the approach adopted in the thesis.

**Part One.**

**A Meta-narrative Review of the  
Literature on Olympic Education**

## Chapter 2. Meta-narrative review methodology and process

### 2.1 Introduction

The aim of doing a literature review is to know what is already known about a particular area of interest so that we do not ‘reinvent the wheel’ (Bryman, 2012, p.98). Using the existing literature on a topic is a means of developing an argument about the significance of research and where it leads for the study forward.

For a couple of decades, the field of Olympic education has been broadly discussed both in academia and the IOC policy agenda. There are several seminal texts in the English language literature addressing ‘educational philosophy’ as one of the ideals for the revival of the modern Olympics (Müller, 2000), introducing the historical, pedagogical, didactic and empirical context of the development of Olympic education (Naul, 2008), and providing implementation of Olympic education programmes around the world (Naul et al., 2017b). However, there is little evidence of literature reviews that subsequently address the issues through a multitude of theoretical disciplines in relation to Olympic education and Olympic values. Olympic education is linked not only to pedagogical or philosophical ideas but also to sociological critiques and to policy and evaluation. In addition to this, academics and policymakers are increasingly interested in summarising the literature on complex questions that have been considered from different angles by different groups of researchers (Wong et al., 2013, p.12).

Based on the complex nature of defining Olympic education and values, it is necessary to provide an overview of the various concepts of Olympic education in a systematic and explicit manner, which not only summarises the literature but more significantly critically evaluates the state of knowledge in the field. Therefore, this study has undertaken an adaptation of ‘the meta-narrative review’ developed by Greenhalgh et al.<sup>6</sup> (2004) as an extension of the systematic review methodology to map out how Olympic education is being conceptualised in particular relation to Olympic values and roles in the Olympic movement thereby contributing to knowledge and to its application in Olympic policy related fields.

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<sup>6</sup> Greenhalgh et al. (2004) published a report entitled ‘*How to spread good ideas: a systematic review of the literature on diffusion, dissemination and sustainability of innovations in health service delivery and organisation*’. For this research, they developed a new method, ‘meta-narrative review’, originally using meta-narrative mapping for sorting and evaluating the sources identified in searches. However, a meta-narrative review is understood as ‘a systematic review using a meta-narrative analysis’ as one type of review undertaken by some scholars. The United Kingdom Department of Health commissioned this work, which was carried out between October 2002 and December 2003, for its National Health Service’s extensive modernisation agenda (Department of Health, 2001).

This chapter will introduce the notion of a meta-narrative approach to systematic review and discuss how I have applied this methodology to this thesis followed by an adaptation of the review process that Greenhalgh et al. (2004) suggested.

## **2.2 Systematic review**

### **2.2.1 What is a systematic review?**

A Systematic Review is a review of research literature using systematic and explicitly accountable methods. According to Gough et al. (2012), reviewing research systematically involves three key activities: identifying and describing the relevant research (mapping the research), critically appraising research reports in a systematic manner, and bringing together the findings into a coherent statement, known as synthesis. While the systematic review process was originally developed in the application of natural sciences, particularly, medical research (Cook et al., 1997), it has been found increasingly in social science and social policy contexts (Mallett et al., 2012; Petticrew & Roberts, 2006; Tranfield et al., 2003).

Systematic reviews aim to find as much as possible of the research relevant to the particular research questions and use explicit methods to identify what can reliably be said (EPPI Centre, 2015). A systematic review is usually conducted followed by a protocol which starts from searching through identifying phases and flows to a summary phase. Greenhalgh et al. (2005) state that systematic reviews should be transparent, explicit, and rigorous. Reviewers tend to conduct systematic reviews by using ‘explicit’ criteria for inclusion and exclusion and analysing and appraising all relevant studies. These elements of systematic reviews are embedded in the process of conducting a literature review, which thus can not only lead to producing ‘replicable’ results but also minimise bias compared to traditional narrative reviews.

In addition, with regard to evidence-based decision making, policymakers are interested in looking to research for solutions to policy problems and to justify programmes by reference to the knowledge base (Roberts et al., 2004, p.512). Policymakers may rely on undertaking systematic reviews which provide robust and reliable evidence for supporting practice as well as making decisions (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). Therefore, it is expected that a systematic review as a means of reviewing all the evidence related to the research topic will provide a robust and reliable foundation for policy development in the field of Olympic education and

make elements found from the systematic review to directly inform the evaluation of Olympic education practices for the empirical study.

### 2.2.2 Systematic review methodology

There are certain stages for conducting systematic reviews. However, depending on approaches to systematic review and the nature of studies, the way in which we conduct the review and synthesise can be varied. Methodological development of systematic reviewing has recently become a major concern (Gough et al., 2012). There are many ways of combining studies in a synthesis and different methods are appropriate in different circumstances. One method commonly used in systematic reviews is a meta-analysis. A *Meta-Analysis* is a form of review that uses a specific statistical technique for synthesising and condensing the results of several studies into a single quantitative estimate (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). Although the field has been dominated by the development and application of statistical meta-analysis of controlled trials to synthesise the evidence on the effectiveness of health and social interventions (Glass et al., 1981; Gough et al., 2012), over the decades, other methods aiming to extend the effectiveness of reviews with information from qualitative studies have been developed (Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009; Noyes et al., 2011).

Examples of interpretive and qualitative approaches to synthesis are meta-narrative review (Greenhalgh et al., 2005), realist synthesis (Pawson, 2006), critical interpretative synthesis (Dixon-Woods et al., 2006) and so on. A *Meta-narrative Review* explores ‘how to understand the development of research on an issue within and across different research traditions’, *Realist Synthesis* identifies ‘what the effect of a social policy in different policy areas concerned with hypothesising, testing and refining what Pawson terms ‘context – mechanism – outcome (CMO) configurations’ and *Critical Interpretative Synthesis* (CIS) focuses on ‘what theories can be generated from the conceptual literature’.

Gough et al. (2012) claim that it can also be useful to think about the distinction between two main types of reviews which are aggregative reviews and configurative reviews, originally discussed by Sandelowski et al. (2007) and Volis et al. (2008). Reviews which are collecting empirical data to describe, and test predefined concepts can be thought of as using an ‘aggregative’ logic. The primary research and review are adding up (aggregating) and averaging empirical observations to make empirical statements. In contrast, reviews which are

trying to interpret and understand the world are interpreting and arranging (configuring) information and are developing concepts.

In terms of the nature of studies, aggregative reviews are likely to be combining similar forms of data and so be interested in the homogeneity of studies. For example, a meta-analysis examining the impact of a given intervention will need to synthesis quite homogeneous studies in order for the statistical tests to be meaningful and valid. However, configurative reviews are more likely to be interested in identifying patterns provided by heterogeneity (Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009). Thus, a meta-narrative review which aims to explore how differences between research paradigms explained differently in research findings requires diversity in the studies of the heterogenous nature of the literature (Greenhalgh et al., 2005).

From this point of view, although Olympic education as a research topic is relatively imprecise and underdeveloped, a range of research disciplines found in the literature is considered broad and heterogenous. It also indicates that each piece of research located within its own research tradition and the development of knowledge is traced (or configured) through time and across paradigms. As highlighted by Greenhalgh et al. (2005), the units of analysis are the unfolding ‘storylines’ of a research tradition over time, which share common ways for seeking to explain the phenomenon at hand (p.417), in this case Olympic education and values. Thus, a meta-narrative review is considered as an appropriate methodological approach to systematic review in this work in spite of the first attempt to apply a meta-narrative review to identify the conceptualisation of Olympic education, even in sports related academic area.

The next section will introduce what a meta-narrative review is and how the review is undertaken in the process consisting of certain stages, subsequently discussing the application of the review process to this research.

## **2.3 Meta-narrative approach to systematic review**

### **2.3.1 Background of a meta-narrative review**

Systematic reviewing has only recently become a major area of methodological development although the idea of being more explicit about reviewing research is not new (Gough et al., 2012). Systematic reviewing is still young and rapidly developing field of study and methods of reviewing have not yet been developed for all areas of science. Greenhalgh et al. (2005) point out that the extensive research literature on heterogeneous fields presents challenges to



systematic reviews because it covers multiple research traditions with different underlying philosophical assumptions and methodological approaches. Especially academics and policymakers are increasingly interested in summarising the literature from different angles by different groups of researchers.

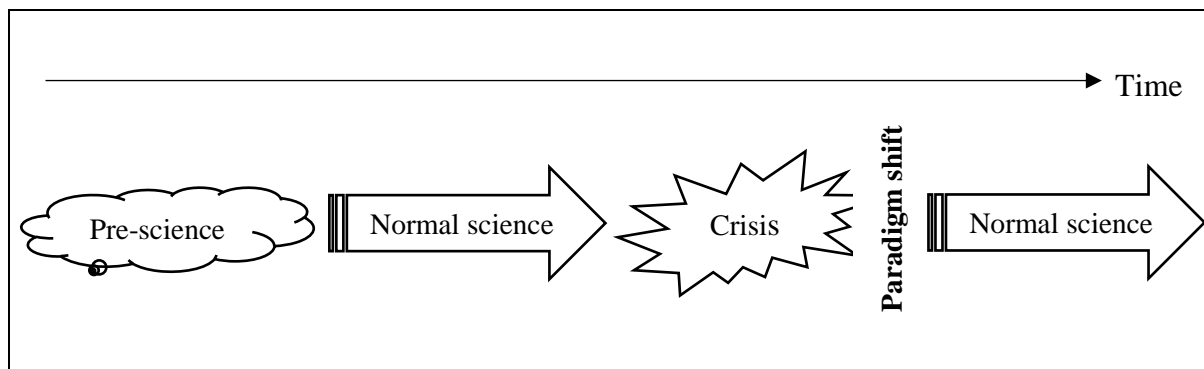
It was anticipated that the systematic review is appropriate for the collection and analysis of literature on Olympic education which would involve the categorising and evaluating of different themes and meanings developed in the complex bodies of evidence. However, there are some limitations of conducting a systematic review for heterogeneous fields as many of the systematic reviews in scientific fields try to reduce the number of studies and provide objective and comprehensive homogeneous literature by using meta-analysis.

So, for fields or topics which are heterogeneous in terms of the types of evidence reviewed and with a demand for transparent and robust policy-driven approaches to reviewing diverse literature, Greenhalgh et al. (2005) developed the ‘meta-narrative review’. The meta-narrative review is a relatively new method of systematic review, designed for topics that have been differently conceptualised and studied by different groups of researchers. A key trigger in the development of this method was Thomas Kuhn’s book *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (Kuhn, 1962). Kuhn’s theory about how science progresses was based on three core concepts (as cited in Greenhalgh et al., 2004, p.67):

1. ‘Normal science’ – the notion that most science, most of the time, is conducted according to a set of rules and standards which are considered self-evident by those working in a particular field, but which are not universally accepted.
2. Paradigms, which he defined as ‘models from which spring particular coherent traditions of scientific research’, with four key dimensions – conceptual (what are considered the important objects of study and hence, what counts as a legitimate problem to be solved by science), theoretical (how the objects of study are considered to relate to one another and to the world), methodological (the accepted ways in which problems might be investigated), and instrumental (the accepted tools and instruments to be used by scientists).
3. The notion of scientific revolution, which occurs when a critical mass of scientists adopts a new paradigm, and old theories and models are accordingly dismissed as ‘unscientific’.

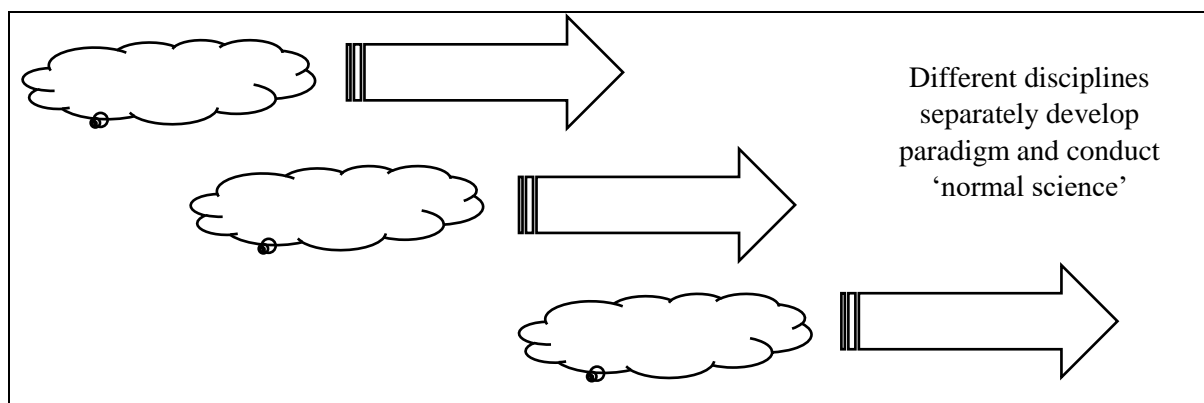
Figure 2.1 illustrates Kuhn's idea that a research discipline experiences repeated cycles of crises which lead to paradigm shifts and normal science emerges. And within the natural sciences, there is typically one dominant paradigm. However, within social sciences, separate paradigms may be operating at the same time (see Figure 2.2). Greenhalgh and her colleagues (2005) emphasise that different research disciplines separately develop their own paradigms and conduct normal science within their separate disciplines. In particular relation to the mapping, they drew centrally on Kuhn's notion of the research tradition and its historical progression from pre-paradigmatic through post-paradigmatic phases.

**Figure 2. 1 Paradigm shift in natural science**



(Source: Potts, 2013, p.13)

**Figure 2. 2 Paradigm development in social sciences**



(Source: Potts, 2013, p.14)

There are key terms which are helpful for the understanding of the meta-narrative review. 'Meta-narrative' refers to the shared set of concepts, theories and preferred methods taken by a group of researchers who form a research tradition and 'meta-narratives' are 'storylines' that

unpack how research unfolds and changes over time within a research tradition (Greenhalgh et al., 2005). Informed by Kuhn's notion of scientific paradigms (1962), a '*paradigm*' is a world view built into a particular research approach and a '*research tradition*' is a group of approaches coherent within systems of shared understanding of the ways of doing social science. Thus, different research traditions have different ways of looking at the world (paradigms), implying different stories (meta-narratives) of how the phenomenon we are looking at should be understood.

There are several terminologies used for this review technique such as the 'meta-narrative approach to systematic review' (Greenhalgh et al., 2005), 'systematic review using the meta-narrative method' (Greenhalgh et al., 2009; Potts et al., 2011), 'meta-narrative review' (Greenhalgh et al., 2004). Despite Greenhalgh et al. drawing on Kuhn's notion of scientific paradigms for sorting and evaluating sources identified in searches as a mapping technique, 'a meta-narrative review' has been used not only as a technique for systematic review but also has come to be a type of systematic review per se. Thus, Greenhalgh et al. (2004) have suggested a comprehensive review process including six phases for undertaking a meta-narrative review. The details of each phase in the process are described in Section 2.3.2 and its application to this research are followed in the rest of the Section 2.3.2.

### **2.3.2 Review process**

There are six phases to conduct a meta-narrative review introduced by Greenhalgh et al. (2004). The different phases, which overlapped considerably and fed iteratively into one another, are summarised in Figure 2.3.

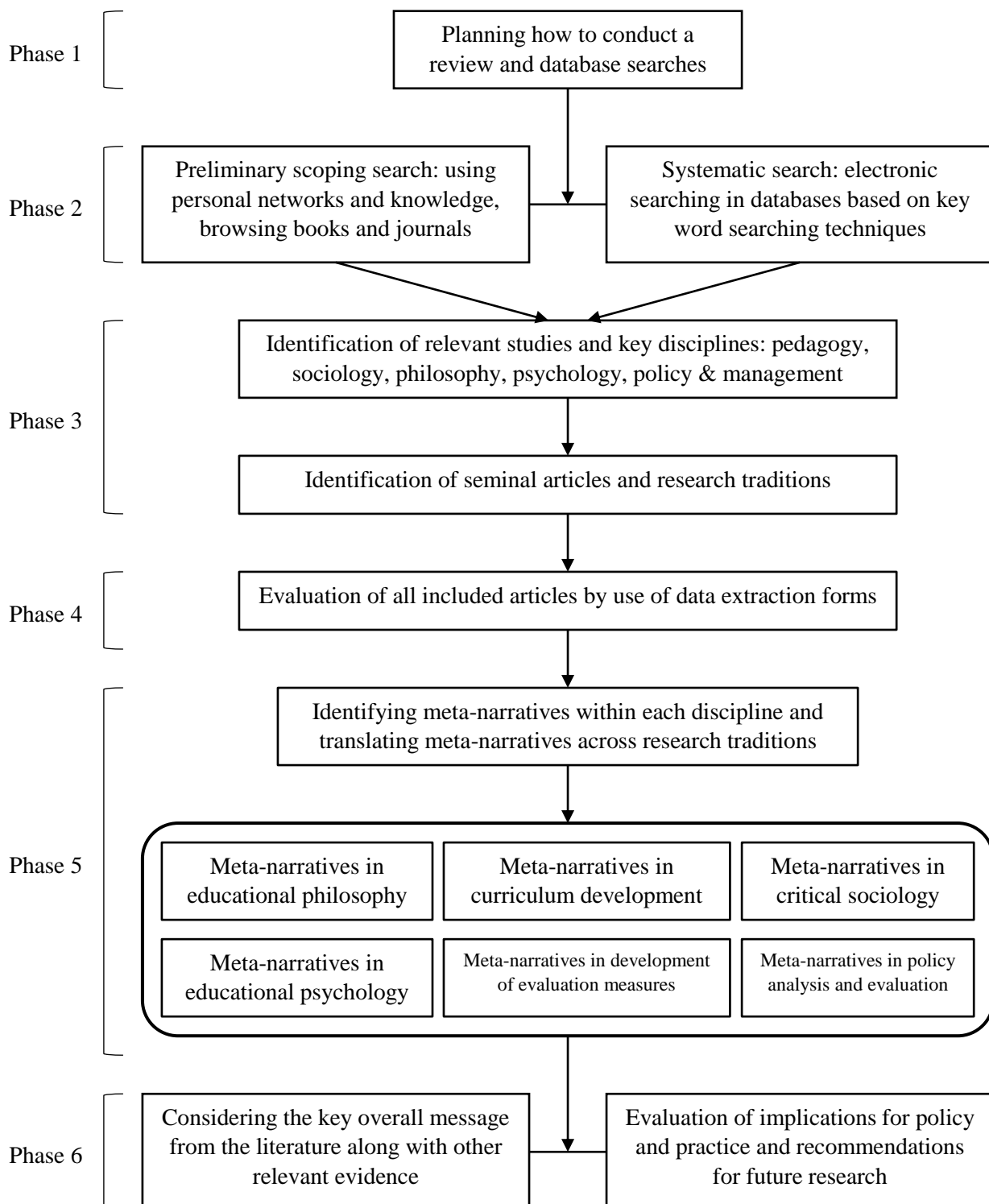
**Figure 2. 3 Six phases of conducting a meta-narrative review**

<p>1) Planning phase</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Assemble a multidisciplinary research team whose background encompasses the relevant research traditions</li><li>• Outline the initial research questions in a broad, open-ended format</li><li>• Agree a set of outputs</li><li>• Set a series of regular meetings to incorporate inputs from the external panel</li></ul> <p>2) Search phase</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Initial search led by the field based on expert knowledge institution of expert team members and informal interactions with wider networks to map diversity of disciplines, perspectives, and approaches in the literature</li><li>• Search for seminal conceptual papers in each research tradition by tracking references of references.</li><li>• Search for empirical papers by electronic searching key databases, hand searching key journals and ‘snowballing’</li></ul> <p>3) Mapping phase</p> <p>Identify (separately for each research tradition):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• The key elements of the research paradigm (conceptual, theoretical, methodological and instrumental)</li><li>• The key actors and events in the unfolding of the tradition (including main findings and how they came to be discovered)</li><li>• The language, themes and imagery used by scientists to ‘tell the story’ of their work</li></ul> <p>4) Appraisal phase</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Evaluate each study for its validity and relevance to the review question</li><li>• Extract and collate the key results, grouping comparable studies together</li></ul> <p>5) Synthesis phase</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Identify all the key dimensions of the problem that have been researched</li><li>• Taking each dimension in turn, give a narrative account of the contribution made to it by each separate research tradition</li><li>• Treat conflicting findings as higher-order data and explain in terms of contestation from which the data were generated</li></ul> <p>6) Recommendations Phase</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Consider the key overall messages from the research literature along with other relevant evidence</li><li>• Distil and discuss recommendations for practice, policy and future research</li></ul>
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*(Source: Adapted from Greenhalgh et al., 2004, 2005)*

Given the differences between the nature of Greenhalgh’s work and the research undertaken for this thesis, an adaptation of this methodology rather than its (unaltered) application would be more appropriate. This thesis has adapted six steps to the analysis of the English language literature on Olympic education for the meta-narrative review and identified six research traditions. The review process for this thesis is presented in Figure 2.4.

**Figure 2. 4 Summary of phases in the meta-narrative review for this thesis**



#### a. Planning phase

The first step in a meta-narrative review is to plan how to conduct a review. Before embarking on a meta-narrative review, it is necessary to determine whether a meta-narrative approach is

appropriate for this research. In order to answer this question, subsequent questions were considered: 1) whether the topic has been studied by different scholars 2) in different academic disciplines 3) different methods are used 4) philosophical approaches are found, and 5) the understanding of the topic has been changed over time.

As discussed in Section 1.1, the nature of the concept of Olympic education is considered fuzzy and diverse. It is assumed that the literature on the topic covers multiple research traditions across various academic disciplines with a range of underlying philosophical assumptions and methodological approaches. I also found that although the research topics ‘Olympic education’ and ‘Olympic values’ have been used widely both in academic areas and policy in the last two decades, it is not clear how Olympic education is being conceptualised and evaluated. The meta-narrative review may well be taken account of in an appropriate approach to the systematic review.

In the planning phase built in the Greenhalgh’s first work, there are two main agendas to be considered; setting up research questions for the review and forming a multidisciplinary research team. The research aim of conducting the meta-narrative review is to identify and evaluate the nature of the conceptualisation of Olympic education and the philosophies underpinning it in the English literature on Olympic education. Specific research questions are below:

1. What bodies of knowledge and specific research traditions are relevant to the understanding of the nature of Olympic education?
2. To what extent are key concepts, theories and methodological approaches for the development of the conceptual framework to inform evaluation of Olympic education initiatives identified?

With regard to forming of a multidisciplinary team, I found a gap in Greenhalgh’s original work. Given that this research is an individual doctoral study, it was challenging for a single PhD student to deal with all of the resources in different academic areas while Greenhalgh’s work was fully funded, which made it possible to work with researchers in a collaborative group. Instead of working in a multidisciplinary team, an Expert panel was formed consisting of the author, and Professor. Ian Henry (whose skills related to the subject area), with Louise Fletcher who is a librarian with speciality in sports literature. The first panel meeting was held on May 18, 2015. We discussed the research topic, aim of the review, keywords, and database for the search. It is expected that the experience gained in undertaking a meta-narrative review

in sport related areas for the first time will assist in the development of aspects of good practice in the application to the field.

### *b. Search phase*

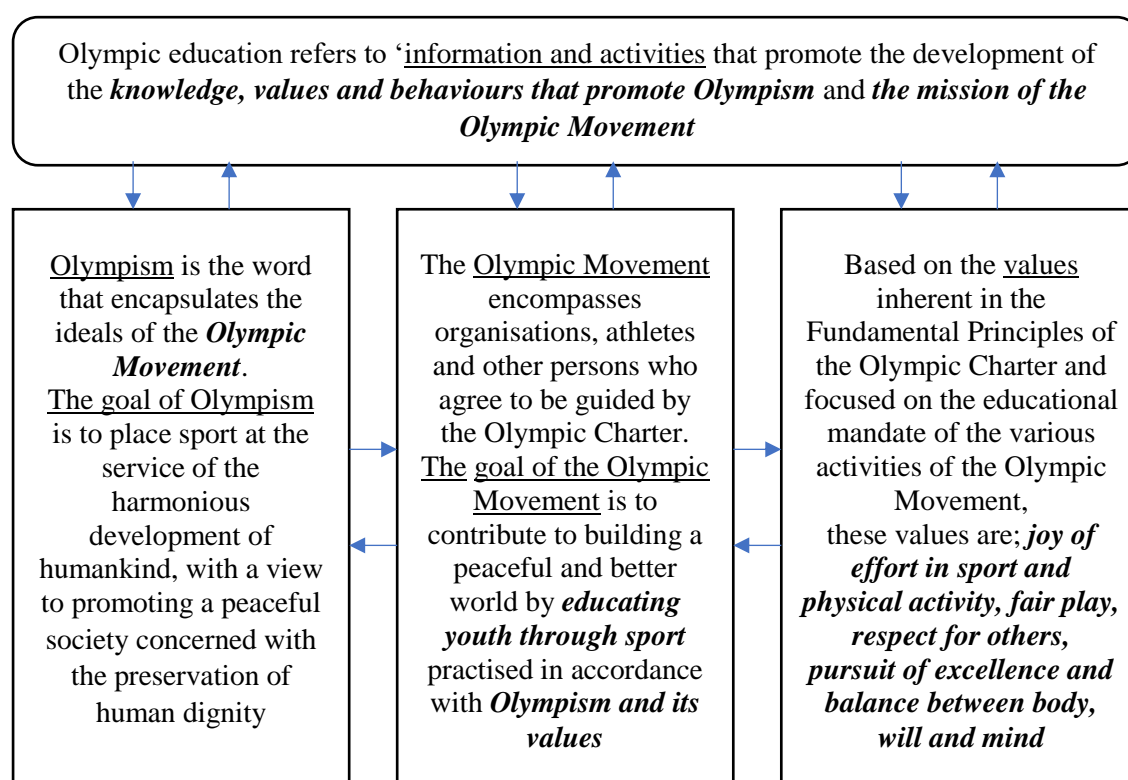
The next phase is the search phase. This was undertaken in two sub-phases: a scoping search and a systematic search of the literature. A scoping search is a preliminary search to map out the field and inform how the actual systematic search might be conducted. Thus, it helps in the checking of what search databases are available and useful, and whether enough literature related to the topic exists. The scoping search is not necessarily systematic as its aims are to search existing reviews and to familiarise the researcher with the topic and volume of literature on selected databases. For the scoping search, informal methods such as the existing knowledge and resources and personal networking within the review and disciplines were used, together with the advice of the Expert panel. One of the informal ways was to investigate ongoing issues around Olympic education was by attending two international conferences held in Brazil during the Rio 2016 Olympiad as well as by visiting the Olympic Studies Centre in Lausanne to find documents published by the IOC and meet people from the centre with expertise in this field.

An early part of this phase was laborious and challenging. Since it was not a familiar technique used in this area and there was little or no previously conducted research, it took significant amount of long time to understand and adapt it to this research. But once started to find useful sources, it was possible to use keyword searching and tracking methods such as searching references of references, reference scanning, and citation tracking. Having started with exploratory methods which include browsing, using personal contacts and networks as informal and unstructured methods for the scoping search, I moved on to the formal systematic search.

The systematic search was undertaken through examination of electronic databases. In terms of keywords, it was evident that ‘Olympic education’ should be selected as a core keyword which has been in regular use in particular since 2007 when the IOC officially began to encourage the term to be mentioned in relation to Olympic education initiatives and Olympic values. Nevertheless, as the field of Olympic education has not been developed in a uniform way since first coined periods in 1970s, from the preliminary search it was evident that the term had not been employed by many scholars. Thus, it was necessary to add other search strings such as a combination of ‘Olympic\* and educat\*’, which covers almost all keywords

including ‘education relating to the Olympics’. Additionally, ‘Olympic movement’, ‘Olympism’, and ‘values’ in the search strings were included given that the IOC has promoted Olympism and its values through educational materials and programmes, which meets the goal of the Olympic Movement thereby contributing to building a better world and the harmonious development of human kind. It is clear that there are interrelated elements and themes relating to education through sport and Olympics, values, Olympism and the Olympic Movement (see Figure 2.5).

**Figure 2. 5 Interrelated elements among education, values, Olympism and Olympic Movement**



(Source: Adapted from IOC, 2016c)

So, the final search keywords were:

1. Olympic education
2. Olympism and educat\*
3. Olympic movement and educat\*
4. Olympic\* and educat\*
5. Olympic value\* and educat\*
6. Olympic\* and value\* and educat\*
7. Olympic value\*



As mentioned, formal electronic search methods for the systematic search were used. These keyword terms were searched on eight databases including six journal databases and two extra databases (see Table 2.1). The rationales for selecting the six journal databases were as follows. Loughborough University, as a leading institution in the field both of the social sciences of sport, and of information sciences, provided access to all of the leading English language databases in this field. The advice of the Expert Panel which reflected subject specific, and information science, expertise was to incorporate these six. Other databases which were less likely to provide source material were nevertheless investigated but not included either because of overlap with the coverage of the six selected, or because of the lack of references thrown up in investigating such sources. The rationale for including the two Olympic databases (LA84 and the IOC's own Olympic World Library) was that these were sources dedicated to Olympic subject matter.

**Table 2. 1 Databases**

No.	Database
1.	Web of Science
2.	SPORTDiscus
3.	ProQuest
4.	Science Direct
5.	Emerald
6.	Scopus
7.	LA84 Foundation Sports Library (LA84)
8.	Olympic World Library (OSC)

For developing a search protocol, criteria for inclusion of references were set up (See Table 2.2). In terms of the period of reference publication employed in the search, the earliest year of publication was left open (the earliest reference in were in the 1970s) and the last year publication was 2017 (since the last search was conducted in early 2018). Scholarly (peer reviewed) articles written in English are included. The minimum length of publication adopted was five pages. If an article is less than five pages, it is unlikely to be a paper in the social sciences with a fully developed argument, and thus the use of this criterion facilitated exclusion of, for example, refereed abstracts. The criteria for judging whether an article was relevant or not were based initially on the inclusion of the key terms in titles, keywords, topics and abstracts. If the search terms were found in any of the identified search categories (titles, keywords, topics and

abstracts), it was initially assumed that the article was likely to be relevant. Nevertheless, abstracts were carefully scrutinised, and the full articles scanned to ensure that individual items were relevant. In addition, a member of the Expert panel was asked to go through the same process independently for a sub-set of cases to confirm consistency.

**Table 2. 2 Inclusion criteria**

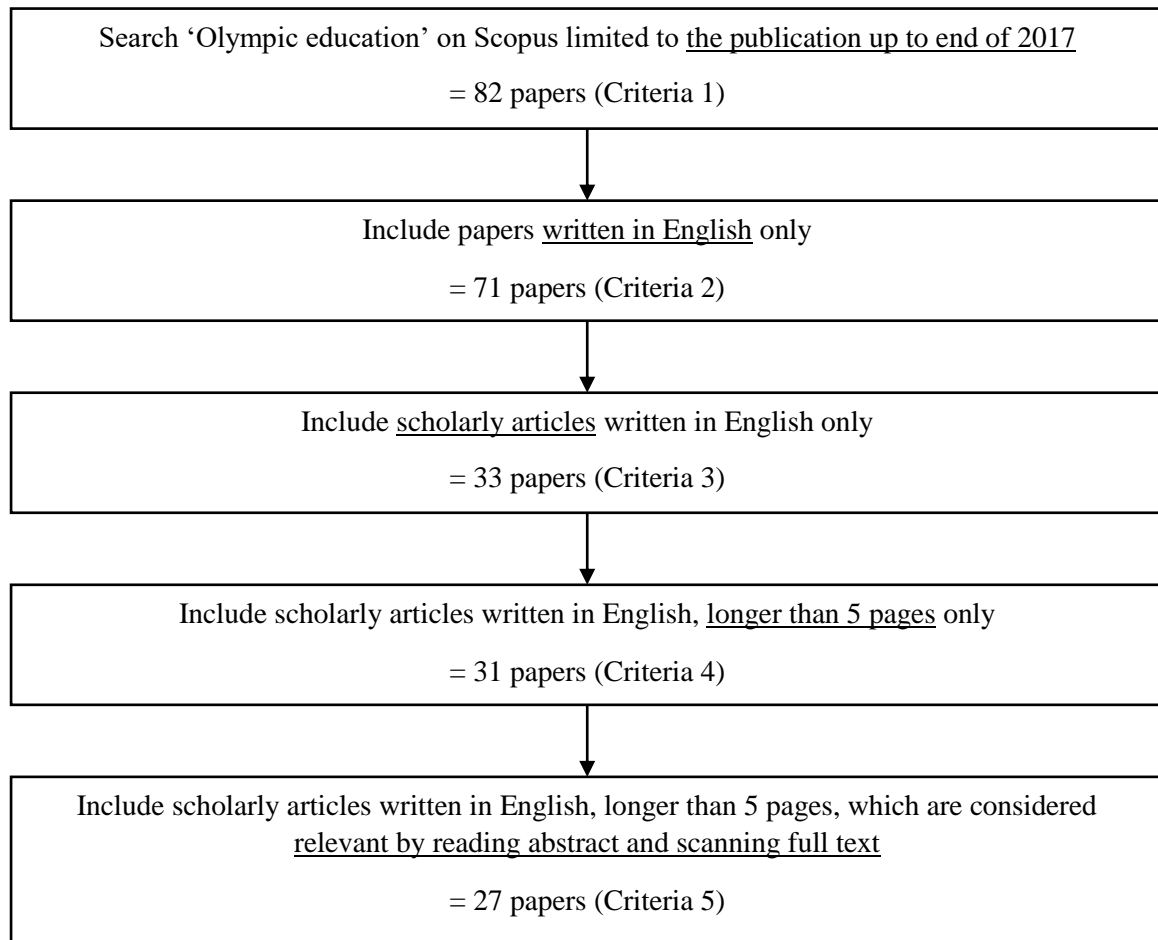
No.	Criteria
1.	Publication Year: until 2017
2.	Language: English
3.	Type of Source: Scholarly Journals (Academic Articles)
4.	Length: 5 pages or more
5.	Relevance

The final search was completed on February 20, 2018. Table 2.3 shows the first data extraction results and 6,160 papers were identified for this review. And then, through the review searching protocol using of the inclusion criteria (see Figure 2.6), a total of 110 articles were included for the final review. The final extraction results from the analysis of different databases and keywords are shown in Table 2.4 and Table 2.5, respectively.

**Table 2. 3 First extraction results from different databases**

Keywords Databases	Olympic education	Olympism AND educat*	Olympic movement AND educat*	Olympic* AND educat*	Olympic value* AND educat*	Olympic* AND value* AND educat*	Olympic Value*	Total
Web of Science	54	60	54	526	19	81	23	817
SPORTDiscus (EBSCOhost)	86	82	94	1010	22	110	39	1443
ProQuest	88	53	81	1445	21	232	44	1964
Science Direct	5	3	1	72	0	0	0	81
Emerald	2	0	0	4	0	0	0	6
Scopus	82	51	57	1039	17	111	31	1388
LA84	319	-	-	-	-	-	8	327
OSC	48	-	-	-	-	-	86	134
<b>Total</b>	<b>684</b>	<b>249</b>	<b>287</b>	<b>4096</b>	<b>79</b>	<b>534</b>	<b>181</b>	<b>6160</b>

**Figure 2. 6 An example of searching protocol for identifying included articles**



**Table 2. 4 Final results from analysis of databases**

Databases	Total	Included
Web of Science	817	45
SPORTDiscus	1443	50
ProQuest	1964	52
Science Direct	81	2
Emerald	6	2
Scopus	1388	60
LA84	327	17
OSC	134	4
Total	<b>6160</b>	232
Duplication		122
Included		<b>110*</b>

**Table 2. 5 Final results from analysis of keywords**

<b>Keywords</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Included</b>
Olympic education	684	62
Olympism AND educat*	249	43
Olympic movement AND educat*	287	19
Olympic* AND educat*	4096	83
Olympic value* AND educat*	79	14
Olympic* AND value* AND educat*	534	57
Olympic Value*	181	21
Total	<b>6160</b>	299
Duplication		189
Included		<b>110*</b>

### c. Mapping phase

The mapping phase refers to the process of mapping out the range of issues and subject matter, disciplines, and theoretical perspectives covered by the material selected. This often takes place in parallel with the search phase because through searching, the author came to understand the range of literature in the field of Olympic education covered in the academic literature. It was found that the literature related to the conceptualisation of Olympic education has been produced across a range of different academic disciplines such as pedagogy, sociology, philosophy, psychology, policy and management. As Greenhalgh et al. describe in relation to the mapping phase, the goal of the mapping phase is to gain an overall picture of the historical and theoretical context of the various research traditions that explore the field (in the case of this thesis, the field of Olympic education). Thus, the central task of the mapping phase is to identify the seminal studies as well as research traditions, and theoretical perspectives employed in investigating and explaining the field.

Even if a group of researchers have discussed about the pedagogical issues in Olympic education, different narratives or ‘storylines’ will have been unfolded in their work, with a range of underlying philosophical assumptions and methodological approaches.

To identify seminal papers and research traditions, the final selected papers were assessed with the following questions in mind (adapted from Greenhalgh et al., 2004, 2009):

1. What are the key concepts, theories and methodological approaches?
2. What research questions have scholars in this tradition asked about the topic?  
What methods and instruments have they used to answer those questions?
3. What are the main findings of relevance from the literature in this research tradition?
4. How has the tradition unfolded over time (that is, in what way have the findings of earlier studies led to refinements in theory and/or influenced the design and direction of later empirical work)?
5. What are the strengths and limitations of this tradition, and in the light of these, what is its likely overall contribution to the body of knowledge on this topic area?

Apart from these criteria, as its aim is to identify how Olympic education is being conceptualised in each research tradition and broadly in certain academic disciplines, approaching the topic with more specific questions can give a clear guidance to conducting the mapping phase. Some papers related to the practices of Olympic education programmes, were reviewed with such questions in mind as “what kinds of goal have Olympic education initiatives achieved in a given context?” and “under what circumstances are such goals achieved for which target groups, with what kinds of outcome being sought and achieved for how long?”.

Consequently, the author has identified six research traditions (some overlapping) that were of central relevance to the focus of this thesis: curriculum development; educational psychology; development of evaluation measures; educational philosophy; critical sociology; and policy analysis and evaluation. The results of the mapping phase formed an important background to this review, most significantly because they critically informed the understanding of the literature and the structuring of empirical results. Descriptions and narrative account of the research traditions will be illustrated in Chapter 3.

#### *d. Appraisal phase*

The next phase is an appraisal phase which aims to evaluate all the papers identified from the search phase. Greenhalgh et al. (2004) used different checklists and critical appraisal techniques depending on research designs (experimental research, comparative research, action

research, in-depth case study and so on). The findings however do not capture huge different methodological approaches favoured in different research traditions. The study of Greenhalgh and her colleagues basically deals with a broad topic and the number of seminal papers is more than 400, whereas the research for this part of my thesis is dealing with a comparatively small number of papers (110) with a more focused topic in a narrower (yet nevertheless heterogenous) field of the study. Thus, a single form of a critical extraction has been used thereby summarising the research questions, theoretical basis, study design, research methods, the findings and conclusions for each study (see Appendix B).

The aim of conducting this phase is to see whether each paper is relevant to the research question(s) and to summarise the research question(s), theoretical basis, study design, research methods and strengths of findings, and the validity of conclusions for each study with predetermined criteria. As a result of evaluating all the identified papers using the data extraction form, 79 papers in total were considered as essential to include for the review. These have subsequently been drawn together, contextualised, and interpreted in the synthesis phase.

#### *e. Synthesis and conclusion phases*

The following phase is synthesis and recommendation phase (which is discussed in chapter 3). The goal of the synthesis phases is to draw together, contextualise, and interpret the findings from the separate research traditions. The author has sought to use a narrative summary to build up a rich picture of the topic area from multiple perspectives and to capture and describe, rather than to ‘average out’ the heterogeneity between studies. As discussed earlier, additional meta-analysis of either experimental or non-experimental data was neither feasible nor appropriate since many of the studies did not employ statistical analysis.

In the conclusion phase, it is necessary to consider the key overall messages from the research literature along with other relevant evidence and to distil and discuss recommendations for practice, policy and further research. It is expected to be used to directly inform empirical evaluation of Olympic education programmes in the future.

## **2.4 Conclusion**

This chapter has provided an account of the meta-narrative review methodology which draws on Kuhn's notion of scientific paradigms and the methods for searching, mapping, analysing and synthesising the literature which is relevant to Olympic education through the review process. The review process was somewhat laborious since each piece of evidence has to be double-handled – first for constructing the meta-narrative within its own tradition and again for contributing to the 'rich picture' for the conceptualisation of the field of Olympic education. Chapter 3 will discuss the overview of the diverse research traditions, each with its own conceptual, theoretical, methodological and instrumental approach to the nature of the field of Olympic education.

## **Chapter 3. Identifying meta-narratives in the literature on Olympic education**

### **3.1 Introduction**

In the process of the meta-narrative review, six research traditions have been identified: educational philosophy; critical sociology; curriculum development; educational psychology; development of evaluation measures; and policy analysis and evaluation. This chapter has two functions as synthesis and recommendation phases within the review process. Firstly, the chapter provides a narrative summary of the nature of the studies in each research tradition identified through the review process (section 3.2). Each section is divided into three subsections<sup>7</sup>, including a) general issues relating to relevant research tradition; b) specific themes emerging from the review; and c) contribution to knowledge and practices of the field of Olympic education. Secondly, after spreading out the research traditions with meta-narratives, the findings from the separate research traditions with a view to building a rich picture of the field of Olympic education provide a framework for the application of key principles in the empirical case study (section 3.3).

### **3.2 Results of the meta-narrative review**

#### **3.2.1 Educational philosophy**

##### *a. General issues relating to educational philosophy*

Educational philosophy, as an academic field of applied philosophy, can refer to gaining insights into questions about knowledge, truth, reason, reality, meaning, mind and values related to education with philosophical perspectives. Scholars in this research tradition mainly focus on various interpretations of Coubertin's writings on Olympism and clarification and examination of the ideals of Olympism which permeate Olympic education programmes, whether these are explicitly defined as 'Olympic education' or referred to in terms of the ways in which a general education programme can deliver on Olympic education goals.

Key questions raised here are "what did Coubertin mean by Olympism?", "is the understanding

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<sup>7</sup> Section 3.2.3 (Curriculum Development) has four subsections since Naul's (2008) four orientations are described as one of the key approaches to teaching of Olympic education.



of Olympism and the values of Olympism the same through time?”, “how has Olympism been understood and discussed by different scholars in what philosophical perspectives?”, and “what kind of values should be promoted through sport or the Olympic Games?”. By answering these questions, a comprehensive understanding of the nature and meaning of Olympism using philosophical literature helps to conceptualise somewhat vague descriptions of Olympism, which is a key issue to be addressed for the development of Olympic education programmes.

The selected papers mainly represent discussion of the philosophical understandings of Olympism and rarely examine how to apply the ideals of Olympism to the operationalisation of Olympic education. It is nevertheless essential to identify the competing or shared conceptions of Olympism and associated themes, including universality, multiculturalism, the core values of the Olympic Games, and inherent and additional values, which will be discussed in the following sections.

#### *b. The four themes on educational philosophy emerging from the review*

##### *i) Olympism and universality*

Universality is one of the dominant conceptions of Olympism among scholars examining Coubertin’s philosophy on the ideals of the Olympic Games. We can see the official account of Olympism and a number of elements as being ‘universal’ but ‘unclear’ as shown in the Fundamental Principles of Olympism stated in the Olympic Charter as follows (IOC, 2017, p.11):

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

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

It suggests that ‘blending sport with culture and education’ and ‘combining in a balance between body, will and mind’ are considered as universal goals to achieve and that the Olympic Family should contribute to promoting the Fundamental Principles of Olympism as part of the Olympic Movement. However, it does not explicitly define ‘how to achieve these goals’ or ‘what to promote for achieving these goals’, given that expressions such as ‘universal fundamental ethical principles’, ‘educational value of good example’ and ‘human dignity’ remain imprecise and vague. Due to the ambiguity around the concept of Olympism, various descriptions and interpretations are employed by scholars. This has also raised criticism of the values expressed as being Eurocentric (Hsu & Kohe, 2015; McNamee, 2006) and of outdated and implausible goals to meet because of the focus on competition and consumerism (Lenskyj, 2012; Wamsley, 2004).

Parry (2006) claims that a universal philosophy should be relevant to everyone, regardless of nation, race, gender, social class, religion, or ideology. The principles of Olympism are supposed to be unchanging, yet they have changed over time and space. In fact, the rules contained within the Olympic Charter are periodically amended and eligibility rules have changed many times (Beamish & Ritchie, 2004). Parry (1998, 2006) draws on Rawls’ notion of the distinction between concept and conception in order to address attacks on the universal nature of Olympism. A *concept* of Olympism must include the values to which “each nation can sincerely commit itself while at the same time finding for the general idea a form of expression that is unique to itself, generated by its own culture, location, history, tradition, and projected future” (Parry, 2006, p.191). *Conceptions* of Olympism interpret the general *concept* in such a way as to bring it to real life in a particular context. However, it might be hard to define Olympism as a concept in the sense that the nature of Olympism has been differently interpreted and described depending on various settings. In addition, although a concept of Olympism accepts a wide range of interpretations, the idea of Olympism is not an easily generalised and objective concept. For example, Coubertin did not embrace the idea of including women or team sports on the Olympic programme despite the apparent value of treating people equally (Teetzel, 2012).

A study from Chatziefstathiou (2005) demonstrates how the values associated with the ideology of Olympism at the time Coubertin started the Olympic Movement have changed through time until today. Chatziefstathiou and Henry (2012) suggest that Olympism may not be defined by a set of immutable values but as a process for

consensus construction in terms of values in the world of global sport, a process that they characterise as a form of discourse ethics. In this regard, given the nature of Olympism, and differing approaches to Olympic values and the concept of Olympism, it might be anticipated that different concepts of Olympic education are emerging.

## ii) Olympism and multiculturalism

Multiculturalism is considered as a highly respected aspect in Olympism, in particular, for athletes from different nations who are participating in the Olympic Games under the same rules in sports. Athletes in every country also have an opportunity to attend the parade both in opening and closing ceremonies under their national flags and to exchange and share their culture with other participants. These are typical examples of multiculturalism in the Olympics.

Expanding the discussion of multicultural aspects for Olympic education, Hsu and Kohe (2015) point out that there are some incongruencies between Olympic idealism and non-Western cultural contexts and educational frameworks. The authors designed Olympic education curriculum for undergraduate students enrolled within a provincial Taiwanese University's Liberal Arts programme. In the curriculum setting, the emphasis was on developing an Olympic education that not only introduces students to broader global ideas (e.g. universality) but that respects and reflects national/localised specificities (e.g. Asian philosophical traditions and their legacies in educational institutions).

Regardless of the lack of clarity and vagueness of the concept of Olympic education, it is not likely to take one specific form of Olympic education programme developed by one nation as a model. Different countries carry out educational initiatives and programmes with features that vary according to cultural aspects, pedagogical principles (e.g. educational goals, content, methods), and education systems. In this respect, the understanding of Olympism and its values are connected to Coubertin's philosophy of Olympism with regard to promoting different types values through sport itself and education. However, there is a need to have critical accounts of Olympic values and deal with differential interpretation in various cultures and subsequently examining how these elements have been applied to the development of Olympic

education programmes.

### iii) Olympism and core values of the Olympic Games

There have been discussions around the goals of athletes who take part in the Olympic Games and the nature of the Olympic Games as a phenomenon. While one of the famous phrases that Coubertin echoed is ‘the most important thing in the Olympic Games is not winning but taking part; the essential thing in life is not conquering but fighting well’, Coubertin partly admitted that the Olympic Games incorporated elements of world championships which are oriented towards performance for fame, self-promotion, and financial benefit. However, he believed that Olympic sport should be aimed at self-education, development and joyful striving, and it should be set among humanistic, social and moral values (Martínková, 2012a, p.169).

Martínková (2012a) explored two views of sport described by Coubertin at the Olympic Congress of 1925 in Prague. Coubertin emphasised that there was a need to make a choice between world championships (the ‘fair’) and Olympism with Olympic Games (the ‘temple’): “Fair or temple – sportsmen must make their choice; they cannot expect to frequent both one and the other...let them choose!” (Coubertin, 2000, p.559). In his speech, the term ‘fair’ does not relate to ‘fair play’ but refers to the notion of a funfair, a form of entertainment which has a market. A fair refers to an open space where people gather. This place allows a wide variety of human interactions, entertainment, watching or participating in games, and buying and selling objects. What Coubertin meant here was that the fair was about sustaining one’s life, which demands effort, work, consumption and commerce within a competitive setting. The fair is related to the kind of sport that is associated with world championships in which the dominant values of society drive the athletes to win, succeed, for financial and other gains.

On the other hand, the ‘temple’ refers to a point of view on life and on sport which differs from that of the fair. Although the notions of temple are generally connected to religion, Coubertin understood that the temple is related to “morality solemnity, purification and sanctification” (Parry, 2007, p.206) so that it can highlight humanistic aims such as peace, freedom, promoted through regular participation in sport of and for itself, and thus realising the self-improvement and self-perfection elements comprising

Olympism (Coubertin, 2000).

Now taking an example of ‘excellence’ which is one of the three core Olympic values set by the IOC in 2007 (Maass, 2007) and seeing how it is perceived at present, the IOC (2013) defines ‘excellence’ as follows:

Giving one’s best on the field of play or in life, without measuring oneself with others, but above all aiming at reaching one’s personal objectives with determination in the effort. It is not only about winning, but is mainly about participating, making progress against personal goals, striving to be and to do our best in our daily lives and benefitting from the combination of a strong body, will and mind. (p.3)

This definition incorporates the aims of individuals to meet their personal objectives and these could of course be objectives associated with self-interest such as financial or political gain, in other words objectives associated with sport as entertainment, or consumption (the ‘fair’), rather than sport as morally improving (the ‘temple’). Indeed, it is clear that many of the IOC’s own activities place an emphasis on commercial gain (e.g. sponsorship deals which trade on the commercial value of Olympic sport and the Games). These commercially related activities may be rationalised as serving then ends of Olympism by the means of commercial exchange, but the balance of activities undertaken by the IOC has certainly developed in terms of ‘fair’ rather than ‘temple’, in particular since the 1984 Los Angeles Games which ushered in big money contracts for broadcasting and sponsorship, which for many have overshadowed the ethical purpose of the Games and the movement.

#### iv) Olympism and intrinsic and additional values

There are different types of values depending on how these values are realised and learned. Another paper by Martínková (2012b) examined two types of values, inherent values (competition values) and added values (humanistic values) and proposed the combination of two types of values promoted through Olympic education. McFee (2012) examines ‘intrinsic values of sport’ and ‘moral values’ and whether intrinsic values of sport can be transferrable to moral values (how can a value intrinsic to sport operate outside sport?).

Inherent/intrinsic values (values inherent in sports) are termed “competition values” by Martínková, including the effort to improve and win, the spirit of rivalry, rules to follow and disciplines. With the overall goal of competition, competition values can lead to excess since athletes aim to go higher and faster and to be stronger as expressed in the Olympic motto “*citius, altius, fortius*” despite an expression of a whole, harmonious and striving athlete. In addition to participation in the Olympic games, it is clear that additional values should be realised for ethical human development. As Martínková suggested, they are called “humanistic values” which include friendship, respect for others, peace, harmony, internationalism, multiculturalism etc. These values are realised and promoted by educational systems within Olympism, not being separate values from competitive values but rather supporting each other for the overall aims of humanism.

While McFee (2012) argues that learning to play sport is analogous to what Wittgenstein refers to as learning language games, in which in order to play you have to learn the rules, if not propositionally (by being able to recite the rule) then at least showing ‘acquaintance knowledge’ of the rule (demonstrating in Wittgenstein’s terms how to go on with the game, how to apply the rules). Thus, given the intrinsic relationship between the rule and the activity (sport), it is impossible to claim that you have learned how to play sport if you have not internalised how to play by the rules. If you have learned how to cheat and ‘go on with the game while cheating’, that is not sport in the sense cheating is against moral norms in sports. This is a more sophisticated version of the support for the relationship between sport and ethics or moral behaviour rehearsed by other writers. Where McFee goes further is in questioning whether spectating at (Olympic) sport carries a similar potential for ethical learning and appropriation. This presumably is because there are no normative rules about how to spectate at sporting or Olympic events. In what ways would watching the world championships of a sport be different from watching Olympic competition in that sport? The necessity for internalising the ethical benefits for the sport is not the same for the player as agent and the spectator.

The understanding of Olympism and its values are connected to Coubertin’s philosophy of Olympism with regard to promoting different types of values through sport itself and education. However, there is a need to have critical accounts of Olympic values and deal with differential interpretation in various cultures.

### c. Contribution to the development of the field of Olympic education

Scholars examining Coubertin's writings and speeches describe his works as an eclectic mix of ideas and philosophies that seem unsystematic and contradictory (DaCosta, 2002; Torres, 2004). An analysis of the literature also supports the view that Coubertin's philosophy of Olympism is not explicit and thus not always clear. Moreover, the IOC's definitions of the values of Olympism and Olympic values specified in the Olympic Charter and a range of documents do not provide clear conceptualisation in particular relation to Olympic education in policy and delivery.

Stevens (2017) states that Olympism is positioned as one of the most controversial and debated topics within the human movement field in the sense many studies concentrated on the epistemology of Olympism that led to narrow interpretation of the ideology that Coubertin embodied. The author suggested that a hermeneutical shift from an epistemological analysis (focusing on what Coubertin was saying) to an exploration of ontological structures of understanding (focusing on why and how it was being said) could allow for alternative meanings of Olympism. Consequently, this could allow for alternative interpretations of what Coubertin hoped to achieve with Olympism and for Olympism's relevance in contemporary society and different contexts (Stevens, 2017, p.258).

To sum up, all of the papers identified as dealing with Coubertin's philosophical and educational dimensions of Olympism. The major elements which take up this tradition were largely focused on what Coubertin meant by Olympism, how the values of Olympism and Olympic values have been understood and what kind of elements which derive from the ideals of Olympism are to be delivered through Olympic education programmes. And the discussions on Olympic ideals and the values of Olympism in philosophy are more dominant in this tradition than the practiced application of Olympic education programmes. The philosophical accounts(narratives) of Olympism discussed in this section might be the least relevant to the conceptualisation of the field of Olympic education or too conventional to consider a new attempt in the sense that it has not dealt with a wide range of discussion of Olympism and Olympic values and direct application of them to Olympic education practices.

This thesis is focused indeed on 'how the various interpretations of the idea of Olympism and Olympic values have been infiltrated and delivered through Olympic education' not just on 'how Olympism has been interpreted by different scholars'. Hence, the work done by the scholars here has contributed to comprehensive understanding of the nature and meaning of

Olympism using the philosophical literature helps contextualise the vague descriptions of Olympism that permeate Olympic education programmes.

### **3.2.2 Critical sociology**

#### ***a. General issues relating to critical sociology***

This meta-narrative draws on critical sociological interpretations of Olympism and Olympic values typically influenced by a Marxist/ neo-Marxist, or radical feminist tradition. Researchers in this research tradition focus on identifying the ideological functions of, and contradictions within Olympic systems with understanding of an inherent tension between the Olympic Movement with its explicit goals based on Olympic values, and the tendency to use the Olympic Games to foster the interests of the global consumer market and capitalist values, or of patriarchal values (Devitt, 2012; Kidd, 1996; Kohe, 2010; Krieger, 2012; Lenskyj, 2004; 2012; Patsantaras, 2008). Studies deal with critical analysis and interpretation of Olympism and education programmes with critical sociology perspectives based on the premise that societies are characterised by conflict relations and that Olympic education represents an ideological resource for promoting the interests of certain dominant groups. Analysis of literature on the notion of Olympism, Olympic values, Olympic education, Olympic education programmes for the promotion of the interests of certain groups in practices and educational resources, policy documents and so on.

There are three themes which emerge from the analysis of the selected papers for this critical sociology category. The first theme is a concern about commercialised Olympic education in educational settings (Coburn & McCafferty, 2016; Devitt, 2012; Lenskyj, 2012). Next is that critical perspectives on Olympism in Olympic materials and critical thinking, analytic skills and critical literacy among teachers and young people are absent in the development of Olympic education programmes (Kohe, 2010; Lenskyj, 2004, 2012). And the last theme is about a lack of awareness of the significance of the Olympic athletes as part of Olympic education (Bertling & Wassong, 2016; Krieger, 2012; Wassong, 2006).

#### ***b. The three themes on critical sociology emerging from the review***

##### **i) Commercialised Olympic Education**



First of all, commercialised Olympic education programme in schools and a critique of the participation of corporations in promoting the Olympic Movement have raised concerns. When it comes to the staging of the Games and operation of the Olympics, corporate sponsors provide significant financial support. The IOC, OCOGs, and the NOCs have been increasingly dependent upon and subject to corporate interests. It is evident that revenue generated by corporate sponsors accounts for more than 40% of Olympic revenues and partners provide technical services and product support to the whole of the Olympic Family (IOC, 2017). It is not an exception that the influence of corporations on school-based education is prevalent. Consequently, corporate sponsors actively promote Olympic educational campaigns in schools delivering their corporate agenda with use of their own pedagogy, especially during the Olympic Games.

Coburn and McCafferty (2016) explored how the values of enterprise were promoted in schools and how businesses responded to their responsibilities and opportunities that come with increasing involvement in enterprise education. In the case of Coca-Cola, during London 2012, this corporation was involved directly in supporting curriculum-based projects in Home Economics, ‘enterprise education’ activities and promoted largely ‘extra-curricular’ activities in the event of national schools’ competitions and challenges. Both cases show that Coca-Cola did showcase commitment to social responsibility and the development of good corporate citizenship. The findings suggested that Coca-Cola’s ‘Olympic’ efforts in schools to be perceived as a responsible citizen through corporate social responsibility campaign was overtly about striving to ‘give something back’ to local communities, promoting shared values such as fair play and at the same time they intended to make profits.

More specific examples that corporate interests became part of the school curriculum are seen in some Canadian schools. Devitt (2012) examined the Canadian Olympic School Programme (COSP) which was developed in 2010, the year Vancouver hosted the Winter Games. It provided teachers and students across Canada with Olympic-themed classroom and school resources. One of these resources is a “Project Pack” entitled “*Money Management Save, Share, Spend*” (2010), sponsored by the Royal Bank of Canada (RBC). The package included Olympians’ stories demonstrating how to save, share and spend money through the use of credit card of RBC. Although it provided ‘useful’ advice like “save until you have the money to buy what you want”, students are generally too young to have credit cards. Thus, it is evident that RBC was

using Olympic athletes to teach students about banking and Western capitalist culture. They made use of Olympians in the educational materials, which were not strongly linked to the nature of Olympic education. This raises the question “does this kind of Olympic education which allows corporations to be involved promote any Olympic values and enhance the mission of the Olympic Movement?”.

## ii) Critical thinking and critical literacy for educational materials

The next critical notion derives from a lack of critical perspectives on Olympism in Olympic educational resources and critical thinking, analytic skills, and the claim that critical literacy among teachers and young people is largely absent in the development of Olympic education programmes in the particular cases that were influenced by corporations on Olympic education discussed above. A 2006 report of the Canadian Teachers’ Federation, *Commercialism in Canadian Schools*, summarised problems arising from public schools’ increasing reliance on corporate sources (Canadian Teachers’ Federation, 2006). Materials generated by Olympic-related organisations and/or contracted out by these groups to commercial publishers are not necessarily screened by school boards or teachers with the result that Olympic industry interests are well served while the goals of critical education are not (Lenskjy, 2012).

Kohe (2010) analysed New Zealand’s Olympic education materials and concluded “critical perspectives on the Olympic movement do not have a voice in Olympic education resources” (p.484). Kohe suggests that there is a need for the employment of critical literacy pedagogies when teachers discern the right materials and resource to teach children, not only seeking for the positive aspect of the Olympics but also broader historical and social concerns related to sport, sporting culture and ideals. At a school level, the development and delivery of Olympic education curricula can cause an ongoing demand resulting in excessive-workload and time demands made on teachers. Ready-made curriculum materials such as those provided by companies are quite attractive to schools/teachers. However, as Lenskyj (2012) stated, all educators should take account of challenging Olympic industry hegemony by questioning “who pays?” and “who benefits?” (p.272).

### iii) Athlete education for Olympic education

The last theme is about the position and role of ‘athletes’ in the field of Olympic education. Olympic education is focused on educating Olympic values and Olympism to the youth through sport. The youth are learning about the core elements composing Olympic education derived from the athletes’ efforts and attitudes towards participating in the Olympic Games.

In fact, it is common that Olympians or top athletes get involved when it comes to delivering Olympic values and Olympic spirit to young people as a means of carrying out Olympic education initiatives. It is easy to find touching stories and inspiring and symbolic pictures of Olympians presented in educational materials like textbooks, posters, and video. In addition to this, meeting top athletes is often one of young people’s favourite events providing them with unforgettable moments. For schools and responsible organisations, this is also an immediate idea for Olympic education if financially supported to invite athletes to schools and events.

In this regard, young people would directly learn about Olympic spirit and values through athletes’ experiences and lives with their mindsets and attitudes. These are hardly taught by teachers or educators in schools. It could be regarded as a more valuable and effective way to make young people more active and motivated in their lives.

Krieger (2012) argues that Olympic athletes as role models for children and youth may often be problematic because celebrity athletes whose behaviour fails to demonstrate Olympic values such as sportsmanship, fair play, cooperation and respect for others and for rules, impact negatively on young people. Wassong (2006) points out that a detailed concept of Olympic education for athletes is missing because the primary emphasis is still placed on athletic achievement itself and on scientific methods to increase it. Kidd (1996) saw a gap between aspiration and the reality of Olympic athletes’ lives. In order to reduce the gap, Kidd proposed an explicit programme, adapting outcomes-based pedagogy of the Olympic sports, for imparting the values of Olympism in daily training and competition and at the Olympic Games, and a commitment to assessing the results.

There are a number of programmes for athletes and coaches provided by the Olympic Solidarity, IOA and NOCs. One example is the World Programme of Olympic

Solidarity, which covers five areas (athletes, coaches, NOC Management and Knowledge Sharing, Promotion of the Olympic Values and Forums and Special Projects) of sports development that are considered crucial for NOCs to accomplish the mission of the Olympic Movement for a quadrennial period from 1997-2000 to date. For the athletes and coaches, Olympic Solidarity provides financial support by providing scholarships/grants to elite athletes and coaches for enhancing training and preparation for the Olympic Games, concentrating predominantly on improving performance and administration. Thus, a common suggestion relating to one direction in the development of Olympic education, is that there should be an enhanced focus on the education of the athletes to make them more aware of the nature and significance of Olympic values, and the difficulties of realising such goals and values.

*c. Contribution to the development of the field of Olympic education*

The meta-narratives in the critical sociology category show that the claims, which were made about two decades ago (e.g. Kidd, 1996) in terms of the difference between the ideal and the real Olympic education practices, are still existent. As Kwauk (2008) stated, many scholars have highlighted the humanitarian values such as peace, fair play, and friendship and infused them into education, thereby escaping the critical lens looking at the nature of Olympic education. Olympic education is mis-conceptualised as many forms including idealistic rhetoric about Olympic values but remains unabashedly commercialised in the service of Olympic sponsors (Lenskyj, 2004).

The key concerns here are that educational programmes were more about “transmission of Olympic knowledge” – facts and figures – rather than children’s intellectual ability, critical thinking, and moral reasoning (Lenskyj, 2012), not free from the commercialisation of educational resources in the real setting (Devitt, 2012), concentrating on “high performance and administration” (Kidd, 1996), and relatively downplaying athlete education as part of Olympic education (Krieger, 2012; Wassong, 2006). Thus, Olympic education is considered from this perspective as propaganda rather than education (Devitt, 2012). Given the claims made by the scholars of critical sociology, it is clear that there is a need to examine the specific pedagogy of the Olympics in the educational settings not only in the schools but also for athletes and coaches education (or educators).

### 3.2.3 Curriculum development

#### *a. General issues relating to curriculum development*

Researchers in curriculum development deal with the processes of developing theoretical orientation, conceptual design, content and implementation and application strategies for resources and programmes designed for the implementation of Olympic education. The term ‘curriculum’ refers to lessons and academic content taught in a school or in a specific course or programme (Education Glossary, 2015). It is widely accepted that there are three major components of a curriculum: objectives, content or subject matter, and learning experiences (Lunenburg, 2011; Tyler, 2008). Objectives are often related to “what kind of outcomes are to be expected and what is to be done?”. Curriculum content is about “what is to be taught in the school system?”. Learning experiences refer to “what strategies, resources and activities are employed through the interaction between learner and external conditions in the environment to which he or she can react”. The components are distinct from one another, but it is also crucial to interrelate each of these components for curriculum development (Tyler, 2008). Example questions posed by each of the elements are presented in Table 3.1.

**Table 3. 1 Key elements of curriculum development**

Key elements	Example questions
Objectives	What kind of outcomes are to be expected? (What is planned for the students?)
Content	What kind of content (in what subject) is to be taught? (What is delivered to the students? e.g. knowledge, skills, attitudes, values etc.)
Learning experiences	How is it taught? (What do the students experience? e.g. interaction between teachers and learners, various educational settings such as school, classroom, extra-activities etc.)
Objectives + content	How each objective can be achieved by students through the content they learn?
Objectives + learning experiences	How will learning experiences foster active involvement in the learning process in order to accomplish the expected learning outcomes?
Content + learning experiences	What kind of content taught or selected by teachers have an effect on an activity which the learner engages in, and which results in changes in their behaviours?

(Source: Adapted from Lunenburg, 2011; Tyler, 2008)

In terms of the key principles for Olympic education, scholars in this tradition focus on this question, “how do young people learn moral and positive behaviours and values through Olympic education?”. To seek answers to this question, researchers first examine objectives of Olympic education, content with development of educational materials and Olympic education curriculum in practice with a view to developing a critical paradigm for ‘better education’. There are different ways in which scholars have approached learning experiences and pedagogical orientations in Olympic education. Naul (2008) identifies four approaches to the teaching of Olympic education. In addition, three themes are identified emerging from this review of the literature relating to curriculum development of Olympic educational programmes: Olympism education (Culpan & Wigmore, 2010; Pertie, 2017); Olympic values education (Binder, 2001, 2012; Kohe, 2010); and values legacies through the learning process (Chatziefsthathiou, 2012) and these are discussed below following a review of Naul’s typology.

#### *b. Naul’s four approaches to the development of Olympic education curriculum*

One of the few detailed analyses of the construction of Olympic education programmes and their curricula is that of Roland Naul in his text *Olympic Education*, (Naul, 2008). Naul identifies four approaches to Olympic education initiatives implemented in schools: knowledge-oriented approach, experience-oriented approach, physical achievement-oriented approach, and lifeworld-oriented approach.

- 1) The knowledge-oriented approach “seeks to explain the Olympic idea by means of its historical and educational legacy” (Naul, 2008, p.118). This takes place in the form of “knowledge transfer” and “knowledge processing”, typically using textbooks, readers, brochures, working materials and teachers’ notes. Not only schools but also many NOAs have published various types of publication such as posters, guides, pamphlets to pass knowledge to young people as an important way to promote Olympic education worldwide.
- 2) The experience-oriented approach “employs encounters both inside and outside the school at games, sports, art and music festivals” (Naul, 2008, p.118). It takes place at youth camps, in school partnerships, and exchange programmes, festivals and celebrations – to promote mutual familiarity as a prerequisite for the development of mutual respect in the spirit of the Olympics and cultural understanding.

- 3) The physical achievement-oriented approach is based on “emphasis of physical achievement, fairness, and mutual respect developed during intensive striving for sporting excellence” (Naul, 2008, p.119). It takes place mainly in the physical education curriculum, in extracurricular sport activities and interschool sports (events). Geßmann (as cited in Naul, 2008) stresses that ‘achievement’ represents the essential orientation towards progress in learning and striving for sporting perfection which is the basis for the development of social values by competing with others. It is expected that this kind of competitive environment and fulfilment from the sports competition as a form of Olympic education can influence children extending beyond sports lessons and the school.
- 4) The lifeworld<sup>8</sup>-oriented approach “links the Olympic principles to children’s and young people’s own social experience in sport and their experiences in other areas of their lives” (Naul, 2008, p.119). It combines Olympic principles with children’s and young people’s social experience in their daily lives. Drawing on Binder’s (2000) view on Olympic education, this approach interprets the Olympic ideals as motivation for learning activities in all aspects of life, integrated with active participation in sport and physical activity.

Although these approaches individually involve teaching purposes and typical formats for the development and implementation of Olympic education, they often exist in combination in school and other education contexts. Both the experienced-oriented and physical achievement-oriented approaches can be incorporated in the sense of an active lifestyle with the idea of fair play and experiencing rules and standards from other cultures. Tasks and initiatives of Olympic education are viewed not only from a sporting perspective or a social perspective alone but are linked by means of the various lifeworld relationships. Thus, it is likely to work more effectively, applying an integrated perspective to the operationalisation of Olympic education. Naul (2008) suggests that the lifeworld orientation, supplemented with knowledge, culture and sporting experiences and the constant striving for physical achievement offers a foundation for an ‘integrated didactic approach for Olympic education’. His intention is the lifeworld orientation to be positioned to supplement and expand the other three and thus, all four didactic approaches are required to fully encompass the entirety of Olympic education.

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<sup>8</sup> Lifeworld is a term which is translated from a German word ‘*Lebenswelt*’ firstly used by Edmund Husserl (1859-1938). He highlighted, in phenomenology the world as immediately or directly experienced in the subjectivity of everyday life, as distinguished from the objective “worlds” of the sciences (Husserl, 1970).

c. The three themes on Olympic education curriculum development emerging from the review

i) Olympism education and physical (sport) education

Some scholars, including Culpan and Wigmore (2010), and Pertie (2017), see that physical education and sport practices in school have direct application in terms of ‘*Olympism education*’ which focuses on Olympism utilising a critical pedagogy. Olympism is the word that encapsulates the ideals of the Olympic Movement based on the interaction of the qualities of the body, will and mind. The term ‘Olympism’ may be the one that can help to set out objectives of Olympic educational programme because Coubertin coined the term of Olympism for educational values of sport and the Olympic pedagogy. According to the work of Culpan and Moon (2009), Olympism education is defined as “a culturally relevant experiential process of learning an integrated set of life principles through the practice of sport” (p.17). Olympism education is considered distinct from Olympic education, in the sense that Olympism education focuses less on the delivery of technical aspects of the Games (the ‘knowledge-based’ orientation of Naul), and more on the philosophy of the practice of Olympism implemented predominantly through the physical education context (Culpan & Wigmore, 2010).

Arnold (1996) supports the view that Olympism is a rightful and legitimate part of physical education, arguing the promotion of Olympism is best maximised through physical education and sport education in schools. Parry et al. (2007) also state that “the philosophy of Olympism has been the most coherent systematisation of the ethical and political values underlying the practice of sport so far to have emerged” (p.214). This leads to the question of how effectively we can make the curriculum to maximise the learning benefits associated with Olympism and its values. Culpan and Wigmore (2010) propose that ‘Olympism education’ should be developed as follows (p.70):

- Having less emphasis on the technical aspects (functional facts and figures) of the Games
- Having more emphasis on the philosophy and practice of Olympism
- Having more emphasis on pedagogical coherence which encourages and fosters critiques and debate



- Being manifested through experiential physical education and sport that fosters the practise of critical consumerism and social transformation
- Having more acknowledgement of and alignment with the country's physical education curriculum requirements
- Having an overall outcome of developing a type of active citizen who can contribute to building a more peaceful and better world

Some countries which have given greater emphasis to physical education curricula, such as New Zealand and Germany, are more likely to develop educational programmes for the purpose of promoting Olympism and its values through sport and physical activities. In the case of New Zealand, the [New Zealand] Ministry of Education (2004) incorporated their Olympic education resources for physical education, with practical specific pedagogical suggestions for Olympism education within physical education contexts, subsequently publishing various learning resources for the Olympic games (e.g. *Showcase China – Beijing 2008 Olympic Games*).

However, it is difficult to generalise that Olympism and values can be effectively delivered through school physical education. According to the *World-wide Survey of School Physical Education* undertaken by the UNESCO (2013), during the primary school phase, there is an average of 97 minutes weekly dedicated to the physical education curriculum; in the secondary school phase, there is an average of 99 minutes weekly. Physical education time allocations, however, vary depending on nations. For example, Denmark, England and Germany in Europe spend more than 120 minutes per week on physical education while Pakistan and Nepal in Asia spend 35-45 minutes per week. In the case of those countries which give less importance in their education systems to physical education, there might be limits to the delivery of Olympism education through PE classes and sport activities.

## ii) Olympic values education as integrated curriculum

While some scholars are supportive of the educative worth of Olympism and the delivery through PE and sport activities, Binder (2001, 2012) and Naul (2008) reveal that there are diverse, multiple and contested forms of 'Olympic education' across the

globe. Binder (2012) questions whether Olympic education programmes should be centred on physical education curricula. Thus, she has developed ‘*values education*’ beyond schools and PE classes, to promote an integration of the Olympic idea within everyday life (as suggested in Naul’s (2008) notion of a lifeworld curriculum orientation). Naul (2008) notes that the lifeworld orientation draws its inspiration from the more holistic focus of the Olympic Charter rather than a focus simply on effort and eurythmy. He suggests that orientation needs “thematic and contextual supplementation from the other orientations (knowledge-based, experimental and physical achievement through effort)” (p.121). Thus, this lifeworld orientation provides a more flexible and integrated context for implementation of an Olympic values education initiative, drawing attention those values from the perspective of other subject areas or community projects.

The lifeworld centred orientation became the baseline for the IOC’s *OVEP* toolkit (Binder, 2007; IOC, 2016c), which was intended to provide a training manual or curriculum guide for Olympic education in practice. The *OVEP* aims to contribute to the Olympic ideal of ‘building a better world through sport’ by means of curriculum that uses sport pedagogy and focuses on values-based learning on the basis of promoting three fundamental Olympic values (excellence, friendship and respect) and five educational values (joy of effort, pursuit of excellence, fair play, balance of body, mind and will and practicing respect) (IOC, 2016c). The contents embedded in the toolkit and activity sheets, however, contain somewhat positive aspects only and are not critically designed. It largely neglects salient Olympic issues related to politics, economics, corruption, gender, and racism and anti-Olympic attitudes, behaviours and beliefs of athletes and officials. This challenge brings out the scholarly critiques in terms of morally focused education endeavour given the history of the modern Olympics (Lenskyj, 2012), the universality of Olympism (Bale & Christensen, 2004) and differentiation between the concept and conception of Olympism (Da Costa, 2006; Parry, 2007). This kind of critical perspective is placed not only in the analysis of the IOC’s publication for Olympic education but also found in educational resources such as textbooks and toolkits developed and utilised in the school curriculum settings (Binder, 2001, 2012; Kohe, 2010).

Here is an example of learning materials developed and used for integrated Olympic education in the school curriculum. Kohe (2010) examined Olympic education

programmes incorporated into New Zealand's health and physical education curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1999) and "*Showcase China – Beijing 2008*" online material (Ministry of Education, 2008). The resources, directed at students aged between 12 and 15, are comprised of eight components: the educative value of sport; the morals and ethics of sport; Olympic Games; team focus; Olympic Youth Games; Olympic Games – Themes; Wearing a message<sup>9</sup>; and Social action. Kohe (2010) found the scope and layout of the resource as a good indication of the type of rhetoric and vernacular used by the creators. The resources, however, focus on Olympic literacy, specifically the words, ideals, phrases, motto, symbols, goals and aims of the movement and its philosophy. In this regard, the author points out that references to current historical analysis or critical Olympic scholarship such as the impetus behind the conception of the movement, development of the IOC, and the creation and marketing of the Olympic philosophy are largely absent. For overcoming the challenges related to the delivery of positive contents including moral behaviour, good character, Kohe (2010) draws on the idea of 'prolympism' of Donnelly (1996). 'Prolympism' refers to a professional model of sport driven by success and performance that not only has affected competition at the elite level but is also increasingly witnessed in mainstream education. This approach is one that employs critical literacy pedagogies to teach young people not only the positive aspects of the games, but also broader historical and social concerns related to sport, sporting cultures and sporting ideals (Kohe, 2010, p.491).

### iii) Values legacies through learning processes

In the previous sections, it has been discussed that Olympic education should be generally designed and delivered not only in PE lessons and sport activities but also in integrated curriculum and beyond the school curriculum. This can further extend to the discussion of value legacies that are achieved through "*learning processes*" in varying contexts. Although there are numerous critiques on analysis of content and strategies for teaching Olympic education, Chatziefsthathiou and Henry (2009, 2012) have argued that the philosophy of Olympism aims to propose a way of life based on values that claim to enhance people's lives, particularly those of young people broadly engaged in

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<sup>9</sup> 'Wearing a message' activity makes students think about the meaning of wearing national team's uniform with regard to culture, values, and sponsors.

learning processes. Naul (2008) states that it is necessary to take into account formal and informal learning processes for Olympic education in social settings varying from the classroom in schools to global communities, where children live and where sport and physical activities are alive (p. 115).

The learning process can be considered as part of the learning experience among the components of curriculum development in the light of the focus of ‘how to teach and in what circumstances (learning experience)’, not ‘what to teach (content)’ and ‘why to teach (objectives)’. Chatziefstathiou (2012) supports the view that Olympic education should be understood more broadly beyond the strict sense of education and should encompass a series of actions and initiatives which can take place in different contexts and for different tasks. It is suggested that Olympic legacies through learning processes for Olympic education can generate value legacies linked with Olympism and the Olympic Games.

In fact, ‘Olympic education’ in relation to legacy issues has been neglected in the previous Olympic Games and the literature (Panagiotopoulou, 2014; Scheu & Preuss, 2017). Scheu and Preuss (2017) carried out a systematic review of literature on the legacy of both summer and winter Olympic Games held from 1896 to 2016. One important finding was an absence of legacy issues in relation to the impacts of operationalisation of Olympic education in the previous host cities and nations. The host cities and nations seek to achieve sustainable impact from the Olympic Games, but legacy is promised before the Olympic Games. Particularly, evaluating outcomes of Olympic education programme after the Games is considerably difficult. In this regard, Gratton et al. (2006) insisted that host cities tend to focus on planning to stage the mega event itself, rather than preparing for post-games legacy opportunities.

With regard to the notion of ‘Olympic legacy through education’ in the case of the London 2012 Olympic Games, the aim to use London 2012 to ‘inspire a generation’ was a key thread in their plans. Its legacy plans were developed by the government to ensure staging a successful and inspirational event and to achieve a legacy in sport, health, education, tourism and business (DCMS, 2012). The proposed education legacy was extensive in scope, seeking to achieve a positive impact on young people’s lifestyle choices, values and aspirations. This was expected to be gained through increased participation in sport, addressing youth dissatisfaction and orienting young people

towards an understanding of their world in a global context (Griffiths & Armour, 2012, p.214). There was an attempt for a few scholars to seek the impacts of Olympic education on young people as Olympic legacies in the context of London 2012 (Griffiths & Armour, 2013; Kohe, 2017; Kohe & Bowen-Jones, 2016). Those papers focused on immediate outputs such as young people's engagement with sport activity, physical education, sport participation rather than outcomes. Thus, Griffiths and Armour (2013) suggested that there is a need to develop programmes and activities staged in the name of 'Olympic legacy' upon clearer conceptual and practical foundations such as logic models to examine the generative processes behind Olympic legacy programmes.

#### *d. Contribution to the development of the field of Olympic education*

The meta-narratives in the curriculum development category show various concepts of Olympic educational programmes which have been developed and integrated in school education and/or have potential for future development. Although Olympic education was not initially intended to be integrated within school curricula, it is evident that, along with the relevant policies of the IOC (e.g. Olympic Charters, Agenda 2020, educational practices undertaken by the IOA, Olympic Solidarity), scholars recognised the importance of Olympic education programmes developed and delivered in school curricula.

For effective development of Olympic education programmes or curricula, a dynamic combination of educational principles including objectives, content, and learning experiences (process) is required. In addition to this, Naul's four orientations provide a useful framework for the development of Olympic education programmes which are distinctive because of the core content of the curricula which is 'Olympism' and the integration of Olympic themes and topics with content and process of existing educational programmes.

Nevertheless, it is difficult to develop a global (Olympic education) model for the development and implementation for school curriculum given that educational systems and cultures throughout the world are so different and Olympic education initiatives would have to be custom-made to suit educational jurisdictions and cultures (Binder, 1996). Various Olympic education policies and practices in different contexts will be reviewed in Section 3.2.6.

### 3.2.4 Educational psychology

#### *a. General issues relating to educational psychology*

Educational psychology includes two academic disciplines: education and psychology. Clifford (1984) defines educational psychology as applying the methods of psychology to studying the process of education from the view of combining education and psychology. Others such as Grinder (1981) define educational psychology as knowledge gained from psychology and applied to the activities of the classroom. Despite different definitions among scholars, the accepted view about educational psychology is that educational psychology is distinct from other branches of psychology because it focuses on understanding and improvement of learning and teaching processes as its primary goal (Wittrock, 1992, p.138). In addition, it has its own theories, research methods, problems and techniques (Godelek & Kayar, 2012). Thus, educational psychology is commonly understood as a field that studies and applies theories and concepts from psychology to the field of human development in educational settings (Godelek & Kayar, 2012).

In this respect, Olympic education is usually integrated within school curricula or extra-school activities (educational settings) and theories and concepts from psychology are also useful for the discussion of positive effects on human development of young people through Olympic education programmes. In educational psychology, human development embraces various types of development such as physical, cognitive, social, personal, and moral development. Educational psychologists draw on a range of development theories which tell us how people, in particular children, grow and change over time. Representative theories of human development are cognitive developmental theory (Piaget, 1936), social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), moral development (Hoffman, 1983; Kohlberg, 1963), and personal and social development (Erikson, 1968). Such theories provide a useful framework for thinking about human growth, development, and learning not only in general school education but also sport activities and physical education.

In the literature on the implementation of Olympic education programmes, there are a few studies focusing on the changes in attitudes and behaviours of young people who have undergone Olympic educational initiatives in educational settings with a positivist tradition. Eight out of the 110 papers reviewed were identified as relevant to the educational psychology category in this meta-narrative review (Ababei, 2014; Hassandra et al., 2007; Papadimitriou et al., 2005; Šukys & Majauskiene, 2013, 2014, 2017; Varfolomeeva & Surinov, 2016). The

shared aim among these studies is simply to evaluate whether each Olympic education programme or educational intervention works successfully in achieving its objectives. However, in what ways and to what extent the intended effects on young people's attitudes, behaviours and minds take place will vary. In this respect, although the number of studies is small, the range of theories embedded in the studies and focused analysis is somewhat broad.

### *b. Meta-narratives in educational psychology based on the identified papers*

An Olympic education programme was introduced in Greek schools in 2001, supported by the Hellenic Ministry of Education and the Organising Committee of the 2004 Athens Olympic Games. Its aim was to familiarise young people with the Olympic Games and their history, to introduce them to the Olympic Movement, and to inspire them to get involved in sports and in the Olympic Games (Hassandra et al., 2007). This education programme was continued after the Athens 2004 Games and ended in the academic year 2008/2009 (Mountakis, 2016). Papadimitriou et al. (2005) compared the attitudes of male and female pupils attending primary or secondary schools towards the subject of Olympic education. Their findings were that although both boys and girls had a positive attitude towards the continuation of learning about Olympic education, they had different expectations, in general, which related to their sex and age. The differences seen in their answers are regarded as normal because of their social background, their age, the requirements of other subjects taught and their interests.

Hassandra et al. (2007) evaluated the effectiveness of an intervention programme integrated in the Greek Olympic education programme, aimed to develop fair play behaviours of young children. They insisted that as the mere participation in a sport programme does not ensure physical development unless the programme is tested for its effectiveness, similarly social and moral development need to be based on effective programmes with specific theoretically based principles (p.99). For effectiveness in enhancing moral development in the educational settings, they used teaching strategies derived from two theoretical perspectives: social learning theory<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>10</sup> Teaching strategies from social learning theory (Bandura, 1977): a) demonstration of desirable behaviours: students suggested the appropriate behaviour a player, a coach, and a referee should have in a game, and subsequently made a written commitment to follow these behaviours in their games; b) instructions from the teacher; c) verbal reinforcement of positive behaviours: such as hand-shaking opponents etc.; d) rewards: colour cards were awarded when a student had shown the daily target behaviour

and structural developmental theory<sup>11</sup>. The “Fair play” questionnaire (Hassandra et al., 2002) was used to assess student’s fair play self-reported behaviours with four dimensions of the scale measuring two pro-social (convention and respect to teammates) and two anti-social (gamesmanship and cheating) fair play behaviours. The results of this study revealed significant improvement in fair play behaviours, classroom support and autonomy, orientation toward play and intrinsic motivation of the intervention group. One of the findings was that the effects of the fair play intervention were still evident two months after the end of the programme as students managed to incorporate their fair play behaviours to other new sports.

Šukys and Majauskiene have undertaken a series of research projects focusing on the effects of Olympic education programmes implemented in Lithuanian schools on adolescents’ attitudes towards Olympism values (Šukys & Majauskiene, 2013), adolescent athletes’ values and sport behaviours (Šukys & Majauskiene, 2014), and adolescents’ prosocial behaviours (Šukys & Majauskiene, 2017). In their first publication (Šukys & Majauskiene, 2013), they used the Olympic Questionnaire (Telama et al., 2002), which lists 52 values of Olympism. The values are categorised into four groups: social virtues of Olympism (e.g. peace, solidarity, equality, rejection of discrimination); personal profit of professionalism (e.g. financial gain, popularity, victory, victory at all costs); human values of Olympism (e.g. mutual respect, fair play); and individual pursuit of excellence (e.g. victory, self-control, physical capacity). The questionnaire survey data revealed that in schools implementing the Olympic education programme, pupils associated human values with Olympism more than pupils in schools where this education programme was not implemented. However, this research could not assess programme contents which different schools might have in different school curriculum for Olympic education programme.

The other two studies of the authors are distinguished from their previous studies in the sense that previous studies introduced above investigated the impact of Olympic education programmes on students’ attitudes towards the Olympic education programme itself (Papadimitriou et al., 2005) and the values of Olympism (Šukys & Majauskiene, 2013), and fair play behaviours in sports (Hassandra et al., 2007). On the other hand, the latter two papers focused on the effectiveness of implementation of an integrated Olympic education programme (implemented in Lithuania) in terms of the changes in prosocial behaviours among adolescents

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<sup>11</sup> Teaching strategies from structural developmental theory (Kohlberg, 1984): a) establishing dialogue; b) moral dilemmas; c) recognition of moral balances; and d) problem solving tasks.



(Šukys & Majauskienė 2014; Šukys et al., 2017). Šukys et al. (2017) investigated the changes in prosocial behaviours following the implementation of an integrated Olympic education programme and what types of prosocial behaviours are most affected throughout three-year measurements pre- and post- intervention. Their findings suggest that the integrated Olympic education programme effectively encouraged three types of prosocial behaviours including the compliant, altruistic and dire prosocial behaviours<sup>12</sup> (Šukys et al., 2017).

Olympic education is not necessarily implemented in the school curriculum and targeted at the youth. Although the awareness of the necessity of Olympic education implemented in schools has been strengthened among the host cities or nations of the Olympic Games, there are various types of Olympic education around the world. One example is that some schools in Romania carried out ‘Olympic education actions’ to promote the Olympic Movement as a one-time event. Based on the case of the Rumanian practices, Ababei (2014) investigated the students’ understanding of Olympism and moral behaviours in sports and opinions about Olympic education actions in high schools. The author concluded that Olympism needs to be promoted more through the participation of all who want young people to form behaviours of sportsmanship and fair play. Another issue is that it is common to deliver Olympic education programme in school education from primary schools. Some researchers have particular interest in Olympic education as a factor of social and personal development of pre-schoolers (Varfolomeeva & Surinov, 2016). Varfolomeeva and Surinov (2016) provided a design and development of new approaches to the physical and moral education of children of preschool institutions related to the Olympic education with a view to improve their educational, cultural and sports activities.

### c. Contribution to the development of Olympic education

There are two implications to the development of Olympic education. First, educational psychology suggests that theories and concepts of psychology can provide a framework for

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<sup>12</sup> The participants completed the 21-item questionnaire to assess how likely they were to engage in prosocial behaviours across a variety of situations. Six types of prosocial behaviour are public, anonymous, dire, emotional, compliant, and altruistic. Public behaviour is defined as behaviour intended to benefit others enacted in the presence of others. Anonymous behaviour is defined as the tendency to help others without other people’s knowledge. Dire behaviour involves helping others during emergency or crisis situations. Compliant behaviour involves helping others when asked. Altruistic behaviour involves helping others when there is little or no perceived potential for a direct and explicit reward to the self. Emotional behaviour is a behaviour intended to benefit others enacted under emotionally evocative situations.

evaluating the effectiveness of Olympic education programmes. In particular, when it comes to the investigation of the changes in moral and social behaviours through Olympic education, the application and understanding of theories and concepts can be useful for designing Olympic education activities. Second, in terms of research methods, the field of educational psychology relies heavily on quantitative methods rather than qualitative methods, including testing and measurement, to enhance educational activities related to instructional design, classroom management and assessment.

However, some research in educational psychology simply seeks to describe something of interest. One example of descriptive research is a survey or interview. Educational psychologists use interviews and surveys to find out about students' and teachers' experiences, beliefs, behaviours, and feelings. In the research of Hassandra et al. (2007), teachers made some comments on students' actual behaviours towards fair play in their reflexive journals in order to use qualitative evidence. This kind of qualitative data is helpful in confirming quantitative findings. Despite the attempt of using qualitative evidence for the effectiveness of the implementation of Olympic education programme, there is a still lack of qualitative methods applied in the field of educational psychology.

To sum up, meta-narratives in educational psychology are concerned with human development such as social, moral and behavioural development through educational interventions. The selected studies have examined mainly the effectiveness of the implementation of Olympic education programmes in school curricula and the effects of Olympic education programmes on various types of human development which is related to values of Olympism. Thus, it is evident that these studies seek to evaluate the claims that Olympic education programme can be used as a means of developing young students' positive attitudes and behaviours employing a cross-sectional quantitative study predominantly in the positivist tradition. However, these studies could not provide insights into or robust evidence of how and why Olympic education affects personal values and behavioural changes not only in sport activity but also in everyday life.

### 3.2.5 Development of evaluation measures

#### *a. General issues relating to development of evaluation measures*

A small number of researchers in this research tradition have sought to develop various instruments for evaluating aspects of the Olympic education programme implemented, in particular those for the Athens 2004 Olympic Games and training seminars for the teachers who delivered the programme in schools. The researchers have focused on developing measurement techniques, including quantitative methods and qualitative approaches, and testing the efficacy of the proposed techniques.

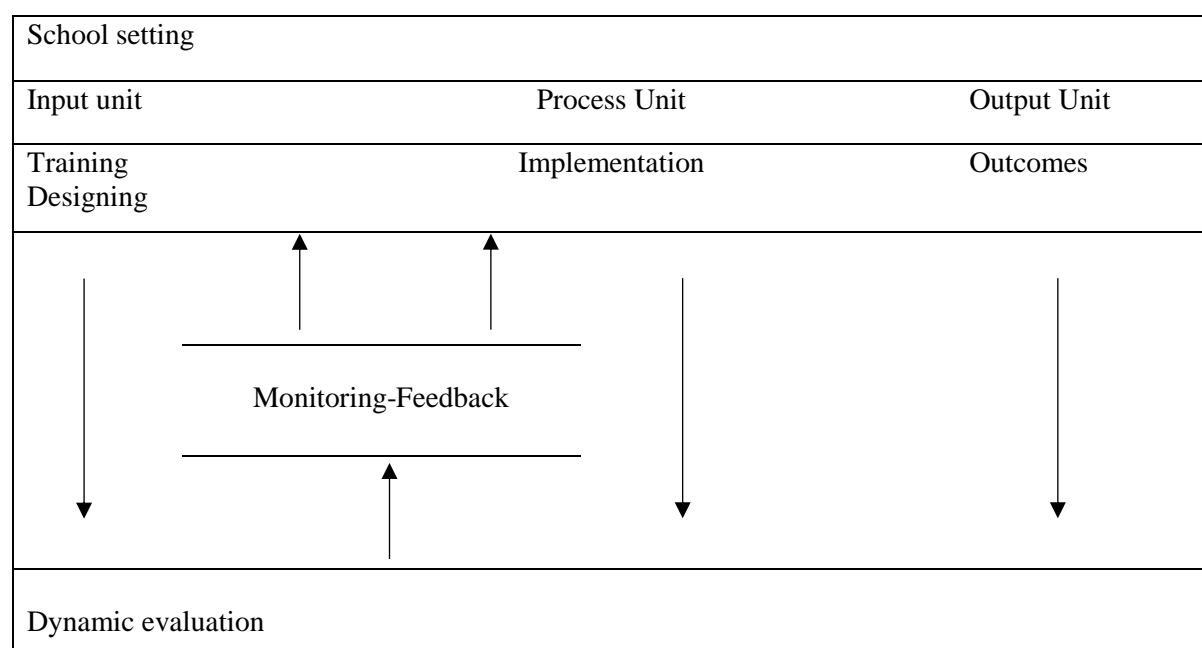
While there are the least number of papers classified in this research tradition, and these papers are authored by a single group (Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios et al., 2004; Grammatikopoulos, Papacharisis et al., 2004; Grammatikopoulos, Tsigilis, et al., 2005), making this a relatively underdeveloped area in the literature, it is worth giving an account of how this research tradition has been formed in the literature. There are several reasons why this approach was developed by this particular group of researchers. First, this group of authors was funded by the Greek Ministry of Education to undertake work in this field and produced a series of papers relating to developing measurement of education programmes employing various approaches. Secondly, the group has a shared perspective on the evaluation of Olympic education. They agree with Naul's (1998) account that despite the efforts made by host cities and nations on the development of Olympic education there remains a lack of theoretical unity and subsequent evaluation. The selected papers investigated the same Olympic education programme (implemented in primary and secondary schools in Greece) and the training seminars developed for teachers responsible for delivering the Olympic education programme. Interviews and surveys of school teachers were implemented at the training seminars organised for planning the implementation of Olympic education programme. And lastly, each of the papers in this group has an explicit and interrelated aim, focusing on the 'development of instruments' for evaluation of the education programme (rather than the evaluation of the programme per se). This aim is distinct from a consideration of how effectively, or in what ways, the Olympic education programme had been developed and implemented from the perspective of the research tradition of policy evaluation (see section 3.2.6). Thus, this meta-narrative is concerned with how, and with what measures to evaluate Olympic education.

*b. Meta-narratives in development of evaluation measures based on the identified papers*

During school years 1998 to 2000, the Ministry of Education (the Pedagogical Institute), which was responsible for the introduction of educational programmes and innovative actions in the schools, developed and implemented an Olympic education pilot programme called ‘*Introduction to Olympic and Sports Education in Primary Schools*’ (Mountakis,1999). In the subsequent school year 2000-2001, an Olympic education programme was formally introduced in Greek primary and secondary schools, with lessons learned from the implementation of the two-year Olympic education pilot programme.

Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios et al., (2004) applied a dynamic evaluation approach to evaluate the Olympic education programme. The dynamic evaluation approach, proposed by Dimitropoulos (1999), is characterised by an attempted synthesis of several methods (Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios et al., 2004, p.255). This approach has two characteristics: ‘selectivity’ and ‘dynamism’. Selectivity refers to the combination of different methods and approaches (e.g. internal-external evaluation, summative-formative evaluation, qualitative-quantitative methods) while dynamism is derived from a ‘system approach’ which consists of units such as ‘input’, ‘process’, ‘output’, ‘monitoring’ and ‘feedback’ conceptualising the whole as a system (see Figure 3.1) (Dimitropoulos, 1999).

**Figure 3. 1 A system for dynamic evaluation of an educational programme**



(Source: Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios et al., 2004, p.256)

The evaluation of the Olympic education programme applying the dynamic education approach was aimed at a) the initial design and training of the programme (i.e. inputs); b) programme implementation (i.e. process/throughputs); c) the extent to which the purposes of the programme were achieved (i.e. outputs); and d) examining students' reception of the programme (i.e. outputs or outcomes) (Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios et al., 2004, p.25).

For the dynamic evaluation approach, Grammatikopoulos et al. developed two measures; the Professional Development Evaluation Form (PDEF) and Evaluation Scale of Educational Program's Implementation (ESEPI). The first instrument was devised for the evaluation of the training programmes (i.e. the evaluation of the training aspects of inputs) (Grammatikopoulos, Papacharisis et al., 2004). The PDEF consists of three factors with 21 items. Exploratory factor analysis indicated the three factors with high internal consistency: *training*, *study groups*, and *total impression* which are associated with the professionals' evaluation of the effectiveness of their training. The second instrument, ESEPI, was developed to evaluate the implementation of the Olympic education programme (Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios et al., 2004). According to exploratory factor analysis, the instrument consisted of six factors with 26 items. The factors obtained were *facilities*, *educational material*, *relationships*, *administration*, *training*, and *educational procedures*. This set of factors are those which relate to the delivery of the programmes (and thus represent a focus on throughputs). Figure 3.2 shows the design for the dynamic evaluation procedure of the Olympic education programme.

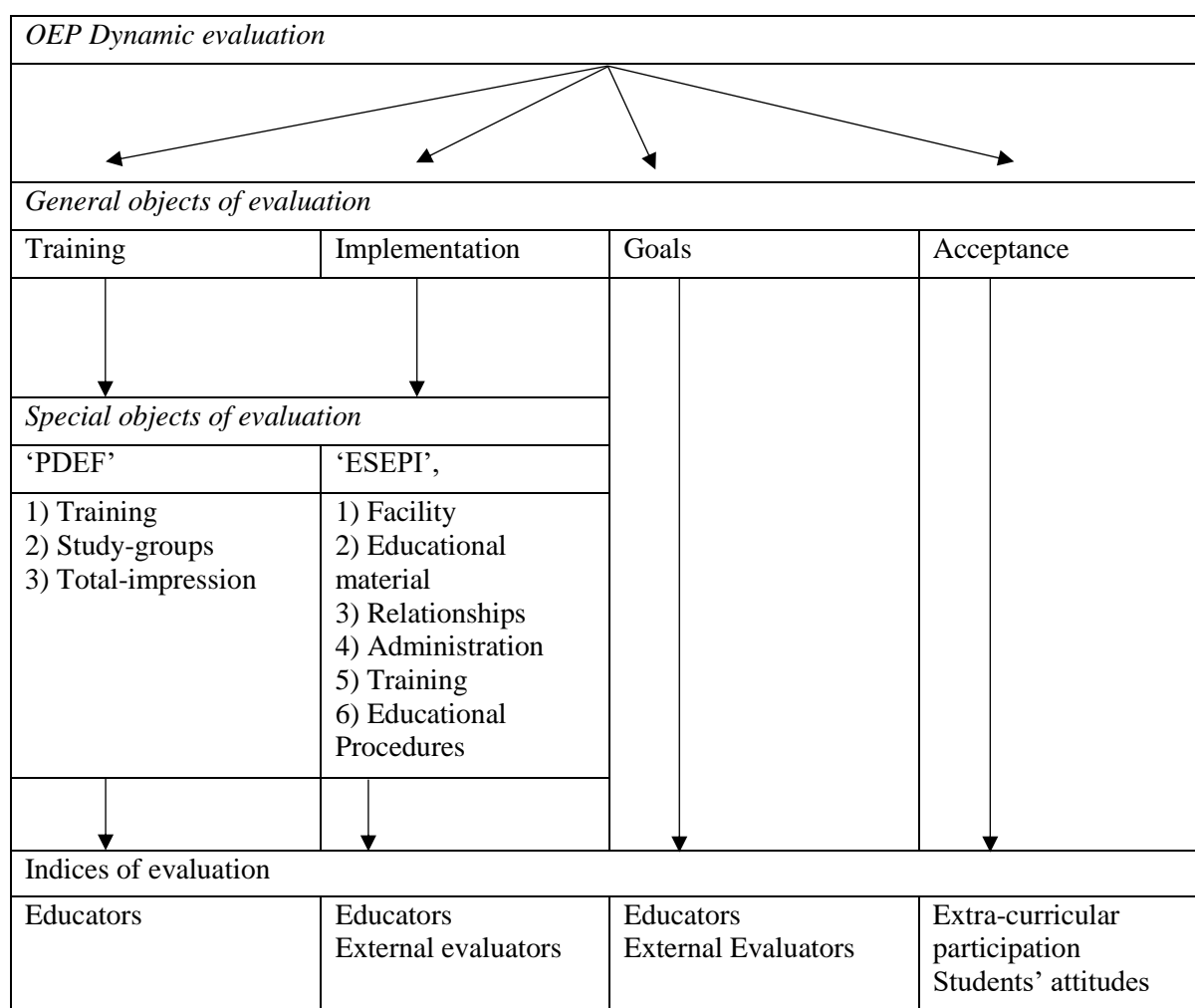
The evaluation of the programme's acceptance by the students was undertaken based on two indices: the attitudes of the students toward the Olympic education programme and extra-curricular participation of the students (Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios et al., 2004). However, the methodology for assessing how student attitudes were evaluated is not provided by the authors beyond the broad statement that "the approximately 3000 students who completed an attitudes questionnaire provided positive feedback (Grammatikopoulos, 2004). In other words, the students considered the Olympic education programme as a very well accepted program" (Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios et al., 2004, p.260).

There are thus significant limitations in the discussion of findings from the evaluation in terms of whether the Olympic education programme met its outputs and outcome goals because of an absence of data collection, analysis and results in the paper<sup>13</sup>.

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<sup>13</sup> Further details in relation to outputs and outcomes may be commented upon in the doctoral thesis of Grammatikopoulos (2004) referenced in the papers.

**Figure 3. 2 Design for the dynamic evaluation procedure of the Olympic education programme**



(Source: Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios et al., 2004, p.258)

### c. Contribution to the development of the field of Olympic education

The collective finding in all the identified papers was that 'the (developed) method or instrument appeared to be a promising technique concerning the evaluation of educational settings' (Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios et al., 2004; Grammatikopoulos, Papacharisis et al., 2004; Grammatikopoulos, Tsigilis, et al., 2005). Evaluation procedures in educational programmes are set to try to examine the overall success of the design and preparation for delivering the programme, but not of the programme's implementation (Grammatikopoulos, Tsigilis, et al., 2005).

The development of techniques or policies relating to evaluation of Olympic education programmes has been a key issue among host cities/nations staging the Olympic Games as the

promotion of Olympic education programmes came to be a compulsory requirement for them. Thus, the development of a set of instruments specific to the programme's implementation could provide useful information inform the design of other similar Olympic education programmes (Dimitropoulos, 1998).

However, this research approach has not been pursued subsequent to Athens Games in the Olympic education literature over the past decade, even though development of measures of educational intervention is mainstream topic in education studies. There are some essential conditions for developing a fuller set of evaluation measures to apply to Olympic education programmes outputs and outcomes in practice. Olympic education programmes should be developed in a continuous and long-term process, and thus outputs and outcomes may only emerge over time. Many Olympic education projects and programmes are implemented in a short-term period and/or as a one-time event, and so it becomes difficult to identify the longer-term achievement of outputs and outcomes. Thus, the development of methods poses serious challenges within a time limit, since outputs and, in particular, outcomes will take time to mature. Financial support and specialised resources dedicated over a period of time, along with a long-term plan for Olympic education, would seem to be necessary for the development of appropriate evaluation measures.

A further limitation worth noting is that this meta-narrative focuses on positivistic data collection and analysis, to the exclusion of qualitative data which may provide more sensitive insights into the impacts of the programmes.

### **3.2.6 Policy analysis and evaluation**

#### ***a. General issues relating to development of policy analysis and evaluation***

Another research tradition emerging from the meta-narrative analysis draws on policy studies. It has broadly focused on policy processes and outcomes resulted from the analysis of the IOC's policies related to Olympic education and to the review of Olympic education programmes developed and implemented in different countries before and during the Olympics in hosting and non-hosting countries. Unlike the previous meta-narrative, the concern is less with developing methodologies for evaluation and more with evaluating the success of outcomes. In this research tradition, a total of 21 out of the 110 papers reviewed were identified, including 15 empirical articles and six which involved primarily conceptual discussion or commentary.

Empirical evidence was collected employing three types of method, namely interviews, questionnaire surveys, and document analysis, both singly and in combination.

In terms of the policies and practice of Olympic education in different countries, since the development of an ‘official’ Olympic education programme became a virtually compulsory requirement for host cities/nations, from the 2004 Athens Games (Grammatikopoulos, Hassandra et al., 2005; Mountakis, 2016) to date, we have experienced various Olympic education initiatives associated with Beijing 2008 (Brownell, 2009; Wang & Masumoto, 2009, 2010), London 2012 (Girginov, 2016; Griffiths & Armour, 2013; Kohe & Bowen-Jones, 2016; Chen & Henry, 2017), and Rio 2016 (Knijnik & Tavares, 2012; Reis et al., 2014) and upcoming Olympic games in 2020 in Tokyo. In addition, the IOC created the Youth Olympic Games (Krieger & Kristiansen, 2016; Schnitzer et al., 2014; Wong, 2012) for young people not only to participate in sporting competition but also to learn about Olympic values through Olympic education programmes, and specifically the Culture and Education Programme (now *Learn and Share Programme*). It is not only a concern of the host cities/nations of the Olympic Games. Regardless of staging this mega sporting events, non-hosting countries such as New Zealand (Culpan & Stevents, 2017) and South Africa (Roux & Janse Van Rensburg, 2017) have promoted Olympic education as part of the Olympic movement. Other countries such as France and Australia made an attempt to undertake Olympic education during the event when they hosted Albertville 1992 (Monnin, 2012) and Sydney 2000 (Baka, 2008) but it was considered to be a less important policy practice at that time.

There are three themes emerging from the analysis of the papers. The first theme addresses evaluation of policy and programmes related to Olympic education of the previous Olympic Games (from the 2004 Athens Games to the 2016 Rio Games). The second theme relates to policy evaluation of Olympic education practices undertaken in non-hosting countries. The third theme is concerned with evaluation of the Youth Olympic Games and the CEP. The following sections will discuss how Olympic education designed and delivered in the previous Olympic Games and different contexts was evaluated by key authors and will consider how Olympic universals are perceived and communicated in culturally diverse contexts, and whether there is any cultural specificity found in those settings.



*b. Theme 1. Policy analysis and evaluation on Olympic education programme from 2004 to 2016*

i) Athens 2004

Greece incorporated Olympic education into the curriculum of its national educational system for the ages from six to 18, starting in the academic year of 2000-2001. For the implementation of the Olympic education initiative, about 2000 physical education teachers were hired. The development of Olympic education was integrated within the school curriculum (demonstration schools); it was conducted not as a subject under the heading of ‘Olympic education’ as such but as an element of generic programme. Such a programme does not spring from a specific science, but rather has a particular focus consisting of specific actions; activities deriving from various disciplines. For example, in history, pupils are asked to find the similarities and differences between the modern and ancient Olympic Games. Another action taken in arts requires students to appreciate posters of the previous Olympic games. Thus, this initiative is considered to be the ‘first official programme’ in which the actions were undertaken regularly in different subjects (one session per week). According to Mountakis (2016), the programme aimed to achieve the delivery of various values such as excellence, fair play, justice, peace, health, equality of opportunity understanding respect, and the value of participation as well as victory. What to deliver (values) was divided into four areas (objectives): attitudes, social skills, psychomotor skills and cognitive skills through various actions in different subjects. The content chosen in order for the values and objectives to be achieved was delivered by two main parts, theoretical and practice content. Theoretical teaching content included the following (Mountakis, 2016, p.51):

1. The early forms of athletics (before the commencement of the ancient Olympic Games)
2. Athletics in ancient Greece
3. Athletics in the Roman and Byzantine Empires and in Modern Greek times
4. Historical sources from foreign travellers and archaeologists who discovered and described archaeological sites in Greece
5. The forerunner of the modern Olympic Games (attempts to revive the Olympic Games in Greece and abroad before 1896)
6. The modern Olympic Games (from 1896 until today)

## 7. The Olympic Games of Athens 2004

Practical content had indoor activities (e.g. creation of projects, IT skills, sports activities such as intra-school competition, artistic activities such as painting, dance, musical activities, literature and poetry etc) and outdoor activities (visits to athletic venues, museums, cultural centres, libraries, and participation in municipal and national events etc).

There was evaluation work done related to the Greek Olympic education initiative. As discussed in the last section (section 3.2.5), Grammatikopoulos and his colleagues developed various instruments for evaluating aspects of Olympic education programmes employing mainly quantitative methods and testing the efficacy of the proposed techniques (Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios et al., 2004; Grammatikopoulos, Papacharisis et al., 2004; Grammatikopoulos, Tsigilis, et al., 2005). For this research tradition, on the other hand, Grammatikopoulos, Hassandra et al. (2005) employed a qualitative approach to evaluate strengths and weaknesses found in the implementation of the Olympic education programme. This qualitative approach sought however to address the nature and impact of throughput measures as perceived by school principals.

Grammatikopoulos, Hassandra et al. (2005) conducted the interviews with 55 school principals who attended teachers' training seminars held in 2002. There were five themes: facilities and equipment, management, relationships, continuation of the Olympic education programme, and educational materials. The results of the interview analysis showed that the interviews felt that a lack of facilities and equipment limited sport activities. However, the principals who were well informed about Olympic education supported the continuation of the programme because of its innovative content (e.g. integrated curriculum, learning through projects), the new knowledge provided (e.g. new Olympic events, volunteerism, Paralympics), and the contribution to the school schedule. Such findings enhanced decision-making by indicating points that should be improved in the future implementation of the Olympic education programme. In addition, this research supported the view that qualitative methods could provide new information and insights which complimented the data generated by the quantitative instruments which Grammatikopoulos and his colleagues had developed. These evaluation studies were conducted during the implementation of the Olympic education programme before Athens 2004.

Mountakis (2016) examined how the programme was changed after Athens 2004. After the Athens Games ended, the Ministry of Education had a problem in finding the finance to support the programme and funding was successfully sought from the European Community. One of the European Community programmes called ‘Training and initial vocational rehabilitation for women’ while supporting Olympic education, nevertheless forced the name of the programme to be changed to ‘Kalipatira’ (Kalipatira was the woman who in ancient times entered the stadium in Olympia disguised as a man to watch her son compete in the Ancient Games). Apart from the renaming of the education programme, the original learning themes remained the same but new themes such as gender equality, human rights, multiculturalism, and the fight against racism were added. The amended Olympic education programme was conducted in the post-Olympic quadrennial from 2005 to 2008.

The Greek Olympic education programme was the first to be integrated into the school curriculum and continued this approach after the Athens Olympic Games. The Ministry of Education, however, removed the programme from the school curriculum at the beginning of the school year 2008-2009. There was no official statement explaining the reasons for the cessation of the programme. However, Mountakis (2016) suggests four possible reasons for its cessation: 1) a lack of financial funding or support; 2) a lack of political will; 3) a lack of pressure from teachers who had implemented the programme; and 4) a lack of pressure from the wider public due to the awareness of serious financial crisis Greece faced, to which hosting of the Games was seen to contribute (p.54).

Thus, the introduction of Olympic education nationally through the mainstream curriculum was one of the main achievements of the Athens/ Greece even though ongoing implementation of the programme could not be sustained after 2008. It illustrated (or at least suggested) that the pursuit of Olympic values could be programmed into national educational goals in a way which had not previously been the case.

## ii) Beijing 2008

Papers analysing China’s policies related to the development and implementation of Olympic education for Beijing 2008 and evaluation of Olympic education initiatives

were identified in this research tradition (Brownell, 2009; Dongguang, 2008; Masumoto & Wang 2010; Wang & Masumoto, 2009, 2010). A series of papers undertaken by Wang and Masumoto provide an analysis of the background and framework of the Beijing's Olympic education programmes. From Beijing's selection as the host city for the 2008 Olympic Games, the Chinese government implemented various initiatives such as the 2001-2010 National Health Plan Outline in 2001, the 2001-2010 Olympic Movement Promotional Plan in 2002, the Beijing 2008 Elementary and Junior and Senior High School Olympic Education in 2004 (Wang & Masumoto, 2007). The Beijing Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (BOCOG), which was established in 2004, published two Olympic Readers including the *Junior and Senior High School Reader* and the *Elementary School Reader* (BOCOG, 2004, 2005). Ren (2004) stresses that:

In order to obtain the best results, an Olympic education programme should be developed by combining the national traditional cultures of various countries and Olympism and at the same time carefully maintaining the tradition of the sports culture of the region and absorbing external sports culture simultaneously has been a major subject related to globalisation. (pp.45-53)

In this respect, the Chinese government aimed to educate the youth about three key elements, namely the Olympic spirit, internationalism and patriotism through Olympic education (Wang & Masumoto, 2009). Thus, both globalised and culturally specific goals were incorporated within the Beijing 2008 approach.

There were two types of Olympic education programme delivered before and during the Olympic games. One was the official national programme called '*Beijing 2008 Olympic education at Model Schools*' adopted by the Ministry of Education of China and the BOCOG. This programme started with 200 model schools in Beijing in 2005 and the requirements were to deliver Olympic education for more than two hours every month and use the materials of the two Readers as teaching materials. As a result, from 2005 to 2008, the 200 model schools in Beijing and 356 schools in other parts of China were authorised as the model schools. There was thus a total of 556 model schools including 152 elementary schools and 404 junior and senior high schools. Each school was funded by the government and city with spending being mainly on building facilities and training teachers. The Olympic education training programme was developed by local boards of

education selecting a few teachers who were trained at teacher education universities (Wang & Masumoto, 2009).

The objectives of the Beijing's Olympic education programme were to disseminate the key local themes of the Beijing Games (such as 'People's Olympics', 'High tech Olympics' and 'Green Olympics'), to provide information concerning the Olympic Games to the youth, to promote enthusiasm for the Olympics and to foster a spirit of fairness, justice, peace and friendship. The Olympic education programme at the model schools consisted of subject education and extracurricular activities. Although physical education was the main subject vehicle for Olympic education, other subjects such as music, arts, language, science in elementary schools and Chinese, mathematics, chemistry, biology, geography and so on in junior and senior high schools were also conducted. For the extracurricular activities, there were sporting events like mini-Olympic Games, environmental programmes highlighting the importance of environmental protection with practical activities such as the cleaning up of campuses, or recycling of used books, as well as culture education programmes seeking a balance between Chinese sports culture and the Olympic Games.

For the evaluation of this national Olympic education programme, Wang and Masumoto (2009) conducted a questionnaire survey with 900 students from 10 model schools in Beijing and semi-structured interviews with 10 school teachers of the model schools in 2007. They carried out the questionnaire survey (with 23 sub-questions) to clarify the knowledge, understanding, and satisfaction levels of elementary school and junior and high school students in terms of five learning elements including the ancient Olympic games, the modern Olympic Games, the Beijing Olympics, the Olympic Movement, and levels of satisfaction with Olympic learning.

According to the results, relatively lower levels of awareness of the meaning of the 'Olympic Truce' and 'Coubertin creed' were present in the both levels of schools while understanding among the students of 'fair play and anti-doping' and 'female participation, equality, and non-discrimination' were better understood. The results suggest that there is a need to analyse teaching content, materials and activities given to the students in the programme. The interviews with the teachers, followed by the questionnaires, were about activity styles of Olympic education, contents of Olympic education and educational policies of the model schools of Olympic education in Beijing. The paper analyses the

delivery of Olympic education activity through five ‘styles’ or means of delivery, namely: lessons in the classroom; workshops; Mini-Olympics (athletic meetings); activities in school but outside the classroom; and activities outside school (local events etc). While the results indicated that impacts of the Olympic education conducted at the model schools were apparent, they brought out some problems and issues concerning the methods and contents for teaching Olympism and training systems for teachers in other subjects, since physical education was dominant within the programme. However, in focusing on knowledge and learning outcomes, the study did not focus on the outcomes such as changes in attitudes and behaviours.

Another programme called ‘*Heart – to – Heart Partnership Programme (HTHPP)*’ was developed as an international education programme by Beijing 2008. It was originally adapted from the ‘*One School One Country (OSOC)* Programme’ developed for the Nagano Winter Olympic Games in 1998. The *OSOC* programme has been widely considered as a successful Olympic education programme and its approach has been emulated in the development of education programmes for a number of Olympic games including Sydney 2000, Salt Lake City 2002, Turin 2006 and Beijing 2008 (Tsuchiya, 2014).

Along with the implementation of the Olympic education at model schools, the Ministry of Education of China and the BOCOG established the *HTHPP* in 2005 (Wang & Masumoto, 2010). The *HTHPP* was aimed at ‘encouraging Chinese students to carry out more international exchanges with their foreign counterparts’ (Dongguang, 2008). Liu Qi, the president of the BOCOG, mentioned that one of the main purposes of the *HTHPP* was to promote Chinese culture and share the Chinese civilisation with the rest of the world through various activities (BOCOG, 2005). Example activities carried out before the Olympic Games involved students at the partner schools learning about language, history, culture, geography, customs and etiquette of the corresponding country, creating exhibits with information on exchange countries or districts. Schools also invited students from exchange countries for summer camps and provided sightseeing at Chinese cultural heritage cities and sent paper letters and video letters online to their partner institutions. During the Beijing Games, representative students and teachers of participating schools went to the Olympic Village to attend the welcome ceremony and to the Olympic venues to cheer for the sports delegation of their partner country or region. Each school could select their partner school from any NOC constituency. As a result,

all 205 schools in Beijing contacted 205 NOCs of countries or districts with 160 NPCs. Three special schools were also included to foster students' knowledge and interest in disability.

Another evaluation project focusing on the contents and activities related to peace education in both the Olympic education at model schools and in the *HTHPP* was undertaken by Masumoto and Wang (2010). The authors examined the effectiveness of peace education perspective which has its own focus on education for youth in the elementary schools and junior and senior high schools. They found that the contents embedded in the reader books were not sufficient for the students to gain an adequate level of knowledge about the aims of Olympism in terms of promoting peace. This may have been in part because a common goal of the programmes in their implementation was specifically to promote traditional Chinese culture both in implementation of model schools and in the *HTHPP* programme (Masumoto & Wang, 2010, p.446).

There are some other approaches to the evaluation of the Chinese practices of Olympic education with the focus on the impacts of hosting Olympic Games. Dongguang (2008) concerned about a lasting education legacy of the Beijing Olympics with following questions "how does Olympic education affect the Chinese idea of education?" and "what will Beijing Olympic education contribute to the world of the Olympic Movement?". Dongguang highlighted that the concept of Olympic education was new in Chinese culture as the Chinese education system was focused on the national examinations for university entrance. However, he argued that the implementation of Olympic education was expected to change the ideas and philosophy of education in China, thereby influencing the students' attitudes and understanding of life and values of sports.

Brownell (2009) also insisted that hosting the Olympic Games had a positive impact on China in terms of imagining a future in which it would be more closely integrated into the international community and this made possible a reduction in politicised content and nationalist ideology in the curriculum. Previously, Chinese education system had been centralised by the government with an emphasis on patriotic education. However, as host of a global sporting event, it became essential to move beyond nationalist concerns to perform a role in line with global rather than merely nationalist concerns (Ren, 2009). In the *HTHPP*, for example, students participated in the welcoming ceremony in the Olympic village for the team of their partner countries and representative members of the

national delegation visited the schools. It is apparent that internationalisation fore-fronted in the Chinese Olympic education programmes.

To sum up, the cases of Athens 2004 and Beijing 2008 show some similarities in terms of the way of integrating Olympic education within the school curricula nationwide (but in demonstration and model schools respectively), delivering ‘universal values’ of Olympism and the Olympic knowledge through Olympic education and the awareness of the importance of training teachers. However, from the analysis of the evaluation papers reviewed in Olympic education for the Beijing Olympic Games, there is a strong emphasis evident in relation to the cultural specificity of the Chinese context.

### iii) London 2012

When London was awarded the 2012 Olympic Games in 2005, its vision was to use the power of the Games to inspire lasting change and to inspire a generation of young people (LOCOG, 2006). Along with this, the Department of Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS, 2008) announced five promises to be achieved before, during and after the London 2012 Games. One of the five promises was ‘to inspire a generation of young people’ through the Cultural Olympiad and the work of Legacy Trust UK; the London 2012 Education Programme; and the International Inspiration programme (DCMS, 2008, p.42). The two major London 2012 education programmes were ‘*Get Set*’ and ‘*Inspire Programme*’.

From the successful bid of London 2012, the UK government and responsible organisations embarked on reports on the initiatives and programmes conducted for the successful staging of the London Olympic Games. When it comes to evaluation reports on Olympic education programme, for example, the focus is predominantly on immediate outputs such as the growing number of schools staging, and students attending Olympic education programmes or immediate impacts on young people’s perceptions with regard to the Olympic Games. Chen and Henry (2017) point out that there is little scientific understanding of how individual schools facilitate Olympic education programmes and why different schools engage with the same programme in different contexts, varying degrees, and generating different levels of impact.

*Get Set* was the London 2012 Olympics official education programme intended to ‘inspire a generation of young people’. This programme was launched by the British



Olympic Association (BOA) and British Paralympic Association (BPA) in September 2008, immediately after the Beijing 2008 Olympic Games. It was run by the London Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games (LOCOG), working in partnership with the Department of Education and other national education providers and Olympic sponsors, and delivered by schools (Chen, 2013). The programme aimed to give all young people the chance to learn about, and ‘live’ the Olympic values of friendship, excellence and respect and the Paralympic values of inspiration, courage, determination and equality. In fact, it was the first Olympic education programme in Olympic history to specify explicitly the adoption of the three Olympic and four Paralympic values to be promoted through the official education programme. The publication of the *Get Set* programme immediately followed the IOC’s publication of the *OVEP* and policies related to the promotion of Olympic education which one could anticipate as having an impact on the development of the *Get Set*.

The *Get Set* programme was a web-based programme which provided online materials based on the Olympic and Paralympic values across the school curriculum for ages from 3 to 19 in those schools. The registered schools could submit application to the Get Set Network (GSN), which was the reward and recognition scheme for active *Get Set* schools. There were various benefits of becoming a Get Set Network school. The schools had permission to use the Get Set logo on the school website, gained national recognition and a certificate for their achievements, and were given opportunities such as Olympic Park tours, visits from athletes and tickets for the Games. According to the report of LOCOG (as cited in Chen, 2013), from 2008 to September 2012, around 85.4% of schools registered in the *Get Set* and a total of 20,471 schools were awarded the GSN across the UK. This process of the way in which school got involved in the delivery of Olympic education through the online platform was first introduced in the field of Olympic education.

For the evaluation of the *Get Set* programme, Chen and Henry (2017) investigated schools’ experiences of engaging with the *Get Set*, to explore the underlying factors causing divergence in different schools’ levels of engagement with the *Get Set*, and to understand how the impacts of *Get Set* were perceived. They adopted Pawson and Tilley’s (1997) realist evaluation framework (Contexts-Mechanism-Outcomes) which seeks to explain causal mechanisms and their relationships with the local, social, economic, political, organisational, and cultural contexts. They conducted document

analysis and semi-structured interviews with relevant stakeholders to assess programme implementation in four schools in a non-hosting region (Leicestershire). They constructed three theory of change models depending on the evidence from documents analysis (Model 1), document analysis and interviews with programme practitioners (Model 2), and interviews with school teachers and students (Model 3). The development of these three models helps to make comparisons between actual achievements recognised by the programme participants and the objectives of a programme set by the stakeholders. In terms of the effectiveness of using a realist evaluation approach to assess programmes, it was also considered useful for developing the programme's underlying theories and for articulating which causal mechanisms function to generate changes (Chen & Henry, 2017, p.16). The results provide explanations of how and why case study schools engaged more effectively or less effectively with the programme. For example, it shows that a clear lesson learned from the *Get Set* programme was that extra help with programme registration or a reduction in the amount of paperwork involved would be likely to encourage more schools to engage with the programme. Thus, this study suggests the significance of contextual factors at individual school levels, thereby informing stakeholders and practitioners about how different strategies could be tailored according to individual schools' varying commitment levels. This illustrates the value of adopting such forms of theory-based evaluation as a means of policy evaluation in Olympic education programmes.

There was another key education programme of the London 2012 Games. The programme was called the *London 2012 Inspire Programme*, a UK wide programme launched in 2008. In compliance with the mission of London 2012 which is to inspire people to get involved and to change the way they live their lives (DCMS, 2007, p.1), in 2008 LOCOG launched the Inspire Programme as a national programme and the 'Inspire Mark' was given to recognised groups creating activities and projects ranging from sport, education, culture to sustainability and business. The UK government's commitment to the development of the Inspire Programme was to encourage various local and national programmes among many people. As a result, by 2011, 2,713 projects were awarded the Inspire Mark and more than 10 million people in the UK were part of the Games through the Inspire Programme (LOCOG, 2012). London 2012 also made huge efforts to convince young people in other countries and connect them to the inspirational power of the Games so that they could be inspired to choose sport. UK sport, LOCOG, the Youth

Sport Trust and other governing bodies such as the British Council, UNICEF launched the International Inspiration programme aimed at reaching 12 million children in 20 countries by 2014 when the programme was discontinued (France & Jenkins, 2014). In summary, these two programmes developed for inspiring young people in the UK and all over the world were basically created as part of the promotion of Olympism through the Games.

Girginov (2016) also applied a realist evaluation perspective to examine the official evaluations of the Inspire Programme and International Inspiration programme by addressing the question “what are the theory, mechanisms and outcomes of the programme?”. From a realist evaluation perspective, the programme theory of Olympism, on which the Inspire Programme was premised, was summarised by the author as follows: *if people play value-based sport by certain rules and aspire to achieve their best by respecting each other, they would become better citizens and as a result the world would be a better place* (p.497). Although the author claimed to have adopted a realist evaluation in this study, but the account does not provide specific and explicit mechanisms and outcomes relation to ‘playing value-based sport’, producing ‘better citizens’ and a ‘better world’.

With regard to the programme mechanisms, Girginov (2012) analysed the Inspire application form and the evaluation reports of the ‘Inspire Programme’. He attempted to find out ‘what is it about the Inspire Programme that works for whom, in what circumstances, in what respects and over which duration?’ and the CMO configurations. However, no reports could provide answers to the question and the methodology for data collection for the evaluations (e.g. online and paper surveys, telephone conversations and face to face consultations etc) did not allow for an explanation of the CMO configurations of realist evaluation. Inspire Programme was intended to achieve 20 million opportunities for people to be connected with the Games. However, the figures only suggest the context for the development of positive experiences for various participants, rather than providing sufficient evidence and data to support a realist evaluation. Thus, it remains unclear from Girginov’s analysis of what exactly the programmes sought to change – people’s attitudes, beliefs or behaviours – and in what ways such change was to be accomplished. What could be claimed that the results suggested that the official evaluations bear the signs of ad hoc activities that were introduced on top of various other existing programmes within complex socio-political environments. Therefore, it was

concluded that the official evaluations of the Inspire Programme failed to provide answers to the key questions of why, how and under what circumstances the programme effects have occurred and for whom.

Thus, compared to the previous cases of Athens 2004 and Beijing 2008, for London 2012 the papers identified for this research realise a wider range of education programmes developed and delivered in different ways by various responsible organisations. While the focus of analyses of these programmes drew more on theoretical orientation and methodological foundations for evaluation of relevant programmes, in particular, theory-based evaluation, the pursuit of realist explanations was not always successful.

#### iv) Rio 2016

*Transforma* was Rio 2016's official Olympic education programme, launched in Rio de Janeiro in July 2013 (IOC, 2014c). The programme proposed to develop high-quality educational materials for lessons and activities, encouraging young people to try out new sports and to lead a healthy and active lifestyle, bringing Olympic and Paralympic values to life, and using the Games to promote new learning experiences. After the three-year implementation of the programme up to 2016, over 6 million pupils at more than 12,000 schools across Brazil and abroad experienced new sports for the first time (IOC, 2016a). Although there are some positive outcomes of delivering the programme not only in the host city but across the country, it does not provide clear evidence of the evaluation of the education programmes for Rio 2016. Instead, only a few papers analysing government sports policies (Knijnik & Tavares, 2012) and sport participation legacy as promise of Rio 2016 (Reis et al., 2016) were included in this review. This section, therefore, will review how policies related to Olympic education for Rio 2016 were utilised and what kind of perceptions of sport participation as a legacy promise were present in the empirical study.

Brazil developed a new National Sports Policy (NSP) for the purpose of the development of high performance, recreational and educational initiatives (2003-2010). These initiatives were also presented by the Organising Committee of the Rio 2016 bid (BOC, 2009). According to the bid book for Rio 2016, there was one sport educational initiative promoted by the federal government of Brazil, *Second Half Programme (SHP)*. At that

time, the *SHP* was recognised as one of the Olympic education programme for Rio 2016. Although the Ministry of Sports tried to promote this programme to young people, the Ministry did not have the human resources nor the management structure to run the programme (Knijnik & Tavares, 2012). Thus, the federal government agreed that each public school had a team with a coordinator and two sports instructors who could manage the programme, following the guidelines: (a) work on the second half school; (b) provide at least two team sports and one individual sport lasting two to four hours three times a week and; (c) offer additional activities such as tutoring in homework, and cultural activities (Knijnik & Tavares, 2012, p.357).

For the programme, two books, published by Oliveira and Perim (2008, 2009), provided the philosophical and educational guidelines with discussion of a range of subjects including human development through sport, sport education, child development and acquisition of sports skills, sports teaching methodology, self-concept and motivation, inclusion, gender and disability, leisure and cultural activities and methodological procedures. According to Knijnik and Tavares's (2012) analysis of the contents in the publications, there was a lack of connection between sports education and values as these publications focused on the assumption that merely participating in sports would instil moral and Olympic values.

Accordingly, Knijnik and Tavares (2012) carried out semi-structured interviews with coordinators and PE teachers who were involved in the *SHP* in order to explore the key actors' understanding of the key concepts of the *SHP* as well as their understanding of the philosophy of an Olympic education programme. Based on the analysis of the interviews, the key finding was that although they understood that values such as respect and friendship were taught in the context of sports through the programme, they were not aware of the aims and objectives of the programme with a lack of pedagogical strategies due to the absence of effective training programmes offered for the delivery of the *SHP*. In terms of the understanding of the *SHP* as part of Olympic education, they did not see Olympism and Olympic values which were meant to be promoted through this programme because the programme was not designed for the delivery of Olympic education in schools. Thus, they concluded that *SHP* sport practice is based on the belief that the 'natural' outcome of sports participation is the learning of positive values, and that teachers do not need to undertake any pedagogical interventions to achieve this (Knijnik & Tavares, 2012, p.365). They also argued that without a clear methodology the

educational goals of Olympic education in terms of delivering values education would not be met in Brazil. This paper evaluated the existing policy for sports education in school as part of Olympic education which was presented for the Rio 2016 bid and the programme was implemented before the host city for the 2016 Olympic Games was announced. It is worth considering how the existing or new policy can be utilised for the development of policies related to Olympic education thereby implementing Olympic education successfully.

Another paper (Reis et al., 2014) in this category of Rio 2016 was also concerned with policy analysis related to a legacy from the Olympic Games, which was not directly linked to Olympic education of Rio 2016. This paper, on the one hand, suggested that there was a lack of long-term planning and policies to encourage and promote sport participation. Instead, it was expected to generate optimistic impacts on the sport participation from Rio 2016 (not from Olympic education programmes). This paper concluded that for the benefits of mega events to be maximised, the different levels of government need to develop long-term actions and policies to encourage sports participation.

To sum up, the two papers do not deal with Olympic education programmes of Rio 2016 in practice in the respect that both papers were not related to the operationalisation of specific Olympic education programme such as *Transforma*. It is evident that there is a lack of evaluation of Olympic education from the Rio 2016 Olympic Games in the English literature. It is thus hard to find any progress of Olympic education programme. From the analysis of the two papers, however, it is worth considering how existing or new policies for Olympic education could be made and Olympic education programme can be designed for achieving the promises specified in the candidature file in the planning stage of the Olympic games.

### c. Theme 2. Policy analysis and evaluation on Olympic education of non-hosting countries

Other countries such as France and Australia, which hosted the Olympic Games of Albertville 1992 and Sydney 2000, undertook Olympic education projects during these Games when

Olympic education was not a formally required element for the host nations and cities<sup>14</sup>. There were not specific educational programmes developed for Olympic education for these Games. However, it is worth examining papers which address the elements of policy relating to the issues of Olympic education (rather than addressing evaluation of Olympic education programmes per se).

France has hosted a number of summer as well as winter Olympic Games: Paris 1900 and 1924 (Summer Games); and Chamonix 1924, Grenoble 1968, and Albertville 1992 (Winter Games). Two French cities also failed with bids to host the 1922, 2008 and 2012 Summer Olympics (Paris), and the 2018 Winter Games (Annecy)<sup>15</sup>. There is paucity of relevant English language literature on Olympic education initiatives relating to the previous Olympic Games held in France and Monnin (2017) argues that there is also little literature in French on this topic. In relation to the Albertville 1992 Winter Games, however, Monnin (2012) wrote about the strategy for the integration of the concept of Olympic education into the education system with two case studies: Albertville 1992 and Annecy 2018, (the failed bid for the 2018 Olympic Games). In the literature search undertaken as part of the meta-narrative review process, with the exception of Monnin's article, no paper was identified which related to the field of Olympic education and its application, solely and explicitly to the 'Winter Olympic Games'.

The French Olympic Committee (FOC) first developed an Olympic education kit entitled *Ecolympique, Albertville 1992* (Monnin, 2012, p.341). The kit was aimed at primary school children and its contents were concerned with three themes: the Olympic Games, the Savoie (the region in which Albertville is located) and its mountain environment, and Albertville 1992. After the Albertville 1992 Winter Games ended, there was no attempt to draw up an official Olympic education programme and the kit *Ecolympique, Albertville 1992* was not well distributed, nor was it widely used by teachers (Monnin, 2012).

The French Olympic Committee subsequently made a bid to host the 2018 Winter Games. As part of its bidding campaign, the bidding city, Annecy, contributed to promoting Olympic education in schools in response to the requirements of the guidelines set by the IOC. For example, in April and May 2011, Annecy held an Olympic Week with a slogan 'Uniting sport, culture, and education'. The town put on artistic, cultural and sports displays in all primary

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<sup>14</sup> The requirement to provide information about proposals for Olympic education projects or programmes dates back to the inclusion of a section on education plans in the IOC Questionnaire for bidding cities from 2004.

<sup>15</sup> Paris has, however, been selected to stage the 2024 Olympic Games.

schools with a view to allowing children to learn about the history of the Olympic Games, Olympic values and different kinds of sports. In addition, the Committee in charge of Annecy's bid for the 2018 Games published a book entitled *Education and Olympism: from one field to the other* (Goursolas & Villermet, 2010). This book was aimed at primary schools, secondary schools and colleges used in the region. Its objective was to raise awareness among as many pupils as possible, encouraging them to include sport in their own lives. However, after the bid ended in failure in 2011, all the planned projects relating to Olympic education were abandoned (Monnin, 2012). As a result, no official studies and evaluation work to measure outputs and outcomes of the educational programmes and initiatives were undertaken.

Since 2004, bidding cities have been required to provide their plans for promoting Olympic education programmes and actions in the Candidature questionnaire. To meet this requirement, the cities should provide explicit and systematic plans for the promotion of Olympic education in practice as part of their bid. However, if Olympic education policies simply exist for the purpose of winning bid for hosting the Olympic Games, the plans for the implementation of Olympic education are likely to be abandoned if the bid fails. In this respect, Monnin (2012) argues that the IOC (rather than individual bidding cities) should produce educational resources and documents and make them available for cities bidding to host the Olympic Games as part of 'universal education initiative' so that candidate cities which fail the bid can avoid the cost of unnecessary investment.

For Olympic education in the case of the Sydney 2000 Games, given that it was found that their previous Olympic Games, the 1956 Olympics, had not generated many forms of legacy, Sydney 2000 was focused on planning to leave a lasting 'Olympic legacy' (Cashman, 1998). The promotion of Olympic education was part of the focus of the host nation and the relevant stakeholders. The Australia Olympic Committee (AOC) worked collaboratively with a network of National and State Institutes and Academies of Sports, as well as with the Australian Sports Commission and other stakeholders in the Australian sports delivery system – including National Sport Federations, the media, and the educational institutes (Baka, 2000).

According to the report of *Sydney's Olympic legacy and educational resources* (Toohey et al., 2000), it was suggested that the Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (SOCOG) realised that the concept of Olympic education was unclear in its legacy plan, and the initiatives learned from Atlanta 1996 not generated positive educational outcomes. Thus, Sydney 2000 sought to promote the '*Olympic 2000 National education programme*' with



various initiatives including O-News (a student newspaper), 'ASPIRE' (interactive learning materials), the Welcome World Programme, the Schools Olympic Flag Purchase Programme, opportunities for involvement of school students in the games and multiple official publications for classroom activities. There was, nevertheless, a lack of evaluation of these initiatives and programmes. Cashman (2006) claimed that there was no evaluation of the Sydney Olympic education programme, or any other aspect of the education programmes, so that its outputs and outcomes are unknown.

It can be claimed that the ideas of educating young people from the Sydney Games later influenced the launch of the Australian Youth Olympic Festival (AYOF) by the AOC in 2001. Given that the AYOF is an international sporting festival rather than a sporting competition for the youth and the festival has been held in the former 2000 Sydney Olympic venues, it has thereby linked the AYOF to the legacy of the Sydney Games.

From the two cases of Albertville 1992 and Sydney 2000, the literature search identified no literature on the evaluation of the implementation of Olympic education although the two host cities/nations had recognised the necessity of the development of Olympic education. However, Sydney 2000 triggered the launch of a new form of youth festival in order to deliver an educational message relating to Olympism to young people. Although Annecy's attempt for the host of the 2018 winter Games was a failed bid, its work can be expected to influence the way of that planning for Olympic education will be undertaken for the Paris 2024 Olympic Games, and by other bidding cities to bid for the future Games.

#### *d. Theme 3. Policy analysis and evaluation on Olympic education programme of the YOG*

This section focuses on policy evaluation relating to the Youth Olympic Games and its educational programme, Culture and Education Programmes (CEP). Wong (2012) examined the CEP in Singapore 2010 with critical analysis of the promises of the CEP, focusing on the extent to which the CEP has met its intended goals and its impact on the host city. The author carried out document analysis of official documents, media and marketing texts related to the build-up and outcome of the CEP programmes. In addition to this, face-to-face interviews with 13 stakeholders of the YOG 2010 were conducted during Singapore 2010. The interview was about 'key themes' concerning the rationale for and the outcomes of the CEP activities. The findings raise questions about uncertainties of the CEP with the lack of clarity over the positioning of the event – a sport event with the cultural and educational element or cultural

and educational event with sport – has resulted in a ‘wait and see’ attitude being adopted by the majority of the interviewees (Wong, 2012, p.143).

There were some fears that coaches expressed because athletes participating in the activities of the CEP might be distracted from focusing on sports competitions. On the other hand, it highlighted that the CEP brought about benefits for Singapore in the sense that it provided a platform for Singapore to cultivate a sporting culture and build up a viable sports industry, forming the ‘sports ecosystem’ along with the completion of the Singapore Sports Hub<sup>16</sup> in 2014. However, it did not provide any impacts of the CEP activities on the youth apart from the fact that 80% of the 3,600 athletes took part in at least one activity (Wong, 2012, p.146).

In fact, athletes are the main target group of the YOG and should therefore play a significant role in the evaluation and development of the event which requires high performance as well as educational experiences (Wassong, 2014). Krieger and Kristiansen (2016) conducted interviews with German and Norwegian participants at the Singapore 2010 and Innsbruck 2012 YOG to investigate the perception of the educational aims of the YOG, mainly about expectations and experiences with the combination of the sporting competition and the CEP. The findings indicated a focus on elite sport by athletes and their coaches while the educational aims were considered secondary and the concept intended for young athletes to focus on education in a high-performance competition was problematic. Table 3.2 shows the gap between the IOC’s intentions and athletes’ perceptions towards the YOG and benefits of the CEP.

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<sup>16</sup> The Singapore Sports Hub is a state-of-the-art, fully integrated sports, entertainment and lifestyle hub that opened in 2014. The construction started right after the closing ceremony of the 2010 Youth Olympic Games. The Singapore Youth Olympic Museum and Singapore Sports Museum are located at the Sports Hub.

**Table 3. 2 A gap between the IOC's intentions and athletes' perceptions on CEP based on the interviews**

IOC politics and intentions	Athletes perceptions
<p>Through the CEP, athletes have the opportunity to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>Learn</i> about global and sports topics;</li> <li>• <i>Contribute</i> to the environment and society;</li> <li>• <i>Interact</i> and build friendships with other young people from around the world; and</li> <li>• <i>Celebrate</i> the Olympic Movement and the diverse cultures of the world</li> </ul>	<p>‘No time to take part in the CEP activities because of busy competitive schedule’</p> <p>‘If time, they chose to take part in the activities that will help them become mature elite athletes’</p> <p>‘We are here to win and compete’</p> <p>‘I have to rest and prepare for the next competition whenever I can’</p> <p>‘What we really enjoyed was when some of our coaches got us out in the snow and we played just for fun’</p> <p>‘Meeting the people from all the world has been the greatest experience’</p> <p>‘It is the Olympics’</p> <p>‘The medal ceremony was memorable’</p>

(Source: Krieger & Kristiansen, 2016, p.1509)

Similar perceptions might be expected to be found in the elite athletes attending in the Olympic Games. There is not a huge difference between the YOG and the Olympic games in the sense that participants of both of the events can experience various things in cultural settings at the ceremonies and Olympic village and focus on their competition. Thus, the educational perspective and learning Olympic values are largely absent in the YOG and the CEP. However, there were some positive responses to activities related to their career such as ‘Chat with Champions (Singapore 2010)’ and ‘Met the Role Models (Innsbruck 2012)’. The athletes were more interested in learning about doping, security, and how to handle weather. Despite the benefits of attending CEP activities, it still highlights that the YOG has limited success in achieving the educational goals of the Olympic Movement.

Schnitzer et al. (2014) saw that the YOG brought about positive effects on the young participants by examining their perceptions of the CEP for Innsbruck 2012. They aimed to evaluate the role of the CEP in terms of the athletes’ expectations towards the event, its influence on the overall event experience and its impact on their personal development. Compared to the study of Krieger and Kristiansen (2016) conducting interviews with athletes from only two countries, Germany and Norway, they collected quantitative data from 662

athletes participating in Innsbruck 2012 through a questionnaire survey and qualitative data from six focus groups with 43 athletes from 17 different countries. Considering that this study sought more general perceptions of the YOG and the CEP among the young athletes, it was considered a success because the athletes who took part in the CEP activities perceived them very positively and showed high satisfaction with the attended activities, answering that they learned something about Olympic values (86.1%), other cultures (83.2%), and how to manage their own future careers as elite athletes (80%). However, the athletes made a point that organisational constraints (e.g. conflicts with the competition schedule, distance between venues) should be improved. Hence, their research revealed that there was a great potential for the CEP in promoting Olympic education while outlining critical issues relevant to the planning and staging of the CEP.

To sum up, the findings of these studies indicate that the nature of the YOG has the polarity between high-performance athleticism and learning something about education and culture through CEP activities. It is evident that athletes' main goal for the YOG is to take part in competition while they experience international exchanges with athletes from other countries and prefer activities providing them chances to meet Olympians. One IOC member Richard Pound had already criticised staging of the YOG, questioning whether the aim of the YOG will be met under undefined educational and cultural activities prior to the introduction of the YOG (Pound, 2008).

After the first summer and winter events, the CEP was renamed to *Learn and Share* in 2014 but its themes and concept remained the same (IOC, 2016b). The *Learn and Share* activities have played a main role in the next two editions of Nanjing 2014 and Lillehammer 2016 as well. As stated above, the CEP (now *Share and Learn*) programme is still evolving and assumed probably too early to expect solid achievement at present. Despite of this, Judge et al. (2009) claim that instruments should be developed, and field tested that deal specifically with the impact of the YOG on youth and study on the impact of the YOG from other countries is need.

The YOG has a certain target group (young participants) and an explicit vision with the five themes (Olympism, Social Responsibility, Skills Development, Expression, and Well-being and Healthy Lifestyles) intended for the specific activities organised by the IOC and an organising committee, compared to Olympic educational programmes for the Olympic Games. Thus, in the field of policy evaluation, it requires these kinds of elements to systematically and

critically investigate Olympic education programmes in relation to achievement of policy goals and outcomes in various settings. In this regard, the YOG and the *Learn and Share* activities can be suitable means of delivering Olympic values and promoting Olympism in the Olympic Movement thereby being considered part of Olympic education in a broad scope.

*e. Contribution to the development of policy analysis and programme evaluation*

This section provides the descriptions of a wide range of Olympic education programmes and actions developed and implemented for the previous Olympic Games and the YOG, and how certain groups of researchers in this research traditions have evaluated these Olympic education programmes.

There are several implications here. First, the elements in the policy evaluation theme, in analysing Olympic education initiatives, provide some overlapping concerns with meta-narratives in the area of curriculum development, since most papers in both of the research traditions deal with the education programme in the school curriculum (educational setting). However, the focus of analysis and research aims of the papers on policy analysis and evaluation are distinguishable from curriculum development. For policy evaluation, based on empirical findings, researchers mainly provide an overview of Olympic education programmes developed and delivered in specific contexts (countries) and examine their outcomes and problems of operationalisation by focusing on analysing goals specified in policy documents and their implementation. In this regard, Olympic education programmes were investigated before or during the Olympic Games, which suggests that there are significant difficulties in the evaluation of long-term outcomes or impacts of Olympic education programmes.

Second, regarding the theoretical and methodological foundations of policy and evaluation study, there is a lack of the study of policy evaluation in terms of directly informing the implementation of theory in general although some studies provide a critical overview and analysis of educational interventions. Thus, it is clear that a growing volume of work is undertaken in the field of Olympic education to assess how programmes have been delivered, what outcomes are achieved, and how these relate to policy goals. However, particular approaches to identify “what works for whom in what circumstances, to produce what kinds of outcomes?” have not been prominent. These types of research question are promoted by realist policy evaluation (Pawson & Tilley, 1997) which emphasise the importance of identifying the

way in which causal mechanisms in the achievement of policy goals will invariably be mediated by contextual factors.

### **3.3 Conclusion**

In the context of the overall structure of the meta-narrative review process (which is outlined) in section 2.3.2 above: (see Figure 3.4 for a summary), Chapter 3 (specifically section 3.2) represented the synthesis phase of the review. This has provided an analysis of themes, and a subsequent identification and evaluation of the meta-narratives evident in the key documents identified in the process of the review. The summary of the meta-narratives is presented in Table 3.3, organised by a) research tradition; b) focus discipline(s); c) scope and key questions; d) focus of analysis; e) conceptualisation of Olympic education; and f) key authors. This illustrates how the development of the meta-narrative review has sought to illuminate different approaches to complex and heterogeneous topics by considering how the ‘same’ topic has been differently conceptualised, theorised and empirically studied by different groups of researchers. The meta-narrative review undertaken in this thesis was helpful in the conceptual clarification of Olympic education policy and practices.

**Table 3. 3 Meta-narratives identified in a review of the conceptualisation of the field of Olympic education**

<b>Research Tradition</b>	<b>Focus Discipline</b>	<b>Scope and key question(s)</b>	<b>Focus of analysis</b>	<b>Olympic education conceptualised as</b>	<b>Selected authors</b>
Educational Philosophy	Philosophy	<p>Study of understanding of the nature and meaning of Olympism using philosophical literature</p> <p>Key question(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- What did Coubertin mean by Olympism?</li> <li>- Is the understanding of Olympism and the values of Olympism the same through time?</li> <li>- How has Olympism been understood and discussed by different scholars in what philosophical perspectives?</li> <li>- What kinds of value should be promoted through sport or the Olympic Games?</li> </ul>	Analysis of Coubertin's writings on Olympism and values and literature on interpretations and understanding of such values for Olympic education in practice	Comprehensive approach to understanding and teaching Olympic education (values, ethics, moral education, intercultural understanding, multiculturalism)	<p>Hsu and Kohe (2015);</p> <p>Martínková (2012a, 2012b);</p> <p>McNamee (2006);</p> <p>Parry (1998, 2006)</p>
Critical sociology	Sociology	<p>Study of critical analysis and interpretation of Olympism and education programmes with critical sociology perspectives based on the premise that societies are characterised by conflict relations and that Olympic education represents an ideological resource for promoting the interests of certain groups</p> <p>Key question(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- What is meaning of Olympic ideology, Olympism and Olympic education? Are there any differences between the ideals of Olympism and Olympism in reality?</li> </ul>	Analysis of literature on the notion of Olympism, Olympic values, Olympic education, Olympic education programmes for the promotion of the interests of certain groups in practices and educational resources, policy documents	There is a lack of critical perspectives on Olympism in Olympic educational resources and critical thinking, analytic skills, and critical literacy among teachers and young people are largely absent in the development of Olympic education programme.	<p>Kidd (1996);</p> <p>Kohe (2010);</p> <p>Krieger (2012);</p> <p>Lenskyi (2012)</p>

		- Are there any educational resources or content for Olympic education including critical thinking or critical perspectives on the Olympic Movement?			
Curriculum development	Pedagogy	<p>Study of the processes of developing the theoretical orientation, conceptual design, content and implementation/application strategies for educational resources and programmes based on how critical understanding of Olympic values might be promoted</p> <p>Key question(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- How is the curriculum of Olympic education programme structured?</li> <li>- How do young people learn positive behaviours and values?</li> <li>- How can we develop a better curriculum for Olympic education with a greater positive impact?</li> </ul>	Analysis of elements of the development of Olympic education programme curriculum focusing on what aims are, what content is embedded within resources, what teaching methods are used, what type of programme is delivered such as extra-curriculum, PE classes, and subject classes	<p>Various pedagogical approaches / conceptual models are used for the development of Olympic education programme typically as school curriculum</p> <p>(e.g. Olympism education, Olympic values education and Olympic learning process for Olympism and value legacies)</p>	<p>Binder (2001, 2012);</p> <p>Chatziefstathiou (2012);</p> <p>Culpan and Wigmore (2010);</p> <p>Kohe (2010);</p>
Educational psychology	Psychology, evaluation	<p>Study of human learning to promote social, emotional and behavioural development through education programmes</p> <p>Key question(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Does the Olympic education programme work?</li> <li>- To what extent do the effects of the Olympic education programme have an appropriate effect on the development of young people's behaviours?</li> </ul>	Analysis of the changes in young people's attitudes and behaviours towards Olympism, Olympic values, motivations, participation in sports and so on following exposure to Olympic education programmes and thus to evaluate the effectiveness of Olympic education programmes	Olympic education has the potential for promoting positive impacts on improving young people's moral behaviours and changing attitudes towards values	<p>Hassandra et al. (2007);</p> <p>Papadimitriou et al. (2005);</p> <p>Šukys and Majauskienė (2013, 2014);</p> <p>Šukys et al. (2017)</p>



Development of evaluation measures	Evaluation	<p>Study of development or implementation of measures for evaluation, focusing on the evaluation design and applicability of measures, in order to evaluate the implementation of educational programmes</p> <p>Key question(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- How effectively can we measure an Olympic education programme (or related programmes)?</li> <li>- Does the (suggested) instrument work in evaluation of an Olympic education programme?</li> </ul>	Analysis of proposed or developed methods to be applied for evaluation of how Olympic education programme (training programme) is implemented are effective or not (efficacy of evaluation methods)	Achieving outcomes of Olympic education programmes which can be efficiently evaluated through a range of evaluation methods, principally applying quantitative techniques	<p>Grammatikopoulos, Koustelios et al. (2004);</p> <p>Grammatikopoulos, Papacharisis et al. (2004);</p> <p>Grammatikopoulos, Tsigilis et al. (2005)</p>
Policy analysis and evaluation	Policy analysis, management, evaluation	<p>Study of analysis of policy (and for policy) to achieve intended goals and evaluation of how an Olympic education programme is developed, implemented and evaluated in different contexts</p> <p>Key question(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- What kinds of policies were created and implemented to meet goals?</li> <li>- What kinds of outcome were achieved through Olympic education?</li> <li>- What and how can we improve and develop Olympic education programmes based on the analysis of policy and lessons learned from other programmes?</li> </ul>	Analysis of IOC's policies related to Olympic education and review of Olympic education programmes developed and implemented in different countries before and during the Olympics with a focus of specific values, different aims and outcomes	Olympic education programmes and policies should be critically reviewed in relation to achievement of policy goals of Olympics and other governmental organisations	<p>Chen and Henry (2017);</p> <p>Knijnik and Tavares (2012);</p> <p>Monnin (2012);</p> <p>Wang and Masumoto (2009);</p> <p>Wong (2012);</p>

In the review process, the last phase (a recommendation phase, see Figure 2.4) considers the key overall messages from the meta-narrative review along with other relevant evidence (e.g. the IOC's policy context relating to the field of Olympic education). In addition to analysis of themes and meta-narratives, the review should also identify aspects of the phenomenon which are not addressed (i.e. gaps in the literature), and thus I consider these below.

First, there is a lack of literature addressing the tension between 'universal' values and concepts of Olympic education, and the issue of 'cultural specificity'. While Olympism and Olympic education are proposed as relating to 'universal' value (and in particular Parry (2006) seeks to make this case), its application is invariably culturally specific. In the literature, studies of Olympic education in a number of different national contexts have been undertaken and critically reviewed, but there is, nevertheless, a lack of understanding of how universal Olympic values and concepts of Olympic education are perceived and communicated in culturally diverse contexts.

Second, a shared concern raised by the six meta-narratives is 'evaluation'. Host cities and nations are required to provide a clear account of the concept of the Olympic education programme planned by that city as part of its campaign of the promotion of Olympism and Olympic values in educational settings. During the preparation period, in particular, it is anticipated that the OCOG will evaluate the implementation and impacts of Olympic education programmes over time and will subsequently produce official reports on performance. These evaluation reports have tended to contain discussion of outputs (such as numbers going through the programmes) rather than outcomes (the impact of the programmes on the knowledge, attitude, values and behaviour of those undertaking the programme), thus with a focus on immediate impacts rather than on the achievement of policy and programme goals. The literature relating to the evaluation of Olympic education policy in practice, identified in the meta-narrative review also focuses on how certain Olympic education programmes were developed and delivered not merely on how the intended goals were achieved. In this respect, evaluation can be critical in the development of effective means of devising and meeting goals for Olympic education programmes in culturally diverse contexts.

Third, the field of Olympic education for promoting the values specifically of the Paralympic Games and the Winter Olympic Games respectively, is relatively underdeveloped in the literature. Although the nature of the summer and winter Games, and the Olympics and the

Paralympic Games is different, the IOC has required the bidding cities and nations to develop Olympic education programmes in such contexts.

Finally, the issue of Olympic legacy achieved from the promotion of Olympic education programmes or initiatives is missing in the literature. Although many of Olympic education programmes have been designed for longer-term implementation in particular for host cities and nations as part of legacy aims to be achieved from hosting the Olympic Games, the research and evaluation practice of whether the legacy goals and impacts have been achieved has not been undertaken.

Another aim of the recommendation phase is to discuss implications for policy and future practices of Olympic education. In this thesis, the meta-narratives provide a basis for the application of key principles in the empirical case of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes. Examples of key questions are cited as follows:

- Meta-narrative 1. Educational philosophy
  - How have Olympism and the Olympic values been understood in the context of Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games?
  - To what extent is there any culturally specific addressing of the Olympic values, Olympic education, and forms of communication in relation to the context of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes?
- Meta-narrative 2. Critical sociology
  - Who is being interested in the development and implementation of Olympic education programmes of Tokyo 2020?
  - Are there any educational resources or content for the educational programmes of Tokyo 2020 including critical thinking or critical perspectives on the Olympic Movement? (overlapping question with Curriculum Development)
- Meta-narrative 3. Curriculum development
  - How have the Olympic education programmes of the Tokyo 2020 been developed and integrated within the Japanese school curriculum in relation to pedagogical approaches, conceptual design, content, and application strategies for educational resources and programmes?

- Meta-narrative 4. Educational psychology
  - To what extent does/will the Tokyo 2020 education programme have an impact on the development of young people's knowledge and behaviours and changing attitudes towards values?
- Meta-narrative 5. Development of evaluation measures
  - How have the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes been evaluated in terms of the development, implementation, and evaluation of the programmes?
- Meta-narrative 6. Policy analysis and evaluation
  - What kinds of goals and outcomes are intended to be achieved through the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programme?
  - To what extent can we evaluate the planning of Olympic education policy in practice in terms of development and delivery in preparation for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games?

In conclusion, the Part One of this thesis is to a significant degree founded on insights from the development of the meta-narrative review of the literature on Olympic education. The results of the review have identified how Olympic education has been conceptualised based on different research traditions, and subsequently developed the framework to inform the context of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education policies and programmes. The Part Two of this thesis will review the planning of Olympic education policy in practice in terms of development and delivery in preparation for the Tokyo 2020 Games.

## **Part Two.**

# **An Empirical Case: Tokyo 2020 Olympic Education Programme**

## **Chapter 4. Olympic education in Japanese society in the context of the successful bid to host the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games**

### **4.1 Introduction**

To remind the reader of the structure of this thesis, the focus of Part One was the meta-narrative review of the English language literature on Olympic education. Part One has sought to identify how the field of Olympic education has been conceptualised with various unfolding ‘storylines’. And subsequently the results have informed the empirical case study by drawing on the results of the meta-narrative review along with an understanding of the IOC’s policy context in terms of the development and implementation of Olympic education. As discussed in Part One of this thesis, the six research traditions (educational philosophy; critical sociology; curriculum development; education psychology; development of evaluation measures; and policy analysis and evaluation) have been identified. Different themes and meta-narratives emerging from the research traditions help to develop a framework to evaluate an empirical case.

While studies of Olympic education in different national contexts have been undertaken and critically reviewed, there has been a lack of focus on the specific cultural contexts of such work. The IOC requires that host cities and nations provide a concept of official Olympic and Paralympic education programme based on ‘universal’ Olympic values and system in terms of development and delivery of education programmes. In addition, there has been a difficulty in demonstrating the delivering of the legacy promises for Olympic education policies or programmes which are proposed for hosting successful Games. Thus, in terms of the policy for implementing and evaluating Olympic education programmes, it is important to understand what Olympic education consists of, what its pedagogical goals should be, whom it should target, and how successfully it works in different cultural contexts. In this regard, analysis of what is actually promoted through Olympic education and how Olympic education programmes are developed in what circumstances rather than prescription of what should be communicated through Olympic education programmes is to be concentrated on for understanding the nature of Olympic education.

The empirical case undertaken in relation to the organisation of Olympic education initiatives and programmes in the context of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games seeks to identify the extent to which the Tokyo 2020 approach(es) address these gaps. Considering the

Japanese context, Tokyo is set to host the Olympic and Paralympic Games in 2020. There have been a number of types of Olympic and Paralympic education programmes designed and implemented across Japan by different levels of stakeholders actively involved in the promotion of Olympism and the Olympic Movement. Japan might have learned lessons from the previous experiences of hosting the Tokyo 1964 Summer Olympics and the Nagano 1998 Winter Games in terms of how to develop and design Olympic education initiatives. In particular, the ‘*One School One Country*’ programme is globally recognised as a successful Olympic education initiative. In addition, Japanese Olympic education programmes, following the introduction of the new Sport Basic Plan (MEXT, 2012), are also intended to be integrated within the national curriculum in schools for the first time in the Olympic education phenomenon. Therefore, Japan is considered as an interesting context as a non-western setting for analysis.

The aim of Part Two in this thesis is to review the planning of Olympic education policy in practice in terms of development and delivery of programmes in preparation for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. More specifically the research questions of this empirical study are defined as follows:

- 1) How have the various stakeholders in the Japanese Olympic governance system designed and implemented Olympic education programmes and initiatives for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games?
- 2) What is the relationship between generic features of the Olympic education and the culturally specific elements of Japanese Olympic education (system)?
- 3) By applying realist policy evaluation to various Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education programmes, to what extent is there any (explicit or implicit) explanation of the relationship between contexts, mechanisms, and outcomes?

Part Two consists of two chapters. Chapter 4 includes three sections. Section 4.2 presents the understanding of the promotion of Olympic education in the Japanese context over time and the governance of the Japanese Olympic system for Tokyo 2020. Section 4.3 discusses the theoretical framework for policy analysis and evaluation adopted in this empirical work, mainly *realist evaluation*. Section 4.4 outlines the methodology of an empirical case of Tokyo 2020’s Olympic education programmes and initiatives.

Chapter 5 provides the findings of the six cases of Olympic education practices developed and delivered by different levels of stakeholder and actors of Tokyo 2020. In each subsection, the background and policy aims for developing certain Olympic education initiatives are introduced and analysis of the empirical evidence of each case is presented through an analytic logic model, and then the application of Context-Mechanism-Outcome (CMO) configurations is discussed, to refine the pre-determined programme theory.

## **4.2 Development of Olympic education policy in Japan**

### **4.2.1 Olympic education initiatives and practice in the past Japanese Olympic Games**

This section aims to understand the promotion of Olympic education in the Japanese context over time. Japan has hosted three Olympic Games: Tokyo 1964; Sapporo 1972; and Nagano 1998. Before examining the educational initiatives of each edition, it is noteworthy to see how Japan became involved in the Olympic Movement. The history of Japanese involvement in the Olympic Games started with Jigoro Kano, who is regarded as the founder of judo as a modern sport, and the first Japanese member of the IOC (1909-1938). He established the Japan Amateur Sports Association (JASA) in 1911, in order to send athletes to the 1912 Stockholm Olympic Games.

Not only Olympic history in Japan but the concept of Japanese Olympic education is closely linked to Kano's philosophy. According to Sanada's writing on the JOC's website (JOC, 2018b), Kano believed that 'moral values acquired through Judo and other forms of physical education could be practised in one's everyday life'. It suggests the importance of education through Judo and the development of school sport and physical education. Kano also strongly supported an international exchange programme through sport by accepting foreign students who were given chances to participate in playing judo, long-distance running, swimming and other sports. Kano's philosophy applied to all people regardless of age or sex, which is viewed as largely in line with Coubertin's philosophy. Kano devoted his efforts to achieving two things; one was to host the Olympic Games in Japan, and the other was to introduce judo to the world. Although Tokyo was selected as the host city of the 12<sup>th</sup> Olympic Games in 1940, the Games were cancelled because of Japan's invasion of China at the Second Sino-Japanese War. There was an international objection against staging the Olympic Games in a nation which had brought about war. In fact, the objective behind the bid to host the 1940 Games was for Japan



to show Tokyo's recovery and reconstruction from the disaster of the Great Kanto Earthquake in 1923 (TOCOG, 2016).

However, as part of the preparation for the successful bid to host the 12<sup>th</sup> Olympic Games, the Japan Amateur Sport Association, published two books entitled *Olympic Book* and *Olympic Reader Book* in 1936 (Masumoto, 2015, p.1264). It was the first of Japan's actions relating to the promotion of Olympism through publications of books for general public, rather than through textbooks for school children. After the cancellation of the Tokyo's 1940 Olympics, a series of books written by the Olympians and the members of the Japan Amateur Sport Association were published.

The brief description of the Japanese involvement in the Olympics and the promotion of Olympism in its early history reflect the paucity of English language accounts on this matter. The following paragraphs will present what kinds of Olympic educational initiatives and programmes developed in the past three Olympics staged in Japan and will consider to what extent there is any legacy in relation to the concept of Japanese Olympic education, which might have an effect on the development of the current education programmes of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games.

#### a. 1964 Tokyo Summer Olympic Games

In 1952, the post-war military occupation of Japan ended and Japan made a bid to host the 1960 Olympic Games. However, while this bid failed, Japan made a subsequent and successful application for the 1964 Games. At the Munich IOC Session in 1959, when the Japanese Bid Committee for 1964 Tokyo gave a presentation, the Japanese presenter, Kazushige Hirasawa, lifted up one Japanese language textbook for six grade school children in his hand and stated, "In Japan, we teach the Olympic Movement with this textbook for elementary school" (Masumoto, 2012, p.1264). The textbook featured the Coubertin's life and his contributions to the Olympic movement including seven pages on his ideas relating to the Olympic flag (Shiga et al., 1955).

Tokyo was selected as the host city of the 1964 Games at the Session in 1959 and subsequently in 1963 the Japanese government announced a national campaign, entitled 'Olympic National Movement' (*Olympic Kokumin-undo* in Japanese), for spreading the message of the Olympic Movement nationwide (Masumoto, 2012, p.1265). According to the official report on the

preparations for Tokyo 1964 (MESC, 1965), the national movement was aimed to introduce the significance of Tokyo 1964; to raise citizen's interest in cooperating and volunteering for the events; and to promote public health in body and mind in a suitable environment for welcoming foreign guests. To achieve these aims, the Ministry of Education set up the eight pillars. Obayashi (2017, pp.39-40) summarises these pillars with the key sections and the details are as follows:

Pillar 1: Understanding the Olympics

- 1.1 Understanding Olympic ideals
- 1.2 Enhancing sportsmanship and respecting the Olympic logo
- 1.3 Raising awareness of watching sport

Pillar 2: International understanding

- 2.1 Keeping the dignity as Japanese and a respectful attitude towards foreigners
- 2.2 Developing the attitude of international understanding and equal treatment for foreigners
- 2.3 Respecting the national flags and songs

Pillar 3: Promoting public morality

- 3.1 Being kind to others
- 3.2 Developing a sense of public morality (e.g. tolerance, kindness, and honesty based on the principle of human rights)

Pillar 4: Promoting commercial morality

- 4.1 Not being a profiteer
- 4.2 Not selling bad quality products, not doing unfair business

Pillar 5: Promoting traffic morality

- 5.1 Spreading the principle of safe driving
- 5.2 Keeping the rules of traffic morality for pedestrians and cars

Pillar 6: Beautification of our country

- 6.1 Beautification of the city towns or villages
- 6.2 Creating a better environment and improving public morality

Pillar 7: Health Promotion

- 7.1 Getting familiar with sports
- 7.2 Spreading healthy recreation in daily life
- 7.3 Developing concern for environmental hygiene

The Ministry of Education also published Olympic Readers (textbooks) for learning the Olympics which later were distributed to the all schools through the education board of every prefecture in Japan. The contents in each textbook are listed in Table 4.1. The educational initiatives and the textbooks published for the implementation of an education programme before and during the 1964 Olympic Games explicitly indicate how the Japanese government conceptualised the promotion of Olympism through educational activities at that time, which can be anticipated to influence the current Olympic education initiatives and programmes for Tokyo 2020.

**Table 4. 1 The contents in textbooks published for the Tokyo 1964 Olympic Games**

Textbook for elementary schools (1964)	Textbook for junior high schools (1962)	Textbook for high schools (1963)
<u>The first Olympic Games in Asia</u> 1. The opening and closing ceremony of the Olympic Games 2. General information about the Olympic Games 3. Torch relay  <u>The founder of the Modern Olympics and famous athletes</u> 1. Pierre de Coubertin 2. Kinue Hitomi 3. Blankers-Koen 4. Paavo Nurmi and Emil Zatopek 5. Shuhei Nishida and Sueo Oe 6. Takeichi Nishi  <u>Making success in the Olympic Games</u> 1. The Olympics and elementary school students 2. The expectation for the Olympic Games 3. Matters you should know  <u>The small dictionary of the Olympics</u>  <u>The song of the Olympics</u>	<u>The Olympics as a festival of young power and beauty</u> 1. Events of ancient Olympia 2. The historical site of ancient Olympia 3. The revival of the Olympics 4. Tokyo Olympic Games 5. Olympism 6. Sportsmanship 7. The Olympic family  <u>Young people to victory</u> 1. Beautiful friendship of the Olympics 2. Fair play 3. Gold medal against disease 4. Good and young athletes  <u>Tokyo Olympic Games and us</u> 1. The management 2. Event locations 3. Participation of our friends 4. The financial plan for the Games 5. The mental preparation for the Games	<u>Tokyo Olympic Games</u> 1. Coming soon to Tokyo 2. The process of bidding for the 12th Olympic Games 3. Management and cooperation 4. Event locations 5. Torch relay 6. Financial issues  <u>History and the ideals of modern Olympics</u> 1. Ideals 2. History  <u>The promotion of sports and the Olympics</u> 1. The situation of spreading sports 2. The improvement of techniques 3. The expansion of the facilities 4. The future of sports in Japan  <u>How should we prepare for the Games?</u> 1. The desirable attitude for communicating with foreign people 2. How to forward the ‘Olympic Kokumin-Undo (Olympic National Movement)’

(Source: Adapted from Obayashi, 2017, pp.41-42)

### b. 1972 Sapporo Winter Olympic Games

The second Japanese Olympic Games were the 11th Winter Olympic Games in Sapporo in 1972. This was the first Winter Games to be held outside Europe and North America. There is not sufficient English evidence relating to educational plans and programmes for Sapporo 1972. However, Masumoto (2012) introduced the key practices of educational programmes for the promotion of Sapporo 1972 based on the analysis of the official report of the Sapporo Olympic Games<sup>17</sup>. The Board of Education of Sapporo published *The Guidebook for Olympic Learning* for the promotion of Olympic education and distributed to all schools in Sapporo. The guidebook included the following objectives:

- To utilise the Olympics so that students could gain international experience directly and to make students understand the goal of promoting peace and happiness for people around the world
- To enhance students' interest in winter sports
- To view the Olympic events and to attend the Olympic-related events as supporters in order to make the Games successful

The contents in this guidebook could be utilised for various subjects such as social studies, physical education, English and moral education, and special activities and school events. Sapporo city distributed additional Olympic related teaching materials, exhibition posters, and slides of the Olympic venues. In addition, Sapporo 1972 undertook an international exchange programme between schools in Sapporo (3 kindergartens, 10 elementary schools, 2 junior high schools, and 7 high schools) and schools in USA and France through the correspondence of letters and photos, exchanges of artworks, and visits of students and teachers.

The initiatives and educational programmes for Sapporo 1972 imply two significant things. First, Sapporo 1972 prioritised to the raising of civic awareness about the Sapporo Winter Games as well as winter sports, and to cultivate the students' mind in relation to international understanding and goodwill by experiencing the winter Olympics and international exchange programmes. Second, the Ministry of Education published a teacher's guidebook, '*Snow and Ice Sport*' for school events, the main support for the promotion of successful Winter Games was developed mainly at the Sapporo municipal level (Masumoto, 2012). For the Tokyo 1964 Olympics, the Japanese government suggested that promoting educational initiatives as the

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<sup>17</sup> Masumoto (2015) referred to the *Municipal Report of the 11<sup>th</sup> Winter Olympic Games* [in Japanese] published by the City of Sapporo in 1972.

national campaign was undertaken in all the schools nationwide in Japan. In the case of Sapporo 1972, however, the Olympic learning programmes and activities were developed for schools in Sapporo and supported by the Sapporo regional board of Education.

### c. 1998 Nagano Winter Olympic Games

After Sapporo's successful bid in hosting the 1972 Winter Olympic Games, Sapporo and Nagoya respectively submitted a bid for the 1984 Winter Olympic Games and the 1988 Summer Olympic Games, which came to be failed bids. In 1991, Nagano was selected as the host city for the 1998 Winter Olympic Games. Hosting the Winter Olympics was a long-time ambition of Nagano since Nagano had previously applied to host the Winter Games in 1940 and 1972, but both events were given to Sapporo in the process of domestic selection (JOC, 2018a).

In the 1990s, the IOC strengthened the roles and mission of the Olympic bodies in particular relation to the promotion of Olympic education as an 'ultimate goal' along with the developing the definition of 'Olympism' and the goals of the Olympic Movement (See chapter 1 and Appendix A). The Olympic education initiatives and programmes of Nagano 1998 started relatively early from the year of 1994. The Ministry of Education published an Olympic reader entitled '*The Snow Flower*' for elementary and junior higher schools to deliver Olympic education in the national level in 1994 and published another Olympic reader for high schools in the following year (Masumoto, 2012, p.1273). The promotion of Olympic education for Nagano 1998 seems to have been implemented in schools as part of a national initiative, in contrast to that of the Sapporo Olympic Games, which focused on the region.

Another Olympic education programme called the '*One School One Country (OSOC)*' programme, officially started in 1994. The origin of this programme was the 'One Community Centre, One Country' in the 1994 Hiroshima Asian Games. At this Asian Games, the citizens of Hiroshima welcomed and supported the athletes from other Asian countries in order to enhance mutual understanding and to promote friendship with each other in every community centre from 1992 to 1994. Thus, the president of the Nagano International Friendship Club (NIFC), Hiroji Koide, was inspired to create a similar concept of an international exchange programme for Nagano 1998. The *OSOC* programme was developed in conjunction with NIFC, Nagano City, the Education Board of Nagano, and the Nagano Organising Committee of the Olympic Games (NOCOG). The purpose of this programme was to utilise the Nagano Games

to encourage children to be concerned about international exchange and goodwill, to foster their dreams for the future, and to enhance the independence (Koide, 2002). Students from all 75 elementary schools in Nagano learned about their assigned partner country's history, culture, and language and were involved in the activities of the exchange programme. At the welcoming ceremony in the Olympic village, the assigned school students visited the village and welcomed its athletes by singing their national anthems in their native languages. The *OSOC* programme was recognised as a successful practice of an international Olympic education programme since the following Olympic Games including Sydney 2000, Salt Lake City 2002, Turin 2006, and Beijing 2008 adopted this concept of Olympic education (Tsuchiya, 2014). Because of this continuing influence on the Olympic education, it has been recognised as an exemplary international Olympic education programme.

In summary, there are several features of the Japanese Olympic education tradition. First, it is clear that Japan has developed the concept of Olympic education initiatives and programmes with an understanding of the promotion of Olympism and the necessity of the designing and delivery of Olympic education in schools by hosting a series of the Olympic Games. Japan focused on the development of educational materials such as Olympic Reader books (textbooks) for schools and teaching guideline or manual books for teachers, and then distributed them to all schools. However, it is not possible to see any impacts of the educational initiatives from the history of Japanese Olympic education except for the *OSOC* programme which directly informed the approaches adopted in following Olympic Games.

Second, Japan has also established its own system for the development and delivery of Olympic education based on the national policy and guidelines mainly developed by the Japanese governance and its education system. In relation to the role of the policy makers (stakeholders), although the powerful stakeholder, the Ministry of Education, suggested the initiatives of Olympic education and published educational materials distributed to schools in Japan, the regional Board of Education was also able to make an independent decision concerning its own practices. Additionally, it may be assumed that there is a lack of the actions on the part of the Organising Committee of the previous Japanese Olympic Games in relation to the promotion of Olympic education programmes. This is reflected in the lack of English literature outlining and/or analysing the initiatives and the responsibilities of the Committee.

Third, there are some limitations in relation to the implementation of Olympic education in the post-Games periods. Masumoto (2012) highlights that all the Japanese Olympic educational

programmes and initiatives ceased, after the closing ceremony. In addition to this, there is a lack of evaluation of the impacts of Olympic education programmes delivered in schools and school curriculum.

Overall, this section has sought to provide an account of the nature of Japan's involvement in the promotion of Olympic education in the process of acting as the host nation and city. Moreover, there are some cultural values and Japanese spirit emerging from the process of the recovery and reconstruction from wars and earthquakes, which might have influenced people's perception in the ways of understanding of Olympism and the Olympic Movement by hosting the Olympic Games in Japan.

In particular I have focused on ways in which Japan intended to develop Olympic education initiatives and programmes in practice, and which stakeholders played a key role in developing and delivering policies relating to Olympic education. Consequently, it is expected that Tokyo 2020 will be able to draw on lessons learned from Japan's previous Olympic education policy and practices in terms of the development and implementation in the preparation stage for the 2020 Olympic Games.

#### **4.2.2 Conceptualisation of governance of the Japanese Olympic system for Tokyo 2020**

This section outlines the governance of the Japanese Olympic system for Tokyo 2020. The Tokyo Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games (TOCOG) is the organisation responsible for overseeing the planning and development of the 2020 Summer Olympic and Paralympic Games. TOCOG was launched on January 24, 2014 and is composed of members of the Japanese Olympic Committee (JOC), the Japanese Paralympic Olympic Committee (JPC), the Tokyo Metropolitan Government (TMG), the Japanese Government as well as members of various organisations and individuals from academic to business sectors.

After the establishment of the organising committee, TOCOG first published *Tokyo 2020 Games Foundation Plan* in 2015 (TOCOG, 2015) and developed '*Tokyo 2020 Games Vision*' (TOCOG, 2015, p.1). The Tokyo 2020 Games Vision states that:

Sport has the power to change the world and our future. The Tokyo 1964 Games completely transformed Japan. The Tokyo 2020 Games, as the most innovative in history, will bring positive reform to the world based on three



core concepts: Achieving Personal Best, Unity in Diversity and Connecting to Tomorrow.

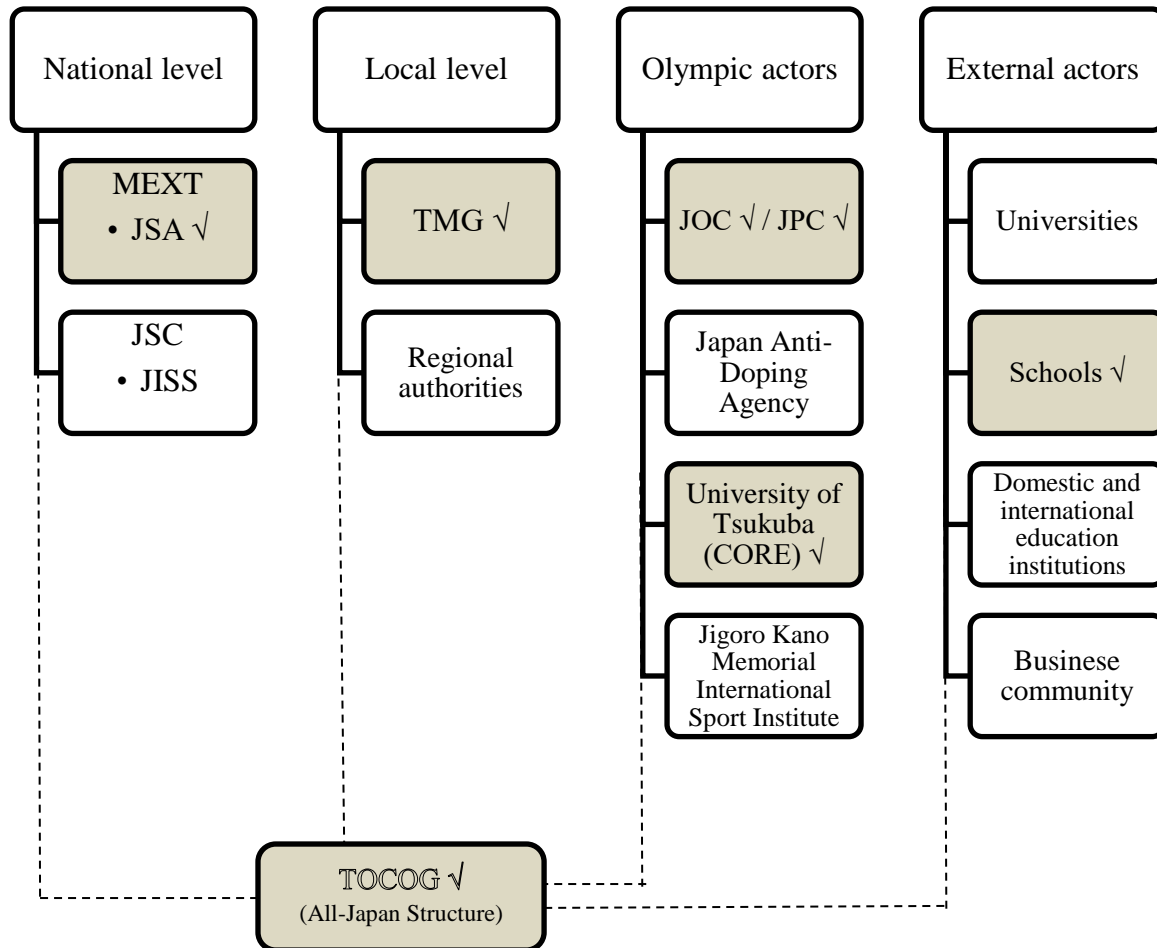
It is expected that the success of the Games depends on the positive legacies to be left to Japan and throughout the world in a variety of fields in addition to that of sport. In addition, TOCOG formulated its '*Action & Legacy Plan*' built upon the Games Vision. 'Actions' refer to events, projects and initiatives that are supposed to be undertaken throughout Japan for the purpose of widespread engagement from 2016 through to 2020. 'Legacies' are defined as the end products resulting from these Actions and will be left to Tokyo, Japan and the world. To undertake the *Action & Legacy Plan*, TOCOG created five pillars along with commission of the expert groups: Sport and Health, Urban Planning and Sustainability, Culture and Education, Economy and Technology and Recovery, Nationwide Benefits and Global Communication (TOCOG, 2016). Subsequently, TOCOG set out the following objectives according to each pillar (TOCOG, 2016, p.79):

- To create legacies of "Sport and Health" by creating environments that facilitate the practice of sport and demonstrate role models for health promotion in aging societies with declining birth rates
- To create legacies of "Urban Planning and Sustainability" by developing cities in which everyone can live safely and comfortably as well as by communicating the importance of sustainability
- To create legacies of "Culture and Education" by communicating Japan's diverse culture to the world as well as by fostering the development of globally competent human resources with an international perspective through Olympic and Paralympic education
- To create legacies of "Economy and Technology" by contributing to Japan's economic recovery through the Games delivery as well as by showcasing innovation utilising leading-edge technology
- To create legacies of "Recovery (from the Great Earthquake), Nationwide benefits, Global communication" by showcasing efforts on recovery from the Great East Japan Earthquake and communicating Japan's values such as "harmony is the ultimate virtue"

Figure 4.1 provides an overview of the stakeholders directly and indirectly involved in promoting Olympism and Olympic values in the Japanese Olympic system, highlighting

different levels of stakeholders such as the national level, local level, Olympic actors, and external actors.

**Figure 4. 1 Governance of Japanese Olympic system**



*The highlighted (✓) were used for analysis of case studies in this research*

For the purpose of sharing the vision of Tokyo 2020, TOCOG established an ‘All-Japan Structure’ (TOCOG, 2016, p.5). This Structure is formed of the Japanese Olympic Committee (JOC), the Japanese Para-Sports Association, the Japanese Paralympic Committee (JPC), the Tokyo Metropolitan Government (TMG), the Government of Japan, the business community and other relevant organisations such as universities. In the context of there being a limit to the scope of the activities that TOCOG is able to undertake and since TOCOG as a body will cease to exist after 2020, because the organising committee will be dissolved, the *All-Japan Structure* is intended to play a significant role in delivering a wide range of actions and activities related to the Olympics which would be beyond the capacity of TOCOG. Thus, actions and activities for Tokyo 2020 are to be carried out now and in the future not only by the organising committee

and its delivery partners alone, but also by many regional and municipal authorities, groups and individuals which form part of the *All-Japan Structure*.

Within both the Olympic governance system and *All-Japan Structure* for Tokyo 2020, responsibility for the development and delivery of Olympic education is spread across a diverse range of bodies from the national/local levels through to Olympic/external actors levels. With this in mind, this research has sought to identify what kinds of educational initiatives and programmes have been developed by different stakeholders; how these programmes have been delivered to young people and Japanese communities; and what makes the programmes work. As shown in Figure 4.1 above, Olympic education initiatives and programmes promoted by the highlighted stakeholders have been used and analysed for the case studies.

### 4.3 Theoretical framework for analysis

The evaluation of an intervention requires a framework within which the evaluation can be designed, data analysed, and results interpreted. This section presents the theoretical basis of the Part Two in this thesis. Two key elements of the theoretical framework for the analysis and evaluation of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education policy and practices will be introduced: different concepts of policy analysis on governance, and various types of evaluation, with a focus of realist policy evaluation.

#### 4.3.1 Policy analysis on governance

In addressing the framework for analysis of policy on Olympic education in the Tokyo 2020 case, I will draw on the policy analysis literature on governance and that on epistemic communities, policy networks, policy communities, and issue networks. The concept of governance and its use in field of the public policy analysis is based on recognition that the state and its institutions and actors cannot make and implement policy without the practical engagement of non-state actors. Henry and Lee (2004) distinguish three types of governance; systemic, organisational and political governance. In Henry and Lee's (2004) terms, "Political governance relates to the achievement of goals through strategies such as regulation, and inducement rather than through direct actions and control" (p.13). In most cases, this would refer to the state attempting to influence other actors in the field to achieve its preferred outcomes, steering the actors and institutions in the system (by offering incentives / disincentives for appropriate actions) rather than making direct provision itself. In the particular case under review (Tokyo 2020) I am dealing with a situation in which the IOC (rather than a particular state) is the body concerned with attempting to achieve a particular outcome (the promotion of Olympic values through Olympic education) by influencing key actors and agencies in government and elsewhere, to adopt, develop, deliver, and evaluate Olympic education programmes rather than by making such provision itself.

In order to unpack how the policy system works (or fails to work), in this case it is helpful to draw on the concepts of epistemic communities (Haas, 1992), policy networks (Rhodes, 1997), policy communities and issue networks (Marsh & Rhodes, 1992).

An *epistemic community* is defined by Haas (1992) as "a network of professionals with an expertise and competence in a particular domain, and an authoritative claim to policy-relevant

knowledge within that domain” (p.3). Haas claims that the members of an epistemic community share causal beliefs, which are derived from their analysis of practices leading or contributing to a central set of problems, and which then serve as the basis for elucidating the multiple linkages between possible policy actions and desired outcomes. Thus, the decisions made by the members can influence directly the policy makers on a certain issue, and contribute to more comprehensive policies (Haas, 1992).

In a similar vein, the authors of the academic and policy-related literature on Olympic education thus constitute the epistemic community for this field providing critical insights into how Olympic education should be provided. The membership of the epistemic community is international and has been identified in the meta-narrative review of the English language academic literature undertaken as a precursor to this research and described in Chapter 3. The results of the review were anticipated to directly inform the development and implementation of Olympic education programmes and initiatives.

The concept of *Policy network* refers to “sets of formal and informal institutional linkages between governmental and other actors structured around shared interests in policy making and implementation” (Rhodes, 2007, p.1244). The notion of ‘network(s)’ is embedded in understanding of governance and policy making (Blanco et al., 2011). Policy network as a concept is part of various theoretical developments focusing on the importance of both formal and informal interactions between participants in the policy process. Marsh and Rhodes (1992) developed a typology of policy network with its distinction between *policy communities* and *issue networks*. The term ‘policy network’ is used as the generic term including all types on a continuum. As Herweg (2016) highlights, this kind of continuum emerges with tightly integrated policy communities on one end, which are capable of ‘single-minded’ collective action, and, on the other hand, loosely-affiliated issue networks, which find it more difficult to mobilise collectively.

According to the characteristics of the two types of policy network listed in Table 4.2, *policy communities* provide limited memberships with frequent interactions of all groups on the matters related to the given policy issue, while *issue networks* have large fluctuating memberships with limited interaction. For the consensus and distribution of resources, all participants in a *policy community* share basic values and accept the legitimacy of the outcomes. Thus, a basic relationship among members is an exchange relationship. Although one group may dominate, there is a balance of power among the members, which leads to a ‘positive-sum

game'. In contrast, *issue networks* have a measure of agreement, but conflicts occur. Some participants may have resources, but they are limited. Thus, a basic relationship in issue networks is consultative rather than cooperative, which provides unequal powers reflecting unequal resources and access, and then produces a 'zero-sum game'.

**Table 4. 2 Characteristics of policy community and issue network**

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Policy community</b>	<b>Issue network</b>
Membership (number of participants)	Limited number, some groups consciously excluded	Large
Type of interest	Economic and/or professional interests dominate	Encompasses range of affected interests
Integration (frequency of interaction)	Frequent, high-quality, interaction of all groups on all matters related to policy issue	Contacts fluctuate in frequency and intensity
Continuity	Membership, values, and outcomes persistent over time	Access fluctuates significantly
Consensus	All participants share basic values and accept the legitimacy of the outcome	A measure of agreement exists, but conflict is ever present
Resources (Distribution of resources within network)	All participants have resources; basic relationship is an exchange relationship	Some participants may have resources, but they are limited, and basic relationship is consultative
Resources (Distribution of resources within participating organisations)	Hierarchical; leaders can deliver resources to the members	Varied and variable distribution and capacity to regulate members
Power	There is a balance of power among members. Although one group may dominate, it must be a positive-sum game if community is to persist	Unequal powers, reflecting unequal resources and unequal access. It is a zero-sum game

(Source: Adapted from Marsh & Rhodes 1992, p.251)

Considering policy making and implementation relating to Olympic education, the strategic focus of the Olympic family has been predominantly at the level of policy community in the policy network. On the other hand, we can assume that individuals and groups of actors from governing bodies at a regional/local level and more specifically from schools (e.g. school

teachers) might be treated as looser issue networks. This policy network approach will be used for policy analysis relating to the case of Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programme, focusing on the dimensions of policy community and issue networks.

#### **4.3.2 Policy Evaluation approaches to analysis**

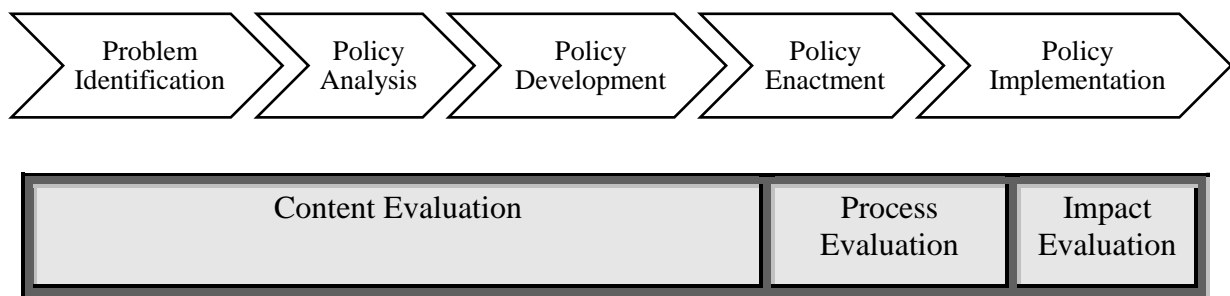
The role and function of policy evaluation is defined in the following manner by the UK Treasury (HM Treasury, 2003):

Policy evaluation uses a range of research methods to systematically investigate the effectiveness of policy interventions, implementation and processes, and to determine their merit, worth, or value in terms of improving the social and economic conditions of different stakeholders. (p.3)

Evaluation can be undertaken for multiple purposes. Scriven (1991) identified *formative* and *summative* as two basic types of evaluation purposes. *Formative evaluations*, which are conducted during the operation of a programme, provide information on improving the programme. On the other hand, *summative evaluations*, are conducted at the end of a programme to provide judgements about the programme's merit, worth, or effectiveness. However, this distinction is too simple to apply throughout the policy process from problem identification, through development and implementation to evaluation. It is important to understand how policy evaluation fits into the policy process.

Brownson et al. (2009) describe three key domains for evidence-based policy: 1) *process*, to understand approaches to enhance the likelihood of policy adoption; 2) *content*, to identify specific policy elements that are likely to be effective; and 3) *outcomes*, to document the potential impact of policy (p.9). The Centre for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) proposes three types of evaluation reflected on the three domains of Brownson et al. (CDC, 2013). Figure 4.2 illustrates the relationship between the key stages of policy process on the top row and the three types of evaluation in the bottom row.

**Figure 4. 2 Policy development phases and evaluation within the process**



(Source: Brownson et al., 2009; CDC, 2013)

Each focuses on a different phase of the policy process: *policy content evaluation*, *policy implementation evaluation*, and *policy impact evaluation*, described with roles and a key question below.

- **Evaluating Policy Content** – This examines the substantive information and material contained within a policy in relation to the policy’s requirements, its similarity to other policies, the context in which it was developed or some combination of these (i.e. does the policy clearly state the goals or objectives? which stakeholders played a role in the policy’s development? what are the core components of the policy? how is the content of the policy similar to or different from that of other policies?).
- **Evaluating Policy Process** – This examines the inputs, activities, and outputs involved in the implementation of a policy. It can also provide important information about the barriers to and facilitators of implementation and a comparison between different components or intensities of implementation (i.e. was the policy implemented as intended? what inputs and resources were required to implement the policy? what key activities (throughputs) were completed during policy implementation? what external factors influenced the implementation?).
- **Evaluating Policy Impact** – This examines changes in key indicators that have occurred since the implementation of a policy and the extent to which changes can be attributed to the policy (i.e. did the policy produce the intended outcomes and impact? was there a change in the outcomes and impacts of interest? did the policy contribute to the change?).



Evaluation can be used through the life of a policy to provide policy makers with timely feedback about whether a policy is being implemented as expected, whether important outputs are being delivered and if there are any parts of the policy which are not working, or which are working particularly well.

Among the three types of evaluation, ‘process evaluation’ provides evaluation evidence on the preparation and implementation and delivery of policy, which provides policy makers with the opportunity to refine and improve policies to help them the best chance of achieving their ultimate aims. Given that Olympic education policy and programmes of Tokyo 2020 are being delivered in the stage of the preparation for the Games, both content evaluation and process evaluation can be more suitable to evaluate the implementation and delivery of the policy to provide feedback on a wide range of issues. However, this kind of individual (or separate) approach to evaluation of Olympic education programmes and initiatives cannot determine ‘whether a policy worked’ or ‘how it works’. Thus, this research will undertake a theory-based approach to evaluation, focusing on ‘what works, for whom, in what circumstances’ rather than simply addressing the question of whether the programme has worked.

### **4.3.3 Realist evaluation**

Informed by the results of the meta-narrative review, it is evident that there is a lack of policy evaluation of Olympic education programmes undertaken based on the theoretical and methodological foundations. However, whether the legacy goals and impacts have been achieved through the development and implementation of Olympic education has been a key concern raised for host cities and host nations. Consequently, there is a need to adopt a particular evaluation approach (i.e. theory-based evaluation approach), which helps to understand not only what it is about the Olympic education programmes that work but also the mechanisms and interventions which bring about effects. For the empirical case study element of this thesis, the researcher has adopted ‘realist evaluation’, which is a form of theory-based evaluation.

#### **a. Background of realist evaluation**

Theory-based approaches have been discussed in evaluation studies for more than 20 years

(Funnel & Rogers, 2011; Rogers & Weiss, 2007; Weiss, 1998). Theory-based evaluation involves “understanding, systematically testing and refining the assumed connection (i.e. the theory) between an intervention and the anticipated impacts” (HM Treasury, 2011, p.46). Westhorp et al. (2011) identify the nature of theory in theory-based evaluation, focusing on four different kinds of theory: philosophical theory, evaluation theory, programme theory, and substantive theory (p.2).

1. Philosophical theory: Philosophy includes theories about ‘what exists’ (ontology), and ‘what can be known’ (epistemology) and the theories or beliefs influence all the other kinds of theory.
2. Evaluation theory: Evaluation theory deals with how things can be evaluated and what can be known about the results. In relation to philosophy, it can be argued that different philosophies underpin the quantitative and qualitative paradigms in evaluation.
3. Programme theory: Programme theory is built into every programme and there are different ways of representing programme theory, including programme logic and theories of change.
4. Substantive theory: Substantive theory works within a particular domain or discipline (context) explaining how outcomes might be achieved.

*Realist evaluation* as a form of theory-based evaluation, developed by Pawson and Tilley (1997), can be described at the four levels of theory that Westhorp et al. (2011) identify. Realist evaluation is grounded in *realist philosophy*. Realist assumptions provide the mechanics of explanations and attempt to show that the usage of such explanatory strategies can lead to a progressive body of knowledge (Pawson & Tilley, 1997, p.55). In other words, grounded in realism, realist evaluation is concerned that social worlds are ‘real’ and can produce real effects; and operates towards a closer understanding of what causes change. Realist evaluation itself operates as an *evaluation theory* for assessing goals and results of the intervention. Realist evaluation is undertaken with the development of *programme theory*, which clarifies that activities are understood to cause outcomes. At the level of *substantive theory*, realist evaluation deals with mechanisms through which programmes work in particular contexts. Realist evaluation in social science seeks to identify that “programmes work (outcomes) only in so far as they introduce the appropriate ideas and opportunities (mechanisms) to groups in

the appropriate social and cultural conditions (contexts)” (Pawson & Tilley, 1997, p.57). Thus, realist evaluation does not ask ‘what works?’ or ‘does this programme work?’ but instead asks ‘what works for whom, in what circumstances, in what respects, and how?’ (Pawson & Tilley, 2004, p.2).

In relation to policy evaluation, Pawson and Tilley (1997) criticise three perspectives on, or approaches to, evaluation including *experimental*, *pragmatic*, and *constructivist evaluation* which are alternatives to realist evaluation. It is useful to understand the characteristics of realist evaluation in comparison with these three evaluation approaches.

The first, *experimental evaluation*, is designed for the purpose of gaining an estimate of the effect of a treatment by comparing the outcome measures from one treatment group with those of a control group (i.e. randomised control trials). The key principle of this evaluation is focused on the theory of causation (Pawson & Tilley, 1997). Because the treatment and control groups are identical to begin with, the only difference between them is the application of the programme or treatment. Therefore, only the programme/treatment can be responsible for generating certain outcomes. Causation between treatment and outcome should be inferred from the repeated succession of one event by another. After exclusion of rival causal agent from the experiment, that which is left provides the causal link. Although this kind of evaluation can work well for in the context of laboratory-based science research, social systems are different and much more complex than laboratory contexts. Laboratory conditions represent a closed system while policy evaluation takes place in an open and dynamic social system, which can be explained through the mechanisms for producing policy outcomes in certain conditions. Thus, experimental evaluation is not appropriate for open and complex policy systems.

The second type of evaluation is *pragmatic evaluation*, which is related to the politician’s views. The pragmatic evaluation as its starting point has the need for evaluation to be framed in terms of policy decision-makers’ objectives. Weiss (1976, 1987) highlights that the property of evaluation is changing from a *knowledge-driven* to a *utilisation-focused approach* of research, with use of four features of evaluation (utility, feasibility propriety, and accuracy). In Weiss’s (1976) argument, the policy making process is a political process, with the aim of merging interests in order to negotiate a consensus, not of implementing logic and truth. The boundaries of what is to be explained are defined by the political interests of the parties involved and the resources for, and feasibility of, solutions found for the problem at hand. Consequently, Pawson

and Tilley claim that utilisation-focused evaluation is concerned about ‘results’ rather than ‘rules’ of causation, which makes it difficult to define generalisation (Pawson & Tilley, 1997). Consequently, Pawson and Tilley (1997) argue that for the development of research design and data construction in evaluation, there is a need to clearly understand social change and explanation rather than pragmatic account of how and why programmes work.

The third alternative that Pawson and Tilley identify is *constructivist evaluation*. The core idea here is to consider ‘the nature of what it is we are evaluating’ and it is claimed that social programmes are constructed in complex processes of human understanding and interaction. The constructivist seeks to understand how different stakeholders socially construct the nature of a policy and what would count for them as policy success. However, Pawson and Tilley (1997) point out that the constructivist evaluation fails to realise the asymmetries of powers between various stakeholders. It is very difficult to produce a joint construction of claims or concerns among different stakeholder who have opposing views toward an intervention, and thus one may be left with the identification of different constructs without determining which is the most appropriate or developing an agreed account among differently constructed social realities of the nature of a problem and of what works.

In contrast to these three limited approaches to policy analysis and evaluation, the *realist approach* to policy evaluation argues for ‘identifying real causal mechanisms operating in different circumstances or contexts to bring about desired policy outcomes’.

#### b. Key elements of realist evaluation

Pawson and Tilley (1997) developed four key linked concepts for explaining and understanding programmes: ‘*Mechanism*’, ‘*Context*’, ‘*Outcome Pattern*’ and ‘*Context-Mechanism-Outcome (CMO) configurations*’.

According to the Pawson and Tilley’s definitions of the concepts, *mechanism* refers to “what it is about programmes and interventions that bring about any effects” (Pawson & Tilley, 2004, p.6). In the realist concept, *mechanisms* are related to realist explanatory strategies. In fact, it is not a programme that works, but the capacities and choices lead to regular patterns of social actions. It is important to understand ‘why’ a programme works through an understanding of the action of mechanisms.

*Context* refers to “the spatial and institutional locations of social situations together, crucially with the norms, values, and interrelationships found in them” (Pawson & Tilley, 1997, p216). Realism utilises contextual thinking to address the issues of ‘for whom’ and ‘in what circumstances’ a programme will work.

The next concept is *outcome-patterns* which comprise “both intended and unintended consequences of programmes resulting from the activation of different mechanisms in different contexts” (Pawson & Tilley, 2004, p.8). Outcome patterns can take various forms and programmes should be tested against a range of output and outcome measures.

The final concept is *Context-Mechanism-Outcome pattern (CMO) configurations*, usually expressed in the formula ‘ $C+M=O$ ’. The CMO configurations consist of “models indicating how programmes activate mechanisms amongst whom and in what conditions, to bring about alterations in behavioural or event or state regularities” (Pawson & Tilley, 2004, p.9). A CMO configuration is a proposition stating what it is about a programme which works for whom in what circumstances. These propositions bring together mechanism-variation and relevant context-variation to predict and to explain outcome pattern variation. The findings of realist evaluation seek to pinpoint the CMO configurations of features needed to sustain a programme.

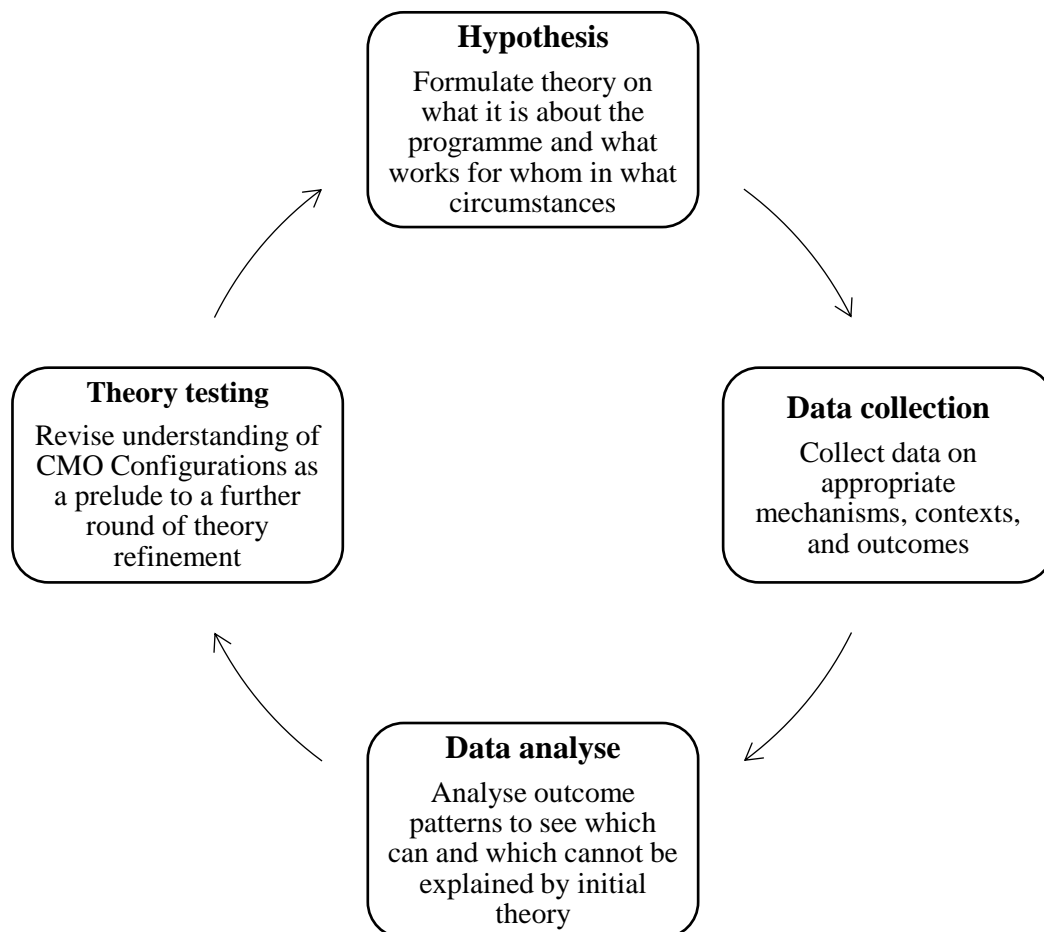
Giving a simple example related to education activities, if an activity is designed to raise young people’s confidence through competitive sports, teachers convey how to play sports with rules and make students compete as team members during PE classes. Then students will have knowledge of the rules of a sport, and will have experienced the sports, and thus have confidence that they know how to participate. Nevertheless, those who are on weaker teams and who habitually lose games will have their confidence undermined rather than reinforced. As a result, school teachers might amend the educational programme emphasising cooperative rather than competitive sports and emphasise sporting values such as teamwork or fair play with less focus on delivering knowledge-based lessons and highlighting winning and competitive outcomes.

### c. Strategies and design of realist evaluation

Pawson and Tilley (1997) adopt a ‘logic of enquiry’ that produces a distinctive set of research strategies and designs. Although Pawson and Tilley do not suggest specific research methods to be used, they provide an explicit research process for undertaking realist evaluation. Figure

4.3 presents how to design realist evaluation, which starts by formalising the programme theories to be tested. Theory must be formed in terms of propositions about how mechanisms are ‘fired’ in contexts to generate outcomes. Even in the first stage of selecting theories, bearing ‘what might work for whom in what circumstances’ in mind is a distinctive element of realist evaluation absent from other evaluation designs.

**Figure 4. 3 Realist evaluation process**



*(Source: Adapted from Pawson & Tilley, 2004, p.24)*

The key purpose of conducting realist evaluation is to test and refine the programme theory as it is to determine the programme outcomes in a particular setting. A programme theory is described as ‘a set of explicit or implicit assumptions of how the programme should be organised and why the programme is expected to work’ (Chen, 2005). Westhorp (2014) states that a realist programme theory is distinctive from a basic programme theory. A general format of programme theory is “if we do ‘x’, ‘y’ will happen, because...”. However, without the part of ‘because’, this type of programme theory might not operate in realist evaluation since there is a lack of theory of change which is an ongoing process of reflection. For developing a

programme theory for realist evaluation, it is necessary to answer such realist questions as follows:

- For whom will this programme theory work and not work, and why?
- In what contexts will this programme theory work and not work, and why?
- What are the main mechanisms by which we expect this programme theory to work?
- If this programme theory works, what outcomes will we see?

Thus, a realist programme theory should specify which outcomes are linked to the intervention and what mechanisms generate the outcomes and what features of the context affect them.

The second stage is to collect data on appropriate mechanisms, contexts, and outcomes through multiple sources. There is no preferred type of data (or method) for realist evaluation, but Pawson and Tilley (1997, 2004) suggest that both qualitative and quantitative data should be collected because of quantitative data being focused on context and outcomes, and qualitative data tending to be focused on generative mechanisms. The next stage in the cycle is to analyse the data collected from multi-methods. There is no specific analytic method provided for realist evaluation. The aim of this analysis is to develop CMO configurations and identify key actions which could explain outcome patterns. The last stage in the process is theory assessment and interpretation of the analysis. It is expected that CMO configurations might offer robust and plausible explanation of the observed outcome patterns. And then the determined CMO configurations are compared with the initial theories (hypotheses), which will lead to decision of whether to modify them.

As shown in the diagram above, this process is a repeating cycle, which can be attempted in further rounds of analysis on the same programme within the same evaluation. As claimed by Pawson and Tilley (2004), however, evaluation can learn lessons from diverse programmes by operating at the ‘middle range’ and it provides a much greater opportunity for realising and transferring the findings of evaluation. In terms of using the findings from realist evaluation, Pawson and Tilley (1997) argue that both programme theories and generative mechanisms can be considered at different levels of ‘abstraction’. It ranges from specific (particular individuals within specific programmes) to abstract (across different types of programmes). Pawson and Tilley (1997) claim that theories in realist evaluation (i.e. programme theory, CMO configurations) should be developed at a middle level of abstraction – for example, between the policy ideas and the day-to-day realities of implementation. Merton (1968) defines middle-

range theories as follows:

Theories that lie between the minor but necessary working hypotheses that evolve in abundance during day-to-day research and the all-inclusive systematic efforts to develop a unified theory that will explain all the observed uniformities of social behaviour, social organisation, and social change. (p.39)

Marchal et al. (2015) support the notion that middle range theories are useful in realist evaluation in the sense that middle-range theories are specific enough to generate particular propositions to test and general enough to apply across different situations. Thus, realist evaluation of the implementation of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education can be expected to provide both universal claims about what kind of programme works and the mechanisms generated in specific places/contexts relating to specific stakeholders. In other words, the findings derived from middle range theories can help decision makers to evaluate whether programmes that were successful in implementation in one setting might work in another setting and assist programme planners in adapting interventions to suit specific contexts.

#### d. Strengths and limitations

There are several reasons for undertaking realist evaluation. Firstly, it clearly draws its foundations from an objectivist methodology and translates this into the field of policy and practice in a social context. Pawson and Tilley (2004) stress the scope for generalisation comes from attention to explanatory theory – generalisation that is critical in moving progressively from one programme experience to another. Secondly, realist evaluation is appropriate when there have not been previous evaluations of a programme or when there is a confusing pattern of outcomes within a programme (Westhorp et al., 2011, p.11). Lastly, realist evaluation can help to inform decisions at different levels related to the intervention (Westhorp, 2014). Policy makers who select or design programmes understand which programmes are suited to particular contexts. For the programme staff, when they implement programme, they can have detailed understanding of CMO configurations which enable tailoring of programmes to local contexts.

However, realist evaluation has some limitations. This technique is not appropriate when how, why and where programmes work is already well understood – a realist evaluation is not necessarily required, and monitoring of implementation and outcomes should be sufficient



(Westthorp, 2014). In addition, if there is a need to simplify understanding of how the programme works, this can be understood through development of logic models which rely on similar ontological and epistemological strategies, but which simplify the argument to a degree to make the causal rationale more readily comprehensible to actors involved in implementation or evaluation.

Although the technique of realist evaluation has not necessarily been popular in the field of sport as well as Olympic related research (Chen & Henry, 2017), there are significant direct attempts using realist evaluation as a methodology for evaluating Olympic education projects such as the London 2012 Olympic educational programme '*Get Set*' (Chen 2013; Chen & Henry, 2017) and London 2012 '*Inspire Programme*' (Girginov, 2016). Chen and Henry (2017) provide an explanation of how and why schools more effectively or less effectively participated in the *Get Set* programme through a realist evaluation approach while Girginov (2016) criticises the official evaluations of the *Inspire Programme* for failing to provide the answer with regard to why, how and under what conditions the programme effects have occurred and for whom.

In conclusion, this research employs a realist evaluation of the planned development and delivery of Olympic education in the context of preparations for the Tokyo 2020 Games. Overall, such questions as “what kind of goals does Tokyo 2020 Olympic education have in a given context?” and “under what circumstances are such goals achieved for which target groups, with what kinds of outcome being sought and achieved?” are addressed by analysing the case of Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes.

## **4.4 Methodology of an empirical case of Olympic education in Tokyo 2020**

### **4.4.1 Introduction**

This section will discuss the methodology of an empirical case of Tokyo 2020's Olympic education programmes and initiatives, which is the focus of Part Two of this thesis. It will start with the process of the major decisions from the research problem (section 4.4.2) to the philosophical assumptions underlying the nature of the paradigm (critical realism), adopted for this research (section 4.4.3). It will subsequently address the rationales for the case study approach and research methods selected (section 4.4.4), and the issues of research validity and reliability (section 4.4.5). Lastly, the research protocol developed for the empirical study of this thesis will be presented (section 4.4.6).

### **4.4.2 Research questions and strategy**

#### ***a. Research Problem and questions***

Social researchers first need to make choices about a research problem to be investigated and research questions to be answered (Blaikie, 2007). A research problem is a description of an issue currently existing, which needs to be addressed and then is translated into research question(s). For the empirical case of this thesis, the results of the meta-narrative review of the literature on Olympic education have informed the investigation of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education initiatives and programmes in practice, along with the analysis of the IOC's context of the field of Olympic education. Thus, the research problem concerned here is how Olympic education initiatives/ programmes have been developed and implemented in the preparation stage of Tokyo 2020. The research questions are as follows:

- 1) How have the various stakeholders in the Japanese Olympic governance system designed and implemented Olympic education programmes and initiatives for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games?
- 2) What is the relationship between generic features of the Olympic education and the culturally specific elements of Japanese Olympic education (system)?

3) By applying realist policy evaluation to various Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education programmes, to what extent is there any (explicit or implicit) explanation of the relationship between contexts, mechanisms, and outcomes?

### b. Research strategy

In order to answer the research questions, we need to plan which methods will be used to collect and analyse data, adopting a logic of enquiry. There are two traditional research strategies: *Inductive* and *Deductive*.

The *inductive* research strategy aims to “establish universal generalisation to be used as pattern explanations” (Blaikie, 2007, p.8). The inductive research is undertaken by following four stages (Hempel, 1966, p.11). Firstly, all ‘facts’ are observed and recorded without selection or guesses as to their relative importance. Secondly, these facts are analysed, compared and classified, without using hypotheses. From the analysis, generalisations are inductively drawn as to the relations between them. And finally, these generalisations are subjected to further testing. Thus, this strategy is often referred to as empiricism because of the emphasis on observation as the basis of scientific knowledge.

The *deductive* approach, in contrast with the inductive approach, starts with a (discovered) pattern or regularity. The deductive researcher finds a possible explanation or theoretical argument for the existence of the regularity in the social phenomenon, and tests hypotheses that emerge from theories (Blaikie, 2007, p.9). In this research strategy, scientific research is seen as to be about refuting false conjectures rather than inductively confirming derived generalisations; falsification rather than verification (Popper, 1959).

These two contrasting styles of reasoning are based on a relationship which is linear in nature. Blaikie (2007) claims that there is a need to consider alternative forms of reasoning which are in cyclic or spiral processes such as *Retroductive* and *Abductive* reasoning. The *retroductive* research strategy aims to discover underlying mechanisms to explain observed regularities. Retroductive researchers first construct a hypothetical model of a mechanism and then proceed to try to find support for the identifying of a real mechanism by observation and experiment. The reality of the hypothesised structures and mechanisms is initially assumed but is empirically demonstrated. Thus, this strategy is distinguishable from the previous two

strategies given that a retroductive approach involves working back from observations to an explanation.

The *abductive* research strategy aims to describe and understand social life in terms of social actors' motives and understanding. For the understanding of the social world of social actors, researchers should enter their world to discover motives and reasons that accompany social activities. Such research begins by describing these activities and meanings, and then derives from them categories and concepts that can form the basis of understanding or an explanation of the problem at hand (Blaikie, 2007).

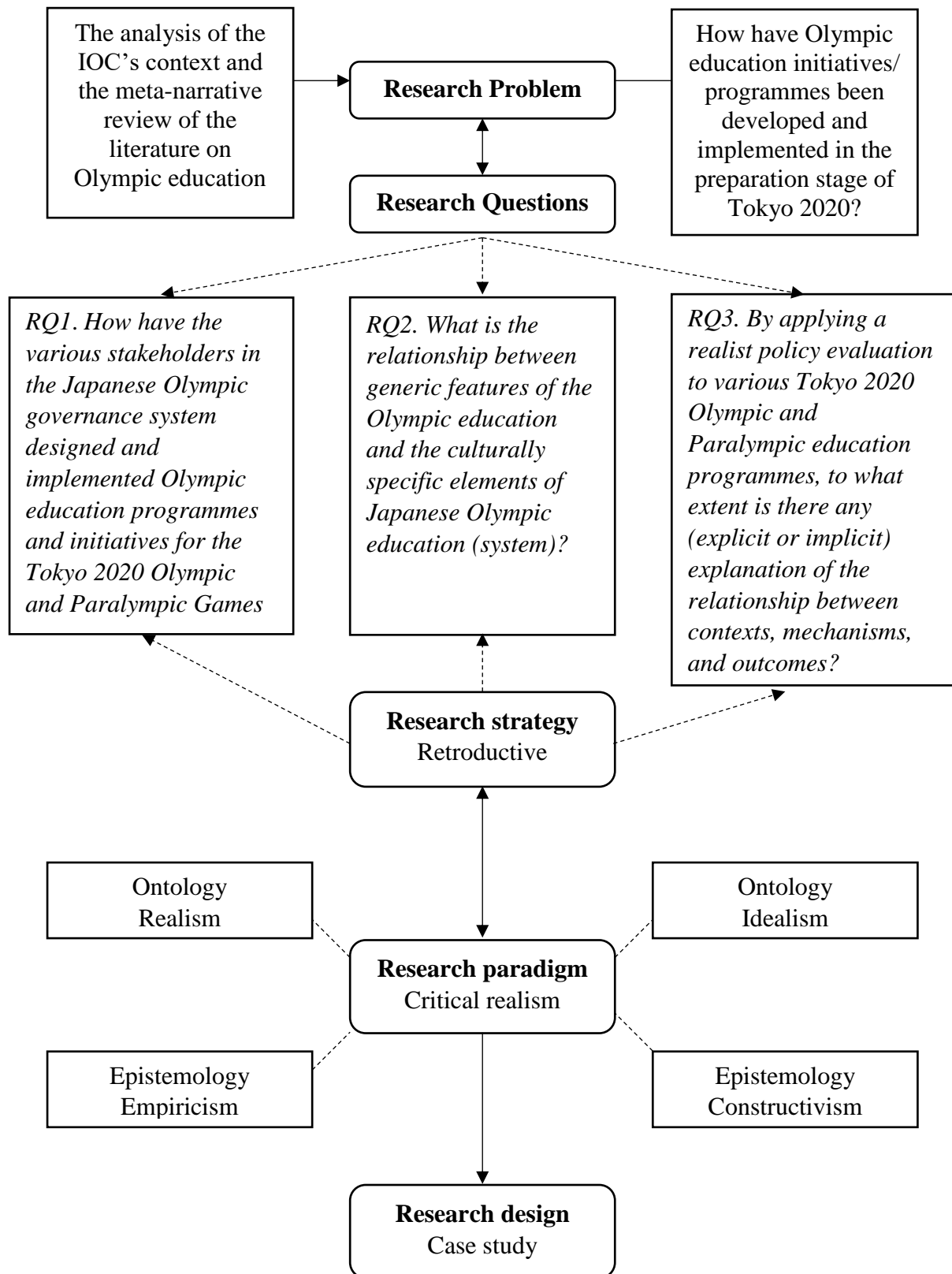
This thesis has adopted the retroductive research strategy, which aims to discover underlying mechanisms that are assumed to produce empirical phenomena. In the context of Tokyo 2020, it has been informed that various stakeholders have already been involved in the development and implementation of Olympic education for Tokyo 2020. According to the TOCOG's *Action & Legacy Plan* report, the stakeholders are suggested promoting Olympic education initiatives developed and implemented in their own ways. Thus, it is anticipated that various actions in relation to Olympic education being promoted by different stakeholders and key actors in the preparation stage of the Tokyo 2020 Games will possibly leave a legacy (hypothetical model). From the retroductive approach, what effects of real mechanisms in certain contexts are empirically observed, and investigated, will be identified by undertaking the realist evaluation.

#### **4.4.3 Philosophical assumptions and research paradigm**

##### *a. Ontological and epistemological considerations*

The next stage is to consider a 'research paradigm' which is defined as "the set of common beliefs and agreements shared between scientists about how problems should be understood and addressed" (Kuhn, 1962, p.45). Research paradigms are derived from a combination of the key concepts of ontological and epistemological assumptions, which adapts their particular way of looking at the world and their ideas on how it can be understood. Overarching the choice of research problem, research questions, and the selection of research strategy also informs the decision of which research paradigm to adopt. Figure 4.4 demonstrates the process of the key methodology choices. This research has chosen the critical realist position and the arguments on the rationale for the adoption of this research will be followed.

**Figure 4. 4 Process of methodology choices**

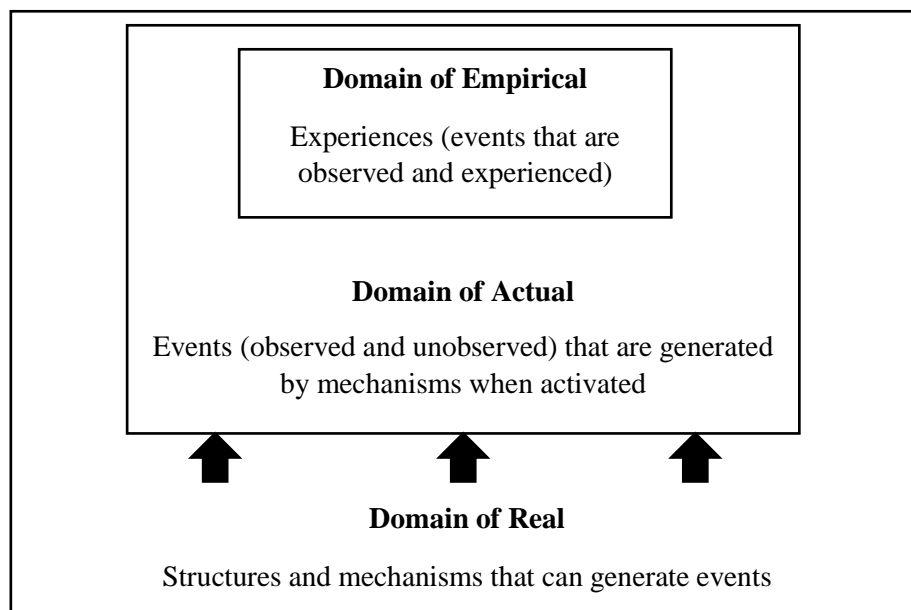


Ontology refers to 'a branch of philosophy that is concerned with the nature of what exists' (Blaikie, 2007). In the social sciences, a typical ontological question is 'what is the nature of

social reality?’ and has two opposed domains: *idealism* and *realism (objectivism)* (Bhaskar, 1978; Blaikie, 2007). An *idealist* theory assumes that what we regard as the external world is just appearances and has no independent existence apart from our thoughts. In a *realist* theory, both natural and social phenomena are assumed to have an existence that is independent of the activities of the human observer.

According to Bhaskar (1979), there are three levels of reality: *the empirical*, *the actual* and *the real*. The *empirical* level is the world that we ‘experience’ through the use of our senses; the *actual* level includes ‘events’ whether or not anyone is there to observe them; and the *real* level consists of the ‘mechanisms’ that produce events. Figure 4.5 presents the notion of Bhaskar that experiences, events, and mechanisms constitute the overlapping domains of reality. It implies that the empirical domain is regarded as superficial since it is concerned with what we experience and that the real domain is substantial as it contains mechanisms, events, and experiences, the whole of reality per se.

**Figure 4. 5 The relationships among the three domains of reality**



(Source: Mingers, 2004, p.94)

An epistemology is a theory of knowledge, ‘a theory or science of the method or grounds of knowledge’ (Blaikie, 2007, p.18). An epistemological issue concerns the questions of ‘what is (or should be) regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline?’ (Bryman, 2012), and ‘how can social reality be known?’ (Blaikie, 2007). There are two opposite epistemological positions which are ‘*empiricism*’ and ‘*constructivism*’. *Empiricism* is concerned that social entities can

be considered as objective entities that have a reality external to social actors. The key idea here is that knowledge is produced by the use of human senses, and that knowledge comes from ‘observing’ the world. In addition, empiricists do not accept causations in nature, but count regularities or constant conjunctions between events. However, as Mingers et al. (2013) claim, science is not just about recording constant conjunctions of observable events.

*Constructivism* is another epistemology term contrasting to empiricism. Constructivists see the world as constructed, interpreted, and experienced by people in their interactions with each other and with wider social systems (Guba & Lincoln, 1985; Maxwell, 2006). The goal of constructivist research is generally to interpret and understand the meanings in human behaviour rather than to generalise and predict causes and effects (Neuman, 2000) and knowledge cannot be discovered or produced by reason independently of a reality (Blaikie, 2007, p.22). Both empiricist and constructivist researchers accept that human behaviour could be patterned and regular. While empiricists see this relating to the cause and effect, constructivists view such patterns as being created out of evolving meaning systems that people produce as they socially interact (Neuman, 2000).

#### *b. Critical realism as an ontological and epistemological ‘compromise’*

*Critical realism*, developed by Bhaskar (1978, 1979), was articulated within a ‘dialectical perspective’ from the arguments against both the realist view as embodied in empiricism and the idealist view of science as embodied in constructivism (Mingers et al., 2013). Blaikie (2007) identifies the realist and idealist positions in ontological terms and empiricist and constructivist positions in epistemological terms. It acknowledges that critical realism is a compromise ontologically and epistemologically for both of two poles. Between the two philosophical positions, critical realists argue that social structures exist independently of individual actors and exert causal influence, but that they are socially constructed (Henry & Ko, 2013). Wynn and Williams (2012) provide the key principles of critical realism based on ontological and epistemological assumptions as follows:

- Principles relating to ontology assumptions: existence of an independent reality; a stratified ontology comprised of structures; mechanisms, events, and experiences; and open system perspectives

- Principles relating to epistemological assumptions: mediated knowledge; explanation rather than prediction; explanation via mechanisms; and multiple possible explanations

There are four reasons why this research has adopted critical realism. Firstly, in ontological terms, realism provides that the world and entities constituting reality actually exist, independent of human knowledge and that there is ‘causal efficacy’, generated by reason and scientific research. However, it is explained as an ‘actual’ domain not as a ‘real’ domain. In this research, the field of Olympic education has been developed starting from the Coubertin’s view on the educational purpose which was to educate ‘good and moral values’ to young people through sport (Olympic Games). It is understood that there is a potential generative causation that the implementation of Olympic education (programmes) might have positive impacts on young people. However, it is difficult to assess specific entities and structures directly through the levels of reality. Critical realism thus attempts to use our knowledge of the experiences in a given situation to investigate and analyse inferentially what the world must be like (Mingers, 2004). It implies that critical realism accepts that the reality can be socially constructed. Reflected from this, this research has not only investigated the generic effects of the implementation of Olympic education initiative and programmes of Tokyo 2020 but also identified by retroductive means which structural entities and contextual conditions interact to generate the effects of the events.

Secondly, critical realism in epistemological terms aims to explain the mechanisms that generate a certain event, not to make predictions about future events. In addition, the explanation of a given set of events by uncovering the hypothesised existence of mechanisms which, if they existed and were enacted, could have produced these events (Bhaskar, 1998). Thus, adopting critical realism, this research has set out to investigate under what circumstances different goals made by various stakeholders engaged in the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education programmes are to be achieved and identify the mechanisms of scientific explanation underlying the reality.

Next, we can also consider methodological principles derived from critical realism. Mingers et al. (2013) suggest that the nature of critical realism which has different ontological and epistemological elements allows researchers to have a range of different research methods and methodologies to access them. This research has chosen a case study design with use of multi-methods (data triangulation), which can be accomplished by combinations of varying sources



(i.e. interviews, document analysis, observations) from quantitative to qualitative data. Undertaking a case study employing critical realism should be focused on establishing causality since we seek to explain how and why specific and complex mechanisms occur in a particular context, instead of describing the mechanisms in theoretical terms, testing existing theories or proposing a model for prediction.

Lastly, going back to the selection of the research strategy, as discussed in the Section 4.4.2 followed by the decision of research questions, the retroductive research strategy was considered the most appropriate for this research because the retroductive research shares the same ontological and epistemological assumptions of critical realism. In terms of the exploration of ‘underlying mechanisms that explain observed regularities in particular contexts’ (Blaikie, 2010, p.8), this is also the key argument of Pawson and Tilley about realist policy evaluation (Pawson & Tilley, 1997). Through the meta-narrative review of the literature on the field of Olympic education, this research has established a framework which can inform the evaluation of Olympic education initiatives and programmes developed in the context of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. Consequently, with the retroductive approach this research has aimed to discover what the underlying generative structures found in the case of Tokyo 2020 are operating for the achieving the outcomes or not.

Thus, this research used a case study as a research design and collected evidence from document analysis and semi-structured interviews, subsequently adopting use of logic model technique inform the case study evaluation as a simplified version of the rationale underpinning realist evaluation. The following sections will discuss a case study approach and the process of data collection and analysis.

#### **4.4.4 Research methods and analysis**

##### **a. Case study approach**

Creswell (2007) defines a case study as “a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information, and reports a case description and case-based themes” (p.73). It is significant to define research questions for identifying whether a case study approach is relevant to an inquiry.

Yin (2014) suggests that the form of research questions such as “how” or “why” is more

appropriate to case studies. The research questions of this study are: “how have the various stakeholders in the Japanese Olympic governance system designed and implemented Olympic education programmes and initiatives for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games?” and “to what extent is there any (explicit or implicit) explanation of the relationship between contexts, mechanisms, and outcomes?”. Using a case study approach to address these questions is highly appropriate. The rationale for selection of the six cases for this study is described as follows (the cases are also highlighted in Figure 4.1):

- **Tokyo Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games:** TOCOG is the organising committee for Tokyo 2020 and responsible for hosting a successful event and delivering on legacy by designing an official Olympic education programme, called ‘*Yoi Don!*’ (introduced in April 2017) and promoting Olympism and Olympic values to young people through the programme.
- **Tokyo Metropolitan Government:** The TMG is one of the key stakeholders. Because Tokyo is the host city of the Games, which is providing support for the preparations for Tokyo 2020. Currently, all public schools in Tokyo are delivering Olympic education in the school curriculum being part of ‘*Yoi Don!*’ programme recognised by TOCOG and the IOC. (local level)
- **Japan Sports Agency:** The JSA was established as an external bureau to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) for the purpose of promoting collaboration among relevant government agencies toward hosting Tokyo 2020. The JSA is delivering Olympic education beyond Tokyo. (national level)
- **Japanese Olympic Committee:** The JOC, as a national Olympic Committee, is responsible for contributing to the promotion of sport by supporting the Olympic Movement. The JOC has developed ‘*Hello Olympism Programs*’, which seeks to raise understanding of Olympism and to convey the role of the Olympics through communications between young people and Olympians. (Olympic actors)
- **University of Tsukuba (CORE):** Since the University of Tsukuba opened Centre for Olympic Research & Education (CORE) in 2010, CORE has been

actively involved in the promotion of Olympic education. Since the academic year of 2012/2013, its 11 laboratory schools have been delivering Olympic education in the school curriculum and extra curriculum. Not only collaborating work with their laboratory schools, the University is supporting the JSA's delivery of Olympic education nationwide. (Olympic actors)

- **Nippon Foundation Paralympic Sport Centre:** The NFPSC is one of the key Olympic actors delivering various programmes particularly relating to 'Paralympic education' in Japan. One of the initiatives is that the NFPSC has developed the official Paralympic education programme, called '*ImPOSSIBLE*' for a similar purpose of the development of '*OVEP*'. In compliance with the vision of the Tokyo 2020 Olympics, promoting Paralympic education in Japan is considered as a significant practice for the expansion and development of the field of Olympic and Paralympic education. (Olympic actors)

Case study evidence is collected from various sources. Yin (2014) has identified six sources: documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant-observation, and physical artefacts. Because each method has both strengths and weaknesses, it is better to use several sources which are highly complementary. For this thesis, data has been collected from document analysis and interviews. The following sections will present how I have collected data from the document analysis and semi-structured interviews.

### c. Document analysis

The application of qualitative document analysis has been comprehensively used in social inquiry (Bryman, 2012). Examples of documents are administrative documents (e.g. proposals, progress reports, and other internal documents); formal studies or evaluations; personal documents (e.g. diaries and notes); journals; and online materials (news articles or documents on the internet).

The data collection for this study was conducted in Japan from May 9, 2017 for 12 weeks. Prior to doing the fieldwork, online searching for Games related policy documents helped to gain background information on Japanese Olympic education initiatives and Japanese education systems. In addition, it was useful that the IOC and TOCOG websites provided updates related

to the Tokyo 2020 Games. Such systematic searches are also important in planning how to collect data. During the fieldwork, when especially interviews were undertaken, a number of educational materials such as textbooks, teaching guidebooks and school curricula for the delivery of Olympic education, and strategic policy documents and promotional pamphlets published by different stakeholders were provided. All documents reviewed for this study are analysed through qualitative thematic analysis.

There were some issues in translating documents; for example, problems of ambiguity and problems raised from structural and lexical differences between Japanese and English. To solve these concerns, I worked with two PhD researchers from the University of Tsukuba. One was native Japanese, who is fluent in English, and the other student was a native Korean, who can speak Japanese at a native level. In addition, taking advantage of the fact that the researcher is a native Korean and there are structural and lexical similarities between Japanese and Korean, it was helpful to reduce ambiguity and uncertainty of translation of documents.

#### d. Semi-structured interviews

An interview is one of the most common ways to understand human beings and becomes a tool for researchers who want to obtain rich and in-depth data (Fontana & Frey, 2005). For this thesis, the semi-structured interview method was adopted because semi-structured interviews apply a set of open-ended questions with the opportunity for the interviewer to explore particular themes or responses. For exploring the Olympic education initiatives and programmes of the Tokyo 2020 Games, conducting the semi-structured interviews was useful to gain individual data from various stakeholders' point of views in different contexts.

For the selection of the stakeholders/organisations, the criterion was that the organisations should be key stakeholders at all levels of the Japanese Olympic system from national and local levels through to Olympic actors. The aim was to gain an overall understanding of various Olympic education initiatives delivered by different stakeholders. For the selection of the interviewees, the interviewees who were directly involved in policy planning and decision-making responsibilities for Olympic education initiatives in each of the selected organisation for the Tokyo 2020 Games were interviewed. The interviewees were required to have at least three-year experience working on the development of Olympic education. In addition, I interviewed two school teachers who are delivering the programmes in classes in schools. The

interviews took place between June 2 and July 25, 2017. A face to face interview was adopted and every interview was recorded and fully transcribed. The list of the interviewees is shown in Table 4.3. The interview questions are provided in Appendix C.

**Table 4. 3 List of the interviewees**

<b>Date</b>	<b>Interviewee</b>	<b>Organisation/Institution</b>
02/06/2017	A member of CORE staff	University of Tsukuba
07/06/2017	A member of CORE staff	University of Tsukuba / Japan Sports Agency (JSA)
22/06/2017	Chief of Culture and Education Team, Action and Legacy Section	Tokyo Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games (TOCOG)
23/06/2017	Specialist of Olympic and Paralympic Games Division	Japan Sports Agency (JSA)
28/06/2017	Project manager	Nippon Foundation Paralympic Support Centre (NFPSC)
03/07/2017	Directors of Olympic and Paralympic Education Coordination	Tokyo Metropolitan Government (TMG)
07/07/2017	Deputy Director of Olympic Movement Department	Japan Olympic Committee (JOC)
16/07/2017	PE Teacher	Laboratory school (Junior High school) of University of Tsukuba
21/07/2017	Class Teacher	Public elementary school
25/07/2017	A member of Culture and Education Committee	Tokyo Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games (TOCOG)

There were several difficulties in conducting interviews. First, it was challenging to find time for the interviews because when I visited, it was the busiest season in the school year in Japan. Second, with regard to the translation work, most of the interviews were undertaken in English because the interviewees were able to communicate in English fluently. However, the school teachers could not speak in English so the member of the CORE staff who accompanied me helped with translation of interviews and responses.

In terms of working with staff members of CORE there was another advantage of checking not only just accuracy of translation but also reasonable claims and understanding through the interviews. After the interview, I asked a PhD student at the University of Tsukuba to make Japanese as well as English scripts to confirm that the meanings were correctly delivered. In

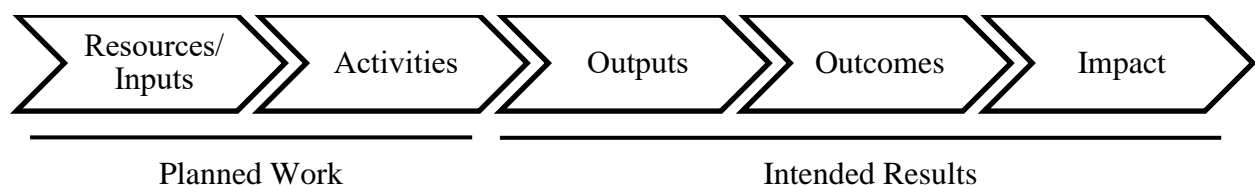
the case that English scripts had problems, I asked another PhD student who can speak fluent Japanese and Korean to translate Japanese scripts into Korean scripts so that I could manage to check subsequently.

#### e. Use of logic model

Data analysis consists of examining, categorising, testing, or re-combing evidence to produce empirically based findings (Yin, 2014). Analysing and displaying case study evidence is regarded as difficult and challenging because of a lack of techniques covering particularly qualitative information from various sources. It is required to organise and review information and data by using a systematic and analytic method. Thus, a logic model as the analysis technique is useful in doing case study evaluations (Mulroy & Lauber, 2004).

The term ‘logic model’ was used in the first publication titled *‘Evaluation: Promise and Performance’* by Joseph S. Wholey (1979). Since then, developing a logic model is considered a useful tool for planning and evaluation purposes (HM Treasury, 2011; Kaplan & Garrett, 2005; Kellogg, 2004). Figure 4.6 presents a common type of logic model although a logic model can be developed in various ways. The planned work describes what resource is needed to implement certain programme activities while the intended results include all of the programmes’ desired results (outputs, outcomes and impact). The following Table 4.4 shows the descriptions of key components to guides how to frame a logic model.

**Figure 4. 6 A basic logic model**



(Source: Adapted from Kellogg, 2004, p.1)

**Table 4. 4 Descriptions of the key components of a logic model**

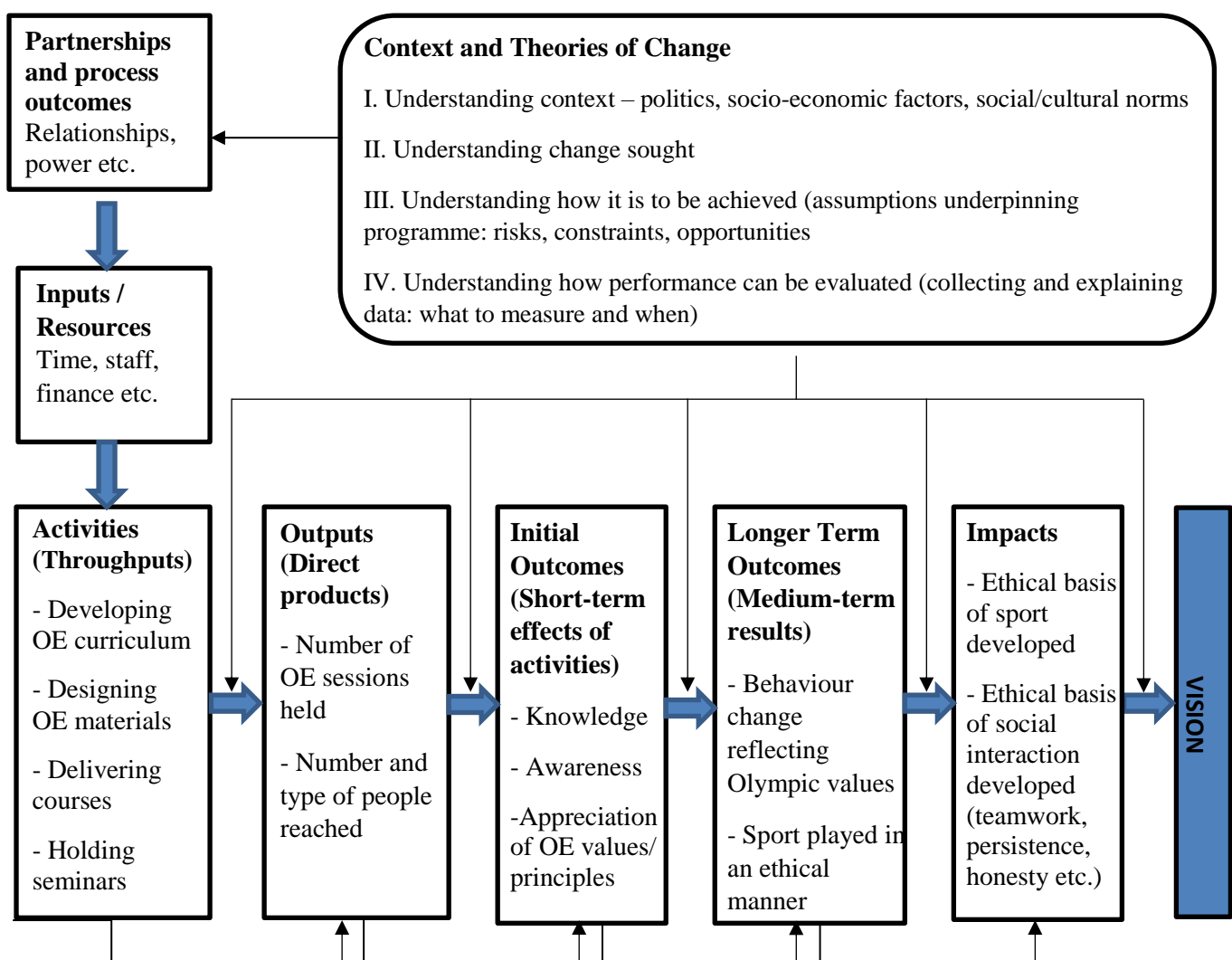
Key components	What are they?
Inputs/resources	The inputs refer to the human, financial, organisational, political, and community resources a programme has available to direct toward doing the work.
Activities (Throughputs)	The activities (throughputs) are the process, tools, events, technology, and actions that are an intentional part of the programme implementation. These interventions are used to bring about the intended programme changes or results.
Outputs	The outputs are the direct products of programme activities and may include types, levels and targets of services to be delivered by the programme.
Outcomes	The outcomes are the specific changes in programme participants' behaviour, knowledge, skills, status and level of functioning.
Impact	The Impact is the fundamental intended or unintended change occurring in organisations, communities, or systems as a result of programme activities.

(Source: Adapted from Kellogg, 2004, p.2)

How a programme's goal and objectives would be achieved can be readily illustrated in a linear diagram of logic models. It also requires systematic thinking and planning to better describe programmes. The classic logic model, however, has some limitations. One concern is that the logic model represents a reality which is somewhat inaccurate and complex because although the design of the common logic models is in a linear fashion, programmes are not often linear and have dynamic interrelationships among the elements (Sundra et al., 2003). In this respect, the linear approach of the classic logic model may not be appropriate given the complexity of programme and policy. Another limitation is that, in terms of outcomes, a logic model only highlights expected outcomes; despite the fact that unexpected and unintended outcomes may occur in a programme. Pawson and Tilley (1997) state that "programmes are almost always introduced into multiple contexts, in the sense that causal mechanisms activated by interventions will vary according to saliently different conditions. Because of relevant variations in context and mechanisms thereby activated, any programme is liable to have mixed intended and unintended outcome-patterns" (p.8). Thus, in order to maximise the benefits as well as to mitigate the concerns, an '*analytic logic model*' can be discussed.

Chen et al. (2013) outline the two types of logic models: *the descriptive logic model* and *the analytic logic model*. As a starting point, a descriptive logic model which basically presents the key elements in chronological order is useful. However, for the purpose of the evaluation of an intervention, an analytic logic model, which is not normative and prescriptive but heuristic and explanatory, is more appropriate to be employed because an analytic model focuses on causal relationships between the elements influenced by various contexts and mechanisms. In effect, theories of change are built into analytic models such that the reasons for the desired change being achieved, can be tested and evaluated in ways which can contribute to future policy and practice. Figure 4.7 shows the application of an analytic logic model for Olympic education programmes.

**Figure 4. 7 An application of an analytic logic model for Olympic education programme**





For this thesis, the use of analytic logic models is employed to identify how the Olympic education programmes and initiatives of the Tokyo 2020 Games were to be delivered by different stakeholders and actors, and what causal mechanisms were implied in achieving (or failing to achieve) outcomes. Given that various Olympic education programmes are put into practice by various bodies in the preparation stage for Tokyo 2020, it is not possible to produce one single logic model. Thus, different logic models are developed to highlight differences and similarities in the understandings of various stakeholders and actors within the system of what is to be achieved in what manner, with what rationales and what anticipated success.

The overall approach to this research in ontological terms is founded on a realist approach to policy evaluation, namely '*realist evaluation*' discussed in Section 4.3.3. This is a form of theory-based evaluation and starts by clarifying the 'logic model' – that is, clarifying how programme activities are understood to cause (or contribute to) outcomes and impacts. The difference between the traditional approach of logic model explanation and realist evaluation is that the latter focuses on how causal mechanisms work in different contexts, which is partially shared with the assumptions of an analytic logic model. Thus, this research employs an analytic logic model rather than a descriptive logic model, and subsequently realist evaluation. It is expected to produce that an analytic logic model operates as a simplified version of realist evaluation (more specific version of analytic logic model).

#### **4.4.5 Validity and reliability**

Validity and reliability are important criteria in establishing and assessing the quality of research for both qualitative and quantitative researchers. There have been criticisms of qualitative research as being subjective, difficult to replicate, and problems of generalisation (Bryman, 2012). When undertaking qualitative research, demonstrating rigour is challenging because there is no accepted consensus about the criteria by which qualitative research should be assessed (Rolfe, 2006). There are also limitations of applying the measures and tests used to establish the validity and reliability of quantitative research to qualitative research because the nature of quantitative and qualitative research is different based on philosophical and methodological principles (Golafshani, 2003; Mason, 1996).

There are two positions to consider assessing the validity and reliability in qualitative research. First, scholars such as Kirk and Miller (1986) and Leung (2015) stick to use of the same terms

of validity and reliability but assess these in different ways. *Reliability* means “exact replicability of the processes and the results” with consistency (Leung, 2015, p.325). Reliability in qualitative research can be assessed by whether a research team consisting of more than two people agree about what they see (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982). In this part of the thesis, in relation to the data collection and analysis, the work was undertaken in collaboration with CORE at the University of Tsukuba and the staff from the University accompanied the researcher for all the interviews to ensure that meanings were correctly delivered and understood. Wood and Kroger (2000) suggests that the repeated reading of the text, the reworking of analyses both in the analysis and writing stages can also increase the degree of reliability.

*Validity* in qualitative research refers to “appropriateness of tools, processes, and data” (Leung, 2015, p.324). In assessing internal validity, Yin (2014) suggests some analytic tactics such as doing explanation building and using logic models in data analysis particularly for explanatory case studies. One of the benefits using logic models is that theory and logic, underpinned by data, are understood in the context of valid theory.

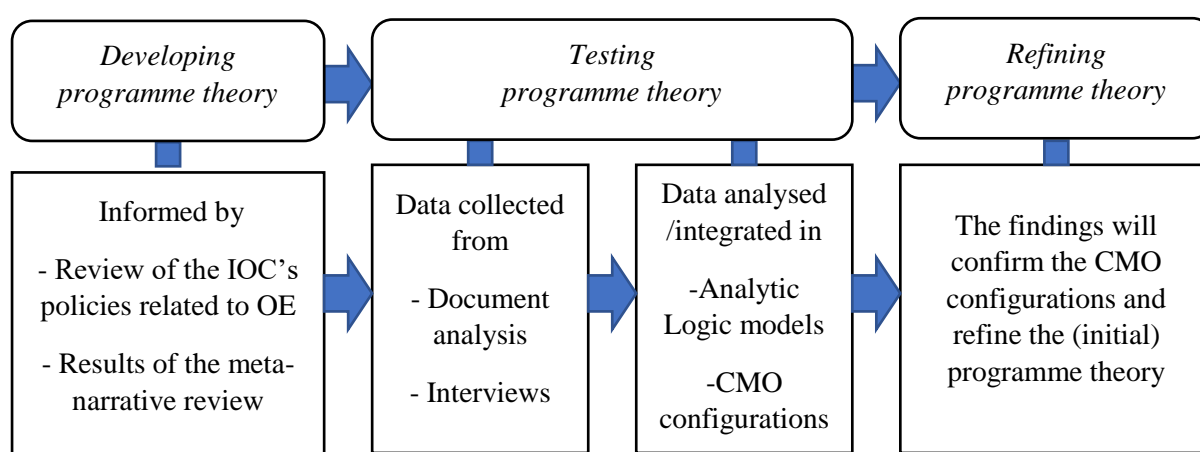
The second position in relation to validity and reliability in qualitative research is to suggest alternative criteria. Guba and Lincoln (1994) propose that it is necessary to specify terms and ways of establishing and assessing the quality of qualitative research that provide an alternative to reliability and validity: trustworthiness and authenticity. Trustworthiness consists of four criteria including credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Testing validity and reliability can be approached by realist and constructivist paradigms.

This research has considered ontological and epistemological appropriateness for testing validity and reliability. Healy and Perry (2000) explain that it is possible to judge validity and reliability within the realist paradigm which relies on multiple perceptions about a single reality. On the other hand, the notion of constructivism, which views knowledge as socially constructed and may change depending on the circumstances, provides an indication of multiple or possibly diverse realities (Golafshani, 2003). Thus, it is significant to acquire valid and reliable multiple and diverse realities, and multiple methods of collecting data for qualitative research. This research has used multiple sources of evidence collected from the semi-structured interviews, and document analysis to establish valid and reliable, or in Wood and Kroger’s (2000) term, warrantable findings and seeks in the analysis to argue for the credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of claims made.

#### 4.4.6 Research design and process

The previous sub-sections in Section 4.4 have discussed the key methodological issues relating to the empirical case study of this thesis. Given that the practice of realist evaluation might be considered unclear or complicated to the readers, it will be useful to conclude this methodology section by providing an overall research protocol for the evaluation of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes and initiatives. Basically, the research protocol developed here was adapted from the realist evaluation process that Pawson and Tilley (1997, 2004) outline, described in Section 4.3.3 (also see Figure 4.3). Broadly speaking, the process has been constructed in three phases: *developing, testing and refining the programme theory* (See Figure 4.8). Thus, all of the cases chosen according to the different stakeholders (actors) will be investigated through this process.

**Figure 4. 8 Research design and process**



(Adapted from Pawson & Tilley, 1997)

The initial programme theory developed for the empirical case study is defined as follows:

The development and implementation of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic (and/or Paralympic) education programmes integrated into the school curriculum (or educational settings) with explicit and clear policy and pedagogical goals, based on sufficient resources, will have positive impacts on young people in terms of gaining knowledge of, and commitment to, moral and social values, and will contribute to changing behaviours, and consequently help to achieve the legacy goals of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic games.

This initial programme theory was derived from the review of the IOC's policies relating to the field of Olympic education, and the results of the meta-narrative review on the literature of

Olympic education (Part One of this thesis). This programme theory provides a conceptual framework for seeking the underlying relationships between contexts, mechanisms and outcomes.

For testing the initial programme theory, this work first set out to gather relevant empirical data of intervention, actors, contexts, mechanisms, and outcomes from document analysis and semi-structured interviews, bearing CMO configurations in mind. After the data collection, data analysis has been undertaken with use of the two tools of analytic logic model and CMO configurations. Developing a logic model is used as a visual linear representation of the relationships between key elements (inputs, throughputs, outputs and outcomes), and might present the underlying assumptions of how the programme is expected to produce change. However, using a logic model for testing the programme theory is not regarded enough to explain the real mechanisms that produce specific outcomes in certain contexts. Thus, the researcher has tested the programme theory in developing the analytic logic model and subsequently identifying CMO configurations.

In the last stage, the findings are used for refining the initial programme theory. The results of CMO configurations are then compared with the initial programme theory, which will inform whether to modify and refine the programme theory in light of the evaluation findings. Given that there are six cases of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes and initiatives developed by different stakeholders (actors), it is intended to identify the underlying ‘*generative mechanisms*’ to achieve the legacy goals of Tokyo 2020, by comparing and integrating the findings from case studies, and look for ‘*middle range theories*’ the implication for policy and programmes relating to Olympic education.

## **4.5 Conclusion**

The chapter has the four sections. The first section was the brief introduction of the empirical case studies by providing the rationales for choosing the Japanese context with the aim and key research questions, and the gaps to be reduced from the investigation of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education (section 4.1). The second section was concerned with the understanding of the promotion of Olympic education in the Japanese context over time and the governance of the Japanese Olympic system for Tokyo 2020 (section 4.2). In the next section, the theoretical framework for policy analysis on governance and realist evaluation adopted in this empirical work (section 4.3). The last section outlined the methodology adopted

for the conducting of the empirical case studies along with the research process of undertaking realist policy evaluation (section 4.4).

## Chapter 5. Findings of cases studies of Tokyo 2020

### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the findings of the six cases of Olympic education practices developed and delivered by different levels of stakeholder and actors of Tokyo 2020. In each section, the background and policy aims for developing certain Olympic education initiatives are introduced and analysis of the empirical evidence of each case is presented through an analytic logic model, and then the application of Context-Mechanism-Outcome (CMO) configurations is discussed, to refine the pre-determined programme theory following the research process.

### 5.2 Case Study One: Tokyo Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games

#### a. Description of TOCOG's policy aims and Olympic education

The first case study is concerned with the Olympic education initiatives and the official education programme that the Tokyo Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games (TOCOG) has developed. For an understanding of the Tokyo 2020's policy aims to be achieved through the Olympic Games, it will be useful to start with the outline of the vision and its concepts of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games.

After the establishment of the organising committee in 2014, TOCOG first developed the 'Tokyo 2020 Games Vision' through the official report entitled *Tokyo 2020 Games Foundation Plan*<sup>18</sup> in 2015 (TOCOG, 2015). The Tokyo 2020 Games Vision states as follows:

Sport has the power to change the world and our future. The Tokyo 1964 Games completely transformed Japan. The Tokyo 2020 Games, as the most innovative in history, will bring positive reform to the world based on three core concepts: Achieving Personal Best, Unity in Diversity and Connecting to Tomorrow. (p.3)

Tokyo 2020's Games vision includes three core concepts which are 'Achieving Personal Best', 'Unity in Diversity', and 'Connecting to Tomorrow'. In the first concept, 'personal best' is

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<sup>18</sup> The *Games Foundation Plan* was developed as a framework for the preparations for the delivery of the Games. It includes TOCOG's strategic goals for the Games, legacies to be achieved as outcomes of the Games and the development of the collaborative structure among different levels of stakeholders, which is now known as the 'All-Japan Structure' (TOCOG, 2015).

clearly connected to ‘excellence’, one of the Olympic values, which refers to doing the best one can on the field of play and more broadly in one’s life. It is evident that this concept is derived from Coubertin’s notion on the participation of the Olympic Games; the importance of taking part rather than simply winning, and focusing on progress as well as the balance between body, will and mind. For the meaning stated in the TOCOG’s Foundation report (TOCOG, 2015, pp.4-5), this concept is explicitly expanded to cover a broader sense of ‘personal best’ in terms of reference to adopting world’s leading Japanese technologies in developing competition venues and in operating the Olympic Games. This concept also includes Japanese spirit of *Omotenashi*<sup>19</sup>, which intends for all Japanese citizens, including Olympic and Paralympic volunteers, to employ their utmost resourcefulness as hosts to welcome visitors from around the world with the best Japanese ‘*Omotenashi*’, or hospitality in English. More specifically, *Omotenashi* refers to that one has to put his/her heart into delivering the more excellence service and create the unique hospitality (Al-alsheikh, 2014, p.28).

The notion of the second concept ‘Unity in Diversity’ is strongly related to the fundamental principles of Olympism as specified in the Olympic Charter (IOC, 2017), understanding differences without discrimination of any kind such as race, colour, gender, sexual orientation, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status in order to make better and more peaceful world. The last concept, ‘Connecting to Tomorrow’, implies leaving positive outcomes of the Games for future generations. Indeed, it was evident from the successful experiences of the staging of the 1964 Tokyo Olympic Games that Japan as well as Tokyo claimed to have benefitted from the Games in terms of economic growth and infrastructure development (i.e. development of transport systems). Thus, this vision for the Tokyo 2020 Games seeks “to deliver the most innovative Games in history and bring positive reform to the world by employing the three-dimensional concept to achieve a common goal” (TOCOG, 2015, p.5).

In addition, TOCOG formulated its ‘*Action & Legacy Plan*’ based on the views of experts in the five following pillars: Sport and Health, Urban Planning and Sustainability, Culture and Education, Economy and Technology, and Recovery (from the Great Earthquake<sup>20</sup>),

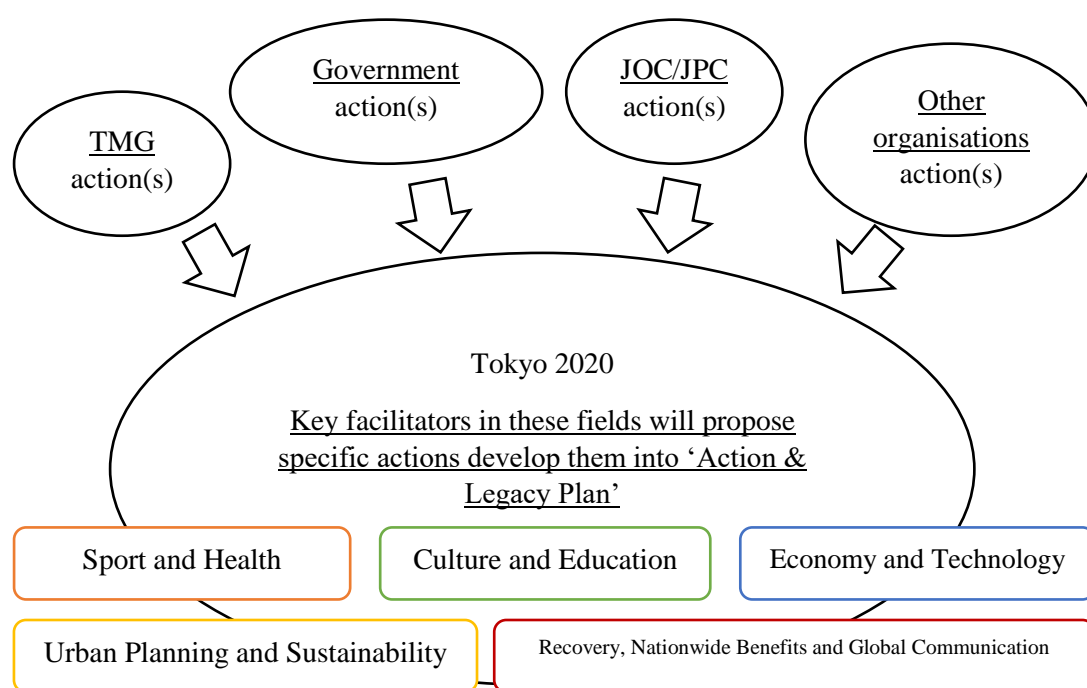
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<sup>19</sup> At the final presentation ahead of the host city selection for the 2020 Olympic Games, the Tokyo 2020 bid Ambassador presented an eloquent speech, emphasising *Omotenashi* – with each syllable uttered with precision. *Omotenashi* represents a Japanese way of customer service, based on “*Wa*(和)/ (harmony in English)” and tea ceremony (Al-alsheikh, 2014).

<sup>20</sup> Japan suffered from the earthquake and tsunami that ravaged Japan’s Tohoku region in 2011. After the severe disaster, Japan had to overcome and reconstruct.

Nationwide Benefits and Global Communication (TOCOG, 2016). It defines ‘actions’ as events, projects and initiatives that are supposed to be undertaken by various stakeholders throughout Japan for the purpose of widespread engagement from 2016 through to 2020. ‘Legacies’ refer to the end products resulting from appropriate actions and are intended to be left in Tokyo, Japan and the wider world. TOCOG has realised that it is not possible to achieve legacies without actions and actions are not effectively made without involvement of the various levels of stakeholders and actors. TOCOG established the ‘*All-Japan Structure*’ (see Figure 4.1). Actions and activities for Tokyo 2020 are to be carried out now and in the future not only by the organising committee and its delivery partners alone, but also by many regional and municipal authorities, groups and individuals which form part of the *All-Japan Structure*. Figure 5.1 presents the importance of the widespread participation in the actions and leaving long lasting legacies as common objectives and the cooperation for each pillar.

**Figure 5. 1 Cooperation for action and legacy for Tokyo 2020**



(Source: Adapted from TOCOG, 2016, p.7)

TOCOG explicitly states that “by taking various actions during the pre-Games period to achieve the best outcomes through engagement of a variety of stakeholders, to create legacies of the Tokyo 2020 Games and to hand them (legacies) down to future generations for long periods of time” (p.79).

For the promotion of Olympic education, TOCOG specifies that the mission of Olympic



education is “to convey the powerful messages of the Olympic and Paralympic Games to people all over Japan through education programmes, thereby sharing the Games’ spirit and values, and creating a diverse and inclusive society to be inherited by future generations” (TOCOG, 2015, p.63).

In April 2017, working closely with the Cultural and Education Commission of TOCOG, the organising committee launched an official Olympic education programme called ‘*Yoi Don!*’ which means ‘Get Set’ in English and it depicts the readiness of young people of Japan to embrace the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games (TOCOG, 2017).

According to a survey conducted by the TMG (TMG, 2016), around 73% of Japanese high school students show a lack of confidence and self-esteem and only about 32% of them say that Japan’s future is positive. TOCOG sees that it is significant firstly to increase positive attitudes of members of society toward themselves and their nation, taking this opportunity to host the Olympic Games, and secondly to encourage young people as leaders of the next generation in Japan as well as in the world after the Tokyo 2020 Games. TOCOG set up three specific legacy goals to be achieved through *Yoi Don!* based on the Games Vision. The legacy goals are ‘raising confidence and courage’, ‘understanding diversity’, and ‘having open-minded attitudes and broadened views’. These three legacy goals are linked to the Games vision and three concepts of Tokyo 2020 in relation to the current issues regarding the mind-set of Japanese young people, but they might be considered as somewhat unclear, sharing the similar views for each legacy goal.

Although the *Yoi Don!* programme (at the time of conducting the research) had been implemented for one full academic year, based on a number of TOCOG’s strategic policy documents, this programme has been recognised as one of the main actions intended to leave positive legacies across Japan. To identify how TOCOG has designed and delivered the *Yoi Don!* Programme in the preparation stage for the Games, this researcher interviewed the Chief of the Culture and Education Team of TOCOG and a member of the Culture and Education Commission of TOCOG. All of the findings from the interviews and the document analysis were then interpreted in an analytic logic model and are subsequently discussed through the construction of CMO configurations in realist evaluation.

### b. An analytic logic model of TOCOG's Olympic education

Table 5.1 shows an analytic logic model relating to TOCOG's Olympic education programme. It presents how inputs relate to throughputs, outputs and outcomes intended to be delivered in both short-term and long-term. As TOCOG has focused on designing an official Olympic education programme (*Yoi Don!*), the logic model demonstrates not only how the *Yoi Don!* programme works for whom in what circumstances but what kinds of functions TOCOG has performed for the promotion of Olympic education as the organising committee. TOCOG will also be directly delivering Olympic education through ceremonies, torch relay, mascot selection, and several cultural programmes. But this case study mainly discusses the *Yoi Don!* programme.

This analytic logic model was developed based upon documents provided by TOCOG and the semi-structured interviews dealing with questions from how TOCOG has developed the *Yoi Don!* Programme to what TOCOG has expected to achieve as impacts of the programme. However, there are some gaps in the relationships between the 'intended' outcomes (legacies goals) and 'expected' outcomes of the implementation of the *Yoi Don!* programme.

Several underlying assumptions were found through the analytic logic model.

1. TOCOG as the organising committee has responsibilities for the staging of the successful Games. For the promotion of Olympic education, although there are 1,200 people in TOCOG, only three people are working on the culture and education initiatives and programmes with support from the Culture and Education Commission of TOCOG. It might be difficult to develop an education programme without sufficient human resources and educational experts.
2. In terms of the designing of the *Yoi Don!* Programme, the main roles of TOCOG are to enable and encourage stakeholders to develop their own Olympic education programme to be delivered under the umbrella system, to provide the recognised educational materials (i.e. *OVEP*, TMG textbooks etc), and to certify *Yoi Don!* Schools by awarding an official logo mark with Tokyo 2020 emblems.
3. From the perspective of TOCOG, it is expected that various stakeholders (or actors) will develop their own education programmes or initiatives to achieve the common goals (i.e. the Games vision and legacy goals of the *Yoi Don!*) under the label of the official education programme '*Yoi Don!*'.

**Table 5. 1 An analytic logic model for TOCOG's Olympic education programme**

Aims	Inputs (Resources)	Throughputs (Actions)	Outputs	Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Engaging as many children as possible with the Olympic and Paralympic Games through <i>Yoi Don!</i> programme</li> <li>Leveraging the opportunity of the Olympic and Paralympic Games to raise widespread understanding and appreciation/valuing of the Olympic, Paralympic and sporting values</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Legitimacy</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Hosting the Games</li> <li>Complying with Olympic Charter, Agenda 2020, IOC's requirements</li> <li>Responsibility for developing an Olympic education programme and promoting Olympism and values</li> <li>Cooperation with other stakeholders and partners</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Finance</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Not specified</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Human resource</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3 people working on Culture and Education / 30 specialists composing Culture and Education Commission (1,200 people working for TOCOG)</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Partners</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>TMG, JSA, JOC, JPC, Universities, Business group (<i>All-Japan Structure</i>)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Development</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Target: students from elementary to senior high schools</li> <li>Teaching materials: educational materials recognised by TOCOG</li> <li>School teachers develop lesson plans</li> <li>Schools implementing Olympic education programme in school curriculum can become '<i>Yoi Don!</i> Schools'</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Providing educational materials</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Making materials such as <i>OVEP</i>, <i>I'mPossible!</i>, TMG textbooks available online</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Application/ approval process</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Schools implementing Olympic education in curriculum become <i>Yoi, Don!</i> schools by submitting an application form on TOCOG website</li> <li>TOCOG certifies '<i>Yoi Don!</i> Schools' by awarding an official logo mark with Tokyo 2020 emblems</li> <li>Criteria: whether schools teach Olympic and Paralympic values and sporting values using educational materials provided and approved by TOCOG; whether schools deliver Olympic education in curriculum; and whether Olympic education is taught in various subjects (not only in PE)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increasing number of '<i>Yoi, Don!</i>' schools</li> <li>Encouraging more schools to implement Olympic education in curriculum and be part of '<i>Yoi Don!</i> Schools</li> <li>Number of students exposed to programmes and thus learning about Olympic and Paralympic values and sporting values</li> </ul>	<p><b>Short term:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Giving young people opportunities to engage with the Olympic Movement, and to learn to identify and appreciate Olympic values</li> <li>Expanding <i>Yoi Don!</i> programme nationwide</li> <li>Supporting <i>Yoi Don!</i> schools</li> <li>Enhancing system/ process of <i>Yoi Don!</i> programme</li> <li>Gaining International recognition in terms of delivering an official Olympic education programme</li> <li>Building networking with other stakeholders/ partners</li> </ul> <p><b>Long term:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>It is expected that young people who are involved in <i>Yoi Don!</i> programme can utilise Olympic and Paralympic values, developing positive attitudes (in relation to the three legacy goals to be achieved), and influencing action by young people in line with these values in sport and in wider life</li> </ul>

### c. Application of CMO configurations

The Context – Mechanism – Outcome (CMO) configurations in relation to the *Yoi Don!* programme are presented in Table 5.2. To outline the Context-Mechanism association, it is important to understand TOCOG's organisational structure and Japanese education system, and more broadly the Japanese cultural milieu (*Contexts*). From the *Action & Legacy Plan* and Games Vision demonstrated above, we can see that TOCOG articulates its legacy goals to be achieved in part by the spreading of its Olympic education programme throughout Japan. However, it is noted that TOCOG does not itself provide educational contents or teaching guidelines for the delivery of *Yoi Don!* programme in the school curriculum (*Mechanisms*). The Chief of the Culture and Education Team explained how the team developed the *Yoi Don!* programme:

*TOCOG is responsible for the development of this programme (Yoi Don!). But we are not experts who can develop education programme contents and teaching guidelines. So, we established the Culture and Education Commission and asked them what legacy we want to leave in the field of Olympic education and how we should deliver them, learning from London 2012 and Rio 2016 experiences. In the process, the most important role is the approval of Olympic and Paralympic education schools. Schools teaching Olympic and Paralympic values and sporting values in school curriculum can submit application. Then we evaluate school's lesson plans and approve them as Olympic and Paralympic education schools. It is a quite long name so we call them 'Yoi Don! Schools'. TOCOG gives a certificate so that the recognised schools can use 'the official marks with Tokyo 2020 emblems'. We want as many schools as possible can become part of Yoi Don!.*

(Chief of Culture and Education Team, Interview, June 22, 2017)

It is evident that the promotion of *Yoi Don!* is not an education programme per se which includes what is to be taught but rather is a 'system' or 'process' by which Olympic education is to be provided. A member of the Culture and Education Commission explained why TOCOG developed an 'education system' rather than an education programme related to the Japanese education system and limited resources of TOCOG:

*In the Japanese education system, each prefecture has a Board of Education which has the authority to develop school education. So it is not easy for TOCOG to have control over schools at local levels [in the question of] whether to undertake the*

*Yoi Don!* programme or not, even if the programme is an umbrella. In addition, there are not many staff working on Olympic and Paralympic education [at TOCOG]. This is why TOCOG needs support from other stakeholders and organisations for the promotion of Olympic and Paralympic education over Japan. Many organisations like to implement Olympic education programmes in their own ways, which is very positive but the more important thing in my opinion is to work together among key stakeholders. (Member of Culture and Education Commission, Interview, July 25, 2017)

There are a range of impacts on *Yoi Don!* Schools, “*Yoi Don!* Schools certified by TOCOG are provided with various opportunities such as meeting athletes, learning about Olympic and Paralympic values through flag tours, and participating in Games related cultural events up until 2020” (*Chief of Culture and Education Team*). TOCOG has developed an Olympic and Paralympic education system in Japanese setting. All of the public schools in Tokyo (*Yoi Don!* Schools) are implementing Olympic and Paralympic education in the school curriculum, under the guidance of the TMG. However, before *Yoi Don!* was officially introduced in the school year of 2017-2018, some educational initiatives developed by other stakeholders such as the JSA, and the JOC had already started their own Olympic education for the purpose of promoting Olympism and Olympic values. This raises the question as to whether other partners might not be aware of *Yoi Don!* or may not favour being involved in the umbrella system.

**Table 5. 2 TOCOG CMO configurations**

Contexts +	Mechanisms =	Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• TOCOG is a policy maker</li> <li>• TOCOG does not have experts who could directly develop an educational programme and contents but is advised by Culture and Education Commission of TOCOG (limited staff and resources)</li> <li>• Typical Japanese education system; each prefecture has its own board of education which has responsibility for decision making for schools (TOCOG’s limited power to lead <i>Yoi Don!</i>)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>Yoi Don!</i> developed as an umbrella system (rather than an education programme per se)</li> <li>• As a policy maker, TOCOG is responsible for encouraging schools to participate in <i>Yoi Don!</i> and certifying <i>Yoi Don!</i> Schools with the official logo mark</li> <li>• Allowing other stakeholders/ partners to have their own Olympic education programmes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Positive impacts on <i>Yoi Don!</i> schools certified by TOCOG (increasing school’s profile and opportunities to attend Games related events)</li> <li>• <i>Yoi Don!</i> system considered as a new type of Olympic education</li> <li>• <i>Yoi Don!</i> increases the number of young people aware of, have positive attitudes to and likely to act in accordance with principles of Olympism</li> <li>• Various stakeholders in actively promoting Olympic education in their own ways not being part of <i>Yoi Don!</i></li> </ul>

In conclusion, given the nature of the Japanese contexts, it would not be possible for TOCOG to lead *Yoi Don!* across the whole of Japan in a top down manner, without regional authorities and other stakeholders. Without engagement of and cooperation among different stakeholders and actors implementing Olympic education, it would be difficult to achieve TOCOG's intended outcomes. Nevertheless, the *Yoi Don!* programme can be considered as a new type of Olympic education to give a hint to the host cities and nations, given that the way of developing and delivering the *Yoi Don!* programme has been informed by the Japanese education system and the features of its organisation.

TOCOG is currently working on the promotion of *Yoi Don!* in conjunction with the TMG and trying to encourage schools and young people to participate in various Games related events such as 'Mascot Selection' which elementary schoolchildren can vote for. *Outcomes* sought is that pupils are aware of, have a positive attitude to, and reflect in their behaviour, Olympic values and so on. Meeting athletes, participating in flag tours, and participating in cultural events are means to achieve the outcomes. Thus, a number of initiatives or actions including *Yoi Don!* undertaken in the preparation stage for the Tokyo 2020 Games are designed to help maximise positive impacts on young people and Japanese society.

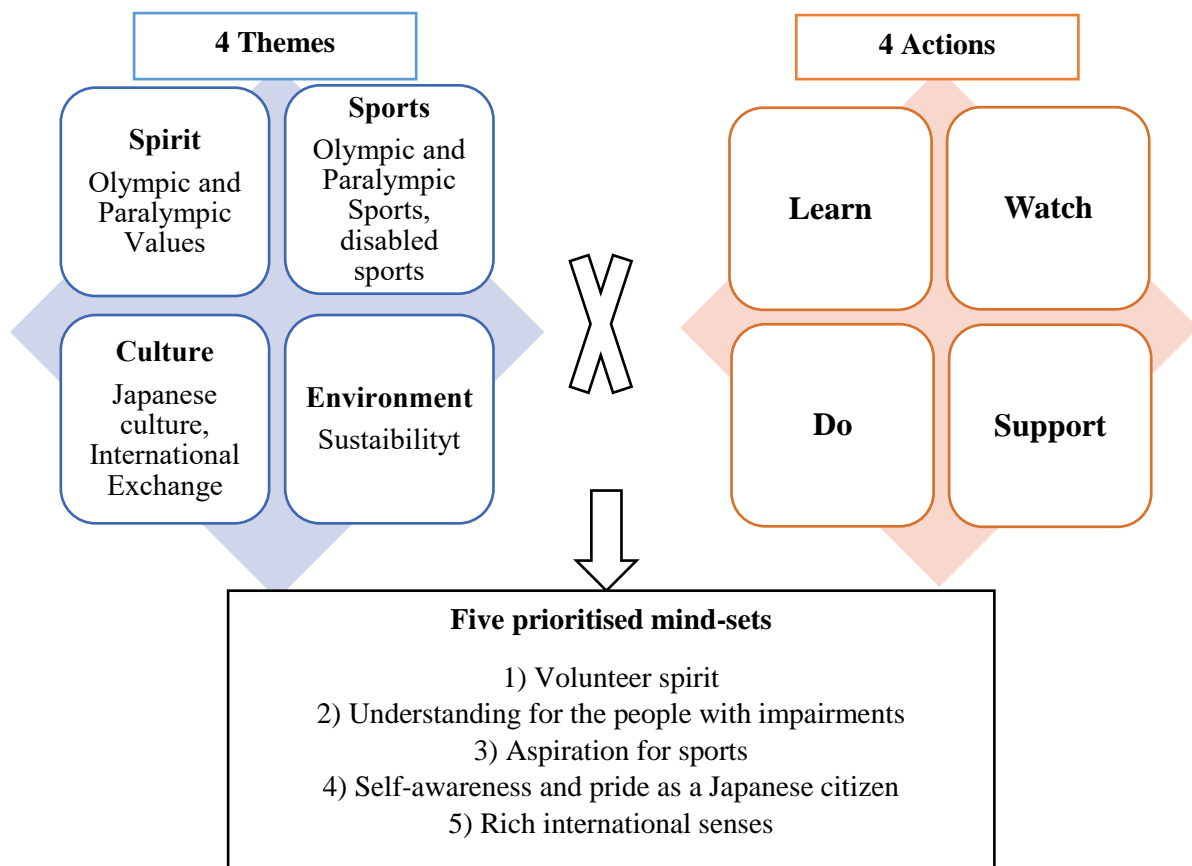
## 5.3 Case Study Two: Tokyo Metropolitan Government

### a. Description of TMG's policy aims and Olympic education

The Tokyo Metropolitan Government (TMG) is one of the key stakeholders for the successful staging of the Tokyo 2020 Games. In December 2015, the host city published a document '*Towards 2020 – Building the Legacy*', which compiles the initiatives that the TMG plans to undertake with views of leaving legacies that extend far beyond the year of 2020. The TMG clarify eight themes with a focus of legacies such as tangible legacy (venues and Olympic village), sporting legacy, spiritual legacy, cultural legacy, social legacy, environmental legacy, economic legacy and support for recovery in the areas devastated by the 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake (TMG, 2015). The theme of cultural legacy relates to Olympic education. Tokyo aims "to cultivate globally proficient talent of young people through an Olympic and Paralympic education programme and promote a society that embraces diversity" (TMG, 2015, p.26). To achieve the aims, the TMG decided to undertake an Olympic and Paralympic education programme in public schools in Tokyo.

The Tokyo Metropolitan Board of Education developed '*4 x 4 Initiatives*' (see Figure 5.2). It provides that an education programme can be developed by combining four themes, including the values and spirit of the Olympics and Paralympics and the three pillars of the Olympic movement (sport, culture and education), and four actions. The initiatives will help children to acquire basic knowledge and skills so that a foundation for learning about the four themes is cultivated (Learn). Then this will encourage children to actually spectate (Watch), or to experience and exchange (Do) so that the children can become interested and able to solve problems. In addition, it can foster voluntary spirit and the mind-set of social contribution among young people (Support). The *4 x 4 Initiatives* seems to suggest a clear proposal for implementing Olympic education in practice. The TMG expects that five mind-sets such as volunteer spirit, empathy and understanding for people with impairments, aspiration in sport, self-awareness and pride as a Japanese citizen, and a rich sense of internationalism will be developed through Olympic education. School teachers can utilise the "*4 x 4 Initiatives*" when they develop lesson contents employing materials that the TMG provides. Some examples of lessons are also available for reference on the TMG's website. Appendix D shows an example of yearly lesson plans for Olympic and Paralympic education utilising the *4 x 4 Initiatives* in curriculum.

**Figure 5. 2 4 x 4 Initiatives**



*(Source: Adapted from TMG, 2016, pp.3-4)*

As highlighted in relation to the Japanese education system in the previous section, the Board of Education in the TMG has the authority to determine the delivery of Olympic education in schools in the Tokyo area. The TMG started to promote its Olympic education programme within the curriculum of pilot schools in the school year of 2015-2016. The number of schools has increased during the past three years and now all public schools from elementary, junior high schools to senior high schools in Tokyo are promoting the Olympic education programme.

To examine how the TMG has designed and delivered its Olympic education programme as the host city at a local level in the Olympic system, I interviewed the Director of Olympic and Paralympic Education Coordination of the TMG and a class teacher of elementary school in Tokyo as well as undertaking document analysis. The findings will be shown in an analytic logic model and CMO configurations of realist evaluation.



*b. An analytic logic model of TMG's Olympic education programme*

All the public schools in Tokyo are currently delivering Olympic education in the school curriculum and their practices are recognised as 'Yoi Don! Schools'. Table 5.3 displays an illustrative logic model for the TMG's Olympic (and Paralympic) education programme. It is helpful to understand what kind of elements are forming the TMG's Olympic education, how these elements are used for practice in schools, and what kind of outcomes are expected to be delivered through the programme in the analytic logic models.

There are factors relating to the underlying casual relationships between the key elements of the logic model:

1. The TMG has set quite explicit pedagogical goals to be achieved through the implementation of Olympic education in the school curriculum and provided various types of educational materials not only for school teachers designing the lesson plans (i.e. teaching guidelines, principle books) but also for students' activities (i.e. textbooks, notebook).
2. All the public schools in Tokyo are delivering Olympic education programme for 35 units (classes) per year. The programme is integrated in various subjects including PE class, ethics, language, art, social studies, music etc. The way in which the TMG and the practices of the public schools have promoted Olympic education is very close to what the IOC requires the host city for the delivery of the Olympic values and Olympism.
3. There is a gap between teachers' perspectives and the TMG's perspective on the definition of Olympic education. The TMG sees that Olympic education integrated in the school curriculum is not much different from the Japanese school education in terms of the objectives and learning content. On the other hand, the elementary school teacher I interviewed considers that Olympic education should include learning contents relating to the 'Olympics', and special activities or events.

**Table 5. 3 An analytic logic model for TMG's Olympic education programme**

Aim	Inputs (Resources)	Throughputs (Actions)	Outputs	Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Making the Olympic and Paralympic games a great opportunity for the growth of children towards the future</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Legitimacy</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Host city</li> <li>Supporting preparations for the Tokyo 2020 Games</li> <li>Responsible organising body for developing and implementing Olympic/ Paralympic education in Tokyo</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Finance</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>£ 8million on Olympic/ Paralympic education (£1,660 allocated to each public school in Tokyo)</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Human resource</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>11 People working for Olympic and Paralympic education promotion</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Partners</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>TOCOG, Public schools in Tokyo</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Development of Olympic and Paralympic education programme</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>4 x 4 Initiatives</li> <li>4 Actions programmes (Tokyo Youth Volunteers, Smile Project, Dream and Future project, and Global Friendship Project)</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Providing educational materials</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Publication of textbooks for Olympic/Paralympic education</li> <li>Teaching guidelines, principle books for teachers</li> <li>Notebook for students</li> <li>Exemplary lessons and extra educational materials on the website</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Monitoring and evaluation</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Sending schools feedback forms twice a year for teachers to fill in for evaluation</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Delivery of workshops</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Conference and seminars for school teachers</li> <li>Awards for schools actively promoting Olympic education</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increasing number of schools (students) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>All public schools in Tokyo implementing Olympic/ Paralympic education in school curriculum (2017-2018)</li> </ul> </li> <li>Olympic/ Paralympic education became compulsory in public schools <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>35 units<sup>21</sup> a year</li> <li>Various subjects (PE class, ethics, languages, music, art, social studies etc.)</li> <li>Teachers designed curriculum based on 4 x 4 Initiatives and materials provided and developed by TMG</li> </ul> </li> <li>All public schools in Tokyo are 'Yoi Don! Schools'</li> </ul>	<p><b>Short term:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Having five mind-sets intended to be achieved</li> <li>More schools and young people involved in the Tokyo 2020 Games</li> <li>Increasing participation in sport and cultural activities</li> <li>Understanding Olympic and Paralympic values (building knowledge)</li> <li>Higher aspirations and commitment to school education</li> </ul> <p><b>Long term:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Continuing Olympic and Paralympic education in schools after the Tokyo 2020 Games</li> <li>Positive educational effects on young people that can lead to changing behaviours thus promoting an inclusive society with a strong volunteer spirit and understanding of/empathy for people with impairments</li> </ul>

<sup>21</sup> In Japan, elementary schools have 45 minutes in one unit and junior and senior high schools have 50 minutes in one unit. Japan has two units of comprehensive class per week, so teachers can flexibly utilise it for the delivery of Olympic education programmes. Thus, public schools in Tokyo are required to spend 35 units per year for Olympic education programmes.

### c. Application of CMO configurations

The Context – Mechanism – Outcome (CMO) configurations of the TMG's Olympic education programme are derived from the data analysis of policy documents and interviews. The elementary school I visited for the interview has been actively promoting Olympic education in curriculum for three years and was awarded the status of one of the model schools in the competition organised by the TMG. Table 5.4 summarises the CMO configurations of the TMG Olympic education programme.

For *Contexts – Mechanisms* relationship, the TMG has significant budget as well as experts in education in the Education Board. The TMG has spent a lot of money on the development of educational materials such as textbooks, teaching guidelines and allocated about £1,660 per annum to each school for practice of Olympic education. Based on sufficient financial and other resources (*Contexts*), the TMG can use the power to lead Olympic and Paralympic education and encourage schools to deliver the TMG's education programme in curriculum (*Mechanisms*). In addition, experiences learned from not only the previous Olympic Games of Tokyo 1964 but also the failed bid for the 2016 Olympic Games, have provided positive impacts on the foundation of Olympic education programmes (*Contexts*). In 2009, the TMG published textbooks for primary and secondary schools and distributed them to public schools in Tokyo in 2009. Professor. Hisashi Sanada from the University of Tsukuba, the primary author of the TMG's textbooks, said:

*Back in 2006 or 2007, publication of the textbooks for school teachers to use for Olympic education in curriculum was actually the starting point. In spite of the failed bid for the 2016 Games, I think it was kind of a trigger for the development of current Olympic education programmes over Japan.* (Professor. Hisashi Sanada. Interview, July 25, 2017)

Delivering this Olympic education programme in curriculum as a mandatory practice can work effectively when school teachers understand why they undertake Olympic education in schools and what they intend to achieve through the programme. The Director of Olympic and Paralympic Education Coordination of the TMG said:

*When we finished the first-year implementation of this Olympic education programme last year, there were some issues that were becoming apparent. For example, we asked teachers to deliver Olympic education in other subject classes*

*not only in PE. Many teachers, however, were confused about how to develop lesson plans. Teachers did not fully understand the principles, of 4 x 4 Initiatives. A strong image that Olympic and Paralympic Games are equal to sport events still exists so many schools think the number of PE classes should be increased or inviting an Olympian or Paralympian to schools for seminars is a way of doing Olympic education. Another issue is that in the guidelines, schools are required to spend 35 units per year on Olympic education. Some teachers experience considerable pressure to deliver what they had been seeking to achieve without the additional workload implied here in school. Developing lesson plans for Olympic education pushes them to do extra work. Thus, we try to hold seminars and conferences for teachers to have better understanding of the rationales for undertaking Olympic education and share examples of various practices with other teachers. (Director of Olympic and Paralympic Education Coordination of TMG, Interview, July 3, 2017)*

The TMG has laid down the guidelines and principles for school teachers to flexibly adapt to allow the development of Olympic education. There are quite a lot of educational materials provided by various organisations. School teachers might face difficulty choosing suitable materials due to the high volume of resources and extra work related to the Olympic education programme in school. The class teacher of an elementary school that I interviewed explained how teachers have developed with the use of materials:

*In February and March (before the new year starts in April), all teachers have meetings to discuss lesson plans for each subject by each grade. For the lesson plans, we utilise various educational materials provided by the TMG and other organisations. In our school, all the lesson plans are structured based on TMG's 4 x 4 Initiatives and focused on one of the five mind-sets to achieve in one lesson. As we are too busy to accept or develop a new programme, we prefer to improve existing lesson plans by evaluating the previous curriculum and the programme is flexibly adapted. For example, the textbooks provided for students are not the main educational materials because it is about learning knowledge related to Olympic games such as histories, symbols, values, Japanese Olympics and so on. But around the time of the Rio 2016 Games, we used the textbooks for lesson and we will use them before the PyeongChang Winter Games too. (Elementary school teacher, Interview, July 21, 2017)*

Although many schools want to invite Olympic stars as a part of practice of Olympic education, both the staff from the TMG and the school teacher highlight that Japanese Olympic education for the Tokyo 2020 Games is not totally separate or distinguished from what they have been doing in school education; “the five mind-sets aimed to be achieved through the Olympic education programme have been promoted in Japanese education in general” said Director of Olympic and Paralympic Education Coordination of the TMG.

In terms of the long-term *outcomes*, to the question of whether the current Olympic education undertaken in the school curriculum could continue after the Tokyo 2020 Games or not, the school teacher said:

*It is very possible to carry on Olympic education in school because teachers and our pupils are active to get engaged in Olympic related programmes both within the curriculum and in extra-curricular activities. We have had this programme for three years, so it is not like developing a new programme. So, it will not be a problem to keep it after the year of 2020. Although we do not formally undertake any evaluation to look at the changes in students' attitudes and behaviours, we can see that students are very enthusiastic attending lessons dealing with the Olympic and Paralympic topics. (Elementary school teacher, Interview, July 21, 2017)*

In conclusion, all public schools in Tokyo are certified as *Yoi Don!* Schools as they met the criteria that TOCOG set up. The TMG is supporting the preparations for the successful staging of the Tokyo 2020 Games (*Contexts*). Given that this organising body has a significant budget and resources (*Contexts*) for the delivery of the Olympic education in school curriculum (*Mechanisms*), the sustainability of TMG's Olympic education programme can be recognised as an important legacy benefit of the Tokyo 2020 Games (*Outcomes*).

**Table 5. 4 TMG CMO configurations**

Contexts +	Mechanisms =	Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• TMG is a responsible organisation for the successful staging of the 2020 Games (local level) in closely working with TOCOG</li> <li>• TMG has sufficient budget to support schools and educational experts to make educational policy and develop educational materials and contents</li> <li>• TMG has experience in the delivery of Olympic education (Tokyo 1964 and failed bid for 2016 Games)</li> <li>• Schools in Tokyo have enthusiasm to undertake Olympic education programmes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All public schools in Tokyo are implementing Olympic and Paralympic education in school curriculum (35 units a year) / certified as ‘<i>Yoi Don! Schools</i>’ by TOCOG</li> <li>• School teachers are encouraged to develop lesson plans of each subject by utilising educational materials and initiatives provided by TMG (attending seminars, conferences)</li> <li>• Schools have opportunities to participate in various Olympic related sport and cultural events and to invite Olympians to schools</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students as well as teachers have better understanding about Olympics and Paralympic Games, values and so on</li> <li>• Students will improve positive attitudes such as self-esteem, volunteer spirit, understanding of people with impairments</li> <li>• More active engagement in the Tokyo 2020 Games and pride as citizen of the host city</li> <li>• Improving awareness of Olympic and Paralympic education as part of school curriculum</li> <li>• TMG’s practices undertaken in school curriculum can be an example of the delivery of Olympic education</li> </ul>

## 5.4 Case Study Three: Japan Sports Agency

### *a. Description of JSA's policy aims and Olympic education*

The Japanese government enacted the Basic Act on Sport in June 2011 (MEXT, 2012). This is the first revision of the previous Act, which was the Sport Promotion Act 1961. The newly established act outlines the basic ideals pertaining to sport, taking into close consideration such contemporary issues surrounding sport as demands for improvement in transparency and fairness/equity in the sport world, greater development of sport for people with disabilities, and increasing internationalisation (MEXT, 2012). In the following year, Japan's Sport Basic Plan was established pursuant to the Basic Act on Sport. It was within the first Act that the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) announced the implementation of Olympic education as an integral element within the national education curriculum. This policy was made in order to promote international exchanges and contributions through the bid activities for the 2020 Olympic Games (MEXT, 2012, p.6).

In addition to this, the Japan Sports Agency (JSA) was launched as an administrative reform within the MEXT in 2015. Towards hosting Tokyo 2020, the JSA has developed policies in a multiple range of areas with four aims (JSA, 2015):

- To carry out Japan's international commitment to promote international contributions through sport
- To promote the spirit of Olympism nationwide
- To improve Japan's international competitiveness through hosting the Games
- To promote integrated sports policy for people with and without disabilities

For the international contribution through sports initiatives, the JSA and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan developed the 'Sport for Tomorrow' programme. This aims to expand sporting values and promote the Olympic and Paralympic movement to people of all generations worldwide (SFT, 2017). This international programme consists of three pillars: international cooperation and exchange through sport, academy for educating potential leaders in sport, and promoting sport integrity through strengthening global anti-doping activities.

Although the JSA is promoting the Olympic and Paralympic movement through 'Sport for Tomorrow' internationally, this research focuses on how the JSA has promoted Olympism through Olympic education 'nationwide'. While Olympic education is being promoted in the

Tokyo metropolitan area under the guidance of the TMG and its education board, the JSA intends to target schools in the rest of the prefectures of Japan. Thus, the JSA has implemented Olympic education initiatives since its establishment in 2015, when they started with three prefectures and have now expanded into 20 prefectures.

To investigate the case of the JSA's promotion of Olympic education at a national level, analysis of documents was undertaken together with interviews with a Specialist of the Olympic and Paralympic Games Division of the JSA, and a staff member of the University of Tsukuba, was working closely with the JSA to promote Olympic education throughout Japan.

#### *b. An analytic logic model of JSA's Olympic education*

Table 5.5 shows an analytic logic model for the development and delivery of Olympic education beyond Tokyo. It is not explicit in relation to what kind of Olympic education programmes should be developed by this national governing body and how they should be delivered in schools. In a similar vein to the analysis of TOCOG's Olympic education, the logic model below focuses on various responsibilities of the JSA for the promotion of Olympic education and propagating the Olympic Movement.

There are key factors influencing the underlying causal relationships of the elements of the logic model for the JSA's Olympic education and initiatives.

1. Given the Japanese education system discussed above, the Education Board of prefectures has the authority to decide whether schools in their prefectures carry out Olympic education programmes integrated within the school curriculum. Instead, the JSA is working closely with three universities including the University of Tsukuba for the promotion of Olympic education in the prefectures. The Universities take the responsibility for communicating with the Board of Education in prefectures and hosting teachers' teaching seminars, conferences, and cultural events.
2. The JSA has focused on strengthening cooperative work by regularly hosting consortia and inviting all the stakeholders and actors who are involved in the development and delivery of Olympic education programmes for the purpose of sharing knowledge and practices.



*Table 5. 5 An analytic logic model for JSA's Olympic education programme*

Aim	Inputs (Resources)	Throughputs (Actions)	Outputs	Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Delivering Olympic education programmes beyond Tokyo</li> <li>Spreading the idea of Olympism, values of Olympic and Paralympics and sport through Olympic education as part of Olympic movement</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Legitimacy</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Hosting the Tokyo 2020 Games (national level)</li> <li>Support from National Government (MEXT)</li> <li>Basic Act on Sports (2011) &amp; Sport Basic Plan (2012)</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Finance</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>approx. £1.7m in 2017 (approx. £0.2m in 2015 and £1.6m in 2016)</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Human resource</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>11 people working for the Olympic and Paralympic Games Division (120 people working for JSA)</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Partners</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>University of Tsukuba, Waseda University, Nippon Sport Science University (for JSA's Olympic education)</li> <li>TOCOG, TMG, JOC, JPC (consortium)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Developing the way to deliver Olympic education programmes in schools</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Cooperation work with three universities (partners) being in charge of the promotion of Olympic education in certain prefectures in terms of hosting seminars for teachers, monitoring education in practice and publication of progress reports</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Educational materials</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Developing Textbooks/DVD</li> <li>Providing TMG's Textbooks and other materials developed by other stakeholders</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Hosting seminars and conferences</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>For school teachers and coordinators from prefectures</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Organising consortium with other key stakeholders</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Sharing each organisation's Olympic education initiatives</li> <li>Inviting coordinators of prefectures</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Carrying out Cultural programmes</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Citizen forum etc</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increasing number of prefectures delivering Olympic education in schools               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>From three prefectures in 2015 to 20 prefectures in 2017</li> </ul>               (It is expected to undertake Olympic education in 46 prefectures by 2020)             </li> <li>Attracting as many prefectures as possible to attend</li> <li>Not only young people but also general public attend some events for the purpose of promotion of Olympic education</li> </ul>	<p><b>Short term:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increasing the level of interests in the Tokyo 2020 Games (nationwide)</li> <li>Strengthening cooperative work on the promotion of Olympic education as consortium</li> <li>Offering more learning opportunities nationwide beyond Tokyo</li> <li>Level of awareness of Olympic and Paralympic values nationwide</li> </ul> <p><b>Long term:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Support to carry on Olympic education in schools after the Tokyo 2020 Games</li> <li>Developing social and moral values through Olympic education</li> </ul>

### c. Application of CMO configurations

A realist analysis framework is applied to assess the rationales for JSA's policy development and practice of Olympic education and CMO configurations are produced in Table 5.6. Given that the national government is not able to directly deliver Olympic education programmes in schools, it is necessary for the JSA to work in cooperation with other organisations/stakeholders to spread Olympic education throughout Japan (*Contexts*). Thus, the JSA determined to implement Olympic education programmes in school with the support of three universities (*Mechanisms*). A member of staff from the University of Tsukuba, which runs the national Olympic Studies Centre (Centre for Olympic Research and Education), explained how they were first engaged in the JSA's Olympic education:

*The JSA asked the University of Tsukuba to help to expand Olympic and Paralympic education programmes beyond Tokyo because the JSA thought it was important to promote the Olympic Movement beyond Tokyo and they recognised that our university (CORE) was implementing Olympic and Paralympic education with our laboratory schools. So we started in three prefectures, Miyagi, Kyoto, and Fukuoka in 2015 with experience of conducting education programmes in the school curriculum. (A staff from the University of Tsukuba, Interview, June 7, 2017)*

It is a common concern that school teachers are worried about planning lessons for Olympic education due to a lack of time and knowledge related to teaching Olympic education (*Contexts*). To deliver Olympic and Paralympic education more efficiently in as many prefectures as possible, the specialist from the Olympic and Paralympic Games Division of the JSA said the support of three universities was crucial:

*It is difficult to directly ask schools to conduct Olympic and Paralympic education programmes. We normally contact regional authorities (Boards of Education) and explain how important Olympic education is for young people. We understand school teachers are not motivated to take new programmes and some of them do not know how to undertake Olympic education in curriculum or extra-curricular contexts. So we organise seminars for coordinators from the prefectures having interests in the delivery of Olympic education and introduce exemplary practices of Olympic education and various educational materials. And the three universities visit each prefecture and hold training sessions for representative teachers of*

*around 20 schools every year.* (Specialist of Olympic and Paralympic Games Division, Interview, June 23, 2017)

The number of prefectures undertaking Olympic education in schools has increased since the year of 2015, currently 20 prefectures have joined (*Outcomes*). In contrast to the TMG's Olympic education, the JSA allows schools to decide how many hours they spend on Olympic education, not necessarily using 35 units per year. However, there are teaching themes which the JSA has in common with those of the TMG. For example, schools under the guidance of the University of Tsukuba aim to teach about values of Olympism, hospitality and volunteer spirit, Paralympics and para-sports, multiculturalism and international understanding, and joy of sports through Olympic education initiatives (*Outcomes*). In addition, the JSA as a national level organisation thinks that the cooperation among key stakeholders is essentially required for the development of Olympic education. The specialist from the Olympic and Paralympic Games Division of the JSA said “this year we organised a consortium thereby sharing various types of Olympic education initiatives carried out by other organisations and improving communication between one another (*Outcomes*)”.

In terms of the relationship between the JSA's Olympic education and *Yoi Don!* programme, the JSA interviewee understood that the *Yoi Don!* programme was developed by TOCOG and was operating separately from the JSA's Olympic education. She said that certifying the *Yoi Don!* schools could be advantageous for schools which wished to be recognised by TOCOG and to feel engaged in the Olympic Movement. This perspective of the JSA on the *Yoi Don!* programme implies a gap between the key stakeholders because the TMS's Olympic education programme integrated within the curriculum of Tokyo is part of *Yoi Don!* programme, and TOCOG has intended to promote the *Yoi Don!* programme as an umbrella system to cover all kinds of Olympic education programmes.

**Table 5. 6 JSA CMO configurations**

<b>Contexts</b> +	<b>Mechanisms</b> =	<b>Outcomes</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• JSA recognises that Olympic and Paralympic education initiatives need to be delivered beyond Tokyo</li> <li>• JSA has financial support for the delivery of Olympic and Paralympic education but cannot manage all initiatives</li> <li>• As a national government body, JSA takes responsibility for cooperation with other stakeholders</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Three universities are involved in JSA's Olympic education (taking care of responsible prefectures) providing specialist expertise and experience</li> <li>• School teachers plan lessons for Olympic and Paralympic education with support of Board of Education and the designated university</li> <li>• JSA host consortium meetings regularly for the purpose of sharing ideas and practices of Olympic education</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• More prefectures involved in the implementation of Olympic and Paralympic education (not only host city but over the nation)</li> <li>• Learning about values of Olympism, hospitality and volunteer spirit, Paralympics and para-sports, multiculturalism and international understanding, joy of sports (common values to be promoted)</li> <li>• It is expected to improve understanding of one another's organisations' practices of Olympic and Paralympic education and communication among stakeholders</li> </ul>

## 5.5 Case Study Four: Japan Olympic Committee

### a. Description of JOC's policy aim and Olympic education programme

The Japanese Olympic Committee (JOC) as a national Olympic Committee is one of the key Olympic actors both nationally and internationally. The JOC's mission is to encourage all people to participate in sports, cultivating athletes with sound mind and bodies, and strongly promoting the Olympic Movement (JOC, 2016). To achieve the mission, the JOC has developed four programmes: *Performance – Enhancement programmes*, *Olympic Movement programmes*, *Games Participation programmes*, and *Marketing and other programmes*. Out of the four programmes, for the case of JOC's promotion of Olympic education this study focuses on the Olympic Movement Programmes because of the following policy aims that the JOC intends to achieve (JOC, 2014).

- To increase understanding of Olympism
- To educate youth in particular about Olympism
- To reinforce the communication of information and to undertake activities in collaboration with sports organisations, local governmental bodies, JOC partner cities, and other relevant organisations

Thus, it is clear that the JOC aims both to cultivate athletes and to educate youth through educational programmes. According to the Olympic Charter (IOC, 2017), one of the roles of NOCs is stated as “to promote the fundamental principles and values of Olympism in their countries, in particular, in the fields of sport and education, by promoting Olympic educational programmes in all levels of schools, sports and physical education institutions dedicated to Olympic education...” (p.59). Regardless of the fact that Japan is set to host the Olympic Games, as a National Olympic Committee, the JOC has a responsibility for the promotion of Olympic educational programmes in various ways.

The JOC has therefore developed the ‘*Hello Olympism Programmes*’ as a sub-programme of its Olympic Movement Programmes (JOC, 2017, pp.13-14). *Hello Olympism Programmes* are basically conducted by Olympians for the purpose of raising understanding of Olympism and conveying the significance of the Olympics through communications between young people and Olympians. The JOC's Athletes Commission holds workshops, teaching Olympians about Olympism and the Olympic values, and those who attended the workshops have an opportunity

to become instructors that will be able to lead ‘*Olympic Classes*’. Young people who participate in the Olympic Classes can learn Olympism and Olympic values. To identify how the JOC has developed and delivered the Olympic education programmes and what kind of outcomes have been made or are to be achieved. I interviewed a Deputy Director of the Olympic Movement Department, who has been working for the JOC for 25 years.

*b. An analytic logic model of JOC’s Olympic education*

An analytic logic model of the JOC’s Olympic education programmes provides what kind of inputs are needed, how the Olympic education programmes are delivered, what kind of outputs have been achieved and what outcomes are expected to be achieved in the short and long term (see Table 5.7).

There can be seen a prompt causal relationship between the elements of the logic model. Compared to other Olympic education initiatives and programmes for Tokyo 2020, the JOC’s Olympic education programme is more focused on a certain age group (2<sup>nd</sup> year of junior high school) and specific learning contents, the three Olympic values. For the delivery of the programme, the JOC is directly involved in training instructors, who are ‘Olympians’, by holding workshops. So, it is expected to produce positive (direct) impacts on both young people and Olympians through the JOC’s Olympic education process in delivery, which is more likely to achieve the goal of the programme.

**Table 5. 7 An analytic logic model for JOC's Olympic education programme**

Aim	Inputs (Resources)	Throughputs (Actions)	Outputs	Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Raising understanding of Olympism and conveying the significance of the Olympics through communications between young people and Olympians</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Legitimacy</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Hosting the Tokyo 2020 Games</li> <li>- Promoting Olympic educational programmes in all levels of schools, sports and physical education institutions dedicated to Olympic education (Olympic Charter, 2017)</li> <li>- PE curriculum guidelines (MEXT, 2008)</li> </ul> </li> <li>• <b>Finance</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 4.4% of the total expense spent on activities for the promotion of the Olympic movement in 2015 (about £ 3million)</li> </ul> </li> <li>• <b>Human resource</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 8 people working for the Olympic Movement Department (50 people working for JOC)</li> </ul> </li> <li>• <b>Sponsor (for Olympic Classes)</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Japan Sports Agency (JSA)</li> </ul> </li> <li>• <b>Partners</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- JKA (Japan Keirin/Auto-Race Association), local authorities (prefectures) and Board of education in prefectures</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Workshops for Olympians</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Three times per year (three different areas; eastern, western and central areas in Japan)</li> <li>- JOC's Athletes Commission holds workshops for Olympians, which teaches Olympians about Olympism and Olympic values, encourage them to participate in Olympic Movement programme</li> <li>- Six-hour workshop consisting of teaching knowledge related to the Olympics and Paralympics and group discussions</li> <li>- Two or three Olympians visit one selected school and participate in Olympic classes as an instructor</li> </ul> </li> <li>• <b>Olympic Classes</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Two-hour class (50 minutes is theory class and the other 50 minutes is PE class)</li> <li>- Target: 2<sup>nd</sup> year of junior high schools</li> <li>- Teaching materials: not particular textbook but based on <i>OVEP</i></li> <li>- Selection of schools: schools which are interested in this programme apply through the Board of Education in prefectures</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Involvement of Olympians in the delivery of Olympic education <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- About 60 Olympians attended the Olympic classes since 2011</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Increasing number of schools (students) receiving the programme <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- From 2011 to 2016, a total of 114 schools held Olympic classes (10,585 students)</li> <li>- It is expected to undertake Olympic Classes in 50 schools in the school year from 2017 to 2018</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<p><b>Short term:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Building knowledge (for both Olympians and young people) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Learning about Olympism and Olympic values</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Feeling part of the Olympic Movement (for both Olympians and young people)</li> <li>• Personal development (for Olympians) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Teaching skills</li> <li>- Communication skills</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Opportunity to meet Olympians (for young people)</li> </ul> <p><b>Long term:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Possibility to carry on Olympic Classes and Workshops for Olympians after the Tokyo 2020 Games</li> <li>• Olympic values can be put into practice by both Olympians and young people in their day to day activities</li> </ul>

### c. Application of CMO configurations

Table 5.8 shows a summary of the application of CMO configurations for the JOC's Olympic education programmes. For *Contexts*, in terms of under what circumstances the JOC's Olympic education programme works, the JOC developed the 'Olympic Classes' in compliance with not only the Olympic Charter but also Japanese education policy related to the promotion of Olympism and Olympic values in the national school curriculum. The JOC's Deputy Director in the Olympic Movement Department explained:

*According to the Course of Study announced by the MEXT in 2008, it is stated that third year students of junior high schools (middle schools) are required to learn about the Olympics and Olympism in the PE class of the national school curriculum. The learning content concerns knowledge of the role which the Olympics and other mega sports events play in promoting international goodwill and world peace. The content about the Olympics was not directly included in the theory of sport and physical education curriculum before 2009. So we thought that it would be good if second-year students of junior high schools learn about Olympism and Olympic values one year in advance. In this regard, it is expected that those who take the Olympic Classes easily understand Olympism and Olympic values when they take PE class in their third year. (Deputy Director in the Olympic Movement Department, Interview, July 7, 2017)*

For *Mechanisms*, Olympians who were trained in the Workshops are able to participate in the Olympic Classes as volunteer instructors. They visit junior high schools and lead two-hour (unit) classes for the 2<sup>nd</sup> year students with a focus of the three core Olympic values (excellence, friendship, and respect) and five educational values (joy of effort, fair play, respect for others, pursuit of excellence, and balance between mind, body and will). According to the interviewee, Olympians are encouraged to participate actively in the Olympic Movement programmes.

*From the JOC's perspective, Olympians are the key in delivering Olympic spirit and Olympic values to young people. Many Olympians are not aware of Olympism and Olympic values. Thus, it is very important to hold the workshops for Olympians. Through the workshops, Olympians learn about Olympic knowledge related to Olympism and Olympic values based on the OVEP materials and have opportunities to exchange their experiences with other Olympians. Almost every Olympian who attended the workshops wants to be involved in the Olympic Classes.*



(Deputy Director in the Olympic Movement Department, Interview, July 7, 2017)

Thus, the JOC's education programme has been designed with the combined goals of training Olympians and educating young people, targeted at a certain age group (*Mechanisms*). The JOC's Hello Olympism Programme is intended to bring about positive impacts on both Olympians as well as young people (*Outcomes*), which is the main goal of the organisation in relation to the promotion of the Olympic Movement as a National Olympic Committee in accordance with the Olympic Charter and Japanese educational policy (*Contexts*).

Lastly, in terms of the recognition of the *Yoi Don!* Programme, the interviewee made a point that although they understand that the *Yoi Don!* programme was introduced as a Tokyo 2020's official Olympic education programme, it might be sensitive to become the JOC's programme as part of *Yoi Don!* programme. She explained that

*The JOC's Olympic education programme started in 2011, and the system are still in the developing stage. If asked to join the Yoi Don! programme, it might be a problem for the Olympians as well. We would like to focus on the development of our programme for the continuous implementation.* (Deputy Director in the Olympic Movement Department, Interview, July 7, 2017)

This kind of concern has been found in the previous cases with regard to stakeholders' perception toward the *Yoi Don!* programme. Thus, this can imply that the TOCOG's intention of the cooperation of stakeholders under the umbrella system is not likely achieved within different contexts and mechanisms.

**Table 5. 8 JOC CMO configurations**

<b>Contexts</b> +	<b>Mechanisms</b> =	<b>Outcomes</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympic Classes supported by the national government (JSA) and local authorities and Olympian Workshops led by JOA</li> <li>• JOC conformed to national policies and promoted the fundamental principles of Olympism at a national level</li> <li>• Olympians actively engaged in Olympian workshops and Olympic Classes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Olympians are trained to teach mainly three Olympic values and five educational values, learned in the Workshops, with their experiences in competition and daily lives as athletes used as material in both theory and practice classes</li> <li>• Olympic values and Olympism delivered in schools (two-hour lessons)</li> <li>• 2<sup>nd</sup> year students of junior high (selected) schools participating in Olympic Classes for the purpose of advanced learning about the Olympics and Olympism</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students can learn not only how to play sports but also how to utilise Olympic values for day to day activities</li> <li>• Positive impacts on both Olympians and young people; <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- for Olympians, they learn about Olympism and Olympic values, and they develop personal skills such as teaching communication skills;</li> <li>- for young people, they can easily understand Olympism and Olympic values when they become a third year of senior high school due to the advanced learning through Olympic Classes</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

## 5.6 Case Study Five: University of Tsukuba

### *a. Description of CORE's Olympic education*

The University of Tsukuba is one of the key Olympic actors, which is actively promoting Olympic education in Japan. The University of Tsukuba was influenced by Kano Jigoro, who was the first Japanese member of the IOC and the founder of Kodokan Judo as a modern sport. Kano served as the principal of the Tokyo Higher Normal School (present day University of Tsukuba), encouraging and inspiring students through physical education, sports and other subjects. In December 2010, the University of Tsukuba launched the Centre for Olympic Research and Education (CORE), recognised by the IOC. The mission of CORE is to promote Olympic education for the realisation of world peace through sports. CORE has the following objectives (CORE, 2013, p.1):

- To promote international understanding and peace education through the Olympics
- To develop a practical education model
- To collect and provide information on Olympic education and research
- To train people who have global perspectives

Since the establishment of CORE, there have been considerable academic research activities as well as the development and delivery of Olympic education in a variety of forms. One of the main projects that CORE is responsible for is to promote Olympic education in cooperation with 11 laboratory schools attached to the University, five of which are special needs education schools (University of Tsukuba, 2015). For the practices of Olympic education programmes in the 11 laboratory schools, learning concepts are divided into three categories: 1) learning about the principles of Olympism and the history of the Olympics; 2) learning about culture and social issues related to the Olympics in countries and regions of the world; and 3) learning about Olympic spirit and values of sports (CORE, 2015). Since the school year of 2012 to 2013, the laboratory schools have been undertaking Olympic education in the school curriculum as well as in extra-curricular contexts.

Apart from the delivery of Olympic education in laboratory schools, the University of Tsukuba also runs the Tsukuba International Academy for Sport Studies (TIAS), part of the project 'Sport for Tomorrow' for the Tokyo 2020 Games. In addition, CORE is working closely with the JSA, as mentioned in the JSA's case study, on the delivery of Olympic education

programmes nationwide. The CORE's experience in the promotion of Olympic education has significantly influenced the JSA's practices in Olympic education in the school curriculum in terms of the development, delivery and evaluation of programmes. Given various practices of Olympic education, it is evident that the University of Tsukuba and CORE have concentrated on the promotion of Olympic education, acting as a driving force, in the Japanese Olympic system.

This research has examined how CORE has developed and evaluated its Olympic education programmes in the 11 laboratory schools and how the laboratory schools have delivered the programmes in the school curriculum. For the analysis of the case, I interviewed two staff from CORE and one junior high school PE teacher who has been delivering Olympic education for five years.

#### *b. An analytic logic model of CORE's Olympic education*

Table 5.9 presents an analytic logic model of the CORE's Olympic education programme and initiatives with the 11 laboratory schools. Although CORE has undertaken a lot of tasks related to various events for the Tokyo 2020 Games, this case study focuses only on CORE's work with laboratory schools, and at the associated logic model elements. As CORE has been undertaking this Olympic education programme for five years, the short-term outcomes are evident from the interviews while the long-term outcomes are intended to be achieved in the future.

**Table 5. 9 An analytic logic model of CORE's Olympic education programme**

Aim	Inputs (Resources)	Throughputs (Actions)	Outputs	Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increasing international understanding and enhancing awareness of contributions to peace (teaching about the principles of Olympism and the history of the Olympics; culture and social issues related to the Olympics in countries and regions of the world; and Olympic spirit and values of sports)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Legitimacy</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>UT is a National university and has laboratory schools (followed by MEXT policies)</li> <li>UT runs an Olympic Studies Centre (CORE) for the purpose (in part) of promoting Olympic education</li> <li>UT has assisted various stakeholders in the Japan Olympic Systems because of its specialist knowledge</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Finance</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>about £1,600 allocated to 11 laboratory schools every year</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Human resource</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>4 staff working for Olympic education at CORE (postgraduate students and researchers are supporting)</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Partners</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>11 Laboratory schools (for CORE education programmes)</li> <li>TOCOG, TMG, JSA, JOC, JPC, universities (Tokyo 2020 Games)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Development of Olympic education programme</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>UT formed Bureau of education for laboratory schools in 2010 and one representative teacher of each school is selected to serve on the Committee for the promotion of Olympic education</li> <li>Agreed to deliver Olympic education for 35 units in the school curriculum in a range of subjects (not only in PE classes)</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Providing teaching contents, materials, and resources</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Staff from CORE visit schools and give some lectures about Olympic related topics, e.g. use of <i>OVEP</i> materials</li> <li>CORE helps schools to invite Olympians or Paralympians for seminars</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Evaluation</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Schools are required to submit a report for the previous year's practice and new year's lesson plans</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Holding seminars and meeting</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3 or 4 seminars a year for staff sharing schools' practices and improving lesson plans</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>All of the 11 laboratory schools undertaking Olympic education in the school curriculum since 2012</li> <li>All students in the laboratory schools attending Olympic education programme</li> <li>Enhanced the level of awareness of the Olympic and Paralympic values and history of the Olympic games</li> </ul>	<p><b>Short term:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Improved Olympic related knowledge such as Olympic and Paralympic values and sporting values (for both teachers and young people)</li> <li>Increased interest in Paralympic sports</li> <li>Developed education curriculum as teachers develop lesson plans</li> <li>Higher inspirations of participating in sports (especially Paralympic sports)</li> <li>Enhanced understanding on the part of teachers in relation to Olympic education, Olympism and Olympic and Paralympic values</li> </ul> <p><b>Long term:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>11 laboratory schools develop the competence and resources to continue implementation of Olympic education in the school curriculum as they can utilise teaching contents for the coming Olympic games not only for the Tokyo 2020 but also beyond (along with continued funding and support from UT)</li> <li>Improving the school curriculum with using of Olympic education contents</li> </ul>

### c. Application of CMO configurations

11 laboratory schools are supported by the University of Tsukuba with budget and other resources such as inviting Alumni Olympians or Paralympians and requesting for giving lectures about history of Olympics and Japanese involvement in the Olympic games from CORE staff. An Associate Professor from the University of Tsukuba and CORE explained some issues related to the early stage of the implementation in schools:

*In the first year of the implementation in 2012, the schools had some issues because teachers did not know how to deliver Olympic education in the classroom. Thus, CORE held several seminars for representative teachers and demonstrated how to utilise educational materials like OVEP not only in PE class but also in other subjects so that the representative teachers could spread what they learned from the seminars to other teachers. (Staff of CORE, University of Tsukuba, Interview, June 2, 2017)*

This is how CORE first started the Olympic education with the 11 laboratory schools. In contrast with the other education programmes and systems, the University of Tsukuba directly assists the schools on request. As a result, it is evident from the reports written by the teachers reviewing practice each year that the laboratory schools have delivered a number of lessons with the use of various contents and materials in different subjects and grades. The professor stressed that the development and delivery of Olympic education is completely dependent upon schools:

*Even if the Olympic and Paralympic education programme is compulsory in school education, the way to develop and deliver programmes depends on schools' circumstances as well as teachers' perspectives and understanding of Olympic education. (Staff of CORE, University of Tsukuba, Interview, June 2, 2017)*

Apart from the JOC case, we can see that school teachers in Japan have been required to develop their own lesson plans to deliver Olympic education in the school curriculum. Although CORE's Olympic education has been delivered in more than six years, some school teachers might nevertheless want to create new lessons because they do not have textbooks and teaching guidelines for Olympic education. A PE teacher was an interviewee said that teaching staff spend a lot of time on looking for contents and materials:

*Our school has a team for the development of Olympic education and I am a head*

*teacher in the team. For the year plan, my colleague and I provide guidelines for what and how we can teach for the programme to other teachers. I see that there are some examples of Olympic education and useful materials available online, so I usually use online resources. But it is not easy to find a satisfying way to develop lessons for each subject and to plan our lessons for the delivery of Olympic education every year without textbooks or teaching guidelines. To avoid this, my personal opinion is that we need to establish the whole year plan for all relevant subjects in the curriculum. It will also save time to spend on creating a new programme for next year and if we have complete one, we can just amend the curriculum by adding and removing contents thereby continuing Olympic education after the Tokyo 2020 Games. (PE teacher of Laboratory Junior High School, Interview, July 16, 2017)*

The PE teacher also highlighted that undertaking Olympic education every year is considered part of education among teachers and students in the school but that a lack of teaching materials and guidelines for Olympic education can cause some problems for students in terms of the continuity afterward:

*From the five-years of the practice of Olympic education, I think our students are encouraged to actively attend Olympic education classes and they like to learn about Olympic related knowledge, Olympic and Paralympic values and sporting values. I can see more and more students recognise that activities related to Olympics and Paralympics are part of school curriculum based on the positive feedback they have given. However, I am concerned about the consistent teaching objectives and contents. For example, most of the students from our school go to the laboratory senior high school. Of course, the senior high school delivers Olympic education in the school curriculum. But we do not know what that school teaches and how students who graduate from our school can link what they learned here. (PE teacher of Laboratory Junior High School, Interview, July 16, 2017)*

For the CMO configurations of CORE's Olympic education programme (See Table 5.10), 11 laboratory schools have implemented Olympic education programmes in school curriculum (*Mechanisms*) with the support of the University of Tsukuba/CORE (*Contexts*). As CORE's Olympic education initiatives have been continued for six years (*Mechanisms*), the level of awareness of Olympic and Paralympic values has been higher among teachers and students

(*Positive Outcomes*). However, teachers, as the key deliverers of the programme, still need to find contents for the programme due to the lack of educational materials such as textbooks and teaching guidelines. So, teachers face difficulties developing lesson plans every year (*Negative Outcomes*). Currently, TOCOG is working on the translation of *OVEP* materials into the Japanese language and trying to make the textbooks developed by the TMG and the JSA available nationwide thereby allowing laboratory school teachers to be able to utilise various materials to develop curriculum that can be implemented in the long term rather than for one of purposes.

**Table 5. 10 CORE CMO configurations**

Contexts +	Mechanisms =	Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 11 laboratory schools conforming to policies of the University of Tsukuba</li> <li>• University of Tsukuba can directly support with teaching materials or ideas for the planning lessons by request of schools</li> <li>• 80% of students go to the laboratory schools (for example, from laboratory junior high schools to laboratory senior high schools)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 11 laboratory schools have conducted Olympic education for more than five years</li> <li>• School teachers develop lesson plans in school's circumstances (school curriculum, extra-curriculum, collaborating events with other schools etc.)</li> <li>• Teachers submit lesson plans of Olympic education and provide a review/ evaluation report</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relatively more developed Olympic education programme compared to other organisations' initiatives</li> <li>• High level of the awareness of Olympic and Paralympic values</li> <li>• Improved school curriculum with using of Olympic education contents</li> </ul>



## 5.7 Case Study Six: Nippon Foundation Paralympic Sport Centre

### a. Description of NFPSC's Olympic education

The Nippon Foundation Paralympic Sport Centre (NFPSC) is one of the leading organisations which takes actions to promote Paralympic education in Japan as part of the Paralympic Movement. The NFPSC was established in May 2014 with the objective to ensure the success of the 2020 Tokyo Paralympic Games and promote Paralympic sports. The slogan of the NFPSC is 'Challenge for Tomorrow' based on the notion that "The Paralympics has the power to move the spirit, change misconceptions, to encourage and inspire people, and more importantly increase awareness towards people with disabilities" (NFPSC, 2015). The Paralympic Support Centre aims to create an inclusive society, dedicated to the four Paralympic values of 'courage', 'determination', 'inspiration', and 'equality', and since its foundation, the centre has been delivering various initiatives such as the development of Paralympic education materials, and education programmes for promoting Paralympic sports and increasing awareness of people with disabilities.

Paralympic education is considered as less developed compared to Olympic education. Although the *Get Set* of the London 2012 Olympic Games was embedded to deliver both the three Olympic values and the four Paralympic values, a number of Olympic education programmes have focused on the Olympics rather than the Paralympics. Nevertheless, the IOC explicitly highlights the requirement for the development of both Olympic and Paralympic education programmes to be spread in the host city and host nation. The IOC requires that the host city should provide a Paralympic Games education programme in collaboration with the relevant authorities. It is overtly stated that "the (Paralympic education) programme shall involve schools, clubs or similar local organisations with education and learning activities already set up in the pre-Games phase" in the *Host City Operational Requirements File* (IOC, 2015, p.41). And subsequently, the concept of Paralympic education and materials should be presented to and recognised by the IPC.

In compliance with these requirements, TOCOG set out the explicit goal to facilitate the achievement of Paralympic education goals. One of the three core concepts of the Tokyo 2020's Games Vision, 'Unity in Diversity', is one example. To promote this value, other stakeholders have placed emphasis on the promotion of Paralympic spirit and goals under TOCOG's *Action & Legacy Plan*. For instance, the TMG's Olympic education programme

contains the understanding for the people with impairments as one of the mind-sets to be nurtured among young people while the JSA has implemented the promotion of the integrated sports policy for people with disabilities, conforming to the Basic Act on Sports. With regard to the realisation of the importance of Paralympic education among the key stakeholders, Tokyo 2020 intends to deliver not just an Olympic education programme but an ‘Olympic and Paralympic education programme’.

Apart from these actions for broadly generating the legacies, there was a need to promote the concept of Paralympic education for the Tokyo 2020 Games. Thus, the NFPSC has played a significant role in the development and implementation of Paralympic education in the Paralympic Movement as an Olympic actor recognised by TOCOG and the IPC. One of the initiatives is that the NFPSC has developed official Paralympic education materials, called ‘*I’mPOSSIBLE*’ for a similar purpose to that behind the development of the ‘*OVEP*’ (IOC, 2016c). Japan has become the first nation to adopt this Paralympic material to contribute to Paralympic education delivered in elementary schools. Mitsunori Torihara who is the president of the Japanese Para-Sports Association states the importance of the development of the *I’mPOSSIBLE* materials as follows (NFPSC, 2017):

*In Japan, there was close to nothing when it came to educational tools for Paralympics. That was partly due to our lack of communicating information but this time we can offer educational material that is officially recognised by the IPC. Even for those who have limitations due to disabilities, Para sports allow creativity with rules and equipment to give one a chance to join. Paralympics will allow anybody to compete. ‘With creativity, it’s possible to find your way out of the impossible’ – I have great expectations that spreading the idea will give everyone more opportunities to think about diversity and harmony.*

The NFPSC has also funded the IPC to develop a universal version of *I’mPOSSIBLE* and spread this in other countries. Thus, it is evident that the NFPSC’s promotion of the Paralympic Movement has contributed to the development the field of Paralympic education. Additionally, the NFPSC has implemented two education programmes, namely *Asuchelle School* and *Asuchelle Academy*. These three key initiatives that the NFPSC has concentrated on for the Paralympic education of Tokyo 2020 will be analysed through an analytic logic model and CMO configurations.

This NFPSC's case study has focused on what kinds of Paralympic education programmes have been developed in what contexts and what outcomes are expected to be achieved through specific mechanisms. For the investigation, this researcher reviewed key policy documents and interviewed the project manager of the NFPSC, responsible for developing all the three education programmes, as well as working as one of the instructors for 'Asuchelle Academy'.

*b. An analytic logic model of NFPSC's Olympic education*

Table 5.11 presents an illustrative logic model for the NFPSC's Paralympic education programme and initiatives. It shows how inputs relate to throughputs, outputs and outcomes intended to be delivered in both short and long-term. The NFPSC is not focused on a single education programme but seeks to implement various programmes within different context, with different target groups, educating contents, and ways of delivering the contents. Nevertheless, the outcomes are expected to be achieved from the collective actions of all three programmes.

**Table 5. 11 An analytic logic model of NFPSC's Olympic education programme**

Aim	Inputs (Resources)	Throughputs (Actions)	Outputs	Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Developing the foundations of Paralympic sports associations</li> <li>Raising public awareness of the Paralympics and para sports</li> <li>Making society more inclusive, by understanding of people with impairments</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Legitimacy</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Tokyo 2020's Games Vision of 'Unity of diversity', one of the core concepts</li> <li>Concept of Paralympic education programme and materials are required by the IOC/IPC</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Finance</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>£690m funded by Nippon Foundation for 5 years project</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Human resource</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>20 staff working for the centre (100 staff for the Foundation)</li> </ul> </li> <li><b>Partners</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>TOCOG, IPC, JPC, universities, and sponsors (i.e. Japan Airlines, NEC Corporation)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Development of Paralympic education materials, <i>I'mPOSSIBLE</i></b> (since April 2017) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Target: primary schools' students aged 6-12</li> <li>'Ready to use' package: guide for teachers, handouts and worksheets for students, and DVDs</li> <li>Distribute <i>I'mPOSSIBLE</i> to all of the primary schools in Japan</li> <li>Fund the IPC to develop the universal version of <i>I'mPOSSIBLE</i></li> <li>Partner: JPC, Agitos Foundation</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Teachers directly use <i>I'mPOSSIBLE</i> for Paralympic education in class</li> <li>Students learn about the para sports and the Paralympic games</li> <li>The IPC officially published the universal version of <i>I'mPOSSIBLE</i> and other countries started using this material for the Paralympic education</li> </ul>	<p><b>Short term:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Improved Paralympic related knowledge such as the Paralympic sports, Paralympic Games, and the Paralympic values</li> <li>The expansion of <i>I'mPOSSIBLE</i> used for the Paralympic Movement worldwide</li> <li>Improving the school curriculum with using of para sports contents (i.g. <i>I'mPOSSIBLE</i>)</li> <li>Increasing participation in para sports</li> </ul> <p><b>Long term:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>People will change their perceptions and behaviours toward people with impairments</li> <li>Children can become adults that support the Paralympics</li> <li>Japan will become more inclusive society by understanding diversity</li> </ul>
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>'Asuchalle School'</b> (since April 2016) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Target: primary schools to junior high schools' students</li> <li>Sponsor: Japan Airlines</li> <li>Visit schools selected through process</li> <li>Athletes demonstrate how to play sports on wheelchair and 20 students ride wheelchair (90-minute/ 2 units of class)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Visited 160 schools in Japan (2016-2017)</li> <li>It is planned to visit 250 schools (2018-19)</li> <li>Due to the sponsor of Japanese Airlines, more schools can have this seminar without limitation of moving in long distance</li> </ul>	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>'Asuchalle Academy'</b> (since Oct 2016) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Target: university students and adults</li> <li>Partner: Japan Universal Manners Association (Educating instructors)</li> <li>Sponsor: NEC Corporation (Public safety equipment and software)</li> <li>Instructors are not only athletes but also people with disabilities</li> <li>2-hour seminar</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Learning how to communicate with and help people having disabilities</li> <li>Increasing level of an understanding of people with disabilities</li> <li>Up to 100 instructors trained</li> </ul>	

### c. Application of CMO configurations

Table 5.12 presents a summary of the application of CMO configurations for the NFPSC's Olympic education programmes. Although the interview questions were asked separately according to the different education programmes in terms of the ways of how to develop, implement and evaluate the actions and practices, there are several underlying causal mechanisms within the context of the NFPSC's development and implementation. In other word, it was possible to develop the CMO configurations in the sense that the contexts fired for the development of the mechanisms have been similarly understood and the outcomes are intended to be achieved when the three programmes are effectively operating.

It is apparent that the host city and nation should provide the concept of Paralympic education programme in the preparation phase, in parallel with the development of the concept of the Olympic education programme for Tokyo 2020 (*Contexts*). For the development of education programmes to meet the requirements, the concern in relation to a lack of understanding of para sports and Paralympic games, and awareness of people having disabilities in the Japanese society has become a key issue to be dealt with in Japan (*Contexts*). 'Asuchelle School' and 'Asuchelle Academy' under the label of 'Challenge for Tomorrow' were created (*Mechanisms*) on the basis of the recognition of these issues found in the Japanese society and the interviewee's experiences (*Contexts*).

*As a person myself with impairment for 34 years, every day is challenging. When I was in Canada [for master's degree], I never felt uncomfortable because I had more options to choose living my life as who I am. But after coming back to Japan, I feel like I am a person who has a disability in society. The way in which people watch me makes me feel like a person who cannot do anything. For example, on the train, I speak out for getting off when I do not move because of a lot of people standing around me. They might not see me but when they see me, at least they need to think how they make me get through. This kind of experience I face almost every day is helpful for me to think about what we (NFPSC) need for the development of the programme and what the trigger is for other people to change their minds. (Project manager of NFPSC, Interview, June 28, 2017)*

The NFPSC has focused communicating the importance of appreciating the Paralympic values and sports by educating young people through *Asuchelle School*, and on making a more inclusive society by teaching adults how to communicate and help with disabled people through

*Asuchelle Academy (Outcomes)*. Subsequently, the Centre developed the Paralympic education materials, *I'mPOSSIBLE*, and spread the materials to all of the elementary schools in Japan.

In terms of how to embark on creating the Paralympic education materials by the NFPSC, the interviewee explained the background of the creation of *I'mPOSSIBLE*, and the difference between the Japanese version and the universal version of *I'mPOSSIBLE*:

*The international version of I'mPOSSIBLE was developed by the IPC Education Committee. The Committee's chairman Nick Fuller, who developed the London 2012's Get Set programmes, and his company (EdComs) advised that we should invent the Paralympic education materials. For the Japanese version, based on the international one in terms of knowledge and the way of thinking towards the Paralympics, we actually localised the information to be used in the Japanese schools. For example, the international I'mPOSSIBLE is more creative, which makes teachers use them [materials] in their own ways. The Japanese version, however, provides all of the information that the teacher can directly use in class so that teachers do not need to create lesson plans for the Paralympic education. This material is not just for students learning about the Paralympic related knowledge but for teachers to use in teaching. (Project manager of NFPSC, Interview, June 28, 2017)*

The Japanese version of *I'mPOSSIBLE* is 'ready to use' and recognised as key Olympic education materials by other stakeholders. Elementary schools in Japan are recommended to utilise the materials of *I'mPOSSIBLE* for the delivery of Paralympic education in classes. Considering the *OVEP*, the interviewees from the University of Tsukuba made a point that the *OVEP* is not appropriate to be directly adopted in the Japanese education context because the contents of the *OVEP* programme are somewhat universal and are not particularly well suited to Japanese culture. In this regard, TOCOG was urged to undertake the translation work of the *OVEP* into Japanese, so that teachers can easily utilise which part teachers want to use for the lessons.

It is interesting to see how the Centre defines Paralympic education as distinct from Olympic education. The interviewee who has been involved in all the initiatives since the foundation of the Centre has a clear view on Paralympic education and the elements to be measured to evaluate the success of implementation:

*As you can see the name of the centre is the 'Paralympic Support Centre'. We have to make sure that the Olympic and Paralympic Games will be hosted successfully. We have seven roles for promoting the Paralympic Movement. Among them, we have focused on two the most: developing the foundations of the Paralympic sports associations and raising public awareness of the Paralympics. Paralympic education is part of the Paralympic Movement, and we did not prefer to limit a range of actions and practices to the development of educational materials such as I'mPOSSIBLE only. We believe that Paralympic education can be defined in various ways, thinking about the aspects we see in Asuchelle School and Asuchelle Academy. So, we consider the field of Paralympic education in a broader way. Paralympic education should be expanded to the general public for the inclusive societies (Project manager of NFPSC, Interview, June 28, 2017)*

In terms of *Outcomes*, a key element is that the efforts and contribution of the NFPSC to the development of Paralympic education programmes for the host country and the world can set a good example for other countries that plan to design a Paralympic education programme. It is also expected to leave a positive impact on changes in the people's perceptions and behaviours towards those who have disabilities in society, thereby making for a more inclusive society.

**Table 5. 12 NFPSC CMO configurations**

Contexts +	Mechanisms =	Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tokyo 2020 should develop the concept of Paralympic education and it should be recognised by the IPC</li> <li>• Tokyo is the only host city that is to host the Paralympic Games twice</li> <li>• Lack of educational materials for Paralympic education</li> <li>• Lack of understanding of Paralympics and para-sports</li> <li>• Lack of awareness of people with disabilities in terms of how to communicate and how to help them</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>I'mPOSSIBLE</i>: parallel programme with <i>OVEP</i> for Olympic education, which can be integrated within the school curriculum</li> <li>• <i>Asuchelle School</i>: para sports athletes visiting school, teaching how to play wheelchair basketball and goalball, and students can understand disability and experience courage for challenging possibility</li> <li>• <i>Asuchelle Academy</i>: seminars for university students and adults to learn ways of communication with disabled people and appropriate behaviours around them</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Contributing to the knowledge and appreciation of the Paralympic Movement</li> <li>• <i>I'mPOSSIBLE</i> recognised as one of the specific Paralympic education programmes implemented for Tokyo 2020 nationwide as well as globally</li> <li>• Change in people's perceptions and behaviours toward people with impairments</li> <li>• Higher level of awareness of para-sports and Paralympic Games</li> <li>• Increasing participation in Para sports in schools</li> <li>• Successful hosting of the Paralympic Games</li> </ul>

## 5.8 Case Study conclusions

### 5.8.1 CMO configurations of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education

This concluding section focuses on the findings from the six case studies. Each case study was undertaken following a structure adapted from the realist evaluation process. Given that this research reviewed six cases from the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education programmes and initiatives developed by different stakeholders, it was intended to identify the underlying ‘*generative mechanisms*’ which it was anticipated would contribute to the achievement of the legacy goals of Tokyo 2020, by comparing and integrating the findings from the case studies.

As the research process contains three phases - developing, testing, and refining the initial programme theory - we will return here to the initial programme theory. The initial programme theory developed for the empirical case study was defined as follows:

The development and implementation of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic (and/or Paralympic) education programmes integrated into the school curriculum (or educational settings) with explicit and clear policy and pedagogical goals, based on sufficient resources, will have positive impacts on young people in terms of gaining knowledge of, and commitment to, moral and social values, and will contribute to changing behaviours, and consequently help to achieve the legacy goals of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic games.

For testing this initial programme theory, the researcher developed the analytic logic models to present the relationships between the key elements (inputs, throughputs, outputs and outcomes), and subsequently identified CMO configurations to specify what real associations between contexts and mechanisms were understood to have generated certain outcomes. This concluding section of the findings from the six cases reviews the CMO configurations identified and refines the initial programme theory.

**Contexts.** In realist evaluation, contexts are concerned with answering specifying the ‘circumstances’ in which a programme/intervention will work. We can discuss ‘contexts’ along various dimensions (e.g. cultural, social, historical, political context etc.). In this research, four contextual perspectives can be considered to explain that the contexts within which the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education has been conceptualised and developed.



The first contextual perspective is concerned with 'legitimacy'. All the stakeholders have developed and implemented the programmes and initiatives for the successful hosting of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. The successful Games is understood to be achieved in the circumstances in which all the relevant stakeholders (*All-Japan Structure*) ensure the achievement of the Tokyo 2020's Games Vision along with its three core concepts ('Achieving Personal Best', 'Unity in Diversity', and 'Connecting to Tomorrow'), and are engaged in the '*Action & Legacy Plan*', which is one of the key strategic plans developed by TOCOG. This suggests that legacies to be achieved as outcomes of the Games rely on the independent actions as well as the collaborative practices of the stakeholders.

In particular relation to the promotion of Olympic and Paralympic education for Tokyo 2020, the IOC requires that TOCOG should be the 'key driving and controlling force' (IOC, 2015, p.40). Although the IOC does not provide specific ways of developing and implementing actions for Olympic and Paralympic education, several major elements required for the effective education programmes have been identified in the key policy documents (i.e. Host City Contract, Agenda 2020, the Olympic Charters). Based on the analysis of the documents, the IOC clearly requires that 1) the OCOG promotes Olympic and Paralympic education in partnerships with various stakeholders including governmental and private partners, teachers, schools and educational institutions as well as IOC controlled entities; 2) the Olympic and Paralympic education programme should deliver contents about sport, the Olympic Games, and the Olympic and Paralympic values on offer to schools; and 3) TOCOG should present the plans for how to develop Olympic and Paralympic education programmes, and relevant materials to the IOC and the IPC for review in the preparation stage. Thus, the stakeholders and actors are well aware of the way of developing and delivering Olympic and Paralympic education in compliance with the legitimate requirements.

'Political will' is one of the important elements for the successful implementation of Olympic education of the host cities and nations. In contrast, a lack of political will result in the discontinuing of Olympic education programmes, especially in post-Games periods. Given that the time, when the interviews with the key policy makers in each stakeholder/organisation, was three years before the Tokyo 2020 Games, it was apparent at this stage the political will of the stakeholders was strong. Apart from the timing, sufficient set of support from the stakeholders (providing financial support, educational materials, and opportunities to make young people get involved in various activities relating to the Tokyo 2020 Games) was derived from political will of the stakeholders. Additionally, actions such as regular gatherings among the

stakeholders in the seminars and symposia relating to Olympic education are among the products generated by political will, which lead to a shared understanding of common goals to be achieved and knowledge of the various practices of different stakeholders. Thus, political will identified in the analysis of the case studies has contributed to the mechanisms and outcomes of the Japanese Olympic education.

The 'historical dimension' also plays a key role in the development of the Japanese Olympic education programmes in practice. Jigoro Kano was a central figure for the development of human beings through education and sport and the promotion of the Olympic Movement, in particular in his home country of Japan. His philosophy which was that 'moral values acquired through Judo and other forms of physical education could be practised in one's everyday life' is largely in line with aspects of the Coubertin's philosophy embedded in the ideals of Olympism. The life span of Coubertin, and that of Kano, overlapped although the two never met. Nevertheless, Coubertin and Kano shared a broadly common understanding of the importance of education through sport, the development of school sport and physical education, and living in international harmony through the Olympic games. Prior to the Tokyo 1940 Olympic Games (the cancelled Games), Coubertin sent a personal letter about the importance of combining Hellenism (European culture), with the sophisticated culture and arts of Asia through the staging of the Olympic Games (JOC, 2018b). Thus, it is obvious that Kano's involvement and contribution to the promoting of the Olympic Movement along with the Japanese culture had a direct bearing on the conceptualisation of the Japanese Olympic education tradition.

The current Olympic education programmes of Tokyo 2020 are concerned with the previous Japanese Olympic education programmes. The 'One School One Country' programme, the official Olympic education programme of Nagano 1998, is relatively well known, and help up as an example of a successful practice of an international Olympic education programme, as evidenced by its continuing influence on the following host cities and nations for the development of Olympic education programme(s). In fact, before the *OSOC* programme was introduced in the field of Olympic education, Japan had already tried to integrate Olympic education within the Japanese national school curriculum in the case of Tokyo 1964 (producing text books etc). Japanese Olympic education has been in progress in terms of how to develop Olympic education programme with use of certain types of resources, sets of pedagogical goals with target groups, and the development of educational settings for the implementation of Olympic education. Consequently, its experiences learned from staging of the Olympic Games

but also promoting the Olympic Movement and Olympism through its Olympic education programmes are likely to generate positive outcomes.

The fourth contextual perspective is related to 'cultural specificity'. The rationale for the bid to host the 2020 Games was to utilise "the power of sport and the Olympic Movement to generate hope and motivate and inspire people and nations to unite, overcome difficulties and press on for a positive future" (JOC, 2013, p.8), more specifically this was intended to refer to the efforts required to recover from the Great East Japan Earthquake and tsunami of 2011. TOCOG formed a specific commission (*Recovery, Nationwide Benefits and Global Communication*) responsible for creating legacies by showcasing efforts on recovery from the Great East Japan Earthquake and communicating Japan's values embedded within claims such as "harmony is the ultimate virtue" (TOCOG, 2016, p.79). Japanese Cultural specificity derives from cultural values manifested in, for example, the appeal to use promotion of Olympism as a philosophy to foster willingness to contribute to the process of recovery and reconstruction.

In considering all the cases of the Olympic education programmes and initiatives differently developed by various stakeholders under the Japanese education system, the context of Tokyo 2020 is highly culturally specific. It is necessary to understand the Japanese education system and more broadly the Japanese cultural milieu in relation to Olympic education programmes integrated within the school curriculum. In Japan, the regional Board of Education in each prefecture has the authority to decide whether schools in its prefecture implement an Olympic education programme in schools or not. In this respect, TOCOG does not necessarily retain experts who could directly develop an Olympic education programme and contents, being advised instead by the Culture and Education Commission of TOCOG. In addition, the national government is not able to directly deliver Olympic education programmes in schools. The JSA's main responsibility is to make sure that as many prefectures (beyond Tokyo) as possible deliver Olympic education programmes integrated in the school curriculum in the preparation period of the Tokyo Olympics. If the regional Board of Education in a prefecture decides to deliver Olympic education in its schools, the JSA provides financial support and helps schools and teachers develop lesson plans through seminars led by the experts from the universities which are in cooperative relationship with the JSA.

In contrast, the case of the TMG is distinct from the other stakeholders' practices for the promotion of Olympic education. Given that the TMG (Host city organisation) should work closely with TOCOG for the successful delivery of *Yoi Don!* programme, the TMG has the

Board of Education which can directly influence the implementation of Olympic education in the school curriculum in Tokyo. As the TMG and its Board of Education have realised the significance of what they should deliver through Olympic education, the Board of Education has made policies relating to the explicit pedagogical goals (the *4x4 Initiatives*), teaching guidelines, textbooks, and so on. In doing so, it is anticipated that the outcomes of Tokyo's Olympic education programme (TMG) identified are likely to be more predominant in the Japanese Olympic education tradition.

The Japanese context can be explained as follows. The various stakeholders and actors responsible for the governance of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic system are given the 'legitimacy' to promote the Olympic values and Olympism through Olympic education. As the host city and host nation, these stakeholders and actors have to exercise strong 'political will' in order to achieve common goals based on a shared understanding of the nature of Olympic education. Japanese Olympic education has its own 'historical roots and traditions' in relation to sport and the Olympic Movement, and the previous experiences of the implementation of the national and international Olympic education programmes. The Japanese national education systems and cultural (or national) spirit have thus influenced the ways in which various stakeholders and actors have developed and implemented Olympic education programmes and initiatives.

***Mechanisms.*** Before discussing the generative mechanisms identified, it is useful to start with consideration of what kinds of mechanisms have been identified in the Japanese specific context according to different Olympic education programmes developed by each stakeholder or actor as listed below:

- Tokyo Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games (TOCOG):  
TOCOG established an official Olympic and Paralympic education, '*Yoi Don!*' in 2017. Through this programme, TOCOG aims 'to engage as many children as possible with the Olympic and Paralympic Games' and to 'raise widespread understanding and appreciation of the Olympic, Paralympic and Sporting values'. This programme was created as an umbrella system rather than an education programme since this programme does not provide educational contents or teaching guidelines for the delivery of the *Yoi Don!* programme in the school curriculum. Instead, TOCOG is responsible for encouraging schools to participate in the *Yoi Don!* programme. If schools are recognised to implement Olympic

education in the school curriculum for example, the school can be certified as a *Yoi Don!* school and can use the official logo mark provided by TOCOG. TOCOG expects that various stakeholders (or actors) will develop their own education programmes or initiatives to achieve the common goals (i.e. the Games vision and legacy goals of the *Yoi Don!*) under the label of the official education programme *Yoi Don!*.

- Tokyo Metropolitan Government (TMG): The TMG developed its Olympic and Paralympic education in order to ‘make the Olympic and Paralympic Olympic Games a great opportunity for the growth of children towards the future’. All the public schools in Tokyo are implementing Olympic and Paralympic education programmes in the school curriculum. Schools spend 35 units<sup>22</sup> a year on the delivery of their Olympic education programme. The Olympic education programme is integrated in the delivery of various subjects and teachers develop lesson plans for each subject by utilising educational materials provided by the TMG and attending relevant seminars and conferences. The schools have opportunities to participate in various Olympic related sport and cultural events and to invite Olympians/Paralympians to schools. All the public schools in Tokyo were certified as *Yoi Don!* Schools by TOCOG.
- Japan Sports Agency (JSA): The JSA developed the Olympic and Paralympic education programme for ‘spreading the idea of Olympism, the Olympic, Paralympic and Sporting values beyond Tokyo as part of the Olympic Movement’. The JSA’s Olympic education programme started in 2015 when the JSA was established by the MEXT. Because it is not possible for the national government to directly deliver Olympic education programme in schools, the JSA decided to work with three universities including the University of Tsukuba, Waseda University, and Nippon Sport Science University. While the TMG is promoting Olympic education in Tokyo, the JSA intends to deliver Olympic education in the other 46 prefectures. Thus, the universities are in charge of certain prefectures in

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<sup>22</sup> In Japan, elementary schools have 45 minutes in one unit and junior and senior high schools have 50 minutes in one unit. Japan has two units of comprehensive class per week, so teachers can flexibly utilise it for the delivery of Olympic education programmes. Thus, public schools in Tokyo are required to spend 35 units per year for Olympic education programmes.

terms of hosting seminars for teachers and monitoring education in practice in schools. The JSA as the governmental body has focused on strengthening cooperative work by regularly hosting consortia and inviting all the stakeholders for the purpose of sharing knowledge and practices.

- Japan Olympic Committee (JOC): The JOC focuses on ‘raising understanding of Olympism and conveying the significance of the Olympic Games through communications between young people and Olympians through its Olympic education programme’. In the sense that the JOC is a governing body controlled by the IOC, the development of the Olympic education programmes is specifically conformed not only to the national policies but also the fundamental principles of Olympism as expressed in the IOC Charter. The JOC developed its ‘*Olympism Programme*’ for the purpose of promoting Olympic education in schools. The JOC has focused on both Olympians and young people. Olympians, who are taught about the three core Olympic values and five educational values specified in the *OVEP* through the workshops, teach second year students of junior high schools for two-hour session. The concept that Olympians lead Olympic education programmes for young people and the Olympians as instructors are trained is distinctive from other education programmes.
- University of Tsukuba (CORE): The CORE’s goal to be achieved through its Olympic and Paralympic education programme is ‘to increase international understanding and enhance awareness of contributions to peace’. The 11 laboratory schools of the University of Tsukuba started to deliver Olympic and Paralympic education programmes in 2012. The schools have implemented an Olympic education programme integrated in the school curriculum, and teachers have developed lesson plans under these circumstances. The University of Tsukuba provides teaching resources and holds regular seminars and workshops for the schools exchanging their practices and improving lessons plans. The University of Tsukuba undertakes evaluation of the Olympic education programme by requiring school teachers to submit the report of the previous practices and the next year’s plan.

- Nippon Foundation Paralympic Support Centre (NFPSC): The NFPSC has focused on ‘developing the foundations of Paralympic sports associations and raising public awareness of the Paralympics and para sports’ in compliance with the Tokyo 2020’s concept (‘Unity of diversity’). The NFPSC has developed three education programmes: ‘*I’mPOSSIBLE*’ (Paralympic education materials), ‘*Asuchelle School*’ and ‘*Asuchelle Academy*’. These three programmes have different targets (from primary school students to adults), and different ways of delivery. The NFPSC has funded the IPC to develop the universal version of *I’mPOSSIBLE*, which contributes to the promotion of Paralympic education in the world. Considering all the actions made by the NFPSC, Tokyo 2020 has structured its specific way of developing Paralympic education and the Paralympic Movement.

All the mechanisms identified from all the cases are derived from the ‘real’ underlying causal process operating under the Japanese context as a whole. It has become apparent that the context within which stakeholder and actor implementing Olympic education programmes and initiatives can influence the way in which or the extent to which an Olympic education programme is implemented and delivered, who it targets, and subsequently what kinds of outcomes are intended to be achieved and so on. The case of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education can be conceptualised by the sub-mechanisms of the different Olympic education programmes operating in certain circumstances depending on the stakeholders and actors.

With regard to the conceptualisation of Tokyo 2020’s education programme in practice, there are certain underlying generative mechanisms which were identified. First, as discussed in the context, the regional Board of Education decides whether to undertake Olympic and Paralympic educations integrated within the school curriculum. If confirmed, the stakeholders provide the financial support, educational materials, sending athletes for the schools’ events on request, and hosting seminars and conferences for training of teachers and sharing Olympic knowledge and the concept of Olympic education. Second, for the implementation of Olympic education programme in schools, school teachers should develop their own lesson plans of various subjects by use of all the materials and knowledge gained from the training programmes and seminars provided by the stakeholders and actors. Third, the contents and pedagogical goals for Olympic and Paralympic education commonly set out to achieve are categorised as: 1) understanding and appreciation of Olympic knowledge relating to the Olympic and Paralympic Games, Olympism, the Olympic and Paralympic, and sporting values;

2) learning about Japanese culture and tradition in relation to the Olympic Movement; 3) developing international sense and global mindset; and 4) raising the awareness of the Paralympic Games and sports (including people with impairments). Lastly, stakeholders and actors have a lot of opportunities to present their own Olympic education programmes by attending the conferences and symposia held for the purpose of sharing their own practices and immediate outcomes resulting from the practices.

**Outcomes.** Outcomes in this research include short, medium, and long-term changes, and intended and unintended consequences, resulting from the associations between contexts and mechanisms (*Context + Mechanism = Outcome*). The outcomes identified from the CMO configurations have been discussed in the six case studies. In this concluding section, outcomes are more related to the intended and unintended consequences generated at multiple levels of Japanese Olympic system by the development and implementation of Olympic education programmes and initiatives for Tokyo 2020.

In terms of the intended outcomes, it is apparent that Olympic and Paralympic education programmes developed by various stakeholders and actors are being promoted in the school curriculum throughout Japan, not only in Tokyo but also expanded to other prefectures. The level of interest in the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games has been increased among young people, which produces higher inspirations for participating in sports. Students and teachers have better understanding about the Olympic and Paralympic related knowledge, and Japanese history and culture relating to the Olympic Movement. Subsequently, it is expected to improve positive attitudes such as self-esteem, volunteer spirit, understanding of people with impairments, and to change people's behaviours as long-term outcomes. Because this researcher did not interview young people to evaluate what kinds of outcomes have actually been generated by learning Olympic education programmes (it was too early in the process to have been able to do this), the realist evaluation and the CMO configurations have provided the intended outcomes identified from the real causal processes investigated within the given contexts; as well as the outcomes which are intended to be achieved.

For the unintended outcomes, while analytic logic models do not focus on unintended outcomes, it is useful that CMO configurations can explain potential unintended consequences. Unintended outcomes can be positive or negative. In terms of unintended positive outcomes, considering all the Olympic and Paralympic education programmes based on the association



between contexts and mechanisms discussed, the way in which Tokyo 2020 has conceptualised and operationalised Olympic education programmes can be considered as providing a good exemplar of the delivery of Olympic education in the preparation phase.

Another unintended positive outcome was found in the teachers' interviews. The interviewees from TOCOG, the University of Tsukuba, the JSA, and the TMG were commonly concerned about school teachers' demanding and overloaded work schedule due to requirements for making the lesson plans for the Olympic education programme. The school teachers admitted that before a new semester starts, teachers are too busy to introduce or develop a new programme in the existing curriculum, where this requires significant extra work. Nevertheless, the teachers whom I interviewed have carried out the Olympic education programme for more than three years did not feel pressured to develop lesson plans for the Olympic education programme. However, the teachers wished to establish a whole year plan for all relevant subjects in the curriculum so that they could add and remove contents reflecting upon the coming Olympic Games and continue to undertake Olympic education even after the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games. Thus, the school teachers had a clear view of the importance of the delivery of Olympic education programmes as part of the school curriculum and of the need for explicit and systemic lesson plans. Through this kind of repeated and progressive process of the development of Olympic education from the teachers' perspectives, Tokyo 2020 would appear much more likely to achieve long lasting implementation of Olympic education programmes.

Unintended negative outcomes have occurred in the case of Tokyo 2020. In particular, the official Olympic education programmes, *Yoi Don!*, was created to be operating as an umbrella system to cover all kinds of actions relating to Olympic education programmes developed by other stakeholders. However, there has been a gap in the perceptions on the *Yoi Don!* programme between TOCOG/TMG and other stakeholders. The interview results showed that there was a lack of understanding of how the *Yoi Don!* programme works, and the Olympic education programme delivered by each stakeholder was separate from the *Yoi Don!* programme. This might be because the point at which I undertook the interviews was only two months after the introduction of the *Yoi Don!* programme so it did not give enough time for all stakeholders to fully appreciate the concept of the programme. Nevertheless, the stakeholders and actors regularly gather at seminars and symposia where they could exchange various practices of Olympic education programmes and initiatives three times a year. Thus, this kind

of cooperative action can be expected to turn into producing positive outcomes as part of successful implementation of the Japanese Olympic education programmes.

Table 5.13 presents the summary of the final CMO configurations of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and education programme. It will provide readers with an understanding of which outcomes have been investigated and anticipated, resulting from the associations between contexts and mechanisms.

**Table 5. 13 CMO configurations of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education**

Contexts +	Mechanisms =	Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Legitimacy</li> <li>• Political will</li> <li>• Historical dimension</li> <li>• Cultural specificity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Various Olympic education programmes developed and implemented by the stakeholders and actors (six case studies)</li> <li>• Conceptualisation of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education based on the underlying generative mechanisms               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Regional Board of Education as a decision maker for the delivery of Olympic education in the school curriculum</li> <li>- School teachers making lesson plans for Olympic education</li> <li>- Specific contents and pedagogical goals</li> <li>- Conferences, symposia, training seminars relating to Olympic and Paralympic education for the stakeholders and actors</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Intended outcomes               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Increasing level of interest in the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games</li> <li>- Greater inspiration to participate in sport</li> <li>- Raising widespread understanding and appreciation/valuing of the Olympic, Paralympic and sporting values</li> <li>- Expanding Olympic and Paralympic education programmes integrated in school curriculum nationwide</li> <li>- Positive impacts on people's behaviours and attitudes (self-esteem, volunteer spirit, understanding of people with impairments etc)</li> <li>- Better understanding of various Olympic and Paralympic education programmes delivered by other stakeholders/actors</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Unintended outcomes               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- (+) The case of Tokyo 2020 can be considered as a good example of the delivery of Olympic education in the preparation phase</li> <li>- (+) Developed lesson plans for Olympic education integrated within the school curriculum can make continuous practices</li> <li>- (-) Lack of understanding of TOCOC's Olympic education programme (system) in terms of the concept by the stakeholders and actors</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

### 5.8.2 Policy network analysis of governance of the Japanese Olympic system for Tokyo 2020 Olympic education

This section will discuss analysis of the governance of the Japanese Olympic system for Tokyo 2020 Olympic education employing the policy network approach (Marsh & Rhodes, 1992) which was described in Section 4.3.1. The overall findings show that various stakeholders composing the *All-Japan Structure* have been involved in the promotion of Olympic education in their own ways, the broader reflecting Olympic education policy network and the specific Tokyo 2020 policy community which incorporates aspects of the Olympic community (at national and global/ IOC levels) and the Japanese education system (at central and local government levels) with each of the institutions having slightly or very different policy agendas.

The strategic focus of this thesis in relation to the development of Olympic and Paralympic education in the Tokyo 2020's context has been predominantly at the level of the policy network. Table 5.14 provides an outline of the institutional membership of (rather than the individuals in) the policy network for the development of Tokyo 2020's Olympic education policy.

**Table 5. 14 Institutional membership of the policy network for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Education policy domain**

<b>Level of Institution's Operations</b>	<b>International</b>	<b>National</b>	<b>Regional / Local</b>
<b>Non-governmental</b>	IOC/ IPC	JOC/ JPC	
<b>Mixed governmental / non-governmental</b>		TOCOG	
<b>Governmental</b>		JSA (MEXT)	Regional Board of Education / Schools
<b>Others</b>		NFPSC	University of Tsukuba (CORE) / Laboratory schools

According to Marsh and Rhodes (1992), policy community provides limited memberships with frequent interactions of all groups on the matters related to the given policy issue. For the consensus and distribution of resources, all participants in a policy community share basic values and accept the legitimacy of the outcomes. Although one group may dominate, there is

a balance of power among the members, which leads to a ‘positive-sum game’. Thus, the basic relationship among members is an exchange relationship. Considering the case of Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education policy in practice, all the stakeholders responsible for the successful hosting of Tokyo 2020 share a common understanding of the necessity of the delivery of Olympic education and seek to produce positive outcomes and achieve a long-term legacy, even though there may be schisms in the community between members on exactly how or what might be delivered in a given programme.

In the Japanese policy network, the role of University of Tsukuba has emerged as crucial in the sense that the University has been involved in a range of Olympic education practices including its laboratory schools’ Olympic education programmes and the JSA’s promotion of Olympic education throughout Japan. The University of Tsukuba (CORE) provides expertise, trains school teachers, evaluates education programmes and holds seminars and conferences for stakeholders/ organisations to share a number of activities for the spread of Olympic and Paralympic education. In fact, this University had commenced many of these activities prior to the winning bid of Tokyo for 2020 and intends to continue these activities after the 2020 Games. Thus, the involvement of the University of Tsukuba (CORE) in training and policy development in Olympic education offers a significant potential contribution for sustaining positive education or learning legacies in Olympic and Paralympic education even in the post-2020 Tokyo Games.

## Chapter 6. Conclusion

This thesis has sought to identify and evaluate the nature of the conceptualisations of Olympic education and the philosophies underpinning it in the English language research literature on Olympic education and to review the planning of Olympic education policy in practice in terms of development and delivery of programmes in preparation for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. As indicated in Chapter 1, this thesis has adapted a ‘two-part approach’ to examination of the field of Olympic education with adaptation of a meta-narrative review technique, and review of Olympic education policy in practice, particularly examining Olympic education programmes and the development of a system of delivery for Tokyo 2020 by undertaking realist policy evaluation through employing critical realism.

This concluding chapter presents the overall findings through reviewing the following research questions of this thesis:

- 1) What bodies of knowledge and specific research traditions are relevant to the understanding of the nature of Olympic education?
- 2) To what extent are key concepts, theories and methodological approaches for the development of the conceptual framework to inform evaluation of Olympic education initiatives identified?
- 3) How have the various stakeholders in the Japanese Olympic governance system designed and implemented Olympic education programmes and initiatives for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games?
- 4) What is the relationship between generic features of the Olympic education and the culturally specific elements of Japanese Olympic education (system)?
- 5) By applying realist policy evaluation to various Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education programmes, to what extent is there any (explicit or implicit) explanation of the relationship between contexts, mechanisms, and outcomes?

This chapter will identify the research findings, integrating the results of the meta-narrative review with the findings from the case studies. Then, the contribution to knowledge made by the thesis is presented in terms of the field of the research topic, and theoretical and methodological developments. Finally, limitations of the research are presented followed by opportunities for further research building on the approach adopted in the thesis.

## **6.1 Research findings**

### **6.1.1 Implications of the meta-narrative review**

It is evident that the IOC and the relevant bodies have recognised the development and delivery of Olympic education programmes as a policy aim for the Olympic Movement through time. Despite unclear and somewhat broad definition of the concept of Olympic education provided by the IOC, it is obvious that the IOC has highlighted that the range of the field of Olympic education should be expanded from educating young people through the Olympic Games *per se*, and through physical education, to promoting the key elements in the fundamental principles (values of Olympism) including the core Olympic values through various programmes at all levels in school curricula. This directly informs that the host cities and nations of the Olympic Games provide explicit plans for the implementation of Olympic and Paralympic Games.

Before examining the empirical case of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes and system, there was a need to map out the field of Olympic education, clarifying the different interpretations and emphases of the philosophy and its operationalisation of Olympic education in policy and curriculum terms. Through the process of meta-narrative review, six research traditions were identified as follows: educational philosophy; critical sociology; curriculum development; educational psychology; development of evaluation measures; and policy analysis and evaluation (chapter 2 and 3). The identification of the six research traditions which emerged contributes to an enhanced understanding of the field of Olympic education as well as providing the framework for the analysis of the case studies of Tokyo 2020.

There are three key aspects of the Olympic education phenomenon which should be stressed. First, there is a lack of literature addressing the tension between ‘universal’ values and concepts of Olympic education, and the issue of ‘cultural specificity’. While Olympism and Olympic education are proposed as relating to ‘universal’ values (Parry, 2006), its application is invariably culturally specific. In the literature, studies of Olympic education in a number of different national contexts (i.e. Athens 2004, Beijing 2008, London 2012) have been undertaken and critically reviewed, but there is, nevertheless, a lack of understanding of how universal Olympic values and concepts of Olympic education are perceived and communicated in culturally diverse contexts.

Second, a shared concern raised by the six-research traditions is ‘evaluation’. The literature identified from the meta-narrative review has tended to contain discussion of outputs (such as numbers going through the programmes) rather than outcomes (the impact of the programmes on the knowledge, attitude, values and behaviour of those undertaking the programme), thus with a focus on immediate impacts rather than on the achievement of policy and programme goals. In this respect, evaluation can be critical in the development of effective means of devising and meeting goals for Olympic education programmes in culturally diverse contexts.

In addition to this, there is a lack of the study of policy evaluation in terms of directly informing the implementation of theory in general although some studies provide a critical overview and analysis of Olympic education policy and programmes. Thus, particular approaches to identify “what works for whom in what circumstances, to produce what kinds of outcomes?” are needed.

Thus, drawing on these principles identified from the results of the meta-narrative review along with the review of the IOC’s policies on Olympic education practices, Part Two of the thesis was undertaken through realist policy evaluation with the analytic logic models and CMO configurations to address these gaps and further identify the way in which causal mechanisms in the achievement of policy goals will invariably be mediated by contextual factors. In terms of the findings of the case studies, Chapter 5 has discussed under what circumstances different goals made by the six stakeholders under the *All-Japan Structure* engaged in the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education programmes are to be achieved and the analysis identifies the mechanisms of explanation underlying the reality.

### **6.1.2 Interrelationship of the identified meta-narratives and case studies findings**

It is worth answering the key questions emerging from the result of the meta-narratives (as listed in section 3.3) in order to identify the ways in which these meta-narratives exist in the Japanese context and interrelate within Tokyo 2020’s Olympic and Paralympic programmes based on the finding of the case studies from the application of realist evaluation (section 5.8). The key elements of the following questions have informed the ways of undertaking of the semi-structured interviews and document analysis of the case studies of Tokyo 2020.

- Meta-narrative 1. Educational philosophy
  - How have Olympism and the Olympic values been understood in the context of Tokyo 2020 Olympic Games?



- |  |
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| <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- To what extent is there any culturally specific addressing of the Olympic values, Olympic education, and forms of communication in relation to the context of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes?</li></ul> |
|--|

The meta-narrative of *Educational Philosophy* is mainly concerned with the discussion of the underlying contextual perspectives to explain that in what circumstances the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games and further Olympic education programmes have been conceptualised and developed. For example, excellence - one of the three core (universal) Olympic values – was understood as broader and culturally specific concept in the context of Tokyo 2020. “Achieving Personal Best” is one of three concepts forming the *Games Vision* of Tokyo 2020. In the notion behind this concept, Tokyo 2020 intends to strive to deliver the message of excellence through personal best in a variety of fields including sport, culture, education, economy and technology. This is not only related to the athletes’ performance and efforts, but also expanded to cover a broader sense of ‘personal best’ in terms of reference, for example, to adopting world-leading Japanese technologies in developing competition venues and in operating the Olympic Games. In addition to this, all Japanese citizens including volunteers at Tokyo 2020 will welcome visitors from around the world with the spirit of ‘*Omotenashi*’, which refers to hospitality in English but the Japanese way of hosting guests.

Considering the Japanese history of staging the Olympic Games, Japan has sought to use the power of the Olympic Games (sport) in order to recover and reconstruct from post-wars and earthquakes. Tokyo 2020 intends to show the efforts on recovery from the Great East Japan Earthquake of 2011 and communicating Japan’s values such as “harmony is the ultimate virtue” through various actions under the five-pillar system (TOCOG, 2015, p.79) (also see Figure 6.1).

These cultural and historical elements are embedded in Japanese Olympic education programmes. Educational materials such as textbooks for school students included contexts relating to Japanese Olympic history and the contribution of Jigoro Kano to the promotion of the Olympic Movement in Japan to deliver ‘moral values acquired through Judo education and other forms of physical education which could be practised in one’s everyday life’.

Thus, the meta-narratives of educational philosophy in the Japanese context include both universal Olympic values (universality) which intends to be spread worldwide and Japanese cultural and historical values emerging from the case study. It is evident that Olympism and

the Olympic values can be differently interpreted and delivered in different circumstances particularly in the Japanese context as a non-western setting.

- Meta-narrative 2. Critical sociology

- Are there any educational resources or content for the education programmes of Tokyo 2020 including critical thinking or critical perspectives on the Olympic Movement?

There are three themes emerging from the analysis of the literature for the critical sociology category. The first theme is a concern about commercialised Olympic education in educational settings. The second is that there is a lack of critical perspectives on Olympism in Olympic materials and critical thinking, analytic skills and critical literacy among teachers and young people. The last theme is about the importance of the Olympic athletes as part of Olympic education.

The meta-narrative of *Critical Sociology* found in the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education in practice relates to the educational resources and contents. It was not possible to examine how critically the educational materials used for Olympic education programmes have been developed. However, it is evident that that global materials provided by the IOC such as the *OVEP* is considered as not appropriate to be directly adopted in the Japanese education context because the *OVEP* programme is somewhat universal and is not particularly well suited to Japanese culture. Thus, although school teachers make lesson plans for Olympic education programmes themselves, the stakeholders such as the TMG and JSA publish educational materials to provide schools, which include the universal values of Olympic and Paralympics as well as the Japanese culture and traditions. For another example, the NFPSC also developed the Japanese version of *I'mPOSSIBLE* for the Paralympic education programmes. There is a claim that a universal set is required for undertaking Olympic education more widely and easily by use of exemplary education materials such as the *OVEP* (IOC, 2017) so that policy makers and/or teachers can directly utilise for Olympic education integrated in the school curriculum. However, through the investigation of all the cases for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and education programme, the underlying generative mechanisms were based on the empirical investigation.

As identified in critical sociology relating to the involvement of Olympians in Olympic education, there should be an enhanced focus on the education of the athletes to make them

more aware of the nature and the significance of the Olympic values, and the difficulties of realising such goals and values. In the case of JSA's Olympic education programme, *Hello Olympism Programmes* are undertaken by Olympians to raise an understanding of Olympism and conveying the significance of the Olympics and the Olympic values through communications between young people and Olympians.

- Meta-narrative 3. Curriculum development
  - How have the Olympic education programmes of Tokyo 2020 been developed and integrated within the Japanese school curriculum in relation to pedagogical approaches, conceptual design, content, and application strategies for educational resources and programmes?

One of the key meta-narratives in the Olympic education literature relates to the various pedagogical approaches and educational models used for the development Olympic education programme typically in the school curriculum. *Curriculum Development* is a key focus for the development of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programme integrated within the school curriculum.

Japanese development of an Olympic education curriculum has been influenced by national policies. There are two key policies, namely the Sport Basic Plan (MEXT, 2012) and Course of Study (for physical education curriculum guidelines) by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT, 2008). In the Sport Basic Plan, the MEXT announced the introduction of Olympic education as an integral element within the national education curriculum. In the Course of Study announced by the MEXT in 2008, it is stated that third year students of junior high schools are required to learn about the Olympics and Olympism in the physical education class of the national school curriculum. Although the central government through the MEXT has provided the policies related to the guidance of plans and thus provides legitimacy for this requirement, the regional Board of Education ultimately has the authority to decide how the delivery of Olympic education in schools should take place.

Among the six cases of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes studied in this thesis, the TMG's Olympic and Paralympic education programmes include explicit pedagogical

approaches, and strategies to be directly applied to the development of Olympic education curricula along with provision of various educational materials. As presented in the CMO configurations of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programme, the contents and pedagogical goals for Olympic and Paralympic education commonly set out to achieve are categorised as: 1) understanding and appreciation of Olympic knowledge relating to the Olympic and Paralympic Games, Olympism, the Olympic and Paralympic, and sporting values; 2) learning about Japanese culture and tradition in relation to the Olympic Movement; 3) developing international sense and global mindset; and 4) raising the awareness of the Paralympic Games and sports. Thus, Japanese Olympic education can be characterised by reference to Naul's (2008) four orientations, which encompass the *lifeworld orientation*; supplemented with the *knowledge-based orientation*, which incorporates knowledge relating to the Olympic Games and movement; the *experience orientation*, developing cultural understanding through sport and the arts; and the *physical achievement orientation* involving sporting experiences and constant efforts for physical achievement; integrated in the didactic methodologies for Olympic education. In the Japanese curriculum for Olympic education programmes, it is intended to delivery not only universal values of the Olympic and Paralympic Games but also Japanese cultural values and spirit in a number of subjects and learning themes in the school curriculum (rather than simply through physical education and sporting events).

- Meta-narrative 4. Educational psychology
  - To what extent does/will the Tokyo 2020 education programme have an impact on the development of young people's knowledge and behaviours and changing attitudes towards values?

In the educational psychology category, the focus on Olympic education is the ethical dimension of young people's behaviour and producing positive changes in attitudes towards values. The meta-narrative of *Educational Psychology* is related to how the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes will have an impact on the development of young people's knowledge and appreciation of values and changing attitudes towards and manifestations of ethical behaviour.

According to the findings from the CMO configurations, it was clear that the level of interest in the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games is likely to be increased among young

people, producing higher inspirations related to participating in sports. Students and teachers have better understanding about the Olympic and Paralympic related knowledge, and Japanese history and culture relating to the Olympic Movement. Subsequently, it is expected to improve self-esteem, volunteer spirit, positive attitudes towards understanding of people with impairments, and people's ethical standards of behaviour as long-term outcomes. (However, this research was not able to undertake the direct evaluation of the impact of the Japanese Olympic education programmes on young people's knowledge and behaviours and changing attitudes towards values since the outcomes and some of the outputs of the programmes could not be evaluated in the timescale for the research).

- **Meta-narrative 5. Development of evaluation measures**
  - How have the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes been evaluated in terms of the development, implementation, and evaluation of the programmes?

In the literature, the fifth meta-narrative identified relates to 'development of measures' to evaluate the effectiveness of Olympic education programmes. For this meta-narrative of *Development of Evaluation measures*, it was clear that this was a relative weakness in relation to Tokyo 2020. Some of the stakeholders carried out questionnaire surveys to evaluate whether school students were satisfied with Olympic education programmes in overall terms. However, there was a lack of evidence of stakeholders having developed measures for assessing the effectiveness of their practices in Olympic education programmes. Although some of the stakeholders and actors were aware of the need to carry out evaluation of the impacts of the programmes on young people, there was an apparent lack of knowledge of how to develop evaluation measures and where evaluation measures had at least been initiated, they tended to focus on 'outputs' rather than 'outcomes' of the programmes.

- **Meta-narrative 6. Policy analysis and evaluation**
  - What kinds of goals and outcomes are intended to be achieved through the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programme and system?
  - In what ways can we evaluate the planning of Olympic education policy in practice in terms of the development and delivery of Olympic education

programmes and system in preparation for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games?
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The meta-narrative of *Policy Analysis and Programme Evaluation* can be discussed based on the CMO configurations and analytic logic models. In the case of Tokyo 2020, the official Olympic education programme (*Yoi Don!*) was created as an umbrella system rather than an education programme since this programme does not provide educational contents or teaching guidelines for the delivery of the *Yoi Don!* programme in the school curriculum. Instead, the key stakeholders and actors responsible for the governance of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic system under the *All-Japan Structure* have sought to achieve the legacy goals through Olympic education programmes independently as well as cooperatively. Informed by the realist evaluation of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education programmes developed by different stakeholders in specific circumstances (contexts), the ways of the designing and delivery of the Olympic education programmes have been differently generated (mechanisms) and the intended and unintended outcomes have been produced by the associations of context and mechanism. Although this thesis has focused on the system and process of the development of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education programmes rather than identifying the outcomes, the application of realist policy evaluation was significant in addressing of the question of “which outcomes are linked to the intervention and what mechanisms generate the outcomes and what features of the context affect them?”.

### **6.3.3 Implications for the evaluation of Olympic education programmes**

We are concerned with the continuity of Olympic and Paralympic education in practice after the Tokyo 2020 Games. Reflecting on the previous Olympic Games, it is evident that the host city and nation are actively engaged in the development of educational materials and various educational initiatives for staging the successful Games in the planning phase and during the event. After the Games, however, unlike in the pre-Games period, circumstances are changed with the disbanding of organisations (particularly the OCOG), a subsequent lack of political will as politicians in particular move on to other priorities, changes in policy priorities with an accompanying lack of funding. Olympic education programmes for Athens 2004 and Beijing 2008 were integrated in the school curriculum in demonstration schools. Although undertaking Olympic education in the school curriculum is one of the most important operational platforms

for Olympic education (Ren, 2017), it is not likely to have the same level of commitment or even to exist after the Olympic Games. For the London 2012 Games, ‘*Get Set*’ which is considered to be one of the successful Olympic education programmes of recent Olympiads, still continues to operate its website but, unlike pre-Games versions of the website, it remains constrained by a system of registration, commitment to the organisation and its principles and formal recognition procedures (Kohe & Chatziefstathiou, 2017). For Tokyo 2020, along with the TOCOG’s dissolution after the Games, the policy community is less likely to be maintained as the JAS and the TMG indicated that they are uncertain about commitment to implement the Olympic education programmes after the year of 2020. Nevertheless, it is possible for the Olympic education programmes of the University of Tsukuba and the JOC to be continued beyond the Tokyo 2020 Games.

There are some essential conditions for developing a fuller set of evaluation measures to apply to Olympic education programmes outputs and outcomes in practice. Olympic education programmes should be developed in a continuous and long-term process, and thus outputs and outcomes may only emerge over time. Many Olympic education projects and programmes are implemented in a short-term period and/or as a one-time event, and so it becomes difficult to identify the longer-term achievement of outputs and outcomes. Thus, the development of methods poses serious challenges within a time limit, since outputs and, in particular, outcomes will take time to mature. Financial support and specialised resources dedicated over a period of time, along with a long-term plan for Olympic education, would seem to be necessary for the development of appropriate evaluation measures.

## **6.2 Contribution to knowledge**

This research has intended to contribute to knowledge in a number of ways. Firstly, the research represents an innovation to identify the conceptualisation of the field of Olympic education by use of a meta-narrative review. Given the complex nature of defining Olympic education and values, it was necessary to provide an overview of the various concepts of Olympic education in a systematic and explicit manner and to identify the different (implicit) types of research narrative evident in the literature. The meta-narrative review methodology was adapted to map out how Olympic education is being conceptualised based on various bodies knowledge and specific research traditions relevant to the understanding of the nature of Olympic education. As a result of the meta-narrative review, six meta-narratives were identified in the English

language literature on Olympic education. In identifying and tracing the implications of the six meta-narratives, the study seeks to go beyond the systematic review approach to identify the philosophical underpinnings of the methodologies of, and nature of the substantive contributions to the field represented in, each of the meta-narratives. As such this approach is intended to make an original contribution to the literature in its own right.

Secondly, the results of the meta-narrative review directly informed the cross-sectional study of the Olympic education system and programmes under the development in relation to the preparation for the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. The meta-narrative review brings various research traditions together to discuss the same topic of Olympic education from different perspectives, and subsequently its results provided a framework for the application of key principles in the empirical case of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic education programmes. In addition, in developing approaches to the evaluation of policy and programmes relating to Olympic education, it allows us to use a range of expertise, and strengths and weaknesses of each of the meta-narratives thereby informing the empirical investigation, and in particular the process of evaluating, of the 2020 Tokyo Olympic education programmes and system in this thesis.

The research has also contributed to knowledge in developing a critical review of Olympic education programmes in a culturally specific, non-western context. Given that promoting an official Olympic education programme is a compulsory requirement for the host cities and nations to leave a sustainable legacy, it is evident that the development and delivery of Olympic education is a policy aim for the Olympic Movement. However, there was a lack of understanding of how universal values and concepts of Olympic education are perceived and communicated in culturally diverse contexts. Japan represents a particularly interesting context for the study of the Olympic education phenomenon. Provision of Olympic education, within the context of national legislation requiring its introduction into the school curriculum developed by various stakeholders, provides a unique and culturally specific context for its study. Not only its education system, but also the cultural and historical values embedded within Japanese Olympic education programmes derive from the Japanese understanding of Olympism and universal Olympic values based on the Japanese values such as harmony, in particular applied in the effort in the recovery from national disasters, moral values learned from Judo and physical education, and Japanese ways of expressing hospitality. Thus, this case study of Tokyo 2020 acts as an exemplar in the diffusing of ways of developing and delivering the benefits of Olympic education programmes in culturally specific context.



Lastly, this research has contributed to theory. Realist policy evaluation has been applied to the review of various Olympic education programmes developed by different levels of stakeholders and actors composing the *All-Japan Structure* of Tokyo 2020. For the realist evaluation approach to the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes, analytic logic models and CMO configurations were undertaken based on the document analysis and the semi-structured interviews with key stakeholders and actors. This thesis has identified what real associations between Japanese contexts and mechanisms were understood to have generated certain outcomes by comparing and integrating the findings from the case studies. Developing analytic logic models was a critical stage not only for understanding causal relationships between inputs, throughputs, outputs and outcomes but also identifying CMO configurations. It has become evident that reflections from using analytic logic models can form as part of realist evaluation of Olympic education programmes and initiatives. Although descriptive (or traditional) logic models tend to be normative in function, analytic logic models can provide a framework against which to develop heuristic accounts to perform CMO configurations (though ‘discovering’ CMO configurations can also lead to normative accounts of how to achieve desired outcomes).

### **6.3 Limitations and future research**

It is worth citing a number of limitations of the approach adapted to the empirical case studies and indicating how these might be addressed in future research. The first issue to identify is the fact that the empirical case study covers the period of the introduction of Olympic education programmes and policies but because of its timing and length, this study cannot identify and evaluate long term impacts and outcomes of the Olympic education programmes of Tokyo 2020.

This is a function of two issues. The first is that of timing, the research took place at a moment in time before the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games and before the completion of the Tokyo Olympic cycle, and thus the completion of many of the Olympic education projects. The second issue relates to the fact that the length of the research period for the case studies (completed within one calendar year) meant that a longitudinal approach was not possible so that the impact of the Olympic education programme on recipients (i.e. school students) could not be assessed (through the intended impact could be identified). The study of programme development was cross-sectional, and the achievement of impacts anticipated could not be

evaluated. This is a particularly pernicious problem since post-hoc studies of the delivery of Olympic impact, heritage or legacy are rarely undertaken since the delivering agencies (within the hosting city) have few post-Games resources for research and probably see themselves as gaining little from lessons learned post-hoc, after having staged the Games. Perhaps the primary beneficiaries would be future hosting cities, and the IOC as a major stakeholder in the development of Olympic education programmes. Long term longitudinal studies would thus require new forms and new timing for research funding in relation to the phenomenon to cover the period from planning and inputs to outputs and intended long term outcomes.

Notwithstanding these limitations the author would hope that the findings will be seen as making a significant contribution to an understanding of this phenomenon which will be of ongoing importance for the Olympic movement.

For the future research, reflecting upon the limitations of the current research, post-hoc studies relating to evaluation of the impact of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic education programmes on recipients (i.e. school students) are clearly underrepresented in this research. Tokyo 2020 intends to deliver its Olympic education programmes until the Games ends and the University of Tsukuba has plans to continue its programme with laboratory schools well beyond the staging of the Tokyo 2020 Olympics. This context might permit the development of more sophisticated and appropriate methods to evaluate the long-term impacts of such interventions.

Another area of the future research is legacy studies in terms of organisational learning from one Games to the next. In general, given the nature of the development and delivery of Olympic education programme for the Olympic Games, Olympic education programmes may not be continued in post-Games settings. However, continuing investigation of Olympic and Paralympic education programmes and policy learning on the part of the ‘following Olympic Games’ can be considered. The question of how policy learning can be affected, under what circumstances, and by whom, with what effects represents an important potential outcome that could enhance the effectiveness of Olympic education policy in ensuing Games’ hosts.

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## Appendices

### *Appendix A. IOC's policy context of the conceptualisation of Olympic education*

This chapter aims to provide a description of the main features of policies and strategies relating to Olympic education and values, drawn from documents published by the IOC and Olympic bodies. The promotion of Olympic education is a key mission to be achieved by various stakeholders. This is closely linked with the IOC's policies and strategies which are specified in the Olympic Charters (section A.2). The IOC's policies directly affect practices and initiatives developed and implemented by other Olympic bodies such as the International Olympic Academy (section A.3), and two special Commissions; the Olympic Education Commission (section A.4) and the Olympic Solidarity Commission (section A.5). It is important to identify how these relevant bodies have been involved in the promotion of Olympic education. In addition, the issues about what should be delivered through Olympic education have risen. Consequently, the IOC formally published two set of principles such as 'core Olympic values' and the 'Olympic Values Education Programme' (section A.6) and subsequently announced the establishment of the Youth Olympic Games (section A.7).

The following sections will help to understand how the field of Olympic education has been conceptualised by the IOC as well as the relevant Olympic bodies<sup>23</sup> based on specific initiatives and programmes to promote Olympism and the Olympic Movement in compliance with the IOC's policies and strategies.

### **A.2 Olympic education in the Olympic Charters through time**

The focus of this section is on how the IOC has specified the policies and practices of Olympic education in terms of development and delivery to identify how the field of Olympic education has been conceptualised in the Olympic Charters through time.

The Olympic Charter is the codification of the fundamental principles of Olympism, rules, and bye-laws adopted by the IOC. It governs the organisation, action and operation of the Olympic Movement and sets forth the conditions for the celebration of the Olympic Games (IOC, 2017). The Charter, which had been handwritten by Coubertin in 1899 (Müller, 2000), was first

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<sup>23</sup> The relevant Olympic bodies were identified from the analysis of the Olympic Charters in terms of the promotion of Olympic education.

published in 1908 in French, under the title of '*Annuaire du Comité International Olympique*'. Its last revision has been in force as from September 2017. On the IOC website, all the charters through time are available in English except the first seven editions from 1908 to 1924 were in French.

Although all the editions of the annuaire/Charter are regarded as representing examples of the *Olympic Charter* (*Charte Olympique* in French), it is only since 1978 that it has appeared under this title. Before 1978, the IOC divided the Charter into several parts under different titles, for example, '*Olympic Rules and Regulations*', '*Fundamental Principles*', '*Eligibility Rules of the IOC*' rather than a single publication. Thus, it is seen that the versions published before 1978 were composed differently from the current issues of the Olympic Charter. It might not be possible to approach the analysis with a comparative perspective, but it is important to examine previous Olympic Charters in the sense that what elements each publication highlighted and whether there were any changes or outdated elements through time. Hence, in order to understand how the notion of Olympic education has been used and modified, the author has examined all the charters provided on the IOC website.

### **Olympic Charters 1908 – 1950s**

The Charter, which had been handwritten by Coubertin in 1899 (Müller, 2000), was first published in 1908 in French, under the title of '*Annuaire du Comité International Olympique*'. In the 1924 version of the Olympic Charter written in French, the IOC set forth the five Fundamental Principles (*Principes Fondamentaux*) for the first time, highlighting qualifications such as amateurs and equal conditions to take part in the Games and specific types of events for (Summer) Olympic Games (IOC, 1924, p.5). In 1938, two principles related to the introduction of Winter Olympic Games were added to the previous Fundamental Principles of the 1924 version. The full set of the principles, which can be regarded as the earliest version of Fundamental Principles, are as follows (IOC, 1938, p.45):

1. The Olympic Games are celebrated every four years. They assemble the AMATEURS of all nations on an equal footing and under conditions as perfect as possible

2. An Olympiad need not be celebrated but neither the order nor the intervals can be altered. The International Olympiads are counted as beginning from the 1st Olympiad of the modern era celebrated at Athens in 1896
3. The International Committee has the sole right to choose the place for the celebration of each Olympiad
4. The Olympic Games must include the following events: Athletics, Gymnastics, Combative Sports, Swimming, Equestrian Sports, Pentathlons and Art Competitions
5. There is a district Cycle of Olympic Winter Games which are celebrated in the same year as the other Games. Starting from the VIIIth Olympiad they take the title of the First Olympic Winter Games, but the term Olympiad will not be used to describe them
6. The International Olympic Committee fixes the site for the celebration of the Olympic Winter Games, on condition that the National Olympic Committee is able to furnish satisfactory guarantees for the organisation of the Winter Games as a whole
7. Generally speaking, only those who are natives of a country or naturalised subjects of that country are qualified to compete in the Olympic Games under the colours of that country

These principles remained unchanged until the year of 1949, when the IOC added one more principle in terms of that all profits and funds from the hosting the Olympic Games were paid to the host country's National Olympic Committee for the promotion of the Olympic Movement or the development of amateur sport (IOC, 1949).

It is evident that the Fundamental Principles in early years were focused on the Olympic rules, regulations, and qualification (amateurs) while the Fundamental Principles specified in the Olympic Charters of these days deal with the goal of Olympism, Olympic Movement and values. In addition to this, educational ideas were largely missing in the Charters before 1950s.

However, when the IOC published the English Olympic Charter, entitled *the IOC and the Modern Olympic Games* in 1933, they defined how the Modern Olympic Games were revived

based on the Coubertin's educational goals to achieve through the Olympic Games and the responsibilities of the Olympic bodies including NOCs and IFs and general information on the Olympic Games. A quote extracted from the Charter encapsulated the purpose of the revival of the Modern Olympic Games as well as the mission of the IOC organisations related to education (IOC, 1933):

The International Olympic Committee, which was re-established in Paris in 1894 by Baron Pierre de Coubertin, proposed to ensure after 1896 the regular celebration of the Modern Olympic Games and to take all proper steps to conduct modern athletics in the right way, by fostering the spirit of chivalry, love of 'fair plays' reverence for true amateurism and by getting the help of the official authorities. It is their task to organise Physical Education, to open playing where every citizen can train himself or practise any kind of physical culture which every essential at all times for the health of every man or women. (p.6)

It is clear that the IOC intended to promote such elements as 'spirit of chivalry', 'fair play', 'amateurism (despite outdated value)', and 'physical education' through the Olympic Games. The IOC also highlighted the responsibility for making educational institutions by stating "universities, colleges, schools, the officials (should) realise the importance of physical education and be more appreciative of the part that sport may play in the organisation of the world at large" (IOC, 1933, p.6). This is also one of the key concepts (currently considered) of the way in which Olympic education is promoted by various levels of educational institutions and relevant organisations although it seems the focus of education was still on physical or sport education at that time. During the next two decades until the mid of 1950s, the IOC focused on elaborating the Olympic rules and regulations, and in particular policies and information for cities which desire to host the Olympic Games.

In 1955 version of the Charter, candidature questionnaires for the cities and nations to undertake were officially added for the evaluation process (IOC, 1955). The questions in the questionnaire were concerned with eligibility of the candidate city and nation, and technical issues such as stadium and the Olympic village, which indicates the promotion of Olympism and educational values was not required for a candidate city.

## **Olympic Charters 1960 – 1977**

In the 1960s, the IOC strengthened regulations related to the NOC for the promotion of education programmes as the IOC defined the NOCs as “the organisations formed not for pecuniary profit but devoted to the promotion and encouragement of the physical, moral and cultural education of the youth of the nation, for the development of character, good health and good citizenship” (IOC, 1962, p.16).

Along with the NOC’s responsibility for promoting educational programmes for young people, the IOC established the ‘International Olympic Academy’ in 1961, to create an international cultural centre at Olympics, site of the ancient Games thereby studying and promoting the social, educational, aesthetic, ethical and spiritual values of the Olympic Movement (IOC, 1966). One of the main activities of the IOA was to hold Sessions for students and young participants to learn various topics about the Olympics. Coubertin never coined the term of Olympic Education, as discussed, and the IOC did not define Olympic education in the Charters that were examined from the first version to those published up to 1960s. However, Müller firstly mentioned ‘Olympic Education’ at the 16<sup>th</sup> International Olympic Academy Session held in 1976 (Müller, 1977).

Thirty years after their revival, and although the Olympic Games have acquired considerable importance, the initial aim of Coubertin, that is the moral improvement of mankind through an Olympic Education of both the body and the mind, has not been attained. (p.95)

Around that time, for the Munich 1972 Olympic Games, German schools taught the topic of the Olympic Games in classroom with textbooks with a selection of poems and short writings about sports and the Olympics (Naul et al., 2017a, 2017b). Similarly, for the Montreal 1976 Olympic Games, a school resource package in the French language was developed, based on an academic exploration of ancient and modern Olympic history and the de Coubertin ideals (Binder, 2017). These two educational initiatives were regarded as the first implementation of Olympic education, which may have attracted the attention of the IOC.

## **Olympic Charters 1978-1990**

In the year of 1978, the IOC adopted only a single publication of the Olympic Charter. Reflected on that significant actions for the promotion of Olympic education by the host cities and nations with the IOA's educational programmes in the 1970s, the Fundamental Principles were amended by newly adding the aims of the Olympic movement to the top of the existing principles in the previous set of the principles (IOC, 1978, p.4), which were the same four aims of the Olympic Movement specified by the IOC in 1894 (Binder, 2001), as follows:

1. To promote the development of those physical and moral qualities which are the basis of sport;
2. To educate young people through sport in a spirit of better understanding between each other and of friendship, thereby helping to build a better and more peaceful world;
3. To spread the Olympic principles throughout the world thereby creating international goodwill; and
4. To bring together the athletes of the world in a great four-yearly festival of sport

This was the first time that the IOC put 'educating young people' as one of the aims of the Olympic Movement. It does not mean that the IOC had overlooked values from educating the youth through the Olympics. The IOC was not the main body to lead the promotion of Olympism and values, however, by making the NOCs realise the importance of physical education and sport education and promote educational programmes in their nations instead.

In addition, the following publication of the Olympic Charter (IOC, 1979) made a few suggestions with regard to how to develop and implement educational initiatives:

All NOCs should celebrate the revival of the Olympic Games each year during the month of June in observing an "Olympic Day" or "Olympic Week". In this connection, special competitions in the various sports on the Olympic Programme should be held and speeches on the Olympic Movement and its philosophy should be made in schools and clubs. (p.109)

For the benefit and welfare of citizens, this committee (the IOC) will assist the government to initiate and carry out a programme of physical culture, recreation

and health for the youth of its country...Teaching Olympic Principles in the public schools is recommended. This committee will provide the necessary documentation. (p.111)

It can be seen that the IOC did not propose explicit guidelines or initiatives for developing Olympic education programmes. However, this provides that the Olympic educational programmes developed and implemented in 'schools' for the purpose of educating young people as a starting point.

In addition, around this time, there were debates on amateurism that the IOC intended to promote through the Olympic Games. Although it was one of the central ideals of Coubertin's revival, the true Olympic amateur turned out to be a hopelessly idealistic goal because it is not possible to define what an amateur is given that every country depending on the sport at issue, social and cultural circumstances create different types of Olympic participants (Müller, 2000). Consequently, in the 1982 version of the Olympic Charter, there was no reference to the word of 'amateur' and 'amateurism', and consequently the IOC abolished 'amateur' athletes participating in the 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games and promoting the philosophy of amateurism for educational purposes was removed in the Olympic Charter (IOC, 1984).

### **Olympic Charters 1991 – Current**

The 1991 version of the Olympic Charter was the first to attempt to define Olympism and Olympic education described as follows in the fundamental principles (IOC, 1991, p.7):

Fundamental Principle 2. Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy found in effort, the educational value of good example and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles

Fundamental Principle 3. The goal of Olympism is to place everywhere sport at the service of the harmonious development of man, with a view to encouraging human dignity.

...

Fundamental Principle 6. The goal of the Olympic Movement is to contribute to building a peaceful and better world by educating youth through sport practised without discrimination of any kind and in the Olympic spirit, which requires mutual understanding with a spirit of friendship, solidarity and fair-play

While the previous versions of the Olympic Charters had consisted of the rights of the IOC, responsibilities of the stakeholders and the IOC bodies, and rules and regulations of the Olympic Games, this modified version of the Olympic Charter published in 1991 did shed light on the IOC's direction to the focus on promoting Olympic education with delivery of values such as friendship, fair play, joy of effort, mutual understanding and harmonious development of body and mind. Since 1991, the statements in the principles have been slightly amended in terms of the order but the fundamentals have remained unchanged up to the latest issue of the Olympic Charter (IOC, 2017).

Apart from the introduction of Olympism and Olympic education in the Charters (1991 to 2017), it identified the roles of the IOC bodies (including the IOC itself) which should be responsible for developing concepts of Olympic education and delivering programmes at different levels and in different contexts of schooling. One example is Olympic Solidarity and the IOC (IOC, 1991) highlighted that the objectives of the programmes developed by Olympic Solidarity contribute to:

Collaborating with the various IOC Commissions, particularly with the Commission for the IOA, the Medical Commission, the Sport for All Commission and the Commission for the Olympic Programme, as well as the organisations and entities pursuing such objectives, particularly through Olympic education and propagation of sport. (p.11)

Olympic Solidarity had focused on three areas; supporting and promoting athletes, training and further education of coaches, and the corresponding qualification of personnel to manage and administrate the NOCs, especially in the developing countries under the periods of Samaranch's presidency (1980-2001). With respect to the support for the promotion of Olympic education, there were huge changes in the programmes from the second quadrennial period (2001-2004) and onwards the adopting of the '*World Programmes*'. The actions related to the promotion of Olympic education developed by Olympic Solidarity are discussed in Section A.5.



In addition, since 1991, the IOC has strengthened the policies and initiatives of the stakeholders by supplementing the role of the IFs as “contributing to the achievement of the goals set out in the Olympic Charter, in particular by way of the spread of Olympism and Olympic Education” and so in the mission and roles of the IOC itself, NOCs, IOA, and Olympic Solidarity.

The latest version of the Olympic Charter (IOC, 2017), which remains unchanged since 2004, addresses how Olympic education is conceptualised from the perspective of the policy makers and should be developed by not only stakeholders or Olympic bodies but also schools. The following quote concerning the role of the NOCs provides an understanding of the conceptualisation of Olympic education (IOC, 2017):

To promote the fundamental principles and values of Olympism by promoting Olympic educational programmes in all levels of schools, sports, and physical education institutions and universities as well as by encouraging the creation of institutions dedicated to Olympic education, such as NOAs, Olympic Museums, and other programmes including cultural[sic], related to the Olympic Movement.  
(p.59)

It is evident that the question of how effectively Olympic education can be developed and delivered is one of the essential topics discussed among policy makers. Increasingly it has been recognised particularly in the cooperative campaigns of the three constituents of the Olympic Movement (the IOC, NOCs and IFs) that Olympic education programmes may be most effective when integrated within school curricula.

### **A.3 International Olympic Academy (IOA) and National Olympic Academies (NOAs)**

The International Olympic Academy (IOA) is a unique international educational and cultural institution, which aims to promote Olympic ideals, and develop and implement Olympic education. Back to 1940s, John Ketseas and Carl Diem, with support of the Hellenic Olympic Committee and the IOC, established an academic centre, adjacent to the original site of the ancient Games in Olympia, which became the IOA (IOA, 2017). On April 28, 1949, the 44<sup>th</sup> IOC Session in Rome approved the establishment of the IOA and assigned its implementation and operation to the Hellenic Olympic Committee under the patronage of the IOC. The first IOA Session for students and young participants was held in 1961 on the field where the ancient stadium of Olympia was located. The mission of the IOA is listed as follows (IOA, 2017):

1. To function as an International Academic Centre for Olympic Studies, Education and Research
2. To act as an International Forum for free expression and exchange of ideas among the Olympic Family, intellectuals, scientists, athletes, sport administrators, educators, artists and the youth of the world
3. To motivate people to use the experiences and knowledge gained in the IOA productively, in promoting the Olympic Ideals in their respective countries
4. To bring together people from all over the world, in a spirit of friendship and cooperation
5. To serve and promote the Ideals and principles of the Olympic Movement
6. To cooperate with and assist the National Olympic Academies and any other institutions devoted to Olympic Education; and to further explore and enhance the contribution of Olympism to humanity

Based on the mission, the IOA has contributed to a great extent to a remarkable growth in the development and implementation of various programmes undertaken within the Olympic Movement (Kidd, 1996). For example, along with the IOA Sessions, the IOA have held international sessions for educators and staff of higher institutes of physical education and sports journalists (since 1986); international sessions for directors of NOCs, NOAs, and IFs (since 1986); special sessions for postgraduate students (since 1993); and a Master's degree programme (since 2009).

The foundation of the IOA directly influenced the necessity of establishing a National Olympic Academy. Since the first National Olympic Academy (NOA) was introduced in Spain in 1968, currently there are over 140 NOAs in the world today<sup>24</sup>. The IOA, acting as a coordinator, provides guidelines for the promotion of the Olympic programmes of the IOA taking into consideration the fact that educational systems differ among different countries and that the structure and operation of NOCs and NOAs reflect those differences (IOA, 2018).

According to Naul et al. (2017a), there have been various topics and themes in educational initiatives and activities undertaken by the IOAs and NOAs in the last 40 years. The NOAs that

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<sup>24</sup> There is a list of the NOAs on the website <http://ioa.org.gr/noa/>

were established in early years (e.g. Germany, UK, France, and Spain) focused on topics related to Olympic studies: Olympic history, philosophy, sociology, and analysis topics related to the Olympic Games (athletes, sport development, marketing, and legacy). General support for national elite athletes was a major interest from several NOAs, particularly in the USA. With the recognition that school-based/curriculum-based programmes could be enhanced using the Olympics as a context, Canada for Calgary 1988 focused on school and community-based activities and teacher and coach training from the 1990s onwards. Different extra-curricular youth sport activities (e.g. Olympic Day) in such countries as Australia, Japan, and Brazil and in direct cooperation with municipalities, regional and central state authorities in education, sport and health are now common.

Despite various forms of Olympic education initiatives developed and delivered by the NOAs with the support of the IOA and its NOCs, the NOCs of some countries such as New Zealand, Canada, and USA<sup>25</sup> have terminated support for their NOAs. Naul et al. (2017a) claim that this is because of “the principal goal of winning Olympic medals and a reduction of interest and commitment to educational responsibilities” (p.355).

#### **A.4 Olympic Education Commission**

This section outlines the way in which the organisation and roles of the IOC Commission for Olympic Education have been developed and examines how these changes have influenced the way of Olympic education programmes have been conceptualised in practice.

After the IOA was established, the IOC created a special commission, the IOC Commission for the International Olympic Academy<sup>26</sup> in 1967 and the aim of the creation was to link the IOA with the IOC, Olympic Solidarity and the Olympic Movement in general (IOA, 2007). From the creation of the Commission to the late of 1990s, the IOA played an important role as a leading body for the promotion of Olympic education by spreading a message of Olympism

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<sup>25</sup> The U.S. Olympic Academy was re-established in the year of 2014 although its programmes are focused on how to develop and support elite athletes and it is still not listed on the IOA website. It aims is that the U.S Olympic Academy seeks to cultivate and grow the social principles of Olympism in the United States by teaching and empowering U.S. Olympic and Paralympic athletes to act as ambassadors of Olympism (Psimopoulos, 2017).

<sup>26</sup> The name of the Commission of the International Olympic Academy was changed to the Commission of the International Olympic Academy and Olympic education in 1993, reflecting the increased emphasis on Olympic education (Grasso et al., 2015).

through a variety of education programmes for various target groups (e.g. athletes, officials, coaches, journalists, educators, postgraduate students).

The Commission for the IOA, however, merged with the IOC Cultural Commission in 2000, became the Commission for Culture and Olympic Education, following the recommendations of the *IOC 2000 Reforms* (IOC, 1999). In the IOC 2000 Reforms, the IOC focused on the changes in the composition of the Commission that included not only the IOC members and representatives of the NOAs but also specialists with the resources to coordinate and communicate all the educational activities of the IOC and its partners (Recommendation 30), the expansion of the Olympic Studies programmes to universities around the world and increased internet publication of documentations (e.g. the Olympic Review and the Official Reports of the Olympic Games) (Recommendation 31), and highlighting collaboration between the IOC and the OCOGs, through the actions of the Culture and Education Commission, in areas of culture and education (Recommendation 32).

Under the single commission, synergies resulting from collective efforts on the development of programmes relating to education and culture could be expected. For example, the IOC held a series of World Forums on sport, education and culture, first two ‘the Sport-culture Forum (1997)’ and ‘the IOC and its Cultural Policy Forum (2000)’ held in Lausanne before the merging of these entities. The world forums represented the basis of the Commission’s work and at each forum recommendations were adopted by the participants setting out the vision of the Olympic Movement’s work in terms of education and culture for the following two years (IOC, 2008b). The forum continued up to the year of 2012 and were held in other European and Asian cities.

Despite the contribution to the Olympic Movement under the existence of one single Commission, the specific activities and programmes were operated and developed respectively. The Commission’s policy had two aims (IOC, 2008b, p.11):

1. To develop the link between sport and culture in all its forms, encouraging cultural exchange and promoting the diversity of cultures
2. To promote Olympic education and support other institutions which promote the values of Olympism

It was apparent that the IOC intended to cover two separate purposes under the same Commission. The Commission had a two-day annual meeting, the first day it divided into four

working groups (working group of the IOA; working group for Olympic education; working group for programme development; and working group for sport, art, literature, photography and music) and the second day as a full Commission (IOC, 2008b).

As MacAloon (2011) claimed, the IOC 2000 Reforms and the relevant policies framed the IOC's consideration of education, cultural and ritual issues as being central to reviewing the IOC's social legitimacy and moral authority. However, it did not stand to benefit from the integrated Commission with the separate actions based on the different aims.

In the 126<sup>th</sup> IOC Session in Monaco in 2014, the IOC President with the IOC Executive Board reviewed the scope and composition of the IOC Commissions. One of the main changes was that the Culture and Olympic Education Commission was divided into two separate Commissions again: the Olympic Education Commission and the Culture and Olympic Heritage Commission (IOC, 2014d). In doing so, the IOC aimed to ensure greater efficiency, taking into account the specifications of each field, education and culture respectively.

The Olympic Education Commission was officially formed in 2015 with the mission of “advising the IOC Session, the IOC Executive Board and the IOC President on the promotion of Olympic values-based education and providing strategic direction on IOC programmes and activities related to the education of youth through sport” (IOC, 2018). The responsibilities of the Olympic Education Commission are to advise on (IOC, 2018):

1. The development and implementation of an Olympic values education strategy
2. Advocacy for quality physical education and the integration of values in school curricula, and for suitable and age appropriate sports in and out of school settings
3. Dissemination of the Olympic values in various communication channels, and the promotion of the importance of sport and physical activity for youth development and education
4. Delivery of the Olympic Values Education Programme, and development of resources for teachers and educators on Olympic values and life skills
5. Integration of values education into IOC properties and partner programmes such as the Athlete Career Development Programme, Massive Online Open Courses, YOG, OCOGs and WADA

6. Optimisation of strategic partnerships with IOC-recognised organisations working in the field of education, and support Sport for Development programmes which focus on the development of life skills and values education

Consequently, compared to the aim and responsibilities of the Commission for Culture and Olympic Education, those of the Olympic Education Commission were set out to be more focused on the educational elements and values, and explicit policies, providing strategic directions for the Olympic bodies to develop and implement Olympic education programmes. In addition, the nature of Olympic educational programmes is distinct from that of cultural programmes in the sense that educational programmes involve pedagogical goals, teaching methods, and different ways of delivery depending on target groups while cultural initiatives are mainly undertaken from cultural programmes such as the opening ceremony, torch relay, and other cultural activities.

Taking into consideration throughout the organisational changes in the Commission related to Olympic education, it is evident that there has been considerable progress in terms of the proposals for the development of Olympic education through various platforms in collaboration work. It also highlights the necessity of considering pedagogical perspectives and strategies in Olympic education. These are distinct from ‘cultural’ related programmes and policies of the IOC despite both delivering of the message of Olympism as the ultimate goal in the Olympic Movement.

### **A.5 Olympic Solidarity Commission**

This section aims to examine how the Olympic Solidarity Commission was established and has been involved in developing and implementing Olympic education by promoting Olympic values through time. In 1971, the Olympic Solidarity Committee was formed with the recognition of the IOC under the presidency of Avery Brundage. The origin of the Olympic Solidarity Committee as a joint organisation between the IOC and NOCs was the result of the merger of the International Olympic Aid Committee (IOAC) which had been created for providing support to the countries of Asia and Africa and the International Institute for Development which sought to find ways for the development of NOCs (Olympic Solidarity, 2006). In the 1960s and 1970s, more than 50 new NOCs were founded in countries that had very few resources to develop sport in their countries. Although efforts continued with the aim of improving assistance to NOCs, there was a lack of financial resources and large-scale

permanent actions were in need. Thus, the IOC decided to grant 20% of revenues from television rights to the NOCs in 1979 (Olympic Solidarity, 2017, p.5).

In 1980, the new president of the IOC, Juan Antonio Samaranch, brought about a radical change in the concept, focus and projects of Olympic Solidarity. In the following year, at the 11th Olympic Congress, the Olympic Solidarity Commission was created by the agreement of the IOC and the Association of National Olympic Committees (Olympic Solidarity, 2006).

From the Los Angeles Games in 1984, the increasing income generated from television rights made it possible to take further steps forward, progressing from a general subsidy. As a consequence, the Olympic Solidarity Commission as an independent entity suggested a four-year plan for Olympic Solidarity programmes, starting from the 1997 – 2000 quadrennial (Olympic Solidarity, 1997). During the period of Samaranch's presidency (1980-2001), there were three main areas supported by Olympic Solidarity: supporting athletes, training and further education of coaches, and the corresponding qualification of personnel to manage and administrate the NOCs in the countries of Africa, Asia, Oceania and South America. They were focused on the development of athletes, coaches and assistance of administration but not on promoting Olympic values through Olympic education in the early period.

With respect to the support for the promotion of Olympic education, there were huge changes in the programmes from the second quadrennial period (2001-2004) and onwards (Olympic Solidarity, 2001). In 2000, the Commission divided the areas of programmes into four areas which covered the three existing main streams related to athletes' development, training of coaches and sport administrators while the category 'Special Fields' was newly added to '*World Programmes* (having been previously entitled *Programmes of the NOCs*)'. In particular, in the category Special Fields, the Culture and Education programme along with the NOC Legacy was first introduced in order to support activities launched by the Commission and to help the NOCs with progress specifically linked with culture and education (Olympic Solidarity, 2001).

In order to help the NOCs fulfil their role in promoting and disseminating Olympic values and ideals, two new programmes on culture and education and on the preservation of national sports legacies were offered. (p.6)

There had been a contribution to the promotion and dissemination of Olympism run jointly with the IOA but rarely working with the NOCs before then. Thus, it is apparent that since 2000, Olympic Solidarity Commission has been moving into Olympic education by supporting

activities launched by the Commission as well as the NOCs. The programme of ‘Promotion of the Olympic Values’ in the latest plan of 2017-2020 aims to (Olympic Solidarity, 2017):

To provide assistance to NOCs to implement Olympic values-based education and life skills programmes, develop cultural activities, disseminate and gain knowledge on the fundamental principles of Olympism, and preserve the national Olympic and sporting legacy. (p.7)

There is evidence that the Olympic Solidarity has conceptualised Olympic education as reflected in the IOC’s policies, the Olympic Charter and Agenda 2020. Olympic Solidarity came to play a significant role in working with the NOCs for the development and implementation of Olympic education programmes. The Olympic Solidarity Commission has been successful in maintaining various programmes and has been progressive in terms of promoting Olympic values by assisting NOCs in the implementation of programmes in each country. However, there is a lack of evaluation of the outcomes and impacts on the development and implementation of Solidarity’s programmes although the Commission with the IOC has published sufficient documentation. Its final reports provide partial results of the number of participants in physical activities or cultural events, and of budgets distributed to each programme. There is a need of further evaluation work on what kind of Olympic values have been promoted in what circumstances and for whom.

## **A.6 Core Olympic Values and Olympic Values Education Programme (*OVEP*)**

This section aims to identify what values of Olympism or Olympic values, have been prioritised by the IOC in the development and delivery of Olympic education programmes through analysis of two publications in which core Olympic values and educational values were introduced by the IOC.

Although the IOC brought in various policies relating to the practice of Olympic education, the concept of what precisely was to be disseminated through Olympic education and how to develop Olympic education programmes in school curricula was unclear. In the Fundamental Principles section of the Olympic Charters, the IOC listed a number of values of Olympism, but did not define the meaning of Olympic values. Thus, there was a need to develop a standard model for the Olympic bodies in particular for those who are responsible for developing education programmes or activities, and for delivering them in educational settings.



The IOC devised a strategy aimed at maintaining young people's interest in sport, encouraging them to practise sport, and promoting Olympic values. "The Olympic values reflect the notion of 'sport as a school of life' as Coubertin wanted when he revived the Olympic Games" explains Jacques Rogge (IOC, 2008a). In one of the issues of *Olympic Review*, Maass (2007, p.30) set out three core values which include 'excellence', 'friendship' and 'respect'. These values are defined as follows:

Excellence: This value means doing the best we can on the field of play or in our professional life. The important thing is not winning, but taking part, making progress and enjoying the healthy combination of body, mind and will.

Friendship: This value encourages us to consider sport as a tool for mutual understanding among individuals and people from all over the world. The Olympic Games inspire humanity to overcome political, economic, gender, racial or religious difference and forge friendships in spite of those differences.

Respect: This value incorporates respect for oneself, one's body for others or the rules and regulations, for sport and the environment. Related to sport, respect stands for fair play and for the fight against doping and any other unethical behaviour.

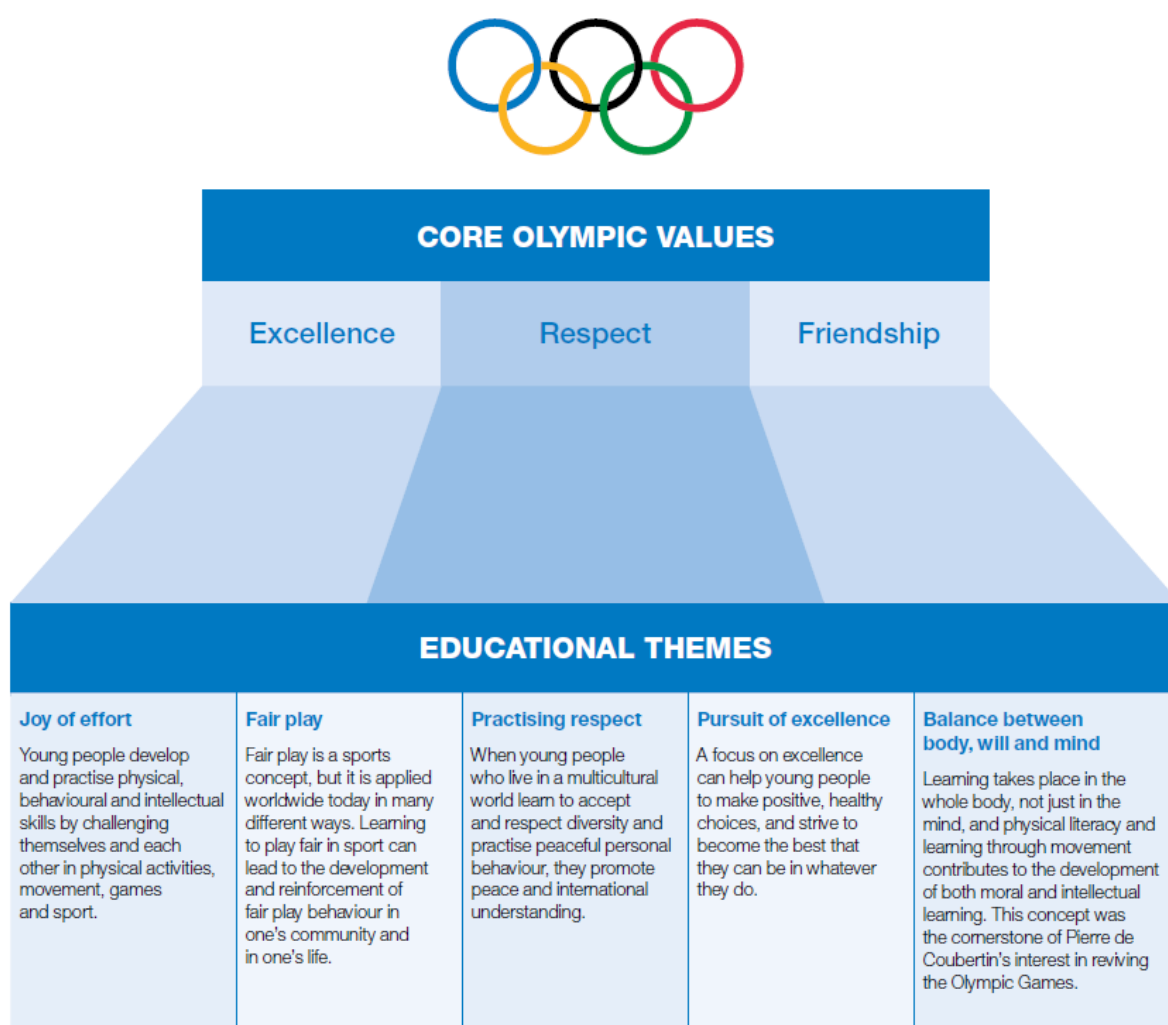
These values are the foundation upon which the Olympic Movement brings together sport, culture and education for the betterment of human beings based on the Coubertin's educational belief. According to the explanation of the IOC (IOC, 2007), these three core values are conveyed through the Olympic symbols. The motto (Faster, Higher, Stronger in English) embodies 'excellence' by encouraging athletes to strive to do their best. The flame symbolises 'friendship' between people with the torch relay usually travelling through different countries in the world. Olympic rings represent 'respect', bringing all nations and all five continents together without discrimination.

The IOC intends to promote the three core values as 'universal' values through Olympic education programmes. Since the introduction of these core values, the core values have been considered as essential values when it comes to designing Olympic education programmes in particular by the OCOGs and NOCs (NOAs). For example, *Get Set*, the Olympic education programmes of the London 2012 Olympic Games adopted the three core values along with the four Paralympic values – determination, courage, inspiration, and equality as key themes.

In the same year that the IOC devised the core Olympic values, the IOC, reflecting on the recommendation made by the Commission for Culture and Olympic education, decided to develop a global youth strategy for developing nations which did not have the funding or human resources to develop their own Olympic education materials (Binder, 2001).

With a sponsor generated donation running over for years (2005-2009) from Raymond Goldsmith, International Sports Multimedia Limited (ISM), the *Olympic Values Education Programme (OVEP)* was developed in 2007 (IOC, 2014a, p.1). The *OVEP* consisted of two parts: a teaching toolkit, which was developed by Binder (2007) on behalf of the IOC, and a collection of initiatives around world, together with a web-based database available through the IOC website. The focus was on how to teach and learn the educational values of Olympism, not on Olympic facts and information. For the first time, the five educational themes of Olympism were introduced: 'joy of effort', 'play fair', 'practising respect', 'pursuit of excellence' and 'balance between body, will and mind' which flowed from the three core Olympic Values (see Figure below). These educational values are to be promoted when it comes to the utilisation of *OVEP*. Basically, the *OVEP* includes theoretical background and activities relating to each of the five educational themes of Olympism and these activities are intended to help learners understand these themes and put them into practice.

**Figure Core Olympic values and educational themes**



(Source: IOC, 2016c, p.18)

A second edition of *OVEP* was published in 2016. The updated version of *OVEP* aimed to disseminate a values-based curriculum that shapes the development of child and youth character (IOC, 2016c). The *OVEP* has four key resources: The Fundamentals of Olympic Values Education (A Sports-Based Programme); Delivering *OVEP* Playbook (A Practical Guide to Olympic Values Education); Activity Sheets (Exercises to Support Olympic Values Education); and the Resource Library.

There are some benefits as well as critiques. The Activity Sheets in the second edition of *OVEP* are differentiated to meet the developmental capabilities of students from the primary years (ages 5-8) to the upper years of secondary High School (ages 15-18) by adapting for different age groups. It is evident that the intended goal for Olympic values education can be achieved

by utilising them in and out of school curricula. It can be put into action by teachers and instructors, coaches and sports clubs, governments and educational authorities, members of the Olympic Family, and even parents at home. Thus, they do not need to develop their own teaching materials for the implementation of Olympic education as the *OVEP* is intended in effect to be ‘ready to use’.

However, there are some critiques raised in terms of a lack of critical analysis on the Olympic related issues, implicit teaching methodologies, and uniform materials designed regardless of cultural differences. First of all, the contents embedded in the toolkit and activity sheets, focus somewhat on positive aspects and are not critically designed. The toolkit largely neglects salient Olympic issues related to politics, economics, corruption, gender, and racism and anti-Olympic attitudes, behaviours and beliefs of athletes and officials. Secondly, as Binder (2012) has claimed, since the teaching methodologies are implicit within the learning activities of the toolkits, individuals without training in current teaching methods, or those who are only familiar with the explicit instructions of training manuals might find it difficult to use. Lastly, it makes sense to provide uniform materials which are globally used in many countries in particular in which there are some difficulties in developing and implementation of their own Olympic education. The *OVEP* has come to be widely considered as an exemplary source of Olympic education materials or programmes and has been translated into various languages. Nevertheless, there might be concerns about the application of the *OVEP* materials directly in classroom because of different understandings of Olympic values and Olympism based on different cultures and educational systems.

## **A. 7 The Youth Olympic Games**

This section presents how the elements of Olympic education have been integrated in the Youth Olympic Games (YOG) and directly applied to its Culture and Education Programmes (CEP). The IOC accepted a proposal to organise the YOG at its 119<sup>th</sup> Session in Guatemala in 2007 (IOC, 2012a). The creation of the YOG is an explicit effort on the part of the IOC to promote Olympic education with the vision to ‘inspire young people around the world to participate in sport, and to live by the Olympic values’ (IOC, 2012a, p.1). To achieve the vision of the YOG, eight actions were set out as follows:

1. To bring together the world’s best young athletes and to celebrate them

2. To offer a unique and powerful introduction to Olympism
3. To innovate in educating about the Olympic values and debating the challenging society
4. To share and celebrate the cultures of the world in a festive atmosphere
5. To reach youth communities throughout the world to promote the Olympic values
6. To raise awareness among young people of sport and the practice of sport
7. To act as a platform for initiatives within the Olympic Movement
8. To be an event of the highest international sporting standard for young people

It embraces sport, culture and education with the fundamental principles of Olympism outlined in the Olympic Charter as 'blending sport with culture and education'. It made an attempt to return to the Coubertin's creed of educating youth through sport although the YOG is an elite sporting event for talented young athletes aged from 15 to 18, held every four years like the Olympic Games. Thus, the YOG is distinguished from other youth sports events in the sense that the YOG integrates a unique Cultural and Education Programme (CEP), based on five main themes: Olympism, Social Responsibility, Skills Development, Expression and Well-being and Healthy Lifestyles. Based on these five themes, the CEP is adapted to each host country's unique identity and creativity and offers various interactive activities such as workshops, discussion groups, excursions and team-building exercise (IOC, 2011, p.26).

It also has elements distinctive from the Olympic Games, given that 'promoting Olympic values' is clearly stated and highlighted in the list of the actions that the host organisation should take through the staging of the YOG. Another difference of the YOG from the Olympic Games is that there is little activation by most TOP sponsors at the YOG (Hanstad et al., 2013). As a result of this, the CEP in the first summer YOG, Singapore 2010 contained 50 activities and the CEP in the first Winter YOG, Innsbruck 2012 contained 22 activities (IOC, 2012a). Compared to educational programmes for the Olympic Games, the CEP of the YOG has a certain target group which is young athletes participating in the games and various but focused activities based on different themes are created and conducted by the host organisation with the IOC. Considering that the YOG is still in the early stages, little scholarly research is found but most research identified focuses on the implementation and evaluation of the CEP of the YOG (Krieger & Kristiansen, 2016; Schnitzer et al., 2014; Wong, 2012).

*Appendix B. Data extraction form*

Data Extraction Form	
Author / Title of Paper	
<b>A. Is the paper relevant to our research question and worthy of further consideration?</b>	
<b>1. Relevance:</b> Is the paper about Olympic education?	
<b>2. Worth:</b> Does the paper go beyond superficial description or commentary?	
<b>B. How does the paper fit into our taxonomy?</b>	
Academic Discipline	
Type of paper	
Focus of analysis	
<b>C. Appraisal questions</b>	
<b>1. Research questions/aims:</b> Did the paper address a clear research question?	
<b>2. Literature:</b> Was relevant background literature reviewed?	
<b>3. Research Design:</b> What was the study design and was this appropriate to the research question?	
<b>4. Context:</b> What was the context of the study? Was this sufficiently well described that the findings can be related to other setting?	
<b>5. Sampling:</b> Did the researcher include sufficient cases/ settings/ observations?	
<b>6. Data collection:</b> Was the data collection process systematic and thorough?	
<b>7. Data analysis:</b> Were the data analysed systematically and rigorously?	
<b>8. Results:</b> What are the main results and in what way are they interesting or suspect?	
<b>9. Conclusions:</b> Did the author(s) draw a clear link between data and explanation (theory)? Have the findings contributed to theory, development and future practice/research?	
<b>10. Critical factors:</b> What factors does the paper identify as critical to the development of Olympic education?	
<b>D. Bottom line for this review</b>	
<b>1. Relevance:</b> Does the paper have an important message to our research question?	1) Essential to include 2) Relevant but not essential 3) Marginal relevance
<b>2. Research Tradition</b>	1) Educational psychology 2) Development of educational measurement 3) Curriculum Development 4) Policy analysis and evaluation 5) Critical sociology 6) Educational philosophy 7) others ( )

### Appendix C. Example of semi-structured interview questions

<b>Interview 6</b>		Date: 03/07/2017
Interviewer	Bora Hwang	
Interviewee	Tokyo Metropolitan Government	
Language	English	
Interview time	14.00 – 15.30	
<b>Aim</b> This interview is for a case study of TMG’s contribution to the development and delivery of Olympic education		
<b>Objectives</b> 1) To understand what kind of practices they have implemented 2) To understand how the practices(activities) have been implemented 3) To understand how the practices(activities) are evaluated To understand how they are involved in Japanese Olympic Movement towards Olympic education and Tokyo 2020		

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Interviewee's details</b></li> </ul>	
1.	Would you tell me a little about yourself? Your position and your jobs in TMG? How long have you been working here?
2.	How much do you spend on Olympic and Paralympic education, Yearly budget? (increasing?)
3.	How many people are working in your organization (228) and for the delivery of Paralympic education in your organization? Is there any department for Olympic and Paralympic education?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Current Olympic and Paralympic education initiatives</b></li> </ul>	
3.	Would you explain current Olympic and Paralympic education initiatives, practices, efforts and so on?
	- Who developed the programme?
	- What are the aims of the programme?
	- What do you intend to deliver through this programme? (e.g. information, knowhow, values?)
	- When did you start the programme?
	- Who is it intended to target?
	- What are the materials for the programme? How did you develop the materials?
	- What do you expect from this programme? (in the short term and long term)
	- Are there any criteria to select schools?
	- Did you learn from previous Olympic education (Japan and other countries)?
	- Do you find any difficulties or problems in the development and delivery of the initiatives? Any difficult working on other stakeholders and schools?
	- Are the TMG's Olympic education programmes part of <i>Yoi don!</i> programme?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Evaluation</b></li> </ul>	
4.	Have you done any evaluation of this Olympic and Paralympic education?
5.	Do you have plans to evaluate the materials / initiatives? How will you measure?
6.	Do you think the OE will carry on after Tokyo 2020?
7.	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Closing questions</b></li> </ul>	
8.	What is your role in terms of the development and delivery of Olympic and Paralympic education initiatives as the organising body?
9.	What makes Olympic and Paralympic education programme successful?

**Appendix D. 6<sup>th</sup> Grade Yearly Lesson Plans for Olympic and Paralympic Education**

Month	Subject	Units (35 in total)	Contents	4 x 4 Initiatives*** 1)Theme 2)Action	Five mind-sets to be achieved****
April 2017	Homeroom Activity	1/3	Orientation Olympic Spirit	1) Spirit 2) Learn	c)
	Physical Education	1	Track and field (sprint / relay)	1) Sports 2) Do	c)
May 2017	Integrated study	4	“Let’s go to Nikko”	1) Culture 2) Learn	e)
	Moral education	1	Etiquette class (In elevator)	1) Culture 2) Learn	d)
June 2017	Japanese Language	2	Drama class	1) Culture 2) Learn	d)
	Physical Education	2	Apparatus exercises (mat exercise)	1) Sports 2) Do	c)
July 2017	Physical Education	1	Disease prevention	1) Sports 2) Learn	c)
August**					
September 2017	Integrated study	2	“Let’s go to Nikko”	1) Culture 2) Learn	d)
	Foreign Language	2	“Asking friends for a trip”	1) Culture 2) Learn	e)
October 2017	Physical Education	1	Track and field (hurdles/ high jump)	1) Sports 2) Do	c)
November 2017	Japanese Language	1	Japanese traditional painting	1) Culture 2) Learn	d)
	Homeroom Activity	1	Takasago Festival (regional festival)	1) Culture 2) Learn	a)
December 2017	Social studies	1	“For a peaceful and better life”	1) Culture 2) Learn	d)
	Japanese Language	1	Japanese Traditions	1) Culture 2) Learn	d)
	Foreign Language	1	“Let’s guide directions”	1) Culture 2) Learn	e)
January 2018	Moral education	1	International understanding “About Yukata”	1) Culture 2) Learn	e)
	Integrated study	4	“Discover Japan”	1) Culture 2) Learn	d)
	Physical Education	2	Ball game sports (football)	1) Sports 2) Do	c)
February 2018	Moral education	1	Following social rules	1)Environment 2) Learn	a)
	Social Studies	2	“Nations in a close relationship with Japan”	1) Culture 2) Learn	e)
	Moral education	1	International understanding “Judo club in the White House”	1) Spirit 2) Learn	c)
March 2018	Social Studies	1	Living with people from other countries	1) Culture 2) Learn	e)
	Moral education	1	Aspiration “Human excellence”	1) Spirit 2) Learn	d)
	Homeroom Activity	2/3	Revision	1) Spirit 2) Learn	a)

(Source. Takasago Elementary School)



**Integrated class\*** covers a wide range of topics (also called comprehensive class)

**August\*\*** School break

**Application of 4 x 4 Initiatives\*\*\***

**Five mind-sets to be achieved\*\*\*\***

a) Volunteer spirit; b) Understanding for the people with impairments; c) Aspiration for sports; d) Self-awareness and pride as a Japanese citizen; and e) Rich international senses