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**An Evaluation of the Evolution and Development of
Olympic Solidarity 1980-2012.**

by
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Doctoral Thesis

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ABSTRACT

According to the Olympic Charter, “the aim of Olympic Solidarity is to organise assistance to National Olympic Committees, in particular those which have the greatest need”. For the last five decades funding from the sale of Broadcasting Rights for the Olympic Games, allocated to the National Olympic Committees, has been channelled through Olympic Solidarity as a means of promoting development. The aim of this research was therefore to evaluate the extent to which this redistributive claim is evidenced through an analysis of the distribution of the Olympic Solidarity funding, and an insight into the life histories of people involved in the process of allocating grant aid for Olympic Solidarity’s World Programme funding.

A statistical analysis of the World Programme allocation undertakes an evaluation of the variance explained in the amount of grant aid by reference to a set of key independent variables. The analysis indicates that progressive disbursement of World Programme Grant aid did indeed take place, with NOCs from less affluent countries receiving higher levels of funding, though this tendency is diluted after the 1997-2000 quadrennium. This progressive trend had also to some extent been neutralised by the pattern of Olympic Games subsidy, benefitting NOCs, primarily from the more ‘affluent’ countries which have selected larger teams to participate in the Games, since per capita funding of teams is the basis for the allocation of Olympic Games Subsidy Grant.

Changes in the distribution policy of Olympic Solidarity as a result of global political issues, and changes in the organisation itself, are reflected in its funding patterns. The progressive allocation of the funds of the World Programme Grant to less affluent NOCs has diminished in the last two quadrennia, and this is explained by a change in policy to remove restriction of access to particular programmes to ‘developing’ NOCs. In addition the development of the concept of funding underdeveloped sports rather than underdeveloped NOCs contributed to the dilution of progressive funding.

The nature of the operation of the organisation is explored through life history accounts of key agents. Global political issues, changes in leadership, and the

increasing number of programmes and NOCs influenced a change from a 'simple structure' with few multi-tasking employees, to a 'professional bureaucracy' of skilled personnel working with a complex matrix of responsibilities. This research indicates that although Olympic Solidarity was set up primarily to assist the less advantaged NOCs, they are increasingly not the ones that benefit the most; suggesting that the gap, between the established NOCs and aspiring NOCs still facing major hurdles in their quest for 'development', is becoming wider.

Key words: Olympic Solidarity, IOC funding, International Olympic sport aid, World Programmes, Continental programmes, International Olympic Committee, National Olympic Committee, Broadcasting rights revenue.

“In order to turn dreams into reality, it takes determination, self-discipline and effort; these things apply to everyday life. In sport you learn not only the game but things like respect of others, the ethics of life, how you are going to live your life and how to treat your fellow men.”

Jesse Owens

**This Thesis is dedicated to my sons
Thomas and 'Lippu' Zammit**

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I have come to the end of this five year study with mixed feelings. It is the end of a long journey of varying experiences: the doubt of competence and the stress of deadlines, counterbalanced by the joy of new knowledge and the thrill of sudden discovery. It is the achievement of a life-long dream that, even until recently, seemed impossible.

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Abbreviations

AIWF	Association of International Winter Sports Federations
ANOC	Association of National Olympic Committees
ANOCA	Association of National Olympic Committees of Africa
ASOIF	Association of Summer Olympic International Federations
CAR	Centro de Alto Rendimiento, Barcelona
CDM	' <i>Chef de Mission</i> ' (Head of Delegation)
EOC	European Olympic Committees
EU	European Union
G8	Heads of Government – World's largest Economies
GAISF	General Assembly of International Federations
GANEF0	Games for the newly Emerging Forces
IAAF	International Association of Athletics Federations
IF	International Federation
INEFC	Institut Nacional d'Educacio Fisica de Catalunya
INSEP	National Institute of Sport and Physical Education, Paris
IOC	International Olympic committee
MDSD	Most different system design (Comparative analysis)
MSSD	Most similar system design (Comparative analysis)
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NOC	National Olympic Committee
OCA	Olympic Council of Asia
OCOG	Organising Committee for the Olympic Games
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
ONOC	Oceania National Olympic Committees

OS	Olympic Solidarity
PACSA	Canadian Support Programme for African Sport
PASO	Pan-American Sports Organisation
PGA	Permanent General Assembly of NOCs
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
WFSGI	World Federation of Sporting Goods Industry
WHO	World Health Organisation
WTO	World Trade Organisation

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Olympic Solidarity was set up to administer and redistribute the share of funds allocated to the National Olympic Committees (NOCs), obtained by the International Olympic Committee (IOC), through the sale of the television broadcasting rights of the Olympic Games. Starting off with relatively few programmes, little finance and administrative or technical staff, it has evolved into a distributor of multi-million dollar sport aid programmes, created for specific areas of the Olympic Movement. In collaboration with the NOCs, the Continental NOC Associations and International Federations, it funds and facilitates the organisation of a variety of programmes to provide better conditions for athletes and officials to develop; at the same time it is charged with spreading the 'Olympic Values' worldwide through the NOCs.

This research aims to develop an historical evaluation of the constitution of Olympic Solidarity and its programme implementation, through analysis of the changing world scenario, and the interests and perspectives of a range of stakeholders. The study will seek to identify, if and how, the content, development and distribution policy of its aid programmes has changed, and whether they still satisfy the criteria for which Olympic Solidarity was set up. The doctoral thesis, *Olympic Solidarity: Global Order and the Diffusion of Modern Sport between 1961 to 1980* (Al-Tauqi, 2003), gave an insight into how the global political situation influenced the evolution of Olympic Solidarity, from a suggestion to promote sports aid, primarily to newly independent ex-colonies, to an IOC Commission; the development of its original aims and its limited funding options (Al-Tauqi, 2003). The research took the form of documentary analysis of IOC correspondence in relation to the formation of Olympic Solidarity. Following on from this, the focus of the current study is an evaluation of the

development of the Olympic Solidarity organisation, its policy and programme distribution patterns, primarily over the period after 1980 and up to 2012. This research proposes to provide information through the analysis of the Olympic Solidarity Reports, including a statistical analysis of their fund disbursement data; as well as interviews with individuals involved directly with the organisation, in an effort to gauge the impact of time and change on the performance of the organisation.

This Chapter will start with an introduction to the Olympic Movement, with an indication of the diversity of the National Olympic Committees, as the main beneficiaries of the Olympic Solidarity programmes. The Chapter will then discuss the funding options available both to Olympic Solidarity and to the National Olympic Committees and will develop an analysis of the aims of Olympic Solidarity, both implicit and explicit. The final part of this section will outline the structure of the following chapters starting with a broad review of theories related to world change, and how these have impacted sport in general and the Olympic Movement, going on to deal with methodology, and quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis.

1.1 International Olympic Committee

The Olympic movement is made up of a number of different organisations under the umbrella of the International Olympic Committee, principally the National Olympic Committees (NOCs) (Appendix A) and the International Federations (IFs) (Appendix B); with their many regional and continental associations and offshoots, as well as the Organising Committees for the Olympic Games (OCOGs), which are temporary structures, lasting from the selection of the host city to the end of an Olympic Games; all existing in a “state of sometimes uneasy, and always delicate, symbiosis” (Hill, 1992:56).

There is a constant tension with the balance of power between the IOC, the IFs and the NOCs, so that the IOC is not able to stay at the top without continuous effort (Hill, 1992), and the existence of different sport organisations pushed the IOC to change its governance from hierarchal to a systemic control; it encouraged interested parties to cooperate by being part of the Olympic Movement. Contracts with Organising Committees, Top Sponsors and TV broadcasters enabled it to retain its power, so

that in the event of dispute or change in policy could only occur through, “negotiation and trade-offs between the parties”. Sports organisations are not wholly in control of their sport, and “mutual adjustment and negotiation” were considered key to the stability of the whole organisation (Henry and Lee, 2004:29). Through Olympic Solidarity and its worldwide distribution of sports aid, the IOC contributes to develop and reinforce its bonds with the NOCs and the IFs, spreading the promotion of Olympism in the world, while maintaining the loyalty of the partners towards each other.

The International Olympic Committee (IOC) is a self-regulating non-governmental body whose Olympic Charter lists the guiding Fundamental Principles of Olympism, its Rules, and By Laws. According to the Olympic Charter

Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy of effort, the educational value of good example and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles (International Olympic Committee 2013:11)

Furthermore, Chatziefstathiou suggests that “Olympism as an ‘ideal’ may ... be defined, not as a set of immutable values, but as a process for consensus construction in terms of values in the world of global sport” (2005:383).

The IOC recruits and elects its members from among such persons it considers qualified. They do not represent their country of origin but represent the Olympic Movement in their country through membership in its NOC (International Olympic Committee, 2011). In the past, these members, who up to 1979 were required to speak French or English (the official languages of the IOC) (Miller, 1979), were more likely to be rich or well-born or powerful or all three (Hill, 1992) since it was believed that they were less likely to be influenced by politics (Miller, 1979). The IOC members are responsible for choosing the host city in which the Olympic Games will be held. The Salt Lake City Scandals and the IOC Reforms in 2000 brought about a number of changes in the administration and membership of the IOC, so that fifteen of the IOC members would be Olympic athletes, fifteen IF Presidents, and fifteen

NOC Presidents with a further seventy independent individuals (International Olympic Committee, 2000).

However, women represent a minority within the IOC membership, with only 21 women out of 106 members in March 2013, eight of whom had been elected since 2006; and two of whom were members of the Athletes Commission. Although efforts have been made in recent years to include younger, more business-oriented members, and more women, as well as increasing the members from Asia, Africa and South America, the situation is still dominated by the “West”¹ Some retiring members were asked to nominate replacements, (International Olympic Committee, 1964); some memberships remained in the family (International Olympic Committee, 2009); while others were replaced by a new member from the same country; with Europe still being the most heavily represented continent on the IOC.

1.2 National Olympic Committees

Independent states became involved in the Olympic Movement through recognition by the International Olympic Committee, of their National Olympic Committee, which had to be autonomous and had an affiliation of at least five National Sports Associations (NFs); each in turn recognised by the relevant International Federation (International Olympic Committee, 2011). The participation of NOCs in the first few Olympic Games was not very high, with just fourteen NOCs/Countries at the first Olympics in Athens in 1896. The second Olympic Games, in Paris, had few competitors even though the number of events had been doubled, but hardly any spectators; (Tomlinson and Whannel, 1984), while the third Olympics, in St. Louis, Missouri, in 1904, hosted just twelve nations with 651 athletes in 91 events. The first time all continents participated was at the Olympics in Stockholm, Sweden in 1912, with 28 NOCs.

Forty eight years and ten Summer Games later in 1960, in the Olympic Games in Rome, the number of NOCs had increased to 83, with 150 events and 5,338 athletes (International Olympic Committee, 2012b). Fifty two years later there were over ten thousand athletes from 204 National Olympic Committees, participating in the

¹ Primarily Western European and North American

London 2012 Olympic Games. Furthermore, although the NOC of Netherlands Antilles was dissolved in July 2011, three of its athletes, as well as an athlete from South Sudan participated under the Olympic Flag. Although, there had been a gradual increase in NOCs affiliated to the IOC, their increased participation in the Olympic Games was not a linear one. Apart from the difference in the technical level of the athletes, attendance at the Games also depended on the place where the Games were held, the cultural or political issues prevailing at the time, of both the organising and participating countries, and the financial and technical capability of the NOCs.

1.2.1 Categorisation of NOCs

It has been suggested that the recognition of NOCs and their incorporation (see also Appendix C) can be divided into stages with groups or categories exhibiting relatively specific chronologies. The different periods were characterised in relation to the influence of global political change and its impacts on different parts of the world with the time periods occasionally overlapping. Various divisions have been proposed (see Table 1).

Table 1 Categorisation of NOCs

Chamerois 2006	Chappelet & Kubler-Mabbott 2008	Terret 2008
1894-1915 Europe, N. America, Japan, Industrialised country, Aristocratic background	1894-1914 Participants in the first Games	1984-1922 Traditional Europe
1918-1939 South America	1918-1939 Latin America, Catholic Europe(3) India, Philippines	1923-1959 Latin America, South Asia Middle East
1945-1976 1st wave of de-colonisation, Africa and Arab Peninsula	1945-1975 Soviet Bloc, former colonies	1948-1972 New Africa
1977-1988 2nd wave of de-colonisation and re-inclusion of China	1976-1988 NOCs previously excluded, ex-Portuguese colonies	1964-1987 Islands, small countries, South Asia , Arab World
1989- Eastern Europe, 'confetti territory'	1989- Eastern Europe South Africa, Namibia	1989- Eastern Europe

(Chamerois, 2006, Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008, Terret, 2008)

However, apart from the size, culture and geographical location of the country itself, it has been suggested there are some other major differences between the NOCs, which principally fall into four categories:

- Politically independent NOCs with significant resources of their own, beyond those made available by Olympic Solidarity or the state.
- Politically independent NOCs but without significant financial resources of their own considering the tasks at hand.
- NOCs controlled by national government on both a financial and political level.
- “Fantasy” NOCs that only emerge every four years with a view to symbolic participation in the Games.”

(Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008:54)

The first category includes the larger long established NOCs from richer countries with their own regular financial input, such as the USA, Australia, Italy and Japan. The second category NOCs are mostly in Europe, with a well-organised structure and their own premises, such as Austria, Brazil, France and New Zealand whereas the vast majority belong to the third category where power and authority is politically driven. There are also around thirty in the last category that are not very active during the years between the Games (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008).

1.3. NOC Funding

Although the first Olympic Games TV broadcasting rights were sold in 1960 to the American network CBS for \$440,000, it was during 64th IOC Session, in Rome in 1966, that a resolution was passed specifying the ratio for distribution of Television Rights revenues in the Olympic Movement (International Olympic Committee, 1966:79). In 1971, the IOC added a paragraph to Rule 21 of the Olympic Charter to ensure its exclusive right to the revenues from selling the television rights, and its sole right to decide how the funds were distributed (Mallon and Heijmans, 2011). Although previously proposing a staggered division of funds, the IOC later agreed on a distribution ratio for the television rights starting from the 1972 Games, with two thirds destined for the Organising Committee, and the other third being equally divided between the IOC, the IFs and the NOCs (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008).

The 'Television' Commission was created in 1973 in order to regulate the distribution of the TV rights revenue (Preuss, 2004) and eventually at the IOC session in Montevideo in 1979 small percentages were also included for a reserve fund, and to cover expenses for referees and judges at the Games (Miller, 1979). Starting from 1996, the IOC share of funds obtained from the sale of Broadcasting Rights (Table increased to 40%, and by 2004 this had risen to 51%, substantially increasing revenue for the IOC (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008), and consequently for Olympic Solidarity. Until 2008, these funds were divided between the IOC, the NOCs and the IFs, with two thirds for the summer games and one third for the winter games (International Olympic Committee, 2008).

Table 2 TV Broadcasting Rights

Year of Games	Winter	US\$ Million	Summer	US\$ Million
1960	Squaw Valley	0.05	Rome	1.1
1964	Innsbruck	0.9	Tokyo	1.6
1968	Grenoble	2.6	Mexico	9.7
1972	Sapporo	8.5	Munich	17.8
1976	Innsbruck	11.6	Montreal	32
1980	Lake Placid	20.7	Moscow	101
1984	Sarajevo	102.7	Los Angeles	287
1988	Calgary	325.5	Seoul	403
1992	Albertville	292	Barcelona	636
1994	Lillehammer	353		
1996			Atlanta	898.2
1998	Nagano	513.5		
2000			Sydney	1,331.5
2002	Salt Lake City	736.1		
2004			Athens	1,492.6
2006	Turin	833		
2008			Beijing	1,739
2010	Vancouver	1,279		
2012			London	2,569

Adapted from (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008:36, International Olympic Committee, 2013b)

However, apart from a share of the Olympic Games Broadcasting Rights, the National Olympic Committees also benefit from a portion of the income from IOC TOP Sponsors programme, and the IOC official supplier and licensing programme (Horne 2010). The Olympic Marketing Factfile highlights these two areas of funding; outlining the budgets allocated to NOCs through these two streams of revenue.

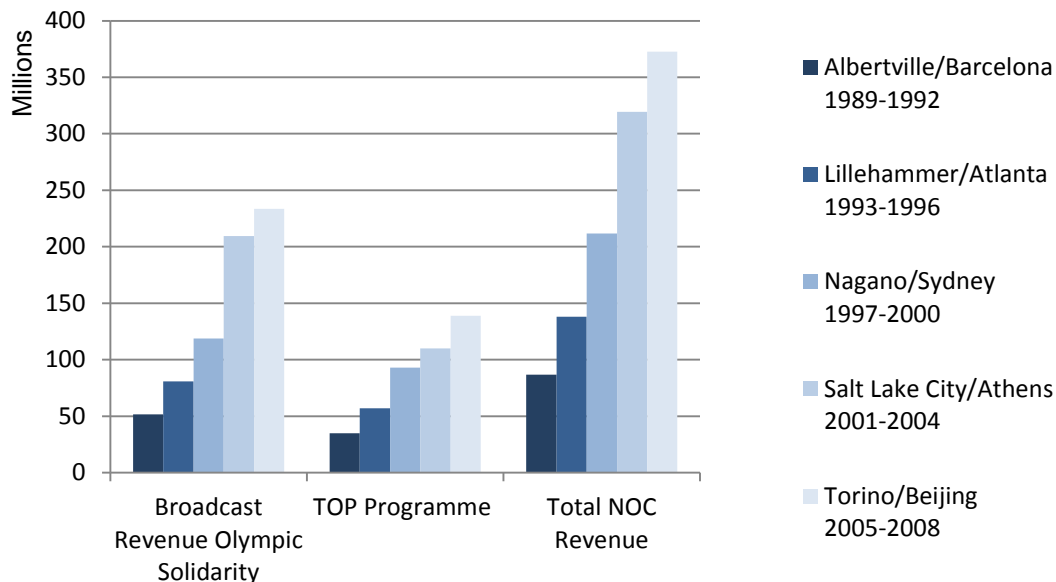
Table 3 NOC Funding

Olympic Quadrennium	Broadcast Revenue Olympic Solidarity	TOP Programme ²	Total NOC Revenue
Albertville/Barcelona 1989-1992	51.6	35	86.6
Lillehammer/Atlanta 1993-1996	80.9	57	137.9
Nagano/Sydney 1997-2000	118.7	93	211.7
Salt Lake City/Athens 2001-2004	209.5	110	319.5
Torino/Beijing 2005-2008	233.6	139	372.6

(International Olympic Committee, 2012a)

Nevertheless, the funding for NOCs might not be considered to be shared equally or equitably, particularly in relation to funds received by the United States Olympic Committee (USOC). In 1985 the IOC reached an agreement with USOC whereby the IOC would cede 15% of the TOP Sponsor income for the use of the ‘five-ring logo’ rights, granted to USOC over United States territory in 1978; before the IOC itself attempted to secure exclusive ownership (Elcombe and Wenn, 2011). In addition, starting from 1992, 10% of US Broadcasting rights was also to be disbursed to the USOC for transmission of the ‘five-ring logo’ in commercials (Barney et al., 2000) .

Table 4 NOC Funding Levels



² Values do not include TOP contribution to the NOC of US and the host country of the Games

According to Pound (2004), until 2004 half of the funds from the TOP programme went to the OCOGs, the other half was split 80% to the NOCs and 20% to the IOC. From the NOC share, fully half goes to the USOC. Since 2004 “the USOC received 12.75% of the US television contract, and 20% of the money generated by the TOP programme” (Elcombe and Wenn, 2011:120), so that during the period 2005-2008, it received US\$298,154,000 in comparison to US\$393,082,000 received by the other 204 NOCs altogether.

1.4 Olympic Solidarity

Olympic Solidarity seeks to carry out its aims, as defined in the Olympic Charter, (Appendix D) through the provision of a number of different programmes available to National Olympic Committees worldwide. Long-term agreements made with International Federations and NOCs enable a variety of experts to carry out the programmes primarily utilising sports facilities in countries of well-established NOCs (Appendix E). Originally targeting NOCs in Africa, Asia and South America in the early 1960s and 1970s, Olympic Solidarity programmes were tailored to the requirements of the NOCs who sent in their requests on an annual basis for approval, and then organised the courses with their own agenda (Appendix F). Requests were erratic and usually related to some isolated section of sport (Olympic Solidarity 1976). 1972 saw the beginning of one commission which brought together the Solidarity programmes organised by the Permanent General Assembly of NOCs (PGA) and the IOC Aid Commission (Al-Tauqi 2003).

By 1981 Olympic Solidarity was proposing a more structured offer of programmes targeting three areas of aid and provision of equipment. (Appendix G). The Olympic Solidarity Commission took full responsibility for the organisation in 1982, and by 1983 had appointed its first Director. The programmes developed from a few courses to a variety of options (Appendix H), and by the end of 1996 apart from Olympic Games Subsidies and some decentralisation of funds, NOCs has a choice of twelve different options (Appendix I). In 2001 Olympic Solidarity underwent major restructuring, an increase of nine new programme options (Appendix J), and decentralisation of funding to the Continental Associations. Funding disbursed to the NOCs covered three major areas:

World Programmes cover four distinct sectors: athletes, coaches, NOC management and Olympic values. The first three sectors provide different options in relation to a targeted group, while the Olympic Values sector provides programmes in different areas related to sport: Sport Medicine, Sport and Environment, Women and Sport, Sport for All, the International Olympic Academy, Culture and Education and Olympic Legacy.

Continental Programmes. Decentralisation of Olympic Solidarity funds target individual requirements of each NOC. Since the situation is different for each continent, “the level of responsibility for these programmes and their management varies” according to agreements drawn up at the beginning of the quadrennium (Olympic Solidarity, 2001b:80).

Through the *Olympic Games Subsidy* each NOC receives funding before, during and after the summer and winter Olympic Games. It includes a logistical subsidy, and a travel grant for a number of athletes and officials, as well as a subsidy directly related to the number of athletes participating in the Games.

1.4.1 Olympic Solidarity Budgets

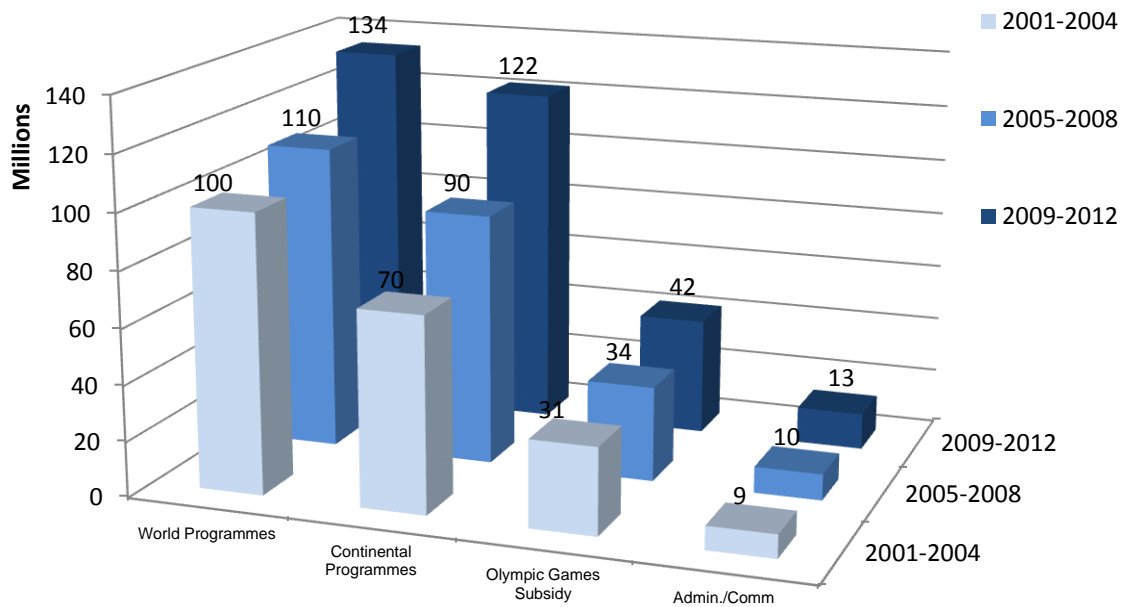
The World Programmes and the Olympic Games subsidies are managed by the International Olympic Solidarity Office in Lausanne, whereas independent Olympic Solidarity offices, set up by the five Continental Associations of NOCs (Figure 1) are responsible for “managing the continental programmes and coordination with the International Olympic Solidarity Office in Lausanne” (Olympic Solidarity, 2005a:8). International Federations are involved where necessary. The number of NOCs in each continent varies, with African NOCs being the most numerous.



Figure 1 Olympic Solidarity Network

Apart from a small budget for administration, and/or the Commission, Olympic Solidarity funding is mainly divided into three areas (Table 5), with the World Programmes to date having had the biggest budget. However, since the decentralisation of funds to the Continental Associations of NOCs in 2001 the gap in funding between the World and Continental Programmes has steadily decreased; the increment from one quadrennium to the other has also been higher for the Continental Programmes. The budget for the Olympic Games subsidy is on a much lower level. Budgets were also allocated for Olympic Solidarity aid on a Continental Basis, for each sector, and for each programme.

Table 5 Olympic Solidarity Budgets (US\$)



Breakdown of Budgets in Olympic Solidarity Quadrennial Plan Reports 2001-2012
 Data for 2001-2004 includes forums with Games Subsidy

1.5 Olympic Solidarity Aims

The purpose of any organisation is defined by its goals or aims, providing guidelines in decision-making, performance appraisal, reduction of uncertainty, direction and motivation of employees and organisational legitimacy (Daft, 1989). The purpose of sport organisations varies, from just making money as a business or encouraging people to participate in a chosen sport, to winning Olympic medals. While organisational performance is a “multi-dimensional concept” for all kinds of organisations (Bayle and Madella, 2002:1), the way it operates will be influenced by the culture of the society in which it exists (Slack, 1997).

In 1978, Article 24B of the Olympic Charter stated that the Olympic Solidarity programmes were set up to help NOCs to fulfil their mission, but the “aims and areas of responsibility of Olympic Solidarity have appeared in the Olympic Charter only

since 1991” (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a:52) where the official goal or aim for Olympic Solidarity was defined in Article 5 :

The aim of Olympic Solidarity is to organise assistance to NOCs, in particular those which have the greatest need of it. This assistance takes the form of programmes elaborated jointly by the IOC and the NOCs, with the technical assistance of the IFs, if necessary (International Olympic Committee, 2011:17)

An organisation may have multiple ‘official’ and ‘unofficial’ goals, which could also be different from those of the people involved in it, with ‘differential emphasis’ given to each goal, depending on the importance given to it by the different stakeholders (Chelladurai, 1987). According to Slack,

The mission statement or official goals of an organisation are usually subjective not measurable. They express the values of the organisation and give it legitimacy with external constituents; they describe the reason(s) for the organisation’s existence and serve as a means by which employees/members identify the organisation (1997:22)

On the other hand, operative goals tell us what an organisation is ‘trying to do regardless of what the official goals say are the aims’ (Perrow, 1972)³. Article 5 of the Olympic Charter elaborates further the nature of Olympic Solidarity’s official goals:

1. To promote the Fundamental Principles of Olympism;
2. To assist the NOCs in the preparation of their athletes and teams for their participation in the Olympic Games;
3. To develop the technical sports knowledge of athletes and coaches;
4. To improve the technical level of athletes and coaches in cooperation with NOCs and IFs, including through scholarships;

³ This distinction between formal and informal goals represents part of the rationale for undertaking interviews with key stakeholders within the organisation (see Chapter 5, and the discussion of methodology in relation to interviews in Chapter 3).

5. To train sport administrators;
6. To collaborate with organisations and entities pursuing such objectives, particularly through Olympic education and the propagation of sport;
7. To create, where needed, simple, functional and economical sports facilities in cooperation with national or international bodies;
8. To support the organisation of competitions at national, regional and continental level under the authority or patronage of the NOCs and to assist the NOCs in the organisation, preparation and participation of their delegations in regional and continental Games;
9. To encourage joint bilateral or multilateral cooperation programmes among NOCs;
10. To urge governments and international organisations to include sport in official development assistance.

(International Olympic Committee, 2011:18)

The essence of a goal is that it is an ideal; “the goals of individuals are related to social interdependence”, defined by the co-operation, competition, or individualistic efforts of people involved, while a group goal exists if “it is desired by enough members of a group to motivate the group towards its achievement” (Johnson and Johnson, 1975:75). Although each individual might have his/her own goal, individuals in an organisation can share a vision of what they can accomplish together to reach a group goal, which might also be a reflection of the overlap of their individual goals. The Olympic Solidarity Report for 2004 outlines a defined aim for each of the Olympic Solidarity Programmes (Appendix K).

The original aim of Olympic Solidarity, which was to help NOCs with most need, could still be found in all the Olympic Solidarity Reports up to 2012.

In accordance with the Olympic Charter, Olympic Solidarity focuses its efforts on assistance for the NOCs, particularly those in greatest need of it. The aid given to the NOCs to help them develop their own structures should enable them to assume the responsibilities that the Olympic Movement has given them, particularly to support the athletes and promote Olympic values (Olympic Solidarity, 2008:8).

It was hoped that by adopting these aims, particularly those expressed in the Olympic Charter, funding from the sale of TV Rights of the Olympic Games, disbursed progressively (i.e. less affluent NOCs receiving proportionately more of the funding disbursed by Olympic Solidarity) through Olympic Solidarity programmes to NOCs aspiring to improve their performance, would bring about a gradual development in their sport management, an overall rise in technical expertise, and qualification of better trained athletes from more countries in the Olympic Games, potentially contributing to the universality of the Olympic Games.

Although there are no specific and publicly declared measures to enable us to evaluate the outcomes and thus the effectiveness of Olympic Solidarity in implementing these operative goals, outcomes such as the participation and performance of elite athletes, and the development of the NOCs themselves, could be considered sources of comparative potential. Its operational goals can be measured objectively since Olympic Solidarity should redistribute funding through the creation and administration of programmes targeting most of the needs of National Olympic Committees, at the same time ensuring an equitable allocation and implementation through good governance. The annual Olympic Solidarity reports contain statistical quantitative information about budgets and allocation of programmes which will be used in comparative research of the programmes themselves. Conversely, non-operational goals that cannot be objectively measured might involve increased membership, loyalty and co-operation of NOCs, while departmental goals are sectional, and in the case of Olympic Solidarity could be related to Continental targets.

1.6 Research Aims

The Olympic Solidarity aid programmes were considered a concerted effort to raise the profile of all levels of sport and sport education worldwide, particularly for those that were “not rich” (Lucas, 1992:87). However, particularly with regards to the long term aid for ‘developing’ countries, it has been said that “the Solidarity fund is fine, yet it tends to be used too much on a political basis in its allocation and not enough strictly on development” (Miller, 1992:161). According to Hill (1992), although the Olympic Solidarity training projects were allocated on merit, an element of political calculation was perceived to exist in their allocation and in the division of budget

destined for the different continents, whereby African NOCs received an increased percentage in the past. Unfortunately, it has also been suggested that there is a lack of effective control over how the Olympic Solidarity money is spent (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008). Furthermore, in the past there were also instances of lack of accountability for some revenues (Pound, 2004).

A large number of NOCs have become financially dependent on Olympic Solidarity funds, even though it was never the intention of Olympic Solidarity to fully finance them, but rather to help them become independent through self-support (Lucas, 1992). From the beginning Olympic Solidarity preached that self-help and a realistic desire to improve were the prerequisites to any aid. The danger lay in the fact that this aid was totally dependent on funds obtained by the IOC through the sale of TV rights for the Olympic Games. The amounts have risen substantially since the realisation by the IOC, in 1955, that television rights could potentially have a high value, the IOC having failed up to then to reserve the televisions rights for itself (Preuss, 2004). However, this dependence could be jeopardised if the Olympic Movement was unable to maintain the inflow of the funds. It was perceived that political upheavals, fluctuations in the world economy, and the emergence of alternative technology could pose real threats; subsequently undermining the economic structure of the IOC (Toohey and Veal, 2007), which would be catastrophic particularly for the less affluent NOCs.

Participation in the Games was contingent on National Olympic Committees representing individual nations rather than individual athletes (Espy, 1979). A large percentage of NOCs, not only those from poor countries, but also many rich ones depend on government financial or legislative support. This situation was found in many of the African, Asian and Latin American NOCs, where top Government officials were members of the Board, with most finance coming from government sources (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008). Subsequently it was difficult for governments to resist interference, especially with the increased media attention given to the Olympic Games and international sport in general (Houlihan, 1994). Although politics was a subject often found on the Agenda of IOC sessions and Executive Board Meetings, and several declarations had been made by IOC Presidents stating that the Olympic Movement was 'strictly non-political', politics and

nationalism were deeply embedded in the infrastructure of the Olympic movement itself (Seagrave and Chu, 1988). Unlike other sports governing associations that just concentrate on sports activities and financial profit, the International Olympic Committee promotes an international political agenda, while at the same time claiming to be above politics (Houlihan, 1994).

There has been little work that addresses Olympic Solidarity policy change, notable exceptions include (Housfi, 2002, Al-Tauqi, 2003, Chatziefstathiou et al., 2006, Henry and Al-Taqui, 2008), and that which does focus on Olympic Solidarity, undertakes no analysis of funding policy. This research thus addresses a gap in the literature, and one which has significant relevance for Olympic policy. This study will seek to identify whether the content, development and distribution policy of the Olympic Solidarity programmes still satisfy the criteria for which the organisation and its funding programmes were set up, and whether its funding distribution still favours those NOCs with “the greatest need of it” (International Olympic Committee, 2011:17). It proposes to do this with data from three different sources:

- a. Official Olympic Solidarity reports, including statistical analysis of financial disbursements to NOCs
- b. Personal perspectives (life histories) of individuals employed or involved with Olympic Solidarity.
- c. Perceptions/perspectives of analysts/historians/supporters – neutral or critical.

The Olympic Solidarity programmes have changed with time; options increased to 19 World Programmes in 2009-2012, in parallel with an overall rise in funding through the sale of Olympic Games TV broadcasting rights (Appendix L). However, comprehensive research on the diverse programmes available as well as on the cause and effect of these programmes in developing and/or changing the performance, and image of sport globally is as yet not widely available. The evaluation of Olympic Solidarity will cover the development of its programmes⁴, and data collection about the process of decision-making and decision implementation, identifying the type of governance of the organisation.

⁴ Development of Programmes in Appendix AA

Henry and Lee define three inter-related concepts of governance.

systemic governance, ... concerned with the competition, cooperation and mutual adjustment between organisations in business and /or policy systems; *organisational or 'good' governance* , ... concerned with normative, ethically-informed standards of managerial behaviour; and *political governance* ... concerned with how governments or governing bodies in sport 'steer', rather than directly control, the behaviour of organisations. (Henry and Lee, 2004:25)

The overall evaluation of this study is concerned with the efficiency and effectiveness of Olympic Solidarity to reach its goals, but principally to fulfil the aim for which the concept of Olympic Solidarity was originally set up, with the main research questions being:

- Have Olympic Solidarity aims and policy changed?
- Does the Olympic Solidarity programme distribution process fulfil the aims for which the organisation was set up, particularly with regards to assistance to NOCs 'with the greatest need'?
- How have the Olympic Solidarity programmes changed and what are the implications for the equitable distribution of resources?

The research aims to analyse information obtained through statistical, documentary, and interview data to answer a number of questions on different levels. Research on the macro-level will revolve around the theoretical implications of change on the economic, political and socio-cultural environment of sport, and the potential impact on the Olympic Movement and its decisions particularly in relation to Olympic Solidarity. The research will seek to discover if particular events, or governments and governing bodies and their use of legislation, licencing, regulation and control have had any impact on the governance of sport. On the meso-level, research will investigate the workings and governance of Olympic Solidarity and its distribution network, whereas the micro level perspective will be investigated through organisational behaviour, focusing on a number of personal perspectives through interviews with individuals, involved long term with Olympic Solidarity. Analysis of

programme data and personal interviews, will give insight into the 'good' governance of Olympic Solidarity; the management and direction of the organisation, the allocation of its resources and their eventual outcome, with an evaluation of its transparency, accountability, democracy, responsibility, equity, effectiveness and efficiency, these being perceived as the seven principles of 'good' governance (Henry and Lee, 2004). Studies on both perspectives, (in this case the meso and micro levels in relation to Olympic Solidarity), will provide a better understanding of the crucial issues in management of organisation (Slack, 1997:8).

The rest of this chapter will give an outline of the process of research with an overview of the chapters related to the literature available, the methodological options and selection, the separate analysis of statistical and interview data, the findings and conclusion.

1.7 Thesis Structure

The *macro* perspective of this study is provided in Chapter 2 and focuses on world change through different theoretical perspectives including modernisation, cultural imperialism, dependency theory, hegemony theory, and world system theory, but primarily through theories of globalisation. This is followed by theoretical perceptions of how the processes of globalisation have influenced the realm of sport and the Olympic Movement, with an emphasis how outcomes of globalisation might have an impact on the workings of Olympic Solidarity.

The latter part of Chapter 2 will cover the Olympic Movement, its situation in the socio-political and economic contexts, and their potential influence on its decisions, with an insight into the governance of the IOC. Although, the IOC itself is not a governmental entity, its decisions are almost invariably influenced by the political situation of countries in the global context since when the global political situation changes, so too do the relationships between the countries themselves. The Cold War, the Gulf War, 9/11, the breakup of the Soviet Union, and Yugoslavia, and the fall of the Berlin Wall, are events when, or after which, a number of NOCs were involved or created, and where general interaction between countries in the cultural sphere is invariably affected. Following an account of the developments in the Olympic Movement, and the different perspectives of how and why Olympic

Solidarity funding was to be used by different stakeholders, the chapter also touches on the outcome of the Salt Lake City scandal and the resultant Commission 2000 recommendations.

Chapter 3 is concerned with the preferred methodological paths considered for the study and in relation to the evaluation of Olympic Solidarity and its sport aid programmes. The Chapter outlines the ontological and epistemological principles which guide the choice of methodology adopted in order to answer the research question. The decision to follow a particular theoretical strategy is followed by an expansion on which methods are considered most reliable for collection of relevant valid data in order to inform a concerted answer to our query.

The following Chapter 4 will cover first the descriptive analysis of statistical data of financial disbursement of Olympic Solidarity funds to NOCs worldwide. IBM SPSS Statistics 19 (V) software will be used to analyse the funding distribution, on a National and Continental level, in order to trace patterns in the levels of participation and funding. The analysis will be carried out on a quadrennial basis for the period 1985 to 2008. The analysis will then go on to cover correlation and standard multiple regression analysis of the data, in order to highlight any relationships of the funding with these variables, as well as the contribution of the independent variables to the explanation of the variance in the levels of grant aid. The analysis seeks to identify adherence to or divergence from the policy of progressive funding for those NOCs 'with the greatest need'.

A *micro* level perspective is adopted in the life/career histories developed in Chapter 5, focusing on the personal perspectives and explanations of the inter-relationships of individuals involved with Olympic Solidarity on a long term basis. A thematic analysis of the semi-structured interviews is developed to provide insight into the workings of Olympic Solidarity and its distribution network, the changes in management and direction of the organisation, the allocation policy of its resources and eventual outcome, and an insight into the organisation's governance. The gathering of information about the life histories of different individuals, through a life cycle perspective seeks to complement information obtained through official

quantitative statistical data or historical accounts of the organisation accessed through the Olympic Solidarity Reports.

Through the outcomes of the analysis of the data, the final chapter outlines the development of Olympic Solidarity, and how material and theoretical conditions have instigated change to the structures of, and the agency within the organisation. It seeks to articulate the answers generated to the research questions identified. In particular it addresses the question in relation to Olympic Solidarity as to whether it is still able to fulfil the aims for which it was set up, since it is in addressing these issues that the study seeks to make its contribution to knowledge.

Chapter 2

Theories of Change Globalisation and Sport

This chapter will start with a discussion on a number of theories of change, including world system theory, cultural imperialism, dependency theory, hegemony theory and theories of modernity/postmodernity, that have sought to identify factors instrumental in influencing 'development' of societies in political, economic and cultural terms at a national and international or global level. This discussion will be followed by consideration of globalisation, explanations of its causes and effects, and consideration of globalisation as a process and as an outcome. The second part of the chapter will deal with how globalisation, as a process and outcome has impacted upon the world of sport, its institutions, its major events and its participants.

2.1 Cultural Imperialism

Theories of cultural imperialism are founded in Marxist accounts of global development in the post-colonial context. Theorists suggest that cultural imperialism involved a power relationship between nations, where the development of a peripheral nation was in the interest of the imperial power; where the state from the core exploited the economic resources of the peripheral nation according its needs, "Imperialism refers to economic or cultural domination of one country over another" (Harvey and Houle 1994, 352). It has been suggested that the five basic elements of imperialism were the formation of monopolies, creation of financial capital, increased export of capital assets, formation of multinational enterprises, and the division of the world among the most powerful states (Sakellaropoulos, 2009). Studies which draw on the concept of cultural imperialism, stress issues of conflict and exploitation, but also tend to emphasise Westernisation/Americanisation, as the alleged homogenising factors involved in cross-cultural processes through which representatives of nation-states and multinational corporations were able to undermine and devalue indigenous cultures by comparison, usually of the West

versus the rest (Tomlinson, 1991). In such processes Western interests were also served to some degree by the established upper-classes of the colonised who interacted with the colonisers, such that “Upper-class conduct and that of rising groups interpenetrate[d]” (Elias, 1994:505) seeking to keep a distinct form of conduct linked to the colonisers to build barriers in order to distinguish themselves from the rest, and maintain their established positions

This approach shared an important feature in common with the modernisation approach, alleging a homogenising impact of these processes as well as the unidirectional approach from the West to the rest, usually with a uni-dimensional cause for subsequent changes. Two main emphases towards a homogenising trend could be identified, the first being “a ‘world’ made up of nation states in competition with each other, and secondly, the ‘world’ as an economic system of global capitalism” with a focus on “activities of multi- or transnational corporations” (Maguire 1999, p.17). The main emphasis in the cultural imperialism approach is focused on the concept of a worldwide collection of competing nation states existing in a world with an integrated political and economic system of global capitalism. The nation state and/or multinational corporations, whether governmental or non-governmental, carried out activities, which involved “some form of domination of one culture over the other or the increasing hegemony of one over the other” (Al-Tauqi, 2003:19).

Marxists gave a threefold explanation of why colonisation by Western states of specific nation-states was necessary for the expansion of capitalism, the key themes being: the search for new markets to sell products; the search for new sources of raw materials; and the search for new sources of ‘cheap’ skilled labour. This process was seen to enrich Western countries, while impoverishing the rest of the world. Large business corporations and state organisations played a leading role, and with the rise in self-governing countries, a form of economic neo-imperialism developed whereby, Western countries maintained their position of power through control over how world trade was conducted (Maguire, 1999). Economic factors dominated the market, and according to Marx and Engels (1844), the worker became poorer the more wealth he produces and the more his production increased in power and extent, so that “the devaluation of the human world increase[d] in direct relation with the increase in value of the world of things” (Timmons Roberts and Hite, 2000:35).

The 'cultural' elements of cultural imperialism relate to a third dimension in addition to political and economic domination, with cultural forms reinforcing a hierarchy by which the dominance of the coloniser or former coloniser was to be maintained by virtue of their more highly prized cultural activities including the greater sophistication of western over indigenous sports or games.

2.2 Dependency Theory

Like cultural imperialism, dependency theory has a Marxist lineage. Dependency theorists believed that the global economy cannot be seen as a system of equal trading partners and relations, since former colonial countries in the periphery remained dependent on more powerful core countries particularly those in the West. They stress the integrated and systematic nature of modern global capitalism; western powers discovered new cultures, enslaved their people and exploited their natural and human resources and subsequently, when this proved too much to maintain, they introduced the peoples of these cultures to the "notions of nationhood, political independence, free-market international trading and human rights" (Giulianotti, 2004b:358). However, development was generally considered to relate to the 'Western' model of consumption, which could destroy cultural difference through industrialisation, urbanisation and the imposition of the nation-state as the only acceptable political form in world affairs (Latouche, 1996, Giulianotti, 2004b). Though the origins and dependency levels of specific nations vary according to how far a country was colonised and by whom, the countries located at the 'periphery' experienced different levels of dependency, unequal access to markets or unfair exchange for their raw materials. There were several forms of dependency:

a. Dependent underdevelopment

The wealth of the industrialised countries existed at the expense of third world, with the latter economically dependent on the former, because of the lack of political or institutional infrastructure, or experience in economic activity.

b. Dependent development

Multinational companies were able to keep a 'colonial-like' control over developing countries, setting up manufacturing subsidiaries, employing locals with low wages, and sometimes poor labour practices.

c. Dependency reversal

Some countries in East Asia managed to break out of the 'double bind' of dependent development, by focusing on export led growth, limiting imports and investing in new technology

(Stiglitz, 2007)

2.3 Hegemony Theory

Hegemony theory, with neo-Marxist roots, comprises a system where the most important economic political and cultural-ideological goods were owned and/or controlled by groups in a small number of mostly 'Western' countries, although the development of some Asian countries has slightly changed this scenario. The international regime following the Second World War was based on US military, economic and cultural hegemony and the "expansionary needs of its corporations". America was the only country, whose agents, organisations and classes have been hegemonic in all the transnational practices of economic, political and cultural-ideological goods, whereas other countries claim to share the hegemony in one or the other. Nevertheless "after 1950, world trade was dominated by the triad of Europe, Japan and the US" (Miller et al., 2001:9). Since the capitalist system dictated economic transnational practices, it was the most important force in the struggle to dominate political and cultural-ideological transnational practices (Sklair, 1992).

As Jennifer Hargreaves (1994) points out hegemony is a 'persuasive' form of control rather than a coercive one, with John Hargreaves explaining that

Hegemony is a power relation in which the balance between the use of force and coercion on the one hand, and voluntary compliance with the exercise of power on the other, is shifted so that power relations function largely in terms of the latter mode (Hargreaves, 1986:7)

Gramsci referred to hegemony as a mix of coercion and persuasion in the mutually dependent relationship between the hegemonic political and the dominated civil society (Bairner, 2009). The activities of hegemonic states centred on the search for new sources of 'skilled' labour so that the most talented workers, in which peripheral

or semi-peripheral states have invested time and resources, are poached by the powerful states (Maguire, 1999). Hegemony theory suggests that the system operated actively to under-develop the third world by excluding developing countries from the centre of the global economic and political decision-making process, as well as from the economic rewards derived from the world economy. De-colonised countries were still influenced by Western commerce, trade and political organisation, and powerful national economic interests persevered, with the replacement of visible political rule by the monopoly of corporations, banks and international organisations such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (Held and McGrew, 2007)

2.4 World System Theory

World Systems Theory is a further Marxist inspired perspective. Social theorists, Karl Marx, Max Weber and Emile Durkheim sought to explain social change in Western Europe after 1500, and “world system theory emerged in the 1970s as part of Marxist intellectual revival”, and as an alternative to the functionalist tendencies of modernisation theory (Shannon, 1989:2). Wallerstein (1974) followed the logic that world system theory centred on the historical dynamics of capitalism, and argued that, starting from the sixteenth century, the expansion of a capitalist world economy, produced a series of economic and political connections, oriented around four sectors

- a. The core states dominate and control the exploitation of resources and production
- b. Their wealth is generated through their control over manufacturing and agriculture and is characterised by centralised forms of government.
- c. These nations are enmeshed in a set of economic relations that enrich the industrial areas and impoverish the periphery.
- d. The driving force of globalisation is seen to be located in the logic of a capitalist world economy

The geographic expansion of the European world-economy meant the elimination of other world systems and absorption of any smaller systems already in existence. A universal economic space was created with a distinctive, unequal structure of core, semi-peripheral and peripheral areas; all three tiers in the structure were essential to

maintain the status quo of power and wealth. The upper tier avoided unified opposition of all the others because the middle tier is both exploited and exploiter. Each area had “a specialised role producing goods that it traded with others to obtain what it needed, tying the world-economy together by a complex network of global economic exchange” (Shannon, 1989:21). Capitalism, as the domain of the world-economy, and not of nation-states, was never controlled by national boundaries, or if these existed, it was a defensive mechanism by capitalists who were not in the highest echelons of the system. In peripheral countries, capitalist landowners maintained an open economy, in order to maximise profit from world-market trade, by eliminating the commercial bourgeoisie in favour of outside merchants (Wallerstein, 1979). World-systems theory suggested that societies in the periphery would always remain dependent, unless they withdrew from the world system (Shannon, 1989); but not all those located in the periphery have remained there.

Wallerstein (1979) suggested that the capitalist world economy was the only world system during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries; the world was one unit, with a single division of labour and multiple cultural systems, divided between world-empires that had a common political system and redistributive economy, and world-economies with no common political system but with a capitalist market economy. The former were historically unstable and eventually developed into the latter. He also argued that in a capitalist world-economy groups protect their economic interests within a single market, which they constantly adjust to their own benefit through influence on decision-making in states, that did not possess the same level of power, but none of which was in total control of the market (Wallerstein, 1991).

However, periodic crises in capitalism exposed the world-economy to phases of global economic restructuring, also provoking resistance through anti-systemic groups, such as environmental, socialist and nationalist movements. The fluctuation of the power level of states was also an ever changing scenario, with three major mechanisms enabling world-systems to retain relative political stability:

1. Concentration of military strength by the dominant forces.
2. Overall commitment to the system ideology.
3. The stability of the three tier area structures.

Wallerstein (1991) believed that the driving force behind globalisation was the logic of the capitalist world economy, which embraced both processes of global integration and fragmentation, producing instabilities and contradictions, which he argued would eventually lead to its collapse. Although political rule was still the prerogative of sovereign nation-states, the strength of the state machinery in core states depended on the weakness of states in the periphery, so that war, subversion and diplomacy were the lot of the latter (Wallerstein, 1979).

2.5 Theorising Modernity/Postmodernity

Modernisation was considered a global process which originated Europe, through the diffusion of ideas about the 'modern' as represented in the Enlightenment of the eighteenth century. Considered by Roudometof (2009) as the mirror-opposite of dependency theory, it was seen as a lengthy process where traditional societies passed through phases of different levels towards modernity, each society moving at its own pace, with diverse leadership and patterns of modernisation, but proceeding through the same/similar stages. Traditional society was non-participant in modernity, with leadership through kinship, in isolated communities without economic interdependence and with decisions involving only other known people (Lerner, 2000). The essential difference, between modern and traditional society, lay in the greater control individuals had over their natural and social environment, as a consequence of the expansion of scientific and technological knowledge, together with the diffusion of that knowledge through literacy, mass communication and education

Traditional man is passive and acquiescent; he expects continuity in nature and society and does not believe in the capacity of man to change or to control either. Modern man, in contrast, believes in both the possibility and the desirability of change and has confidence in the ability of man [sic] to control change so as to accomplish his purposes (Huntington, 2000:145).

The options of choice in a modern context moved from authority to society, and ultimately to the individual, who was made responsible for personal life choices, albeit accompanied by a growing *consciousness* of risk (Giddens, 1990) and uncertainty (Lizardo and Strand, 2009).

Modernisation theory focused on the political, cultural, economic and social aspects of how traditional societies reached modernity. Rostow (1960) listed five stages which he believed countries passed through in their development from traditional to modern economies: pre-conditions for take-off, take-off, the drive to maturity, the age of high mass consumption and beyond consumption. The time-frames and rate of growth for these stages were as variable as the nations, themselves. The modernisation process could be assigned nine characteristics: revolutionary, complex, systemic, global, lengthy, phased, homogenising, irreversible and progressive, even though it was not an inevitable and uniform process. Modernisation was nevertheless thought to be a homogenising process, since modern societies shared basic similarities, tending toward convergence, and while irreversible, the rates of change would vary but direction of change would not. Lerner argued that the Western model of modernisation exhibited certain components and sequences whose relevance was global and tended to follow an autonomous historical logic, so that each phase would generate the next one; increasing urbanisation raised literacy, which in turn increased media exposure, eventually leading to wider economic and political participation. This held true for all modernising countries regardless of continent, culture or creed (Lerner, 2000). This progressive process was considered by many to be “inevitable and desirable, and in the long run enhanced human well-being, culturally and materially” (Huntington, 2000:145).

The most crucial aspects of political modernisation involved rationalisation of authority in a single secular national political authority, differentiation of political functions and development of legal, military, administrative and scientific structures to perform them, as well as increased participation in politics by social groups throughout society (Huntington, 2000). The population took a more active role in political decision making; “centralised authority decreased, and individual rights were promoted”, industrialisation and communication systems increased interpersonal, large scale, human interaction while advertising removed cultural class differences (Shils, 1966, Miller et al., 2001:14). Although Huntington agreed with Marx that industrialisation produced class consciousness, he believed that industrialisation was one aspect of modernisation that also affected new group consciousness of all kinds, whether “in tribe, region, clan, religion, as well as in class, occupation and

association” (Huntington, 2000:153). All groups became aware of themselves as groups, with different agenda from other groups, increasingly causing conflict between old and new groups, even though over time and space, the structure, language and dynamics of human groups could undergo significant change (Giulianotti, 2004a).

Modernity was considered inherently a process of “homogenisation and massification” involved in the building of nation-states, and “imperial based industrial capitalist economies as work-based societies” (Roche, 2000:66). Modernisation theory assumed that contact with the western-dominated global economy was an opportunity for developing countries, and failure to improve their situation was only a result of failure to grasp this opportunity (Kiely, 2005). However, it has been suggested that in areas such as the Middle East, modernisation has been complicated by the influence of anti-colonialism which has bred an ethnocentrism expressed politically in extreme nationalism and xenophobia, with a rejection of anything foreign or particularly ‘Western’, giving rise to a dilemma between the desire for modern institutions, power and wealth, but rejection of modern ideologies, purpose, wisdom, commodities, or foreign language (Lerner, 2000).

Post-Modernity in the 1980s questioned the universalisation of the ‘Western’-centred vision of globalisation, “opening the theoretical space for filling the ‘global’ with a multiplicity of meanings not necessarily connected to Westernisation” (Roudometof, 2009:412). It related to the processes of individualisation and de-massification involved in reconstruction of the state and capitalism, during late twentieth century, resulting in a “multi-tiered political and regulatory institutions, information and services-based economies, oriented to consumption and animated by global and technological factors and forces” (Roche, 2000:66). Postmodernity also involved economic changes by industrialised states towards internationalism, with a move towards services rather than manufacturing, the involvement of the population in political issues, and the decline in popularity of social reasoning of the previous century including Marxism, psychoanalysis and Christianity (Miller et al, 2001). However, it has been suggested that some of the claims made by postmodernists were not new at all, but might be “intensifications and radicalisations of trends that

can be found in previous historical periods” (Lizardo and Strand, 2009:49). The 14th Quadrennial World Congress of Sociology in the summer of 1998 was considered the turning point, when sociological research on post-modernity was overshadowed by that on globalisation (Miller et al., 2001), even though some suggested that the “issue of postmodernity was never really separable from the issue of globalisation” (Lizardo and Strand, 2009:67).

2.6 Globalisation

Although the use of the term ‘globalisation’ has become widespread, the definition of what it is has been expressed in a variety of ways, depending on whether the research area in question is sociological, economic, political or cultural. It has been used to describe a ‘process’, a ‘condition’, a ‘system’, a ‘force’ and also an ‘age’ (Steger, 2009:8) and now encompasses many things including the international flow of ideas and knowledge, the sharing of cultures, global civil society and the global environment, being but a few. There is a considerable diversity of opinions among authors contributing to literature about globalisation who range,

from postmodernist scholars or social theorists, who rarely if ever engage in empirical research, to number-crunching empiricists, politicians and management consultants (Guillen, 2001:7)

with each one proposing a different definition, depending on the area of study and scope of research. A plethora of time frames have been suggested for when it began, the word ‘globalisation’ itself only coming into use in the 1960s with its ‘world-wide’ meaning, as opposed to its previous connotation of something spherical, total or universal (Waters, 1995:2, Guillen, 2001). Guillen (2001) combines the perspectives of Robertson (1992) and Albrow (1997) to define globalisation as

a process leading to a greater interdependence and mutual awareness among economic, political and social units in the world, and among actors in general (p.30).

whilst Scholte (2002:23) argues that “Globalisation introduces a single world culture centred on consumerism, mass media, Americana⁵ and the English language” and Albert postulates that theoretic contributions and empirical studies defined globalisation, as:

A complex and comprehensive process of social change on a global scale, which is all but a global “homogenising” or an integrating” force.
(2007:168)

Globalisation was said to signal the “supplanting of modernity with globality”, and the redundancy of some of the founding ideas of classical social theory (Rosenberg, 2000:1). It was also considered to be an ideology, at times loosely associated with neo-liberalism and with technocratic solutions to economic development and reform, but also linked to cross-border social networks and organisations (Evans, 1997, Guillen, 2001), but Miller et al. warn that although globalisation was a “knowledge effect with definite impacts on intellectual economic, social, and governmental practice... the notion that it represents a major epistemological break – an accurate description of change rather than its symptom – is problematic” (2001:8). According to Rosenberg (2000:1), “the term globalisation is at first sight, just a descriptive category, denoting either the geographical extension of social processes”, or as defined by Giddens (1990:64) “the intensification of worldwide social relations”, and he suggests that research requires information on the how and why these processes occur, and what has resulted from their expansion and/or intensification. He insists that “globalisation as an outcome cannot be explained simply by invoking globalisation as a process tending towards that outcome” and

what presented itself initially as the *explanandum* – globalisation as the developing outcome of some historical process – is progressively transformed into the *explanans*: it is globalisation which now explains the changing character of the modern world (Rosenberg, 2000:2-3)

⁵ materials concerning or characteristic of [America](http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary), its civilization, or its culture; *broadly* : things typical of America (<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary>).

The term itself has developed from a descriptive outcome of global processes to a theory of how that outcome has come about. The multiple dimensions of globalisation have created the need to distinguish the differences between them, and therefore to make a distinction between globalisation as a process and globalisation as an outcome (Houlihan, 2008). Theorists from different research areas have diverse ideas on what processes constitute the essence of globalisation or what defines globalisation (Albert, 2007).

Deregulation and financial liberalisation are emphasised by economists; the withering of the state by political economists; the decline of the nation state by political scientists and international relations scholars; Westernisation, Mac Donaldisation and cultural homogeneity by sociologists; and post-national, post-modern, post-colonial global culture by cultural theorists (Henry, 2007:7)

There was also disagreement on its scale, its cause, chronology, impact, trajectories and policy outcomes (Steger, 2009). Rowe argued that what was conveniently called globalisation frequently recalled earlier concepts of 'cultural imperialism' or 'Americanisation'⁶, accompanied, reinforced and challenged by processes of governmentalisation, televisualisation and commodification (Miller et al., 2001, Rowe, 2006). Robertson (1997) rejects claims that the process of globalisation constitutes Americanisation or started from America, suggesting that the contours of globalisation were laid down historically before the United States ever entered the modern world system.

2.6.1. Globalisation – an explanation

There are those who believe that globalisation may have started in the late 15th century, when Eurasia, Africa and the Americas became interconnected through trade, domination and flows of migration (van Bottenburg and Wilterdink, 2004). World-system theorists maintain the expansion of European capitalism in the 16th century marks the start of globalisation (Wallerstein, 1979). Robertson (1992)

⁶ the export of products, symbols, ideologies and organisational practices of the US, producing an Americo-centric view of how the world should be, including the ways people should act, and the icons and symbols they should admire (Miller et al 2001:128).

believed it began with the establishment of the international dateline, while some economic historians point its origins to the beginning of the 20th century. By the mid-1980s, the notion of globalisation was all about 'Westernisation' of the rest of the world in context of the Cold War (Roudometof, 2009).

It was also suggested that the concepts of globalisation and globality originally emerged in the sociology of religion in the mid-1980s where Robertson (1997) refers to McLuhan's literature as one of areas where the concepts of globalisation and globality originally emerged, but that globalisation as the "central concept" (Robertson, 1990) was placed at precisely that point in time that communism collapsed. However, there is debate on whether this resulted in the spread of the policy-oriented Western-centred modernisation to the former communist countries and ex-colonies, or gave birth to a new process of the globalisation of modernity (Roudometof, 2009), with social theory replacing modernity/postmodernity with globalisation (Albrow, 1997, Tomlinson, 1999, Lizardo and Strand, 2009). By 1998 postmodernity was replaced by globalisation, when, with its multiple meanings of sameness, difference, unity, and disunity, "globalisation, like post modernity before it, had come to stand for nothing less than *life itself*" (Miller et al., 2001:6).

Mono-causal logic

Although the 1980s saw the intensification of empirical studies on globalisation, there was disagreement between two schools of research on the cause of globalisation; between those sought to develop mono-causal accounts and others who promoted a multi-causal explanation. According to McGrew (1992), for Wallerstein (1979) the logic of historical capitalism was global in reach, in so far as the entire globe operated within the framework of a singular capitalist division of labour which he perceived was also the driving force of globalisation. Rosenau argued that globalisation came about because the advances in technology such as "the jet powered airline, the computer, the orbiting satellite, and many other innovations" enabled "the interdependence of local, national and international communities" (1990:17) and that the shift from an industrial to a post-industrial order moved humankind out from international politics where the nation state dominated the global scene, into the era of post-international politics where nation-states shared power

with International organisations, transnational corporations and transnational movements (McGrew, 1992).

Gilpin (1981) suggested that the process of globalisation was a product of political affairs, in particular a political order which generated stability and security necessary to sustain and foster expanding linkages between nation-states, relying on the most powerful states to ensure a type of world order, that encouraged “interaction, openness, cooperation and interdependence” (Hall et al., 1992:71). His hegemonic theory was based on the assumption that “the success of the market in integrating modern (global) economic life could not have occurred without the favourable environment provided by the liberal hegemonic power” (Gilpin, 1987:86-88), and that a stable and secure world order, backed by power and military supremacy was essential for global interconnectedness in the modern world (Gilpin, 1981). Elias (1994) put forward a figurational-sociological logic whereby globalisation was brought about by the comingling of social characteristics, through social interaction of different cultures of interdependent and conflicting nation-states (Dunning, 2004).

Multi-causal logic

On the other hand, the multi-causal logic for globalisation was backed by Robertson and Giddens, with the latter theorising that primary processes associated with the nation-state system, coordinated through global networks of information exchange, the world capitalist economy and the world military order, were all contributory influences towards globalisation and the world system (McGrew, 1992).

Capitalism influenced the pace of economic globalisation, whilst the ‘universalism of the nation-state’ was responsible for the creation of a single world political system; the changing global division of labour was a result of industrialism, whereas the globalising of military power is tied to the logic of militarism (Giddens, 1987:283)

Although Robertson (1992) did not agree with Giddens’ analysis, his theory of globalisation involved “the separation of the factors which have facilitated the shift towards a single world” identifying these logics as the spread of capitalism, western imperialism, and the development of a global media system. He did not fully develop

a systematic account of the political, economic and cultural dimensions of globalisation, but each is understood to have developed independently of the other. His work concentrated on understanding how these separate logics encouraged the duality of “universalisation and particularisation” (McGrew, 1992:73). Parsons argued that, apart from religion, social organisation through kinship and technology, language was “the “fundamental evolutionary universal” (2000:86). Found in every human group, and with which it communicates with others, he believed language was the fourth contributory factor in the development of society, whereas Scholte (2002) suggested that it was the forces of modernity such as rationalist knowledge, capitalist production and bureaucratic governance that were its main causes.

2.6.2. Globalisation as a Process

Globalisation could be defined as a “universal process or set of processes which generate a multiplicity and intensification of linkages, interconnections, interactions and interdependence between the states and societies” (McGrew, 1992:68). It was only in the 1960s and 1970s that social scientists started to explore the idea of trans-national, world-systemic or global processes, where the meaning of the ‘global’ suggested that, unlike the state-centred modernisation and dependency theories, key aspects of social change were no longer found within the state itself but in trans-national or trans-state processes. The transformation of society was being affected by non-governmental associations (NGOs), international treaties and inter-governmental agencies and organisations (WHO, UNESCO), with the international system of states became increasingly global (Roudometof, 2009). This process was accompanied by a new global division of labour, the erosion of state sovereignty, the rise of supranational organisations and the emergence of multi-layered global governance (Sakellariopoulos, 2009). Harvey & Houle point out differences between imperialism and globalisation:

Imperialism refers to economic or cultural domination of one country over another, whereas globalisation refers to processes that alter the very notion of the nation-state; it refers to forces at play that are not based on division of the world into national political spaces but rather emerge from integration across national political spaces (1994:352)

They perceived that globalisation did not only involve the “progressive development of a homogenised global meta culture”, but at the cultural level, included “elements of common ethos and values shared by an increasing number of people with a sense of humanity’s shared destiny”, the strengthening of several elements of regional and national identity, and the emergence of “global cultural phenomena and a global social reality” that easily identified with global events (Harvey and Houle, 1994:344).

Appadurai (1990) explained the globalisation process as a series of different, fluid and unpredictable flows, or inconsistent ‘scapes’ involving the movement of “finance, technology, media images, values and people” (Henry, 2007:7). Similarly Hannertz saw globalisation in terms of cultural flows that included cultural commodities, the actions of the state in organising and managing meanings, the dissemination of habitual perspectives and disposition, and the activities of social movements. While emphasising diversity, he observed that “the world had become one network of social relationships, and between its different regions there is a flow of meanings as well as of people and goods” (Hannertz, 1991:237).

According to Giddens (1990), once started globalisation was irreversible (Kiely, 2005), and considered by some as a discontinuous historical process, with distinct phases during which the pace of globalisation speeds up or slows down (Robertson, 1990), and the consequences of which are not experienced uniformly across the globe. More than “a diffusion of Western institutions across the world, in which other cultures are crushed”, it is “a process of uneven development that fragments and coordinates” (Giddens, 1990:175). Some regions were more deeply involved in the process, some communities well integrated into the global order, while others were completely excluded, giving rise to an “asymmetrical structure of power relations, reinforcing inequalities of power and wealth, both between nation-states and across them” (McGrew, 1992:76).

Giddens also argued that the globalisation process was dialectical in nature, and unevenly experienced across time and space, embracing contradictory dynamics. It did not bring about a consistent set of changes in one direction, but changes with “mutually opposed tendencies” (Giddens, 1990:64). Apart from universalising the modern, it simultaneously encouraged the intensification of uniqueness, bringing

about homogenisation, but also differentiation through various interpretations of what was local, with integration of new forms of global, regional and transnational communities or organisations, but also fragmentation within and across traditional nation-state boundaries. Giddens (1990) defined globalisation as “the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa” (Kiely, 2005:908). By compressing time and space globalisation also brought about “juxtaposition of civilisations, ways of life and social practices”, with their own prejudices and boundaries, but through syncretisation also created different hybrids with their own characteristics (McGrew, 1992:74). Although it facilitated an increased concentration of power, knowledge, information, wealth and decision-making, nations, communities, and individuals still tried to take control over what influenced their fate.

Robertson stressed that the processes of globalisation did not lead to homogeneity, but involved the ‘particularisation of universalism and the universalisation of particularism’ (1992:132); homogenisation and heterogenisation being both equally important since global forces did not override locality (Miller et al., 1999) but resulted in the appearance of new differences where the global, the regional, the national, the provincial, the local and the household aspects could intertwine in a myriad of combinations (Scholte, 2002). Globalisation therefore was not a singular process with uniform results; it encompassed a number of transnational processes that, whilst being perceived as global in reach, could be distinguished from each other.

Glocalisation vs Globalisation

The term ‘glocalisation’, derived from the Japanese word, *dochakuka* which referred to the selling or making of products for particular markets, was used by Robertson (1997) to explain the integration of the global and the local resulting in unique outcomes in different geographical areas (Robertson, 1997, Andrews and Ritzer, 2007). He took research away from a macro–social analysis to a concern with the particular, the local in a micro-social analysis, where globalisation and localisation were considered on par (Held and McGrew, 2007). With the time-compression of the global economy the local “absorbs, shapes, alters and opposes wider tendencies, whilst creating and promoting its own” (Miller et al., 1999:19); it created a

spontaneous mix of the global and the local, with products having distinct local characteristics, making it very difficult to market elsewhere, and consequently not of much interest to multinational corporations.

Grossberg suggested that globalisation was “often structured by an assumed opposition between the local and the global where the local [was] offered as the intellectual and political corrective of the global.” (1997:8). However Andrews and Ritzer (2007) insisted that rather than articulating the global and the local as polarities upon the globalisation continuum it was important to view the ‘complementary and interpenetrative’ relations linking homogenisation and heterogenisation, universalism and particularism, sameness and difference and the global and the local; the global being complicit in the ‘creation and incorporation’ of the local, and *vice versa* (Robertson, 1995).

Ritzer (2003) distinguished between two processes of globalisation, comparing the term ‘glocalisation’, which he expressed as the integration of the global with the local, and ‘grobalisation’ which he perceived to be the imposition of the global on the local. He argued that the latter was caused by the imperialistic ambitions of nations, corporations, organisations and other similar entities, and their desire and need to impose themselves on various geographic areas; their main interest being to see their power, influence and, in many cases, their profits grow worldwide. Grobalisation involved the spread of a large amount of products and services with minimal creation, easy to export and transfer from one place to another successfully, such as fast-food restaurants. The technologies, procedures, and recipes which worked in one place were easily reproduced in others, with a huge competitive advantage over the local. Their menu might be glocalised to suit the local clientele but the business itself had the same corporate image, management procedures, etc., being very different from a small independent local restaurant selling local dishes. However, in order to secure a profitable global presence, transnational corporations realised they also needed to operate on a local level, such as adding local food to the menu, so the “local still persists in the glocal, and grobalising processes can never be totally triumphant over the glocal, they could never be universal in scale and scope” (Andrews and Ritzer, 2007:30).

However, there was a difference in vision between those who saw the world as becoming more homogeneous, Americanised/Westernised, codified or restricted – globalised; and those who viewed it as growing more heterogeneous, diverse, and free - glocalised. Although these processes were at odds with each other, the development of one tended to go hand in hand with the other (Ritzer, 2003). Interaction of the global and the local could bring about new and different forms. Sometimes starting off with distinct local features, their modification to suit several environments or tastes turns them into what Ritzer (2003) defines as nullities, of which he proposes four categories: (non-)places, (non-)things, (non-)persons and (non-)services, “where the glocal is transformed into the global” (Ritzer, 2003:197). Since very little of the local remains untouched by global influences, the real struggle has moved from the global and the local, to one between glocal and the global, a difference between what is inherently and deeply globalised (globalisation), and that in which global and local elements intermingle (glocalisation).

2.6.3. Globalisation as an Outcome

Accounts of globalisation tend to fluctuate between three positions: “celebration or lamentation of the supposed universal success of the market and decline of the state; scepticism about the level of change and the feasibility of a non-state system; and caution on outcomes of the changing relationship between private and public”, being rather unclear (Miller et al., 2001:8), and suggestions that any discussion about globalisation should address transnational capital; opportunities for nation-states to control capital and information flows; pressures on nation-states to adopt neoliberal policies; the growth of extra-state bodies to monitor and regulate production and exchange; the impact at the local level of exported culture; the role of the USA, Europe and Japan; the interconnectedness of locations around the world reducing the importance of space and time; increased flows of people across national boundaries; consumer consciousness of the inter-national culture industries; and counter knowledge based on national interest.

Globalisation was perceived to be one of the most visible consequences of modernity because it also changed the whole concept of time and space – what Giddens refers to as ‘time-space distanciation’ (1990:14). With the advent of modern technological advances, more and more everyday experiences were being affected

by events organised in other countries, and broadcast directly through media communication which was instantaneous, without the need for 'face-to-face' interaction. Globalisation was more than just internationalisation, in that "it refers to a spacio-temporal realignment which influences and structures processes of economic production and exchange, political authority, the formation of individual and collective identities, or cultural frames of reference" (Albert, 2007:167). Since there was a compression in the time it took for news to be broadcast, the importance of geographic distance was diminished, allowing people to directly experience happenings as though they were actually there. It was also much quicker to get to any place and experience events almost anywhere in the world. Harvey (1989) considered this 'time-space compression' or the speeding up of time, as "not a product of some smooth, linear or exponential process of time space compression", but consisting of discrete phases of intense time space-compression that interrupted the historical process, determined by arising crises and subsequent restructuring of capitalism, involving a speeding up of economic and social process (Hall et al., 1992:240).

Social changes in the 1970s and 1980s had a disorienting and disruptive impact upon political-economic practices, the balance of class power, as well as on cultural and social life. The speeding up of technological and organisational change also made it easier for increased global movement of capital.

The formation of a global stock market, of global commodity (even debt) futures markets, of currency and interest rate swaps, together with an accelerated geographical mobility of funds, meant, for the first time, the formation of a single world market for money and credit supply (Harvey, 1989:161)

The global economic recession of the 1980s, the renewed nuclear threat as a result of increasing Soviet-American rivalry, and threatening eco crises, brought about socio-economic changes in advanced capitalist societies, through which the independent nations became more co-dependent for their survival (Held and McGrew, 2007). A decision, activity or event in one part of the world could affect people on the other side of the globe; transnational networks, social movements, and

relationships crossed territorial boundaries in all areas of human activity. Concerns about global processes and structures were reinforced by the electronic media through its

Multiplicity of linkages and interconnections that transcend the nation-states (and by implication societies) which make up the modern world system (McGrew, 1992:65)

However, improved transportation and information technologies (IT) communication infrastructure also made it easier for worldwide co-operation and organisation (Held and McGrew, 2007). There was general agreement that globalisation led to a shrinking world which was more interrelated, interconnected and interdependent – a totally interconnected marketplace, transcending time zones and national boundaries (Lunga, 2008). Perlmutter (1992) argued that trends in globalisation were visible in different areas: political-military-legal with nation states looking for more democratic and open models in a globalised economy; economic-industrial with the spread of transnational corporations responding to and creating needs for convenience and material wellbeing; social-cultural where arts were accepted as global heritage; psychological with the liberal individualist theory of the person; spiritual-religious with increasing pluralism; science and technology with global co-operation and competition in all its domains, and in the ecological arena with a global concern for the environment. According to Held & McGrew

Globalisation denotes the intensification of worldwide social relations and interactions such that distant events acquire very localised impacts, and vice versa. It involves a rescaling of social relations, from the economic sphere to the security sphere, beyond the national to the transnational, transcontinental and trans-world. It can be understood as a historical process (2007:2)

Globalisation was characterised by the stretching of social political and economic activities, the intensification of connectedness, increasing speed of trans-border interactions and a blending of the local and global; moving from the interdependence between discrete bounded national states to internationalisation of the world as a shared social space (van Bottenburg and Wilterdink, 2004). The increasingly global

circulation of people, products and processes was changing the way nations were structured and interacted with each other (Jackson and Haigh, 2008). Appadurai (1996) acknowledged the fading of boundaries between nations and the disappearance of the idea of purity of nation race, caused by global flows or scapes; with ethnoscaples involving the worldwide movement of tourists, immigrants, refugees, exiles and guest workers influencing the politics of nations; technoscaples with fast moving technology crossing geo-political boundaries and many transnational corporations running factories in different countries; mediascaples through which modern telecommunication transmitted images and information for worldwide viewership where commodities, news and politics were profoundly mixed; financescaples involved the international flow of capital; and ideoscaples with the exchange of political propaganda of state, and counter propaganda of social movements (Demirezen, 2006).

On the other hand, although globalisation promoted the creation of transnational social spaces, the consequences of increased mobility were very different between the 'first world' of the middle and upper classes in advanced industrialised countries, and the 'second world' of working or middle classes in the mostly peripheral societies that made up the majority of the world's population, with Bauman (1998) labelling the former as tourists and the latter as vagabonds (Roudometof, 2005). It was suggested that every international system through history had been hierarchical, and there was not likely to ever be an egalitarian and democratic international system (Held and McGrew, 2007) since hegemonic states continued to come up with long-term strategies promoting their imperialistic capitalist interests, while their policies faced increased resistance by other nation-states, in turn exerting their influence within the 'imperialist' chain (Sakellaropoulos, 2009). While the process of globalisation had put new demands on nation-states to give attention to the rising inequality and insecurity it caused, and to the competitive challenges that it could incorporate, it had at the same time limited the amount of action nation-states could take. Rowe (2006) argued that the nation stood between the local and the global, acting as a politico-juridical organisation with a special focus on culture; and Kacowicz (1999) suggesting four arguments to demonstrate the decreasing influence of nation-states: the global ecological crises, the development of social movements and the

emergence of a global civil society, global economic interdependence, and transnational relations at the economic, social, cultural and political level.

The hyperglobalisation thesis argues that “the emergence of a single global market and global competition has eliminated the political latitude for action of national states and impose[d] neo-liberal policies on all governments”. Markets for goods, capital and labor are less restricted; and with all countries facing more competition there was less state economic intervention and control, so capital was invested in countries with lower production costs (Huber and Stephens, 2005:1). Some market forces were so strong that governments, especially in the developing world, often could not control them; a country might want to raise its minimum wage but could not do so because multinationals operating there would move to another country offering lower wages (Stiglitz, 2007). As a result of worldwide technological development, state monopolies exposed to international competition were gradually privatised, while in the European Union, under the provisions of the Single European Act of 1987 related to the elimination of controls on capital flows between countries, “governments are unable to control both the interest rate and exchange rate” (Huber and Stephens, 2005:8). Although there were parallel trends toward globalisation and reduction of state intervention in the market they were not necessarily linked.

Although the overall view was that globalisation positively generated growth and economic efficiency, and universalised the quest for development, critics of globalisation believe it is an exploitative phenomenon that increases the inequality within and between states, aggravated poverty, attacked social welfare, and was not particularly beneficial for the Third World in general and Africa in particular (Prempeh, 2004). The second half of the 20th century has seen huge international income differences and polarisation, where the share of the poorest 10% of the world population steadily declined, whilst that in the 10% of the richest countries remained fairly stable. The decrease of over-all inequality attributed to the economic growth in China has been overshadowed by the income polarisation generated by the growing and absolute poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa (van Bottenburg and Wilterdink, 2004), and according to Held and McGrew the world was not one of ‘discrete civilisations’ or an international society of states, but has become a fundamental global order, with

“intense patterns of interaction and evident structures of power, hierarchy and unevenness” (1998:235).

Dollfus (1997) believed that globalisation produced the differentiation of inequalities, while others suggest it provoked creative destruction, contributing to the disappearance of traditional customs, languages and habits because of generalised market demands; simultaneously accentuating differences in the living standards and conditions of various populations and even their fertility contributing to what Ramsaran and Price (2003:1) propose are

rising gaps of inequality between nations and within all nations of the global economy and to increased environmental degradation, especially in the developing world, the loss of sovereignty, cultural imperialism and the rise of extreme nationalism” (Lunga, 2008)

Nederveen Pieterse (1995) proposed that the process of globalisation involved a range of currents and counter-currents, where non-western cultures were also having an impact on the ‘West’, resulting in a ‘creolisation’ of cultural forms, and a hybridisation of people’s identities so rather than creating standardisation and uniformity it was leading to a global ‘melange’.

2.6.4. Social Movements

Social movements make a significant contribution to the development of international links and relationships. They are often made up of interlinked groups, associations and networks, working in different levels of society, from the local to the international, with members who share a common vision, are conscious of their responsibility for the future of the world, and believe that governments cannot meet this responsibility (Harvey and Houle, 1994). They involve a reconfiguration of political space with the creation of communities that transcend national boundaries creating communities which are independent, but which interact with the policies of governments (Breton and Jenson, 1992, Harvey and Houle, 1994).

Scholte (2005) proposed four possible positions in relation to what could be done about globalisation: the neo-liberal, the rejectionist, the reformist and the transformist

arguing that although neoliberals accepted globalisation through which to expand market exchange and promote capitalism; rejectionists, or anti-globalists, prefer the local or national 'status quo'; reformists believed in adjustment to the current globalising trends, whereas transformists promoted a totally different route to globalisation (Harvey et al., 2009). The reformists and transformists believed that globalisation would continue, and proposed Institutional adjustment or change in a mixed economy through public policy initiatives, or by using globalisation as a means for stimulating social change, fighting for human security and protecting of the environment as well as a wide range of human rights (Harvey et al., 2009:388).

Anti-globalisation

It was proposed that the great hope of globalisation was that it would raise living standards throughout the world, but failure to develop democratic political institutions for globalisation to work in order to improve the lives of most people, not just the richest in the richest countries, together with economic globalisation outpacing political globalisation, has impacted negatively on the outcomes of globalisation (Stiglitz, 2007:269). A number of social movements resisting globalisation, formed the anti-globalisation movement to create awareness about the inequalities between rich and poor (Meyer, 2007), highlighting the fact that these inequalities were increasing and were unacceptable, and forcing the issue onto the agenda of the international community (Giddens, 2002). Protesters at G8 summits believed that globalisation was a political project promoted by 'Western' powers and the transnational elite dominated by the corporate sector, for the principal advantage of a minority of humankind. Centred in the United States, this 'cosmocracy' was perceived to have advocated and organised globalisation through important institutions such as the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, World Trade Organisation (WTO), G8 (G7+ Russia) and the European Union (EU) (Held and McGrew, 2007).

The anti-globalisation movement sought to increase public awareness of the consequences of the integration of previously separate labour and consumer markets resulting in economic restructuring, relocation of factories, and increased global competition from less economically developed countries. This was further increased with the fall of communism in 1989, and the subsequent movement of ex-

communist workers into Western Europe and North America, competing directly with the 'local' middle and working class (Roudometof, 2009). However, Sklair argues that through modernisation, consumerism replaced other ideologies, distracted attention from the real damage caused by globalisation, and although social movements organised successfully against local opponents, they needed to link with other movements worldwide to oppose "the global capitalist elite" successfully (1995:340).

Alter-globalisation

Struggles and economic changes after World War Two gave rise to a myriad of new social movements covering areas ranging from civil rights, to feminism, human rights and ecology. The application of the Washington consensus⁷ and the spread of neoliberal globalisation totally opposed by the anti-globalisation movement saw the rise of new global social movements. In contrast to the anti-globalisation movement, the alter-globalisation movement sought to promote the important non-economic values and concerns "supporting new forms of globalisation, urging such values as democracy, justice, environmental protection and human rights be put ahead of purely economic concerns" (Harvey et al., 2009:383). The movement was made up of a diverse group of social movements who joined forces usually for multinational events, and together with non-governmental organisations promoted a more humane globalisation on the local and global level, while simultaneously striving for change in the political, social, cultural, and economic arena. They worked through street protests, publicised through the media, or through lobbying and co-ordination on the local, national and global levels. Appadurai (2006) intimates that they forged networks through transnational activism in an effort to slow down neoliberal processes, forming alternative partnerships geared towards capacity building, through setting of goals, development of expertise, sharing of knowledge and mutual commitment (Harvey et al., 2009).

Unlike the anti-globalisation social movements, they were not concerned just with change in economic factors, and did not demand change through drastic measures or revolution, but promoted change in society through social and cultural, identity and

⁷ A set of ten policies that the US government and the international financial institutions based in the US capital believed were necessary elements of "first stage policy reform" that all countries should adopt to increase economic growth (WHO, 2014).

political aspects. Their interaction was not hierarchical, but the main aim was to develop more humane forms of globalisation through global social movements covering areas such as women's rights, civil rights, ecology, anti-racist, peace, lesbian, gay, bisexual and queer rights, human security, workers' rights, children's rights, aboriginal rights, and general internationalism. They believed that there was an alternative to the current form of globalisation, 'another world is possible' and although globalisation would continue, it should do so in a different manner or be replaced, indicating a position for reformist or transformist tendencies (Harvey et al., 2009).

Alter-globalisation movements depended on the awareness that we were part of a single world where the continuing force of neoliberal economic ideology at key levels of government; the power of large state capital; the attachment to the idea of state sovereignty; and the underdeveloped institutional capacities of alternatives were still major challenges (Harvey et al., 2009). The space in which social relations developed was no longer a national or localised one, but had become global in reach, with the community that defined our identity decreasingly associated with our national space, and where decisions taken by contributors from different strata of the global society potentially influenced the decisions and action taken even in the local community (Harvey and Houle, 1994). Worldwide economic crises have strengthened the voice of alterglobalisation movements, urging change and increasingly influencing decisions on our social, cultural and economic life,

De-globalisation

In order to counter the global economy as a force that centralises and homogenises, Bello (2002) suggested de-globalisation, a process that differed from anti-globalisation, in that it still required a global order to encourage and protect diversity and pluralism (Smith, 2005). He stressed the need to re-embed the economy in society, in order to prioritise values of security, equity and social solidarity before profit maximisation, by 'deconstructing' existing institutions that supported corporate globalisation and 'reconstructing' new ways of organising economic life around the core organising principle of diversity – democratising the global economy (Smith, 2005) involving a variety of processes.

- Reducing dependence on foreign investment and foreign financial markets by increasing reliance on locally available resources wherever possible;
- Redistributing income and land to create the financial resources for investment;
- De-emphasising growth and maximising equity in economic policy;
- Abandoning market governance in favour of more democratic forms of economic decision making;
- Subjecting the private sector and the state to constant monitoring by civil society

(Bello, 2002:113-114)

He believed that de-globalisation would redistribute economic power making economic decision-making more inclusive, diverse and responsive to local needs.

Alternatives to Globalisation

It was suggested that “globalisation theory relie[d] on spatial explanations that severed the link between social actors and historical and political processes”, and that “those that advocate globalisation theory essentially embrace claims of neoliberal modernisation theory” (Kiely, 2005:909-911). Scholte (2002) argued that what researchers defined as globalisation has previously been described in the processes of internationalisation, liberalisation, universalisation or Westernisation. They did not present anything new, but just long existing social processes, such as international interdependence, neoliberalism, universalism-versus-cultural diversity, modernity and imperialism. He proposed globalisation as a process of de-territorialisation, which he later changed to supraterritorialism, with some examples being e-communications and cyberspace in general; global travel, global factories and global commodity chains”, as well as “global finance, global businesses, global civil society organisations, global military activities, global ecological and health concerns, global laws, and globalised social relations” (Thompson, 2008:147). He claimed that the spread of worldwide connections between people reduced barriers to transworld contacts leading to globality. While the new aspects of globalisation were related to the supraterritorial, the fundamental developmental impact of globalisation was territorial, affecting different areas in different ways, arguing that the current social space was both territorial and supraterritorial (Scholte, 2005).

Globalisation linked people anywhere, but did not necessarily connect “people *everywhere* and to the same degree” (Scholte, 2002:30).

On the other hand sceptics claim that there was nothing either global or unprecedented about globalisation, and that there was no global culture or global history – in fact no globalisation at all, just a contemporary version of cultural imperialism, where hegemonic imperialist states elaborate long term strategies for representation of their interests with continuing resistance to these policies exerted within national formations (Sakellariopoulos, 2009:75). Rosenberg (2005) argued that globalisation theory failed to deliver what it set out to do, namely to provide a theory of globalisation as a theory of the driving force behind social change. It lacked a real definition of what it was that was globalised, or whether the global reality might be, “a ‘social system’, a society or an agglomeration of incommensurable social orders” (Albert, 2007:172), and that globalisation theory should be about how and to which degree society was differentiated and not how it was integrated, which was what globalisation theory was mainly concerned with.

Empire

According to Rosenberg the ‘age of globalisation’ was over and the world had moved into an era of ‘unilateralism’ or ‘empire’ with a reassertion of high power national interests (2005:3). Hardt and Negri (2000) believed that geopolitical and economic globalisation, with the declining sovereignty of the nation states and their inability to regulate economic and cultural exchanges, had resulted in a comprehensive transformation of human life, on both local and global levels, to the formation of empire with a lack of boundaries, absence of spatial or temporal limits, and, despite being involved in conflict, a dedication to peace. Not to be mistaken with imperialism, empire established no territorial centre of power, and did not rely on fixed boundaries or barriers; it was a de-centralised and de-territorialising system of rule that involved the whole world “with its flexible hierarchies, and plural exchanges through modulating networks of command” (Hardt and Negri, 2000:xii). Imperialism was over; and the concept of empire was presented as a global effort under the direction of a united power that maintained the social peace, produced its ethical truths, and was empowered to conduct ‘just wars’ to achieve these ends.

The concept of Empire has no boundaries; Empire's rule has no limits; its order is permanent, eternal, and necessary (Hardt and Negri, 2000:11)

2.7. Sport and Theories of Change

The advocates of modern sporting ideologies promise that sport will: teach people the value of team play and cooperation, assimilate immigrants and colonised people, prevent crime and behavioural deviance, transmit the values of fair play and regulated competition, spark nationalism and invigorate patriotism, ameliorate racial divisions and smooth over class tension, or create a common global culture and usher in a cosmopolitan utopia.

(Dyreson, 2003:94)

Linking sport to globalisation leads to an analysis of sport as part of an emergent global culture, contributing to the definition of new identities and to the development of a world economy (Harvey and Houle, 1994) however, Coakley (1990) suggests that

The existence of sport must be explained in terms of something more than simply the needs of the social system or the production needs of a capitalist economy. Sport is created by people interacting, using their skills and interests to make sport into something that meets their interests and needs (Frey and Eitzen, 1991:505)

In the study of sport, Houlihan (2008) suggests that there is the need to distinguish between its political, economic and cultural dimensions, their interrelationships and relative significance, as well as “distinguishing between globalisation as a process and globalisation as an outcome” (Houlihan, 2008:554).

2.7.1. Sport and Globalisation - Process

Since the late nineteenth century, sport has been shaped and contoured by global flows as proposed by Appadurai (1996) particularly of people, technology, capital, mediated images and ideologies. “The ideological agendas of European Empires (Guttmann, 1994), the internationalist mission and values of the Olympic Movement (Hoberman, 1995, Houlihan, 1994); the globalisation of consumer markets, and the global reach of television” have all contributed to the globalisation of modern sport

(Roche, 2000:168). Miller et al. (1999) believe that since the sport experience links nationalism, public policy, the media, and contemporary cultural industrialisation, these areas should also be considered in wider arguments on globalisation. Although there have been positive outcomes in several areas, a number of controversial issues are also negatively effecting sport, including the “use of performance enhancing drugs, the migration of athletes and coaches, the environment impact, the use of developing countries’ workforce for production of sportswear and sport equipment, the general commodification and commercialisation of sports in society”, apart from apparent dominance of some global sporting organisations such as the IOC and FIFA (Thibault, 2009:2).

It has been suggested that the beginning of the transformation from pre-modern particularity to the post-particular, universalised (globalised) sports system can be traced to the eighteenth and nineteenth century Britain, when “the British imperial reach and aspirations at this time”, led to the more popular sport being spread globally as part of its cultural imperialist process, also helping to “facilitate, intensifying colonial and /or commercial relationships” (Andrews and Ritzer, 2007:30-31), between Britain and the rest of the world. The internationalisation of sport in its nineteenth century diffusion via the British Empire together with the promotion of the ‘Western’ culture of competition, ranking and nationalism, was considered the cause of the decrease in importance of most indigenous sports when compared to those promoted by the colonisers (Miller et al., 1999).

The introduction of these sport forms into foreign countries created global-local tensions, causing the displacement of many of the local traditional pastimes, not to disappear, but to become more glocalised; more closely related to the local culture, taking on secondary importance in the international sphere. Mangan (1996) suggested that sport during colonialism was a means of contact for the various cultures that made up the empire, as a source of uniting them but also as a means of local resistance. Before the outbreak of the Second World War, many Americans believed that they could use the Olympic arena to construct global culture based on an American foundation, consequently sports of British origin were eventually adopted by the United States, some were changed to suit American culture and audience, and eventually promoted as American sports (Dyreson, 2003).

Further globalisation of sport continued during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries with the emergence of the international sports organisations and national sport governing bodies, that structured, regulated, and administered sport leagues and competitions at regional, national and international levels. These influential organisations included the IOC, International Olympic Committee (1896), FIFA, *Federation Internationale de Football Association* (1904), IAAF, the international Association of Athletics Federations (1912), FIBA, *Federation Internationale de Basketball* (1932). They created a structure to which all national sporting bodies would seek to be affiliated to if they wanted to belong to the international community of sporting nations, which Andrews and Ritzer (2007) suggested was the start of the first phase of globalisation of sport. Although identified with distinctly 'Western values', international competitions were organised in which the individual national (glocal) sporting traditions with "distinctive corporeal techniques, playing styles, aesthetic codes, administrative structure and interpretive vocabularies" (Giulianotti and Robertson, 2004:549) could compete; this 'universalisation of particularism' (Robertson, 1992) becoming a core feature for the second phase of globalisation.

During the early part of twentieth century, although the control of sport was in the 'West', struggle for hegemony of sport was between the 'West' and the rest, as well as in the 'West' (Maguire, 1994) between the USA and the Soviet Union. After World War II, America and Russia, used sport in a bid to gain political allegiance and to promote their cultural and political legacy in the former colonies of the periphery. Russia concentrated on Eastern Europe, parts of Africa and South-east Asia, while America identified Western Europe and Latin America as appropriate avenues of influence (Tomlinson and Whannel, 1984:7). However, although developing countries conformed to the American and British approach of defining nationhood through sport, they in turn used sport to promote their own nationalism (Dyreson, 2003). The spread of sporting disciplines worldwide had fuelled nationalism, with many Third World countries using sport to demonstrate the benefits of nation building (Monnington, 1993, Miller et al., 1999).

Later in that century saw the collapse of the Soviet Union; cultural capitalism replaced cultural imperialism, promoting global change; "the new world order

appeared as unipolar, with the USA the only power which had the military, political and economic capacity to control international affairs” (Chatziefstathiou, 2005). Starting from sport in the US and Canada, followed eventually in Western Europe, Japan and Australia, etc., the sport arena was irreversibly incorporated into the workings of global capitalism, when it was restructured to give priority importance to commercial interest in favour of sporting organisation. Consequently, most global sports institutions adopted similar structures and were mainly driven and defined by inter-related processes of

Corporatisation: the management and marketing of sport entities for profit;

Spectacularisation: the production of entertainment-driven experiences;

Commodification: the generation of multiple sport-related revenue streams

Although many of these organisations might be global in scale most of their commercial strategies were still directed towards the glocal market but they had become “adept at shaping and using glocal sport practices, symbols, and celebrities as conduits for realising their global ambitions” (Andrews and Ritzer, 2007:33-34) often with access to revenue streams, and fan bases in more than one country.

Throughout the twentieth century the Olympic movement has shown considerable resilience and capacity to adapt to pressures generated in its international political environment, and has played something of a parallel role with the United Nations in the International sphere of post-war and post-colonial period (Roche, 2000); two global organisations facing similar problems mirroring what Robertson (1989) termed the “particularisation of universalism (the rendering of the world as a single place) and the universalisation of particularism (the globalised expectation that societies ...should have distinct identities)” (Houlihan, 2008:567), since both the IOC and the UN operate at a global level, while there are intractable differences at the particular level of their members (Parry, 2006).

2.7.2. Globalisation and Sport – Outcome

It has been suggested that globalisation depends on agency of “individuals, companies, institutions or states” and is therefore a socially constructed process (Furlong and Marsh, 2010:206), and that global structures are outcomes of human endeavour as well as the context of that agency, so that “in every locale or policy

area the influence of global phenomena may be (consciously or unconsciously) embraced, adapted or rejected” (Henry, 2007:21).

Technology and the Media

Modern technology and the advent of specialised TV networks created “social links between people located at points anywhere on earth within a whole-world context. The global sphere [became] a social space in its own right” (Scholte, 2002:15) and a global market for sport. Sport required an international audience (Gupta, 2009) which through the internet and media broadcasts could cross time and space, or what Giddens (1990) called ‘time space distancing’, and follow sport at any venue across the globe. People were no longer restricted to local circumstances (Henry 2007). The increased influence of the media favoured a symbiotic union with sport and Trans National Corporations (TNCs), a relationship which Thibault refers to as “*Ménage a Trois*”. TNCs provided the funds for sponsoring sport which created the spectacle, globally transmitted by the media through which sport benefited from the sale of broadcasting rights and advertising (2009:10), one of the major beneficiaries of which was the International Olympic Committee.

Although the IOC has “pledged to favour free-to-air television over pay television”, technological development could result in the audio-visual rights being sold on multiple platforms to the same bidders (Rowe, 2006:430). Although broadcasts covered the same event, too much non-indigenous content deterred viewers and antagonised governments, so individual national transmissions of sport events combined foreign, indigenous and ‘customised’ genres and text to localise transmissions (Miller et al., 2001:32), so that the main broadcast ‘feed’ was customised by local broadcasters and differentially interpreted by viewers (Rowe, 2006).

Those nations with sufficient economic and technological resources are able to locally embellish generic coverage – much of which is bound up with the host’s ‘presentation of self’ to the global(tourist and commercial) marketplace (Silk and Andrews, 2010:297), through preferred event and athlete selection, customised commentary, expert analysis and feature segments (Andrews and Ritzer, 2007:36).

Despite the commodification and globalisation of the sport, the media, influenced by commercial interest (Gee and Leberman, 2011) also limited the sport disciplines, products and images broadcast to suit particular interests. The Olympics have the lowest viewership when they are in a time zone that makes it difficult for viewers to tune in, particularly those in the United States (Gupta, 2009). It was perceived that “television [was] the engine that [had] driven the growth of the Olympic Movement” (Preuss, 2004:99) with the income from Broadcasting rights reaching unprecedented levels. Unfortunately, the high dependence on broadcasting rights funds, has fuelled concern that the media could influence what was happening in sport, by the encouraging changes in rules of sports to make them more appealing for fans, sponsors and the media; the insertion of stoppages in transmission to allow for commercial breaks; or the possibility of US TV networks’ influencing change in event time schedules to favour viewing in the United States (Toohey and Veal, 2007) as experienced during the Games in Beijing 2008, where finals in popular events, such as swimming, were held in the morning to suit the time frame of broadcasts for American audiences. This contradicts the concept of the Olympic Movement which considers the athlete as the most important contribution to the Olympic Games, and while Olympic revenue from TV rights was generated principally for the benefit of athletes worldwide, such manipulations make one wonder whether the athlete has just become another commodity.

Commercialisation and globalisation do not affect all sports in the same way, with a limited number of organisations, one of which is the IOC, attracting the broadcasting media and its financial awards (Stokvis, 2000). It has been argued that the needs of commerce and technology have led to a situation where the success of a sport was determined by sporting events broadcast for prime time viewing, with a large fan base for as long as possible, so that the success of an international event depended largely on its financial backing; favouring ‘Western’ nations who were the major financiers of sport, rather than on the international sports decision making process (Miller et al., 2001). However, through the sale of broadcasting rights, the Olympic Movement has managed to obtain funds to support even those sports which would otherwise not get much media coverage (Stokvis, 2000).

TV broadcasts have been dominated by American networks and although, in the case of the Olympic Games, the Olympic Charter requires the IOC to ensure the fullest coverage by the media, the inequalities among economically developed and underdeveloped countries can be seen in the difference in level of technology, and the inequalities of coverage of sport events in the latter (Roche, 2000). Although the European Union affords legal protection for some cultural events deemed to be of national significance, access to television transmission of events, such as the Olympic Games, was restricted to those with the required broadcasting technology, and an appropriately supportive political regime. Although enhancing communication between individuals and communities the spread of internet technologies was also highly uneven, reinforcing differences as well as inequalities between countries, and segments of populations in the countries themselves (Nauright, 2004).

Economic Implications

The hegemonic global sport order is based on fully commodified sport, with sport, having an exchange value, being monopolised by sports manufacturing and professional multinational corporations. Sport itself is governed by a supranational authority, the globocracy of the International Olympic Committee and the powerful International Federations (Nelson, 2002, Harvey et al., 2009). Just as in the global economy, most of the money involved in 'global' sport came from Western Europe, Japan and the United States; the 'West' dominated (most of) the economic, technological, political and knowledge resources, and controlled the levers of power of global sport, the structure of which can be seen to be symptomatic of a new and consumer-dominated phase of 'western' capitalism. Despite intense regional, ethnic and national rivalries still being very evident and even used in marketing, commodification of sport was on the increase (Miller et al., 1999).

The sporting goods manufacturing industry, was largely composed of multinational companies, targeting the global market by adopting global strategies of production, such as de-localisation. Production was largely achieved in developing countries through the use of subcontractors hired by major corporations, where low wages, long hours, lack of job security and dismal and dangerous working conditions are the norm, with employees unable to participate in sport or purchase the goods they produce (Thibault, 2009). Technology-intensive products were made in industrialised

countries, while labour-intensive products were made in developing countries, creating a new international division of labour where the latter produced goods for the reproduction of the lifestyles of those living in developed countries (Andreff, 1988, Harvey and Houle, 1994). Furthermore, these TNCs also spent millions on sponsoring athletes to market their products in the core countries whilst reneging on investment in those countries of the periphery where their goods were manufactured (Thibault, 2009).

Politics and Policing

Andrews and Ritzer (2007) state that the global penetration of the Olympic Games coverage is 'remarkable', but the commonality nurtured by this mega-event was more as a 'spectacular unity-in-difference' event, rather than a serious contribution to global homogenisation. Global in reach and philosophy, the Olympic Games were invariably glocal in performance as could be seen in the highly choreographed spectacle of the game's opening ceremonies (Hogan, 2003, Tomlinson, 1996). New nations needed both political and cultural international arenas and public spheres in which to display themselves, be recognised and legitimated, almost as much as they needed to be recognised and be included in the UN organisation (Roche, 2000). Since "sport serves to articulate secondary national interests" such as "visibility, ideological expression, stature enhancement and legitimacy" (Frey and Eitzen, 1991:512) a strong performance in sport becomes a powerful asset; a positive reputation in sport was perceived to enhance a country's global status and position on the world stage (Cha, 2009). The Olympics were considered important for Third World Countries because of the political legitimacy they acquired just by marching in the Opening Ceremony. Research has also shown that, while the Opening Ceremony has a global character, it is the local dimensions of the nation's performing athletes, that keeps broadcasters and viewers interested (Bernstein and Blain, 2002)

The spread of sport around the world also created formal and informal codification with rigid laws that cross borders, with state and intergovernmental agencies getting involved in political boycotts, non-recognition of national teams and individuals, eligibility of athletes, substance abuse, commercialisation and jurisdictional disagreements between sports organisations (Nafziger, 1992, Miller et al., 2001).

Sport was also influenced by the policing rules and regulations of the IOC, FIFA, and 'Western' influenced intergovernmental policies, such as those of the Commonwealth of Nations, UNESCO, and the Council of Europe, as well as by the influence of social movement manifestos such as the Brighton Declaration on Women and Sport. There has been a significant expansion of international regulation involving politics between states, civil society and international organisations (Held and McGrew, 2007).

The perceived orientation of most theories on globalisation tilt towards the belief in the decrease in power of national governments to control the broader regional-level or world-level forces within their territories, was accompanied with the rise of "new forms of trans-national territories, spaces and terrains", both materially and culturally (Inglis, 2010:136). The International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the *Federation International de Football Association* (FIFA), are "immensely powerful civil associations of cultural elites from across the world that frequently dictate terms to governments and business through a complex relationship of interdependency with nationalism and corporate funding (Miller et al., 2001:12).

Henry states that "the concept of governance is intrinsically bound up with that of globalisation" (2007:7), and according to (Gilpin, 2001) "the rapid globalisation of the world economy has elevated the governance issue to the top of the international economic agenda" (Held and McGrew, 2007:139). Problems with doping, corruption and violence... led states to become increasingly interested in the governance of sport, and according to Katwala (2000) concerns were being raised about how global sport business was affecting the credibility of the institutions of sporting governance (Smart, 2007). With the proliferation of worldwide formalisation and communication, and the increase in financial and commercial interests, various stakeholders become more interested in what was happening inside the Olympic Movement. It became increasingly scrutinised for its action, and at times its inaction.

Following the Salt Lake City Scandals, the Ethics Commission was set up by the IOC in March 1999, charged to investigate "non-respect of...ethical principles" (International Olympic Committee, 2013a:50). On the other hand, the development of organisations such as the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) the International

Council for Arbitration for Sport (ICAS), impinge on the autonomy of the local, national or regional sport clubs and associations whereas transnational bodies such as the EU Commission and the European Court affect the ability of sports to regulate and control sport policy in general (Maguire, 2008). Since 1984, the IOC has operated the International Court of Arbitration for Sport which had been used both by National legal entities and Sports Organisations, although it has been criticised as undemocratic by Third World Countries (Houlihan, 1994, Miller et al., 2001).

Crossing National Boundaries

The 'time-space compression' (Harvey,1989), or the "speeding up of processes" (Henry 2007. 6), as a result of technological and economic change, has seen the advent of new forms of transport and communication resulting in increased travel worldwide, facilitating the movement within countries and between countries. Athletes migrate on a seasonal, residential or comprehensive basis (Bale and Maguire, 1994, Miller et al., 1999). They also migrate from the periphery to core, to train or compete in the more advanced facilities or leagues, benefitting from better qualified coaches in the more economically and sportingly advanced core nations, to enhance their national performance in International competition (van Bottenburg and Wilterdink, 2004). Some successful athletes benefit from huge financial private sponsorship contracts, becoming independent from their traditional amateur organisations, sometimes even manipulating organisers of sports events, by their reluctance to participate in competitive events, in contrast with team sport athletes, with similar financial income, who are totally dependent on their 'club's' organisation (Stokvis, 2000).

Falling costs of transportation, the communications revolution, liberalisation and the growth of transnational corporations have all contributed to a new global division of labour (Held and McGrew, 2007:77)

The deregulation of financial markets resulting from the intensification of the globalisation process, has resulted in more flexibility in the transnational labour market also in sport (Maguire, 2008) with a resultant increase in the number of athletes, coaches, officials, administrators and sport scientists, migrating from one country to another, generally to countries with more resources, better financial

remuneration or in the case of athletes better coaching, equipment and support services (Bale, 1990, Bale and Maguire, 1994, Lanfranchi and Taylor, 2001, Weston, 2006, Thibault, 2009). Rates of pay for athletes who compete internationally throughout the year, have combined with a deregulated world TV market to create labour cosmopolitans across sport disciplines such as association football, ice hockey, basketball, track, cycling, golf, motor sports, tennis and cricket.

Involvement in sport required participation in networks of organisations that were transnational in scope (Frey and Eitzen, 1991), and the partnership of the International Olympic Committee with the International Federations and the National Olympic Committees created a vast array of interconnectedness to benefit athlete sourcing, funding and development. High-performance athletes' identities were increasingly linked more to a network of training and competition, rather than to any element of their national belonging, which took a secondary position in relation to their professional life (Harvey and Houle, 1994). The movement of coaches from one country to another also introduced 'foreign' training methods and playing strategies (Houlihan, 2008) and the "relationship between sport and *national* identity [was] self-evidently unravelling to reveal an increasingly global sporting culture" (Bairner, 2001:1)

Grobalisation of Sport

Although sport promoted equality of participation, it created hierarchy in the comparison of its outcomes, binding individual nations into an international rank order, with the grouping of nations in a similar structure to the world system proposed by Wallerstein (1974), of core, semi-peripheral and peripheral blocks (Bale and Sang, 1994). These three groups have been identified by Chatziefstathiou et al. as: "the 'core' capitalist economies of Western Europe, the United States, Canada and Australia; the 'semi-periphery' of the Eastern European bloc; and the 'periphery', largely Asian, African and Latin American states" (Chatziefstathiou et al., 2006:279) and suggest the divisions reflected economic wealth and influence, but that exceptions did exist, one of which to include Japan as part of the 'core'. Apart from a few exceptions such as Kenya, Cuba and Ethiopia, the core 'Western' States were the overall winners, as well as in control of the world of sport, with their affluent inhabitants more able to participate or follow sport stimulating the commercialisation

of sport while more money was invested in its own sport. Even though 'Western' nations were facing better competition on the field, they were still in control of the content, ideology and economic resources in sport, and sports industries still produced mostly 'Western products', with the media marketing the same sport disciplines, products and images, particularly those that were more interesting to both advertisers and viewers (Bernstein and Blain, 2002).

Modernisation theory suggested "that homogenisation of sport forms reflect[ed] a process of the homogenisation of world societies" (Wagner 1990, Henry & Al-Tauqi 2007, 43). Although globalisation theorists put forward a process of Americanisation of cultural, social, economic and political trends worldwide, this was not particularly the case in sport, where apart from Basketball, American sports such as Baseball, which has had a relative success internationally, and American Football have not had the worldwide impact (Bairner, 2003) of British sport that dominates, particularly in the Olympic Games. While the mission of the IOC was to contribute to the development of sport in all its forms the list of sports represented in the Olympic Games are a reflection of the earlier cultural hegemony of the 'West', contributing to the reduction in popularity and influence of traditional and regional sport in favour of sports disciplines practiced across the five continents on the Olympic programme. Some countries were adept at different sporting disciplines which stood no chance when in direct competition with the mostly 'western' sports institutionalised and promoted by global sport organisations such as the IOC or FIFA (Giulianotti, 2004b).

Traditional sports such as sepak takraw played and watched by millions of South East Asians, and kabaddi followed by millions in South Asia and South-East Asia, are not Olympic sports disciplines (Miller et al., 1999, Parry, 2006), while minority elitist sports such as equestrianism and yachting are included. (Beh and Leow, 1999, Miller et al., 1999). The underdevelopment of traditional sports was therefore produced, also in part because Olympic competition criteria exclude them. Parry (2006) suggests that one of the options to remedy this situation would be to rethink the Olympic programme of events, but it was highly unlikely that the IOC, with its hegemonic structure and 'Western' influence would carry out any radical change (Harvey et al., 2009). The globalisation of sports was seen as an example of a cultural diffusion process in which lower status groups adopted practices,

preferences and symbols from high status groups, similar to the spread of other contemporary items such as fashion, music and fast food (van Bottenburg and Wilterdink, 2004). While sport practiced by 'grass roots' athletes was very likely to be glocalised, with a mixture of the 'global' and the 'local' in their variety; sport, as experienced in the Olympic Games, was highly standardised, or 'globalised', with common procedures and rules, where competition and hierarchy were clearly defined, unlike competition in other elements of popular culture which were generally based on personal preference. Since most Olympic Sport was of European origin, if non-western nations wanted to participate in the Olympic Games they had to do so by competing in 'western' sport (Guttmann, 1994, Henry and Al-Tauqi, 2007).

Sport depends on 'passionate national differentiation and celebrity', and competition. Rowe (2003) argued that some national studies on sport have demonstrated that national sporting culture was not insulated nor obliterated by sporting globalisation, but resistance to Americanisation and globalisation have led to strategic adaptation, and new combinations of sporting forms, practices and personnel in national contexts (Bairner, 2001). The sporting nation might not be restricted to the boundaries of the nation-state but might cross divisions of identity influenced by class, culture, education, gender, religion and politics (Bairner, 2001, Rowe, 2003). 'Western' domination of sport was also increasingly subject to resistance, with alternatives to the Olympic events, such as the revival of national cultural games, open-air movements, expressive activities and meditative exercises, supporting Maguire's argument that "the age of Western dominance was coming to an end – and with it the predominance of Olympic sports" (2008:316).

Development of Sport

According to Lucas (1992), countries were in different stages of development or 'modernisation' and a country's high Gross National Product did not automatically mean its technology or sports infrastructure was advanced or that it had adequate finance. The development of sport in each country also varied according to the specific character of its historical social formation (Rowe, 2003). Governments and their agencies invested large sums of money in elite sport to compete against other nations (De Bosscher et al., 2006) and as international events became increasingly popular and visible, strong efforts were made to mobilise and utilise all relevant

national resources in order to achieve success and victories, with increasing demands in international sport paralleled by increasing investment in performance production (Heinila, 1985). Where sport was not directly connected to the spatially limited identity of a nation particularly in professional sport, it has given rise to the prospect of global sport - and so "global society, culture, economy and polity" (Rowe, 2003:285).

It has been suggested that top-level sport success falls into three levels, the macro level concerning the social and cultural context of where people live, the meso-level involving sports policies, politics and investment in elite sport, and the micro-level concerning individual athletes and their close environment, their dedication and motivation. Yet research has also shown that a range of factors contributed to success, and elite athletes were increasingly the product of a long-term strategic planning process; financial inputs were important but how resources were used was crucial. Research quoted by van Bottenburg and Wilterdink (2004) indicates that the economic status of a country (Kruper and Sterken, 2003), together with a strategic elite athlete development plan (Oakley and Green, 2001) and the management of its resources (SIRC, 2002), play a major part in Olympic success; yet a system leading to success in one nation might fail in another.

Stamm and Lamprecht (2000) suggested that although macro-level factors such as population size and GDP were becoming less accurate predictors of nation's performance in elite sport (De Bosscher et al., 2006), one needed to consider the economic, political and social situation of the country itself and whether it could sustain a competitive level of sport development in its athletes. According to Henry, "despite peripheral athletes' achievements in 'western' sport, the periphery is still dependent on the 'West' for providing coaches, equipment, knowledge and even the administration of high-level competition" (Henry and Al-Tauqi, 2007:45). Questions arise about the dilemma of athletes, from countries with an undeveloped sport infrastructure, who benefit from opportunities to train in sports facilities of more economically sport developed countries, on how to maintain their technical level on returning to their home country, or just resign themselves to become representatives of one country while permanently living in another.

Globalisation, or its processes also offered a challenge to the close ties that linked sport with the nation, with an exodus of athletes, to rich countries, such as Saif Saeed Shaheen from Kenya, competing for Qatar in athletics against athletes from his own country (Bairner, 2003). Unfortunately, the pressure to be competitive on the international scene, even in team sports, in high level international competition or at the Olympic Games, encouraged poaching of top athletes from developing countries, by affluent and/or more sport developed countries (Klein, 1989) sometimes also to the detriment of their own local athletes. The varied eligibility regulations of internationally represented sport could result in citizens of different countries playing as teammates in one competition, and competing against each other in another (Rowe, 2003).

Sport is a competition, “the primary award is status, prestige or symbolic capital” (van Bottenburg and Wilterdink, 2004:2). The lure of better training facilities, financial security, or just the opportunity to compete internationally could instigate migration to another sporting nation; this phenomena also contributing to the increasing number of National Olympic teams having athletes born in countries other than the one they represent. Such ‘defections’ depleted the talent pool of the developing country which also lost out on the success of its investment in sports development to the ‘adopted’, usually more affluent nation. The practice of ‘changing’ nationality was not new. Although athletes would temporarily gain personally, the real beneficiaries of this migration were sports teams and leagues in affluent countries, undermining local competition and domestic leagues in the country of origin of the migrating athletes (van Bottenburg and Wilterdink, 2004). Many African nations tended to under-utilise their talent and performers, and/or lose them to more powerful nations in the global sports arena, leading to the under- or dependent development of a nation’s talent; with some athletes considering national teams as just “flags of convenience” to ensure they are able to ‘display’ their talents to a worldwide audience on a global stage (Maguire, 2008:451).

The temporary or permanent migration of athletes, coaches and administrators, the success of a nation’s athletes in international competition was not seen just a result of individual effort but also due to the connections within, and the effective contribution of the international sports system (Heinilä, 1967, van Bottenburg and

Wilterdink, 2004). Donnelly (1996) suggested that in neo-colonialist manner, there had been an increase in systems of sport that emphasise the development of high performance elite athletes rather than broad-base participation (Jackson and Haigh, 2008), and the rising standard in international competition had developed into a competition between 'systems' in a global context (Heinila", 1982, De Bosscher et al., 2006).

Diversity

Homogenisation theorists claim that national cultural identities are weakened by the processes of globalisation which is powered by 'Western' notions of civilisation (Elias, 1994) however, globalisation forces apply differently with regards to different forms of culture. Rowe argues that sport tends to "not only to resist global homogenising forces but to repudiate them". He takes the position that cultural nationalism and (g)localism resist globalising processes and also that the progress of globalisation was unevenly developed across space and time, but suggested that sport was so deeply dependent on the production of differences that it "repudiates the possibility of comprehensive globalisation, while seeming to foreshadow its inevitable establishment" (Rowe, 2003:282). Rumford suggests that the relationship between globalisation and sport could be perceived as contradictory, as defined by Robertson (1989) in the process of 'universalisation of particularism' and 'particularisation of universalism'. World championship competitions were essential for most top sports, with the Olympic Games being the most important, reinforce globalisation: "the world becomes more interconnected and is viewed in organisational terms as a single place" (2007:204), however, while reinforcing the differences between the competing national states even though "the playing field is much more level than in the reality of military, political or economic competitive processes. Here all stand a chance, even the smaller nation states, who can occasionally enjoy the compensatory pleasure of defeating their bigger brother" (Hedetoft, 2003:71-72).

Luschen (1970) stated that sport was a reflection of the cultural system in which people lived, with some characteristics being embedded in that culture (De Bosscher et al., 2006). Although "the broad liberal values of the Olympic Movement allow for the appearance of a unified community, consolidated by the celebration of sport,

culture and the environment” (Nauright, 2004:1330), these global values do not necessarily reflect the distinctive characteristics of local communities. “Sporting events provide opportunities to try and force a sense of community through a collection of values” (Nauright, 2004:1330). Often this has little to do with the people who are supposed to adopt them. The values associated with the Olympics, although perceived to be easily transferable between communities, might not have the same interpretation for different cultures (Parry, 2006), but were considered important as to why the Olympic Games were able to sustain collective and unified continuance of support from one city to the next. Globalisation reveals the “inadequacy of sameness” as communities assert their uniqueness in an uneven process, so that the ‘globalised’ similarities of each Olympic Games, its rules, its sports disciplines, its competitions, its ceremonies, its structure, exist together with the ‘local’ characteristics of the host city, making each Games unique (Nauright, 2004:1330).

Large scale events have become key factors in local and national development strategies, and the incorporation of ethnic difference within the production of events has increased (Nauright, 2004). The global access to the media has also generated a new trend, with an increasing number of countries interested in staging annual international sporting events (Jackson and Haigh, 2008) in the hope that the media interest generated in the host city will generate an influx of capital through tourism and new investment. However, the gigantism of mega events with their high financial and managerial implications, has greatly reduced the possibilities for a vast number of countries to organise an Olympic Games, so that the only affordable alternatives are second order events such as Commonwealth Games, Regional Games or other uni-disciplinary World Championships (Jackson and Haigh, 2008). The introduction of the Youth Olympic Games has introduced another opportunity. Although sport helps in creating the national brand, the staging of a mega-event such as the Olympic Games, might not always produce long-term benefits; it is usually the athletes’ achievements that remain as memories, not the place or facility where they were held (Gupta, 2009).

Sport has developed a post national dimension, through a process of what is considered post-Westernisation, with an increasing lack of unity within those countries formerly considered to have a common ‘Western’ view, and the recognition

that there is a “melange of different modernities: ‘Western’, post-communist, Islamic”; as well as the “emergence of a new East capable of shaping global affairs, previously seen as the preserve of the West” (Rumford, 2007:205). It has been suggested that the “economic rise of China, the demographic rise of Islam, the indigenisation of elites and regionalisation of world politics are correlated to Western decline” (Tsolakis, 2011:175). Non-Western nations have moved from being the recipients of sporting dictates to actual shapers of decision making in various international sports. Their financial investment and different outlook toward sport has increased their potential to influence change “as to where major sporting events might take place, their timing, the rules that govern the game and the way the games are played and packaged to the world” (Gupta, 2009:1788) with high investment in events possibly also drawing top sporting talent away from traditional sporting events in the ‘West’. The recently held FIFA World Cup in South Africa in 2010, and that awarded to Qatar in 2022, as well as the Beijing 2008 and Brazil 2016 Olympic Games, are but a few examples of a growing trend to organise mega sports events outside the ‘West’.

2.7.3. Globalisation, Sport and Social Movements

Although there were not many sport-specific new social movements, sport was influenced by and had contributed to social movements which shared, what Robertson (1990), among others had described as a ‘globe-oriented perspective’, recognising what people shared in common while respecting difference. New social movements allowed individuals to develop networks and a sense of community through sport, independent of the presence of national political levels. The feminist movement had definitely had an impact on sport and the equitable participation of women as athletes, technical personnel, administrative staff, and in leadership positions in all levels of sport and its organisations, be they national or international. Anti-racist movements, included the anti-apartheid movement which was effective in the elimination of apartheid with the help of sport, through protests and boycotts, particularly by African nations, in relation to participation at Olympic Games (Harvey and Houle, 1994).

Most people were unaware of the impact of sport on the environment: energy and resources used by the fans; pollution through transport; waste generated from food

and drink consumption. The building of sports facilities also impacted the environment, with protests evident at the Olympic Games highlighting the impact of the facilities created for the Games on the environment and the sustainability of the infrastructure for the future. In 2007, the Centre on Housing Rights and Evictions (COHRE), a non-sport organisation, sought to force sport organisations to acknowledge the same rights and opportunities promoted through sport, by publishing a report about these issues with a list of guidelines for organisers of 'mega sport events (Harvey et al., 2009).

Countries with a more temperate climate build snow domes that utilised vast amounts of energy to sustain a low temperature. Golf was to be included in the Olympic Games, but the maintenance of golf courses negatively affected wild life and depleted water resources (Thibault, 2009). The anti-golf movement was critical of the development of golf courses in Asia for Euro-American and Japanese businessmen, highlighting the impact of golf course pesticides on human mortality and genetic disorders; as well as the advertising message to the Third World of an unattainable lifestyle. Instead, they created awareness of the need for public recreational space rather than private clubs, sexual harassment by male golfers of female caddies; and water wastage and soil erosion (Harvey and Houle, 1994, Donnelly, 1996, Miller et al., 1999).

Human Rights took front stage at the Beijing 2008 Olympics, where street protests disrupted the Olympic Torch Relay in several countries, opposing China's treatment of Tibet and the incarceration of hundreds of journalists, bloggers and internet activists (Harvey et al., 2009). Through internet communication, media coverage of the Olympic Games brought issues of homelessness, aboriginal recognition, and the use of children in the manufacture of sports goods, which in the past were local problems, to the forefront of the global media making it a worldwide concern. A study of the International Network Against Olympic Games by Lenskyj (2000a) focused on four European groups campaigning against bids for the 2006 Winter Games and identified how the use of the internet "electronic communication, specifically e-mail correspondence and websites facilitated cheap and speedy international networking" (Wilson, 2007:461) was an efficient medium with a worldwide reach used by these groups. International media attention given to the

Olympic Games and increased use of the internet made this event a prime target for use by social movements to promote their agenda, creating public awareness of contested issues, putting pressure on sporting organisations to conform.

Anti-globalists ponder on whether the processes of globalisation and their perceived inherent 'development' have contributed to the economic growth of poorer nations, diminishing world income inequality or reflecting the interests of richer nations leading to more inequality. Similarly, queries have been voiced on whether these processes have had any effect on sporting achievements worldwide. One tenth of participating nations, in the Olympics, has always won far more than half of all the medals, and the group at the top never acquired less than 80%, even though the recognition of new Olympic Committees by the Olympic Movement brought about an absolute, and relative increased participation of athletes from a larger number of nations. Sporting talent was assumed to be equally distributed worldwide, (De Bosscher et al., 2006), but it took time for the institutionalisation of expertise and the building of facilities so essential for athletes to reach elite level. Athletes from 'developing' countries, some through temporary migration for training purposes, gradually acquire knowledge and skill to compete effectively with the representatives of established nations, slowly decreasing the inequality. However, since there seemed to be a significant relationship between money spent and medals won, it was only with a change in international distribution of income that equality in participation might stand a chance (van Bottenburg and Wilterdink, 2004).

2.8. The Olympic Movement

Despite its apolitical ideology, the IOC has been very vulnerable to political influence of various kinds throughout its history including internationalism of Soviet Communism and British Imperialism, and 'alternate internationalism' through 'western' socialism and feminism in the 30's and 40's. All of these movements created their own Olympic type sport mega events, many of which were organised to challenge and change the nature of the Olympic movement and consequently the Olympic Games. Although the Soviet Spartakiades, the Women's Games and Workers Olympics ceased to exist they did have an impact on the Olympic Movement. Women started to participate in the Olympic Games in Amsterdam in 1928 and a full woman's programme was included in the Los Angeles Games while

the regulations on 'amateurism' were gradually changed to make it easier for athletes from the 'working class' to be eligible to compete (Roche, 2000). On the other hand the extreme supernationalism of German fascism actually manipulated the Olympic Movement to promote its ideology and image internationally and to strengthen its authority nationally, during the Berlin Olympic Games in 1936.

The leaders of the Olympic Movement believed that sport should be protected from politics, and made many statements to this effect (Tomlinson and Whannel, 1984), but, because participation in the international sport involved participants representing nation states, and a facet of nation states was politics, it too became part of the organisation (Espy, 1988). Though The IOC always insisted that the athletes represented themselves and the "youth of the world" and that the Olympic Games were competitions between individual athletes and not nations; in fact the athletes represent individual nation states. The Games brought nations together because of the expectations participation implied, but also divided them through its intense competitions; "nationalism therefore thrives in the varied Olympic venues" (Schaffer and Smith, 2000:7) and politics was always present when one considered the Olympic Games (Toohey and Veal, 2007:2).

After the Second World War the Soviet Union and the United States emerged as the two new superpowers, each trying to expand its markets in order to improve the situation in their own country. The Soviets believed that an easy way to promote its political ideology would be through sporting expertise, thus communism would be associated with their eventual sporting success. Sport in the 'Soviet bloc' countries was "regarded as a valid means of reinforcing a particular political ideology: success in sport being equated with success by association with communism" (Allison, 1993:128). It concentrated on Eastern Europe, parts of Africa and South-east Asia, whereas the Americans identified Western Europe and Latin America as ideal partners (Tomlinson and Whannel, 1984). The War had destroyed much of the European economy and the Americans were concerned with the expansion of the Soviet Union and thus communism into Europe. This changing political arena also brought with it the decline of the British and French colonial power, as a result of which more and more the colonies in the 'Third World' achieved their independence. This proved to be an ideal context for the emerging powers to influence these

countries with “replacement of direct military imperialism by economic and cultural imperialism... a form of control without military presence” (Hoogvelt, 1997, Al-Tauqi, 2003:216), creating a dual system of global political blocs: communism and capitalism.

The Marshall plan, devised to provide aid and funding for reconstruction of Europe, encouraged the European Countries to work together and played a significant role in their economic recovery and apparent loyalty to capitalism. (Tomlinson and Whannel, 1984). Multinational and transnational organisations infiltrated these newly independent countries through sports and other cultural aid with the aim of encouraging them to embrace the political ideology of the country providing the aid, whereas for the developing countries, sport was seen as a cheap and simple manner to develop national loyalty and gain international status (Allison, 1993). In the 1950s and 1960s the IOC wanted to increase the number of countries participating in the Olympic Games, to allay threats from other sporting organizations, as well as increase its influence in emerging countries without being involved in their internal politics. Unfortunately, a very high percentage of NOCs were already ‘politically involved’. In communist countries, where everything was dictated by the state, the NOCs of these countries could never really be independent of the state (Senn, 1999) so the NOCs from the Soviet Bloc did not believe sport could be apolitical. At the time the Olympic Charter, stated clearly that recognition of an NOC did not imply political recognition of a country (Miller, 1979) but this was irrelevant to governments

The presence of the Soviet Union in the Olympic movement increased the pressure on the IOC to change its structure, particularly the process of appointment of the members of the IOC who represented a limited number of mostly ‘Western’ countries. This was strongly resisted by the IOC, who did not want a situation of political power blocks as was the case in the UN General Assembly, and other large international organisations (Houlihan, 1994). The Soviets regularly put pressure on the IOC for the inclusion of the newly independent states, particularly those from Africa, into the Olympic Movement; this would potentially increase their own internal power, but they did not want to disrupt the harmony present in the Olympic Movement believing that if the Games were jeopardised their scientific sports culture could not thrive (Hoberman, 1986). Instead they tried to rally allies to gain

acceptance with numerous proposals for change made during meetings of the IOC and its partner organisations.

The addition of new sports disciplines to the Olympic Games and the recognition of more NOCs increased the spread of the Games worldwide, and many of those outside the Games wanted to be involved.

The political ideological conflict of the Cold War provided the context for the development of the aid policy and technical assistance in sport to most independent countries in Africa and Asia (Al-Tauqi, 2003:224)

During the 1960s UN membership increased, particularly from the newly developing countries, and there was a belief that the UN should work towards a New International Sports Order. By offering to be the UN co-ordinating body, the IOC, through Count De Beaumont, tried unsuccessfully to gain access to the sports aid being distributed to the African and Asian newly-developing countries (Al-Tauqi, 2003).

Power struggles between the International Federations and the IOC lead to the formation of the General Assembly of International Federations (GAISF) in May 1967, set up by Thomas Keller, President of the International Rowing Federation and Coulon, the President of the Wrestling Federation (Miller, 1992). Eventually, in reaction to pressure from GAISF for more control of the TV revenues to the International Federations, the IOC set up another two Associations: the Association of Summer Olympic International Federations (ASOIF) and the Association of International Winter Sports Federations (AIWF) through which budgets were eventually distributed (Miller, 1992). This obviously decreased the importance of the GAISF since it lost its potential financial revenue and the IOC was once again in control.

National Olympic Committees also wanted more say in the Olympic Movement and access to its finance, which was on increase due to the sale of the TV rights of the Olympic Games. Despite some conflict with the IOC, who originally considered this as a threat to its sovereignty, they eventually got together and on the 30th September to 1st October 1968 formed the Permanent General Assembly of National Olympic

Committees (Guttmann, 1992). Both the NOCs and the IFs intensified the pressure on the IOC, but Avery Brundage kept them at bay until his retirement, when Lord Killanin decided to retain the Tripartite Commission, made up of representatives of the IFs, the NOCs and the IOC, originally set up in preparation for the Olympic Congress in Varna (International Olympic Committee, 1971b) in order to consolidate relations between the three sectors of the Olympic family (Guttmann, 1992). In this manner, he also reduced GAISF and the PGA to a lower level than that of the IOC while at the same time avoided confrontation (Senn, 1999).

The PGA was eventually replaced by the Association of National Olympic Committees (ANOC) set up at the Consultative General Assembly in San Juan, Puerto Rico on the 26-27 June 1979, with Mario Vasquez Rana (Mexico) as its President (Simson and Jennings, 1992). In turn, ANOC created another five Continental Associations, with committees of their own, through which some of the funds for the Continental Olympic Solidarity programmes have been disbursed since 2001, and which have also become power blocks in their own right (Allison, 1993). There is also a constant tension about the balance of power between the IOC, the IFs and the NOCs particularly over the host city for the Olympic Games, which is chosen by the IOC members (Hill, 1992) and the IOC was not able to stay at the top without continuous effort. The existence of these different organisations pushed the IOC to change its governance from hierarchical control to a systemic control whereby the interested parties are encouraged to cooperate by being part of the Olympic Movement and by utilising contracts with the Organising Committees, Top Sponsors and TV broadcasters allowing it to retain its power. By including all the concerned parties into its organisation, they are less likely to create problems for the IOC, and “in the event of dispute or change, negotiation and trade-offs between the parties are considered key to the stabilisation of the whole organisation” (Henry and Lee, 2004:29). The IOC, through Olympic Solidarity and its worldwide distribution of sport aid, contributed to develop and reinforce the bonds uniting it to the NOCs and to the IFs, serving the promotion of Olympism in the world and maintaining loyalty of the partners towards each other.

By the 1970s there was an increase in the number of international governmental organisations involved with sport, both on the global and regional level. (Houlihan,

1994). Concurrently, with the recognition of the NOCs from the newly independent states the Olympic Movement began to represent a wider diversity of countries, rather than the original Eurocentric ones (Roche, 2000), similar to several other international organisations.

By the 1970's the subversive forces of nationalism, commercialism, professionalism, and organisational goal displacement had created an Olympic Movement that was large, complex, politicised, commercialised, fragmented, increasingly dependent on television, and criticised for its lack of realism and hypocrisy about politics and money (Nixon, 1988:240)

In 1975 it decided to register with the United Nations as a recognised international organisation with legal status (Seagrave and Chu, 1988). At a meeting in Nairobi in 1976, following a French proposal, backed by many African and Asian states, for UNESCO to investigate the organisation of international competitions, a questionnaire to identify opinions on how the IOC and the Olympic Games functioned, was circulated amongst sports organisations worldwide, (Miller, 1979). At the next meeting in Paris in 1976, a Cuban proposal suggested that UNESCO take over the organisation of the Olympic Games. Surprised influential 'western' representatives organised themselves in opposition, and the motion was easily defeated. This proposal was originally instigated by the failure of the Soviet Union to convince the IOC to change the election process of IOC members to one which would create equality between the NOCs, consequently increasing the political power of the Soviet Union and its allies.

The IOC felt this had been another political threat to their position as leading authority in sport (Miller G., 2979: 47). Although Killanin stated that the IOC welcomed help from governments, he believed that sport should not be used for national politics, and that "all NOCs must have freedom of action, not to be dictated to by political considerations or control, which would endanger the freedom of the individual or sport" (Senn, 1999:174). Although pleased that UNESCO was interested to help develop sport, he warned it against interference. Ultimately, these two organisations have played a "parallel role" in the development of new nations

who needed to be seen and accepted in both international political and cultural arenas, subsequently benefiting by being members of both (Roche, 2000:213).

During the early 1980s the Swiss Federal Council decreed the IOC as an international institution which would be exempted from tax on revenue, and recruit “staff for its administration without limitations regarding nationality”; the Olympic Rings were registered as IOC property during the following year (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008:107), subsequently the IOC took control of the enormous increase in revenue from broadcasting rights, showed a rising interest in Olympic marketing and television commercials (Preuss, 2004) and gradually introduced professionalisation and commercialisation within the Olympic movement.

Although the IOC declared that in future unjustified boycotts would be subjected to suspension, during the 1980 Moscow Olympic Games and the 1984 Los Angeles Games the ‘super-power’ rivalry and the ideology of the countries organising the Games was in the spotlight, and political rivalry between the Soviet Union and the United States eventually found its way to the Olympic Movement and was responsible for the two of the biggest boycotts of the Olympic Games. The United States President forbade American Athletes from participating, because of the invasion of Russia in Afghanistan. This boycott was also supported by the Soviet dissident Andrei Sakharov. This time the Soviets worked with the IOC in defence of the Games and spoke of the need to keep politics out of sport. Through loyalty generated through their sport they managed to prevent a possible African boycott, but 36 NOCs officially refused the IOC invitation to the Games (Senn, 1999). The Olympic Movement, with its Eurocentric base, was more highly prized in Europe than in the United States and 18 National Olympic Committees⁸ defied their governments by sending athletes who would compete under the Olympic Flag, use the Olympic Anthem during any victory ceremony, and would “not participate in as a contingent in the opening ceremony. A flag-bearer only will follow the-name board” (International Olympic Committee, 1980a:273)

⁸ List of countries: West Germany (GER), Andorra (AND), Austria (AUS), Belgium (BEL), Denmark (DEN), Finland (FIN), France (FRA), Great Britain (GBR), Greece (GRE), Ireland,(IRL), Italy (ITA), Liechtenstein (LIE), Luxembourg (LUX), Malta (MLT), Netherland (NED), San Marino (SMR), Switzerland (SUI), Turkey (TUR).

The Soviets decided to boycott the 1984 Los Angeles Games, citing political interference and insecurity for their athletes, although the defection of its athletes was a subject that was never mentioned. They were only backed by thirteen socialist allies; the Africans decided to participate and 139 NOCs accepted the IOC invitation (Hoberman, 1986). The Soviet Union, instead, organised the 'Friendship Games' with competitions being held in different countries of the Soviet bloc. Despite the boycott of the Soviet Union and its allies, the Los Angeles Games were a financial success. Ted Turner, of Turner Broadcasting (TBS) attempted to exploit the political rivalry between the two countries for his own profit by contacting the Soviets directly and proposing a competition between Soviet and American athletes, to be held in Moscow in July 1986. (Senn, 1999). Once again the IOC was being threatened by a sports organisation similar to those it had to deal with in the 1930s and 1940s. Fortunately these games did not survive for long and the threat ceased to exist.

Fear of another boycott for the 1988 Seoul Games, had already been felt when in September 1983, Soviet jet fighters shot down a Korean Air Lines jet. The IOC had already considered sanctions for boycott of the Games, including barring NOCs from Olympic Solidarity programmes (Senn, 1999) but the political threat for these Games came predominantly from North Korea, who was unhappy that the Games were to be held in South Korea. They tried to encourage a boycott by the other communist states, and demanded more involvement in the Games, but were eventually left out, and the Games were a success without much incident. (Simson and Jennings, 1992). This was the last time a Soviet team would compete. In 1989, The Berlin Wall was smashed, Communism collapsed, pro-democracy spread. The Ayatollah Khomeini died, students were killed on Tiananmen Square, the Soviets pulled out of Afghanistan, Solidarnosc won legal status in Poland, apartheid in South Africa was abolished, and Hungary declared the end of communist rule. The world was a changed place (Moynahan, 2009:13-20).

By the Albertville Winter Games in 1992, the Soviet Union had collapsed. Latvia, Estonia and Lithuania had been recognised by Gorbachev and athletes from Russia, Ukraine, Belarus, Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan republics marched as a unified team under the Olympic Flag, but wore their own national uniforms (Senn, 1999). During the Barcelona Olympic Games in 1992 all the twelve former Soviet republics would

participate as a team, but individual victors would be honoured by their flag and hymn. Yugoslavia had disintegrated into warring republics and the German Democratic Republic became part of the Federal Republic of Germany. The UN issued sanctions for Serb atrocities against ex-Yugoslav republics that had declared independence, so Spain refused entry to the Yugoslavs to the Games, but the IOC allowed the athletes to compete individually without showing any flags.

In 1992 the IOC recognised the NOCs of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. The Soviet Union had played a major role in international sport, and managed to get support from within the IOC even during the final stages of its collapse. With the break-up of the Soviet Union international politics were transformed to internal politics with a smaller impact on a wider range of sports. Other national rivalries emerged, particularly that between the USA and China, a country with a population of over a billion which could justifiably reach very high competitive levels through its organised government support (Senn, 1999). Competition based on ideology became competition on the playing field.

Although the IOC is really quite a stable organisation with the people involved on a quasi-permanent basis contributing their opinions and influence over a number of years, it too could be swayed to take decisions influenced by the political changes happening worldwide. When a political power falls or is overcome there is always something or someone else ready to take its place – so political influence continues to play a part in the development of sport and the organisations that govern it. In a similar vein, this situation is found in many of the African, Asian and Latin American NOCs where top Government officials are members of the Board, with most finance coming from government sources (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008). Some suggest that certain decisions taken by the IOC itself, and in consequence Olympic Solidarity, could be indirectly influenced by changes in the political situation of countries in the global context, since this tends to have a bearing also on the relationships between the countries themselves. Just like any large organisation, internal politics do exist; they bring all the different parties with different political backgrounds automatically dictating different political agenda to work together on an on-going basis (Allison, 1993).

The 1993–1996 quadrennium must have been very different for Olympic Movement compared to the previous one when most of the developing countries previously requesting aid came from outside Europe. After the fall of communism: the new nations of the former Soviet Union and Yugoslavia, which were now independent, began to compete with Third World countries for aid on the international scene, and thus funds provided by the World Bank and other international organisations were not enough. Qualified technical personnel, particularly those from East Germany, lost their jobs and moved out to the ‘West’. There was also a decrease in the expertise provided as support for Olympic Solidarity and a ‘dampening’ of the spirit of competition by Governments with the resultant decrease in funding of sports. (Chatziefstathiou, 2005). It was not easy for the IOC and for a number of sports organisations to cope with the sudden disintegration of the new ‘European’ states. Russia only managed to participate in the Barcelona Games with financial help from foreign sponsors (Senn, 1999).

By this time, a decade had passed since Olympic Solidarity started to function officially as part of the IOC structure. The end of the Cold War, the break-up of the Soviet Union with the formation of the new Republics; the disintegration of Yugoslavia into other states resulted in the creation of a number of new NOCs, (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008) with a record number of 171 NOCs participating at the 1992 Barcelona Games. Aid requests were being sought individually by the new ex-Soviet Republics with a similar situation in the former Yugoslav republics. The evolution of the political change during this period did have some influence on the distribution of programmes of Olympic Solidarity. In fact in 1991, some Olympic Solidarity scholarships were specifically awarded to these new Republics.

Out of 36 Scholarships awarded to Europe, “32 scholarships were awarded to NOCs in Eastern Europe as an exceptional case in view of their critical situation due to political changes” (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a:26) and similarly 39 out of a total of 41 Scholarships for Coaches were awarded to NOCs in Eastern Europe. A query arises on the likelihood of how this division of the communist block also affected the provision of the experts utilised by Olympic Solidarity, if at all, and how any change would have materialised in relation to sports aid that was still being carried out

mostly to developing NOCs through Soviet expertise, and whether this dispersion of aid had an effect on that being given to the 'developing' countries of Africa and Asia.

2.8.1. Controversy and Corruption

The increase of finance, through the rising values from the sale of TV rights extended the potential of the Olympic Solidarity with regards to number of programmes and also number of countries who could benefit from such aid. Unfortunately this monetary increase also led to some controversy. The International Olympic Committee had been accused of being a secretive, elite domain where the decisions about sport, were taken behind closed doors

Where money is spent on creating a fabulous life style for a tiny circle of officials rather than providing facilities for athletes, where money destined for sport has been siphoned away to offshore bank accounts and where officials preside for ever, untroubled by elections. (Simson and Jennings, 1992:ix)

After the Olympic Games in Barcelona, the biggest threat to the IOC was not really international politics but the internal political relations and behaviour of some of its members particularly when faced with the prospect of electing the next Olympic Games. Speculation was rife about why Atlanta was chosen for the Games of 1996, when Athens had bid for these Games to celebrate 100 years since the first Olympic Games held in Athens in 1896. John Coates, the President of the Australian Olympic Committee and Phil Coles, an Australian IOC Member, were both found guilty of excessive gift giving whilst they were part of the Bid Committee for the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games (Booth, 1999). While Olympic Solidarity programmes in the form of Training Scholarships in Australia at the cost of approximately \$AUS2 million, were awarded to selected African athletes, the Australian Olympic Committee was accused of not having allocated enough Athlete Scholarships to Aboriginal Australians; this was eventually remedied by Olympic Solidarity (Lenskyj, 2000a).

Accusations of corruption surfaced soon after the bid for the Winter Olympics in 2002 was won by Salt Lake City. It was contended that bidding committees used some OS programmes particularly athlete 'scholarships' to influence the decision of some IOC members to vote in favour of a particular bid. Some developing countries received

more than their fair share of 'scholarships'; some of which were even awarded to relatives of IOC members (Lenskyj, 2000a). Some of those involved in the scandal were either on the Olympic Solidarity Commission at the time, or had served in the past; two would eventually serve in the future. Offending members were to be held accountable; this was expected to act as a deterrent. A number of IOC members or their relatives were implicated in accepting excessive gifts; others had received approximately \$400,000 in financial aid or 'scholarships' in a programme that began in 1991 at a time when the IOC rules only permitted gifts of up to US\$150 (Lenskyj J. H, 2000).

In America, Senator John McCain, Chairman of the Senate's commerce committee which supervised Olympic Affairs, was involved in the investigation of the Salt Lake City bid. The comment "We do not know how the funds are used" by an IOC member (Jennings and C., 2000:3) did not give much credibility to the IOC. It was being seen as a closed organisation whose lack of accountability had undermined the Olympic Spirit. Although, only a few of the members were implicated in the scandal, the good governance of the whole Olympic Movement was being put into question. The scandal increased the pressure on the IOC to amend its regulations; it was perceived that the integrity of the IOC was crucial for the Olympic Movement to survive; that accountability should start at the top (Pound, 2004). As a result of the allegations, a decision was taken at the 108th IOC session on the 18th March 1999, to set up an IOC 2000 Commission to study the composition, structure and organisation of the IOC, the process of designation of the host city of the Olympic Games, and propose changes for the future. The Commission was made up of eighty people; apart from IOC members it included athletes, IF Presidents, NOC Presidents and representatives from outside the Olympic Movement; from the diplomatic, political, economic and academic worlds. The reforms were approved at the 110th Session of the IOC held on the 11th and 12th December 1999 in Lausanne (International Olympic Committee, 2000). A number of IOC members were warned while others were expelled.

The Commission 2000 recommendations covered various areas of the Olympic Movement, including Olympic Solidarity. Article 2.8, entitled Transparency, recommendation 44, states that "the flow of IOC funds for each Quadrennial will be

disclosed by outlining the total source and use of those funds. This reporting will start with the current quadrennial”, while recommendation 45 states that

The IOC will disclose the allocations of funds to each individual NOC and IF starting with the current quadrennial and every entity (NOC, IFS, etc.) will produce an accounting record for the IOC listing the expenditure of all funding provided by the IOC (International Olympic Committee, 2000:18).

Lucas (1992) suggests that the destiny of the Olympic movement is directly proportional to the quality of its leadership, and the degree of intelligence and morality of its members. The problems faced by the IOC could be solved by ‘men and women’ of intelligence possessing a high degree of morality to do what is right according to conscience. IOC member Dick Pound proposed that there should be more control over how the money is spent

I would insist on timely receipt of audited financial statements from any organisation that seeks Olympic revenues, so that I could see exactly what was being done with them. I would also institute programme audits to assess the effectiveness of the activities. I have a feeling that there is considerable wastage and duplication and that far less of the resources get down to the level of the athletes than would be reasonable to expect.

(Pound, 2004:276)

Since 2001 the Olympic Solidarity reports, which are accessible outside the Olympic Movement, only contain quadrennial disbursements for the individual NOCs.

2.9. The Olympic Solidarity Commission

The International Olympic Aid committee made up of nominated IOC members was set up in 1962; other members volunteered their services to the Board. A document issued by the International Board for Olympic Aid in November 1962 confirms that another eleven people were added to the Commission originally made up of Comte de Beaumont (France) as President, and members Andrianov (Soviet Union), Gemayel (Lebanon), Alexander (Kenya), Touny (United Arab Republic), and Sondhi (India) (International Olympic Committee, 1961:76). A lack of funding subsequently

led to the demise of the committee. The Aid Commission appeared again on the Agenda of the 62nd IOC Session in Tokyo, in October 1964 when Article 23 included a number of proposals by Constantin Andrianov (URSS) part of which was “c) the establishment of another International Aid Commission.” The minutes also indicate that a number of IOC members: Comte De Beaumont (Belgium), Sir A. Porritt (New Zealand), Sir Ademola (Nigeria), Alexander (Kenya), Lord Luke (Great Britain), Andrianov (Soviet Union.) and Sondhi (India) wanted to set up a sub-committee, supervised by two or three IOC members one of which was to be Andrianov, to recommence the work of the CIOA at least at an advisory level (International Olympic Committee, 1965b).

In 1968, the IOC created four new committees to help improve the relations between the NOCs, IFs and the IOC, one of which was the Aid Committee. These commissions would be made up of six IOC members, including the chairman with a casting vote. The Aid Commission was to “study the means of helping and assisting the new” NOCs (International Olympic Committee, 1968:29). It was chaired by Juan Antonio Samaranch, with another eleven members: Reginald S. Alexander (Kenya), Comte Jean de Beaumont (France), Gunnar Ericsson (Sweden), Jean Havelange (Brazil), Mark Hodler (Switzerland), Colonel H.E.O Adefope (Nigeria), Essa Ahmad Al-Hamad (Kuwait), Mrs. Ingrid Keller (Guatemala), Colonel Raoul Mollet (Belgium), A. De O. Sales (Hong Kong), Jose Vallarino (Uruguay).

The Commission for Olympic Solidarity was set up under the Presidency of Lord Killanin in 1973, following decisions taken at the IOC Session in Sapporo and Munich in 1972, and proposals by National Olympic Committees at their meeting in Munich, with the IOC Executive Board. This marked the beginning of one common commission which brought together the International Institute for Development of NOCs and the IOC Assistance Commission, to provide Olympic Solidarity Programmes to the NOCS.

An IOC Joint Commission for “Olympic Solidarity” under the Chairmanship of one of the IOC Vice Presidents assisted by the NOC Coordinator Mr. G. Onesti, as Vice President of the Commission, is being appointed by the IOC,

on the essential basis of continental representation (International Olympic Committee, 1973b:122)

The Dutch IOC-vice president, with forty years of sports experience, was appointed chairman of the new joint commission; Giulio Onesti as its coordinator. The Commission (Appendix M) made up of 20 people would present annual reports to the Sessions. Its administration was to be set up at CONI in Italy, and would eventually be transferred to Lausanne (International Olympic Committee, 1971a). Van Karnebeek retired from the IOC in 1977 (International Olympic Committee, 1977b), and Lord Killanin (Ireland) took over the Chairmanship of the commission, with Giulio Onesti as its coordinator. During the meeting of Olympic Solidarity commission on the 12th and 13th April 1978, apart from the proposals for a number of funding possibilities for NOCs, Gafner (Switzerland), Onesti (Italy) and Ritter, (Germany) were charged with drawing up the aims and objectives of Olympic Solidarity (International Olympic Committee, 1978a), and the Olympic Charter issued in 1979 includes a sentence relevant to Olympic Solidarity in section III. The National Olympic Committees, article 24 B. Objects states:

The IOC may help the NOCs to fulfil their mission through the Olympic Solidarity programme (Miller, 1979:179)

The Association of NOCs was created in June 1979, and Mario Vasquez Rana (Mexico) was elected President of the new organisation.

There was power and prestige to be gained from controlling ANOC. It [was] the main channel thorough which the IOC share[d] out millions of dollars profit from the Games. It [was] also the clearing house for more millions in sports aid from the IOC Solidarity fund to poorer countries (Simson and Jennings, 1992:224).

As a consequence, the Olympic Solidarity Commission was increased to twenty six members to accommodate the members of the new Association's Council (International Olympic Committee, 1979a). In 1980 Juan Antonio Samaranch took over the Presidency of the IOC. The Olympic Solidarity Commission was appointed

during the meeting of the Executive Board in October 1980, and its first meeting was on the 26th January 1981 in Lausanne (International Olympic Committee, 1980b). The mandate of the commission was defined by the IOC as advising and coordinating:

... the development of the Olympic movement through the NOCs, in close cooperation with the IFs, and recommends to the IOC a programme to be financed from the NOC's share on the television rights (International Olympic Committee, 1982c:185)

The first commission meeting was chaired by Masaji Kiyokawa (Japan), vice-president of the IOC, with Vice-chairman Mario Vasquez Rana (Mexico) and Members: Lamine Keita (Mali), Ashwini Kumar (India), David McKenzie (Australia), IFs: Willie O. Grut (Sweden), and NOCs: Franco Carraro (Italy)

During the XI Olympic Congress in Baden-Baden in September 1981, President Samaranch informed the International Federations that he intended to change the composition of the Olympic Solidarity Commission. During the meeting of the Commission on the 9th November 1981, he "took the Chair of this commission" (International Olympic Committee, 1981a:719) and changed its structure so that it would be made up of fifteen people. (International Olympic Committee, 1981a). The members, "who were previously nominated on a personal basis, now belong to the commission by virtue of their official positions" in the Olympic Movement (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a:15).

In 1982 the Commission was composed of a number of IOC nominated members, together with NOC representatives from the Association of National Olympic Committees (ANOC) and a couple of representatives from the International Federations. This automatically, ensured representatives from all continents, and increased direct involvement by the NOCs. In 1991, an article in the Olympic Charter included the requirement that the IOC President would preside over the Olympic Solidarity Commission would have a determined format.

Chairman	IOC President
Vice-Chairman	ANOC President
NOC Representatives	1 st Vice-President of: PASO (America) Presidents of: ANOCA (Africa) OCA (Asia) AENOC (Europe) ONOC (Oceania)
	Secretary General of ANOC Chairman ANOC Technical Commission
IOC Representatives	Seven IOC Members
IF Representatives	Two of the International Federations (IFs) for summer sports One of the International Federations (IFs) for winter sports
Athletes' Representative	One member of Athletes Commission
The IOC Sports Director	
The Director of Olympic Solidarity (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a)	

The Salt Lake City scandals in 1998 also involved the Olympic Solidarity Commission. Working Group II, co-ordinated by Thomas Bach, an IOC Executive Board Member at the time, assisted by Pere Miro, then Director of NOC relations and of Olympic Solidarity, was responsible to study the role of the IOC

This group studied: the Olympic Games; the athletes; Olympic Solidarity (development and humanitarian actions); education and culture: doping; relations with governmental and non-governmental organisations; the public image of the IOC and the Olympic Movement. (International Olympic Committee, 2000:4)

Nine of the IOC members implicated were at one time or other on the Olympic Solidarity Commission (for different periods of time); six of them were still there when

it happened; although not much has been found in public documentation about the role they all shared this Commission:

Table 6. Salt Lake City 2002 – OS Commission members

IOC Member	Country	OS Commission	Olympic Games	Action
Claude Ganga	Republic of Congo	1973 – 1998	Salt Lake 2002	expelled
Lamine Keita	Mali	1980 – 1998	Salt Lake 2002	expelled
Seuli Wallwork	Samoa	1996 – 1998	Salt Lake 2002	expelled
Guirandou-N'diaye		1988 – 1998	Salt Lake 2002	warning
Yung Song Park	South Korea	1996 – 2000	Salt Lake 2002	warning suspended 2001
Anani Mattia	Togo	1984 – 1988	Salt Lake 2002	warning
Vitali Smirnov	Russia	1973		warning
Phil Coles	Australia	1987 – 1995	Sydney 2000 Salt Lake 2002	warning
Ivan Slavkov	Bulgaria	1988 – 2005	Salt Lake 2002 London 2012	warning Expelled 2004

Three previous members were investigated but exonerated (Wenn and Martyn, 2005). As a consequence, there was a change of four members on the commission between 1998 and 1999. These included three expelled members, and Oligario Vasquez Rana who had represented the IFs since 1987. Ivan Slavkov who had also been on the Commission as the ANOC Technical Director, had been investigated on other occasions and exonerated; he was eventually secretly taped discussing ways of securing votes for the London Olympic Games bid; he was suspended and then expelled in 2004 (International Olympic Committee, 2004). The IOC 2000 Commission included at least seven recommendations specifically related to Olympic Solidarity (Appendix N) and how it could improve its programmes and aid to the NOCs. It also included a recommendation for obligatory attendance of all NOCs at the Olympic Games, and a reference to Olympic Solidarity funding distribution criteria.

The IOC 2000 Commission recommends the following item for further study:
An assessment of NOCs, related to factors such as national development, territorial size and population, is required in order to implement specific solutions in accordance with the needs of these NOCs. The Olympic Solidarity programme, in its current format, excludes the more developed (in economic terms) NOCs from some of its programmes, yet funds them equally irrespective of size or population base. (International Olympic Committee, 2000:17)

During the year 2001, the IOC saw a change in President from Juan Antonio Samaranch to Jacques Rogge – a Belgian with a reputation for integrity (Kellerman, 2004) who had been a member of the Olympic Solidarity Commission since 1989. An amendment was made to the Olympic Charter, before approval of a proposal by ANOC could be implemented for Mario Vasquez Rana to become Chairman of the Olympic Solidarity Commission in 2002.

Article 8 para. 2 of the Olympic Charter stipulates that the Olympic Solidarity Commission should be chaired by the President of the IOC. However, the latter does not wish to chair the Olympic Solidarity Commission. This matter will have to be discussed by the IOC Session in order that the Olympic Charter might be amended accordingly. In the meantime, the IOC President has appointed Mr Mario Vázquez Raña as acting Chairman (Olympic Solidarity, 2001b)

Vasquez Rana had been a member of the Commission since 1976, and Deputy Chairman since 1980. He was also head of the Pan American Sports Organisation (PASO), the continental association for America, and as the President of the Association of National Olympic Committees (ANOC) was an *ex-officio* member of the IOC Executive Board. Although there was a gradual increase in number of members, the Olympic Solidarity Commission kept the same structure throughout the next quadrennia. The number of members on the Olympic Solidarity Commission has fluctuated during the years, and by 2012 (Appendix O), there had also been a shift in the representation from a predominantly European commission to one where America was the continent with the highest number of members.

Table 7 Olympic Solidarity Commission

Chairman	Director	Board	Year	Africa	America	Asia	Europe	Oceania	Members*
De Beaumont		CIOA	1962	3	1	2	9	2	17
Samaranch		Aid Comm.	1968	2	3	2	6	2	15
Karnebeek		OS Comm.	1972	3	4	3	9	1	20
Samaranch	A. Lopez		1984	2	2	3	6	2	15
			1996	4	4	5	6	2	21
Samaranch	P. Miro		1998	5	5	4	8	2	24
			1999	3	4	3	11	1	22
Vasquez Rana	P. Miro		2001	2	4	2	5	2	15
			2008	1	6	2	4	2	15
			2012	2	5	2	4	3	16

* Director not in totals

Since 1962, over 160 men formed part of the Olympic Solidarity Commission or its related boards; at least four men have been on the commission for twenty years. Only seven women were included since 1977, three (19%) of which were members of the commission in 2012.

Ingrid Keller	Guatemala (GUA)	1976-1978
Vera Caslavaska	Czech Republic (CZE)	1977-979
Gunilla Lindberg	Sweden (SWE)	2000, 2004-2012
Mireya Luis Hernandez	Cuba (CUB)	2001-2008
Sandra Baldwin	United States (USA)	2007
Yumilka Ruis Luaces	Cuba (CUB)	2008-2012
Jimena Saldana	Mexico (MEX)	2010-2012

While the report for 2008 stated that “Olympic Solidarity was managed by the Commission” (Olympic Solidarity, 2008), the statement for the 2009-2012 quadrennium was amended to read

The Olympic Solidarity Commission relies on the Olympic Solidarity international office in Lausanne to implement, execute, monitor and coordinate all its decisions. The office is fully answerable to the Olympic Solidarity Commission (Olympic Solidarity, 2009a)

2.10. Olympic Solidarity – Distribution proposals

In the 1950s and 1960s, despite the overall increase of recognised NOCs, participation of athletes from Africa and Asia in the Olympic Games was still very low. Many of these countries had recently achieved independence, had a lack of finance in sport, an inferior level of sport infrastructure and technical competence, and a smaller pool of top athletes. Quite a few NOCs were unable to provide top level athletes for participation in the Olympic Games, and although possible solutions were discussed, it took at least ten years to move from the first suggestion for an Olympic Aid Commission (International Olympic Committee, 1961) to a viable official Olympic Solidarity Commission providing sport aid, with plans of assistance primarily targeted at a list of what were considered, ‘developing’ NOCs in Africa, Asia and South America. Oceania and the region of the South Pacific was not included “because of the lack of necessary planning elements, which are now being collected” (Appendix P) (Olympic Solidarity, 1975:27).

Une priorité générale est attribuée aux opérations d'assistance répondant aux besoins signalés par les pays en voie de développement
(Olympic Solidarity, 1976:19)

The threat from international sports associations and the concept of sport aid utilised in emerging independent countries as a means of promoting political ideology, particularly by the Soviet Union and the USA, increased the resolve of the IOC to make its presence felt more on the global scene (Tomlinson and Whannel, 1984). A proposal suggesting that the IOC should consider aid to less sports developed countries (Chatziefstathiou et al., 2006) encouraged some IOC members from European countries to make a proposal during the 58th IOC session held in Athens in 1961, to promote Olympism and sports aid in these countries.

Comte De Beaumont thinks it is imperative for the International Olympic Committee to envisage seriously the necessity of assisting the new countries of Africa and Asia. He suggests a Commission to be appointed with the view to study the matter. (International Olympic Committee, 1961:76)

The Commission for International Olympic Aid was set up by the IOC during the 59th IOC Session in Moscow in 1962 (Al-Tauqi, 2003, Guttman, 1992, International Olympic Committee, 1962) with a specific aim.

To provide material assistance as well as contribute to the expansion of sport and thereby Olympism in the new countries which have become independent states in Africa and Asia (International Olympic Committee, 1962:57).

During these first years it was mainly an advisory board, operated from CONI (Italian Olympic Committee) in Rome, and although it was to provide help to the NOCs in greater need of improvement in their infrastructure, administrative knowledge and technical expertise (Lenskyj, 2000b, Al-Tauqi, 2003) the means of how it was to be financed were not well established. A number of proposals including NOC membership fees, NOC donations and Government funding were considered; with technical expertise sought from the International Federations. However IOC members believed that the IOC would jeopardise its independence by accepting financial aid from Governments, as a result of which the Commission did not manage to raise the funds required for this aid (Senn, 1999). It ceased to function, and the funds available were wound up separately and placed “under ‘liabilities’ in the balance sheet” by the IOC (International Olympic Committee, 1964:63).

During the 62nd IOC Session in Tokyo, in October 1964, Constantin Andrianov highlighted the importance of the development of sport and the spreading of Olympic ideals worldwide, making a proposal

To promote the development of the Olympic Movement in countries of Africa, organisation of National Olympic Committees and the development of sport as a whole, the IOC considers it useful to continue the activities of the Aid Commission directed to the spreading of the Olympic principles, amateur sport and selection of information (International Olympic Committee, 1965b)

Eventually, with the advent of the sale of broadcasting rights for the Olympic Games, the NOCs discussed funding during a meeting in Rome on the 1st October 1965, and put forward their proposals during the meeting with the IOC Executive Board on the

4th October 1965, on how any “revenue received from television rights for all Olympic transmissions” should be divided among NOCs:

25% to those National Olympic Committees in difficulties as regards participation in the Olympic Games, in accordance with proposals made to the I.O.C. by the National Olympic Committees themselves;

The National Olympic Committees invite the I.O.C. to ensure the effective functioning of the Assistance Commission of the I.O.C. for the purpose of directing international aid to the development of Olympic sports in those countries recently admitted into the Olympic Movement
(International Olympic Committee, 1965a:71)

At the meeting in Madrid between the IOC and the delegates of the National Olympic Committees, on the 4th October 1965 the IOC was invited:

to ensure the effective functioning of the Assistance Commission of the IOC for the purpose of directing international aid to the development of Olympic sports in those countries recently admitted into the Olympic family
(International Olympic Committee, 1965a:71)

Between the 30th September and the 1st October 1968, the NOCs got together and formed the Permanent General Assembly of National Olympic Committees (PGA) (Guttman, 1992). Some countries, with a more advanced level of sports infrastructure and achievement, already had programmes through which their NOCs gave sporting assistance to the peripheral countries (Allison, 1993). The President of the new IOC Aid Commission Samaranch (ESP), which at this time, due to lack of funds, was an advisory one, was concerned about how much help could be given to the NOCs and in what form.

The scheme of aid ...must be essentially technical in character and inversely proportional to the economic power and possibilities for the development of each National Olympic Committee. It must be technical, didactic and adapted to the needs of each (International Olympic Committee, 1969a:30).

The aid was to be technical and didactic, with instruction sports exchanges, advice on sports equipment, and translation of regulations, technical guidance and provision of trainers. This topic was to be discussed during the meeting of the IOC Executive Board with the NOCs held in Dubrovnik in October 1969 (International Olympic Committee, 1969b) however no real decisions were taken, in Dubrovnik. The Permanent General Assembly of NOCs had formed a collaboration network among the NOCs from developed and non-developed countries, and through the International Institute for Development of NOCs set up in 1968 (Al-Tauqi, 2003), on the suggestion of Giulio Onesti (Italy), Raoul Mollet (Belgium) and Raymond Gafner (Switzerland) (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a), they organised 'Olympic Solidarity' programmes of mutual aid and sports technical assistance, with funds obtained from "a group of industrialists and organisations. The funds thus raised (about 50,000 US dollars) made it possible to carry out ... over 40 assistance actions in Africa, Asia, and Latin America" (Olympic Solidarity, 1975:1). Its last meeting was held in Luxemburg in December 1971 (Al-Tauqi, 2003). Under the Presidency of Lord Killanin, the 73rd IOC Session held in Munich from the 21-24th August 1972, a proposal by Van Karnebeek (Netherlands) recommended:

That the three vice-presidents be commissioned to draw up, during the next six months, a number of pertinent recommendations for the setting up of an IOC Solidarity Foundation, or a body of this kind;

That, meanwhile they be entrusted with the conduct of a well-balanced interim assistance programme along the lines followed so far; That, until further notice, the television monies deposited in the IOC Treasury, as well as any other contributions, be administered under the close supervision of the IOC Executive Board. "

(International Olympic Committee, 1972:357)

A separate bank account was also set up to fund the Olympic Solidarity Programmes. The first report of the joint commission was to be presented to the Executive Board in February 1974, but before that, in December, it was to hold discussions with the International Federations, with whom it wanted to maintain close relations on technical issues (International Olympic Committee, 1974a).

The creation of the joint commission incorporating the various competing interests was regarded as the way in which the IOC should manage the conflict with the Permanent General Assembly of NOCs thereby unifying the Olympic movement in a global promotional policy and ensuring collaboration between the IOC and NOCs as well as the IFs (Al-Tauqi, 2003:225).

The first budget in 1972, through finance made available from the sale of TV rights for the Games, was to be six Million US dollars from the summer games and two million US dollars from the winter games (Al-Tauqi, 2003); the funds would be pooled and distributed through programmes available to the NOC's (Hill 1992) but it was only in September of 1974 that assistance was actually offered in the form of itinerant lectures, courses in coaching, and scholarships in administration (Olympic Solidarity, 1975). Although the IOC had acknowledged that there were "problems of assistance for sport in those countries which had recently gained their independence" emphasis was made by Giulio Onesti that

assistance will be granted by the IOC exclusively in the form of services, all subsidies of money and equipment being excluded" (International Olympic Committee, 1974b:98)...direct cash payment we feel would be dissipated and at the same time, it would be impossible to make an equitable distribution" (International Olympic Committee, 1974c:392).

Starting with assistance to the NOCs, "in the field of their organisation, assertion of their role and autonomy, reinforcement of the Olympic movement and the spreading of Olympism in their country", Edward Wieczorek further stated that

General priority is given to assistance measures replying to the needs indicated by the NOCs of developing countries (1974:599)

The NOCs already had an idea of what they were expecting Olympic Solidarity to do with funding allocated to the National Olympic Committees, when they made a proposal to the IOC Executive Board, in Puerto Rico, on the 30st June 1979:

“The main aim of Olympic Solidarity is to co-ordinate, in a reasonable way and to the benefit of all, the activities of the IOC and the National Olympic Committees in the development of the Olympic movement as an important social phenomenon of the 20th century. ...

At the present the Olympic movement is developing unevenly. In certain countries the National Olympic Committees possess vast experience and sufficient material resources and take an active part in the Olympic Movement. They send their athletes and their teams to the Olympic Games regularly. At the same time, the Olympic movement is poorly developed in many other countries of our globe and the National Olympic Committees lack financial means as well as adequate and qualified personnel so that they are not able to make a permanent contribution towards developing the Olympic movement and to be regularly represented at the Olympic Games as well as at international meetings of the Olympic movement. Overcoming this contradiction should be the task of Olympic Solidarity. Thus contributing to further strengthening the Olympic movement”

(ANOC, 1979:21)

Through a questionnaire in 1982, the IOC hoped to establish the assistance needs of the NOCs and hoping “to encourage the participation in the Olympic Games of athletes from less privileged countries” ((International Olympic Committee, 1982d:636)). However, there is no written definition in the reports of what was considered a ‘developing’ country or NOC, or a ‘less privileged’ one. The General Assembly of National Olympic Committees held in Mexico City on the 7th and 8th November 1983, issued the Mexico Declaration, which amongst others, Article 16 expressed the viewpoint of the NOCs proposing that:

Olympic Solidarity define an emergency programme aimed at bringing special assistance to those developing countries in urgent need

(International Olympic Committee, 1984:969)

Five years after the meeting in Puerto Rico the NOCs still expressed the view that there were a number of NOCs that needed Olympic Solidarity aid more than others.

Anselmo Lopez, stated that “the duty of Olympic Solidarity is to serve all NOCs, particularly the most needy” (Olympic Solidarity, 1986:9), Complaints were made regarding fixed budgets for the African courses, with a proposal that NOCs should draw up budgets that fit the local economic reality or that a “balancing margin should be annually factored in, over and above the fixed allocations” (Olympic Solidarity, 1986:47), as well as insistence that not all NOCs should receive the same amount of funds.

Although Olympic Solidarity funds are the property of all the NOCs, it is, however not equally needed by all. In continents like Asia, Africa and Latin America, lack of funds is a major obstacle against development. OCA see that a bigger share of Olympic Solidarity funds should be allocated to them (Olympic Solidarity, 1986:118)

In the 1988 report, a recommendation stated that the results from the 1988 Seoul Games exposed the increasing difference in sporting level between developing and developed countries, and asked whether Olympic Solidarity had a solution. This gap was confirmed further in the AENOC report for the same year, which stated that almost 70% of the medals in the Seoul Games were won by European NOCs (Olympic Solidarity, 1988). In the Olympic Solidarity Annual report for 1990, the OCA report, queries the meaning of the term ‘developing country’ or ‘third world country’.

Nations need another definition at least from an Olympic point of view: does this mean countries without medals in the Olympic Games... or does it mean poor nations, taking into account the fact that not all rich countries have necessarily rich NOCs and vice versa. This debate is important because some countries are banned from benefitting from many Olympic Solidarity Programmes because they are, for one reason another, termed as developed. It is not clear in many minds on what criteria decisions are made (Olympic Solidarity, 1990:148)

In consideration of a proposal made by Olympic Solidarity that the GDP of a country was to be taken into account when funding was allocated to the NOCs, comments in the Report for 1994 insisted that a rich country did not necessarily mean a rich NOC,

but that this system would be better than no system at all, and trusted that this criteria would be used for all assistance (Olympic Solidarity, 1994).

Pere Miro, in his first Olympic Solidarity Annual report as Director of Olympic Solidarity in 1997, suggested that Olympic Solidarity would undergo change.

Over the years, Olympic Solidarity has rendered extraordinary and indispensable service to all the NOCs especially to the most needy of them, and it fully intends to continue to do so. However times change, and with them the reality of sport, Olympism and, more specifically, the structures and needs of the NOCs (Olympic Solidarity, 1997a:7)

Nevertheless, he insisted that, the “most needy NOCs will, of course, be given priority” for the programmes for 1997-2000 (Olympic Solidarity, 1997a:7) which at that time were listed as Programmes for NOCs and Continental Programmes. During this quadrennial some programmes were open to all NOCs however few were still restricted to the most disadvantaged

Olympic Solidarity offers special programmes designed for the exclusive benefit of the most disadvantaged NOCs with the aim of raising the technical standard of their athletes, coaches and sport leaders
(Olympic Solidarity, 1997a:14)

Through its programme Olympic Solidarity helped to expand the Olympic Movement by developing and integrating new National Olympic Committees, particularly those from Asia and Africa and later South America. The gradual development of the management of sport both in the NOCs and in the International Federations rose in tandem with an overall increase in technical expertise and participation of athletes in the Olympic Games (Toohey and Veal, 2007).

In 1999, in order to further promote universality in the Games the Commission 2000 Reforms introduced 'obligatory' participation in the Olympic Games:

13.1 Universality and Participation

In order to reinforce the NOCs' reason for existing and strengthen their independence vis-à-vis governments, the obligation for every NOC to participate in the Games of the Olympiad will be added to the Olympic Charter (*).

To ensure universality through the application of this principle, every NOC will be allowed to enter up to six athletes in the Games of the Olympiad even if they do not meet the qualification requirements

() shows that modifications have been made to the Olympic Charter*

(International Olympic Committee, 2000:13)

The report for the 2005-2008 quadrennial plan included advisory services to help NOCs gain better access to both the World and Continental programmes

Olympic Solidarity offers the NOCs an advice service to help them gain access to financial, technical and administrative assistance (Olympic Solidarity, 2005b:6).

By 2009 the official communication for the 19 Olympic Solidarity programmes indicated that all NOCs could apply for all programmes but that "in accordance with Olympic Solidarity's mission, budget allocation within the programmes [would] favour the NOCs with the most needs" (Appendix L). On the other hand, the reports up to 2011 during the 2009-2012 quadrennial the text has been somewhat changed.

Olympic Solidarity continues to concentrate its efforts on providing assistance to all the NOCs particularly those with the greatest needs" (Olympic Solidarity, 2011)

2.11. Conclusion

Kacowicz (1999) claims that globalisation means many things to many people including the intensification of economic, political, social and cultural relations across borders, the historical period since the end of the Cold War, the transformation of the world economy epitomised by the anarchy of the financial markets, the spread of 'Western' values, through neoliberalism in economics and political democracy, an ideology and an orthodoxy about the logical and inevitable culmination of the powerful tendencies of the market at work, a technological revolution with social implications and the inability of nation-states to cope with global problems that require global solutions, such as demography, ecology, human rights, and nuclear proliferation. However, different globalisation processes, while interconnected, do not necessarily determine one another (van Bottenburg and Wilterdink, 2004).

The Internet, TV and global forms of communication have all contributed to a democratisation of information, travel, and the "extensive migration of people across continents in producing a new cosmopolitanism" (Parry, 2006:202). These migrations happening within nations, between nations located in the same continent and between nations located in different continents so that country of birth and origin was no longer a limitation on where an athlete competed or where a coach coached (Thibault, 2009). They have also contributed to the number of athletes from an increasing number of countries, participating in an ever increasing variety of international competitions, involving gender, ethnic and religious diversity, and breaching climate barriers with, for example, the increased access to winter sport facilities in tropical climates (Thibault, 2009). The commercialisation and commodification of sport has benefited sport financially through the sale of TV broadcast rights and sponsorship, which together with a rise in corporatisation of sports organisations, has also seen an increase of international sport management firms involved in all aspects of sport events including management of athletes, creation of events and their media production; transnational corporations producing sportswear and sport equipment utilising workers in developing countries; and international sport organisations increasingly funded through TV Broadcasting rights.

With the advent of modern technology, globalisation has created a more connected, closer international space in sport, yet the “view on globalisation which posits that the expansion of international trade and capital flows will lead to convergence in prosperity levels between the regions involved” (van Bottenburg and Wilterdink, 2004:4) has not come about. Although Olympic Solidarity aid has been distributed for over forty years, and there has been a considerable amount of ‘development’ in the original list of NOCs considered ‘most in need’ with increasing numbers achieving medal performances during the Olympic Games, this development has not happened uniformly worldwide. The highly competitive world of sport now offers athletes from poorer, developing nations the possibility to improve their overall quality of life, yet sport is perhaps the only area where people are recruited as citizens specifically for their short-term potential to enhance the nation’s international standing (Jackson and Haigh, 2008). Although the elite level in sport is very much a homogenised or some would say ‘Westernised’ activity, athletes come from a myriad of different backgrounds and cultures, but despite more and more athletes from developing countries reaching elite level, they have limited pathways to follow.

Globalisation has also impacted the Olympic Movement which gradually underwent change, sometimes dictated by worldwide political events, at other times influenced by different personalities within the organisation. The set-up of Olympic Solidarity came about partially as a result of the increase in the number of recognised NOCs, and the unequal level of sports development between them, as well as the perceived threats to the IOC from other international organisations. Apart from encouraging loyalty, it was also perceived as a means of control of the financial aspect of aid at a time when mistrust in the periphery was evident. The varying opinions of how the ever increasing funding from the TV Broadcasting rights, should or would be disbursed, reflected the power struggle particularly between the NOCs and the IOC on who should control the finance and how. Although placated by inclusion of NOCs, IFs and other stakeholders in its adoption of ‘systemic governance’, and the introduction of disbursement through the Olympic Solidarity programmes, the control of the distribution of Olympic Solidarity funding was still an on-going issue.

“Cultural imperialism, dependency and hegemony theories characterise sport as a cultural vehicle of the reinforcement of political and economic dominance within and

between societies” (Henry and Al-Tauqi, 2007:37). The cultural imperialist process of disseminating sporting culture from the core to the periphery; the dominance of the hegemonic Western or American culture to impose sporting disciplines worldwide; and at the same time eliminate direct competition by devaluing traditional sport; and the maintenance of ‘Western’ control of the Olympic Movement have dictated the sport disciplines in the Olympic Games. NOCs in the periphery have had to adapt to practice and compete in Olympic Sport disciplines, protracting their dependency on the NOCs in the core who provide the technical expertise and facilities not available in their countries; also ensuring financial outflows to the core for the use of those services. Some countries from the periphery have had limited success in international competition, whilst others have managed to move out of it, yet the differences in sport development in the core and the periphery are still very evident.

Theoretical implications of globalisation indicate that although the processes of change might have created a more accessible global space, or the homogenisation of sport through competition in the same Westernised ‘globalised’ sport under the control of the IOC and the International Federations, it has also created resistance to ‘sameness’, instigating an emphasis on diversity. Increased participation of decision-makers from countries in the periphery has promoted the recognition of the diversity of needs of the particular or different, with the subsequent increase in the organisation of international sports events in countries outside the ‘West’. The expansion of the means of communication, and influence of, and through, the media has increased the pressure on the Olympic Movement to ensure ‘good governance’, and adapt its structure and agency for a more ‘globalised’ world of sport.

Chapter 3

Methodology

This Chapter will outline the methodology taken for this research, with a discussion on choices of the research strategy, specific methods used for this study, and the rationale behind those choices, within the context of relevant underlying theoretical perspectives. The first part will deal with the relationship between ontology and epistemology and their impact on the choices for research, followed by the influence of theory on the approach, strategy, design frame and choice of method. The latter part of the chapter will be concerned with a discussion of how the methodology chosen should result in reliable data to answer the research questions.

Methods are no more than ways of acquiring data, whereas methodology refers to the way in which the methods are used and why (della Porta and Keating, 2008). Since methodology is the analysis of how the research is carried out, it should not be confused with the methods and techniques of research themselves (Hay, 2002, Blaikie, 1993), “methodology being the analysis of how research should or does proceed” (Blaikie, 1993:7). Methodology deals with the relationship between theory and method; the questions on which the research is based determine the kind of approach and the decisions taken to answer them; whilst the success of a research project depends on how well these questions and the methods for collecting and analysing the data are integrated.

3.1 Theoretical Framework

Two central concepts in the philosophy of science are *ontology* and *epistemology* (Blaikie, 1993). According to Creswell (2009) methodological considerations are influenced by the philosophical position taken by the researcher. Furlong and Marsh (2010) propose that the direction of thought of the social scientist to his/her subject is influenced by his/her position on these central concepts, which shapes the

approach to theory, the methods to be used, and the capability to defend those choices. Besides, it has been suggested that “what counts as data and how data are conceptualised are, in part, determined by the theoretical frameworks used to describe those data” (Henry and Al-Tauqi, 2007). According to Hay’s definition

Ontology relates to the nature of the social and political world, epistemology to what we can know about it, and methodology to how we might go about acquiring knowledge of it (2002:63).

3.1.1 Ontology

Ontology concerns those things that are seen and studied; helping us to understand that there are different ways of viewing the world (Thomas, 2009). Blaikie defines ontology as “claims or assumptions that a particular approach to social enquiry makes about the nature of social reality ...about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other” (1993:6-7). “Ontology is literally the science of the philosophy of being...it is about what we see, what is there, and what we assume to be in the ‘real world” (Hay, 2002:61). It relates to the object of investigation; how the world fits together and is addressed by questions of how we make sense of it, which are epistemic or logical (della Porta and Keating, 2008), with a key question being: What is the form and nature of reality? In other words we ask ourselves whether there is a ‘real world’ out there, independent of our knowledge of it (Furlong and Marsh, 2010) and what are its qualities and characteristics.

Ontological positions are often characterised as falling between two poles:

- a. foundationalism (objectivism/realism) which posits a ‘real ‘world, ‘out there’, independent of our knowledge of it;
- b. anti-foundationalism (constructivism) which sees the world as socially constructed (Furlong and Marsh, 2010:185)

Foundationalism

The foundationalist or objectivist perspective sees the world as composed of discrete objects which possess properties that are independent of the observer/researcher, so that observers attest to the same objective, absolute and unconditional truths, that are not influenced by any social context. Objectivism suggests that an organisation can be considered as a tangible object, with rules and regulations and a hierarchical division of labour working through standardised procedures. It can be considered as a reality independent of the people in it, who in turn conform to the requirements of the organisation. Cultures and subcultures follow a similar pattern where beliefs and values are internalised and citizens are socialised to share values and customs. “Social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent of the social actors” (Bryman, 2008:19).

Anti-foundationalism

Anti-foundationalism, or constructivism, “challenges the suggestion that categories such as organisation and culture are pre-given” and argues that “the ‘real’ world does not exist independently of the meaning which actors attach to their action”, and the social order is in constant state of change, brought about by the actions of the parties involved (Bryman, 2008:19). No observer can be totally ‘objective’, since everyone is influenced by the social world they live in. This view also involves ‘the double hermeneutic’, where an actor’s interpretation of the world is, in turn, interpreted by someone else (Furlong and Marsh, 2010). Apart from the ‘real’ relationships between social phenomena identified by direct observation, other underlying relationships exist, that are not directly observable, such as the personal relationships or loyalty, outside the workplace that could influence decision-making.

Anti-foundationalist ontological perspectives are more varied. A number of common features include realities being local and specific, varying between individual groups with most being more informed or consistent. Reality is constructed and not singularly true, since social, political and cultural processes influence individual’s opinions or views (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Anti-foundationalists or constructivists, refuse the concept that the characteristics of organisations or of culture are pre-given and are not influenced by the society itself, believing that their rules and regulations undergo gradual change, “the social order is an outcome of agreed-upon patterns of

action that are themselves products of negotiations between the different parties involved". Culture is not seen as a constraint on citizens, but as an "emergent reality in a continuous state of construction and reconstruction" (Bryman, 2008:20). Actors get involved in a structure, which evolves as they take different personal decisions related to every day phenomena.

Since no set of cultural understandings... provides a perfectly applicable solution to any problem people might have to solve in the course of their day, and they therefore must remake those solutions, adapt their understandings to their new situation in the light of what is different about it (Becker, 1982)

Culture has a reality that existed before and will exist after the intervention of particular people; however both Becker (1982) and (Strauss et al., 1973) stress the active role of individuals in the construction of social reality, albeit admitting to the pre-existence of their objects of interest, so that "the social world and its categories are not external to us but are built up and constituted in and through interaction" (Bryman, 2008:20).

A relationship exists between ontology and epistemology, yet a contested one. Hay (2007) believes that ontology precedes epistemology, the latter being defined by the former, with both in turn informing methodological choices, whereas Bates and Jenkins (2007) cite the view of Dixon and Jones III (1998) that "that ontology is itself grounded in epistemology", (Furlong and Marsh, 2010:186), with Spencer (2000) accusing them of "reducing the questions of ontology to questions of epistemology", resulting in "a world with no causal power", while emphasising that one cannot have a theory of knowledge, without a preconceived belief of what already exists (Furlong and Marsh, 2010:187-188).

3.1.2 Epistemology

An epistemology is a theory of knowledge, and reflects a researcher's view of what we can learn and know about the world. Although the root definition of epistemology can be proposed as the theory or science of the method or grounds of knowledge, Blaikie suggests epistemology can refer to "claims or assumptions made about ways in which it is possible to gain knowledge of this reality, whatever it is understood to

be; claims about how what exists may be known” (1993:7). It is the study of our knowledge of the world and how we know the world we have defined ontologically (Thomas, 2009), whilst giving reasons for saying it is so (della Porta and Keating, 2008). A researcher’s epistemological position must be consistent throughout a study. It will be reflected in what is studied, how it is studied and the status the researcher gives to his/her findings (Furlong and Marsh, 2010).

Positivism

According to Blaikie, for positivists “knowledge is considered to be produced through the use of the human senses and by means of experimental or comparative analysis, so that by ‘objective’ observation procedures, it is assumed that reality can be recorded accurately” (2004:102). Furlong and Marsh contend that positivism is based on a foundationalist ontology, and considers natural science and social science as ‘broadly analogous’ in the belief that “the world exists independently of our knowledge” (2010:193). Gratton and Jones (2004) suggest that positivists believe that the only valid form of knowledge is a scientific one; the researcher can be separated from the object of research, ensuring neutrality, independence and objectivity (della Porta and Keating, 2008) so that theoretical statements about reality are made from independent or objective research.

Positivists believe in establishing a regular relationship between social phenomena, using theory to explain these ‘constant conjunctions’ to generate hypotheses, tested by direct observation. This in turn, serves as an independent test of the validity of the theory (Furlong and Marsh, 2010). On the assumption that “the world is real, ordered, structured and knowable”, they collect and analyse patterns of information to generalise “that particular cases will be followed by particular events” (della Porta and Keating, 2008:7). Bryman (2008) suggests that positivism contends that the aim of social science is to make causal statements, develop explanatory and predictive models, and argue that it is possible to separate the empirical questions of ‘what is’ from the normative questions of ‘what should be’, in the belief that the former are the domain of social science, whereas the latter are tackled by ethics.

Interpretivism

In contradistinction, an interpretivist (constructivist/hermeneutic) position, is largely based on anti-foundationalist ontology, and founded on the premise that the world is socially or discursively constructed (Furlong and Marsh, 2010). Interpretivists are “concerned with understanding the social world people produce, and which they reproduce through their continuing activities” (Blaikie, 2004:115). They are generally involved with explanation of the meaning of texts (Blaikie, 1993) and focus upon the meaning of behaviour, emphasising understanding rather than explanation. They believe that the subject matter of social sciences, people and their institutions, is fundamentally different from that of the natural sciences so that study of the world should be “one that reflects the distinctiveness of humans as against the natural order” (Bryman, 2008:15). Since they believe that social phenomena cannot be understood independently of our interpretation of them, objective analysis is not deemed possible since knowledge is theoretically or discursively laden (Furlong and Marsh, 2010). It is the responsibility of the researcher to gain access to people’s everyday thinking, and interpret the point of view respondents have of their actions and their world, putting these views into a social scientific frame, whilst their own views are in turn “interpreted in terms of the concepts, theories and literature of a discipline” (Bryman, 2001:17).

Bevir and Rhodes (2003) distinguish between the hermeneutic and postmodern or post structuralist positions in interpretivism. The hermeneutic position is concerned with the researcher’s interpretation of texts and actions in order to understand people’s opinions about other people’s actions; these interpretations being always partial and provisional. On the other hand, they suggest that post-structuralism or postmodernism gives prime importance to social discourse rather than to the beliefs of actors, as evidenced by Foucault’s argument that “experience is acquired within a prior discourse... language is crucial because institutions and actions only acquire a meaning through language... it is the social discourse, rather than the beliefs of individuals, which are crucial to Foucault (1972)’s version of the interpretivist position”, therefore, the identification of that discourse and the role it plays in structuring meanings, is of critical importance, while the position of Bevir and Rhodes (2003) is that “social science is about the development of narratives, not theories” (Furlong and Marsh, 2010:202). They suggest that the explanation of an event or

social relationship, built on actors' understanding or opinion, can create a narrative which is particular to time and space, albeit provisional, but can make no absolute truth claims.

Interpretivists argue that positivist data cannot be understood on its own, and motives behind patterns of behaviour also need to be analysed (Blaikie, 2004). In criticising positivism, Quine (1961) taking a pragmatist position contends that any knowledge we derive from the senses is also influenced by the concepts we use to analyse it, so it is never impartial. He also stressed that since theory affects both the facts and how we interpret them, undesirable results increase the risk of disregarding the facts, rather than the theory. Kuhn (1970) developed this theme by proposing that, at any given time, science tends to be dominated by a particular paradigm, so that results that fit that paradigm are preferentially endorsed (Marsh and Stoker, 2010). Physical or natural phenomena are very different from social ones; for some, a 'social' science is rather impossible, since social structures do not exist independently of the people, who in turn, adapt their level or type of involvement according to their own circumstances, and the social structure itself undergoes changes across time and space (Furlong and Marsh, 2010). On the other hand, the methodological implications of interpretivism lie in that it argues that there is "no objective truth; the world is socially constructed and the role of social 'science' is to study those social constructions" (Furlong and Marsh, 2010:200), the main critique of interpretivism being that the research is merely the personal view or subjective judgment of the researcher, with the possibility of different views of the same object by different scholars, which being particular to time and space is also only provisional.

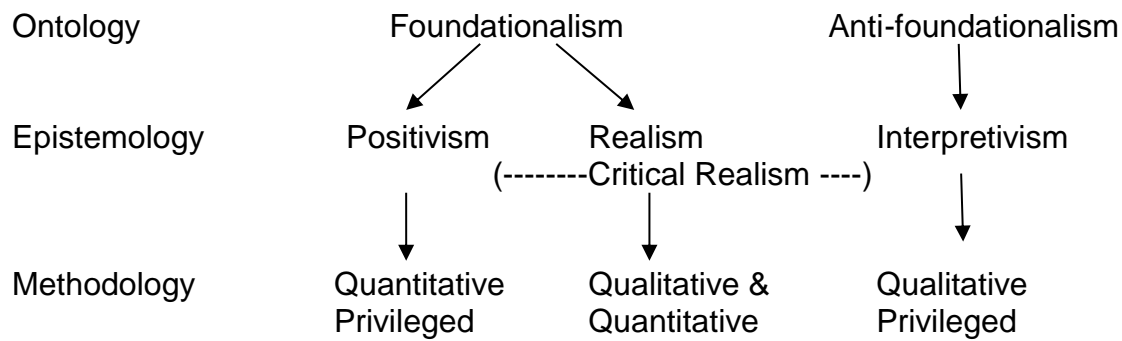
Realism

As an alternative approach, Furlong and Marsh (2010) propose a form of Realism which shares the ontological foundationalist position of positivism. Realists believe that the world exists independently of our knowledge of it but that social phenomena/structures have causal powers. Although not all relationships between them can be observed, those that can are not always 'real' but are often a "dichotomy between reality and appearance" (Furlong and Marsh, 2010:204) so that what is perceived as reality is not necessarily 'real'. Things have an independent existence but do not disappear if we can no longer see them and according to Munslow (2003:7) since reality exists "independent of the observer's mind it must also be independent of any written or verbal description about it. Reality does not change".

Marxists highlight the difference between 'real' interests which reflect material reality, and perceived interests, that could be manipulated by power relationships in society, so that voiced personal opinions might not be 'real', but rather a product of false consciousness (Furlong and Marsh, 2010). It is suggested that there is a 'real' truth to be discovered using both positivist and interpretivist approaches (Gratton and Jones, 2004). Bryman suggests two forms of realism: empirical realism, which asserts that "reality can be understood through the use of appropriate method", and critical realism, the remit of which is "to recognise the reality of the natural order and the events and discourses of the social world", but which Bhaskar (1989) argues are "not spontaneously apparent in the observable pattern of events" (2001:14).

Critical Realism

Furlong and Marsh (2010) believe that foundationalist ontology is consistent with a positivist or realist epistemology, while an anti-foundationalist ontology favours an interpretivist one. Realists adhere to the concept of one reality, but in addition to a constant reality of which we are often unaware, critical realists believe each person's reality is constantly being changed by social influence so that each reality is a specific one moulded by time and place as well as the 'habitus' of the person experiencing that reality. This epistemological concept might not therefore purely stem from a foundationalist or anti-foundationalist ontology but takes from both; a sort of inter-foundationalist position.



Adapted from (Marsh and Stoker, 2010:186)

Figure 2 Ontology, Epistemology and Methodology

Critical realists share the same philosophy with post-positivists that natural and social sciences are logically compatible, but while positivists believe that a scientist's conceptualisation of reality reflects that reality, realists suggest "it is simply a way of knowing reality" (Bryman, 2008:14) and argue that scientific observations shaped by "conceptual frameworks within which scientists operate" could fail (McEvoy and Richards, 2003:412). Critical realists recognise that the natural and social worlds are multi-layered with causal mechanisms operating in different levels of reality (Outhwaite, 1987) with a difference between the objects in focus and the "terms used to describe, account for and understand them" (Bryman, 2008:14).

Explanations include theoretical terms which are not easily observable, but hypothetical theories have visible consequences that are. Different theories about reality have been proposed, but when these theories change, it does not necessarily follow that reality itself has changed, since what changes is the perception of the object under scrutiny not the object itself. The view of Harre (1977) is that social reality is "a socially constructed world in which social episodes are products of the cognitive resources social actors bring to them", while Bhaskar (1979) sees social reality as social processes which "are products of material but unobservable structures of social relations" (Blaikie, 2004:108) with a view of critical realism outlined in five basic principles:

1. A distinction is made between *transitive* and *intransitive* objects of science. Transitive objects are concepts, theories and models that are developed to understand and explain some aspects of reality, and intransitive objects are the real entities and their relations that make up the natural and social world.
 2. Reality is stratified into three levels of domains, the empirical, the actual and the real.
 3. Causal relations are regarded as powers or *tendencies* of things that interact with other tendencies such that an observable event may, or may not, be produced and may, or may not, be observed. Social laws need not be universal they need only represent recognised tendencies. This view contrasts with the positivist view in which causal laws are regarded as universal connections between events.
 4. In the domain of the real, definitions of concepts are regarded as real *definitions*, i.e. statements about the basic nature of some entity or structure. These are neither summaries of what is observed nor stipulations that a term should be used in a particular way.
 5. Explanatory *mechanisms* in the domain of the real are postulated, and the task of research is to try to demonstrate their existence
- (Outhwaite, 1987:45-46)

Critical realism distinguishes between the real, the actual and the empirical where the real domain refers to the intrinsic powers of objects (or structures) which exist irrespective of whether they generate any events (Bhaskar, 1978:56); the actual are the events that occur when those powers are activated, while the empirical are the experiences, observations or measurements of those events, also with underlying structures and mechanisms (Roberts, 1999). According to Sayer (2000) “people’s roles are often internally related so that what one person or institution is, or can do, depends on their relations to others” and these influences cannot be identified through scientific method. These relations are in constant flux as a result of changes in policy, company structure, and change in management or employee position and if the organisation remains the same, it is due to continual effort to maintain that consistency, rather than “a result of doing nothing” (Sayer, 2000:13). Olympic Solidarity has undergone change through time, however it is still perceived to be an

organisation whose aim is to assist to National Olympic Committees who need that aid. Analysis of the OS financial data will provide patterns of distribution; however they are unable to explain decisions behind those patterns and the motivation behind the varied decisions. Change in the organisation can be identified or observed, but what has created that change might not be so visible, and explaining the mechanism that created change might also require identifying the power behind it. The same causal power can produce different outcomes, depending on the people involved as well as the context of time and space. Since “what actors do at a specific time is likely to be affected by dispositions which were sedimented at some earlier stage” (Sayer, 2000:16) strategic decisions, taken in the past, related to aims, mission statement and strategy of an organisation, including internal policy rules, influence decisions taken at every level of the organisation. Apart from guidance by standardised rules and regulations the decisions taken in the allocation of Olympic Solidarity Programmes could be exposed to other influences; different perspectives by staff might result in diverse outcomes, which scientific data are unable to fully explain.

It has been suggested that although social science can use the same methods as natural science, identifying causal explanation can only be done through interpretive method, which in critical realism is most likely to be a ‘double’ hermeneutic one, since it involves the researcher’s interpretation of stories which are opinions of how people experience the workings of an organisation as well as their contribution to it; with different perspectives being a possible outcome. The social world is socially constructed and “includes knowledge itself” so it cannot be said to exist independently “of at least some knowledge” (Sayer, 2000:11) even though “social phenomena exist independently of our interpretation of them” (Furlong and Marsh, 2010:205). Critical realism has clear methodological implications in that our knowledge of the real world is socially conditioned, and subject to challenge and reinterpretation, and the way we understand or interpret them will affect outcomes. Our knowledge of the world is theory-laden, so underlying relationships influencing human affairs, which may be unobserved or unobservable, cannot be ignored (della Porta and Keating, 2008), and while retaining a commitment to the causal powers of unobservable structures, critical realism takes on much interpretive critique,

favouring the use of both quantitative and qualitative data (Furlong and Marsh, 2010).

Although Olympic Solidarity was set up with particular aims, and its programmes structured to suit the requirements of the NOCs, these exigencies changed with time and had to accommodate NOCs with varying capabilities from different geographical areas. Although a number of explicit, official rules and regulations are adhered to both by the organisation and the NOCs in guiding decisions on distribution of funding, the process of those decisions and their outcomes could be influenced by implicit relationships and understanding by the decision-makers about which programmes will provide the best benefit and to whom; decisions not restricted by written guidelines, but influenced through knowledge and understanding of the NOCs receiving the aid. Such underlying information cannot be identified through quantitative statistical analysis of financial data but through analysis of the personal perspectives of Olympic Solidarity personnel. Besides knowing what is happening, we also need to know how and why it is happening.

Although the statistical analysis of funding data can identify patterns in distribution, the study will require further qualitative research to source information to explain the consistencies or divergences in the levels of funding. Information from other sources together with data from OS annual reports will contribute to a better understanding of the philosophy and policy guiding the funding distribution of Olympic Solidarity programmes. Forging a path between a realist perspective and an interpretivist one, the critical realist approach which takes the view that the world exists beyond our knowledge of it, but is also socially constructed, allows for a multidimensional approach, not only with a focus on the programmes themselves but with analysis on whether the structure of programmes is introducing “appropriate opportunities to groups in appropriate social and cultural conditions” (Pawson and Tilley, 1997:57) and how the value dimension in the work of Olympic Solidarity organisation also affects the outcomes of its programmes.

Table 6 Epistemological Frameworks

Epistemological Frameworks with the inclusion of Critical Realism			
	Positivist	Critical Realist	Interpretivist
Ontology	Foundationalist	Inter-foundationalist (mixed)	Anti-foundationalist
The researcher aims to	predict and explain, usually generalising from carefully selected samples	develop causal explanations by reference to real structures and how they are constructed/modified by human action	understand the particular, contributing to building a framework of 'multiple' realities'
The researcher uses	structured observation survey, experiment	mixed quantitative/ qualitative Methods	unstructured, observation case study, unstructured interview, participant observation
The researcher aims to be	independent, an outsider	to understand both 'external' and cause-effect and internal social construction process	an insider, interacting with participants
The researcher looks at	things that can be quantified and counted	things that can be quantified personal experiences	perceptions, feelings, ideas, thoughts, actions
The researcher analyses	variables, decided on in advance of fieldwork	tests theories created from data analysis	emergent patterns
Simile for approach	scientific, quantitative, nomothetic	socio-scientific	naturalistic, qualitative, idiographic

Adapted from Thomas (Thomas, 2009:78, Oakley, 2000),

3.2 Structure and Agency

The debate on the importance of theoretical issues of structure and agency is about how much we are able to shape our own destiny, as against the extent to which our lives are structured in ways determined by external forces and out of our control. So in relation to the research on Olympic Solidarity, it is about how the decisions related to distribution of funding to the NOCs are restricted or encouraged by the policy structure of the organisation and how personal involvement contributes to the change. No matter the area of research, reference to the causal powers of interest groups, decision-makers, movements (agency) or contextual factors such as the economic recession, patriarchy or the environment (structure) are certain to be made (McAnulla, 2002). Giddens' structuration theory argues that structure and agency are not separate entities, but are mutually dependent and internally related, but is only possible to examine the independent nature of both sides of this relationship by examining them separately (Giddens, 1984).

By duality of structure I mean that social structures are both constituted by human agency, and yet at the same time are the very medium of this constitution (Giddens, 1976:121)

In contrast, Archer's (1995) morphogenetic theory suggests that there is an ontological and an analytical distinction between structure and agency, and that they operate in a three phase cycle of change over time starting from a pre-existing context where action affects agents' interests. As social interaction occurs, agents, influenced by structural conditions, can also affect outcomes using personal skills such as negotiation and networking, to forward their interests. The resultant action or inaction provides the start for the next cycle (Marsh, 2010:216).

Hay's strategic-relational approach disagrees with Archer's concept, in stating that structure and agency are ontologically "mutually constituted", (Hay, 2002:127), and only analytically separate. Hay (1996) and Jessop (1990), also disagree with the Giddens' definition of dialectical since they consider structure and agency as 'distinct phenomena', arguing that all activity takes place in pre-existing structured contexts that favour particular actions over others. Although structures favour some and deter

other actions, individuals are able to develop strategies to overcome such hurdles through *strategic learning*; by doing something different.

Agents are reflexive, capable of reformulating within limits their own identities and interests and able to engage in strategic calculation about their current situation (Hay, 1996:124)

While individuals, or even groups, will adopt strategies that bring intended change, there could also be some unexpected outcomes. If the conception of structure and agency considers them as ontologically separate, not just analytically separate, Marsh (2010) suggests that the dialectical relationship between the two would change to one where both have causal powers, both being interactive and iterative, although not independently of one another. He suggests that structure exists through agency, and agents have 'rules and resources' between them which facilitate or constrain their actions; "agents interpret structures and in doing so change them" (Marsh, 2010:218) with the dialectical nature of the relationship having following structure:

- Structures provide the context within which agents act: these structures are both material and ideational
- Agents have preferences/objectives which they attempt to forward
- Agents interpret the context within which they act, a context which is both structural and strategic
- However, structures, both material and ideational, can have an effect on agents of which they are not necessarily conscious
- In acting agents change the structures
- These structures then provide the context within which agents act in the next iteration

(Marsh, 2010:219)

He also insists that structures can actually affect agents in a way that they are unaware of; a claim rejected by Hay (2007). Bourdieu's (1977) concept of habitus can help us to understand better how a pre-conscious/sub-conscious influence can be possible, since it captures the various intricacies of human agency, and its

ongoing interaction with structure and influence. Blaikie (1993) suggests that social interaction is conditioned by social structures which in themselves are the result of social interaction. These social structures are the social norms inherent in the memories and habits that people adhere to in relationships with others.

The social environment and social norms present in different areas of life in which people live and act, or what Bourdieu defines 'fields', influence the development of their habitus into a 'structured structure', which in turn is a 'structuring structure' since it unconsciously/subconsciously influences the people involved to adopt "durable dispositions" (Marsh, 2010:220). The issue of whether structure and agency are ontologically separate, and if a concept of sub-conscious/pre-conscious is possible, has created an important ongoing debate around causality of structure, which is essential in explaining stability and change. On the other hand, postmodernists believe that all knowledge comes through discourse, which expresses ideas which directly influence action; just as structures can enable or constrain action so too there is the influence generated by dominant ideas.

There is no 'structure' or 'agency' which exists 'out there' to discover; they are merely concepts within a discourse through which we apprehend and construct the world around us (McAnulla, 2002:283)

The critical realist approach posits that the concept of cause is directly related to the interaction of human agency and institutions or structures. Although there is a structure, or procedure, on how Olympic Solidarity distributes its programmes and on the method of application and submission of proposals by the NOCs, decisions are made by those involved in the analysis of the proposals, on their acceptance or refusal, on allocation of budgets, etc. The reasons for action, the mechanisms that facilitate that action, together with the relationships involved need to be explained.

The concept of cause in critical realism is tied to emergence from the interaction of human agency and institutions or structures. In this regard, the motivational (or otherwise) dimension of agency needs to be elaborated, as well as the mechanisms that facilitate action, or behaviour, coupled with the relational context of that behaviour (Downward and Mearman, 2006:15)

This can be implemented effectively through the adoption of different methods to analyse the financial distribution data, the Olympic Solidarity reports, and the personal experiences of people involved in the organisation in order to identify the influence and impact of both the structure of Olympic Solidarity, and the performance of its staff on the policy of programme grant distribution.

3.3 Research Strategy

The extent to which approaches in research can be used to answer specific questions is contingent on the type of question being asked. According to Blaikie (1993) since 'what' questions usually require descriptive data, gathered through observations or measurements, they are easier to answer than 'why' or 'how' questions which require answers to other aspects relating to current or past research. So unless the objective is well understood it is difficult to have reliable answers to the latter questions. The research path, with explanation and understanding requiring a theory or complex description will be determined by where the researcher looks for answers. There are also fundamental methodological issues distinguishing between different research approaches and strategies or logics of enquiry

- Ontological and epistemological assumptions
- The purpose of the sociological enquiry
- The processes of theory construction and testing
- The relationship between lay concepts and social science discourse
- The relationship of the researcher with the researched
- Meaning and relevance of the notions of objectivity and truth.

(Blaikie, 1993:201)

A research strategy, or logic of enquiry, provides the starting point in the process to answer 'what' or 'why' questions. Inductive research strategies with 'realist' ontology answer predominantly 'what' research questions, with limited 'why' answers possible through the discovery of a "pattern with a known and more general pattern or network of relationships (Kaplan, 1964:298-333).

Blaikie (2004) suggests that deductive and retroductive research are both able to answer ‘why’ questions based on previous answers to ‘what’ questions, whereas the abductive strategy with its ‘relativist’ ontology and the immersion of the researcher in the environment of data collection can easily answer both. Furthermore all four strategies claim to be able to answer ‘how’ questions built on previous answers to both ‘what’ and ‘why’ questions (Blaikie, 2004) with the research objective favouring one type of strategy over another.

Table 7 Relevance of Research strategies, objectives and questions

Objective	Inductive	Deductive	Retroductive	Abductive	Research Question
Exploration	***			***	What?
Description	***			***	What?
Explanation	*	***	***		Why?
Prediction	**	***			What?
Understanding				***	Why?
Change		*	**	**	How?
Evaluation	**	**	**	**	What and Why?
Assess Impact	**	**	**	**	What and Why?

(Blaikie, 2004:124)

Each strategy is linked to particular approaches of social enquiry, but differs in its ontological assumptions, starting points, steps of logic, use of concepts and theory, styles of explanation and understanding, and status of its products. Blaikie compares the logic behind the four different strategies (Table 9), each one having “ontological assumptions about the nature of reality and epistemological assumptions about how reality can be known” (Blaikie, 2004:101).

Table 8 The logic of four research strategies

	<i>Inductive</i> Positivism	<i>Deductive</i> Neo-Positivism	<i>Retroductive</i> Critical Realism	<i>Abductive</i> Interpretivism
Aim	to establish universal generalisations to be used as pattern explanations	to test theories to eliminate false ones and corroborate the survivor	to discover underlying mechanisms to explain observed regularities	To describe and understand social life in terms of social actors' motives and accounts
From	Accumulate observations or data	Borrow or construct a theory and express it as an argument	Document and model a regularity	Discover everyday lay concepts meanings and motives
	Produce generalisations	Deduce hypotheses	Construct a hypothetical model of a mechanism	Produce a technical account from lay accounts
To	Use these 'laws' as patterns to explain further observations	Test the hypotheses by matching them with data	Find the real mechanism by observation and/ or experiment	Develop a theory and test it iteratively (repeatedly)

(Blaikie, 2004:101)

Although both deductive and inductive strategies can adopt 'realist' ontologies, assuming that "social phenomena exist independently of both the observer and social actors" (Blaikie, 2000:119), they take different epistemological positions. The inductive strategy is the logic of positivism, and starts with meticulous observation, measurement, and data collection. Data analysis gives rise to generalisations that can become law-like propositions to explain aspects of social life (Blaikie, 1993). Preconceptions of the world are put aside and the researcher "infers the implications of his or her findings for the theory that prompted the whole exercise" (Bryman, 2008:9).

Science identifies a phenomenon (or range of phenomena), constructs explanations for it and empirically tests its explanations, leading to the identification of the generative [causal] mechanism at work, which now becomes the phenomenon to be explained, and so on. In this continuing process, as deeper levels or strata of reality are successively un-folded, science must construct and test its explanations with the cognitive resources

and physical tools at its disposal, which in this process are themselves progressively transformed, modified and refined (Bhaskar, 1989:12),

Using a reverse process to inductive research, the logic of deductive strategy proposes one or more hypothesis from theory providing focus for the research. Through collection of relevant data it tests theoretical propositions for compliance with the data; it matches theory to data. Yet, explanatory theories are often temporarily, inconclusive, and can be replaced (Blaikie 2005). The retroductive strategy follows the logic of enquiry of brands of realism promoted by Bhaskar (1978) and Harre (1977) with realist ontology that posits a distinction between the *empirical* which relates to events that can be observed, the *actual* which concerns the events themselves, whether they can or cannot be observed, and the *real* defined as the structures and mechanisms that produce the events.

It is an ontology of intransitive structures and mechanisms that are distinguished from transitive concepts, theories and laws that are designed to describe them (Blaikie, 2000:108)

The realist epistemology of retroductive research is based on creating tentative descriptive models of mechanisms expected to account for what is being researched or examined. Retroductive strategy tests the proof of models, whilst deductive strategy tests for relationships between events or variables (Blaikie, 2004), and in similar manner to deductive strategy, starts with observed regularity requiring explanation. *Empirical studies* critically check the regularity of what is known, and produce a hypothetical model; *theoretical studies* identify generative mechanisms to explain what might have produced this regularity. Observation or experiment tests the validity of the model, which in turn gives direction to the research; this does not happen in the inductive strategy (Blaikie, 2004). The statistical analysis of the financial data in the Olympic Solidarity reports will outline the type and level of funding for each NOC and continent during each quadrennium and identify relationships between different variables. Interview analysis will seek to discover the underlying mechanisms guiding the funding distribution through the interviewees' perspectives of the decision-making processes in order to explain the outcome of the statistical analysis of Olympic Solidarity numerical data.

A thought operation that moves between knowledge of one thing to another; from empirical phenomena, expressed as events, to their causes (Downward and Mearman, 2006:12)

It has been suggested that a mechanism produces regularity only in favourable conditions, and actors may be unaware of the influence of both these mechanisms and other structures influencing their social activity. While the structuralist view suggests a role of underlying social structure, constructivists view social mechanisms as the rules and conventions which actors use to guide their decision-making process, and which can be identified through actors' accounts (Harre and Secord, 1972, Blaikie, 2000).

The retroductive approach defines a process whereby empirical observation of events involves the identification of 'patterns' (statistically or in qualitative accounts) that are used in the positioning or building of hypothetical models of structures and mechanisms that will explain the empirical observations made, and the patterns observed. The models allow the identification of structures and mechanisms in ways that will causally explain the phenomena observed and will allow further testing of the power of explanation of empirical phenomena (Henry and Ko, 2014)

Through the retroductive strategy, the personal perspectives of individuals involved with Olympic Solidarity will provide information related to their personal life histories. The use of multiple personal perspectives will enable the identification of comparable or contrasting patterns of change and events experienced during the period of analysis. These will be utilised to explain the implications of patterns identified through the analysis of the statistical data in an effort to understand the process of change being experienced by Olympic Solidarity and its staff.

3.4 Evaluation

It has been suggested that there are inherent theoretical implications related to the type of policy analysis carried out. This research is an *analysis of policy* concerned with the study of the policy process of Olympic Solidarity, explaining policy outcomes and their significance rather than evaluating what was achieved by the organisation. This type of policy analysis is to be distinguished from *analysis for policy* which is undertaken to make “a direct contribution to the policy process, clarifying the criteria against which the policy is to be judged, or enhancing decision-making against the agreed criteria”. Although the aim of policy analysis is usually to “directly inform, enhance and justify particular sports policies or programmes of action” (Henry and Ko, 2014:3-4), it has been argued that no statements are free of theoretical implications; and the ontological and epistemological position taken by the researcher will also impinge on the practical activities of the research analysis. Although this study is not a simple evaluation of policy outcomes, nevertheless policy evaluation concepts are considered relevant, because they reflect the criteria which some of the policy actors who feature in the research actually employ. Some key concepts relevant to policy evaluation, as well as some methodological assumptions which underpin different approaches to evaluation will be considered.

While the purpose of basic research is to discover new knowledge, evaluation research studies show how existing knowledge is used to inform and guide practical action (Clarke, 1999, Gray, 2009:217)

Evaluation research is practiced by followers of all four research strategies with a common division between positivist and constructivist approaches (Guba and Lincoln 1989) through a range of quantitative and qualitative methods (Blaikie, 2004:125). It is a form of applied research usually used to discover effective solutions to social problems (Shadish et al., 1991) through the collection of information about the activities, characteristics and outcomes of programmes. Historically, positivism was the dominant paradigm in evaluation research (St.Leger et al., 1992), where the evaluator was detached from the study, not interested in the cause, or outcome of the work by adopting an approach favoured by the organisation; the research process was just concerned with delivery of proposals for use to further policy

making and development.. However evaluation research has diversified its approach (McEvoy and Richards, 2003), and by using theories, methods and techniques developed in the social sciences, researchers strive to make objective assessments of the extent to which services have fulfilled their goals, but by producing findings the researcher takes an active role in the research itself (Barton, 2001). Service providers, governments, sponsors, organisations and the general public are increasingly interested in identifying the outcomes of resources they provide, with the increase in positive and decrease in negative results giving evidence of the effectiveness of programmes provided (Patton, 2002). The Olympic Solidarity Programmes are defined in structure, budget and content; however, the different options in relation to potential outcome are also influenced by the available expertise and technical ability of athletes/officials and the particularities of the country in which the programmes are carried out. This study is not concerned with an evaluation of the programmes themselves, but seeks to understand and explain the process undertaken in the delivery of the programmes

3.4.1 Evaluation Theory

According to Scriven (1991) theories do not help evaluation, they are not even essential for explanation, and explanations are not essential for most evaluations. Goertz (2006) rebuts this affirmation and asserts that, if what is being evaluated is a social science concept, it needs to be defined using a causal, ontological and realist approach to concept definition. Some social scientists, who are also evaluators, define theory as a set of interrelated assumptions, principles, and/or propositions to explain social processes that are often not systematic (Chen, 1990). Pawson and Tilley suggest that the main objective of evaluation research is to discover the theory behind what is being evaluated, while

The policy outcome is explained by the actions, reasoning, or choices made by stakeholders embedded in a given resources structure, defined by specific opportunities and constraints of varying nature (social, legal, economic, relational, geographic, cultural and so on)

(Pawson and Tilley, 1997:251)

They favour a realist evaluation methodology for evidence production and propose that social programmes are social systems which are made up of “interplays of individual and institution, of agency and structure, and of micro and macro social processes”. Realism has a standard set of concepts for describing the operation of any social system: embeddedness, mechanisms, contexts, regularities and change and ordinary actions make sense because they involve innate assumptions about social rules and organisations, where “causal powers reside not in particular objects and individuals, but in the social relations and organisational structures which they form” (Pawson and Tilley, 1997:64). Underlying mechanisms are used to explain how things work, by going beneath their surface appearance, and delving into their inner workings, to find out what social relations are being activated, and who or what is responsible for the outcome (Befani, 2010:249). It is perceived that the strength of an evaluation depends mainly on how well what is researched is objectively understood and explained (Pawson and Tilley, 1997:215-219) Certain mechanisms beyond individuals’ perceptions are assumed, but at the same time can be given different interpretations and transformations (Sayer, 2000).

Summative evaluations serve to give an overall judgment about the effectiveness of a programme, policy or product, and rarely rely entirely on qualitative data, because stakeholders require measureable and/or comparable outcomes. Qualitative data adds depth, detail and nuance to quantitative findings. Through analysis of statistical data and interviews with Olympic Solidarity staff, this study seeks to carry out a summative evaluation of the distribution policy of the Olympic Solidarity programmes; identify any external and internal influence on change to the structure and agency of the organisation, and how well it is able to achieve its aims.

3.5 Norms and Values

The next part of the Chapter will look into what are perceived to be some of the “accepted norms and values of good governance, for the just means of allocation of resources” (Henry and Lee, 2004:26). The research is related to how and why programme distribution follows particular patterns, and consequently the concepts of equality and equity of the allocation of the Olympic Solidarity programmes could give us an insight into the intrinsic values which guide actors’ decision-making processes. The discussion on the value of efficiency and effectiveness seeks to understand the

implications related the ideal use of 'ethical principles on how organisations operate' to contribute to the good governance of an organisation. "Effectiveness refers to the extent to which an organisation achieves its goal or goals" (Slack, 1997:23), whilst efficiency is how well it uses its resources to reach that goal (Pennings and Goodman, 1977, Sandefur, 1983, Slack, 1997). Even though an organisation might be efficient, it does not necessarily follow that it is effective.

3.5.1 Efficiency

Efficiency can be defined as "getting the most out of a given input" or "achieving an objective for the lowest cost" (Wildavsky, 1979:31). It is a way of comparing different paths to achieve a goal, by measuring performance between "input and output, effort and results, expenditure and income, or cost and resulting benefit" (Slichter, 1947). Efficient organisations get things done with a minimum of waste, duplication, and expenditure of resources" achieving the greatest benefit for the same cost, or the least cost for a given benefit. Different assumptions can be made about what and who is important; "efficiency is always a contestable concept" (Stone, 2002:61-69) and choices might impinge on decisions related to the allocation of resources and recipients, which in the case of Olympic Solidarity in particular, which NOC would qualify as deserving and which would not. Apart from efficient policies, there is also debate about how to organise society to receive what is distributed. Need and ability can alter the universal value of things and market models are concerned with resources going to those who can benefit the most. Some NOCs might be deserving of funding but are unable to administer it. *Distributive equity* is related to what people receive, whilst *allocative efficiency* is how well the agreed distribution is carried out, ideally through voluntary exchange (Stone, 2002).

Services are a combination of actual service and advice about consumer needs, and assessments are influenced by the presentation of information – the choice of words the images, the spokespeople, the timing, and the context, but if a particular service does not fit what the consumer requires, the consumer will not get the benefit he/she needs; NOCs on different continents with varied levels of administration and sports structure have different needs. The OS Programmes have different requirements. Stone suggests that if we start from the "premise that the definition of efficiency is a contestable idea... then the best way to organise society to achieve efficiency is to

provide a democratic governing structure” (2002:79). However, the diversity of the NOCs does not make it easy to identify parameters to ensure efficient allocation of funding and subsequent delivery of programmes by all NOCs.

3.5.2 Effectiveness

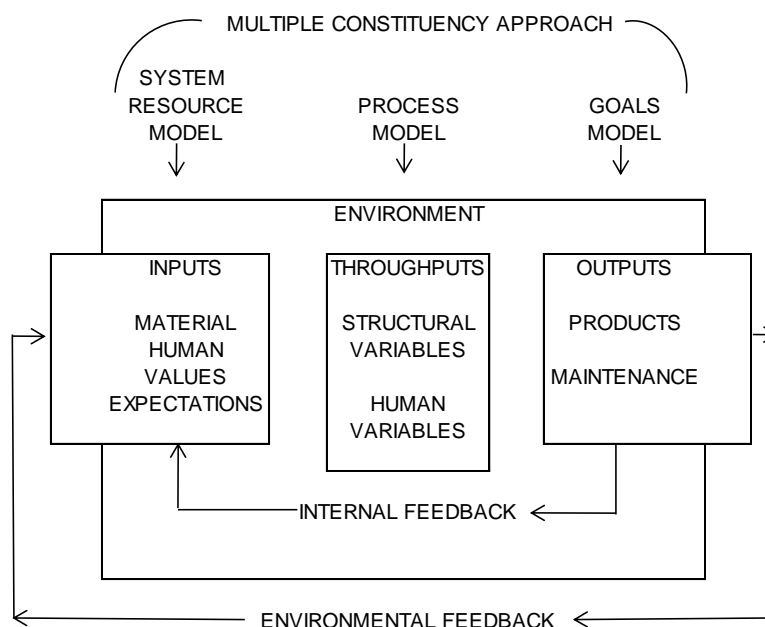
The effective outcomes of an organisation can be assessed on different criteria depending on the level importance given to each outcome by the stakeholders. This study addresses the issue of how effective Olympic Solidarity has been to reach its goals. Organisations might set different goals, and the level of how measurable or observable they are, will impinge on their effectiveness, or the degree to which they have achieved those goals. It has also been suggested that the concept of effectiveness is imprecise.

Slack (1997) proposes five different approaches to study effectiveness: Goal attainment, systems resources, strategic constituencies, internal process and competing values. Goal attainment focuses on organisational outputs, where most goals might be assessed in terms of performance ranking. Measurable goals such as, funding levels and Olympic Games participation could be used to evaluate elite sport programmes (Slack, 1997). The systems resource approach focuses on organisational inputs, which in the case of Olympic Solidarity is concerned with the continuation of funding through the sale to broadcasters of the Olympic Games’ TV rights. In the internal process, evaluation focuses on how the organisation makes use of its resources, using appropriate human resources, practices and communication.

The strategic constituencies approach is concerned with the range of stakeholders of the organisation, so in the case of this research, we look at the IOC, the NOCs and the Olympic Solidarity Staff, with each stakeholder having different interests in, and thus definitions of, the success of Olympic Solidarity, which in turn, requires their commitment in a range of ways. Sponsors and the media are also in a similarly symbiotic relationship. There are different goals to be reached; these are not value-free, each stakeholder exerting its influence and favouring one or more constituents

over others, with different vested interests turning the organisation also into a political one (Slack, 1997).

The competing values strategy, based on Campbell's indicators of organisational effectiveness, and formulated by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) argues that there is more than one 'best, criterion' of achieving effectiveness in an organisation depending on what outcome the researcher is looking for or expecting in relation to his or her research question/s. Its three sets of values focus on the wellbeing of both the organisation and its people, the structure of the organisation and its means and ends, giving rise to four value models: "human relations, open systems, internal process and rational goal" (Slack, 1997:30). Bayle and Madella (2002) add the quadridimensional model approach developed by Morin. One approach might be more adapted than another to a particular area or scope of study, but some researchers such as Chelladurai (1987) and Hall (1982) suggest a preference for combinations of different approaches, depending on the conditions under which effectiveness is being assessed, since "each approach is useful under different circumstances" (Slack, 1997:36).



A systems view of models of organisational effectiveness.
 (Note: From Chelladurai, P., 1985, Sport Management: Macro perspectives (.172), London, Canada: Sports Dynamics.

(Adapted from Chelladurai 1987, p.40)

Figure 3-3 Multiple Constituencies Approach

“Multidimensionality of effectiveness is seen as emanating from both the input-throughput-output conceptualisation of an organisation and the distinctive domains of the activities of an organisation”, whereas the type of dimension studied depends on the kind of organisation and its activities (Chelladurai, 1987:37). Inconsistent, contradictory, or incoherent goals or goals that cannot be easily measured or identified, such as those of Olympic Solidarity concerning equity, or defining what is an NOC ‘with the greatest need’, and unclear links between specific processes and organisational performance detract from the reliability of using the respective models on their own.

The aim of Olympic Solidarity is to organise assistance to NOCs, in particular those which have the greatest need of it. This assistance takes the form of programmes elaborated jointly by the IOC and the NOCs, with the technical assistance of the IFs, if necessary (International Olympic Committee, 2011:17)

The need to measure effectiveness in a multidimensional manner might be more appropriate in those organisations with “more than one domain of activity” since organisational effectiveness is explained as “how the organisation attempts to satisfy the divergent needs over the long term as the constituents and their needs change over time” (Chelladurai, 1987:41-43). This study will use a combination of approaches to evaluate the inputs, throughputs and outcomes of the distribution policy of Olympic Solidarity and its programmes and will assess how effectiveness is experienced from differing perspectives.

3.5.3 Equity and Equality

In relation to equality, the same distribution may be seen as equal or unequal, depending on one’s point of view. Equity denotes fair distribution, but this can imply equalities or inequalities. Some major divisions in society are a result of distributive equity, and membership in a group can outweigh individual characteristics in distribution criteria. Affirmative actions, such as quotas, give preferential access to particular or disadvantaged groups, while ascriptive characteristics of identity such as ethnicity, race, gender or religion at times take precedence over individual

demographics, experience or performance, in grouping people into a number of blocs destined for privileges or disadvantages (Stone, 2002).

Equity of distribution depends on the value recipients give to what they have received or have access to. Unequal distribution can be acceptable when the process is deemed to be fair, even though systems of distribution can be divisive or socially disruptive. Nozick (1974) suggests that a distribution process is just if it is voluntary and fair, while the end-result concept proposed by Rawls asserts that a just distribution is one in which both the recipients and items are correctly defined, and each recipient receives an equal share of every item defined by “universal standards not dependent on the norms of particular societies” (1971:56) but just distribution would only work with a “universal logic about distributive justice to which all people would subscribe if stripped of their culture and their particular history” (Stone, 2002:56). In Rawls’ terms,

All social values – liberty and opportunity, income and wealth and the bases of self-respect – are to be distributed equally unless an unequal distribution of any, or all, of these values is to everyone’s advantage (1971:62)

Equity does not mean equal shares of something, but adequate shares of it, where redistributive policy ensures that everyone has some access and receives the basic minimum, but limits the behaviour of those who have an unfair advantage (Stone, 2002). Although, in the past, some OS programmes were restricted to particular NOCs, dependent on their perceived lack of sporting development, the Olympic Solidarity programmes can be equally accessed by all NOCs. Some areas have equal budgets or allocations, but disbursement is dependent on applications and proposals made by the NOCs as well as decision-making processes of allocation. This research will analyse the level of equity of disbursement on an individual NOC basis and continental basis, but also touches on aspects related to gender equity.

3.6 Comparative Analysis

According to Landman “the distinction between different comparative methods should be seen as a function of the particular research question, the time and resources of the researcher, the method with which the researcher is comfortable, as

well as the epistemological position he or she adopts” (Landman, 2008:24). The choice of method is influenced by the questions that need to be answered, with adherents of deductive theory using different methods to those chosen by followers of inductive theory, with the final choice being firmly guided by requirements in the level of abstraction, and the number of countries being analysed, even though one study might include both analysis of several countries, and more detailed analysis of specific ones. Comparing many countries is usually considered ‘large-n’ comparison and comparing few countries is deemed ‘small-n’ comparison, although comparison can also involve different observations in a single country with different levels of abstraction (Landman, 2008).

Comparison of several countries favours quantitative data analysis (Lijphart, 1971), with a high level of abstraction, possibly with a dimension of time, because of the possible advantages.

Use of statistical controls to rule out rival explanations and control for confounding factors, its extensive coverage of countries over time and space, its ability to make strong inferences that hold for more cases than not, and its ability to identify so – called ‘deviant’ countries or ‘outliers’ that do not have the outcomes expected from the theory that is being tested
(Landman, 2008:27)

Apart from the mathematical and computing skills required for analysis of complicated datasets, the disadvantages of this method primarily focus on the lack of complete data for all the countries throughout the different periods of time under investigation, and the uncertain validity of the data itself. Comparing a few countries in ‘focused comparison’ (Hague et al., 1992) is usually determined by specific choice of particular countries of interest, using the middle level of abstraction, where comparison is made of different outcomes across similar countries - Most Similar Systems Design (MSSD); or of similar outcomes across different countries - Most Different Systems Design (MDSD) (Landman, 2008). The third option for comparative studies is that of one country when “a single country study is considered comparative if it uses concepts that are applicable to other countries, develops concepts that are applicable to other countries, and/or seeks to make larger

inferences that stretch beyond the original country used in the study” (Landman, 2008:28). Although all three methods can be used to make generalisations through comparative analysis, or used to develop concepts applicable to other countries through implicit comparison, the comparison of many countries is considered the best for “drawing inferences that have more global applicability” (Landman (Landman, 2008:29).

Reliability of the data in comparative analysis is threatened by the presence of too many variables and not enough countries but is not usually encountered in a comparative study of several countries. The MSSD system could also reduce the problem by comparing a number of factors in similar countries, or the MDSD system to compare specific key similarities in diverse countries. Another reliability threat could arise from the different understanding of particular concepts in the diverse countries. Within the Universalist position, concepts must have the same significance globally to be comparative, rationalists argue that when faced with choices, individuals tend to “maximize their own utility”, whilst functionalists believe certain vital functions are ‘fulfilled everywhere’ (Dogan and Palassy, 1990:42), while structuralists insist that “macrostructures such as the state, economic development and social classes are omnipresent, but exist in varying degrees” (Landman, 2008:33). An alternative relativist position posits that all meaning is locally determined, and as such almost incomparable, whilst the middle position suggests that concepts should be modified to be more specific to the context of the study. Consequently, “classification, analysis and substantive interpretation are all subject to the particular perspective of the researcher” (Landman, 2008:45).

Comparing many countries:

Strengths

- Statistical control
- Limited Selection Bias
- Extensive Scope
- Strong Inferences/ good for Theory Building
- Identify deviant countries

Weaknesses

- Invalid measures
- Data (un)availability
- Too abstract/ high level of generality
- Time consuming
- Mathematical and computer training

(Landman, 2008:47)

Analysis of the statistical data available for each National Olympic Committee will be utilised to compare and contrast the funding distribution on an individual NOC or programme basis, as well as continental basis. The fact that the number of NOCs, in each period under analysis is different, ranging from 99 in 1983 and 205 in 2008 is also taken into consideration.

3.7 Policy Analysis

In policy analysis, a distinction is often made between the analysis *of* policy and analysis *for* policy, as outlined above. Whilst research in the former tends to have a more objective academic focus on the explanation of the policy process, the latter option is more involved, influenced or closely related to the organisation under investigation. Research of policy can be used to test 'storylines' (Fischer, 2003), or assumed truths, which could impact policy-makers, such as the sustained belief that Olympic Solidarity programmes help the NOCs most in need. These beliefs may not necessarily be false, but on the other hand, might not be easily verifiable through valid available data (Houlihan, 2009). According to Henry et al (2005), comparative analyses of sport policy follow one or more of four distinct paths: seeking similarities, describing difference, theorising the transnational and defining discourse. In seeking similarities

“objective” data are subject to analysis to identify forms of statistical association among social, political, economic, or cultural conditions or context on the one hand (levels of GDP across compared countries) and policy outcomes on the other(e.g. size of sports club or association membership) (Henry et al., 2005:481)

This nomothetic approach, using participation rates and financial contributions as tabled in the Olympic Solidarity reports, will be used to establish law-like generalisations, through use and summary of data of the large number of NOCs/programmes available. This method tends to ignore cultural specificities in the search for universalisation or generalisation, and in the context of this study, issues such as the different currency exchange in diverse countries for the value of a particular programme are not considered, consequently this method would benefit

from qualitative analysis to explain “associations among social, political, economic, and/ or cultural conditions and policy outcomes” (Henry et al., 2005:484).

In describing difference, the comparative analysis involves individual accounts of the differences between various policy systems and the interactions between those systems, “capturing the specific policy history and context rather than searching for general laws” (Henry et al., 2005:484). Although an Olympic Solidarity policy with guidelines for proposal acceptance and programme distribution was in place, it evolved with time, and personal or group decisions could influence the outcome of the final distribution; whether it was for budget value, programme development or programme allocation. In theorising the transnational, “the global context is the constraining/enabling frame of policy action within which the local/national context is produced and mediated”, with the core characteristics of this theoretical perspective being:

- Macro-theory oriented (though not metanarratives)
- Adopt strategies that link concerns with structure and agency
- Adopt critical realist assumptions that social structures are socially constructed but exist independently of the individual, and could have impacts that are not necessarily directly observable;
- And because such structures are socially constructed, they will be culturally relative.

(Henry et al., 2005:486-487)

The development of the Olympic Movement has taken place in tandem with the globalisation of the social, political and economic spheres, with the latter possibly influencing Olympic Solidarity policy change, whilst the use of facilities and qualified personnel from more ‘developed’, predominantly ‘Western’ NOCs, in carrying out the OS programmes, encourages the adoption of the ‘Western’ model of sport. Taking into consideration characteristics for three of the theoretical perspectives proposed by Henry et al. (2005), the perspective for *seeking similarities* is being adopted in relation to the analysis of statistical financial data obtained from the Olympic Solidarity reports, that for *seeking differences* is being used for interviewing Olympic

Solidarity staff in relation the distribution policy of Olympic Solidarity, whilst the *theorising the transnational* perspective favours the analysis of global change and consequent possible influence on actual Olympic Solidarity policy.

3.8 Mixed Methods

Whilst methodology is concerned with the 'logic of enquiry', methods are the actual techniques of data collection (Downward and Mearman, 2006). In the past it was widely assumed that quantitative methods were the accepted norm for all evaluation (Shaw, 1999) since it was a collection of information about the characteristics of a programme, product, policy or service (Gray, 2009) from multiple sources. In an attempt to evaluate more process-oriented research, evaluation research diversified in its approach (McEvoy and Richards, 2003). Plewis and Mason propose that evaluation can be two fold, a quantitative glance into the impact of a programme, and a qualitative approach to determine the "in-depth understanding of the processes, configurations and features of partnerships and their programmes" (2005:186).

Methods are "explicitly or implicitly related to theoretical assumptions and structures" (Titscher et al., 2000:5), so the choice of method is linked to how we conceptualise our social reality and how it can be examined (Bryman, 2008). The supremacy of one paradigm over another has been the topic of intense debate in the past, where quantitative purists held to a positivist paradigm, confident in a single objective reality, where cause and effect relationships could be known, time and context free generalisations were possible, objectivity rules, and the focus of research was on empirical testing of hypotheses and theories.

On the other hand, some qualitative researchers, adhering to a constructivist paradigm, were convinced of multiple realities; cause and effect relationships were subjectively conceived; subjectivity was inevitable; universal generalisations neither possible nor desired; research value-laden, and any theory based research was deductive rather than testing of previous theory (House, 1993, Johnson and Christensen, 2008, Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Given such polar distinctions some researchers avoided using both types of methods together. The postpositivist philosophy took the quantitative approach, argued that nomothetic approaches positively affirming law-like generalisations could never be proved. However they could be falsified so that although a universal generalisation could not be proved by

observation, it could be disproved in the sense that observing an exception to the universal rule provided the evidence to reject this as a universal norm.

Quantitative evaluation tends to emphasise the overall mean, where a wide variation of success might be counterbalanced by negatives, while the analysis of qualitative data may require the “organisation of varied and complex narratives, descriptions, perceptions and perspectives” (Plewis and Mason, 2005:192). Through quantitative analysis of the statistical data we obtain disbursement patterns for all the NOCs, obtaining outcomes from many sources, while qualitative data from interviews produces more detailed information from a relatively small number of people. The former approach gives us statistics to define the variation in outcome: the latter contributes to a descriptive understanding of change over time, resulting in “binary or categorical representations” of the structures developed for delivering the programmes, the enthusiasm of those delivering them, funding problems, etc. (Plewis and Mason, 2005:193).

The fundamental principle of mixed research is the concept of combining approaches for complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses (Johnson and Turner, 2003). In fact a critical realist approach provides a philosophical justification for the use of mixed methods in the sense that critical realists may look to quantitative and qualitative approaches providing different routes through which to explore the evidence of underlying real structures and their impact on explanation of behaviours. A retroductive approach, as illustrated in Figure 4, has the research first seeking to identify, at the empirical level, statistical regularities; subsequently hypothesising reasons for these regularities in terms of underlying causal structures; and finally seeking to evaluate the evidence for these structures by reference to qualitative explanations by the actors concerned of their actions. In social reality some structures and mechanisms are beyond the observation and interpretation of individuals, so research needs to delve below the observable outcomes, and in our case beyond what is found in the texts and statistical data in the Olympic Solidarity Reports.

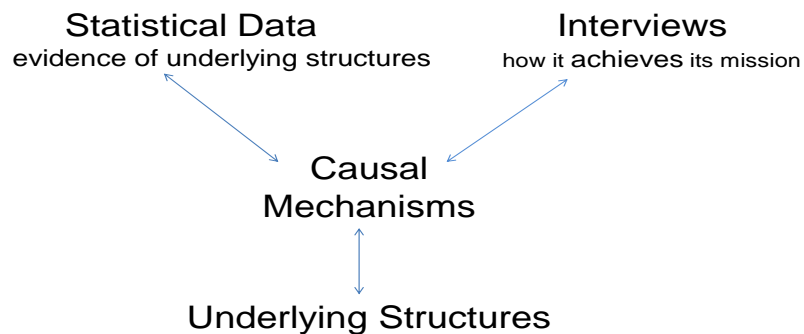


Figure 4 Complementary Methods of Inquiry

The approach focuses on both action of the individual, as well as the influence and capability of diverse units in his/her environment, where investigation centres on the mechanisms that generate the “situation in which the change was needed, the alternative provided by the intervention, and the generative mechanisms triggered by the intervention in the particular context at hand” (Holma and Kontinen, 2011:186).

3.8.1 Quantitative Approach – Statistical Analysis

When applied to data the quantitative/qualitative distinction is at times a matter of degree. Most data in social science starts off in the qualitative form, is then processed or coded; it is the researcher who will decide on whether the data will be computed to numbers or remain in qualitative form (Blaikie, 2000). Secondary data develops this process further, since it is compiled by social actors who do not interact with the researcher. The type and quantity of data provided in the annual reports of Olympic Solidarity might not reflect the actual funding received by the NOCs, but it is the data which Olympic Solidarity has made public, and will determine what type of analysis can be undertaken in this study.

In the analysis of the data for the financial distribution of Olympic Solidarity Programmes, the use of descriptive statistics will outline what is happening, identifying and gauging any discrepancies in terms of percentage, proportions, averages, ratios, etc. Relational statistics will gauge and describe the strength of relationships, and influence between variables, using linear model methods analysis

of variance and its varieties, correlation and regression analysis (May, 2004). Statistical information for each NOC as well as other selected variables, as indicators to differentiate between the funding recipients, will be analysed through correlation and regression analysis to discover any statistically significant relationships between dependent and independent variables, and the influence, if any, of selected variables on outcomes such as the level and variety of individual financial allocations, and the participation of the various National Olympic Committees in the Olympic Solidarity Programmes.

3.8.2 Qualitative Approach

Qualitative research is made up of human experiences and situations, it begins by what we know but cannot say, with tacit knowledge that cannot be written down, but which can instigate us to source the explicit knowledge that can (Maykut and Morehouse, 2004). Patton (2002) suggests three kinds of qualitative data: interviews, observations and documents of which this study will be predominantly using two: documentary analysis and semi-structured interviews.

Documentary Analysis - Historical

Documents with organisational details and programme records, official publications, reports, and minutes will be used to garner an overview on Olympic Solidarity: its history, structure, aims and programmes. Literature about the history of the Olympic Movement and the Olympic Games is quite extensive, however, a cursory analysis of the data gives us an insight into the different perspectives taken by diverse authors, and at times, comparison raises doubts about the appropriateness of interpretation. Although historians agree that history is based on evidence, and this automatically imposes limitations on interpretation, history is conceptualised around “different sets of objectives, epistemology, and mode of presentation” (Booth, 2004:13). It has been suggested that “history is an intellectual activity that is very much a product of and subject to human beings’ normal figurative thinking processes” (Munslow, 2003:1); “it is not just storytelling, but a vehicle for the distribution and use of power” (Munslow, 1997:15). Three models of historical inquiry have been proposed: reconstruction, construction and deconstruction (Booth, 2004) that could help to understand some of the diversity in Olympic historical narrative.

History is not just a recapturing of the empirical reality of the past, but it is about how the facts are derived and presented in order to give them a meaning (Munslow, 2003:13)

Reconstructionists refuse or neglect theory. They utilise a 'realist' view that knowledge is independent of our mind and what we write. The objective observer derives knowledge inductively, usually from documentary empirical evidence, which is collated into descriptive narrative form, creating a story (Munslow, 2003). They marginalise social influence but assign importance to the "abilities, objectives, talents, experiences, choices and freedoms of individuals" (Booth, 2003b:9). Neo-positivist constructionists believe that theory is essential, and enhances historical research; they cite known theories and concepts to suggest and analyse event relationships (Munslow, 1997) working to discover the "underlying structural character of historical change" by using political, economic, social and cultural concepts (Munslow, 2003:6). They delve into the "social and collective worlds of customs and laws that coerce and impose constraints and restrictions on individuals" (Booth, 2003b:9).

Deconstructionists reject both reconstructionist and constructionist methods of the interpretation, and do not promote a particular interpretation of history, but delve into different merits and perspectives of historical narrative questioning the true intent of the author, insisting that "facts are narrated texts and always, therefore cloudy, obscure and ultimately impenetrable" (Munslow, 1997:44). They believe in more than one single truth, and look into the underlying meaning of language in search for inherent power relations sensitive to its "persuasive, deceptive, manipulative and controlling nature" (Munslow, 1997:45); suggesting that language is "integral to the constitution, transmission, representation and transformation of cultural life" (Booth, 2004:29) since, language "is constitutive of both history's empirical content, as well as the concepts/categories used by historians to explain its data" (Munslow, 2006:132). According to Booth reconstructionists, and to a lesser degree, constructionists are the major interpreters of Olympic history, but deconstructionists, who are "highly sceptical of objective empirical history", are not yet much involved (Booth, 2004:18).

While some historians believe that history can be an atheoretical discipline, others insist that theory is integral to historical practice” (Booth, 2003b:1); theory being defined, by many historians, as “a framework of interpretation” rather than the scientific view of “a formal arrangement of concepts” (Tosh, 2000:134, Munslow, 1997). There was scepticism that reconstructionists could possibly be objective with their data with the argument that

all written history is an art of the creator through the narrative impositionism of the historian, as he/she emplots the data and this act is to some degree the ideological product of the age/which he/she lives (Munslow, 1997:59)

Barthes (1967) believed that it was the personal interpretation of the data that could not be objective, since positivists did not collect raw data, but that which was already theory laden; they chose particular data abstractions, and that with which to construct their narrative. Besides, without concepts and categories such as class, gender, race, nation, city, etc., one would not be able to explain the “complexities of the past”, which would just remain lists of “events and time charts” (Munslow, 1997:51). Instead of ‘fully fledged’ theories, many Olympic historians use “organising concepts such as classes or objects (e.g. amateur sports), general notions (amateurism, professionalism, commercialisation) themes (e.g. sporting ideologies, nationalism, international relations), periods (e.g. age of fascism, era of boycott, Cold War), and constellations of interrelated traits (e.g. modernity, tradition, globalisation)” (Booth, 2004:17).

Booth also suggests that historians’ ideas about the relationship between sport and society are largely conceptualised through functionalism or structuralism. The former conceives society as an entity whose patterns and activities stabilise it and ensure its survival, whilst the latter relates to institutionalised or organised behaviour which limits choice, but endures through delegation and power sharing. Formal organisations, such as the IOC and FIFA, regulate individuals, “but simultaneously grant decision making capabilities and pursue formal goals” (Booth, 2003b:13-14). Abstract structures, such as sport and society, “involve human interaction but also exist outside the interactions of individuals” (Mouzelis, 1995:129). On the other hand, essentialists/realists believe that long lasting structure is the defining factor

underlying surface appearances that “determines action independent of the will of human agents”, and the constructionist approach views structure as a result of social action where “individuals create structures and the rules by which they exist”, however Booth suggests that although the structure restricts the actions of individuals, “it is dependent on them for its creation” (Booth, 2003b:14).

Constructionist Olympic historians tend to follow two distinct explanatory paradigms to make up their “interactive structure of workable questions and the factual statements which are used to answer them” (Fischer, 1970:xv); the comparative, and the causal and social change explanatory paradigms, but they tend to avoid comparative analysis requiring data from numerous different regions, or over long periods of time which would generate multiple methodological issues (Booth, 2004). Causation in social structure is considered secondary to causation through contextualisation, particularly ideological forces, institutional systems, events, and human agents. Explanation of change usually emphasises new social forces such as increasing commercialisation, the promotion of national identity, or the integration of diversity or social forces such as the economy and technology (Booth, 2004).

The analysis of statistical data for the National Olympic Committees from the five continents, available from the Olympic Solidarity reports creates the opportunity of comparative analysis of funding distribution in the development of these organisations, whilst the literary data contributes to explain the changes in development over time through the reconstruction of the development of the Olympic Solidarity programmes, as well as to explain some of the change experienced by the organisation. Historians study the past, but understanding the differences between the past and the present requires understanding of social change, the theoretical dimension of which arises from both the changes in the “beliefs, values, norms, role practices and ways of doing things”, as well as on structural change which depends on how historians interpret structure and understand the relationship between structure and agency (Booth, 2003a:104).

Table 9 Theories of Historical Enquiry - Adapted from Munslow

Reconstructionist	Constructionist	Deconstructionists
The Account	Better/worse Account	Critique of Accounts
Modernist	Late-Modernist	Post-modern
Traditional Narrative	Comparative	Linguistic
Descriptive	Discovery of underlying structural character of social change	Examination of narrative in search for inherent power relations (persuasive, manipulative, controlling) tracing causes and effects
Evidence of content of the past	Evidence of content of the past theory and concepts	Evidence of content of the past theory and concepts
Scientific/ Positivist	Socio-Scientific/ Neo-positivist	Heuristic
Explain	Understand	Question
Unreflexive/detached/independent	Positivist-inspired	Hermeneutic/interpretivist
Contextual (structural, ideological, institutional)	Causal/Social Change (Struggles against social norms)	Cultural Aspects
Personal choice of data advocacy: (judges, partisan eyewitness, expert eyewitness, leading councils)	Selection of data as a means to identify appropriate perspectives on social change	Personal view or choice of representation of content and language
Contextual	Time Periods/ Geographical Regions	
Theory Bare	Theory Laden	Theory Laden
Induction	Deduction	Deduction
Objective	Subjective	Subjective
Collect data Analyse the facts Create a story	Create a theory Analyse data Confirm/refute theory	Theory Examination of personal inference Refute theory
Reality derived from raw documentary data of events	Answers from questions put to evidence	Access to knowledge is through language, hidden but discoverable historical change
Importance of empiricism and analysis	Importance of empiricism and analysis	objectivity is impossible

Adapted from Munslow (2003)

Interviews – Life Histories

Qualitative interviews are used in evaluations because they obtain information about the programme through stories by those involved in “what happened, when, to whom and with what consequences” (Patton, 2002:10) and also put faces to statistics in order to deepen the understanding of the story. They are “conversations with a purpose” (Burgess, 1984:2), asking people to talk through specific experiences in their lives, rather than asking them what they would do or what they have done in particular situations, using situational rather than abstract questions to find out more about the social process involved (Mason, 2002a). Semi-structured interviews with open ended questions and probes will be used to delve for in-depth responses about individuals’ experiences, perceptions, opinions, feelings and knowledge in relation to their involvement in Olympic Solidarity organisation; addressing the values and concerns of stakeholders close to the programmes by involving them in the research processes.

Biographical, life history and humanist approaches to research are concerned with people as “social actors or active social agents”, and the understanding that a “narrative of life, a biography or auto/biography conveys the essence of this in meaningful ways”. These data sources are highly interpretive and at times used to portray social, cultural and economic history (Mason, 2002b:56). Thomas and Znaniecki (1958) propose that personal life records make up the best type of sociological material; other kinds of data collection only being used because of the otherwise extensive amount of finance and workload required to obtain enough data to satisfy coverage of the research questions. Any “present activity can be seen as formed as much by the anticipation of the future as it is by the experience of the past” (Miller, 2000:2), so that gathering information about the life histories of different individuals, in our case the work-related life histories of those who were/are part of in Olympic Solidarity and an insight into the “complex network of social relationships that change and evolve over historical time” (Miller, 2000:10), will complement other histories/stories derived from quantitative statistical or historical accounts of the organisation. The scope of personal interviews with people involved in Olympic Solidarity on a long term basis, is also considered relevant to the study, in so far as

the data would not be limited to knowledge of the present situation, but will give an insight into a range of personal perspectives on the workings of the organisation and the evolution, through time, into what it is today, taking a life cycle perspective (Slack, 1997). In effect this allows not triangulation of data *per se* but comparison of the patterns of events evident in the statistical data with the patterns and explanations which emerge from actors' own accounts of events.

Miller (2000) suggests three approaches to such biographical research: the realist, the neo-positivist and the narrative (Table 11). These approaches, we will argue, are directly related in epistemological terms to the three approaches of historical inquiry outlined by both Munslow (2003) and Miller (2000). The realist approach centres on unfocused methods of data collection with an inductive grounded theory mode of analysis, of 'reliable data' garnered from multiple cases that emphasises concept development. The neo-positivist approach involves theory and requires the interpretation of largely focused data collection for validation or elimination, but still allows for "respondents to digress along channels relevant to the topic at hand" (Miller, 2000:15-17). In the narrative approach, an individual's perspective takes precedence over the 'facts'; the researcher being involved in the construction of the story/reality by influencing the path the interviewee takes to relate the story (Miller, 2000) but which would not be conducive to this study.

The realist and the neo-positivist approaches both share the view that the 'macro' level, which in our case constitutes Olympic Solidarity; can be understood through analysis of its 'micro' context, i.e. the perspectives of the individuals within its structure and their active life histories. Looking a bit more closely at the suggestions of both Munslow (2003) and Miller (2000) we can tentatively see connection between their theories through similarity of ontological and epistemological tendencies. The constructionist model proposed by Munslow and the neo-positivist approach suggested by Miller share the same method of analysis using theory as a starting point, where the perspective of individuals contributes to the reality of what is considered the structure of the organisation.

Table 10 Three Approaches to Biographical History research

REALIST	NEO-POSITIVIST	NARRATIVE
Inductive	Deductive	Fluid nature of individual's standpoint actively constructed as an on-going (situational) project
Grounded Theory based upon Factual empirical material	Theory testing through factual empirical material	
Reality arises from the respondents perspectives	Reality arises from the respondents Perspectives	Reality structured by interplay between interviewee and interviewer in terms of representation (semiotics) Reality is situational and in constant 'flux'
Unfocused interviews	Focused interviews	Questions of fact take second place to understanding the individual's unique and changing perception
Life of Family History as a microcosm' of a macrocosm	Life of Family History as a microcosm of a macrocosm	Life or family stories. Interplay between interviewee and interviewer as a microcosm of a macrocosm
Saturation (multiple interviews with multiple respondents eventually reaching a point where little new is revealed by additional interviews)	The most hermeneutic - actor's subjective perspective as affected by social structure - the interplay between actor and structure	Present is a lens through which past and future are seen
Serendipity	Semi-structured	'Postmodern', 'chaotic', ethnomethodological
	The 'Why?' Question (for example, why interaction proceeds as it does)	The 'How?' question (for example, how is context constituted?)
Reliability is important	Validity is important	

Adapted from Miller (2000:13)

In our evaluation of Olympic Solidarity we are concerned not so much to identify 'what happened' so much as what interviewees perceived as having happened. Data from multiple interviews can be used to highlight inconsistencies in accounts provided, as well as between accounts and the statistical patterns which emerge in our quantitative analysis. Our approach acknowledges that we should take account of the conditions under which the data is constructed at interviews, while still seeking to find support for/counter to given theories. It is thus possible to draw on more than one perspective though the distinction between the approaches is helpful at the conceptual level.

Thematic Analysis of Interviews

Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest a multi-step procedure for a thematic analysis of data that involves a number of phases starting from the transcription of the interview data, to systematic analysis of the data through open coding followed by selective coding, after which codes are grouped into themes. The themes are reviewed, redefined and named, and the report produced with the inclusion of relevant extract examples. They also suggest a fifteen point checklist (Table 12) to ensure good thematic analysis, which being a rather flexible method of analysis, should be 'clear and explicit', confirming that the actual process undertaken in the analysis is a reflection of the methodology proposed, with a rigorous application of theory and method.

Flick proposes that thematic analysis is related to a system of coding developed by Strauss (1987) for comparative studies, in which "groups studied are derived from the research question and are defined *a priori*" (1987:187), and includes identifying themes to enhance comparability, but still being open to different opinions. Slightly modified from the Strauss procedure, thematic coding develops a "thematic structure which is grounded in the empirical material for analysis and comparison of cases", enhancing comparability of interpretation but simultaneously allowing for the different issues and sensibilities of the people or groups involved.

Table 11 Fifteen Point Checklist for good Thematic Analysis

Transcription	1	The data have been transcribed to an appropriate level of detail and the transcripts have been checked against the tapes for accuracy
Coding	2	Each data item has been given equal attention in the coding process
	3	Themes have not been generated from a few vivid examples but instead the coding process has been thorough, inclusive and comprehensive
	4	All relevant extracts for all each theme have been collated
	5	Themes have been checked against each other and back to the original data set
	6	Themes are internally coherent, consistent , and distinctive
Analysis	7	Data have been analysed - interpreted-, made sense of - rather than just paraphrased or described
	8	Analysis and data match each other - the extracts illustrate the analytic claims
	9	Analysis tells a convincing and well-organised story about the data and the topic
	10	A good balance between analytic narrative and illustrative extracts is provided
Overall	11	Enough time has been allocated to complete all phases of the analysis adequately without rushing a phase or giving it a once-over-lightly
Written Report	12	The assumptions about, and specific approach to, thematic analysis are clearly explicated
	13	There is a good fit between what you can claim you do, and what you show you have done- i.e. described method and reported analysis are consistent
	14	the language and concepts used in the report are consistent with the epistemological position of the analysis
	15	The researcher is positioned as active in the research process: themes do not just 'emerge'

(Braun and Clarke, 2006:96)

The unit of analysis typically focuses on descriptions of experiences, feelings thoughts or behaviours but also perceived causal relationships (Aguinaldo, 2012:769)

Using the coding structure as a starting point to address specific questions related to the research, the thematic structure enables the analysis and assessment of the social distribution of perspectives underlining individual understanding of definitions such as development, equity, diversity, management, leadership, etc. It involves a multi-step procedure, wherein each interview is considered as a case study, with a short description of each transcript, in order that the “the meaningful relations in the way the respective person deals with the topic of the study are to be preserved” (Flick, 1998:188), following which a system of categories is developed for each case, using open and then selective coding.

The developed categories and themes are then cross-checked across the individual cases, with the coding structure being modified if new or contradictory areas are identified. When case analysis has identified the viewpoints on issues in the study, the definitions of specific areas in the thematic domain can be contrasted or compared (Flick, 1998). Although it has been argued that the limitations of thematic coding can restrict questions to focus on the analysis of individual perspectives about specific issues and process (Flick, 1998:187-192), it is particularly suitable for this study since the semi-structured interviews in this part of the research involve the history of individuals in one organisation relating to common issues – their experience of the development of the structure and policy related to the disbursement of Olympic Solidarity funding.

3.8.3 Triangulation

A combination of different methods, study groups, settings or theoretical perspectives in research, known as triangulation, utilising different sources of data, adheres to the concept proposed by Denzin(1978) that multiple methods should be used in every evaluation since

“No single method ever adequately solves the problem of rival causal factors... Because each method reveals different aspect of empirical reality, multiple methods of observations must be employed
(Denzin, 1978:28)

Theory triangulation involves “approaching data with multiple perspectives and hypothesis in mind...Various points of view could be placed side by side to assess their utility and power” (Denzin, 1989:239-240), and triangulation of method combines different methods in the same study (Flick, 1998). Following two types of triangulation out of the four posited by Denzin, the use in this study of multiple methods of statistical analysis, document analysis and semi-structured interviews evidences triangulation of method. The use of different data sources such as various official Olympic Solidarity Reports for document analysis, the statistical financial programme data and interviews with people in different positions and backgrounds in the Olympic Solidarity, identifies with data triangulation.

3.9 Validity and Reliability

Although ‘Validity’ is in Silverman’s terms another word for truth Silverman (2000:175), unless a researcher is also able to ensure reliable and consistent methods for any research it will not attain the required validity. Moisander and Valtonen (2006) suggest a dual pathway to ensure reliability in research. A detailed description of the strategy and data analysis methods to ensure transparency in the research process, together with an explicit explanation of the theoretical background adopted for justification of adherence or elimination of particular interpretations (Silverman, 2011). When considering the merits of a study, Campbell and Stanley (1963) suggested two types of validity: internal and external. More importance was given to the former, which inferred, in statistical analysis, whether the relationship between dependent and independent variables was causal or not. Less importance was given to the latter, which alludes to the approximate validity with which we infer that a presumed causal relationship can be generalised and will happen elsewhere in a similar manner. External validity was later extended to include construct validity (Cook and Campbell, 2004), which addressed the particular ‘cause and effects’ constructs of a relationship (Chen et al., 2011).

Internal causality can be an outcome of observation and manipulation of objects of study, with the intention of identifying the effect of one particular action, or effect, on another; using transparent standard processes available for public scrutiny. Manipulation might not be visual or physical, but in the case of statistics it could probably be considered to have “statistical conclusion validity” (Chen et al., 2011) related to statements made on outcomes of statistic evidence related to covariation (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). In contrast with Campbell’s concept of environmentally influenced validity, Guba and Lincoln (1989) believe validity of a process in qualitative data analysis should be justified through the four criteria of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Chen et al., 2011). Rudd and Johnson (2010) insist that to make a credible causal claim in order to identify a relationship between the dependent and independent variables, the cause must occur before the effect, and alternative or rival explanations be discredited or rationally discounted.

Gargani and Donaldson (2011) insist that apart from being credible, data needs to be actionable, so that evaluation evidence is used in a specific manner for a particular purpose, making validation a responsibility shared by evaluator and user. They also suggest that external validity warrants more than just generalisation; it warrants prediction where decisions are taken about past performances, in particular environments, to predict possible patterns for the future. The extent to which and with whom validity is being shared, are key concerns of modern evaluation practice, and Cronbach (1982) suggests that increased attention to external validity might produce information which is more relevant to stakeholders.

When deciding what is relevant in understanding an organisation or part of it, it is necessary to construct a ‘causal chain’ connecting at least some of the functions being performed and analysing their interrelations and interactions. According to Johnson and Christensen,

A cause and effect relationship between an independent and dependent variable is present when changes in the independent variable tend to cause changes in the dependent variable (2008:39)

This does appear to be a somewhat circular definition, and at times it is not easy to distinguish between the object itself and the mechanism through which it interacts with an external environment. Since organisations have their own internal systems on how they react to outside change, programme outcomes are also influenced by changes in operational context or the conditions in which the organisation itself is operating (Befani, 2010).

Although, interviews tend to be seen as “involving construction or reconstruction of knowledge, more than excavation of it”, the effectiveness of the interview method depends on capacity of those involved, to “verbalise, conceptualise, and remember” (Mason, 2002:64). Qualitative data can supplement quantitative data; semi-structured interviews allow questions for clarification, and the probing for views and opinions with more expansive answers, especially in relation to personal opinions about a particular concept or event (Gray 2009). Although decisions made by the researcher give some “structure and purpose to data generation process, making data collection a structured process” (Mason, 2002:69), validity can be tackled by ensuring questions are directly related to the research objectives, with bias avoided through the ability of the interviewer in explaining the process of research without influencing subsequent answers (Gray 2007), even though, as one is unable to separate fact from context, the interview cannot be separated from the social interaction in which it is produced (Mason, 2002:62-65).

3.10 Conclusion

This chapter discussed ontological and epistemological considerations, as well as the methodological frameworks and research strategies and how research in these areas has outlined the advantages and disadvantages in relation to options for methodology and method choice. It gave an insight on strategies to optimise the validity and reliability of those choices. “Critical Realism argues that “through abstraction of concepts from reality, causal mechanisms and structures can be examined” (Roberts, 1999:21). The statistical analysis of the Olympic Solidarity financial disbursements can be used to identify how the money is ‘shared’ among the National Olympic Committees, but is unable to explain decisions as to why it is divided in that way. On the premise that critical realism delves beneath the surface of the visible evidence to uncover underlying causes of events, the life histories of individuals involved with Olympic Solidarity will enable the research to uncover the implications of change in the organisation, and its impact on decisions related to allocation of Olympic Solidarity programmes, at least in terms of respondents’ perceptions of such phenomena.

Ensuring clarity in procedure, reliable methods, and well-documented strategies and procedures, enables validity of conclusion to a research project. However there are always limitations to every project involving analysis of data or human interaction. By adopting the theoretical assumptions discussed in the Chapter, the outcome of this study should contribute to a better understanding of the structure and agency of the organisation and its distribution policy.

Chapter 4

Statistical Analysis of Funding Distribution

The aim of this Chapter is to critically analyse the extent and variety of the Olympic Solidarity Programme funding, the patterns of investment in NOCs which have emerged over the period since the inception of Olympic Solidarity, and the impact of specific variables on expenditure patterns. The nature of the funding programmes supported by Olympic Solidarity has changed, sometimes in slow and unsystematic manner to more radical and systemic change across the period. The chapter will start with an introduction to the sources of the data, and a clarification of the section of the data utilised in the analysis, followed by a description of selected variables and NOC funding data. This will be followed by an account of the Pearson Correlation analysis used to identify relationships between the selected variables and the data and finally regression analysis is employed to identify the levels of variance in dependent variables which can be explained.

4.1. Olympic Solidarity Reports

Before moving from Rome to Lausanne in 1979 (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008), Olympic Solidarity published at least two reports entitled Olympic Solidarity, *Activity Report as to May 10 1975* and *Activity Report as to 31st December 1976*. These include information about assistance to NOCs which actually started in September 1974, including a list of NOCs targeted for development aid, lists of experts involved, a questionnaire sent to NOCs to identify the aid they required, the NOCs that benefited from 1974 to 1976, (Appendix Q) and financial data in a mixture of currencies, Lira, US Dollar, DM and Swiss Franc (Olympic Solidarity, 1975). Olympic Solidarity moved offices in Lausanne to Avenue De La Gare in 1982 (International Olympic Committee, 1983b).

Olympic Solidarity published a report in May 1984, made up of descriptive programme reports and financial statistical information, in US\$, about the aid programmes carried out in 1983 for individual NOCs. Although the courses targeted different areas of the organisation, they were identified as Continental, Regional or National Courses, or courses for Technical preparation (Olympic Solidarity, 1984b). The Olympic Solidarity official annual report for the 1984 programmes was published in a new format with both English and French text, and this format would last until 1996. The reports listed the members of the Olympic Solidarity Commission, messages by the IOC President Samaranch, and the Director of Olympic Solidarity Anselmo Lopez, as well as information about quality and quantity of the Olympic Solidarity programmes, with evaluations from representatives of Continental NOC Associations and contributions from International Federations. Besides statistical data about participants, sporting discipline and location, the reports listed financial data for Courses, and the Olympic Games subsidies for Los Angeles and Sarajevo, only on a Continental basis. Financial data was all in US\$, in accordance with the financial policy adopted by the IOC Executive Board; “in order to avoid any arbitrary speculation in foreign currencies, the funds were to be managed exclusively in their original currency” (International Olympic Committee, 1981c:561).

Starting from 1985, financial grants were listed on individual pages for each Continent, with separate contributions in US\$, for every programme to each NOC in that particular year. Statistical information was also available for the breakdown of the Olympic Games Subsidies, and starting from 1990, each National Olympic Committee was identified by a ‘country code’ (Appendix A). In 1993, Olympic Solidarity published a report, entitled *1983-1992, Olympic Solidarity The Last Ten Years (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a)*, with a summary of the activities of Olympic Solidarity during that period, including the financial annual totals for all the NOCs. The figures for 1983 do not tally with those on annual report for 1983 courses, but the data in this report is the data used in the study.

A slimmer version of the annual reports was produced from 1997 to 2000, in which the courses were sectioned into programmes for Continental Associations and programmes for NOCs, with messages from IOC President Samaranch and the new Director Pere Miro and separate reports from the Continental Associations. The

reports listed the members of the Commission, as well as the members of staff, with their job titles and the areas they worked in. The English and French versions of the report were printed separately. From 1998 to 2000, the reports included an organogram for the Olympic Solidarity staff with their job titles. The format for the financial data remained the same, and the reports still contained descriptive texts and itemised lists of programmes with geographic location of where the programmes were held, the type of programme, names⁹ and number of participants and NOCs, etc., but the reports no longer contained the individual descriptive programme reports. In 2000 a quadrennial report for 1997/2000 was published, providing statistical data about the distribution of the programmes and financial data on a Continental basis for the NOC Continental Associations. Starting from 2001 a quadrennial plan and a final report were also published at the beginning and end of each quadrennium.

In 2001, the annual report format was changed further; Olympic Solidarity “thought its documents should be less dense in terms of content so as to present the bulk of the results in a more reader-friendly format” (Olympic Solidarity, 2001b:10). The reports listed the members of the Olympic Solidarity Commission but only contained a message by the IOC President, and individual reports by the Continental Associations, but the reports by the International Federations were omitted. The Olympic Solidarity staff members were sectionally listed with their job titles and areas of responsibility. Programmes were divided into Continental and World Programmes and financial statistical information was no longer available on a yearly basis, but as programme totals in the last year of each quadrennium i.e. in 2004 and 2008. The final report for 2005-2008 contained an analysis by the Director.

Information in the reports was increasingly expressed as a quantification of the programmes carried out: for whom, in what sport, and where, and included outcomes for some recipients such as the medal tally for Olympic Athlete Scholarship holders. The overall emphasis of the annual report changed from being an account of what was being provided to the NOCs through Olympic Solidarity, to one focused on what was being achieved – moving from input to outcome. Olympic Solidarity also started

⁹ Names are listed for holders of Scholarships for Athletes and Coaches

to publish separate reports outlining the performance of recipients of the Olympic Athlete Scholarships at the Olympic Games starting from Sydney 2000 (this is not available for Torino 2006). Starting from the year 2000 the Olympic Solidarity reports are available on the IOC website www.olympic.org. In order to enhance the understanding of historical narrative, the Olympic Solidarity Reports were cited with the year they actually reported, rather than the year in which they were published. The data from the reports will be supplemented by information sourced from historical documents published by the Olympic Movement, particularly the Olympic Review, accessed from the website of the LA Foundation, www.la84.org/.

4.2. Olympic Solidarity Programmes

Funding allocated for the NOCs through Olympic Solidarity was redistributed through three major sources.

World Programmes cover four distinct sectors: athletes, coaches, NOC management and Olympic values. The first three sectors provide different options in relation to a targeted group, while the Olympic Values programmes target different areas related to sport: Sport Medicine, Sport and Environment, Women and Sport, Sport for All, the International Olympic Academy, Culture and Education and Olympic Legacy. All NOCs now have access to all 19 World programmes for the 2009-2012 quadrennial.

Continental Programmes began with decentralisation in 1997, when a budget for activities, an annual grant to partially cover operating costs, and financial assistance for meetings and assemblies of the Continental Associations was administered by each Continental Association of NOCs. Official decentralisation, of major Olympic Solidarity funds, targeting individual aid for NOCs, took place in 2001 and by 2005 Olympic Solidarity representatives were allocated to the five Continental Associations. Since the situation was different for each continent, “the level of responsibility for these programmes and their management varies” according to agreements drawn up at the beginning of the quadrennium (Olympic Solidarity, 2001b:80).

Through the *Olympic Games Subsidy* each NOC receives funding directly related to its participation in both the summer and winter Olympic Games. This was originally

conceived to help the less affluent NOCs to attend the Olympic Games, particularly after finance was cited as a significant reason for non-attendance at the Moscow 1980 Games. Starting off as funding to cover travel and accommodation for a number of athletes and officials from each country, it has steadily increased (Appendix R) and now includes:

- Travel expenses for attendance at the Chef De Mission Meeting before the Olympic Games
- Logistical subsidy
- Funding for the transport of a number of athletes and officials
- Funding for transport and accommodation for one Youth Camp participant
- Subsidy for every participating athlete

These subsidies are directly related to the size of the participating contingent; in the larger, more affluent countries, the number of participating athletes can be in the hundreds; the largest to date being the US contingent of 654 athletes in Atlanta 1996; whilst some small countries participate with a mere handful of athletes. All NOCs benefit from these subsidies, and according to the Olympic Solidarity reports, NOCs who do not send athletes to the Games still received aid for participation of their officials, such as Djibouti and Brunei who did not participate in Athens 2004 and Beijing 2008 respectively. A concession was given to host countries for an increased number of athletes, for which they received a subsidy. This source of funding can reach very high values in comparison with that available through all the other Olympic Solidarity programmes.

The remainder of this chapter will concentrate mainly on the analysis of the World Programmes and the Olympic Games Subsidies. Statistical data related to these programmes identified from the reports were compiled using SPSS Statistical Analysis Software, and grouped into a number of categories (Appendix S). A list of notes highlights anomalies in the data and how they were dealt with (Appendix T).

4.3. Statistical Data

Originally most Olympic Solidarity programme data were available annually and annual reports up to 2000 list financial data for each NOC on a yearly basis, but grant values for the 2001-2004 and 2005-2008 are only available as quadrennial

totals. The Olympic Solidarity reports also provide statistical information about budgets allocated to the five continents, and the budgets for each programme. The continental budgets had (at the time of writing) been lower in value than budgets for the World Programmes; for example, for the year 2008 the value of World programmes stood at US\$26,030,000 whilst that for the Continental Programmes stood at US\$20,517,750. Olympic Solidarity reports do not contain comparable statistical information for the individual NOCs' Continental Programmes.

Table 12 Olympic Solidarity Budgets (\$ millions)

Quadrennial Plans	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008	2009-2012
Recognised NOCs	167	172	197	199	202	205	204
Budget (US\$ Million)	28.36	54.71	74.11	121.90	209.48	244	311
Funded NOCs	167	187*	197	200	202	205	204

*some NOCs not yet recognised

Adapted from (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008:45)

Although the financial data was abundant, the compilation in the reports was not always consistent. Most programme total values are tabled in separate columns; however, some annual reports contain columns with the sum of data from more than one programme, with the conflation of different programmes. An example would be the 1988 funds for the NOC subsidy, Sports Medicine, and Sports for All (Olympic Day Run) totalled in one column. Some data can be separated by virtue of information sourced elsewhere in the report. This joint compilation of data was also present in the allocation for Olympic Games subsidies from different Games, which cannot be always be separated out, such as those for Athens 2004 and Torino 2006, which took place in different quadrennia, but which are conflated and reported together under a single heading in the quadrennial report for 2005-2008. Similarly, the analytical data could include information about 212 NOCs, since some NOCs such as that for East Germany (GDR) ceased to exist, while others such as Yemen Arab Republic (YEM RA) and Yemen Democratic Republic (YEM RD) became Yemen (YEM), whilst the break-up of the Soviet Union (URS), Yugoslavia (YUG), and Czechoslovakia (TCH) gave rise to numerous NOCs.

Up to 1996, both the Olympic Games subsidies for the winter and summer Olympics were included in the report of same year of the Games. However the Olympic Games subsidy for Sydney 2000 was not included in the table totals for year 2000, even though it was outlined in the same report, but subsequently included in the final tally for the 2001-2004 quadrennial report. The subsidy for Athens 2004 was eventually included in the 2005-2008 final report, although the costs for the pre-Games Chef De Mission meetings were included in their own quadrennium. Therefore for the first four quadrennia in the analysis, the reports were based on what was owed to the NOCs in each quadrennium, whereas the reports after 2000 indicate the funding that would be received by NOCs for the quadrennium since the Olympic Games subsidy was paid to the NOCs in the quadrennium after the Games were held.

This was also evident in the budgets set out by Olympic Solidarity after 2000, which included a fund for the Olympic Games Subsidy during the first year of the quadrennium, i.e. in 2001 and 2005. This difference in allocation of the Olympic Games Subsidy in the reports could give rise to unreliable comparison both for the Annual Grants, and the overall Quadrennial Grants including the Olympic Games Subsidies. Furthermore, after 2001, as new programmes evolved, whilst others were integrated in different sectors, the number of individual programmes available fluctuates. The Olympic Games Subsidy was listed under the World Programmes up to 2004, but was classified separately starting from 2005. Talent identification was reported under the Youth Development Programme in 2001-2004, but listed as a separate programme for Athletes in 2005-2008.

Furthermore, when Olympic Solidarity began allocating NOC budgets on a quadrennial basis in 1985, NOCs had access to a variety of programmes throughout the four year period; they chose which projects/programmes they would utilise/organise in which years, so that expenditure for a given programme might be concentrated into one or two years in a quadrennium, making comparison of total expenditure for all NOCs on a quadrennial basis more meaningful than that on a yearly basis. Consequently, in order to provide comparable financial quadrennial totals for each NOC, for the programmes that would eventually evolve into the World

Programmes, all the Olympic Games Subsidies were deducted from the totals. Funds disbursed directly to the Continental Associations were also deducted from the amounts for analysis. The resulting values were identified as the NOC Programme Grants in the statistical analysis which is reported below.

The Olympic Games participation grants in the summer and winter Olympic Games are also compiled for each quadrennium and analysed separately whenever possible and identified as Olympic Games Subsidies. The Athens 2004 and Torino 2006 Olympic Games Subsidies are not available separately. These two main sources of funding for the last six quadrennia, starting from the period 1985-1988, will therefore be used separately for comparative data analysis. The Annual Programme Grants, using the mean grant for the periods 2001- 2004 and 2005-2008, the overall funding for each NOC per quadrennium, as well as the grants for each separate programme have also been compiled separately in our statistical analysis. The Olympic Solidarity reports available for this statistical analysis are those from 1985 to 2008. The report for the quadrennial period 2009-2012 was not available during the period of this study.

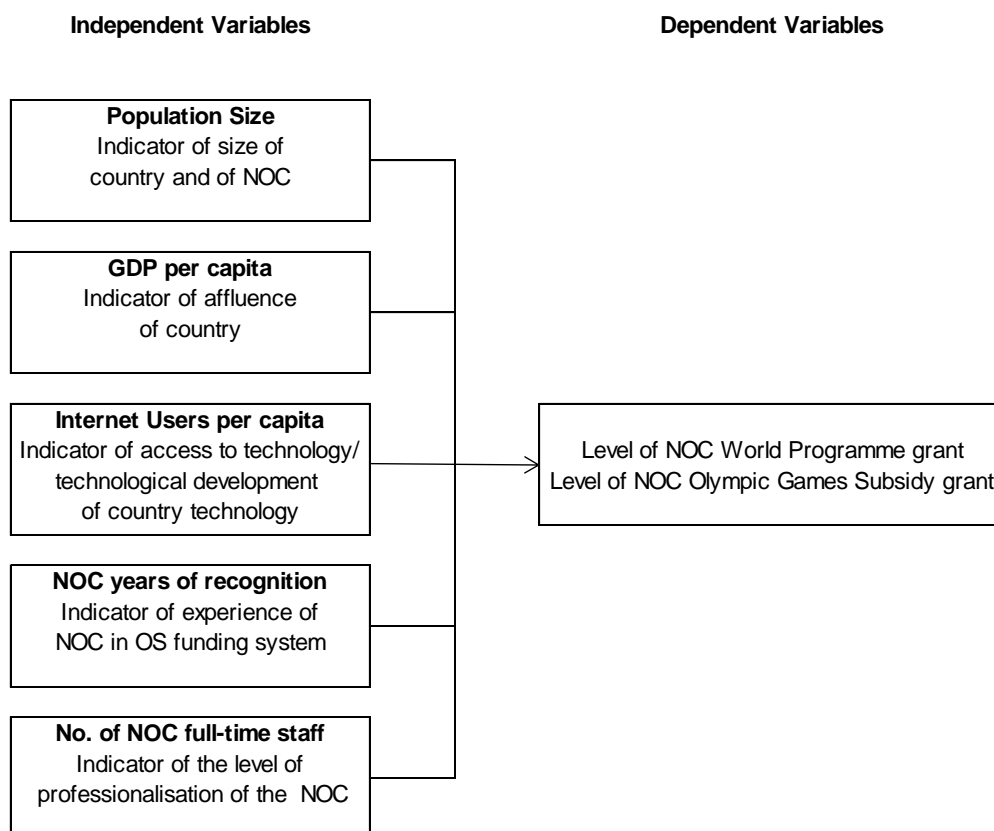
Missing data in the statistics indicates that the NOC had yet to be recognised. NOCs did not make use of all the programmes available in each year, so the annual and quadrennial grants, as well as the individual programme grants have been given a value of zero to indicate that there was an NOC, but it was not allocated a budget or did not utilise/organise a particular programme in the year(s) in question. The number of NOCs was not static; during the first quadrennium under study 1985-1988, there were 167 NOCs, however, new NOCs were joining the Olympic Movement almost every year and by the quadrennium 2005-2008, 205 NOCs were benefiting from Olympic Solidarity funding. The quadrennial budget was therefore allocated to a different number of NOCs, with a variation in the programmes organised by each NOC.

Descriptive analysis will include comparison of overall and continental actual, mean and *per capita* grant values in tabular and graphical form. Boxplots are used to produce a visual of group data comparison; they identify the median, or middle value, with a horizontal line inside a box, with 50% of the cases in each group

included in the box itself. The range of the data is marked by the distance between the whiskers extending from each box, marking the maximum and minimum values. Outliers are cases with a much higher (or in some cases lower) value than the rest of the group. Those more than 1.5 times the length of the box from the edge of the box marked by a circle, and those 3 times the box length marked by an asterisk. The cases in this analysis are grouped continentally and identified by the NOC country code. The sequence of the individual programmes in the Olympic Solidarity reports was not consistent throughout. For ease of analysis, after compilation from the reports, the individual programme values were re-reorganised according to their targeted groups. The first year of funding, according to the statistical lists in the reports, at times differs from the year of approval for the programme (Appendix U).

4.4. Dependent and Independent Variables

A number of variables have been sourced in order to aid the analysis of the different grants for the individual NOCs, as well as to act as indicators for a variety of criteria which will help to highlight any tendencies, similarities or divergences between the funding for NOCs in the five continents.



(Zammit and Henry, 2014)

Figure 5 Variables employed in correlation and regression analysis

The use of the indicators allows us to test the extent to which there is a relationship between what NOCs receive under both types of grant, and the size of a country (population size); its relative affluence (GDP per capita); the number of full time staff in its NOC (and by implication the level of professional support available within the NOC in making applications); and the experience of the NOC within the Olympic system (number of years as an IOC recognised NOC).

4.4.1. GDP per Capita

The original intention to use the GINI index, as an indicator of the distribution of wealth of a country, for this analysis had to be abandoned because values for 48 countries were missing from the lists of the CIA or the World Bank data. The GDP per capita was subsequently obtained from the World Bank website accessed on the 18th November 2010, <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.CD>.

Data for a few, predominantly small countries/states were missing when the values on a yearly basis from 1980 to 2009 were compiled for analysis. With a view to enhancing the data and the comprehensiveness of the eventual analysis, the missing values were estimated¹⁰. The values calculated would be those for the first year of each quadrennium, used in the analysis of any relationship between the quadrennial grant values and country/NOC affluence.

4.4.2. Population Size

Statistical information for the country of origin of the recognised NOCs was obtained from the CIA Factbook website accessed on the 22nd August 2010, www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2119rank.html.

There is a huge range in population size of over one billion people between the populations of the larger and smaller countries, with a worldwide mean of around 33 million people. This difference is also evident in the comparison between continents, where Asia has the largest population size, accounting for over half the total world population, with even the smallest Asian population of Brunei being four times as large as that for the next smallest population size of the Seychelles (SEY) in Africa, or eighty times larger than the lowest population size, that of 10,472 people in Tuvalu (TUV). Oceania has the overall lowest range of values for population size amongst the continents. This data will be utilised to calculate per capita values of the

¹⁰ Missing values were calculated as indicated in (Appendix V).

Programmes grants. In order to allow cross tabulation, the NOCs were also divided into 5 ordinal categories according to their population size.

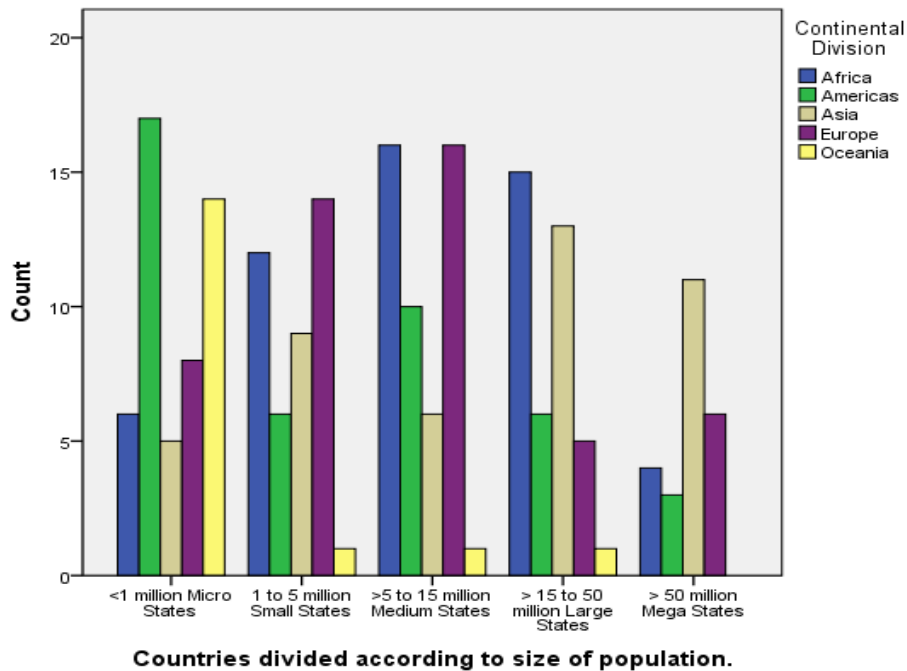


Figure 6 Countries divided according to population size

Figure 6 indicates that almost 25% of countries fall under the category of micro states. More micro states are found in the Americas and Oceania than in the other continents, while the majority of African countries fall predominantly into the three middle categories. A greater proportion of European countries are classified as small or medium size populations, while Asia accounts for the highest percentage (45.8%) of the large and mega-sized populations, the latter only accounting for 12% of the countries. This ordinal variable was calculated in order to be able to gauge possible differences between the larger and smaller states in relation to Olympic Solidarity programme organisation, grant allocation and other variables. Israel has been included with Europe, its current location in the Olympic continental framework. Israel was a member of the Asian Games Federation, but was excluded from the Olympic Council of Asia upon its re-organisation in 1981, and since 1994 has been a member of the European Olympic Committee (EOC). Although population sizes have changed since 1985 they remain stable in relative terms, thus the population size sourced in 2010 was used here for the purposes of this analysis.

4.4.3. Internet Users

The number of internet users per head of population is employed as a measure to reflect technological development and affluence. The data was obtained from The World Factbook on the CIA website accessed on the 18th November 2010.

<https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2153rank.html>.

A number of Olympic Solidarity reports mention issues with communication as the source of problems for some NOCs, resulting in lack of completion of, or application for, some of the programmes. The Olympic Solidarity NOC Administration Development programme includes funding for the provision of IT for the NOC offices “including purchase of computers and specialised software, and development of NOC websites” (Olympic Solidarity, 2007:33). Values for Internet Users in Netherland Antilles, North Korea and Palau were not available.

China with 298,000,000 users and USA with 231,000,000 users, surpass the rest of the world by a great margin, with the third ranked country, Japan, having 90,910,000 users. Omitting China (CHN) and USA from the boxplot analysis allows Figure 7 to give a clearer view of the outliers for communication levels worldwide, with an indication of the level of communication in each continent. Although several countries are shown as outliers, there was a large divergence in the scale of mean communication, with Africa having the lowest internet user levels in relation to number of people involved with a mean of 1,027,339 people and Asia being the highest internet user level with a mean of 16,120,820 people. When data was converted to a pro rata basis of internet users per capita, the scenario changes considerably, decreasing the number of outliers in most continents, and extending the user range for all continents, except for Africa. Although Africa has a number of outliers, the number of users in Africa was still much lower than those for the other continents with a mean of 62 in comparison to the highest mean for Europe with 523 users for every 1000 people.

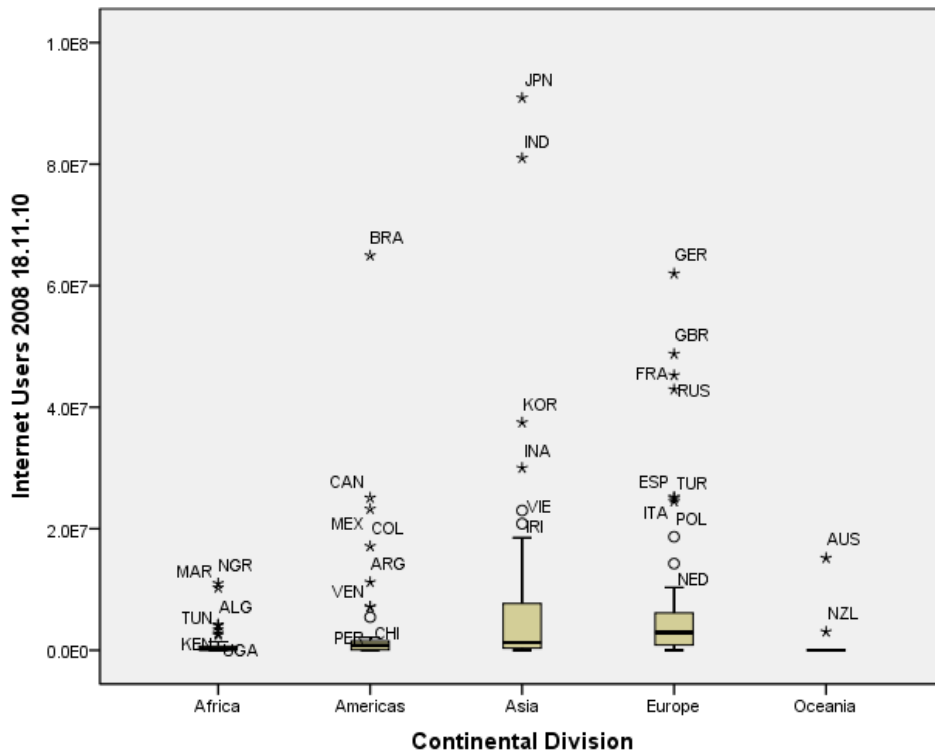


Figure 7 Internet Users 2008

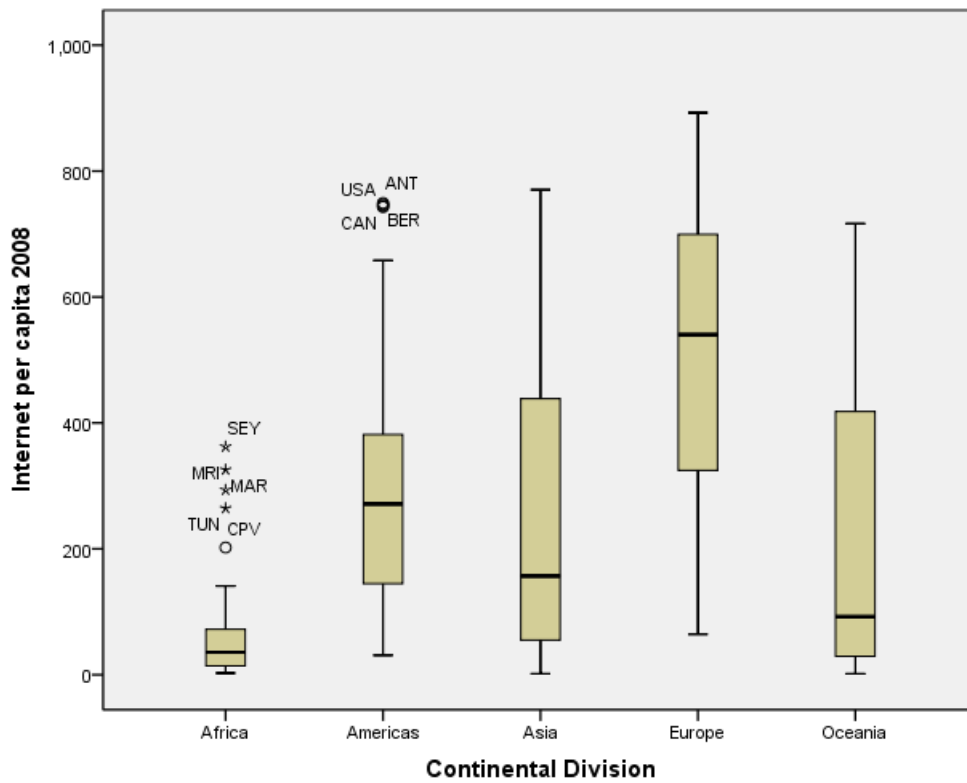


Figure 8 Internet Users per capita 2008

The small countries of Antigua and Barbuda (ANT), and Bermuda (BER), are outliers together with the USA and Canada (CAN) on the American continent, indicating that the size of the country is not necessarily indicative of a higher communication level. This is also corroborated by the number of smaller countries that appear as outliers in the African data. The highest internet user per capita value worldwide was for Sweden (SWE) with a value of 892 users out of 1000 people and the lowest was that for Timor-Leste (TLS) with less than two internet users for every 1000 people.

4.4.4. Year of NOC recognition

The number of years since the recognition of an NOC can give an indication of the experience of the organisation and this data will be used to identify any relationships. A National Olympic Committee must be in compliance with the Olympic Charter and have the affiliation of at least five National sports organisations in order to be recognised by the International Olympic Committee and join the Olympic Movement with the Olympic Solidarity grants and/or programmes. The year of recognition of National Olympic Committees was obtained from a paper entitled *Contribution to a political history of the National Olympic Committees* (Table 14) in which Terret suggests that NOCs are divided into five different configurations because, “in each of these configurations, which can sometimes overlap, some common political goals between countries could often explain the emergence of the NOCs” (Terret, 2008:1). A number of countries that do not fit into any group, including Israel, were put into a miscellaneous group. The missing countries are those that do not exist anymore or have been replaced by others, such as USSR and Yugoslavia.

Table 13 NOC Recognition Time Frames

Configuration Timeframes	NOCs	%
Miscellaneous	22	10
1894-1922 Power of Traditional Europe	38	19
1923-1959 Latin America, South Asia, Middle East	44	21
1948-1972 The New Africa	38	19
1964-1987 Islands, small countries, South Asian and Arabic world	43	21
1989-2007 Eastern Europe Reshaped	20	10

(Terret, 2008)

The analysis gives a more or less equal numerical recognition total over the different periods, except for the last one between 1989 and 2007, when most countries already had an established NOC, and the ones recognised in this period were predominantly a result of the breakup of a previously much bigger country rather than from an entirely new area/or previously unrecognised state.

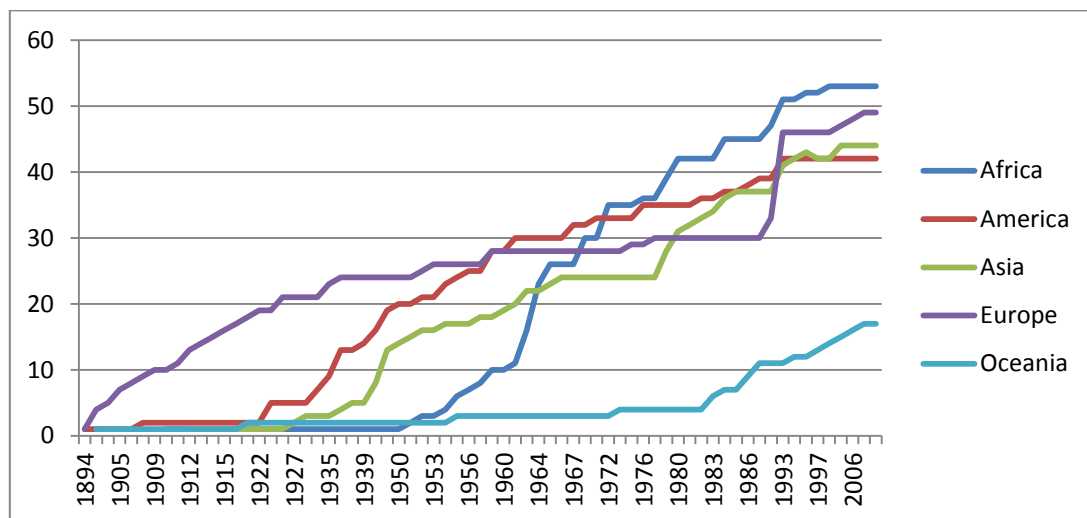


Figure 9 Growth of Recognition of NOCs by Continent

Analysis, of the year of recognition of NOCs, indicates that there was an increase in the number of NOCs recognised by the IOC, almost on a yearly basis, with increased numbers particularly during each year of the Games, up to 1980, after which, starting from the Seoul Games in 1988, no NOCs were recognised in the year of the Games. The biggest gap, with no NOC recognition, covers the years of the Second World War from 1939 to 1945, before which Africa had only one NOC, the Americas had four recognised NOCs, Asia five, Oceania two, and Europe 27 NOCs. The largest increase in the number of NOCs in one year was for 25 during 1993, the year after the Barcelona Olympic Games. Apart from four African and three American new NOCs, this was due to political issues in Europe related to the demise of the Soviet bloc and predominantly the resultant emergence of 18 new NOCs in Asia and Europe.

4.4.5. Full-time NOC Employees

Information related to the number of full-time employees in the NOCs was obtained from the recent IOC research entitled *Gender equity and Leadership in Olympic*

Bodies (Henry and Robinson, 2010). The information was requested in a questionnaire sent to all NOCs, with a 53.7% response, to be used as an indicator of the professional level of the NOCs. This data was divided into 6 categories and has also been computed in the same manner for this analysis. However, the lack of complete data for this variable might render analysis indicative rather than conclusive. The research indicates that the NOCs with between one and five employees generally “incorporate a number of small islands and micro-states, as well as some NOCs of African states” (Henry and Robinson, 2010:26). Those with over 25 employees include NOCs with higher performances at the Olympic Games, Commonwealth nations, Western European nations, and some NOCs with growing economies.

4.4.6. NOCs targeted for Aid

The Olympic Solidarity *Activity Report for 1974/75* contained a list of countries in Africa, Asia and the Americas identified as ‘developing’ NOCs, and targeted recipients for Olympic Solidarity sport aid which actually started in September 1974 (Appendix P). Turkey was included in Asia, and although no European countries were in the list, both Yugoslavia and Malta benefited from Olympic Solidarity scholarships. Oceania was not yet included “in view of the necessary planning elements, which are now being collected” (Olympic Solidarity, 1975:27). The NOCs ‘targeted for aid’ or considered ‘developing’, and those considered established, have been compiled into groups for analysis in relation to programme access over time. The NOCs recognised after 1974 were placed in a separate group and considered new NOCs. 90 NOCs, out of 134 recognised by 1974, were considered as developing NOCs targeted to receive assistance, and although the reports do not contain a definition of what qualified an NOC as ‘developing’, up to the year 2000 a number of Olympic Solidarity programmes were restricted for these NOCs including athlete and coach scholarships.

Olympic Solidarity offers special programmes designed for the exclusive benefit of the most disadvantaged NOCs with the aim of raising the technical standard of their athletes, coaches and sport leaders (Olympic Solidarity, 1997b:14)

The Olympic Solidarity programmes for ‘developing’ NOCs included the Olympic scholarships for athletes preparing for the next Olympic Games, the scholarships for young promising athletes, the Olympic scholarships for coaches and the Itinerant school programme, which was later renamed Training for Sports Administrators. However, according to the reports, by the quadrennium 2005-2008 only 38 NOCs out of 205 did not benefit from Olympic Scholarships for Athletes. These included nine from Oceania whose programme was managed by ONOC (Olympic Solidarity, 2008). Among the NOCs missing from this programme were twelve NOCs from Asia, five of which came from countries with high GDP per capita such as Bahrain (BHR), Qatar (QAT), Kuwait (KUW), Brunei (BRU) and United Arab Emirates (UAE).

The NOCs from Europe, with no athlete scholarships, were amongst those considered well ‘developed’; Belgium (BEL), Denmark (DEN), Spain (ESP), France (FRA), Italy (ITA), Russia (RUS), Switzerland (SUI) and Sweden (SWE), whilst USA, Costa Rica (CRC) and Nicaragua (NCA) missed out in the Americas. The African NOCs that did not benefit from this programme but still participated in the Beijing Games were Equatorial Guinea (GEQ), Mauritania (MTN), Sierra Leone (SLE), Somalia (SOM), Sao Tome and Principe (STP), and Tanzania (TAN).

4.5. Descriptive Statistical Analysis

The analysis of Olympic Solidarity data considers the nature and size of variation of the sample and its consistency through descriptive statistics including inter-quartile range analysis with boxplots. Comparative analysis will gauge differences in the funding outcomes for NOCs.

4.5.1. Programme Grant

In the early years of Olympic Solidarity funding, including 1985, NOCs were allocated annual grants of the same value, but as programmes increased and became more diverse the levels of funding differed. Even though some NOCs did not receive any grant during the early years, the overall budget was disbursed to a different number of NOCs almost every year, with the variation and eligibility of the programmes being offered and/or organised by each NOC also affecting funding levels. Since annual grants for the period 2001 to 2008 are not available in the reports, for purposes of reliability, the analysis of the Programme Grant will be undertaken on a quadrennial basis.

Table 14 Programme Grant (US\$)

	NOC	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Sum
Programmes Grant 1985-1988	167	22,010	372,358	106,508	17,786,836
Programmes Grant 1989-1992	187	4,786	467,614	151,678	28,363,869
Programmes Grant 1993-1996	198	9,222	561,096	245,137	48,537,175
Programmes Grant 1997-2000	200	59,338	729,008	341,185	68,237,147
Programmes Grant 2001-2004	202	41,509	861,612	389,297	78,638,057
Programmes Grant 2005-2008	205	41,113	1,185,251	485,966	99,623,047

Table 15 indicates a gradual linear rise in total sum and mean for the quadrennial programmes grant on a continental basis, however there was still a big disparity in the levels of finance received by the NOCs in the same continent and between the continents themselves, with the range of US\$1,144,138 between the minimum and maximum grants received by the NOCs for the period 2005-2008 being three times that of the range of US\$450,347 received during 1985-1988. There is a dip in the grant for 2001-2004 as indicated in the graph Figure 10, evident in the smaller increment in the grant between that for 1997-2000 and 2001-2004, coincided with the introduction of the decentralisation of funding to the continental associations.

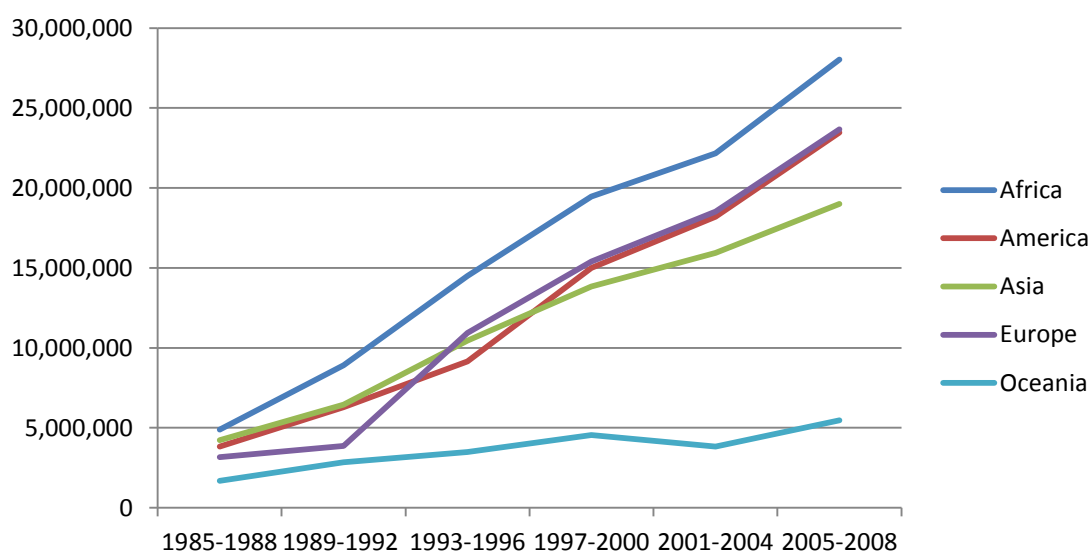


Figure 10 Quadrennial Programme Grant (US\$)

Africa has the highest level of funding throughout the quadrennia, Oceania the lowest; but European NOC funds have surpassed American NOC disbursements after the period 1989-1992 (Figure 10). The total finance disbursed per quadrennium has gone up almost six fold in the period over the quadrennia, whereas the number

of NOCs increased by 38. Taking into consideration the grants received by the NOCs, the Boxplot for 1985-88

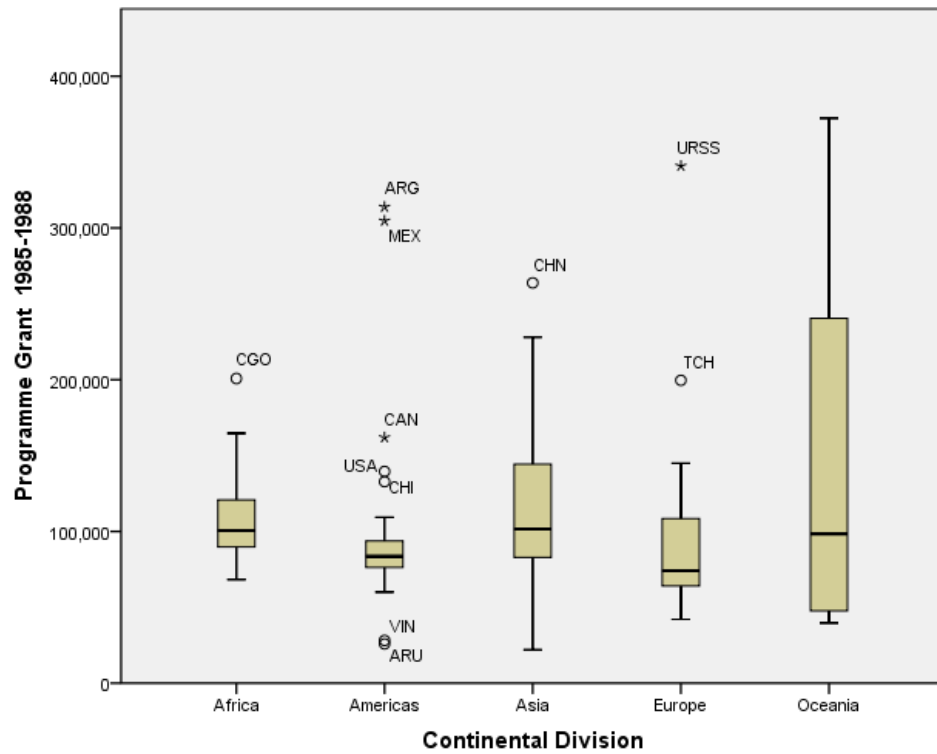


Figure 11 Programme Grant 1985-1988 (US\$)

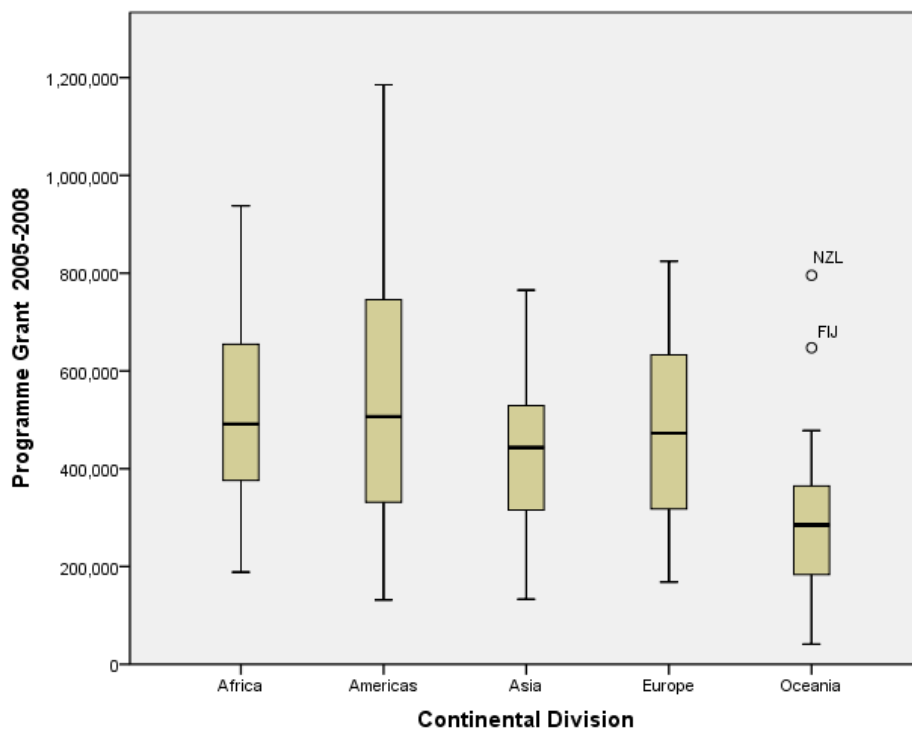


Figure 12 Programme Grant 2005-2008 (US\$)

For the Programme Grant (Figure 11) indicates a large number of outliers receiving significantly higher grants in all continents except for Oceania, which with only seven NOCs, had the widest range. Outliers are considered to have a value much higher than the rest and the data indicates that 50% of NOCs, indicated by the bigger size of the box, in Oceania had much higher range of grants than NOCs in the other continents. Extreme outliers in the boxplot are identified as those for Mexico (MEX), Argentina (ARG) and Canada (CAN) in the Americas, and Russia (RUS) in Europe. Australia (AUS) with US\$372,358, and USSR with US\$340,875, had the highest grants worldwide. Although the median in the different continents was quite close in level, the range for most NOCs in Asia and Oceania was much bigger.

In Figure 12, for the 2005-2008 Programmes grants, the levels of funding are obviously much higher overall, the Americas being the continent with the major rise in funding and with the highest range between the lowest and highest grants for the same continent, whilst Oceania remained more or less the same. There was a wider spread in the value of grants in contrast to the previous boxplot, the only outliers are now in Oceania with New Zealand and Fiji, whose funding was much higher than the rest of the 17 NOCs in that continent possibly because some programmes for the smaller NOCs were organised through the Continental Association and their funding was therefore not included in the NOC allocation.

4.5.2. Programme Grant Mean

Since the number of NOCs in each continent varies, the mean grant in each continent could be used to identify differences in funding. Analysis of the quadrennial mean data on a continental basis indicates that although the Programmes Grant value for all continents has risen, it has not done so at the same rate for all continents: the level of increase fluctuates. The values for Europe are included for better understanding of the level of increase in funding. One must also consider that a large number of well 'established' NOCs come from Europe. Although Oceania's mean grant decreased in 2001-2004 the data for this period does not include funding for the Technical Coaching Programme and the NOC Administrators Programme, which were funded and administered directly through the Continental Association of NOCs of Oceania (ONOC).

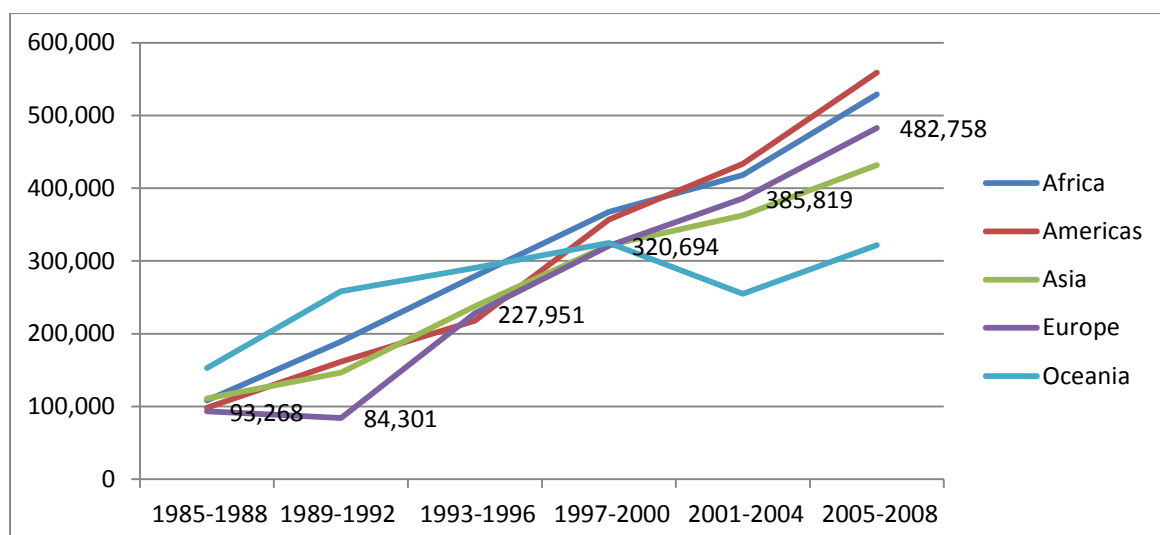


Figure 13 Continental Comparison of Mean Programme Grant (US\$)

As evidenced in Figure 13, America has surpassed Africa as the continent with the highest mean Programme grant funding; Europe, the continent that started with the lowest mean in 1985-1988 gradually superseded Asian in mean funding, so that apart from Oceania which had had the highest mean but became the lowest, because of reasons mentioned above, Asia was bottom-placed overall.

Table 15 Programme Grant Comparison 1985-88/2005-08

	Minimum 1985-1988	Minimum 2005-2008	Maximum 1985-1988	Maximum 2005-2008	Mean 1985-1988	Mean 2005-2008
Africa	68,341	188,375	200,794	939,797	108,540	528,921
America	25,916	131,568	313,833	1,185,251	98,087	558,843
Asia	22,010	133,000	263,824	765,453	111,186	431,678
Europe	42,048	168,183	340,875	824,264	93,267	482,758
Oceania	39,669	41,113	372,358	795,585	152,810	321,749

Table 16 indicates that the lowest grant for Oceania has not changed much, whilst the lowest Programme grant for the other continents has risen substantially. The mean for Africa, Europe and America has increased five-fold, that for Asia four fold. On the other hand the Americas have the highest range for 2005-2008, with the NOC of Brazil (BRA) receiving US\$ 1,185,251, over one million US\$ more than the NOC of the USA who received the minimum programme grant in that continent with US\$131,568. Only the NOC of Tuvalu (TUV) received a lower grant of US\$41,113 during that quadrennium.

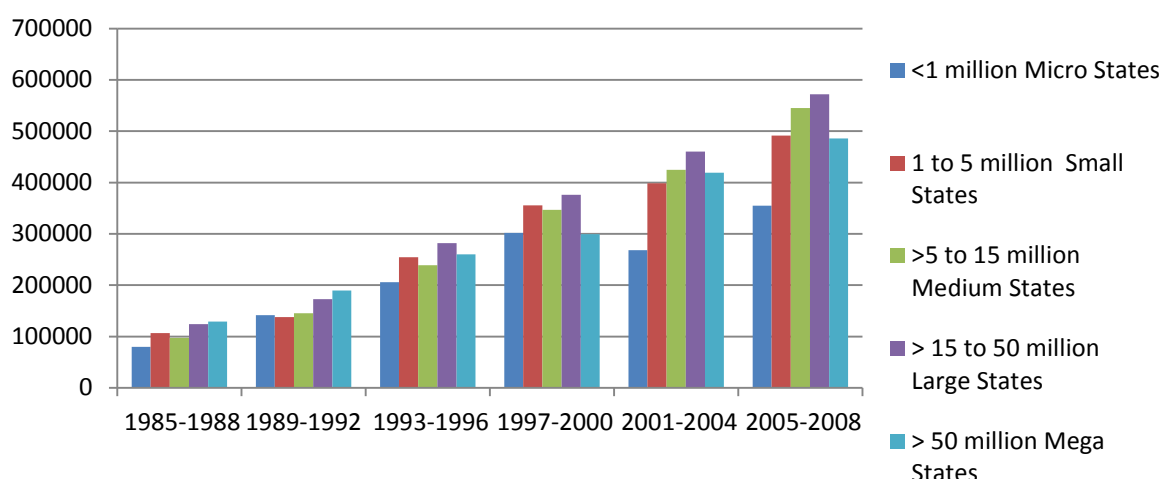


Figure 14 Programme Grant Mean according to population size

Comparing the NOCs grouped according to the size of their population (Figure 14) indicates that the highest mean grant for the first two quadrennia was disbursed to NOCs in the mega states. However, starting from the period 1997-2000, as new NOCs were gradually recognised and became eligible for funding, the highest mean Programme grant was disbursed to NOCs from the large states. The micro states consistently received the lowest mean except during the period 1997-2000.

Table 16 Continental Comparison of Programme Grant 2005-2008

Continent	NOCs	Mean	N	Maximum	Minimum	Sum
Africa	Established	756,132	1	756,132	756,132	756,132
	Targeted for aid 1974/75	570,051	36	937,797	236,638	20,521,840
	Recognised after 1974	422,180	16	865,458	188,375	6,754,889
Americas	Established	290,731	3	467,777	131,568	872,195
	Targeted for aid 1974/75	624,030	30	1,185,251	234,518	18,720,904
	Recognised after 1974	430,925	9	710,141	265,773	3,878,329
Asia	Established	418,234	2	597,141	239,327	836,468
	Targeted for aid 1974/75	463,008	22	765,453	186,500	10,186,180
	Recognised after 1974	398,561	20	705,445	133,000	7,971,226
Europe	Established	420,369	31	168,183	824,264	13,031,447
	Targeted for aid 1974/75	639,599	1	639,599	639,599	639,599
	Recognised after 1974	587,300	17	208,046	787,290	9,984,101
Oceania	Established	530,579	4	795,585	298,214	2,122,317
	Recognised after 1975	257,493	13	477,987	41,113	3,347,420

Comparison of the mean, lowest and highest, as well as overall grants received by the NOCs during the last quadrennium in the study is explained in Table 16, and indicates that NOCs targeted for aid benefited from the highest levels of the funding in the continents of Africa, America and Asia. This was not the case for Europe, where most of the funding was received by NOCs considered as developed, followed by the newer NOCs recognised after 1974, particularly those from Eastern Europe since only the NOC from Turkey (TUR) had been on the list targeted for aid in 1974/75. The highest grants in each continent were received by established NOCs; the highest grant was disbursed to the NOC of Serbia (SRB). This NOC was recognised in 1912, but changed its name to Yugoslav Olympic Committee (YOG) in 1920, and only started receiving funding as Serbia during the period 2001-2004. Oceania was not included since no countries were indicated on the list of 'developing' NOCs targeted for aid.

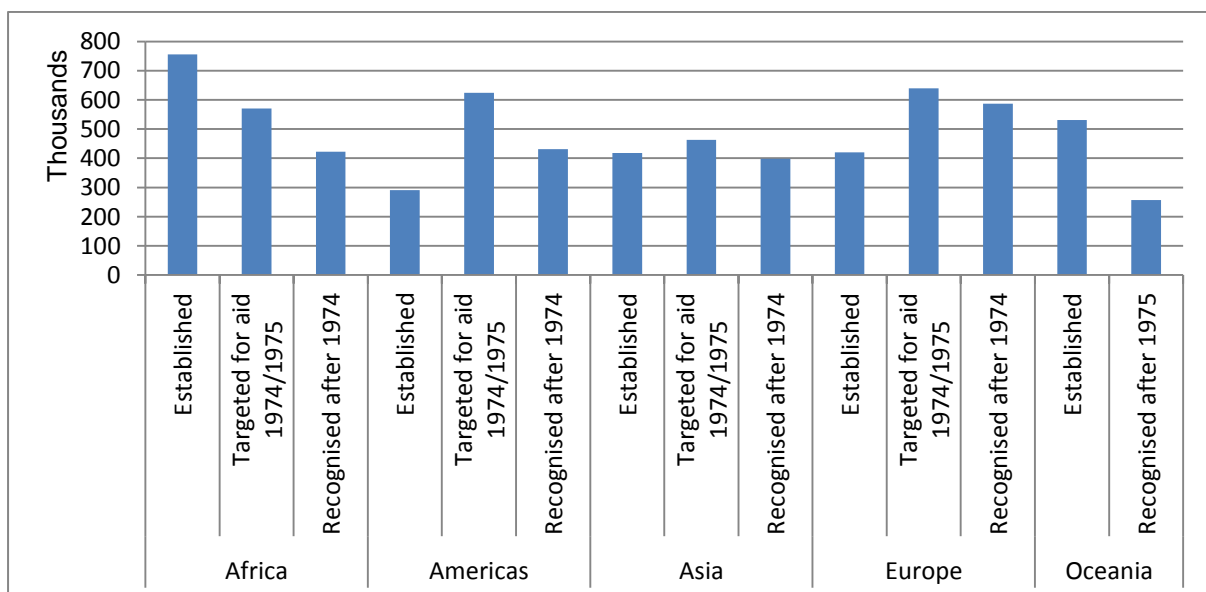


Figure 15 Mean Programme Grant 2005-2008

Furthermore, the data indicates that the mean or average Programme Grant for most NOCs targeted for aid or 'developing' NOCs was higher than for the rest of the NOCs in both the Americas and Europe, but much lower for Africa, where the only established NOC, South Africa (RSA) received a higher grant than the mean for rest

of the 'developing' NOCs in Africa. The mean Programme grant is only marginally higher for Asia.

4.5.3. Programme Grant per Capita

The values for the Quadrennial Programme Grants per capita were calculated using the Quadrennial Programme Grants data and the country population size. The purpose for this calculation arises from the fact that the NOCs come from countries with different levels of population and, putting aside the fact that there is a limitation on the number of people who can benefit from each programme through each NOC, NOCs from countries with larger populations must cater for a bigger number of applicants, participants, athletes, etc., so a value per capita could be considered to be one element in a fairer distribution of funding. Although all NOCs have access to Olympic Solidarity aid, most programmes are linked to quotas, where one or two delegates from each NOC may be funded, so larger NOCs receive considerably less funding per capita than small countries. The value for 1000 people was used in the analysis.

Regardless of the size of population, there is also a limitation on the number of athletes who can participate in each event in international sport competition including the Olympic Games. The Olympic Charter States that participation is regulated by the International Federations and approved by the Executive Board three years before the Games, and the bye-law to rule 44 also states

11. The number of entries in the individual events shall not exceed that provided for in the World Championships and shall, in no event, exceed three per country. The IOC Executive Board may grant exceptions for certain winter sports.

12. For team sports, the number of teams shall not exceed twelve teams for each gender and not be less than eight teams, unless the IOC Executive Board decides otherwise.

(International Olympic Committee, 2011:79)

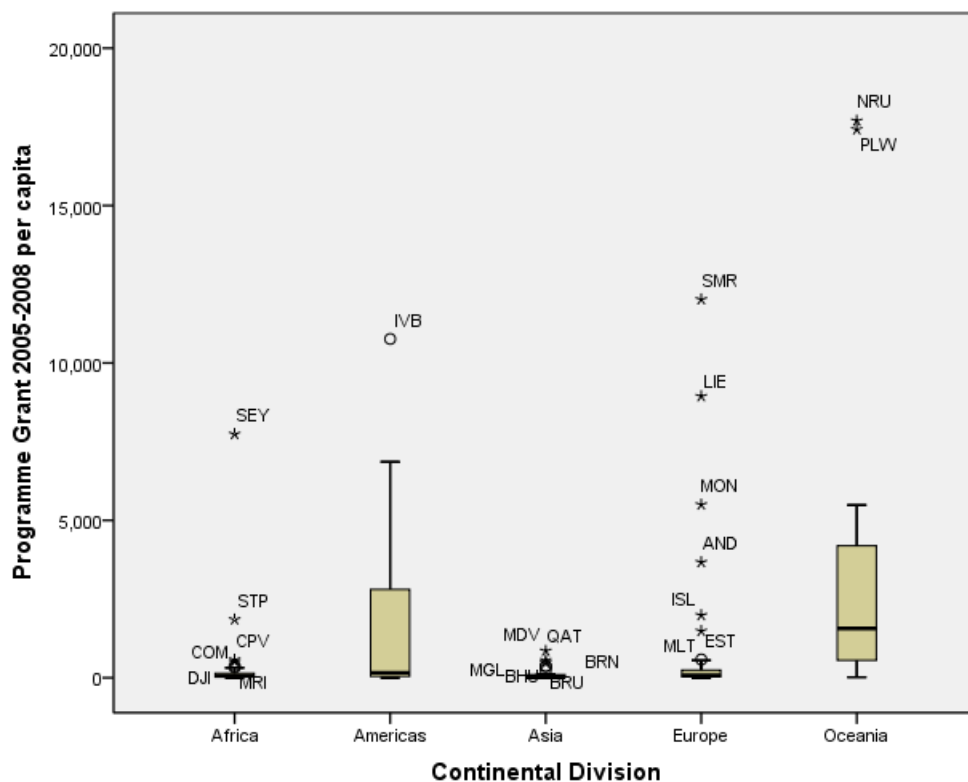
Countries with larger populations are likely to have a bigger pool of athletes with the potential to qualify and/or compete in more different sporting disciplines, but grants on a 'per capita' basis could limit the finance to the NOCs from countries with smaller populations, restricting the number of athletes they can prepare, limiting their potential, whilst giving NOCs with larger populations financial support for more athletes' to access/or qualification for more events.

Table 18 indicates that although there is a gradual rise in the Programmes Grant per capita throughout the quadrennia, the highest grants per capita have been disbursed to Oceania, with a substantial rise during the period 1997-2000 over the previous quadrennium possibly related to higher level of aid for the smaller states of Oceania prior to the Olympic Games staged in Sydney in 2000.

Table 17 Programme Grant per capita (1000 people) (US\$)

	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Programmes Grant per capita 1985-1988	4,040	.19	4,040	166	492
Programmes Grant per capita 1989-1992	18,380	.23	18,380	313	1,462
Programmes Grant per capita 1993-1996	21,905	.20	21,905	489	1,796
Programmes Grant per capita 1997-2000	31,145	.18	31,145	855	3,109
Programmes Grant per capita 2001-2004	22,509	.32	22,510	702	2,155
Programmes Grant per capita 2005-2008	31,218	.36	31,219	1,069	3,262

Once again there is a significant difference between the levels of funding for the different NOCs in all quadrennia, with a rising mean and a rising range, however the NOCs with minimum and maximum values differ from those NOCs who have received the highest Programme Grants. In 2005-2008 the maximum grant per capita was indexed to the NOC of the Cook Islands, and the minimum grant per capita to the NOC of China followed by that for the USA.



Cook Islands (extreme outlier) removed from boxplot

Figure 16 Programme Grant per capita 2005-2008 (US\$)

The boxplot for the Programmes Grant per capita for 2005-2008 (Figure 16), indicates Cook Islands as an extreme outlier, compressing the rest of the data to include all the results. After removing the outlier of Cook Islands (COK), the resultant boxplot as seen in Figure 16 uncovers several outliers with a higher level of funding in all the continents. NOCs with the highest Grants per capita are principally those from the smaller states, including several island states. Both Africa and Asia have a number of outliers and besides the Cook Islands (COK); Oceania has another two extreme outliers of Nauru and Palau. Apart from Mongolia (MON), Estonia (EST) and Mauritius (MRI), all outliers are countries with small population of under 1 million people, and apart from Estonia, all the outliers in Europe are small states (all participants in the Games for the Small States of Europe). The only outlier for the Americas is the British Virgin Islands (IVB) (US\$10,762) with a population just under 25,000 people. However, apart from the outliers, the range of grants per capita for at least 50% of NOCs in both Oceania and the Americas are higher than those in the other continents.

Table 18 Continental comparison of Grant per capita 2005-2008

Programme Grant per capita	NOCs	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	53	4.13	7,739	285	1,078
Americas	42	0.42	10,762	1,670	2,576
Asia	44	0.36	850	97	172
Europe	49	1.47	12,018	789	2,259
Oceania	17	13.86	31,219	5,351	8,613

Analysing the data for the 2005-2008 quadrennium, the figures in Table 19 indicate a big disparity between the mean Programmes grant per capita in the different continents, with the lowest mean, maximum and minimum grants being in Asia – the continent made up of countries with the highest population. On the other hand the high grant mean Programmes Grant for Oceania could be explained by the majority of NOCs come from small island states with very low populations.

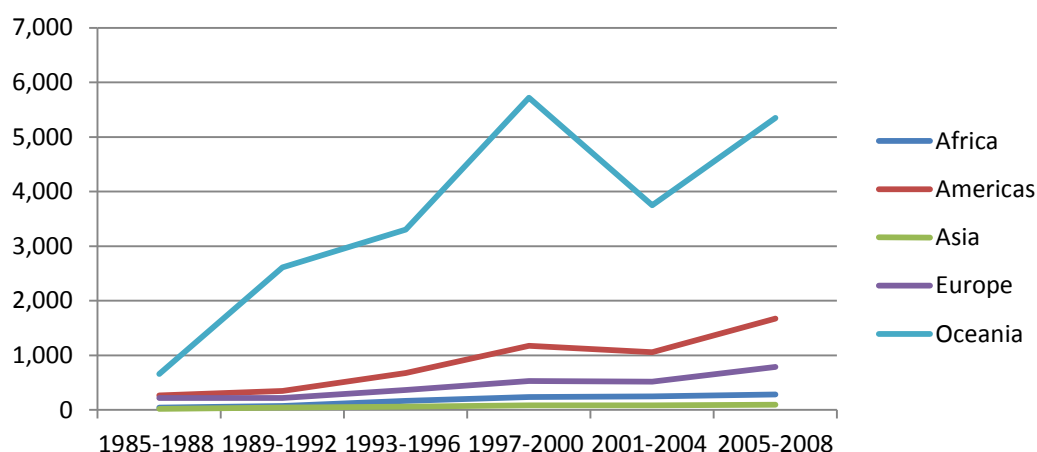


Figure 17 Continent comparison of Programme Grant per capita mean (US\$)

Figure 17 indicates that the NOCs from Oceania received, by far, the highest mean Programme Grant per capita throughout all the quadrennia under analysis. Although at a much lower level, the next highest beneficiaries are the NOCs in the Americas, marginally higher than the rest, with NOCs in Asia benefiting the least.

On comparing the amount of Grant received by states of a different size, the continental mean for the Programmes Grant rises gradually with every quadrennium so there is not much difference when moving to one size of state to the other, but the mean for the last four quadrennia in the analysis, is actually lower for the mega states than for the large states, and for 2005-2008 it is even lower than the overall mean for all continents, except for that of the micro states. This is completely reversed if the data for analysis used is the Grant per Capita, when the Mega states have the lowest mean values, and the microstates receive the highest mean Grants per capita.

4.5.4. Olympic Games Subsidies

The Olympic Games Subsidy is directly related to the number of athletes participating in the Olympic Games, preferentially benefiting the NOCs that can prepare more athletes to qualify and/or compete, in contrast to the World Programmes Grant which was intended principally to benefit the NOCs 'in most need'. Some sectors of the Olympic Games subsidy, such as that for logistics (transport of equipment), have a fixed value for all NOCs, other sectors such as travel vary depending on the country of origin of the delegation in relation to the host country of the Games. Although the compilation of subsidy is the same for all NOCs, the sectors making it up have changed over time (Appendix R) so comparison between different years or quadrennia is not strictly on a like with like basis, but it is possible to use the data to identify levels of distribution. Separate Olympic Games subsidy grants for Athens 2004 and Torino 2006 are not available, whilst those for Beijing 2008 and Vancouver 2010 have not been published at the time of this analysis.

Summer Olympic Games Subsidy

The data for the Summer Olympic Games Subsidy, during the quadrennia under analysis, that can be analysed separately, is that available in the reports up to the year 2000, after which it is combined with that for the Winter Games. Data for four quadrennia has therefore been used for comparative purposes.

Table 19 Continental Comparison of Summer Olympic Games Subsidy (US\$)

Olympic Games Subsidy		Seoul 1988	Barcelona 1992	Atlanta 1996	Sydney 2000
Africa	Mean	46,747	36,304	48,033	51,425
	Minimum	0	0	29,557	27,231
	Maximum	63,264	102,876	99,384	181,992
America	Mean	53,893	68,031	63,296	90,793
	Minimum	0	27,452	21,945	25,768
	Maximum	321,616	464,636	523,200	739,554
Asia	Mean	44,064	49,295	67,650	75,867
	Minimum	0	0	20,460	25,352
	Maximum	205,000	247,596	285,872	364,775
Europe	Mean	95,959	110,164	122,243	166,799
	Minimum	28,760	0	29,940	26,690
	Maximum	295,476	424,650	413,920	558,213
Oceania	Mean	47,774	80,573	80,917	96,247
	Minimum	27,448	27,185	35,330	19,189
	Maximum	152,608	271,500	380,008	745,200

Table 20 indicates that the continent with the lowest level overall of Olympic Games subsidies is Africa, while the highest Olympic Games subsidy consistently went to America and the range between the NOCs has steadily increased to reach US\$726,011 for the Sydney 2000 Games, more than double the range for 1988; A large difference is evident in the subsidies received by NOCs in the same continent, and between continents. Some NOCs did not receive subsidies in 1988 and 1992 Games.

By 2000 all NOCs in the Summer Games had received a subsidy as indicated by the minimum subsidy in Table 20. The USA, participating in Sydney 2000 with 593 athletes, received the highest subsidy of US\$980,477 whereas Samoa (SAM) participating with 6 athletes received the lowest grant with US\$18,189. Although by 2000 all NOCs were obliged to participate in the Games, two NOCs, from Afghanistan (AFG) and the Former Republic of Macedonia (MKD), did not participate in the Sydney Olympic Games; they did not get a subsidy and were not listed on the recipient list in the report.

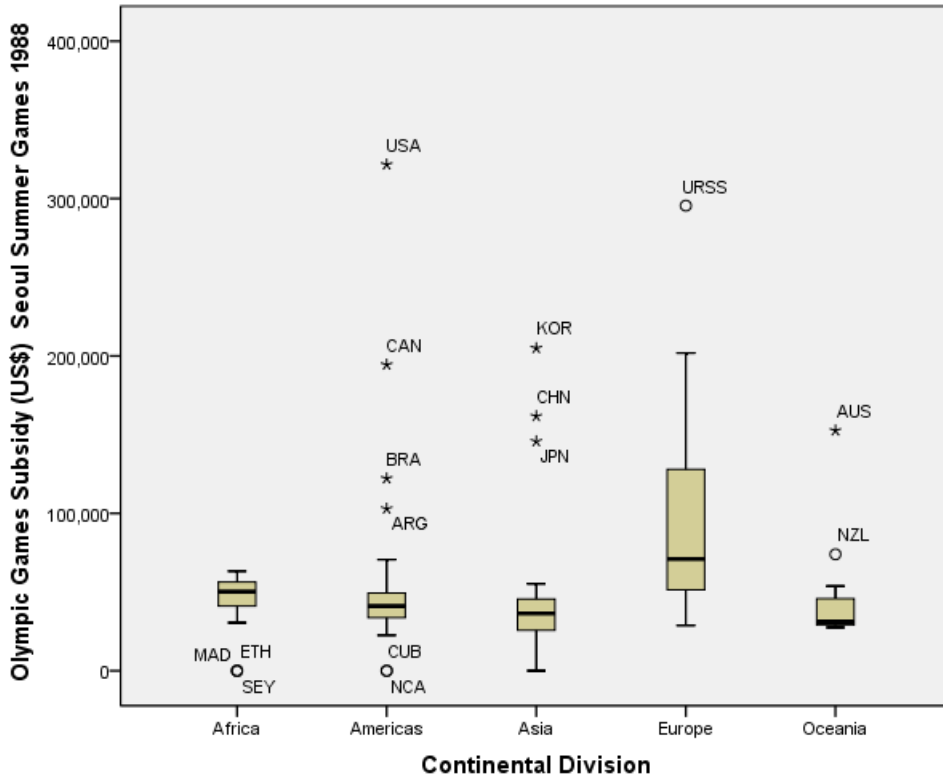


Figure 18 Olympic Games Subsidy Seoul 1988 (US\$)

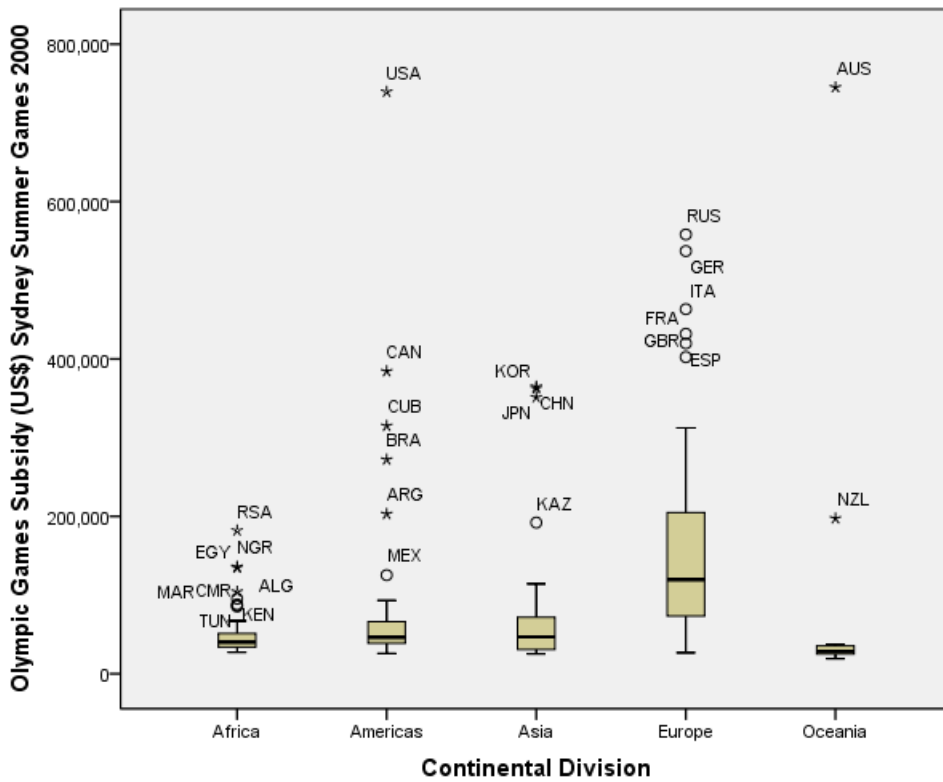


Figure 19 Olympic Games Subsidy Sydney 2000 (US\$)

The boxplots for the Olympic Games subsidy identify outliers as the NOCs from each continent who received a high Olympic Games subsidy. Figure 18 indicates the USA as the highest recipient for the 1988 Seoul Olympics, followed closely by the Soviet Union (URSS). The size of the box with the interquartile range reflecting the values received by 50% of the NOCs, indicate that most NOCs received a low similar sized subsidy, with the middle value of most continents, except for Europe, on a similar level. The range of grants for Europe has a much wider range for a larger number of NOCs. The value of the subsidy for the Russian Federation (URSS) was a much higher level than 75% of the other NOCs. Some NOCs identified below the boxplot did not receive an Olympic Games Subsidies.

The Sydney Olympic Games Subsidy is the latest one that can be analysed separately. The boxplot dispersion of grants in Figure 19 is similar to the one for Seoul, except of the overall rise in value. The United States of America (USA) and Russia (RUS) have been joined at the top by Australia (AUS); this can be explained by the fact that an NOC from the host country of the Games would be allowed a larger contingent, and therefore entitled to receive the subsidy for the increased contingent. Despite the rise for Australia (AUS), once again the USA by far surpassed the level of funding received for the Olympic Games Subsidy by the other NOCs. Although other American NOCs were indicated as high recipients in that continent, European NOCs by far surpassed the NOCs in the other continents with the highest values of Olympic Games subsidy overall, for all quadrennia.

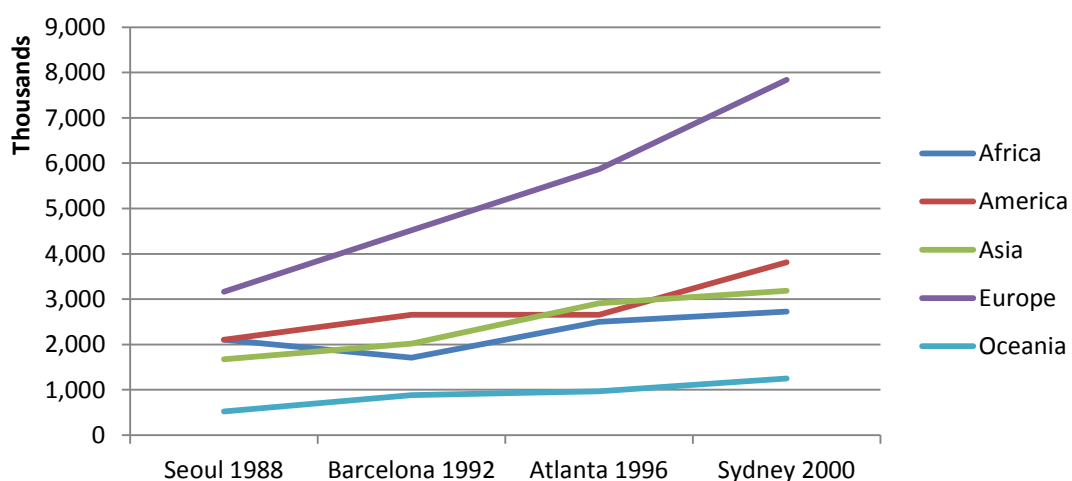


Figure 20 Summer Olympic Games Subsidy (US\$)

The graph (Figure 20) for the ever increasing Summer Olympic Games Subsidy indicates that the value of the subsidy for Europe surpasses that for all the other continents for all the Games. The African NOCs consistently received the lowest grants.

Winter Olympic Games Subsidy

Some Winter Games subsidies cannot be totally isolated from other activities, such as funds for preparation of athletes for qualifying competitions or for different Chef de Mission meetings usually held in the year before the Games. They are bundled in one column of the data provided for the Winter Games in the Olympic Solidarity reports, as is the case with Olympic Games subsidy for Torino 2006, which cannot be identified separately, while that for Vancouver 2010 was not available at the time of analysis. The data for the Winter Games subsidy from 1988 to 1998 were compiled individually for analysis. The data for the Olympic Games subsidy for Salt Lake City 2002 included funding for the Chef De Mission meeting for the Athens 2004 Games, which would have involved all NOCs, even those not participating in the Winter Games.

Table 20 Winter Games Subsidy (US\$)

	NOC	Maximum	Mean	Sum
Olympic Games Subsidy Calgary 1988	57	245,219	22,526	3,739,399
Olympic Games Subsidy Albertville 1992	64	135,038	12,752	2,206,226
Olympic Games Subsidy Lillehammer 1994	67	125,100	10,207	1,943,665
Olympic Games Subsidy Nagano 1998	72	240,923	18,628	3,604,531
Olympic Games Subsidy Salt Lake City 2002/CDM Athens	78	264,232	23,575	4,663,980

The high value of the subsidy for the Calgary Games includes the Calgary fund set up by the IOC-OCO88 organisation (Olympic Solidarity, 1988:289). In Table 21, the mean level of subsidy mirrors that of the maximum values of the subsidy, but the Winter Games subsidies are much lower in comparison to those for the Summer Olympic Games. The highest mean winter Olympic Games subsidies were those for Europe which by far surpass any of those for the other continents; the mean value for Europe, of US\$76,836, for the Calgary Games is very high in comparison with the rest, possibly because 30 out of the 57 participating NOCs were from Europe. The

data also shows that the number of NOCs participating in the Winter Games make up only a about third of all NOCs.

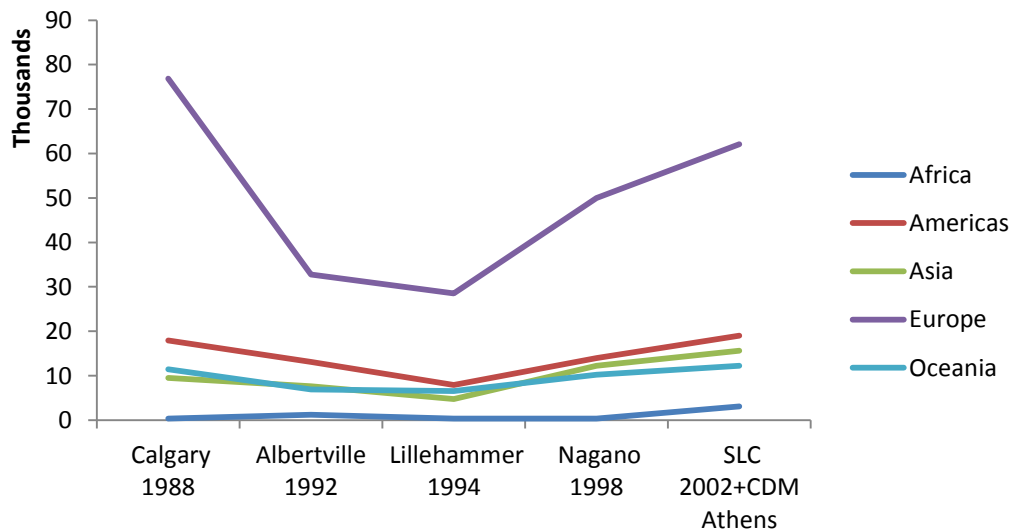


Figure 21 Continental Comparison of mean Winter Games Subsidy (US\$)

Figure 21 indicates that the mean Olympic Games Subsidy for Lillehammer 1992 is lowest in all the Games overall. The value for Africa, for all the Games, is invariably much lower than that for all the other continents, as too the participation of African NOCs in the Winter Games, while Europe is highest participating continent in all Winter Games: Malta (MLT) being the only European NOC never to have participated in the Winter Olympic Games, at least until 2010.

Figures 22 and 23, show boxplots for the Olympic Winter Games subsidies for the first and last quadrennia in the analysis, and indicate that the United States of America (USA), Canada (CAN) and Japan (JPN) were consistent outliers with a much higher level of subsidy. However the boxplots also show the higher range of subsidy received by European NOCs, with the median or middle value, being almost higher than that for subsidies received by most of the NOCs in the other continents. Russia appeared as an outlier for the first time in the Nagano 1998 Games, whilst the Salt Lake City 2002 Games boxplot indicates outliers in each continent.

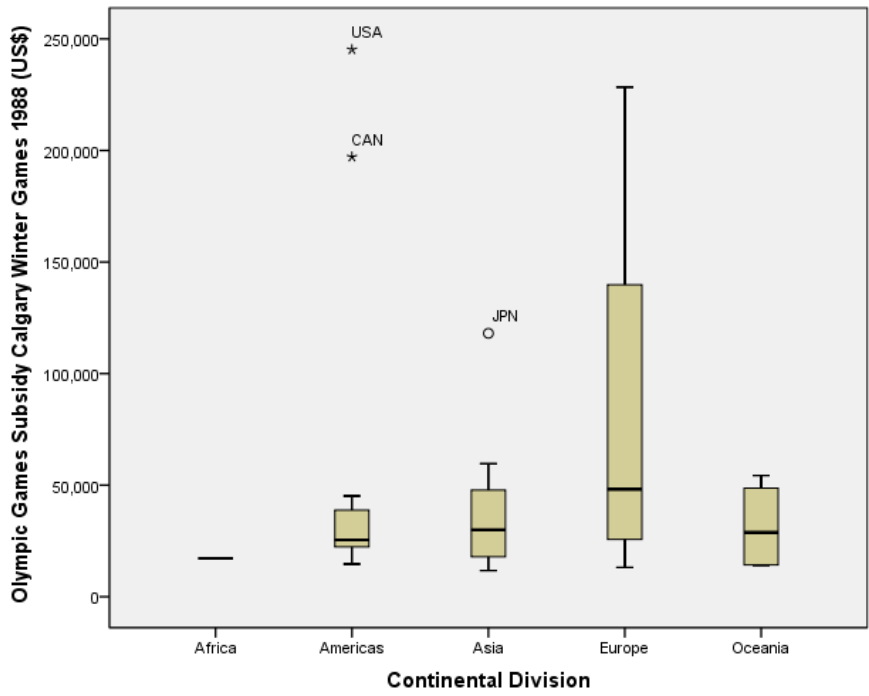


Figure 22 Olympic Games Subsidy Calgary 1988 (US\$)

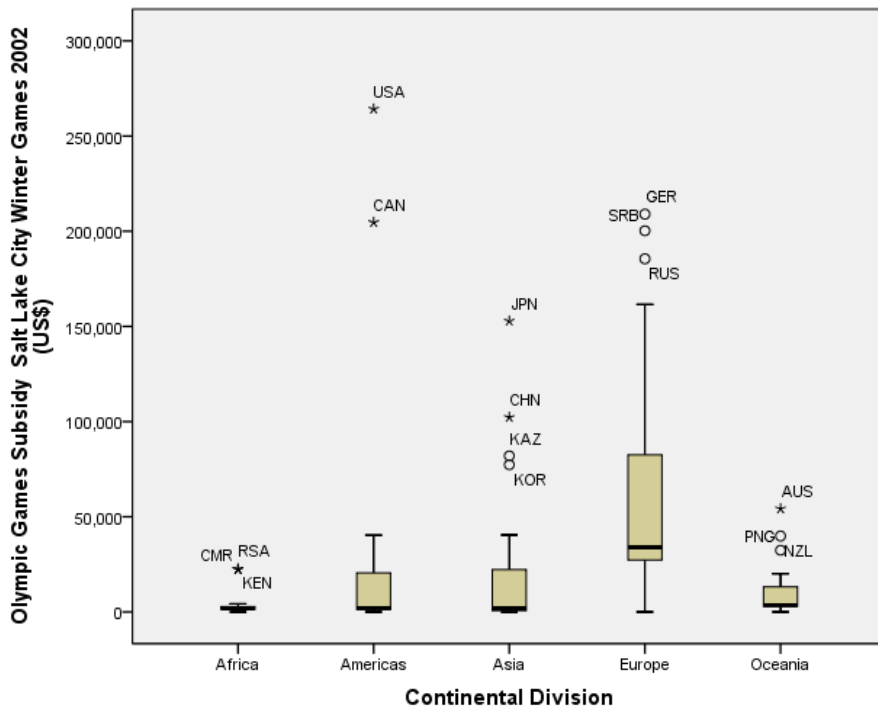


Figure 23 Olympic Games Subsidy Salt Lake City 2002 (US\$)

The low median in Figure 23 is explained by the fact that this subsidy cannot be separated from the funding received by a larger number of the NOCs for attending the pre-games Chef De Mission meeting, which has a much lower value than Olympic Games Subsidy for the Salt Lake City Olympic Games.

Morocco (MAR) was the only African country to participate in Calgary, and received a subsidy of US\$17,147, with Australia (AUS), Fiji (FIJ), New Zealand (NZL) and Guam (GUM) participating from Oceania. Only three NOCs from Africa and three from Oceania participated in the Salt Lake City Games, as seen through the appearance of four outliers in Australia (AUS), Fiji (FIJ), and New Zealand (NZL) in Oceania and the outliers of Kenya (KEN), South Africa (RSA) and Cameroun (CAM) from Africa. During both Games the level of subsidy for most of the NOCs from Europe are spread on a wider and higher level than those for the other continents. Although Germany (GER), Serbia (SRB) and Russia (RUS) are outliers in Europe, and there are more NOCs with higher funding levels, the highest level of funding in Europe has decreased, unlike that for the Americas where there is an increased gap between the outlier of USA and the rest.

The host country usually has a higher level of participation, so a higher number of participating athletes would also entitle the NOC to a higher level of subsidy. The number of athletes participating in the Olympic Games has increased, to a higher extent, from larger countries/NOCs with previously high participating levels, rather than from the NOCs traditionally with smaller teams. Africa is still the continent with the lowest winter Olympic Games Subsidies, while the highest subsidy for every winter Games in this analysis was disbursed to the USA.

Winter and Summer Games Subsidies together

Some Olympic Games Subsidies cannot be separated from funding provided for other purposes, nevertheless all NOC financial values have been allocated in the same manner and all received the same structure of subsidy. The Olympic Solidarity Report for 2004 gives an Olympic Games subsidy total for Sydney 2000 and Salt Lake City 2002, but the Sydney 2000 is also available separately. In order to improve consistency, the totals of the subsidies of both the Winter and Summer Games together in each quadrennium have been analysed in this study. The report for 2008

gives a subsidy total for Athens 2004 and Torino 2006 (these cannot be separated). All the combinations will be used for comparative analysis.

Table 21 Olympic Winter and Summer Games Subsidy (US\$)

	NOCs	Sum	Maximum	Mean
Calgary 1988 + Seoul 1988	164	13,046,332	566,835	79,117
Barcelona 1992 + Albertville 1992	184	14,677,110	666,112	79,766
Lillehammer 1994 + Atlanta 1996	199	16,914,670	648,300	84,998
Nagano 1998 + Sydney 2000	195	22,428,558	980,477	113,275
* Sydney 2000 + SLC 2002 + CDM Athens	202	23,610,971	1,003,786	116,885
Athens 2004 + Torino 2006 + CDM Beijing	205	27,892,177	1,152,124	136,059

*Calculated

There is a gradual ascending value in the value and mean of the overall Games subsidies (Table 22), as well as an expanding range of close to US\$ one million, between the highest and lowest subsidies given to NOCs for both games together, since not all NOCs participate in the Winter Games and thus do not benefit from both subsidies, while some NOCs benefit from having large contingents for both the Summer and Winter Games.

Combining disbursements for the summer (Athens 2004) and winter (Torino 2006) Games Subsidies together, as reported during the period 2005-2008 in Figure 24, gives us a boxplot that follows a similar pattern to that obtained for the subsidies separately, as most of the outliers with higher subsidies are the same NOCs, with the United States (USA) (US\$1,152,124) and Canada (CAN) (US\$732,466) leading the American NOCs; China (CHN) (US\$723,303) and Japan (JPN) (US\$732,926) being the highest Asian NOC recipients, the NOCs from Russia (RUS) (US\$954,355), Germany (GER) (US\$913,983) and Italy (ITA) (US\$839,347) having highest European funding, and as identified previously Australia (AUS) (US\$803,073) was the highest outlier in Oceania. Although the boxplot also indicates some outliers for Africa, their Olympic Games subsidies are by far much lower than those of NOCs in other continents. The median, for all continents except for Europe, shows that there were a large number of NOCs in each continent that received a

very low grant, obviously reflected by their low participation rate in the Olympic Games.

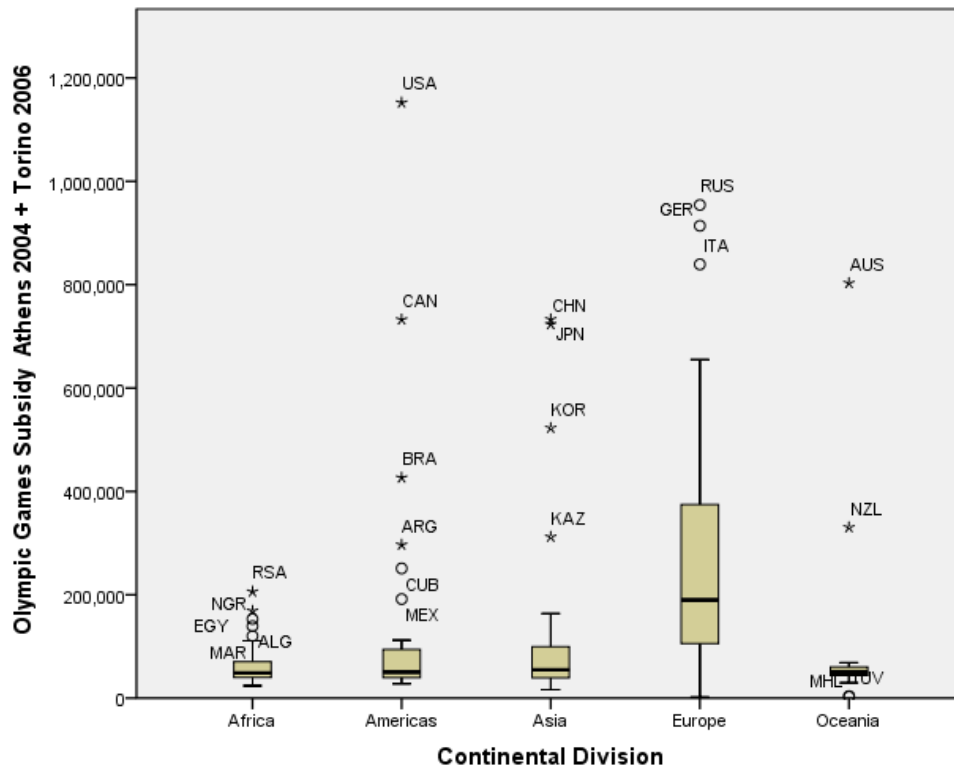


Figure 24 Olympic Games Subsidy Athens 2004 + Torino 2006 (US\$)

Analysis of the latest Olympic Games Subsidies disbursed during the 2005-2008 quadrennium (Athens 2004 and the Torino 2006) (Table 23) gives us an indication of the levels of subsidy received by the different sectors of NOCs i.e. the ones targeted for aid during the early years of Olympic Solidarity, the established NOCs, and the ‘newer’ NOCs recognised after 1974. Although Oceania had no NOCs on the list targeted for aid at the time, and Turkey was the only NOCs listed from the European continent. The division of NOCs in this manner would also be conducive in an analysis of the level of participation in the Games of the NOCs. Although some of the expenses in the Olympic Games Subsidy involve travel expenses for a few people which fluctuate depending on the travelling distance between the NOC’s country of origin and the Games, it is also directly related to the size of the Games contingent.

Table 22 Olympic Games Subsidy Athens 2004 + Torino 2006 (US\$)

Continental Division	NOCs	Mean	NOCs	Minimum	Maximum	Sum
Africa	Established	206,050	1	206,050	206,050	206,050
	Targeted for aid 1974/75	65,738	36	24,000	168,923	2,366,567
	Recognised after 1974	45,756	16	25,435	71,018	732,091
	Total	62,353	53	24,000	206,050	3,304,708
Americas	Established	640,812	3	37,847	1,152,124	1,922,437
	Targeted for aid 1974/75	95,681	30	34,936	426,502	2,870,420
	Recognised after 1974	38,300	9	27,945	47,593	344,701
	Total	122,323	42	27,945	1,152,124	5,137,558
Asia	Established	446,286	2	159,645	732,926	892,571
	Targeted for aid 1974/75	95,036	22	26,101	522,784	2,090,789
	Recognised after 1974	95,054	20	16,311	723,303	1,901,084
	Total	111,010	44	16,311	732,926	4,884,444
Europe	Established	311,997	31	38,077	954,355	9,671,898
	Targeted for aid 1974/75	154,977	1	154,977	154,977	154,977
	Recognised after 1974	173,621	17	1,818	468,500	2,951,555
	Total	260,784	49	1,818	954,355	12,778,430
Oceania	Established	315,616	4	60,313	803,073	1,262,463
	Recognised after 1974	40,352	13	2,770	64,153	524,574
	Total	105,120	17	2,770	803,073	1,787,037

The Table 23 indicates that the mean Olympic Games Subsidy was substantially much higher for the established NOCs in comparison to that for the NOCs targeted for aid throughout all the continents, with a much lower mean for the newer NOCs in Africa, the Americas and Oceania. In Europe, the high participation in the Olympic Games of the new countries formed after the break-up of the ex-Soviet bloc possibly explains the higher level for this subsidy. In Asia the mean for the NOCs targeted for aid and 'new' NOCs is more or less the same. Moreover, the highest subsidies are received by established NOCs in each continent except for Europe.

It also indicates that although high sums of subsidy are disbursed to the established NOCs and those NOCs targeted for aid, most of these sums are shared by a large number of NOCs, whereas the sum of subsidy of US\$1,922,437, for the established NOCs in the Americas, is shared by just the three NOCs considered established in 1974: the USA, Canada (CAN) and Bermuda (BER); the sum for the subsidy of the established NOCs in Oceania was shared by four NOCs: Australia (AUS), Fiji (FIJ), New Zealand (NZL) and Papua New Guinea (PGN). The sum total of the substantial

funding disbursed to the European NOCs of US\$12,778,430 in Olympic Games subsidy also reflects the overwhelming participation of this continent in the Games in comparison to other continents.

Figure 25 shows a comparison of the separate winter and summer subsidies in the same quadrennial period of 1997-2000. Later subsidies in the same quadrennial period cannot be analysed separately.

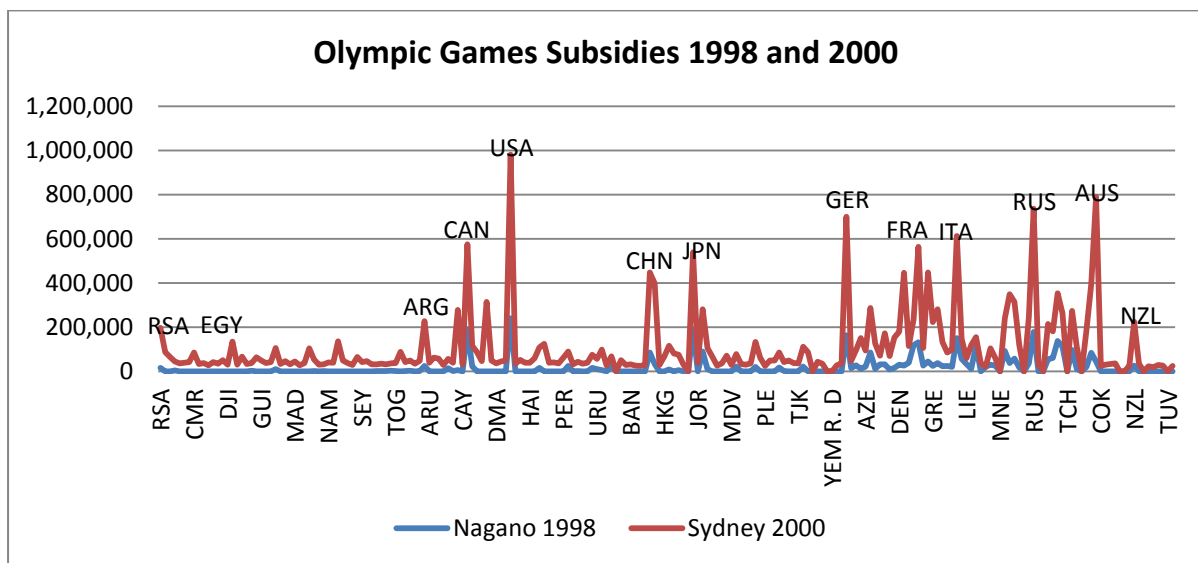


Figure 25 Comparison of Olympic Games subsidy during the same quadrennium - winter (1998) and summer (2000) (US\$)

The graph in Figure 25 shows that subsidies from the Nagano 1998 Winter Games are much lower than those for the Sydney 2000 Summer Games, with a considerable majority of high subsidies allocated to Europe. The graph also highlights the fact that subsidies for both the winter and summer Games tend to peak in the same areas, with African NOCs having the lowest levels, suggesting that most NOCs with high participation in the summer Games might be the same as those with high participation in the winter Games, illustrating that the major benefit from the Olympic Games Subsidy for Winter and Summer games accrues broadly to the same continents and even in many instances the same NOCs.

4.5.5. Comparison of Programme Grant and Olympic Games Subsidy

The NOC country codes in the graph enable identification of NOCs on the same continent, and between the continents, and are used to highlight the different levels of both the Olympic Games subsidy and Programme Grant reported during the last period (2005-2008) in the analysis.

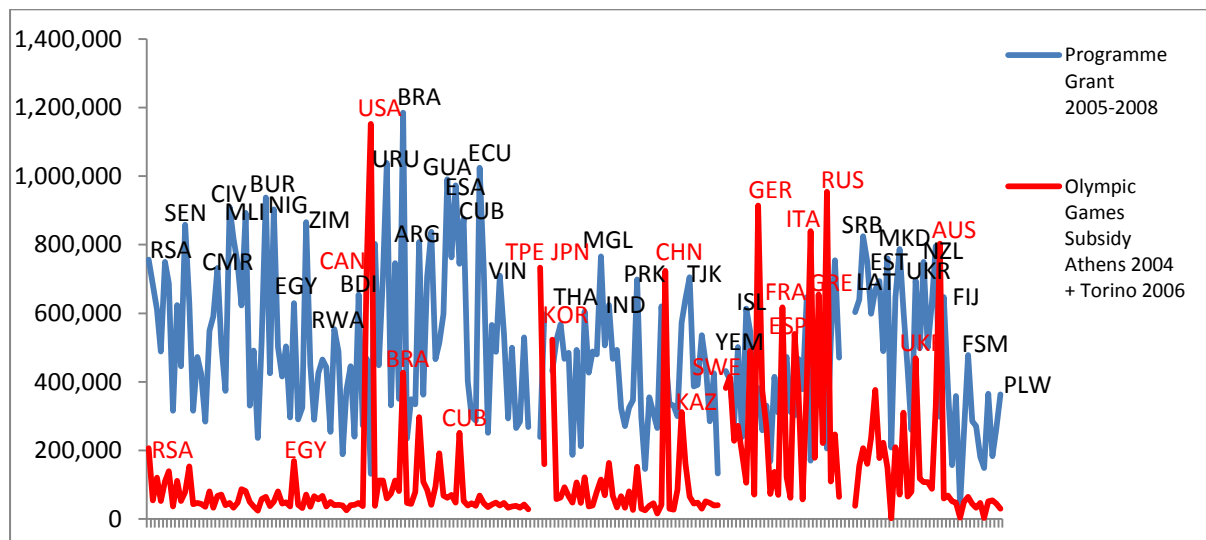


Figure 26 Comparison of Programme Grant and Olympic Games Subsidy 2005-2008 (US\$)

The peaks and troughs of the data identified in Figure 26 indicate that some Olympic Games subsidies are actually higher than the four-year Programme Grant received by most NOCs during the same quadrennium. This is evident particularly in the peaks for the United States of America (USA), Germany (GER), Italy (ITA), Russia (RUS) and Australia (AUS). High peaks are also evident in Asia, with China (CHN), Chinese Taipei (TPE) and South Korea (KOR) receiving high Olympic Games subsidies in comparison to those received by other Asian NOCs.

Africa is the only continent where the Programme Grants by far supersede the Olympic Games Subsidy for all NOCs; also an indication of the low level of participation in the Olympic Games by the African continent. It is evident from the graph that most NOCs with high Programme Grants do not receive high Olympic Games Subsidies. For the period 2005-2008 the combined subsidy for the United States of America (USA), was higher than the four year Programme Grant received

by any other NOC, except for that for Brazil (BRA) that received US\$1,185,251 in Programme grant.

Table 23 Quadrennial Programme Grant + Olympic Games Subsidy (US\$)

Quadrennial Grant + Olympic Games Subsidy	NOCs	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1985-1988	167	41,190	864,683	185,396	121,535
1989-1992	187	10,650	769,543	229,096	140,622
1993-1996	198	9,222	864,984	330,225	132,625
1997-2000	200	59,338	1,204,169	448,235	183,984
2001-2004	202	41,509	1,213,572	505,356	238,328
2005-2008	205	45,199	1,611,753	621,837	276,803

Table 24 shows a gradual rise in the mean level of overall funding (Programme Grant + Olympic Games Subsidy) received by the NOCs, with every quadrennium, but the high range, of over US\$1.5 million in the period 2005-2008 indicates a great disparity in grant levels amongst the NOCs.

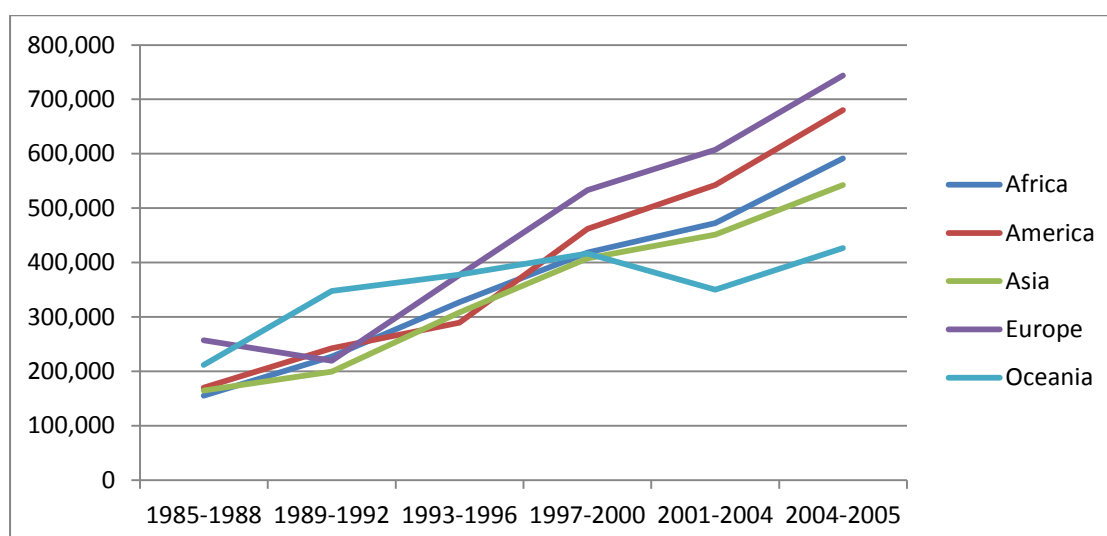


Figure 27 Mean overall disbursement (Programme Grant + Olympic Games Subsidy) (US\$)

If the Programme Grants and the Olympic Games subsidies are added together as indicated in the Olympic Solidarity reports and the mean disbursement is compared to that discussed above (Figure 27) for the Programme Grant alone, it is evident that overall Europe has as the highest steadily rising mean among all the continents.

4.5.6. Ranking

Both the Programmes Grant and the Olympic Games Subsidy vary through a wide range, and can reach very high values, when the totals of both types of funding are added together, the NOC ranking at the end of the quadrennium can be totally different to the NOC ranking for the Programme Grants or Olympic Game Subsidies separately for the same period.

Programme Grant

NOCs receiving the highest programme grants are not likely to be those receiving the highest Olympic Games Subsidies. This can be seen in the Table 25 below for the period 1997-2000, with the lowest overall grant of US\$59,338 for Eritrea (ERI) and the highest overall grant of US\$1,204,169 for the United States of America (USA), when all the disbursement to the NOCs through the Programme Grant and the Olympic Games Subsidies for both the Winter and Summer Games grants could be analysed separately. A comparative analysis was made of the highest and lowest grants received by the NOCs during the quadrennia under analysis.

Table 24 Top Ranking World Programme Grants (US\$)

1985-1988		1989-1992		1993-1996		1997-2000		2001-2004		2005-2008	
372359	AUS	467614	ARG	561097	CMR	729008	GRE	861612	BRA	1185251	BRA
340876	URSS	406174	ECU	556615	KEN	697030	ARG	827246	URU	1038429	URU
313833	ARG	398792	AUS	512636	EGY	628367	COL	811477	RSA	1023929	ECU
307476	NZL	383556	CHN	510451	GRE	589391	TAN	811188	HAI	990799	GUA
304700	MEX	357177	KEN	497964	EST	584716	BLR	808328	SEN	972566	ESA
277848	FIJ	355807	NZL	496673	ZAM	582732	URU	754292	LTU	937797	BUR
263825	CHN	333928	IND	448102	THA	567473	YOG	734013	PUR	909870	CIV
228025	IND	319102	MRI	441944	MAS	553905	MDA	731486	ESA	902818	NIG
203101	SAM	314339	BUL	434696	SRI	540100	RWA	729994	ARG	893133	MLI
200795	CGO	312741	FIJ	433353	ISL	535489	UZB	729205	PER	875566	HAI

Apart from the obvious difference in the size of the Programme Grant which has risen substantially, the ranking order of disbursement indicates that the NOCs who received the largest amount of funding came from all continents. Yet the NOCs with the highest grants in 2005-2008 are very different to the NOCs who received the highest Programme Grants during the first quadrennium under analysis (1985-1988) which at the time included Australia (AUS), Japan (JPN) and Canada (CAN). The period 1997-2000 saw the appearance of a number of ex-Soviet countries, with higher grants but it is also evident the size of country did not always impact the size

of grant since Iceland (ISL), Fiji (FIJ) and Haiti (HAI) are not particularly large countries or countries with large populations.

Olympic Games Subsidy

Table 25 Top Ranking Olympic Games Subsidy (U\$)

	Seoul1988		Barcelona 1992		Atlanta 1996		Sydney 2000	
1	321616	USA	464636	USA	523200	USA	745200	AUS
2	295476	URSS	424650	YOG	413920	GER	739554	USA
3	205000	KOR	388660	GER	380008	AUS	558213	RUS
4	201812	GER	344800	ESP	354840	RUS	537165	GER
5	199444	GBR	313300	GBR	298760	ITA	463304	ITA
6	194464	CAN	286804	FRA	285872	JPN	431952	FRA
7	161744	CHN	271500	AUS	272648	CHN	419761	ESP
8	161628	FRA	264052	ITA	266520	FRA	402402	GBR
9	158420	GDR	261980	CAN	266320	KOR	384345	CAN
10	153540	ITA	247596	JPN	265344	GBR	364775	KOR

The summer Olympic Games Subsidies, which can be analysed separately, have been collated in descending order for comparable analysis. The colour coding in Table 26 enables the visual identification of NOCs across the different years. The highest summer Olympic Games subsidies, from 1988 to 2000, were dominated by 16 countries, 7 of which are also amongst the top 10 recipients of the winter Olympic Games subsidies, these being USA, Russian Federation, Japan, Italy, France (FRA), Canada (CAN) and Germany (GER). USA topped the list for all Games from 1988, except for the Sydney 2000 Games, the highest recipient for which was Australia (AUS).

The highest summer Olympic Subsidies are dominated by the larger countries, with South Africa receiving the highest subsidies in Africa for all the games except for the Calgary games where Kenya (KEN) received the highest subsidy (South Africa (RSA) was suspended from the IOC up to 1990). The USA and Australia (AUS) received the highest subsidy in their respective continents for all the games, while Japan and South Korea shared the highest subsidies for Asian NOCs. The USSR/Russia dominated the top European subsidies in Seoul 1988 and Sydney 2000 respectively, with Yugoslavia (YOG) taking the maximum subsidy for the Barcelona Games, and Germany (GER) for Atlanta in 1996, largely because of the impact of national boundary changes.

Winter Games Subsidy

Table 26 Top Ranking Winter Games Subsidy (US\$)

	Calgary 1988		Albertville 1992		Lillehammer 1994		Nagano 1998		SLC 2002	
1	245219	USA	135038	USA	125100	USA	240923	USA	264232	USA
2	228332	URSS	116390	URSS	98368	RUS	190418	CAN	209001	GER
3	201054	GER	102550	CAN	98340	GER	188400	JPN	204702	CAN
4	197120	CAN	97610	GER	87628	ITA	178190	RUS	200274	SRB
5	185222	AUT	95850	ITA	85620	FRA	163379	GER	185534	RUS
6	161483	SUI	87200	FRA	85200	CAN	150360	ITA	161547	FRA
7	153440	ITA	75660	NOR	73592	SWE	138093	SWE	154593	ITA
8	149990	SWE	72182	JPN	73152	AUT	131925	FRA	152868	JPN
9	147310	NOR	70754	SWE	68500	JPN	118908	FIN	152764	SUI
10	142494	FRA	66810	TCH	67200	NOR	118800	AUT	149951	SWE

In similar vein to the Summer Games, Table 27 indicates that the highest Winter Games subsidies in each continent is dominated by one country in particular, some of which are the same as those receiving the maximum subsidy for the Summer Games, with the USA, Australia and Japan being recipients of the top subsidies in their continents during all the winter games in the analysis. In Europe the highest subsidies were received by USSR/Russia, except for the Salt Lake City Games where Germany topped the list. Amongst the African NOCs, Morocco (MAR) received the highest subsidy for the first two games, but South Africa (RSA) were the recipients of the highest subsidies received by African NOCs for the Lillehammer, Nagano and Salt Lake City Games.

1997-2000 Grants

Table 27 Top Ranking Grants for 1997-2000

Programmes Grant 1997-2000		Nagano 1998 Olympic Games Subsidy		Sydney 2000 Olympic Games Subsidy		Sum of All Grants 1997-2000	
*729,008	GRE	240,923	USA	745,200	AUS	1,204,169	USA
697,030	ARG	190,418	CAN	739,554	USA	1,121,107	AUS
628,367	COL	188,400	JPN	558,213	RUS	951,176	GRE
589,391	TAN	178,190	RUS	537,165	GER	921,744	ARG
584,716	BLR	163,379	GER	463,304	ITA	914,744	RUS
582,732	URU	150,360	ITA	431,952	FRA	875,766	GER
567,473	YOG	138,093	SWE	419,761	ESP	871,864	BLR
553,905	MDA	131,925	FRA	402,402	GBR	871,577	UKR
540,100	RWA	118,908	FIN	384,345	CAN	830,518	CUB
535,489	UZB	118,800	AUT	364,775	KOR	811,238	KAZ

*GRE Includes funding for IOA International Conference.

The NOCs in the top ranking position for the Programmes Grant (Table 28) vary from those that dominate the ranking for the Olympic Games Subsidy, so that when these are added together at the end of the quadrennium, by just analysing programme totals, it is unclear who is benefiting through the organisation of Olympic Solidarity Programmes or through the Olympic Games Subsidy for a high participation of athletes in the Olympic Games. Although for the period 1997-2000 the NOC of the United States of America (USA) was ranked 169th out of 203 NOCs for the Programmes grant, yet it still ranked first for the highest level of overall funding during that quadrennium.

Overall NOC funding for all quadrennia

Analysing the data in Table 29 (below) for the highest funding disbursements to the NOCs, it is evident that apart from four NOCs during the quadrennial period of 1993-1996, there are few African NOCs among the top recipients. With the exception of China (CHN), the top places are occupied by the more established NOCs with the United States of America (USA) receiving the most funding for all the quadrennia, except for the period 2005-2008, where it has been surpassed by the NOC of Brazil (BRA), which despite a dip in 1993-1996, has risen from the 47th place during the first quadrennium under study to occupy the top spot. The USA and Canada (CAN) have always occupied a place among the top ten highest recipients.

Table 28 Top ranked Total Quadrennial Disbursements (US\$)

1985-1988		1989-1992		1993-1996		1997-2000		2001-2004		2005-2008	
864,684	URSS	769,543	USA	864,984	USA	1,204,169	USA	1,213,572	USA	1,611,753	BRA
699,633	USA	742,612	URSS	790,676	AUS	1,121,107	AUS	1,163,739	BRA	1,296,070	GER
579,275	AUS	714,866	AUS	712,657	GER	951,176	GRE	1,142,105	AUS	1,283,692	USA
553,513	CAN	655,854	CHN	648,843	GRE	921,744	ARG	1,032,914	FRA	1,202,539	CHN
511,754	GER	643,077	GER	643,487	KEN	914,744	RUS	1,023,289	UKR	1,200,243	CAN
473,331	CHN	600,812	ARG	631,191	RUS	875,766	GER	1,016,712	ITA	1,164,570	UKR
461,939	ARG	582,861	CAN	624,607	UKR	871,864	BLR	1,016,038	RSA	1,159,851	RUS
451,966	ITA	545,625	NZL	616,945	CMR	871,577	UKR	999,462	CUB	1,126,038	NZL
446,448	KOR	533,564	ESP	600,344	EST	830,518	CUB	973,339	ARG	1,104,246	ARG
444,647	FRA	515,754	YOG	577,165	CHN	811,238	KAZ	929,480	RUS	1,101,287	AUS

The NOCs of China (CHN) and Brazil (BRA) have received increasing funding, possibly as a consequence being host to an Olympic Games. Even after the split

into diverse republics, the NOC from Russia (RUS) still managed to be among the top seven recipients, while a number of ex-Soviet republics have slowly edged their way upwards by being beneficiaries of both Programme grants as well as Olympic Games subsidies through high participation levels in the Games. Ukraine (UKR) has moved from bottom placed in 1989-1992 to sixth in the top list.

Table 29 Bottom Ranked Total Quadrennial Disbursements (US\$)

1985-1988		1989-1992		1993-1996		1997-2000		2001-2004		2005-2008	
68,373	VAN	16,085	MDA	162,805	CAM	255,806	CAY	199,378	AFG	237,689	KIR
68,341	ETH	13,053	KGZ	161,232	PLE	248,938	UAE	194,576	SAM	234,746	KUW
60,534	ARU	10,986	KAZ	159,371	MON	248,482	IRQ	172,909	MON	227,579	GEQ
60,000	NCA	10,980	TJK	152,900	SKN	244,077	LIE	163,771	NRU	227,396	SAM
59,580	VIN	10,962	UZB	143,753	LCA	240,947	BRU	153,363	GUM	209,864	MNE
49,170	LAO	10,944	TKM	138,673	DMA	226,033	MON	145,197	COM	208,859	GUM
47,935	MDV	10,900	AZE	134,655	RSA	187,660	SMR	142,682	IVB	173,020	TLS
47,000	ALB	10,886	ARM	123,018	NRU	131,487	PLW	142,288	BRU	171,652	BRU
43,398	BIR/MYA	10,876	GEO	99,569	GBS	130,000	AFG	77,515	KIR	151,256	MHL
41,190	BRU	10,650	UKR	9,222	ISR	59,338	ERI	41,509	TLS	45,199	TUV

On the other hand, the lower places in the ranking list (Table 30) are predominantly small NOCs mostly from Oceania, some from countries with a high GDP per capita or standard of living or new NOCs with small contingents in the Olympic Games. A few exceptions include the NOCs of Iraq (IRQ), Afghanistan (AFG) and South Africa (RSA). The lowest rankings for 1989-1992 were occupied by the ex-Soviet republics whose athletes participated in the Barcelona Games.

4.6. Correlation of Grants and Independent Variables

This part of the Chapter will concern the analysis of the statistical data in order to identify patterns or relationships between the variables in the distribution. It will document the identification of any relationships between the different grants and the selected independent variables through the use of the Pearson Correlation Coefficient. Since measures of association establish correlations to identify the relationships between the variables under investigation, and not their causes, explanatory analysis through Standard Multiple Regressions was then used identify the level of contribution of the selected variables on the different grants, in an effort to identify why the funding distribution of Olympic Solidarity follows particular patterns (Blaikie, 2010).

4.6.1. Selected Independent Variables

Correlation analysis was carried out utilising selected variables, which could also be used as secondary indicators of the characteristics of the NOC. These include Population size (size of NOC), Years in operation of the NOC (experience), Full-time employees (professional level), Internet Users (communication) and GDP per Capita (affluence). In order to satisfy the assumptions required for further analysis, the selected variables were tested for correlation levels.

Table 30 Correlation between Selected Independent Variables

	Population 22.08.2010	Years of NOC	F/T NOC Employees	Internet Users	GDP 2008 per capita US\$
Population 22.08.2010	1	.118	.389**	-.076	-.064
		.092	.000	.285	.379
Years in operation of NOC	.118	1	.439**	.418**	.399**
	.092		.000	.000	.000
Full Time NOC Employees - middle value	.389**	.439**	1	.219*	.242*
	.000	.000		.025	.016
Internet per 1000 people	-.076	.418**	.219*	1	.676**
	.285	.000	.025		.000
GDP 2008 per capita US\$	-.064	.399**	.242*	.676**	1
	.379	.000	.016	.000	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

A statistically significant correlation of .389** exists between the level of full-time employees of an NOC and the population size, since as one might expect, countries with larger populations with bigger NOCs were likely to have more full time staff. The statistically significant correlation between the years in operation of an NOC and the number of NOC full time staff was even higher with .439**, suggesting that the older NOCs tend to have a higher level of professionalisation. The older NOCs also tend to come from countries with high levels of communication, as suggested by the statistically significant high correlation coefficient between these two variables of .418** but are also those from countries with a high GDP per capita with the highest correlation coefficient in the table of .676**. A statistically significant correlation also exists between the communication level (internet users) in the country and the number of NOC full time employees, which suggests that that the older NOCs come from countries with larger populations, and have a higher level of communication. It also indicates a correlation between the GDP per capita and the

number of years in operation of an NOC intimating that the older NOCs tend to come from countries with a higher GDP per capita value. The overall table thus suggests that experienced NOCs with more full-time staff tend to come from countries with larger populations, higher GDP per capita, and a higher level of communication.

4.6.2. Programmes Grant

Analysis was carried out in order to identify whether there is any correlation between the selected variables and both the Programmes Grant and the Olympic Games Subsidy for the separate quadrennia.

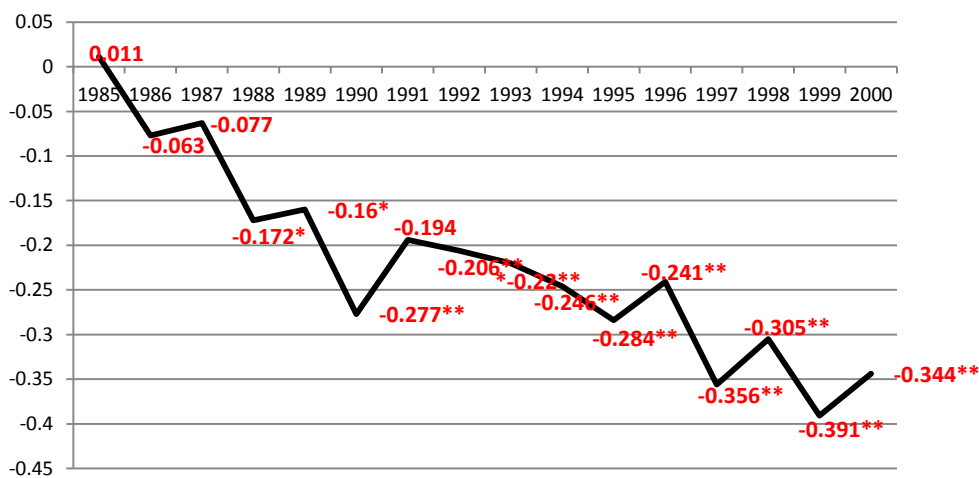


Figure 28 Correlation (Pearson Correlation Coefficient) between the annual Programme Grant and GDP per Capita

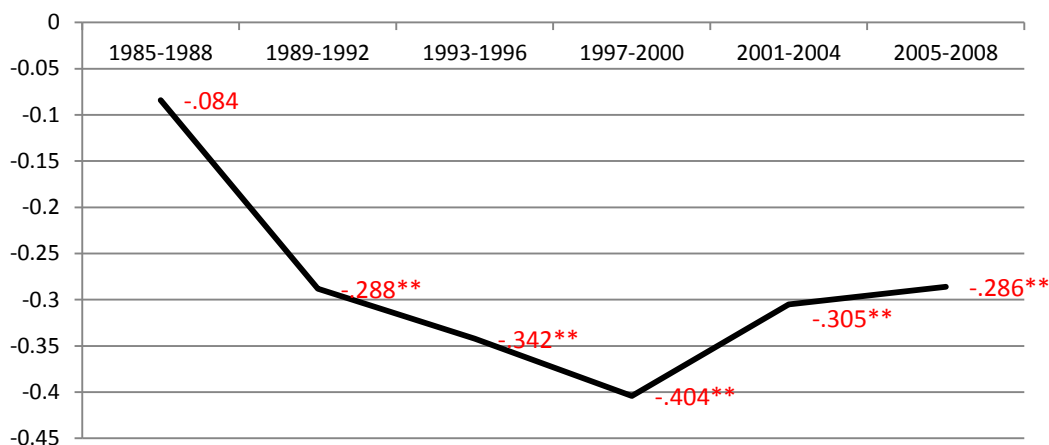
There was no statistically significant correlation between the GDP per capita and the annual Programmes Grant for the years 1983 to 1987, after which a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) *negative* correlation is evident, starting with a value of -0.172^* for 1988, increasing in value and strength to reach a correlation coefficient of -0.391^{**} ($p < 0.01$) in the year 1999, still highly statistically significant but decreasing to -0.344 in 2000. This negative correlation suggests that, increasingly, NOCs from countries with a lower GDP per capita, i.e. from less affluent countries, received higher grants. However, since some programmes were spread over more than one year, and NOCs were involved in different programmes throughout each quadrennial period, correlations on an annual basis might not be considered so reliable in explaining relationships between the variables.

Table 31 Correlation between Programme Grant and Independent Variables

	GDP in first year of Quadrennium	Population 22.08.2010	Years in operation of NOC	Internet per 1000	F/Time NOC Employees Middle Value
1985-1988	-.084	.339**	.210**	-.003	.038
1989-1992	-.288**	.282**	.203**	-.197**	-.054
1993-1996	-.342**	.063	-.026	-.246**	-.008
1997-2000	-.404**	.004	-.094	-.254**	-.136
2001-2004	-.305**	.103	.116	-.094	.008
2005-2008	-.286**	.046	.098	-.099	.036

** Correlation is significance at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Analysis was carried out to identify any correlation between the selected variables and the Programme Grant on quadrennial basis. A statistically significant correlation between the Programmes Grant and the size of the population of a country as well as the age or experience of the NOCs was limited to the first two quadrennia, possibly because the more established NOCs tended to be from bigger countries. Newer, developing NOCs were more likely to be from smaller states; they eventually increased organisation of programmes, obtaining higher grants, so that the experience of the NOC was no longer correlated to the level of funding. There was no statistically significant correlation between the communication level in the NOC's country of origin, and the amount of NOC programmes grant received during the period 1985-1988. However, a high statistically significant negative correlation ($p < 0.01$) does exist in the next three quadrennia up to 2000, suggesting that the higher grants went to NOCs from countries more likely to be lower on the communication grid. The data indicates a consistently negative correlation between the Programme Grant and the GDP per capita that is statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) for all quadrennia, except for that of 1985-1988. The negative correlation increases up to the 1997-2000. The downturn in correlation starts during the 2001-2004 quadrennium, coinciding with the change in leadership of the Olympic Solidarity Commission and restructuring of the organisation.



** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Figure 29 Correlation between Programme Grant and GDP per Capita

This negative statistically significant correlation indicates that the NOCs from less affluent countries received higher levels of Programme assistance than those from more affluent countries. The rise in the value of correlation could be explained by the increase of programmes directly targeted at ‘developing’ NOCs, such as the scholarships for athletes and coaches which commenced during the 1989-1992 quadrennium with further programmes created in 1993-1996, for identification and preparation of Young Athletes, as well as for preparation of athletes for the Olympic Games. Although the value of the grants for these programmes rose further during the period 1997-2000, the recognition of a number of new NOCs, as a result of the break-up of Soviet-bloc, resulted in more funding for countries with a low GDP per capita.

However, programmes for preparation of athletes for the Winter Games starting from Nagano 1998, were mostly utilised by NOCs from countries with a high GDP per capita. During the last two quadrennia most of the restrictions on programmes for ‘developing’ NOCs were removed, and would have contributed to a more even distribution between NOCs from countries with diverse GDP per capita levels - a possible reason why the level of negative correlation started to ease off. Communication was an issue mentioned frequently in the Olympic Solidarity reports suggesting that lack of communication gave rise to a lack of applications and non-organisation of Olympic Solidarity programmes.

Although they had previous access to funds to upgrade their IT, and by the end of 1999 151 NOCs were connected to the extranet network, a specific Olympic Solidarity sub-programme for the installation of IT equipment was started in 2000 and greatly improved NOC communication (Olympic Solidarity, 2000). Therefore communication was possibly no longer a determining factor in the level of funding. There was no statistically significant correlation between the level of communication in the country and the amount of programme funding received by its NOC, in the last two quadrennia, i.e. 2001-2004 and 2005-2008. The analysis also suggests that once communication issues were overcome, the level of professionalisation of the NOC was not a determining factor in relation to the level of grant received, as indicated also by the lack of any statistically significant correlation between the two variables.

A Pearson Correlation analysis was carried out between the Programme Grant disbursed on a continental basis, and the number of athletes participating in the Olympic Games at the end of the same quadrennium. When analysing the data for the programmes grant for each quadrennium against the number of participating athletes, the only statistically significant correlations for Seoul 1988 were the values ($p < 0.01$) were for Asia and Europe, and to a lesser degree ($p < 0.05$) for the Americas and Oceania. At that time the Olympic Games subsidy was used to enable travel of participants to the Games.

Table 32 Correlation between Programme Grant and Olympic Games Participation

Continental Division		Athletes Seoul 1988	Athletes Barcelona 1992	Athletes Atlanta 1996	Athletes Sydney 2000	Athletes Athens 2004	Athletes Beijing 2008
Africa	Programmes Grant for Quadrennium of the Olympic Games	.127	-.190	.053	.052	.589	.331
		.424	.200	.708	.712	.000	.015
Americas	Programmes Grant Quadrennium of the Olympic Games	.340	.171	.101	.020	.061	-.040
		.039	.298	.524	.899	.699	.802
Asia	Programmes Grant Quadrennium of the Olympic Games	.527	.433	.045	-.064	.176	.081
		.001	.007	.775	.689	.253	.601
Europe	Programmes Grant Quadrennium of the Olympic Games	.641	.282	-.163	-.256	-.095	-.160
		.000	.091	.269	.082	.523	.272
Oceania	Programmes Grant Quadrennium of the Olympic Games	.730	.705	.458	.056	.394	.229
		.011	.015	.134	.856	.146	.377

During the last two quadrennia in the analysis, the only highly statistically significant correlation between the Programmes Grant and the participation of athletes in the Olympic Games is for the African continent, more so for the Athens 2004 Games, suggesting that the African NOCs with the highest grants were those that participated in the Olympic Games with the largest number of athletes, and would subsequently also have the highest Olympic Games Subsidies.

4.6.2. Olympic Games Subsidy

Table 33 Correlation between Olympic Games Subsidy and Independent Variables

	Population	NOC age	F/T Employees	Internet Users 1000	GDP per capita
7 Calgary 1988 + Seoul 1988	.206**	.642**	.517**	.556**	.379**
Barcelona 1992 + Albertville 1992	.252**	.526**	.518**	.484**	.304**
Lillehammer 1994 + Atlanta 1996	.267**	.463**	.548**	.470*	.300**
Nagano 1998 + Sydney 2000	.262**	.489**	.542**	.399**	.306**
Sydney 2000+Salt Lake City 2002	.264**	.493**	.551**	.499**	.305**
Athens2004 + Torino 2006	.313**	.486**	.580**	.386**	.282**

** Correlation is significance at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

A Pearson Correlation Analysis was carried out between the sum of the summer and winter subsidies in each quadrennium, and the independent variables. There is a high statistically significant positive correlation ($p < 0.01$) between the GDP per capita of the country of origin of an NOC and the amount of subsidy it receives through its participation at both the summer and winter Olympic Games in each quadrennium, although this is in slight decline

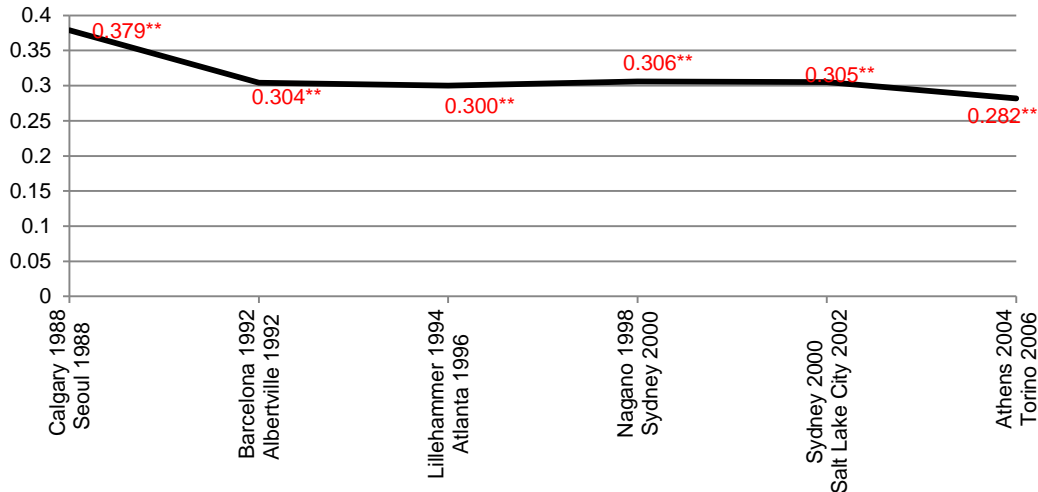


Figure 30 Correlation between Olympic Games Subsidy and GDP per capita

Similarly, when the summer and winter games subsidies were analysed separately, a high correlation was also found for both the subsidies and the GDP per capita, with the winter games having a higher value overall, most significantly with a correlation coefficient of .524 for the Calgary Games and of .459 for the Albertville Games. One exception is the lack of correlation between the winter subsidy and the population for the Calgary Games, however this variable becomes increasingly statistically significantly correlated with subsequent games, possibly as the larger NOCs from countries, with sizable populations, created from the break-up of the Soviet-bloc participated in the Winter Games with more athletes and received higher subsidies. Whilst the minimum qualifying standards, introduced by the International Federations, during the Lillehammer 1994 Games, prevented a number of smaller countries from participating (International Society of Olympic Historians, 1994), the larger, more affluent countries increasingly participated with larger contingents.

There was also a statistically significant correlation ($p < 0.01$) between the Olympic Games Subsidies and all the other variables for all Games, suggesting that the higher subsidies are disbursed to the highly staffed, long established NOCs from the larger, more affluent countries with a high level of communication or alternatively, the lowest subsidies were received by newer NOCs with little or no staff, in less-affluent countries with small populations and a low communication level. The last two sets of data do not reflect the actual subsidy for the Games in those quadrennia, but are

those listed in the Olympic Solidarity Reports for the quadrennia 2001-2004 and 2005-2008, and are indicative of the similar funds received by the NOCs.

4.7. Standard Multiple Regression

4.7.1. Assumptions for Standard Multiple Regression – Programme Grant

Multiple regression “makes a number of assumptions about the data” in relation to sample size, multicollinearity and singularity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals (Pallant (2010:150). Although these assumptions have been analysed for all the quadrennia, in order to avoid repetition examples for demonstration were used from the different quadrennia.

Sample Size

The size of the sample is related to issues of generalisability. The data for this analysis is a sample of 205 NOCs for six quadrennia, and should satisfy the size of sample requirements or participants, since it is superior to the number suggested by (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007:123), and computed from the formula $N > 50 + 8m$ (where m refers to the independent variables) which, with 5 variables, should be a minimum of 90 participants.

Multicollinearity and singularity

Singularity is when an independent variable is a combination of another two variables. In relation to multicollinearity, the highest value of the correlation coefficients among the variables is that between the GDP per capita and the Internet users per capita with a value of .676 followed by that between the Years in operation of an NOC and the NOC professional level with .439. These values are below the critical value of $r = .9$, or above, which would signify that multicollinearity exists because variables are highly correlated, and which Pallant suggests should therefore not be in the analysis. Tolerance levels are “indicators of how much of the variability of the specified independent is not explained by the other independent variables in the model” is also a measure of multicollinearity, and a value of less than 0.1 would indicate multicollinearity (Pallant, 2010:158). The analysis of the Programmes Grant regression analysis for all quadrennia indicates a tolerance level between .502 and .821 so the assumption of multicollinearity has not been violated.

Outliers

Outliers on the dependent variable can be sourced in the analysis of data, from the standardised residual plot, which identifies outliers together with their standardised residual values. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) define outliers as those above the standard residual value of 3.3 (or less than -3.3). Problematic outliers can also be identified through the value for Cook's distance which indicates a potential problem with the data, if the value was above 1 (Pallant, 2010:160). A number of outliers do exist for at least the first three quadrennia particularly for that of 1985-1988, with Argentina, Mexico, New Zealand, Australia and Fiji, whose grants were much higher than those for NOCs in their own continent, with the standard residual values for Mexico, New Zealand and Australia being over 3.3, this being the value above which Tabachnick and Fiddell (2007) consider outliers being problematic (2007:128).

Table 34 Programme Grant 1985-1988 Casewise Diagnostics

NOC	Std. Residual	US\$ Programmes Grant Quadrennial 1985-1988
Argentina	3.266	313,833
Mexico	3.498	304,699
New Zealand	3.462	307,475
Australia	4.659	372,358
Fiji	3.085	277,848

Argentina (3.068), Ecuador (3.788) and Australia (3.083) are outliers in 1989-1992, with Cameroun (3.172) in 1993-1996, Greece (3.506) in 1997-2000 and Brazil (3.092) in 2005-2008.

Greece: The high value of the Programmes grant results from the inclusion of organisational expenses and the board and lodging of participants at the IOA Conferences from 1997 to 2000.

Cameroun: The programmes grant included higher grants for Olympic Athlete scholarships in 1993 (US\$77,105.32) and 1995 (US\$105,074.), as well as extraordinary budget (US\$53,253) in 1996, which was much higher than that given to most NOCs.

Brazil: The level of grant for most of the programmes during the period 2005-2008 was higher than that for other NOCs.

Since most of the outliers, except for Mexico, New Zealand and Australia, in 1985-1988, do not exceed the standard residual value of 3.3, and Cook's distance for all the quadrennia varies between .000 and .374, i.e. lower than the value of 1, these outliers should not detract from the reliability of the data.

Normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, independence of residuals

Residuals are the differences between the obtained and the predicted dependent variable (DV) scores. These assumptions have been checked from the residuals scatterplots, as indicated in Figure 31 for all the quadrennia.

- *normality*: the residuals should be normally distributed about the predicted dependent variable (DV) scores
- *linearity*: the residuals should have a straight-line relationship with predicted dependent variable (DV) scores
- *homoscedasticity*: the variance of the residuals about predicted dependent variable (DV) scores should be the same for all predicted scores
- (Pallant, 2010:151)

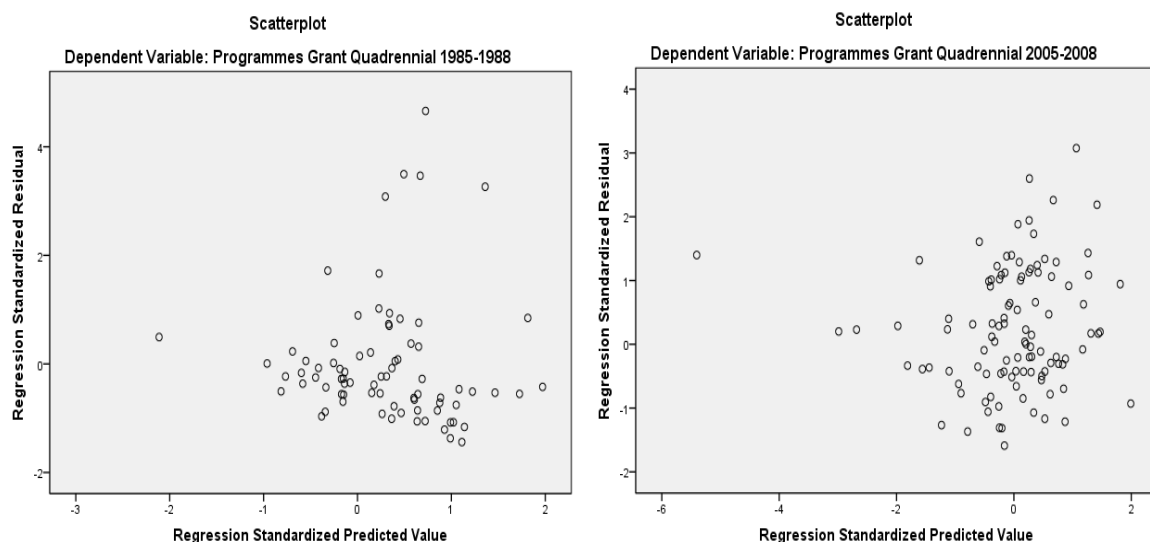


Figure 31 Scatterplots 1985-1988 and 2005-2008

The scatterplots for 1985-1988 and 2005-2008 both show most residuals are distributed “roughly rectangularly “ and concentrated along the 0 point (Pallant, 2010:158), although an outlier (Brazil) can be seen to the extreme in that for 2005-2008. The scatterplots for all the other quadrennia follow the same pattern.

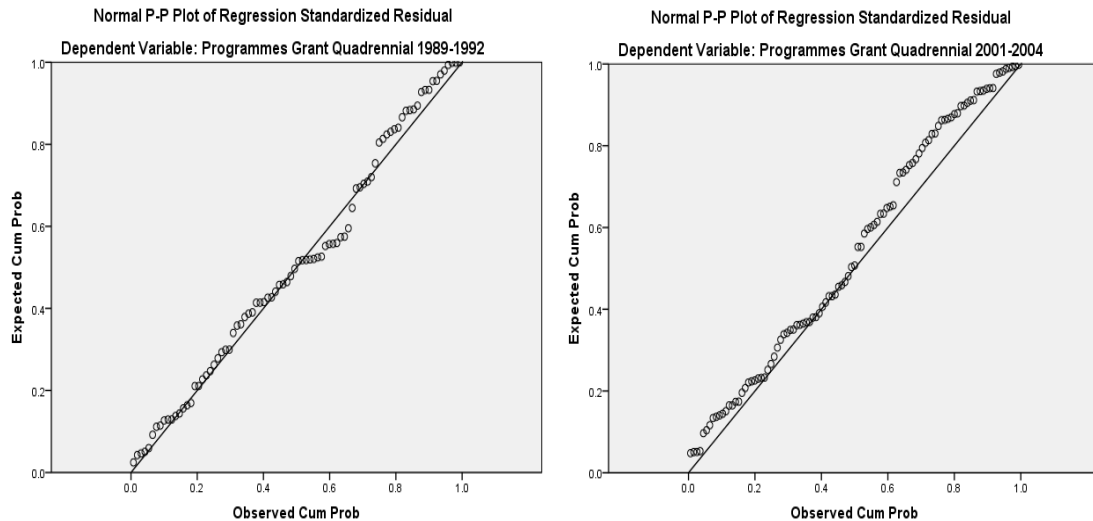


Figure 32 Probability Plot 1989-1992 and 2001-2004

The Probability Plot (P-P) of the Regression Standardised Residual (Figure 32) for each quadrennium indicates that the data lies in a roughly straight line from bottom left to top right suggesting no deviations from normality (Pallant, 2010)

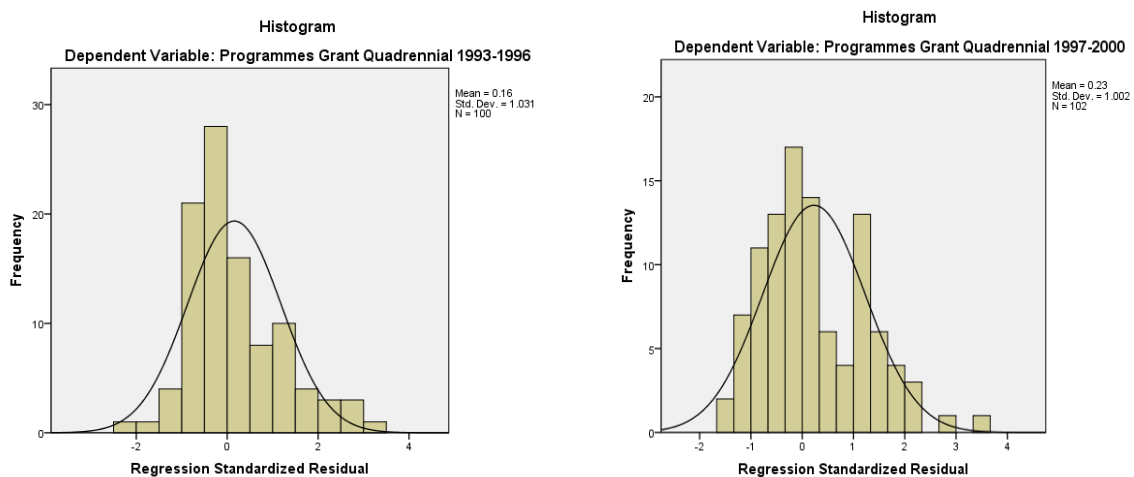


Figure 33 Histogram 1993-1996 and 1997-2000

The histogram for the regression standardised residual (Figure 33) indicates that the data was normally distributed for both the 1993-1996 and 1997-2000 quadrennia. A

similar pattern was found in the histograms for all the other quadrennia. After ensuring that the data adheres to the requirements for reliability of analysis in relation to sample size, multicollinearity and singularity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity (homogeneity of variance), and independence of residuals, analysis of the data was carried out to examine any patterns of relationship between the Programmes Grant and the selected variables, through a standard multiple regression.

4.7.2. Programme Grant – Standard Multiple Regression Analysis

The R^2 value, or coefficient of determination, indicates how much of the variance in the dependent variable, i.e. the Programmes Grant, is explained by the model or by the specific independent variables.

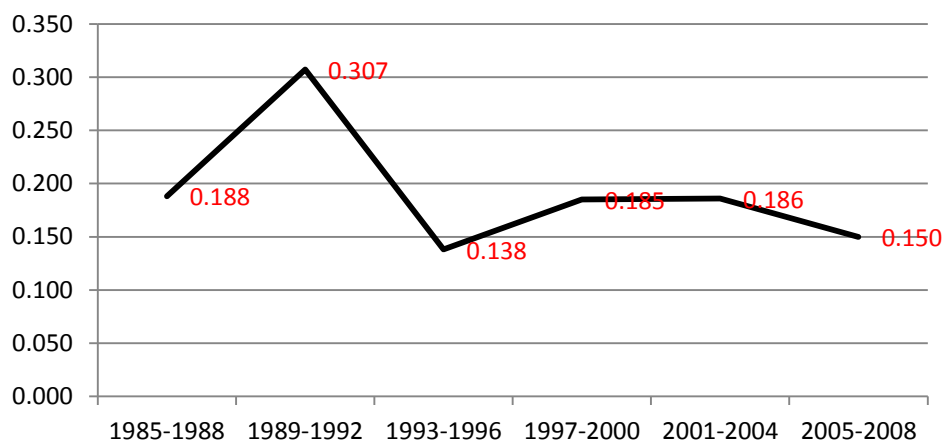


Figure 34 R² Variance Explained (%) by Independent Variables

For the period 1985-1988 the model which includes five independent variables explains 19% of the variance in the Programmes Grant for that period. There was a sharp rise in R^2 value to 31% for the next quadrennium of 1989-1992, where four different independent variables have been found to make a statistically significant contribution to the explanation of the dependent variable. In the later quadrennia, the statistical significance of the contributory variables to the explanation is reduced to the GDP and the Years in operation of the NOC. The level of explanation is very low and might indicate other variables contributing to the level of Programme Grant

received by the NOCs, or the possibility that there no clear overall pattern on how decisions are taken.

Table 35 Standardised Beta Coefficient and Unique Contribution (%) to explanation of Programme Grant variance (R²)

Independent Variables	1985-1988	1989-1992 ¹¹	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
Population size	.379** (12%)	.310** (8%)				
NOC years of recognition	.284* (6%)	.459** (14%)			.298** (6%)	.257* (4%)
GDP per capita		-.348* (5%)	-.356** (7%)	-.479** (11%)	-.522** (14%)	-.488** (11%)
F/Time NOC Employees		-.274* (5%)				
Variance Explained (R ²)	.188	.307	.138	.185	.186	.150

**correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) *correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Thus it is possible that starting from 1993-1996 other, presently unknown variables have been involved, at a higher level than those used in the model, to contribute to the difference in level of Olympic Solidarity Grants, since the R² value decreases to a much lower value. However, it is not always the same independent variable that makes the highest contribution to explaining the variance. The standardised Beta coefficient identifies which of the independent variables makes the highest

¹¹ Note: The unique contribution to explained variance of an independent variable is calculated by squaring the part correlation (also referred to in some texts as the semi-partial correlation coefficient). The sum of unique contributions to explained variance of the various independent variables should thus (normally) be less than the total variance explained (since in addition to the unique variance attributable to each of the independent variables alone, there may be shared variance between independent variables). However, there are occasions on which 'IVs [independent variables] which correlate positively with [dependent variable] Y correlate negatively with each other (or equivalently the reverse) being negative involves a portion of the variances in the IVs all of which is irrelevant to Y: thus when each variable is partialled from the other, all indices of relationship with Y are enhanced' (Cohen and Cohen, p. 90). This is referred to as 'Cooperative suppression' and has occurred in a number of the regressions above (indicated by cases in which zero-order correlations are bigger than part correlations). The size of the unique contribution to variance explained may thus be marginally inflated in all but the two middle quadrennia (Zammit and Henry, 2014)

contribution “to explaining the dependent variable, when the variance explained by all other variables in the model is controlled for” (Pallant, 2010:161). The standardised coefficient involves values for the independent variables that have been converted to the same scale and can be compared. The highest statistically significant contributor to the variance in the Programme Grant, for 1985-1988 is the population, followed by the variable for NOC experience (28%). This can be explained by the fact that the Programme Grants at the time were not standardised and most of the recipient NOCs had been established for some time. The NOCs from larger countries benefited more than those from countries with smaller populations.

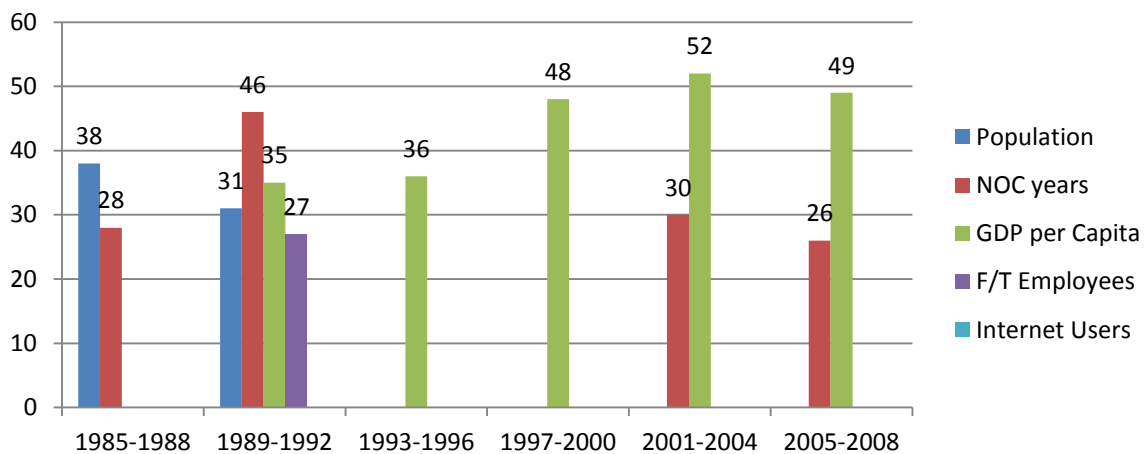


Figure 35 Statistically significant (%) Contribution of Variables to explanation of Variance (R²)

In 1989-1992, the highest statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) contributor to the explanation of variance was the experience of the NOC, indicated by the age of the NOC (46%), and the population size (31%). However, both the GDP per capita (34%), and the professional level of the NOC (27%) were also contributory variables at a lower statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) level. The GDP per capita is a statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) contributing independent variable throughout the remaining quadrennia. During the last two quadrennia for 2001-1004 and 2005-2008, the contribution of the years in operation of an NOC becomes statistically significant also mirroring the lower contribution made by the GDP per capita during the period 2005-2008.

The negative value of the beta contribution indicates an inverse correlation. Thus although the level of Programme Grants were originally influenced by more than one

variable, they are increasingly explained by the GDP per capita. The independent variable for Internet users per capita which was utilised as an indicator for access to technology in the country of origin of an NOC makes no statistically significant contribution to the explanation of variance of the Programme Grant.

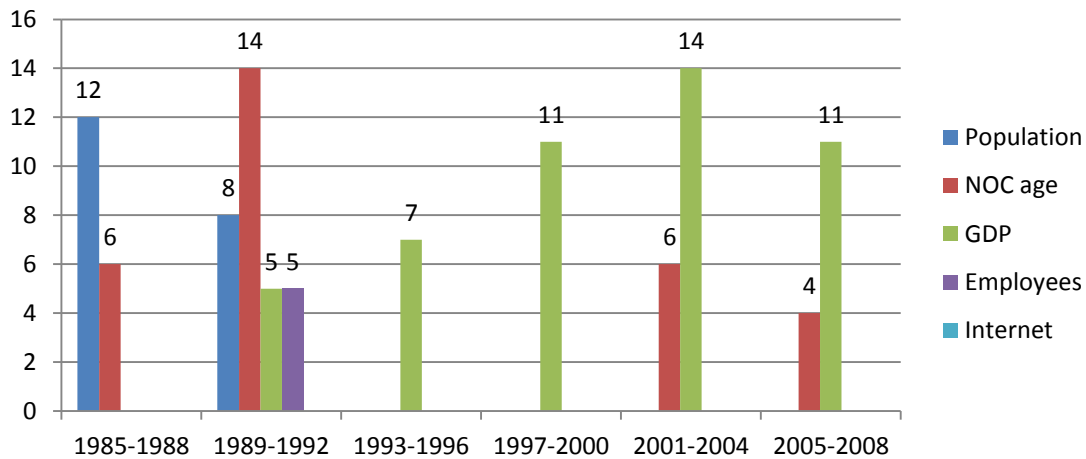


Figure 36 Statistically significant Unique Contribution (%) of Independent Variables to the explanation of Variance (R^2)

The squared part correlation value identifies the percentage unique contribution to explaining the variance in the dependent variable that “is left unexplained by the other independent variables” (Spicer, 2005:98), and “how much R^2 would drop if that variable was not included in the model” (Pallant, 2010:162) but the unique contribution for each variable does not include any overlap or shared variance with the other independent variables. Although the percentage values are much lower than those for the Beta Coefficients, they follow the same path. The population size which provided considerable contribution in the early quadrennia loses its dominance, with the eventual emergence of the GDP per capita being the selected variable with the highest unique contribution rising from 6% in 1989-1992 to 14%, but falling to 13% in 2005-2008. The years in operation of an NOC re-emerges as a contributing variable in the last two quadrennia, when most programmes became available for all NOCs and the older NOCs receive more grants.

4.7.3. Assumptions of Standard Multiple Regression – Olympic Games

Subsidy

On the other hand the data for the Olympic Games subsidy violates some of the assumptions, because of the high level of funding received by some NOCs in comparison to the rest. Analysis of the Summer Games Subsidy indicates the USA as the extreme outlier for every Games under analysis, and a number of other NOCs, as outliers in more than one Games, including West Germany, Spain, Russian Federation and Australia. Analysis of the Winter Games Subsidies indicates USA once again as an outlier in all the Games, while Canada, West Germany and the Russian Federation are outliers in more than one Games; Serbia appears as an outlier in the Salt Lake City Games. In order to adhere to the requirements for reliable data, outliers were allocated the highest acceptable value for the quadrennium in which they appeared in the analysis.

Outliers

1985-1988 USA given next top value of US\$.523808 (URSS)

1989-1992 USA given next top value of US\$.486270 (GER)

USSR was omitted from 1989-1992 because subsidy allocated to ex-Soviet countries participating under the Olympic flag were allocated to Russia on the Olympic Solidarity Reports.

1993-1996 USA, RUS and GER given next top value of US\$.409,061 (AUS)

1997-2000 USA, RUS and AUS given next top value US\$700594(GER)

2001-2004 USA, RUS, GER, AUS given next top value of US\$617897 (ITA)

2005-2008 USA, RUS, GER, AUS, ITA given next top value of US\$732926 (JPN)

Although, allocating a subsidy with a lower value for these outliers exposes further outliers, these are less in number and the data satisfies other criteria with an acceptable Cooks distance value so that the few subsequent outliers should not detract from the reliability of the data.

4.7.4. Olympic Games Subsidy – Standard Multiple Regression Analysis

Standard Multiple Regression Analysis of the sum disbursed for both Olympic Games Subsidies for each quadrennium indicates that a high percentage of the variance (R^2) can be explained.

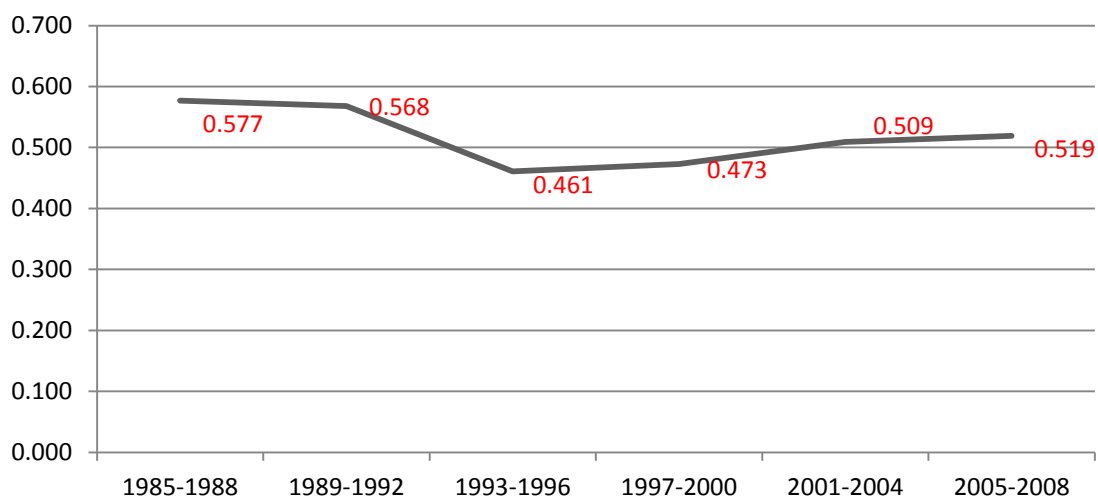


Figure 37 Explanation of Variance (R^2) of Olympic Games Subsidy (winter + summer)

The variance explained for the Olympic Games Subsidy was much higher than that explained for the Programme Grant by the same selected variables, but the GDP per capita makes no statistically significant contribution to the explanation of the variance in the Olympic Games Subsidy.

Table 36 Contribution of Independent Variables to explanation of Variance in Olympic Games Subsidy received (% unique contribution to explained variance is given in brackets)

Independent Variables	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
Population						.164* (2%)
NOC years	.388** (10%)	.423** (12%)		.210* (3%)	.209* (3%)	.214* (3%)
GDP per capita						
F/Time NOC Employees	.250* (4%)	.179* (2%)	.350** (8%)	.329** (7%)	.332** (7%)	.350** (8%)
Internet Users	.393** (7%)	.401** (8%)	.389** (8%)	.397** (7%)	.446** (10%)	.480** (8%)
Total Variance Explained (R^2)	.577	.563	.461	.473	.509	.515

It is evident from the analysis that the indicators for experience, professionalisation and communication levels of the NOCs contributed regularly to the explanation of the variance of the subsidy.

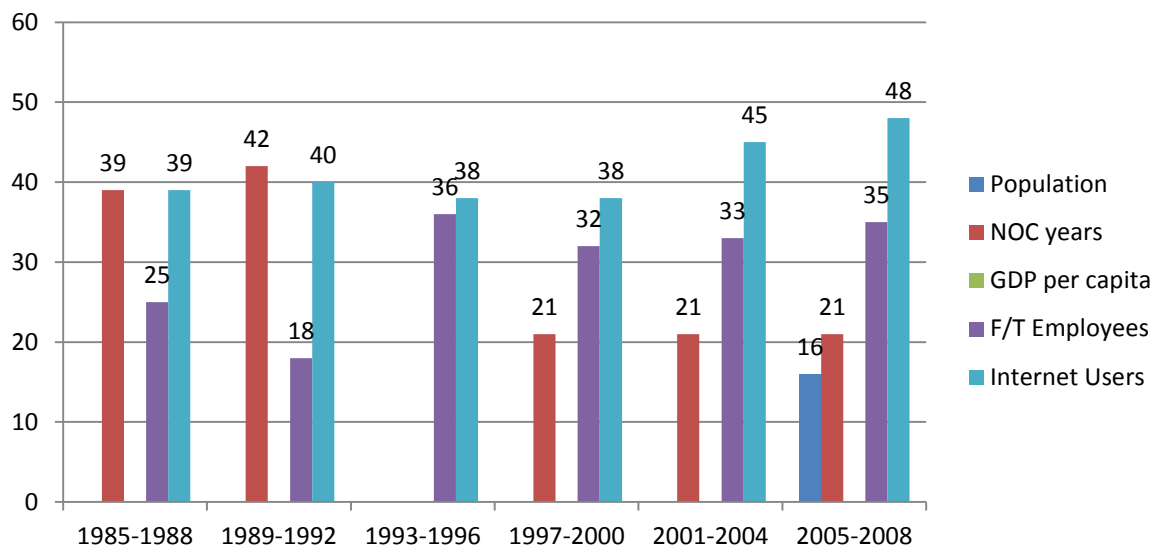


Figure 38 Statistically significant contribution of Independent Variables to explanation of Variance (R2) after outliers have been allocated the highest acceptable value

The graph for the Beta Coefficient values for the contribution of variables to the explanation of the variance in the overall Olympic Games Subsidy, indicates that access to technology was the major contributor, followed by the experience of the NOC except for the period 1993-1996 when the subsidy received was for the Lillehammer 1994 and Atlanta 1996 Games, possibly because of the number of new NOCs from Europe and Asia that participated with larger contingents.

After this period this variable gave a much lower contribution, whereas the professional level of the NOCs became an increasingly important factor in explaining the difference between the levels of grant received by the NOCs. The size of the country made a contribution only in the last quadrennium in the analysis indicating that size of the country became one of the criteria to differentiate between the levels of the subsidy received, suggesting that larger countries received more finance. The GDP per capita variable played no part in the explanation of the variance; contrary to the outcome of the analysis of the Programme Grant.

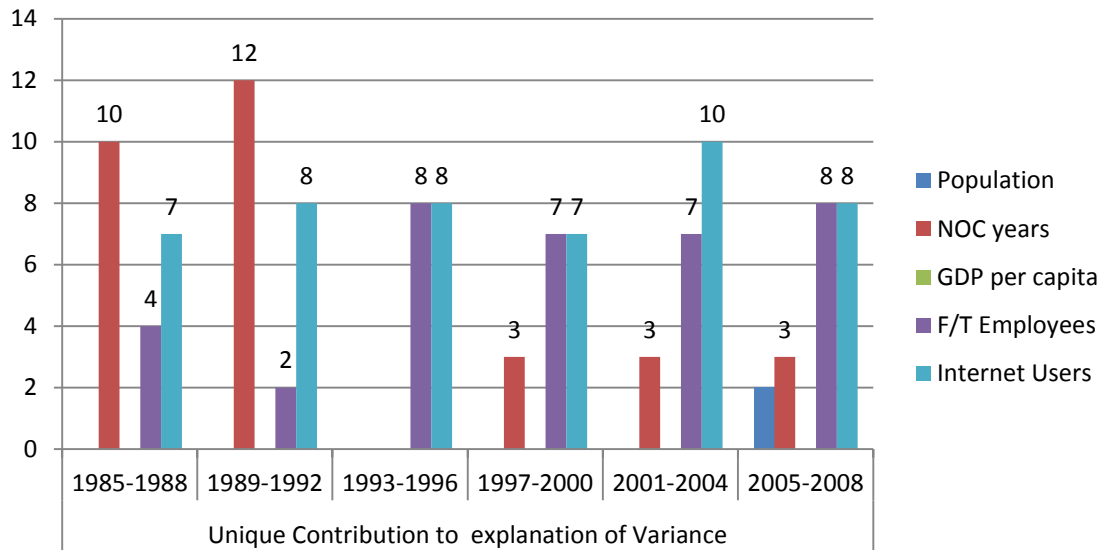


Figure 39 Statistically significant Unique Contribution (%) of Independent Variables to explanation of Variance (R^2) after revaluation of primary outliers

The Unique Contribution by the selected variables follows a similar path to that for their overlapping contributions, as seen in the previous graph, except for a higher influence of the experience of the NOCs in relation to the other variables during the first two quadrennia, which could be explained by the increase in participation by the countries from the ex-Soviet bloc, and other countries such as Brazil (BRA) and China (CHN).

The actual contributing factor to the variance in the Olympic Games subsidy is the number of athletes that participate in the Olympic Games, since the highest percentage of this grant is directly correlated to the size of the contingent through the 'participating athlete' subsidy which during Beijing 2008 the Olympic Games Subsidy included US\$1,750 for every participating athlete. This makes a small contribution to the overall subsidy for small countries or those with a few athletes, but a very large one for predominantly established NOCs participating with large contingents.

4.8. Conclusion

Although the IOC provides two main sources of income, the highest source of funding for most NOCs is from the World Programmes Grant, directly through Olympic Solidarity. Analysis of the finance disbursed directly to NOCs from Olympic Solidarity for each quadrennium, from 1985 to 2008, indicates a gradual rise in overall funding, with Asia being the lowest beneficiary both in terms of actual grant or grant per capita. A large disparity exists between the grants of individual NOCs in the same continent and also those between continents. Whilst the highest Programme Grants were disbursed to the large countries (15-50M), the smaller states benefited most on a Grant per capita basis, and a higher mean grant was evident for what were considered the NOCs 'targeted for aid' in Africa, the Americas and Asia. The funding levels were also influenced by events on a worldwide scale, such as the end of the Cold War, which saw an increased funding for European and Asian NOCs. There was also a high range between the Olympic Games Subsidies on all continents, with Europe having the highest mean, and the tendency for the same NOCs, particularly those in Europe, to benefit from both the Winter and Summer Games. The USA was the first ranked NOC for most winter and summer games subsidies and income overall (except for 2005-2008).

The NOCs from countries with a lower GDP per capita received a higher Programme grant than those from more affluent countries. As newer NOCs, mostly from smaller states, or as a result of the Soviet-bloc break-up, increasingly participated in more NOC programmes, the experience of the NOC and the size of country it came from, were no longer directly related to the level of funding as they had been for the first two quadrennia in the analysis. By 2000 communication was no longer a hurdle, and the level of professionalism of the NOCs had no bearing on the amount of Programme funding disbursed.

During the early quadrennia, the size of the country was the main contributing factor to explain the variance in the Programmes Grant, eventually losing its dominance to the GDP per capita, which in turn decreased its contribution to the variance, in 2005-2006, as more 'restricted' programmes became available for more NOCs. The level

of explained variance in Programme grant funding distribution is very low. This might indicate that, barring the influence of a specific indicator not used in this study, there might be no defined criteria or influence by which the allocation of programmes funds are made available to NOCs. On the other hand, the higher Olympic Games Subsidies were disbursed to highly staffed, long established NOCs from larger, more affluent countries with a high level of communication. A much higher percentage of the variance in subsidy levels is explained by the indicators used in the research. However, the variance in the amount of subsidy received by the NOCs is predominantly directly related to the number of athletes participating in the Olympic Games. The rising level of Olympic Games subsidy benefits mostly well-established NOCs primarily from the more 'affluent' countries, with bigger teams participating in the Olympic Games, somewhat 'neutralising' the advantage 'developing' NOCs had from progressive disbursement through the Programmes Grant.

The data above illustrates two aspects or dynamics of revenue distribution. The first is that in line with its mission for the World Programme Olympic Solidarity is successful in maintaining a progressive distribution of funding to the NOCs from less affluent countries. The second is that in supporting every athlete attending the Games funding is steered disproportionately to the larger more technologically developed nations with bigger NOCs in terms of staff numbers. In effect one fund favours the developed nations and one the less affluent.

Chapter 5

Analytical Process of Interview Data

This Chapter covers the analysis of semi-structured interviews carried out with a number of people involved with Olympic Solidarity and the theoretical implications of the adoption of this method of data collection. Some authors consider that “analysis refers primarily to the tasks of coding, indexing, sorting, retrieving, or otherwise manipulating the data” whilst others believe “analysis is primarily related to interpretation of the data” (Coffrey and Atkinson, 1996:6-7) but according to Schiellerup (2008) data analysis is a continual process throughout the whole research, including moments outside the field of study, while adhering to the belief adopted by Mead (1934) that society, reality and self are also constructed through the dynamic interplay between action and language (Charmaz, 2006). Besides Silverman suggests that a “dependence on purely quantitative methods may neglect the social and cultural construction of the ‘variables’ which quantitative research seeks to correlate” (2011:25)

The critical realist position adopted by Archer (1995) in her “morphogenetic approach” to trace the “implications of Bhaskar’s critical realism for the question for structure and agency” (Hay, 2002:122) suggests that the world is structured in such a way that there is a difference between reality and what appears to be real, consequently on adopting this approach we need to go beyond the surface of the structural appearance of organisations and use theory to facilitate the discovery of its ‘true’ structure. The emergentist position dictates that structure and agency, as “emergent strata of social reality” (Hay, 2002:123), although inherently interlinked, are ontologically separate and analytically separable. Archer (1995) also adheres to the view that structure and agency reside in different “temporal domains” where people’s actions can be influenced by pre-existing structures, and where personal attributes and choices guide the reproduction or transformation of social structures rather than

the creation of new ones. These actions could also be linked to specific timeframes where the outcomes of change can post-date the time period of the action itself. These assumptions are based on the perspective of one person, while King (1999) argues that constraints on an individual's action could also arise through the presence, or possibly the influence, of others involved in the social structure.

On the other hand, through his strategic-relational approach, Jessop (1990) suggests an alternative key relationship to that between structure and agency is the interaction of individuals with the strategic context they find themselves in and how they react to it. Despite facing the same conditions, their action will depend on how they perceive their circumstances; even acting differently to the same context by choosing diverse strategies as paths to realise their goals, or those of their organisation. Though some contexts might favour certain approaches over others, the structure of the situation does not determine the outcome, and this approach does not "privilege either moment (structure or agency) in this dialectical and relational interaction" (Hay, 2002:134).

In the light of the above approaches, when an individual joins an organisation, there is already a structure in place, which s/he must fit into. Furthermore, the personal attributes and qualifications of that individual have an impact on how that person deals with restrictions or preferences already internalised in the organisational structure and which consequently will have a bearing on her/his overall performance; as too will the competence and accessibility of other people interacting with her/him, whether as superiors involved in decision-making, colleagues, subordinates, collaborators or those at whom the organisation directs its service or product. Decisions directly or indirectly have a ripple effect on others, so adjustments to context intermittently modify the organisational structure, with those involved regularly having to adapt their decisions and performance to the evolving structural context whilst further contributing to it.

Although people in organisations run the technology, and invent the process, they in turn, as part of the process, have much of their behaviour determined by the systems they operate. In other words, there are underlying forces that impact on behaviour (Hoye et al., 2012:164)

By looking into whether internal and external change has had any influence on distribution policy and structural organisation of Olympic Solidarity, the macro-level analysis of this study relates to structure and agency within the organisation; on the meso-level it seeks to look at the normative accounts and implications of behaviours on the governance of the organisation, while the micro-level is analysed through the personal behaviours of the interviewees themselves.

5.1. Theoretical Perspectives

Life histories are “recollections of empirical fact of a lifetime” or a “passive reconstruction of a core of factual events” (Miller, 2000:139), give us an insight into the individual experiences of being part of an organisation, where each separate case contributes to understanding of “on-going or developing processes” in the evolution of the organisation. Rather than limiting information to the present, the focus is on a substantial portion of people’s lives, and the influence of time and social change on those lives. “Historical events and social change at the societal level impinge upon the individual’s own unique life history” (Miller, 2000:7-9). This study “posits the existence of an objective reality and holds that the perspectives of actors do represent aspects of that reality” but is also concerned with “the hermeneutic interplay between the subjective perceptions of the actor and an objective social structure” (Miller, 2000:10-12).

Critical realism favours mixed methods. Interviewees were asked to recount their career life history. The information obtained from the interviews contributes to the reconstruction of the process of decision-making. The statistical analysis outlines the pattern of funding distribution emerging from the reported financial data provided by Olympic Solidarity, while actors’ perspectives provide information towards the explanation of these statistical ‘pictures of reality’. This approach is thus consistent with the critical realist search to identify real structures which are socially constructed but have independent consequences. The semi-structured interviews focused on the individuals’ recollection of their experiences during their involvement with Olympic Solidarity, particularly in relation to change, whether associated with decision-making, job mobility, policy or external influence. The interviews will seek to explain issues related to the theoretical outcomes of the statistical analysis, and subsequently verify

or dispute the hypothesis that the Olympic Solidarity distribution policy still adheres to the original aim for which it was set up; to help the NOCs 'most in need'.

5.2. Validity and Reliability

Although previously discussed in Chapter 3, validity and reliability will be revisited in this chapter, particularly in relation to the concept of involvement and detachment in conducting interviews and analysing their outcomes. It has been argued that interviewees' responses could be influenced by their relationship with the researcher and his/her social background, such as age, gender, class or race. "The issue of how interviewees respond to us is based on who we are" (Miller and Gassner, 2010:133), and might feel threatened by the nature of the research in general, or even by the interview itself (Denscombe, 1998). Some people do not necessarily want to reveal themselves completely (Charmaz, 1995), or they might even not remember events particularly well or even enhance their involvement.

Participants are unlikely to be self-critical and may in fact exaggerate their roles in particular situations; it is also possible that the respondent may provide a socially desirable answer rather than an accurate one (Andrews et al., 2005:125)

It has been proposed that researchers should be members of the groups they study, because this enables the interviewer to recognise issues that were important, and "to exploit opportunities from probing respondents' perceptions of their situations" (Perry et al., 2004:142).

Sociologists own involvement is itself one of the conditions for understanding the problems they seek...In order to understand the functioning of human groups one needs to know, as it were, from the inside how human beings experience their own and other groups, and one cannot know without active participation and involvement (Elias, 1987:16)

The stories told, and how they are told, might also be influenced by the differences or similarities in the rapport between interviewer and interviewee, and the level of

involvement-detachment the interviewer is able to maintain during the interview. The involvement-detachment concept is a better reflection of the position of the social researcher than that conceptualised by objectivity and subjectivity in that the former do not represent “two separate classes of objects” or two mutually exclusive opposites (Kilminster, 2004:31), but “changing equilibria between a set of mental activities” in the researcher’s involvement or detachment with himself and his surroundings (Elias, 1956:227). Since all researchers will have a degree of emotional attachment to their study, even the expected objectivity in scientific studies could be breached by the excitement of discovery (Kilminster, 2004). The ‘self-steering mechanisms’ (Elias, 1987) characterising involvement-detachment, involve a dynamic tension balance between emotions and behaviours (Mansfield, 2007) and researchers can enhance reliability of their study, by being aware of the implications of their position in relation to the concept of involvement-detachment, and take measures to ensure that “an involved perspective can be balanced with a more detached perspective of inquiry and interpretation” (Mansfield, 2007:135).

The interpretation of research, on the other hand, could be influenced by the researcher’s background knowledge, whether it is in the area of research or other areas linked to it, but relevant on a parallel plane, in this study in areas such as involvement in business management and studies on sports organisations. It can affect the understanding of what is being said so that particular nuances, themes or concepts in the story being told are enhanced, diminished or unperceived by the interviewer (Perry et al., 2004). Personal social values could also impinge on the interpretation of what, in the data content, the researcher believes is relevant to the study, since the ‘reality’ of one researcher is not the same as that of another. Apart from some academic contributions, my background mainly stems from a life time of voluntary involvement in sport, the most recent being on the Executive Board of the Maltese Olympic Committee, but with which I was no longer involved from before the start of this research. Some of the interviewees were aware of my background; the others were informed. In this instance, I would like to suggest that the awareness by the interviewees that I had been involved with Olympic Movement added level of reassurance that their contributions more likely to be understood. My previous practical experience gave me a better understanding of the information being divulged by the respondents.

5.3. The Influence of Change

Olympic Solidarity offers its programmes to the National Olympic Committees at the beginning of every quadrennial, the year after each Olympic Games. Each continent, sector and programme is allocated a budget, and regulations and procedures exist on how NOCs can access each programme. Some programmes have allocated timeframes and are carried out in specific locations, while there are also limitations on how many people from each NOC are eligible for each programme. It is vastly dependent on the individual NOCs' applications or proposals, as to which and how many programmes they participate in or organise, but also contingent on approval by Olympic Solidarity, the Continental Associations, and the International Federations if the latter are directly involved in the programme.

During the period under analysis, Olympic Solidarity went through a number of changes. A number of events both internal and external to the organisation that could have had an influence on change in Olympic Solidarity have been identified from the literature, and through the outcome of the statistical analysis of the financial data in the Olympic Solidarity reports, and the interviews will also seek to ascertain if these were also perceived as such by the interviewees. The defining features of this periodisation wove a pattern with some internal and some external critical events.

1. 1985 Introduction of budgeting on a quadrennial basis – OS reports
2. 1989/1992 Collapse of USSR, Yugoslavia, German Unification
3. 1997 Change of Olympic Solidarity Director
Anselmo Lopez (1982-1996)
Pere Miro (1997-
4. 1998-1999 Salt Lake City Scandals - Commission 2000
5. 2001 Re-structuring and De-Centralisation
6. 2001 Change of IOC President
Samaranch (1980-2001)
Rogge (2001- 2013)
7. 2002 Change of Olympic Solidarity Commission Chairman
Samaranch (1980 – 2001)
Mario Vasquez Rana (2002 – 2012)

The identification of these critical events or factors provided particular areas to be considered during the interviews in order to identify possible links to, and explanations of, changes in structure and consequently in the distribution policy of the organisation during the period of analysis. Other areas of particular interest were related to equity, aid to 'developing' NOCs, diversity, accountability, democracy.

5.4. Interviews

The application for conducting interviews as part of this research received ethical clearance by the Ethical Approval Human Participants Sub-Committee. Electronic mail was utilised to make contact with the interviewees in order to arrange appointments to conduct the interviews, since the majority of interviews were not be carried out in the UK.

5.4.1. Sampling of interviewees

Interviewees from all sectors of the Olympic Solidarity management structure were identified through purposeful sampling which focused on cases that were more likely to contribute ample information relative to the evaluation being carried out (Patton, 1987) through their involvement in the management of the actual programmes.

The usual procedure for selecting respondents for biographical research is that of selective sampling (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973), in which a comparatively small number of people is chosen because they are deemed to represent a certain type of group that is considered, *on conceptual grounds* to be important (Miller, 2000:77).

Attention was made to include interviewees with lengthy experience in the organisation, as well those working in the different sectors of the management structure. Their perspective through a historical explanation of their experiences in the organisation, and the changes that occurred both in the structure and policy of Olympic Solidarity would cover the full spectrum of the area and timeframe under analysis.

Participants and documents for qualitative study are not selected because they fulfil the representative requirements of statistical inference but because they can provide substantial contributions to filling out the structure and character and the experience under investigation (Polkinghorne, 2005:139). Individuals have unique perspectives about any experience, and comparing and contrasting these perspectives would highlight aspects that are common or rare, and outline differences in the personal experiences and accounts of the same events (Polkinghorne, 2005).

5.4.2. Interviewees – Personal Attributes

Interviews were carried out with five women and four men, all in some manner directly involved with Olympic Solidarity Programmes. Most of the interviews were carried out at the Olympic Solidarity offices. The length of involvement in the organisation of the interviewees varies; at least four had been involved with Olympic Solidarity during the span of all the six quadrennia researched in this study, from 1985 to 2008 (Table 38). Seven of the interviewees were full time employees with Olympic Solidarity, whereas the other two were involved in management and implementation of some Olympic Solidarity programmes. One of the latter held a management post in Lausanne for a year.

Their involvement with Olympic Solidarity ranged between nine and 37 years, during which a number of people underwent a role change, through choice or promotion in the organisation, but by 2001 all interviewees held the positions in the same sectors of the organisation they occupied when interviewed, apart from one participant who had retired. Five of the interviewees came from the Switzerland, with the other half having diverse 'Western' nationalities. Before being involved with Olympic Solidarity, most had a keen interest, and/or history of participation, in sport. While a few of the interviewees were graduates in sport related subjects, or experienced in sport management; others possessed alternative skills in administration and a command of different languages. Four people had previous experience in other areas of the Olympic Movement, before being involved with Olympic Solidarity.

Table 37 Interviewees Timeline

Olympic Solidarity	Year	Chairman	NOCs	Director / Olympic Games	Areas of Funding	Total Budget US\$									
Pre-Structure Fund	1972	Van Karnebeek	125			858,170 (74/75)									
	1973														
	1974														
	1975														
	1976														
	1977	Killanin		130	Montreal/Innsbruck	5	2,753,295 FS	Administrator							
	1978							Admin Courses							
	1979														
1980	144	Moscow/Lake Placid			5										
1981							Samaranch	5	1,900,000						
Old	1982		147	Anselmo Lopez		2,450,000 est.									
	1983														
	1984						156	Los Angeles/Sarajevo	5	2,450,000 est.					
	1985			167	Seoul /Calgary	5	28,359,000	Administration/ Reception	'Expert' Itinerant School						
	1986														
	1987														
	1988														
	1989			172	Collapse of Soviet-bloc	7	42,210,000								
	1990														
	1991														
	1992			197	Barcelona/Albertville	10	74,100,000*	Executive	Accountant						
	1993														
1994															
1995															
1996	197	Atlanta	11		12										
Transition	1997			Pere Miro	13	121,900,000	Project Manager	Project Manager	Intern						
	1998						Deputy Director	Project Officer	Reception						
	1999														
	2000						199	Nagano Commission 2000 Sydney	14						
New	2001	Vasquez Rana		De-Centralisation	22	184,984,000	Project Manager	Head of Section/ Project Manager/ Head of Finance	Admin Assistant	Admin Assistant	Project Officer				
	2002														
	2003														
	2004	202	Athens	22											
	2005			205	Continental OS offices	22	238,500,000	Head of Section	Head of Section/ Finance Manager	Project Manager	Project Assistant	Project Assistant	Project Manager	Project Manager	
	2006														
	2007														
	2008														
	2009			204	London		302,000,000	Section Manager	Section Manager/ Finance Manager	Project Officer	Project Manager				
	2010														
2011															
2012															
							9	5	1	8	7	4	2	6	3

Staff * Calculated
Expert

5.4.3. Interviewees Individual Profiles

Interviewee 1, Anthony was general secretary of his NOC from 1972-1980 and involved with the International Olympic Academy. He became interested the set-up and remit of Olympic Solidarity during NOC General Assembly debates. In 1987, he was selected as one of the 'experts' who held lectures on the Olympic Movement for NOCs in Africa and Asia during the early years of Itinerant School.

Interviewee 2, Sarah came to Olympic Solidarity as an administration assistant through a job placement agency in 2001. She was one of a number of people employed during the restructuring and de-centralisation process. She is now Project Manager in the sector for World Programmes for NOC Management, in the sector responsible for co-ordination with the American NOCs and continental association.

After working for an Olympic Games Organising Committee, Interviewee 3, Claire joined Olympic Solidarity in 2003, first as a project officer; in 2007 became section manager, responsible for NOC Management and co-ordination with the American continental association and NOCs.

Interviewee 4, Helen joined Olympic Solidarity in 1998 as a receptionist. She followed a course in Sport Management in 2001, since then has been working as project officer in the sector responsible for Athlete World programmes.

Interviewee 5, Susan was the Deputy Director of Olympic Solidarity; she joined the organisation during the early 1980s, under the directorship of Anselmo Lopez. Although she was always involved in the administration of programmes, she is now also responsible for human resources, administration of management meetings, and planning, but she still finds time to be involved in the World Programmes and Continental Programmes.

Interviewee 6, David had been an athlete. He was involved in Physical Education in Sport before he joined the IOC Sports Department. He got involved with Olympic Solidarity as a project manager in 2001, and is Section Manager responsible for the Athletes' World Programmes, and liaison for the NOCs and continental association of Asia (OCA).

Interviewee 7, Paul came from a background teaching and coaching in sport. With a degree in Sport Psychology and Education, and a Swiss Diploma in Sport Management, he joined Olympic Solidarity as an intern in 1998, eventually becoming project officer working on the World Programme for Coaches, in the sector responsible for collaboration with Asia, America and Oceania. After the restructuring in 2001, he still worked on the same programme, but moved to the sector responsible for NOCs in Europe and Africa, and became project manager in 2005.

Interviewee 8, Angela was employed with Olympic Solidarity in the late 1980s, and has been responsible for finance ever since. She is now also responsible for institutional communication, the Values World Programmes, and co-ordination with the continental association (ONOC) and NOCs of Oceania.

Interviewee 9, Peter learned about Olympic Solidarity on becoming NOC Deputy Secretary General in 1975. He was involved in organising and leading the first courses for the Itinerant School programme, going out to the NOCs and later training the NOC national course directors. In 2001 was responsible for one year, as part-time Project Manager, for the Olympic Solidarity sector dealing with NOC Management and relations with America. He was still involved with the same sector.

5.4.4. Interview Process

Each interviewee was first given information on the background of the PhD study for which the interview was being carried out. They were asked to sign a consent form, which would give them authority over the level of confidentiality of the data they would be divulging, as well as the option to opt out of the research if they so desired. The data would be confidential, their names would be disguised, and they would be informed of any direct quotes used in the analysis. They were also informed of the reason for recording the interviews, and a transcription of the interview was

eventually sent to each interviewee electronically for confirmation. The interviewees were asked to relate the history of their involvement with Olympic Solidarity; their personal perspective of the organisation and the impact, if at all, of any external events and/or internal change in leadership, structure and policy on the organisation, and consequently on their personal experience. Although the areas to be covered and related questions were pre-selected, the wording, emphasis and sequence of questioning were influenced by the information being provided by the interviewees. The questions or issues raised were compiled to cover various areas of interest. Some were related to the indicators used in statistical analysis or the outcomes of the statistical analysis. Others were framed to address issues of governance reflecting the principles of good governance proposed by Henry and Lee (2004). Issues relating to internal changes concerned changes in leadership, policy and decision-making in the IOC, and internal organisational reactions to external global change; or were guided by unexplained patterns in the analysis of funding distribution.

5.5. Interview Analysis

This part of the Chapter will discuss further how the process of thematic analysis discussed in Chapter 3 is related to the data and how the procedure was undertaken to follow the direction advocated by Braun and Clarke (2006).

5.5.1. Thematic Analysis

Patton (1990) suggests that qualitative analysis guidelines need to be used flexibly to fit the research question and data. Thematic analysis is not linked to one particular theoretical framework, but can be a method to report experiences, meanings and the reality of participants, but also a “contextualised” method between positivism and constructionism, characterised by theories such as critical realism (Willig, 2003), and used to “acknowledge the ways individuals make meaning of their experience” (Braun and Clarke, 2006:81), how the social context impinges on those meanings to reflect reality, but also to reveal what is below the surface. It has also been found to “produce qualitative analysis suited to informing policy development” (Braun and Clarke, 2006:97). In order to facilitate analysis, thematic coding was adopted and the data was coded into ‘nodes’ using NVivo software (see Figure 40, p.277). Although

the incidence of themes varies across responses, these themes identify important links in the data relating to the research question, and also some repetitive patterns of response can be identified for some respondents. Braun and Clarke suggest that

Thematic analysis at the latent level goes beyond the semantic content of the data, and starts to identify or examine the underlying ideas, assumptions, and conceptualisations – and ideologies – that are shaping or informing the semantic content of the data (2006:84)

The analytic process moves from a description of data, to its interpretation in an attempt to theorise the significance of the patterns, and their broader meanings and implications (Patton, 1990) in order to extract “the essential features from an otherwise overwhelming stream of talk” (Evans and Davies, 1986:13). Guided by specific theoretical and analytic interests, deductive analysis targeted particular areas, (Braun and Clarke, 2006), while reference to theory helped to identify phrases or sentences of particular interest and relevance. In order to identify the range of different opinions in relation to a particular aspect covered in the interview, and possibly how similar opinions might relate to the different aspects covered in the data collection (Bauer, 2000), the interviews have been coded through “themes common to many of the transcripts”, into content categories, with a number of quotes from the transcripts being used to support the analysis (Abell and Myers, 2008).

Starting from the lengthiest single case response and following the multi-step procedure proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006), a system of primary themes was identified, using open coding followed by selective coding during which other themes and sub-themes emerged. The interviews were coded through a deductive process, when particular themes or areas common to many of the transcripts were targeted for further clarification, but since all the data was coded, some sub-themes that arose through inductive coding, bore little relation to the research interview questions (Braun and Clarke, 2006). A short abstract of each transcript, each considered as a case study, was carried out and this process identified themes common to many of the transcripts. Analysis was supported with a number of quotes from the transcripts, as suggested by Abell and Myers (2008).

5.5.2. Recruitment Pattern

Anselmo Lopez was a part-time voluntary Director, who would spend a few days a week in Lausanne; at the beginning of his appointment Mr Miro did not spend all his time at Olympic Solidarity either. Most of the employees became involved in the organisation in different jobs at a lower level in the organisational structure, usually assisting someone else, and advanced through the system if staff moved out, when the organisation was re-structured, or when the organisation expanded to cope with the increased demand. However, all were involved in project management related to the Olympic Solidarity programmes. The three female interviewees employed before 2001, were initially involved with work in reception, two of whom carried out this task apart from their main job. Another woman was offered a post in reception which she did not accept, but later joined as an administrative assistant.

I got an interview at Olympic Solidarity, first to be a receptionist, so I decided to remain at [] for some time...in 2000...they were looking for someone to be an administrative assistant, who could speak English and Spanish, so that is how I started (2)

The other female employee was employed as a project officer but had previously worked with an Olympic Games organising committee; working with NOCs. One of the male employees was a graduate and employed as an intern to assist an established employee, while the other was employed directly as a project officer, but had previously worked in the IOC Sports Department. The other two male interviewees were predominantly involved with the NOC in their countries. One carried out 'expert' courses for the Itinerant school, which the other managed and co-ordinated. The latter was also involved directly as project manager for one year with Olympic Solidarity in the sector responsible for the NOC Management.

5.5.3. Diversity

The employees brought different talents and skills into the organisation such as different cultural and language skills, and/or had a sporting background, enabling them to communicate, understand, and deliver a better service for the NOCs in the different continents since "all the areas of the world have different problems" (5). Nevertheless, most believed that it was also essential that they learn more about the diversity of the NOCs.

It's thanks to the work we had had with those NOCs in Latin America, I have become more knowledgeable in issues that they have in Latin America... American NOCs are the NOCs that I know best. The structure, the way they function (2)

[] was involved more with the Americas at the beginning because... most of these NOCs speak Spanish...and she speaks Spanish (3)

You have to adapt to the culture of each country, because it is very difficult to work in the same way with 204 NOCs in the world when we know the difference, we know that from [one] continent to another there can be a huge difference within the same continent, so imagine with the other continents... The fact that it's diverse does not make it more difficult, you just need to adapt to the diversity (6)

The specificity of our position here in Olympic Solidarity is sport, and it is also related to development, and to cultural differences and political differences. You have to learn about that and to deal with those differences ... I had to learn what [the] IOC is in the world, what [it means] to deal with Asia, what does it mean to deal with different continents and with countries [that] can be very big, very small, etc. (7)

It was suggested in order to propose programmes which would be useful for the NOCs they needed to get to know them better as well as how they worked. NOCs would either not apply for them, or possibly not carry them out well. Networking was carried out during General Assemblies, and through a series of visits to NOCs, organised in collaboration of the continental associations.

It is a question [of going] to visit them, and to sit down and to have a better knowledge of how they work, also to help them to understand better what are the different programmes... and to develop our cooperation. (8)

However, accessibility is only one issue in the communication debate, another one is language. Unless the staff members spoke the language they would be unable to carry out their tasks efficiently, so proficiency in different languages was an essential asset. Cultural diversity did not necessarily lead to problems with language as in the case of Asia where the working language was English, but in both the American and African continents two languages separated the NOCs.

Asia [has] one working language which is English...everybody has his own language but everybody works in English. America, it's only two languages, but it is really two languages... you cannot say I will speak English, because not everybody speaks English. Same for French in Africa (6)

5.5.4. Olympic Solidarity Development

The length of involvement of some of the interviewees made it possible for them to relate their experiences through a number of quadrennia. Their life histories enabled the identification of change in the structure of Olympic Solidarity as it developed from a simple fund to a multimillion sport aid distributor, and how these changes in turn could have impinged its policy, decision-making and performativity.

Olympic Solidarity Fund - Pre 1982

Before 1982 Olympic Solidarity was still a fund directed by the tripartite commission which was made up of three representatives from the IOC, the three from the NOCs and three from the International Federations; Peter's (9) perception, at the time, was that there was still a lot of uncertainty on how the money was to be distributed, and not much information about Olympic Solidarity available. In fact, the Olympic Solidarity Report for 1976 indicates that most of the NOC requests were erratic and usually related to some isolated section of the sport (Olympic Solidarity, 1976), and with the lack of long or short term strategies, it was inferred that NOCs needed help in the development of sport in their countries.

They had to determine how this money should be spent. A third of it was going to the International Federations, and they had to decide how that was to be distributed, but no one knew really how the money should be distributed to the NOCs.(9)

Peter (9) talked about the difficulties encountered in the organisation of the first administration courses, on the personal initiative of BOA officials in contact with Olympic Solidarity. There were many fewer NOCs at this time, and no international network for sports administrators. The first course planned in Loughborough was cancelled because they "could not get any takers" (9). The first administration course was held the following year in 1976; a week in Loughborough, a week in London and a week at the University of Sussex.

In September 1977, we had another 32 people...which meant that 64 NOCs had come to Britain for the course...almost half the NOCs at that time (9).

The interviewee was critical of the lack of influence by the NOCs in allowing Madame Berlioux, the then Director of the IOC, to take over the administration of the funds designated for the NOCs. This happened after the abrupt departure in March 1977 of Edward Wieczorek, who had directed the operations of Olympic Solidarity from an office in CONI (the Italian Olympic Committee). When Van Karnebeek, the Chairman, resigned in 1977, Killanin took responsibility as Chairman of the Commission (International Olympic Committee, 1978d). Anthony (1) believed that Killanin was not given enough credit for steering the Olympic Movement and it was during his tenure, at the Congress of Varna, “when Olympic Solidarity was consolidated” (1)

There was an on-going battle between the IOC, the NOCs and the IFs, for control of the funding from TV broadcasting rights for the Olympic Games, and in 1977, during meetings with the IOC Executive held in Abidjan, the NOCs stated that they should be more directly involved in the management of the funds (International Olympic Committee, 1977c)

During the General Assembly of NOCs it was suggested that the activities promoted and controlled by Olympic Solidarity be gradually decentralised (International Olympic Committee, 1977d:381)

Olympic Solidarity had funded the attendance of NOC representatives at the General Assembly of NOCs, at least since 1979 (International Olympic Committee, 1978f), when it moved to Lausanne (International Olympic Committee, 1979b). In 1980 Samaranch replaced Lord Killanin as President of the IOC, and in 1981 decided to take over the Presidency of the Commission (International Olympic Committee, 1980b).

Old Olympic Solidarity - 1982-1996

In September 1982 the recommendation by the Association of National Olympic Committees to appoint Anselmo Lopez as Honorary Director of Olympic Solidarity was approved, and in March 1983 Mr Lopez took full responsibility for Olympic Solidarity (International Olympic Committee, 1982b). The perception was that Mr Lopez was considered the right man for the job. A retired businessman, he had been the General Secretary of the Spanish NOC, when Samaranch had been NOC

President, and was the Treasurer of the Association of National Olympic Committees (ANOC).

He knew very well [how] to manage business, to manage an organisation... He was a specialist in finance and accounting so he knew exactly what to do (8)

He was an ideal man to handle this IOC money. He was influential with Samaranch and clearly had no financial axe to grind. He was...cleaner than clean (9)

Susan (5) thought that, as Chairman of the Olympic Solidarity Commission, Samaranch was very interested in what was happening. He lived in Lausanne and held regular "sort of monthly committee" meetings at the Olympic Solidarity office, accompanied by other members of the IOC administration. Mr Lopez would provide a monthly report.

Samaranch used to come to our office...was very interested to know the daily goings on of Olympic Solidarity...Samaranch was more, kind of, hands on. He was not interfering in the work but he was interested (5)

Olympic Solidarity was administered by the voluntary part-time Director, from 10 Rue De La Gare, with three female members of staff, rising to four in 1985; (Appendix W) an office manager responsible for work related to the director, an accountant for finance, and two programme administrators working together as a small team; everyone had substantial mutual trust in each other's work and the small organisation was perceived to have a very collegial atmosphere.

When we were four, we were much more of a little team, a family team (5)

It was more like a family, the environment, the atmosphere; it was like a family (8)

Choice of administrative tasks was guided by employment precedence and language skills. The workload was divided by continent between the two administrators each responsible for half of the NOCs worldwide, as well as either the Itinerant School or the Technical Courses programme. By 1992, the staff members were responsible for particular areas in the administrative structure of the organisation suggesting a high level of mutual adjustment so they all knew what they were responsible for but covered for each other. A highly centralised decision-making process was evident;

the Director was responsible for the overall decisions although staff members were consulted and felt that their opinion mattered because “he would always say, so what do you think?” (5) This small ‘simple’ structure, as defined by Mintzberg’s (1979) ideal organisation design types (Table 2) required staff flexibility so multi-tasking was an essential part of everyone’s job;

You had to do everything from A to Z yourself, including answering the telephone, answering the door...filling the coffee machine. But also when you were away... nobody was doing anything (4)

I also had the function of receptionist...I was already, I could say, multitask, at the time (8)

Even though there was still a large amount of administrative paperwork, it was felt that this was easily managed and dealt with on a daily basis. Nevertheless, at a time when communication was still an issue, it was suggested that Olympic Solidarity was considered a pioneer in the IOC because of the technology it had.

We actually had a computer programme, which managed our activities and the finance. We already had a system in place. But we did not have a word processor, we just had a typewriter and 28 carbon copies... and we had telex, we did not even have a fax (5)

There was not much funding, and consequently few programmes. One of these was the Itinerant School, which started in 1986 with visits by ‘experts’ to carry out administrative courses in what were considered then, the ‘developing’ NOCs in Africa, Asia and South America.

I think we asked the NOCs to propose the experts; they were mostly Europeans...some from North America...some from Asia and one or two from Africa (9)

Anthony (1) describes the difficulties and risks experienced by the experts conducting the courses particularly related to issues of finance, security and communication; the culture was also an area of contention.

I remember [], you had to take money cash yourself. If they knew you were carrying say \$1,000, which might mean ten years of wages, you were at risk. Very often you would not know who is going to meet you, so that was quite terrible (1)

Can you imagine lecturing to some 500 soldiers, all rigid and staring at you, maybe not understanding a single word (1)

During the first years of the itinerant school communication with some NOCs, particularly those in Africa, was not well established. Some countries were experiencing wars, so it was not always possible to know what to expect.

It was not easy and the most difficult part of it was when we started going on these missions, particularly the pre-visit alone. Who is going to meet me? How do I know that this person is representing the NOC? (1)

As broadcasting revenue increased so too did Olympic Solidarity funding, and with every increase Mr Lopez suggested more programmes such as the Olympic Scholarships for Athletes, and the Coach Scholarships. There was not much formalisation; a few guidelines were set down and the programme was implemented.

There was no real documentation or explanations why we were doing that...we did not do any study, or have reflection groups...it looked like we were just making it up really (5)

Different formats for the courses were originally proposed by the NOCs, but with the gradual increase of the number of applications, the format for each programme was set up by Olympic Solidarity, in order to achieve a level of standardisation.

“Anselmo took the view that he could not have people going all over the place with different agendas, and different curricula” (9)

It was suggested that a level of transparency and accountability in the allocation and implementation of the programmes until 1996 was evident in the comprehensive annual reports published by Olympic Solidarity, since the administrators would write up the financial and technical details of every course.

Transitional Olympic Solidarity - 1997-2000

Mr Anselmo Lopez was over 85 years old when he resigned in 1996, and was replaced by Mr Pere Miro as Director for Olympic Solidarity. Mr Miro was from Barcelona; had worked on the 1992 Barcelona Games; and was already working with the IOC as Technical Director. He was in his early forties; a much younger man than Mr Lopez, which might explain why interviewees used his first name when citing the Director, whereas the previous Director was referred to as Mr Lopez. It was suggested that he was also someone Samaranch could trust, and the regular

meetings with President Samaranch in Lausanne were continued with Mr Miro. Peter (9) believed that Mr Miro was much more management-oriented than the previous Director; he set up departments and had a strategic plan “which Anselmo tended not to have” (9). In the beginning Mr Miro divided his time between Olympic Solidarity at Avenue La Gare and his previous office in Vidy. Susan (5) felt that the radical change of director in 1997 had quite a difficult beginning, even for him. He had to get to know the organisation which already had a number of programmes set up. He eventually brought in his own procedures, formalising the process of programme distribution through the production of a vast amount of documentation to give a background as to why and how the programmes were being set up, adjusted or improved.

We had to justify our position there...Suddenly we had to start producing all this documentation, to explain what we were doing and why we were doing it. It was a big change (5)

so all of a sudden, there's millions of documents for everything (5)

She expressed disappointment that after being given a lot of responsibility by the previous Director, the staff had to prove themselves all over again and to account for the work that had been done, with the added burden of being supervised by junior staff.

We had a lot of responsibility which had been given to us by Mr Lopez, just because the trust had been built up over those years, and I suppose we had proved ourselves to him, but then we had to prove all over again to [the new Director] that we were actually capable (5)

Angela (8) agreed that the change in the way they worked made a difference and was probably due to the adjustment it took for the staff to get used to a new Director, who was very different to the previous one.

When Pere came, for sure there was a difference, it is a question also to get an adaptation to a Director who has his own vision, his own way to work, which was different. (7)

Further devolution of funds directly to the continental associations was made during this period.

During this quadrennial, Olympic Solidarity's assistance to the Continental Associations has consisted of an annual grant allowing them to cover a portion of their operating costs, the financing of annual seminars for NOC Secretaries General and of periodic meetings such as executive committees and general assemblies, and assistance with the development of their own continental programmes (Olympic Solidarity, 1997b:15)

On the other hand, Peter (9) commended Mr Miro for having also managed to maintain the autonomy of Olympic Solidarity by keeping a separate office away from the main IOC premises.

The NOCs [were] desperate to avoid being overwhelmed by the International Federations...or the IOC... so having this separate office of Olympic Solidarity, which could determine really how their money would be spent, was really quite important (9)

Susan (5) suggested that Mr Miro felt that the workload was too large to be done by the staff available, so people, mostly young graduates, were recruited as assistants for established staff (Appendix X). This raised the number of staff to nine, including the Director, by the end of that quadrennium. By this time there was also a considerable increase in the number of NOCs, and the number of programmes on offer had risen to twelve. The higher number of employees increased the complexity of operation of the organisation, so the existing structure was altered and defined into four different working sectors with the allocation of particular areas of the administration and management allocated to each sector. These sectors, headed by the people with experience, were divided by function. Two sectors administered the programmes, one sector was predominantly related to finance, and the other provided secretarial services for the Director, indicating the emergence of a divisionalised structure.

The increase in staff levels also impacted the work of some of the interviewees, who were used to working on their own. The new structure meant they would have to adapt informally to work with other people, mutually adjusting to the shared workload (Mintzberg 1979). The introduction of junior staff also entailed a level of supervision and guidance on how things worked.

I had to learn how to work with colleagues, [then] someone who is probably the same as me has to learn how the IOC is working with all its specificity (7).

There is always an evolution in terms of the way you work; because you bring experience, but also I gained a team... [] was the first person that I had to manage. And it was quite a really interesting experience, the first person to work with me, because I was used to work on my own, with my colleagues, but doing my own work (8)

Although his project manager changed, one interviewee found it difficult to identify any specific impact of that change. He felt he was still new to the job, producing a lot of documentation, and possibly still trying to deal with the politics in the Olympic Movement and what it meant to deal with the NOCs. An advisory working group, made up of people from the Olympic Movement, was set up and brainstorming sessions were used by staff to discuss new programme proposals. After consultation with the advisory working group and with other experts, new programmes such as the 'Sydney' Olympic Scholarship Programme were proposed to the Olympic Solidarity Commission for approval. Feedback from specialists in the field was perceived to be conducive to a higher level of effectiveness of new programme options. The feeling of a collegial atmosphere was still present among the staff, partially because although the structure had changed from a 'simple structure' to more of a 'bureaucracy' (Mintzberg, 1979), the organisation was still considered a small one, where everyone was close to everyone else.

We went up to eight. That was still a bit ok, because it was small enough to be a team, we were all together (5)

A family ambience, very small, knowing each other, no need to call the office next door because the door was open, and we just had to speak, everybody was connected to the other. (7)

Communication with the NOCs was not always reliable or efficient. Fax was still being used in the early years of this period, which meant sending, and resending messages; waiting for long bouts of time for a response.

We are sending a fax, and then we were waiting two hours, or two days, or three weeks, until it comes back, because you never know, if on the other side maybe there is an electricity cut, so nothing happens (7)

Despite an improvement on the past, communication was still a problem; some NOCs found it more difficult than others to adopt paperless electronic communication.

Trying to get the NOCs to computerise their work was extremely difficult. This was in the period 1999-2000, almost averse to it...South America was difficult, Africa took it up better, Asia embraced it very quickly (9)

Re-Structured Olympic Solidarity - 2001-2008

Leadership

In October 2001 Olympic Solidarity moved to Villa Mon Repos. Jacques Rogge took over as IOC President. Changes were made to the Olympic Charter (Olympic Solidarity, 2001b), and subsequently, in 2002, Mario Vasquez Rana, who was Chairman of ANOC, became Chairman of the Olympic Solidarity Commission. Unlike Samaranch he did not live in Lausanne; so it was explained that Mr Miro would visit him in Mexico on a regular basis every six months, to report on the activities and results. A tri-monthly report was produced by Olympic Solidarity for him and for the Olympic Solidarity Commission but he was not involved at all with the staff.

All of a sudden we had a President who was in Mexico...he wasn't a hands on President...he did not want to be. He trusted Pere as the Director with the day-to day-running of Olympic Solidarity and he was not intervening at all (5)

The beginning was not easy, Susan (5) felt it changed the dynamic of the organisation, but then maybe it was just different, because the relationship she had had with Samaranch was different – possibly she felt excluded, when Mr Miro was the only one communicating with the new Chairman. It was also suggested that “Samaranch was more of a politician, whereas Rogge was more of a manager, so eventually the dynamic changed” (7). However, another employee did not believe there was much of an impact since the staff continued to work in a very similar way to how it did in the past.

I would say not really, because we have the same structure as we did in the past, to work on a regional Base (8)

It was posited that the change in Chairmanship was possibly not an easy task also for the Director, who had to change the way he worked with the Commission.

Besides Mr Vasquez Rana was also Chairman, of PASO and of the Association of National Olympic Committees, so his loyalty was possibly closer to the NOCs rather than to the IOC.

Although initially it was not easy for Pere to carry out his duties for the NOCs with the ANOC President as his chairman, he “cleverly” managed to “normalise” the relationship (9)

Re-structuring

During 2001 the organisation underwent major restructuring. Programmes were divided into World Programmes and Continental programmes, with the World programmes further divided into four different areas: athletes, NOCs, Coaches and Special Fields. While the design of the structure of an organisation was contingent on its situation, the effectiveness of an organisation was directly related to the fit between its structure and its situation, and how well the different parts of the organisation were connected. There was not one type of successful organisation, different structures would thrive in different conditions (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967).

Although the four sector structure was retained, a convergent change was made so that the administrative areas were re-organised both on a function and a market basis. Each sector became responsible for a particular programme area, as well as working directly with NOCs and their continental associations on a continental basis, with a project manager for each section. This changed the individual responsibilities, and at the same time isolated the staff into groups requiring diversified skills; each group would concentrate on a particular area of programmes for which they worked with the NOCs worldwide, but were responsible for monitoring the activities of NOCs allocated to their sector.

It changed the way we worked internally because suddenly we became four small teams within a big team (5)

The transcripts indicate that after 2001, each of the sectors dealt with specific stakeholders and outputs, and employees in each sector took on a number of roles with different skill sets to cover a complexity of tasks in four main areas:

1. Administration of an area of the World Programmes for NOCs worldwide
2. Co-ordination with the NOCs by continent

3. Collaboration with the Continental Associations of NOCs for the continental programmes
4. Development of the Olympic Solidarity programmes.

However, tasks in each sector were not distributed among the staff in the same manner, but were contingent on the competencies and roles of the staff in that sector, and at times also on the specific programme area and networks they were required to work with. Thus although there was a high level of formalisation in the administration of the programmes across the sectors, the organisation of staff in the sectors was relatively diverse, allowing the flexibility of choice of tasks and decision-making, although regulated by guidelines and regulations. Less structure was however less evident at the higher levels in the hierarchy of the organisation (Mintzberg 1979).

If you compare the sections, we are the more specific ones, because I am working with the Deputy Director, she has more different sectors, a thousand other functions, plenty of things to do (7)

However, managerial jobs were not specialised in the horizontal dimension, and differed in their vertical dimension according to their level in the hierarchy (Mintzberg 1979). Two of the section managers, who also occupied the position of Deputy Director and Head of Finance respectively, had a much wider range of tasks to manage, with one of them commenting “We all have different hats” (5). Another staff member indicated that her job was made up of two different areas: one of development and the other of service.

My job on the one hand co-ordinated activities and projects with the NOCs, manage their files, make payments and so on...the second part of my job was to help in the development of the programmes; developing the concept (2)

The ‘small team’ atmosphere requiring flexibility in tackling the increased workload originally experienced among all the staff when Olympic Solidarity was a younger and smaller organisation, was gradually being experienced in some of the sectors.

Work is divided amongst everyone, doing a bit of everything, pretty much (3)

We were distributing the tasks according to each one’s competency, but without having the proper style of hierarchy, we were a small team, everybody

was doing everything. We were doing the payments; even if you are the manager you can write letters... Now we grew up a bit, so then we had to get organised and distribute more tasks (6)

Each group was internally organised, resembling small separate organisations, isolating staff of one group from the others. This, and the increased workload, led to the dissipation of the collegial office atmosphere.

We will consult with others but... normally we just work in our silos (3)

Today it is almost constant, you seem to spend your whole life, you sit in front of the computer even sending messages to the people next door (5)

and it was also stated that as the workload and staff increased, some sectors were obliged to put in procedures to formalise the different responsibilities of each member of that sector and how their diversified tasks could be administered more efficiently.

The workload has increased a lot, now we have put in place some work procedures that will help us...Each one of the section members has his own responsibilities so it's clear who does what (4)

According to Mintzberg, horizontal job specialisation is an inherent part of every organisation and concerns skill in parallel activities, while vertical job specialisation "separates the performance of the work from the administration of it" (1979, 71); jobs specialised vertically must first be specialised horizontally. The Olympic Solidarity staff did both. Each sector was described as having a complex structure; they were required to monitor what each NOC in their allocated continent was doing with regards to all the programmes available. They also administered an area of the World programmes directly in contact with each NOC worldwide. Each section manager was also responsible for coordination with the continental associations, which in turn were expected provide reports of the continental programmes they funded and organised.

We know the American NOCs, we just deal with them more, we travel, we have seen them more but we work with the whole world with the NOC administration programmes...Each section works with the continental Association; they are responsible for that continent (3)

We have this cross, I am in charge of the technical course, but I am also in charge of Africa and Europe...if I have one [application] from an African NOC, I have the vision of that African NOC across all the programmes (5)

For the world programmes we work with all NOCs, with everybody, all the continents. [For] the continental programmes we are divided by continent, one person is in charge of each continent, not to manage world programmes, it's just to make a link between the continental Association and Olympic Solidarity (6)

In terms of verticality I have the Values programme, I have finance, I have institutional communication; that is mainly my domain. Horizontally I have Oceania...for all the NOCs in Oceania I should know how they use the continental programmes, how they use my programmes, but also how they use the programmes of athletes, coaches and management. (8)

This system enabled the staff to focus on specific programmes, and at the same time enhance their expertise about the NOCs they were responsible for, through visits and regular meetings held during NOC Assemblies. This division into groups enabled easier supervision, a shared budget, a measure of performance and eventually encouraged mutual adjustment of the members of the group

In market-based grouping the members of a single unit have a sense of territorial integrity; they control a well-defined organisational process; most of the problems that arise in the course of their work can be solved simply, through their mutual adjustment; and many of the rest, which must be referred up the hierarchy, can be handled within the unit, by that single manager (Mintzberg 1979, 118)

Several of the interviewees explained that although the sections were managed separately there was still a degree of flexibility between them. Issues with particular NOCs at times necessitated consultation transversally across the other sectors that had a better knowledge of the NOCs in question, particularly on whether allocation of a programme was appropriate. At times discussion was held between sectors because of the complexity of the programme being organised. Consultation was carried out with the International Federations, for those programmes involving athletes or coaches, where technical information was a necessary requirement before approval of a programme.

We are independent, but at the same time when we receive applications from NOCs we usually consult members of the other sections who normally know these NOCs better...if they have some questions they can consult with us (2)

If we have a special case, or we need more information, then we will consult with the others, but normally we just work directly with them [NOCs] and then there are some transversal projects which we work on. (3)

For the world programmes everyone is working with everyone [NOCs], then when it comes to the continental association, to go to the meetings, we go to the forums. When it comes to Asia, I am responsible. If there is a problem with an Asian NOC, going out of normal business, I am responsible (6)

On becoming section manager, David (6) did not think that the way he worked personally had changed; it just created more pressure on him because of increased responsibility. The sectional work did not change much, but he argued that new tools always instigated change in order to keep up to date.

For me personally it's the same except that now I have the final word. What we were doing before was good, I was involved in it, I trusted it already; just it was a continuity of what we did before with a couple of adjustments, things that we can improve. (6)

Helen (4) explained that work at reception was completely different to that as administrative assistant in the sector, but when her section manager changed, the work did not change much, since they were used to working as colleagues, even though she had always considered him above her in the section hierarchy. She suggested that the new section manager had a more collegial/democratic approach; he was interested in feedback from others in the sector before taking the overall decision.

[He] gives more responsibilities to his staff, he delegates more ... whether it's his decision or a group decision, he is taking time to take everybody's opinion and vision, before just deciding, ok we go this way, let's go (4)

Some administrative work was passed on to a new recruit, and she was involved in more project work; the intensity of work increased but their working relationship helped them be more efficient.

We always had a good relation[ship], an open relation[ship], so it went smoothly. It was a huge job, but as we knew each other really well, we know how things work.”

Sarah (2) stated that she was not conscious that changes in staff in her sector had any major impact on the way she worked, however, her enthusiastic description of a previous section manager, when discussing the development of programmes, could suggest some nostalgia for a better past relationship, or perhaps just admiration for a job well done. The continental programmes were only a minor part of her job,

In our section there was a gradual development with a smooth transition; we never had drastic changes (2)

Continental Programmes

Although some funds had been allocated to continental associations in the past, 2001 also saw the beginning of a major de-centralisation of funds (40% of the budget), to the Continental Associations during the quadrennium 2001-2004. (International Olympic Committee, 2005). The continental associations were given the responsibility of programmes, designed for the specific needs of each NOC, which they could support. Many of the Olympic Solidarity staff considered this a major policy change. It was proposed (9) that the continental programmes were established as consequence of the long running tension between the different stakeholders in the Olympic Movement on whether Olympic Solidarity should be running the programmes and distributing the money to the NOCs, or whether the money should go directly to the NOCs through the continental associations. It was also implied that the decentralisation was a result of the influence made by the Chairman of the Commission to reduce the number of programmes run directly by Olympic Solidarity, and increase the number of programmes run by the continental associations and the NOCs. In fact, the Olympic Solidarity Sports Administration Manual indicates that this process of decentralisation came about after acceptance of such a proposal by Mario Vasquez Rana.

Upon a proposal made by the ANOC President, Mario Vasquez Rana and approved by the IOC President Juan Antonio Samaranch, a process of decentralisation of the funds towards the Continental Associations was initiated in 2001 (International Olympic Committee, 2005:78)

During his first year as Chairman of the Olympic Solidarity Commission, in reference to the decentralisation of funding, the annual report for 2002, a paragraph attributed to Vasquez Rana states:

The most important aspect of Olympic Solidarity's work during this period was without doubt the gradual, progressive and irreversible implementation of the funding decentralisation process. The clearest evidence of how right the Olympic Solidarity Commission was to take this decision are the results today which show the serious-minded and responsible approach that this has led to in every areas of Solidarity's work, particularly on each of the continents (Olympic Solidarity, 2002:2)

However, despite the anticipated positive administration of these programmes, the need for more accountability for the IOC funding led to the establishment, in 2005, of five continental Olympic Solidarity offices each with an administrator who would co-ordinate the work with the international office in Lausanne. Twenty five different measures were approved by the Olympic Solidarity Commission, to reinforce the co-ordination between the five Continental offices and the International Olympic Solidarity office in Lausanne and the heads of the six offices met for the first time in Mexico City in September 2005.

The main topics they discussed were coordination between the different offices, a review of the technical and financial control systems, particularly the transfer of decentralised funds as well as more consistent coordination of working methods (Olympic Solidarity, 2005b:4)

Since the continental associations were autonomous bodies recognised by the IOC, agreements were set up between the Lausanne office and each continental association. These agreements were all different, with unequal access to information. The co-ordinators were not Olympic Solidarity staff, and so agreements were made with each association, including the auditing of accounts, and the provision of regular reports of their activities. The impact of these programmes on the work of the Olympic Solidarity staff created rather ambivalent opinions amongst the interviewees. This led to increased responsibility and workload for staff at the Lausanne office, particularly for the section managers who were responsible for liaising with the continental associations.

Because decentralisation does not mean loss of control, it does not mean less work, I would say it is the opposite, more work (8)

Since the Section Managers were primarily responsible for coordination with the continental association, other staff members had not been impacted to the same degree. Besides, the level of impact was also influenced by the type of existing relationship with their continental counterpart.

Of course it did, because [there is] much more contact, more information, more follow up, we communicate on the programmes. Basically they are running the programmes, we follow up. But it is not that we are implementing the programmes, so basically it did not change our day-to-day (6)

Other interviewees started working with Olympic Solidarity during the restructuring process, so they said that they could not really assess any impact the introduction of the continental associations might have had on the organisation.

Decentralisation did not mean anything to me because I did not know how it was before... it was not my first-hand experience (3)

On the other hand, the section manager for Africa who took full responsibility to manage the funds allocated to the ANOCA for the continental programmes in Africa, so NOCs did not get the funds directly, implying possibly the lack of capability for the continental association to carry out the task or maybe a lack of trust. Negotiation and agreement with ANOCA officials on the strategy to be followed in the allocation of programmes and funding, enabled a level of control, transparency and efficiency in distribution.

Historically I had a very good contact with those continental associations...because they knew me, and they trusted me, then perhaps they were more forthcoming with the information about what they were doing...I know every single dollar they are spending on the continental programme (5)

It was emphasised that although the continental associations had been given the responsibility to organise their own programmes, at times the concept did not run smoothly. Some programmes organised by PASO were similar to those already run by the Lausanne office creating confusion particularly among the International Federations.

We also try to run parallel programmes, but complimentary programmes, but not the same thing... but it is not always easy. (4)

The name given by PASO was “Solidaridad Olympica” so that caused the confusion (8)

Although the funds were being de-centralised to the continental associations, some of this funding was being used for administration of the associations themselves, resulting in less overall funding for the NOCs, nevertheless the NOCs seem to approve of the *status quo*. This suggests that the NOCs were less likely to complain if the money is administered directly by NOCs rather than by the IOC through Olympic Solidarity.

Now 30% is going directly towards the administration costs of these continental associations, so in a way the NOCs are getting less...no NOCs have ever complained (5)

One interviewee, while in full agreement with the de-centralisation process, emphasised that more had to be done to explain the width and scope of the programmes in order that the NOCs could use them more effectively. Some NOCs were unaware of all the possibilities available through the continental programmes and persisted in requesting aid from the Lausanne office. Furthermore, it would have been impossible for these programmes, with the diversity related to the specific needs of each NOC, to be organised through the International office using the compliment of staff available.

The NOCs have a history of working with Lausanne, and it's difficult for them to change...The theory behind the continental programmes was correct and there should be more room for specificity...but I think it needs to be better explained and better structured (5)

Technology, Accessibility and Communication

At the beginning of the period 2001-2004, although the working hours were structured and “family friendly” (3), there was yet no centralised database or electronic filing system, and the administration was much more manually based. Despite being considered a pioneer in the IOC by another staff member, an interviewee recruited at the time, perceived the pace of the organisation as rather moderate in comparison to type of the technology, the fast paced activity and the

extensive, irregular working hours previously experienced in an organising committee(3).

As far as organisational structure and culture, I was kind of a little shocked, because I felt like I moved back in time...I was a little surprised by the moderate pace (3)

The introduction of new technology in the form of OSIS (Olympic Solidarity Information System) and the Extranet contributed to change the image of the organisation and level of efficiency of its staff. Most interviewees agreed that the technology, they had access to, enabled them to follow the process of programme distribution on a regular basis. It helped to make their work more professional, efficient and accurate

Introduction of an accounting software acted as a database for programmes received by each NOC, helped to make the work more efficient (2)

Now we have a very sophisticated IT system which manages the accounting and the programmes and it is all in together, so we can get from that financial information, and analytical information, and technical information (5)

It is an accounting system that can serve as a database to provide information, so that everybody can put information into the system. (6)

Through a specific IT programme available most NOCs eventually had a computer, an email address and access to the internet. Nevertheless, although eventually most communication with NOCs was done through email, some NOCs were still reluctant to use it.

A small percentage [does] not use it, but it is not a problem of IT, it is a bigger problem. (3)

The Extranet was accessible online to all NOCs, continental associations and ANOC, to different degrees; NOCs were only able to access their own allocations. It also added a measure of transparency and accountability to the decisions taken in relation to the distribution of programmes.

NOCs can now access on the Extranet, they can see what they get, the budgets, the payments and so on. We [Olympic Solidarity] can see it for everyone, and the continental associations can see it for the NOCs of their continent (3)

The OSIS system was updated on a daily basis for the World Programmes, but “you cannot get anything out [which] has not been put in” (5), so the continual access to information put pressure on those updating the data. Continental associations were required to provide information about their programmes, since they worked with their own systems; if they did not provide the data no one would have access to it. Olympic Solidarity staff could also avail themselves of an electronic filing system.

Plus we have also Live Link, which we can see also. We have our own file system and everyone has his own file (8)

The accounting system provided a database of analytical, financial and technical information about all the programmes availed of by the NOCs. Programme records were stored electronically, consequently, it was suggested that it was no longer felt necessary for the Olympic Solidarity reports, produced on a quadrennial basis since 2001, to contain comprehensive details of all the programmes. However although technology made an important contribution to increased efficiency, the fast pace of change in technology could outweigh some of its benefits. The debate on reliability of keeping records, between paper and technology, was an on-going one.

Through the increased access to technology, it was suggested that relationships were formed through working with the NOCs on a regular basis, and made it easier for NOCs to contact Olympic Solidarity staff whom they knew and trusted, and who would in turn direct the NOCs internally to whom they need to contact. Technology would enhance this relationship by facilitating access and providing up to date information.

When an NOC rings me up...I can see the activities...Rather than say to him, tell me what you want that belongs to me, and then I will pass you on. That is not our way. Someone calling from [] does not expect to be passed around the Olympic Solidarity administration from pillar to post. So I sort as much as I can... then I tell my colleagues what he wants to know, that I could not find from the information, and could you please get back to him directly (5)

So when an NOC from Asia wants something from Olympic Solidarity, if they know the people they can contact them directly for the World programmes. If

they do not, they have one contact person for Asia. What I will do is that I will respond to them and direct them to the right person (6)

They can send me even a ridiculous request or a problem matter, they know that they can send me that by email, even if it is not my domain of activity or responsibility, and I will put them in contact with the other sectors (8)

The number of staff in Lausanne increased further twenty one people including the Director during the period 2005-2008, and twenty one by the end of 2009-2012. Staff at Olympic Solidarity was predominantly female, with seventeen women and five men, including the Director, in 2012. With the increase in funding, the World programmes also increased so that by the quadrennial period of 2005-2008, the 205 NOCs could avail themselves of 20 different programmes each with a variety of options. (Appendix K). The organisational structure had developed characteristics that identified it more with the 'professional bureaucracy' of Mintzberg's (1979) organisational designs.

5.5.5. Development of Programmes

The development of the World programmes was perceived as a predominantly bottom-up process, where all members of staff contributed to concepts and procedures, as well as to change or adjustment of the programmes on offer. However it was not just an internal process; experts in the field were brought in for their contribution and an evaluation by the NOCs of the effectiveness of the programmes on offer during the previous quadrennium was consulted before any decision was taken to propose to the Commission any change or adjust the options of a programme.

Certainly we as staff, and certainly the managers...have always been involved in the development of the different programmes, always, and our ideas and our input have always been taken on board by the directors, and by any working group that we might have had, and by the Olympic Solidarity Commission as well (5)

Proposals were also guided by the experience of the staff working with the programmes during the quadrennium and their knowledge of the NOCs needs. The Commission and the NOCs sometimes made proposals. Changes in IOC policy automatically led to change; the introduction of the Youth Olympic Games, led to

adjustments to the Young Athlete Scholarships programme. Ultimately, change was also dependent on the budget available, which in the case of Olympic Solidarity was still on the rise. The process was a lengthy one with final proposals made to the Olympic Solidarity Commission for approval. Major changes were implemented at the beginning of the new quadrennium, with only minor changes made during the four year interval.

The concept of the programmes was very much developed by the team. I contributed also with my ideas in the brainstorming, and we also worked with outside experts. We had to develop the content, make sure [it] would correspond to the NOC needs, and that this programme would function (2)

We work on the process of evaluation... we meet our section, we meet and discuss, we meet several times, many, many times and we discuss every programme, we identify the weaknesses, strong points. What does not work; what works, and then we meet again to talk on how to improve it; what to change. It's a continual process. Everyone has been involved. (3)

No matter if you like or do not like the idea of the Youth Olympic Games, it exists, it was approved, so you have to adapt (7)

One member of staff insisted that they did not invent anything new, but with the advent of more finance, more options were added to the programmes already being provided.

It's just been improved upon, and more expanded upon, and more areas covered, simply because we have more money to be able to do it (5)

On the other hand, another interviewee took ownership of the programmes suggesting a particular attachment to what she was responsible for. The newer staff had diverging opinions on the development of programmes; some perceived the different options to the programmes as new programmes.

Part of the development of the programmes was also related to how each one was to be administered. Formalisation of rules for each programme, ensured that all stakeholders were aware of the procedures to follow in applying for a programme, formulating a proposal, acceptance, organisation and follow-up. They served to control the behaviour, both of the Olympic Solidarity staff and the NOCs. However,

extensive formalisation implied developing the organisation into a Professional bureaucracy, an “ideal type” which works well in stable environments, but is not ideally suited in markets requiring innovation or adaptation to changing environments, where organic structures, with loose informal working relationships, were more viable (Mintzberg, 1979) .

5.5.6. Decision-making

The general strategy and framework of Olympic Solidarity was the domain of the Commission, as was the approval for any major change to programmes or policy. It also approved amendments to the Olympic Games Subsidy. It was repeatedly explained that a hierarchical structure of decision-making was in place in relation to changes to or allocations of the programmes. Although originally an organisation with centralised decision-making, the expansion of the organisation necessitated a level of decentralisation to the staff for quicker response, and “so that the individuals who are able to understand the specifics can respond...power is placed where the knowledge is”, contributing to staff efficiency and motivation (Mintzberg, 1979:183) and suggesting a move towards a more professional bureaucratic organisation. Vertical parallel decentralisation was evident in the process of change or adjustment to programmes where decisions by individual staff would be discussed by the ‘team’ in each sector responsible for a programme area, before being presented for analysis at the regular meetings, called the G5, between the Section Managers and the Director. Vertical decentralisation then took over particularly in the case of innovative programme changes, where decisions, taken by the G5 covering all areas of programmes, would be proposed by the Director, at the end of the quadrennium, for approval by the Olympic Solidarity Commission which, in turn, was responsible to forward its decision to the IOC Executive Committee. Meetings called the G21 with all the members of staff were also held on a regular basis.

Some interviewees were of the opinion that although final approval was made by the Olympic Solidarity Commission, staff contributed to the decision-making process since they were the ones with the knowledge of what was possible.

Each section manager comes to [] team. Then we discuss it together and the information goes up again, and then finally at the end of each quadrennial it goes to the commission before it goes out for the next quadrennial. They get

the structured proposal, everything is in place. We know what can be done, maybe what should be done (4)

It was emphasised that programmed decisions were taken for the approval of NOC applications for the World Programmes. They were guided by internal rules and regulations, as well as dependent upon how elaborate the application was. "Programmed decisions are repetitive and routine and defined by policy and procedures...non-programmed decisions are new and unique (Slack and Parent, 2006:258). Some staff members, particularly section managers, were allowed a degree of 'free rein' in making non-programmed decisions on which applications to accept or discard. Discussion with colleagues and experience in working with the NOCs enhanced the knowledge of the workings of those organisations, enabling them to take more informed decisions.

We have very clear regulations for all our programmes...it is very clear who can apply, how they can apply, what they can get (5)

Depends on the level of the complexity of the project, either I take the decision directly, or with my colleagues we take the decision, or if it is more difficult, more complicated, we consult with our colleagues dealing with this continent (7)

Horizontal decentralisation brought the different parts of the organisation together, and was also involved in decision-making when NOCs contribute to the organisation of programmes, as well as when the International Federations were consulted before acceptance of certain Olympic Solidarity programmes. It was only with their approval of the technical level of the participant that acceptance was accorded. The International Federations were also responsible for organisation of some of the programmes, particularly those for Coaches, and nominated the technical experts.

The International Federations give us support and strong help in the decision process. They know the sport; they know the people; they are nominating the experts conducting most of the courses; (7)

The organisation had therefore, selective vertical and horizontal decentralisation, where in the vertical dimension power was given to various areas in the hierarchy, for different types of decisions particularly in relation to allocation or development of programmes. On the horizontal level, particular areas made selective use of staff experts, according to how technical are the decisions they must make, some being

just on an advisory level, whilst others were directly involved with the programmes. Although approval was always essentially at the strategic apex of the organisation, the Olympic Solidarity Commission; it was the staff making up the core of the organisation where the real expertise was found, suggesting that power in the Olympic Solidarity organisation could be likened to the definition of power by (Foucault 1995:234) as that “employed and exercised through a net-like organisation”, in which it [was] circulated by individuals “simultaneously undergoing and exercising” it, as “vehicles” of that power.

5.5.7. Finance

A recurring theme in the interviews was the link between levels of funding and the availability of programmes, as well as recruitment of staff. It was suggested that the more funding meant that more programmes would be possible. Increased funding was also behind the continental programme de-centralisation strategy, where programmes and funding would be administered directly by the continental associations. Increased funding and staff led to a more structured management system, with higher levels of formalisation.

everything just gets bigger, finance have got more money so that then we need more people in the finance to manage all of that and everything, and all those things we have to take in hand (5)

When you know that you have more funding, then you prepare...programmes that you would like to offer, and...having a financial budgetary plan which corresponds to the activities on the programmes that you want to develop, then you build your human resources structure (8)

However, there was also the issue of having enough staff to deliver the programmes efficiently; the downside being that even if there was more money for more programmes, there was a limit on the effective service that could be provided by each member of staff.

They can give me ten million dollars more, but the problem will be the human resources...we [could not] deal with all the requests [unless] we hired more people (7)

Budgets were considered, and allocated on a quadrennial basis; each programme, each NOC, and each continent was allocated a budget for the World Programmes. A

budget was also allocated to the Continental Associations for the Continental Programmes. Some programmes had a fixed budget; the Values programmes made a contribution, while for others it depended on the request; but all programmes had specific procedures to be followed. Although the overall budget was set “from the top” (7), senior managers proposed the quadrennial budget for their programmes and the annual distribution, based on their previous working experience. “Internal operations”, audited by Price Waterhouse Coopers, provided a “mathematical budget distribution” (8).

We have a forecasted budget for each programme and for each activity then we decide if the NOC needs the full budget...we have internal procedures that we have to follow (4)

We know how much we have, what we can do with it; then we decide the priority. If we follow the charter, the athletes must go to the games, so they have major support, and then we define the objectives (7)

5.5.8. Programme Distribution Policy

Equity and Equality

Although controls and guidelines were formalised for acceptance of NOC programme applications, staff members were able to use their experience and initiative to guide their decisions. Following internal procedures, NOC applications were considered on an equal basis, irrespective of which NOC they came from, who made the application, and for which sport.

Each NOC is the same size... the country has a different size...but when you go to the map, you can definitely see that each NOC does not have the same size; it can be [in] a big country or a small country. The difference is huge...and they are entitled to the same thing (6)

It was argued that since the budget covered a number of programmes for each year, some NOCs could be allocated extra programmes in specific areas towards the year end; these would otherwise remain unused because other NOCs did not request them. Furthermore, some sports were more popular than others.

If we are close to the end of the year...if the NOC is very active then they probably need that programme; versus if they have not used a lot of the

programmes, they are only using [that] programme, maybe I can give me [an] additional one. (7)

Through access to the OSIS database of programme allocation, staff could view the level and type of activity of an NOC, enabling them to gauge the possible benefit of one programme over another; though there was also a limit to the overall number of programmes allocated to each NOC.

We try to see what NOCs got from other sections, or even our different programmes...so maybe we can give a balance to what we give to NOCs...We always try to have equity but some sports are more popular than others (4).

It was inferred that the concept of 'development level of an NOC' was no longer one of the criteria for the allocation or restriction of programmes previously targeted only towards 'developing' NOCs. These had been the Olympic scholarships for athletes preparing for the next Olympic Games, the scholarships for young promising athletes, the Olympic scholarships for coaches and the Itinerant school programme which was later renamed Training for sports administrators. It was suggested that although the Olympic Charter still promoted more aid for the NOCs in need of it, this was a very difficult status to define. There was also the suggestion that it should not be defined, or even referred to at all.

One has to be careful in using 'developing' country or labelling a developing NOC or a country with special needs (9)

All NOCs were eligible for all programmes. This did not necessarily mean that they were allocated equally or even equitably among the NOCs as also evidenced in the statistical analysis discussed in an earlier chapter of this study. Each programme had access to a budget which was the same for everyone. There were no written guidelines or regulations to define equitable or equal distribution, but an implicit understanding that some NOCs were in greater need of help than others, with a change in the concept closer to that proposed by Stone that "Equity [did] not require uniform shares of something for everyone, but only adequate shares" (2002:58). It was also suggested that each staff member might have a different list of which NOCs were the most in need; but this was based on a personal opinion, and not on any defined criteria.

It's informal and subjective...we do not have a table to say this is a developing NOC, or criteria by which we could judge which NOC is more developed (3)

The original philosophy...I think is still right, because our mission or one of our missions is to preserve the universality of the Olympic Games. When we tried to do the categorisation of the NOCs, which was never official, it [was] very difficult to justify...in fact it does not work...We then scrapped this idea of categorisation of NOCs...the philosophy is all 204 are allowed to apply for all the programmes (5)

It was argued that although NOCs in poor countries are probably the least developed in sporting terms, some NOCs from rich countries had an underdeveloped sports structure. Some governments, even in comparatively 'poor' countries, only funded specific sports in which they were more likely to perform well and achieve international results; some concentrated on 'sport for all'; while others provided very little, if any, funding to sport. There was also an issue of underdeveloped sports disciplines in some 'affluent' countries that performed very well at the Olympic Games.

Some rich countries have a poor national federation and why not help them also? (4)

Nobody is equal...Switzerland is probably a developing country in terms of sport, not in terms of [standard] of living...but Cuba which is a country with embargo, a tough economic situation...they have medals in the Games all the time. In Ethiopia the government [gives] a lot of money to athletics because its objective is to beat the Kenyans in long distance running (7)

Nevertheless, it was particularly difficult to fund athletes from an NOC in a country with a small population, because there might not be sufficient numbers of (or even any) athletes who achieve the level of performance required to participate in the Olympic Games, and thus they might be seen to be losing out. Qualifying athletes for the Olympic Games was a priority, so countries that found it difficult to prepare their athletes to qualify, were more likely to benefit from scholarships.

If you have a country with twenty or more athletes qualified on their own, they probably need less scholarships than countries that only have one or two

athletes...participating with invitation cards so for sure for us the priority is to have these NOCs to try to qualify at least for the Games (8)

Furthermore, because of this overriding objective to help athletes to qualify for the Olympic Games, it was also deemed necessary to identify whether the area of interest of a particular NOC was in elite sport or sport for all. A couple of interviewees queried the fact that countries with big and small populations were funded more or less to the same level, even when one country could be as small as a town in another. There was also the issue of some small countries receiving more money per capita in comparison to countries with bigger populations.

Another issue brought up was related to how geographical wage differentials or earning power in different countries could determine what could be bought with the same budget. Training facilities, coaches' wages, accommodation, transport and other related requirements for organisation of a programme would have different costs in the diverse geographical areas of the world, similar to the Big Mac Index (D.L. and R.L.W., 2013) which compares the working time of the cost of a hamburger in different countries. Furthermore, in some countries with a low GDP per capita, high accommodation costs and extensive travel distances contributed to the argument that it was difficult to define criteria for equitable distribution, but maybe there should be some.

There are no hotels. It's either living on the street in a bad situation or in a five star hotel. The price of a five star hotel is the same as in Switzerland, maybe twice [that] (7)

It was implied that increased funding meant that there was now enough money to help all the NOCs, unlike the situation in the past where the small amount of finance available restricted the number of NOCs that could be assisted. In the past Olympic Solidarity publications included statements promoting/restricting some programmes to particular NOCs, but one interviewee put forward the fact that although the Olympic Charter stated that "The aim of Olympic Solidarity is to organise assistance to NOCs, in particular those which have the greatest need of it" (International Olympic Committee, 2011:17), this did not indicate that any NOC should be excluded, and since the funds belonged to all the NOCs, they believed they all had a right to it.

This is our job, analysing all the requests, its weighing up the money that we have available, the opportunities, the situation in each of these NOCs; and actually where would the money be better invested and achieve the greatest results. Or for the people who make the biggest difference to those people who are asking for it (5)

Even though in the charter it is written we are supposed to help those NOCs with the greatest needs, so this is our core mission, but in fact it has changed. The programmes are open to all NOCs...there is written nowhere that this NOC is not entitled or excluded (6)

There is enough now to help everybody. Not everybody in a big way...in the old days no, so you really had to focus on the ones who really needed it (5)

NOCs had equal access to all World programmes; allocation was on a case by case basis. Not all NOCs applied for all programmes, so the budget for a programme might be equitably divided among those who did. On the other hand, NOCs could apply for different programmes but could still be allocated equitable funding. It had been suggested that some NOCs have priority over others and received more funding, dependent on their level of need; some NOCs had the administrative skills to carry out the programme process while others did not, but still expected their share of the funding. On the other hand all NOCs in the continental programmes had access to the same budget but for diverse programmes, while the Olympic Games Subsidy was disbursed according to defined criteria, one of which was the number of athletes participating in the Games.

According to Stone (2002) the conception of equity is based on horizontal and vertical divisions, with the former meaning equal treatment for the same rank, (NOCs are all the same), and the latter related to unequal treatment of unequal ranks (some NOCs need more help than others). The change in allocation process suggests a move towards to more horizontal rather than vertical equity in the allocation of Olympic Solidarity programmes. In justifying the background for this change from a policy of partial restriction of specific programmes to a policy of equal access but not necessarily equal or equitable outcome, it was pointed out that Olympic Solidarity developed a more proactive strategy in relation to the NOCs who needed assistance. It was noted that the NOCs with the most need were less likely to approach Olympic

Solidarity for help, than NOCs that were well established and which had the manpower to carry out what was required for successful programmes.

if they are most in need they won't approach us, because they do not know what to do, they do not have the administrative structure to access help they need...if we want to fulfil our mission we need to go out and approach them (3)

We help the NOC to get what [it] is supposed to get...The idea is to try to find a way that they can get the same level of assistance from the programmes as an NOC which is well developed and has people, and has staff (4)

There was also the problem that a number of NOCs were not very active in the period between the Games, and as suggested by Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott "only emerge every four years with a view to symbolic participation in the Games" (2008:54).

We will go out to them and say, look [] you have not applied for any scholarships...Have you no athletes? You need to work together with your national federations; we want to help you to have some athletes training; we want to help you to qualify them [for] the Olympic Games (5)

We proactively push the developing NOCs, the small NOCs when we meet them. That is why we go to meet them, to visit them, to talk to them, because if we do not go and do that, they will not do anything; because the NOCs come from countries where nothing happens...they finally wake up before the Olympic Games (6)

It was also stated that when this change in policy was adopted, many NOCs believed that they were still not eligible for some of the programmes in question, such as the Olympic Athlete scholarships, so they did not apply. Through networking with other NOCs with successful applications, there was increased awareness that all NOCs could apply for all programmes. Some large NOCs even set up an office, or employed staff whose job was specifically to deal with Olympic Solidarity Programmes, and who eventually became experts on the subject in their own right. Many of the long meetings held with General Secretaries in the past were no longer held; the scenario had changed, often with delegation of responsibility to a 'technical director' working specifically on the Olympic Solidarity programmes at the NOC.

In the beginning they were not applying, and we thought they were not interested, or they do not need the funds, because in their understanding Olympic Solidarity was for developing countries...they found out...but it took ten years; it took some time... when the big NOCs get organised they will apply for everything (6)

However, it was argued that having a well-staffed large NOC was not a measure of competence in applying for programmes, since some NOC elections caused disruption with drastic changes in personnel impairing the efficiency of an NOC. It could go from applying for all programmes to not applying at all. Small NOCs might have only one, long-term, extremely efficient person who understands the process, and consequently did a very good job.

Some NOCs, definitely, they are applying for every programme, but there are only two people working there, but one has read the guidelines [and] understood it all (5)

Providing funding for programmes was not the only source of aid from Olympic Solidarity, and its response depended on what the NOCs wanted and asked for. Some NOCs from affluent countries did not have a well-developed sport structure; they asked for help to access facilities or organisations to benefit their officials, administrators or athletes. Olympic Solidarity provided an advisory service to these NOCs enabling them access at their own expense.

Sometimes NOCs ask...do you have any training centre? I don't know where. So we put them in contact and then they manage the financial aspect (4)

It was intimated that for the future, there was an intention to work with experts to construct more formalised and objective criteria with which to define which NOCs required the most help, and at the same time enable Olympic Solidarity staff to defend its choices.

Nevertheless, it was suggested that the portion of funds from the sale of the broadcasting rights allocated to the NOCs, were destined for all the NOCs, and none could be excluded. The diversity of the continents could instigate them to put forward justification as to why they should be allocated a larger portion of the funding.

Africa will say, we are the poorest; we got the least results and we need more help. Then Europe will say, well, we win 60% of the medals so we should get

60% of the money... Asia will say we have the most population and therefore we should get the most money...Oceania will say that we are so spread apart that we cannot manage to do this, so we should get more money. They all have their reasons (5)

Gender Equity

Notwithstanding that there were no written regulations specifying a requirement for gender equity in the distribution of Olympic Solidarity programmes, there was an implicit understanding that gender equity should be promoted.

Equity is something we try to promote with the NOCs. When we receive an application we try to balance. The reality is that there are [many] more applications for men than for women especially in some regions of the world...It is informal, we don't have a mechanism, we just do it. It's up to us (6)

It was explained that since both Presidents, Samaranch and Rogge, supported women in sport, this concept was included in some of the programme guidelines encouraging NOCs to include both men and women among the applicants.

If equity is part of the policy of the organisation, you should have at some stage, a certain amount of equity (8)

The participation of men in sporting activity and administration was still higher than that for women, so one interviewee felt it would be unfair to grant equal programmes to men and women. There were also still more male applicants particularly for athlete and coaching related programmes. The guidelines for the Technical Programme for Coaches contained the following statement for the 2009-2012 programmes.

For many years, the IOC and Olympic Solidarity have been active in promoting the role of women in sport. In turn, NOCs are also encouraged to ensure that women occupy key positions within their National Olympic Movement.

Consequently, Olympic Solidarity wishes to recommend, where possible, that between 10% and 20% (or more) women be selected to participate in each technical course for coaches. The objective is to promote universality and to guarantee equal opportunities for women in the field of sport be they as athletes, coaches or administrators (Olympic Solidarity, 2009c:84).

For the same quadrennial period 2009-2012, the Olympic Scholarships for Athletes “London 2012” programme, guidelines included the wording “The NOCs should make an effort to submit an equitable balance of male and female candidates (Olympic Solidarity, 2009d:38). It was pointed out that staff processed applications for women in certain areas more favourably, albeit upholding the technical level required, and not to the detriment of male applicants, since there were more applications for males anyway, “especially in certain regions of the world” (6). An NOC could be allocated an extra programme if the application was for a woman, and programmes in that category were still available.

For our programmes, when we receive a request from a woman we are more than pleased...we treat [it] as a priority...because we know from experience, that for a woman to become a Coach is really tough, and when she is a Coach to access a learning programme is very difficult (7)

On the other hand, one section manager explained that the Olympic Solidarity staff had no say in equitable distribution for the Olympic Values programmes, since guidelines for these programmes were set up by the separate Commissions that govern each Value programme. The seminars involved were organised by the International Cooperation and Development Programme Department; consequently Olympic Solidarity was only a financial partner in the activity. It was the Women and Sport Commission that promoted gender equity in the Olympic Movement and Olympic Solidarity staff attended the commission meetings, subsequently promoting gender equity to the NOCs.

5.5.9. Accountability

World Programmes

In the past, separate manual files for NOCs were adequate resources to enable staff to competently carry out their tasks. However, with the increase in programmes, as well as the number of NOCs, more sophisticated technology became essential for staff to garner information on what each NOC was doing.

The introduction of modern technology in the form of the Olympic Solidarity Information System (OSIS) enabled stakeholder access to on-going programme

distribution, ensuring a level of transparency and accountability in staff decision-making. Other technology helped with the filing and retrieval of information.

We have an accounting database, so all the money paid to all NOCs. We have this partner summary, which is a report from the database, which all NOCs can now access on the extranet. It gets updated every day (3).

The information system OSIS, contains all the information about all the sections, so we are able to see what is going on for NOCs all the time. (4)

For each activity there was a measure of control and follow up, so if an NOC defaulted on a programme, for whatever reason, Olympic Solidarity staff members were aware and could take action, by demanding reimbursement, or transfer of funds from other programmes or subsidies.

We are very strict on the follow-up, very, very, very strict (5)

They have to justify all the funds, they have procedures they have to follow; they know exactly how it works (4)

Defaulting NOCs could be prevented from applying for the same programmes, and at times for any programme at all, depending on the gravity of the misdemeanour. The programmes related to coaches were controlled directly by the International Federations, who were involved throughout the programme, dealing with the National Federations, approval of technical level of the coaches and athletes as well as the appointment of the experts to lead the courses.

The process is quite simple for us, because we are working with the IF, which is in contact with the National Federation for all the technical aspects. So only when the IF gives us the confirmation regarding that activity, [do] we give some payment (7)

Regular personal contact with coaches being trained in foreign countries ensured that participants returned to their countries to disseminate the knowledge they had acquired. The Olympic Solidarity programme gave them certification of an ability never previously acknowledged, even though they were very experienced Coaches.

The ongoing collaboration with the continental co-ordinators and the NOCs ensured a measure of accountability since it was their responsibility to know what was going on in all the NOCs under their responsibility, for whatever programme they were participating in.

It means that for Oceania, for all the NOCs in Oceania, I should know how they use the continental programmes, how they use my own programmes, but also how they use the programmes of the athletes, coaches and management. (8)

However, it was also suggested that there was not enough transparency and accountability on how the NOCs were utilising the funding received through the Olympic Solidarity Programmes, or whether the level of effectiveness of each of the programmes justified the cost. Although there were several measures of accountability of how the programmes are set up and allocated, not much was done to ensure that the money disbursed to the NOCs was spent where it should be. Furthermore, there was also the issue of continuity related to the training of coaches and administrators, and whether they were actually contributing to raising the level of sport structure and activity in their countries.

Olympic Solidarity did not progress this area strongly enough, and that was to audit the impact of the money and how it was being spent, so there was no real assessment for value for money (9)

It was explained that issues of accountability were sensitive issues that not many in the Olympic Movement were happy to tackle, in case the delicate balance of power between the NOCs and the IOC was jeopardised.

There is a sensitivity of the IOC, or Olympic Solidarity, or anyone, if you like, to saying anything critical against the NOCs. (9)

Although it was postulated that a number of NOCs would not have participated in the Games if their athletes had not been granted Olympic Solidarity Scholarships, jeopardising the concept of Universality of the Games, it was less clear whether the programmes allocated had contributed to raise the level of sport in their countries.

I think for Beijing, four or five NOCs [had] their delegation composed of athletes who were Olympic Solidarity holders, which means for some, in a sense, the programme helped...it shows that if these NOCs had no Olympic Solidarity Scholarship holders, they would not have gone to the Games. (4)

It was suggested that not enough was being done to verify whether the programmes were effective in achieving the aims for which they were being organised; but then again, there was a difference between just participating and competing, and possibly

for many the programmes simply ensured the former rather than the latter. It was suggested that autonomy could also be an issue on how the money was spent, in some countries where the government was involved with the NOC.

The ministry of youth and sport dominated all of sport right down to the local sports, but included the NOC with an office in the Ministry, one room in the Ministry; they had an apparatchik running the programme (9)

Continental Programmes

One of the interviewees intimated that following the first quadrennium of de-centralisation there were some issues regarding accountability of funds utilised by the continental associations, for which Olympic Solidarity was responsible to the Commission. Consequently guidelines and procedures were introduced, and offices for each continent were organised for communication with the International Office in Lausanne. It was “a person more than an office” (6) and agreements were made with the “juridically independent” (8) continental associations, clarifying how the funds could be used. It was noted that the NOC continental association boards, made up of a few NOCs, took decisions on which other NOCs among their group deserved to benefit from the Olympic Solidarity programmes. The continental co-ordinators did not have any decision-making power; they were what Mintzberg identifies as technocratic clerks (1979), just administering Board decisions and communicating with the Lausanne office.

The case of the African continental programmes was different. The Section Manager for ANOCA, who previously managed the organisation of their General Assembly for a number of years, ‘unofficially’ added the direct management of the continental programmes for Africa to her portfolio. She was aware of what was going on among the African NOCs because their long-standing relationship had created a high level of trust.

It allows us to keep a very clear picture actually of how that money is being used (5)

Staff members were aware of what was happening in Oceania, Europe and Asia; they were informed through various reports from their respective continental

associations. On the other hand, it was implied that this was not the case with the Americas, where the relationship with the continental association was a very different one. Since Mario Vasquez Rana was also the President of PASO, the Director of Olympic Solidarity took on a more active role in the coordination of continental programmes in the Americas. The continental co-ordinator was unable to provide any information, and the frequent use of the word 'should' by an interviewee indicated a level of the 'helplessness' being felt in being unable to be involved.

We get very little information from them; they are supposed to give us the information. We would have to go to the NOC to ask for information about PASO programmes because we would not get anything from PASO (3)

It was suggested that the increase in importance of the Continental Programmes was impacting the value of the World programmes, and concern was expressed about the lack of the clear guidelines set down for the Continental Programmes, in contrast with the regulations and procedures in force for the World Programmes. It was felt that the latter were being devalued every time the Continental Programmes were allocated an increase in budget. The budget has increased quadrennially both for the World Programmes and the Continental Programmes. The World Programmes budget was the higher of the two, but the gap between them had gradually decreased from US\$30 million for the period 2001-2004 to US\$12 million during 2009-2012.

Every time the continental programmes were getting more important the World Programmes were staying the same, which in theory meant they were getting less important, because you can do less with the same amount, because everything is going up (5)

Furthermore, the Association of European Olympic Committees (EOC) had, in turn, set up a fund to help the NOCs with greater needs. It was ironic that although the belief still persisted that some NOCs needed preferential access to Olympic Solidarity funding, the concept seemed more acceptable when the finance was controlled by continental associations (NOCs) rather than through Olympic Solidarity itself. Pressure by NOCs has resulted in the decreasing importance of progressive programme distribution to the NOCs through the international office in Lausanne, with an expansion of funding directly to the NOCs through the Continental Associations.

Although emulating the original aims and distribution policy of Olympic Solidarity, the financial control had become de-centralised to the continental association, with loyalties possibly being somewhat re-directed away from the IOC or Olympic Solidarity. Despite the controls put in by Olympic Solidarity international office, including the auditing of accounts by an independent auditor, the many facets of the continental programmes led to reports in different formats. This restricted the level of comparability between continents, consequently limiting transparency and accountability.

5.5.10. Omission

Even though major changes to the structure and governance of Olympic Solidarity occurred in 2001, some of which were prompted by the Commission 2000 recommendations, only three out of eight staff members commented on the Salt Lake City corruption scandals. One comment suggested that there was no impact on Olympic Solidarity, whilst the other comment was short and succinct. The fact that most did not mention the subject might suggest that there was a reluctance to move into areas of contention or negative impact.

Commission 2000, no real impact, change in leadership is only for two years.
What is the point to change an organisation that works (4)

The scandal of Salt Lake City has no link with the change of Olympic Solidarity, the change in the structure of Olympic Solidarity, because we were working outside from what happened, and there was no influence on Olympic Solidarity (8)

Not very much, as it should have done (9)

5.5.11. Deference and Motivation

The employees showed a high regard for the organisation, citing previous and current employees, as well as the Director, in the explanation of their life history in Olympic Solidarity. Comments were predominantly positive complimentary ones; citing important decisions, their skills or dedication, often referring to them as colleagues.

I should say that the knowledge of [5] is really impressive (7)

[] trusted me a lot, so I was taking decisions (6)

[] was very enthusiastic and she developed many things (2)

He was a very bright charismatic young character (9)

Those girls [sic] are doing a superb job (9)

So a very experienced and very wise person (2)

I am really satisfied with [] as manager, we always had a good relation[ship]
(4)

There was a sense of deference and motivation in the responses of the interviewees, and a culture of service in relation to their job as well as to the organisation itself. One of the interviewees expressed the feeling that the Olympic Movement was too important an organisation in which to aspire to get a job, but by joining through Olympic Solidarity it was less intimidating.

I thought that IOC was far too high, a degree where I cannot even think about that...so I must say that I did not enter the IOC from the big door, not in Vidi with the Olympic Rings, entering the big building. I was at Avenue La Gare in the Olympic Solidarity office; we were just nine at the time...it was probably simpler to enter through this door (7)

Other interviewees considered that they had been very lucky to have been accepted to work with Olympic Solidarity and felt optimistic in that they were giving a good service to the NOCs. The majority of the interviewees stated that were very happy with their job; some had undertaken additional tasks just to be able to keep the part of the job they loved.

To be honest it is not my favourite thing, I like my programmes, I like my fields, but I have to do that (6)

Although the organisation had undergone change in structure, policy and human resources, it was felt the experienced staff had managed to retain the feeling that Olympic Solidarity was something special. As the organisation expanded, more people got involved and daily interaction decreased. Although this feeling or spirit was diluted, and not felt to the same degree as it was in the past, it was still pervaded throughout Olympic Solidarity

With [] and I, I think because we were still strong enough personalities to keep that feeling of Olympic Solidarity being something special, and we could keep that going. (5)

Most of the interviewees had moved up the ladder through promotion; motivation and loyalty were high on the agenda suggesting that even though one was promoted and had additional responsibilities, the commitment to the service was the same.

I did not change I hope, the way I talk to the NOCs. I did not change. I still do the same thing, no matter if I am the manager or the project officer. I do what I can do to serve the NOCs the best I can (6)

[The Director] offered me to do an internship for a couple of months and I am still here (7)

Mintzberg suggests that, as experienced in a professional bureaucracy, “the complexity of the work and the satisfaction of applying accomplished skills”, keeps professionals motivated (Mintzberg 1979, 79). Two of the interviewees with major responsibilities, insisted that despite being in the job for over twenty years they were still very motivated and positive about working with Olympic Solidarity. There is a sense of commitment and dedication to the job, but always with the underlying premise that if things did not work, they would be changed, or should be changed; continually striving to be better equipped to provide a service but with the added benefit of being able to see improvements in the NOCs.

It is a fascinating job...because every day you are dealing with the whole world. If you are interested in sport, which I suppose most of us are but I am particularly, to see the progress that is made (5)

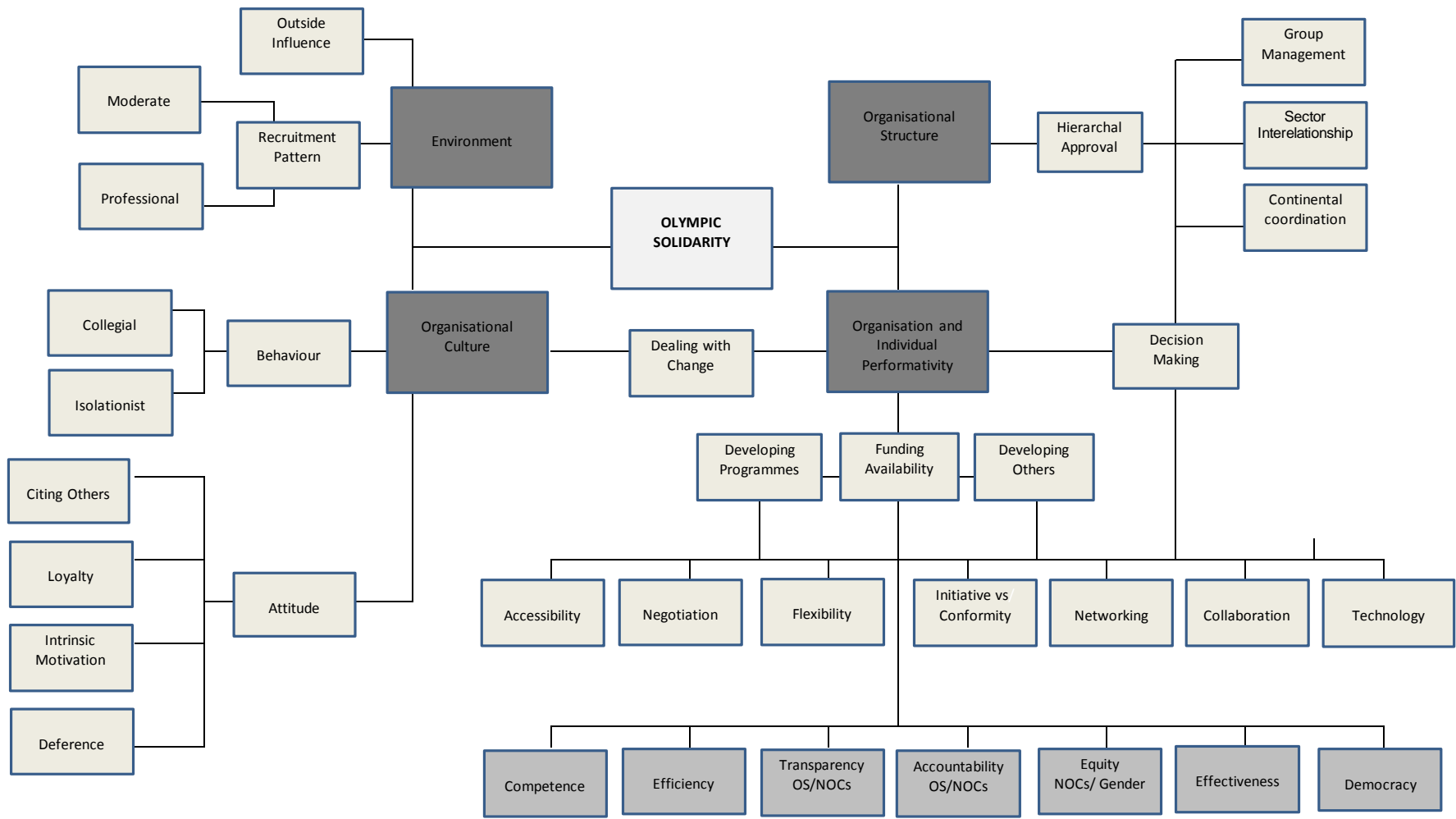


Figure 40 Thematic Coding of Interview Data - Primary and Secondary Codes

5.6. Interview Analysis - Secondary Themes

Thematic areas linked to the different transcripts were then mapped out and cross-checked, creating a thematic structure which identified four clear over-arching second order themes related to analysis of the life histories of the interviewees under second order themes which 'order' first order themes into a framework which operates at a more abstract and theory oriented level. The decision as to which second order themes to adopt is a qualitative judgement the 'validity' of which (or its equivalent in active terms) is to be judged by the warrantability (Wood and Kroger, 2000) or 'reasonableness' of the argument which follows.

Figure 40 indicates how the primary themes have been analysed and grouped.

1. Organisational Environment
2. Organisational Structure
3. Organisational Culture (Behaviour/Attitude)
4. Organisational and individual Performativity

5.6.1. Organisational Environment

The organisational environment can be conceptualised along a range of dimensions: political, economic, ideological and cultural. The commentary which follows reflects on the significance of these dimensions as reflected in their first order themes. From the interviews we know that in the 1970s Olympic Solidarity was a fund rather than an organisation. During the period 1963 to 1980, the independence of British and French Colonies contributed to the recognition of fifty new NOCs particularly from Africa, Asia and America. There was a big divide between the sporting development of the recently recognised NOCs in the periphery, and the established ones in the core, which had instigated the concept of sport aid to be sourced for the 'developing' NOCs. It was explained that there was not much direction on how the funding available to Olympic Solidarity was going to be divided or distributed.

The IOC had imposed a distribution ratio for the television rights starting from the 1972 Games, with two thirds destined for the Organising Committee, and the other third being equally divided between the IOC, the IFs and the NOCs (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008). The interviewee (9) added that the Tripartite Commission was still responsible for the distribution of funds, and although the IFs had their share,

there was uncertainty on how the funding would be allocated among the NOCs. There was not much structure to the courses on offer; the NOC requests were very varied, and content of the courses was set up by the people organising them. During that time Olympic Solidarity programmes were being managed, from a small office at CONI in Rome.

The interviewee noted that when the Director, Edward Wieczorek, left abruptly in 1977, responsibility for the funds, which were allocated to the NOCs, went back to the IOC to be administered by Madame Berlioux, the IOC Director, and 1979 Olympic Solidarity moved to an office in Malley in Lausanne (Olympic Solidarity 1993). The interviewee suggested that this upheaval came at a time when the IOC was under pressure because of the boycotts at the Moscow Games. The fiscal disaster of the Montreal Games also had a strong impact on the IOC; “it had less than half a million dollars in the bank” (Kellerman, 2004:59). Lord Killanin finished his term of office in 1980. Juan Antonio Samaranch became IOC President, and made several changes to the IOC administration by nominating several directors. He also took over the Chairmanship of the Olympic Solidarity Commission which took full responsibility for Olympic Solidarity in 1982. In 1983 Anselmo Lopez, a friend of Samaranch, and member of the Spanish NOC, took office as Director of Olympic Solidarity, after which Madame Berlioux was no longer involved with its funding. Samaranch’s election also came at a time of new technology – television (Kellerman, 2004).

The Olympic Solidarity moved office to Avenue De La Gare in September 1983. It was presumed that the decision by Mr Lopez for a quadrennial plan came as a consequence of the increased funding allocated to Olympic Solidarity. In fact, the budget for 1985-1988 was US\$28,359,000, and despite the initial setbacks caused by the boycotts and inability to use public funds for the Games, the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics were a great financial success, paving the way for an increased interest in staging the Games, and the start of more lucrative funding through the Broadcasting rights.

One of the interviewees (9) claimed that, as part of the Itinerant school, international sports directors mostly nominated by European NOCs, and who spoke English,

French or Spanish, travelled to Africa, Asia and America to carry out courses for NOCs that had been earmarked for aid. Another interviewee (1) explained that the courses, held between 1986 and 1996, were not easy to carry out and issues of safety, security and communication did arise. After a selection event for volunteers in Bisham Abbey, the interviewee was informed by telex where and when he had to go: he had no say in the matter. Tribal wars, and the danger of religious and political conflict made some visits difficult “there was trouble brewing...You could feel it” (1). Some NOCs were safer to visit, while others were organised but unaware of Olympic philosophy. Besides, communication was still a big issue, and they never knew what to expect. Eventually the programme developed into training National Sports Directors who would carry out the programmes in their own country. From 1992 the IOC was able to control negotiation for the broadcasting contracts starting with the 1992 Barcelona Games (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008). Apart from other NOCs being recognised by the IOC, the collapse of the Soviet-bloc resulted in eighteen new NOCs from Eastern Europe and Asia, so that by the end of 1992 there were 187 recognised NOCs.

It was suggested that the resignation of Anselmo Lopez as well as the advent of increased funding instigated changes in the Olympic Solidarity structure, with the introduction of a new Director Pere Miro in 1997. Unlike Mr Lopez, Mr Miro did not come from an NOC; he was a professional who had previously worked as IOC Technical Director. It was stated that by this time the small organisation had been steadily built up and there were quite a few programmes on offer. The increase in funding might be explained by the fact that starting from 1996, the IOC share of funds obtained from the sale of Broadcasting Rights increased to 40% (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008). Olympic Solidarity restructured its internal operations, employing more staff and standardising work, in order to provide a better service to an increased number of NOCs (200) through an expanded variety of options. Such as response to the changing environment in line with for example Mintzberg’s (1979) account that suggests that mechanical bureaucracies with standardisation of tasks are likely to develop out of simpler organisational forms, as stability in the environment develops. Certainly the improvement in the funding position provided greater stability. Thus the nature of the organisation was changing. Part of the learning curve for new employees was perceived to be acquiring knowledge about

the politics of the Olympic Movement with all its specificity and how it works, as well as how to provide a good service to NOCs with different cultures spread out across five continents.

The Salt Lake City Scandals do not seem to have made much of an impact on the Olympic Solidarity employees, most of whom did not mention it, and the few that did, stated that it did not affect the internal workings of the organisation. This attitude seems rather strange, considering that these scandals also involved members of the Olympic Solidarity Commission some of whom were expelled. Furthermore a number of recommendations issued by the Commission 2000 were targeted directly at Olympic Solidarity. Thus although the organisation had achieved financial stability, and although interviewees were not necessarily aware of the significance of the charges brought about by the scandals, there was external evidence of response to change. The upheaval in both structure and service of Olympic Solidarity, in 2001, was overwhelmingly accorded by interviewees not to the political context but to the advent of increased funding. However, Kellerman (2004) suggests that by the time Samaranch had resigned, the reputation of the IOC had become badly tarnished, and this undoubtedly added pressure to the need for Olympic Solidarity to professionalise, ensure 'good governance' and subsequently to decentralise its operation.

In the year 2000, Juan Antonio Samaranch handed over the IOC Presidency to Jacques Rogge, who had been a member of the Olympic Solidarity Commission since 1989. An interviewee (7) suggested Jacques Rogge was perceived to be more of a manager in comparison to Samaranch who was seen to be more of a politician. Simson and Jennings suggest "he was more than a politician, he was a statesman" (1992:233). A number of interviewees stated that the decentralisation of funds to the continental NOC associations was possible because of the increase in funding, but it was also believed that this decentralisation of funds, a process which had also been recommended by the Commission 2000, was also related to the appointment of Mario Vasquez Rana as Chairman.

This reform – symbolically important - coincided with a strategic move to distribute funds on a continental level under the aegis of the continental

associations of NOCs. The idea was to give more responsibility to the NOCs regarding how the funds are controlled, and less to the IOC. (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008:56)

Olympic Solidarity moved to a larger office at Villa Mon Repos, with recruitment of further staff and reconfiguration to a complex working structure enabling Olympic Solidarity to cope with the increased workload brought about through the increased World programmes and the decentralisation of funds. By 2004 the IOC share from the Broadcasting rights had increased to 51%. substantially incrementing revenue for the IOC (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008) and consequently for Olympic Solidarity. It was elaborated that in 2005, in order to ensure more accountability, Olympic Solidarity created five continental offices for direct co-ordination of continental programmes with the Lausanne office. In fact the quadrennial plan for 2005-2008 also states that visits would be made to the NOCs in this regard.

Regular inspection visits will be made to NOCs in all continents and to their Continental Associations in order to ensure that the programmes and financial resources made available to them are being used in accordance with the objectives for which they were approved. Transparent handling of funds is an essential condition of the work of Olympic Solidarity at all levels 2005 (Olympic Solidarity, 2005b:2)

The structure of Olympic Solidarity and its policy were thus influenced by the environment in which it operated and evolved in relation to the demands from that environment; it adapted to change, moving from a simple structure (Mintzberg 1979) with a 'part-time' Director and a small number of multi-tasking staff, to a full time professional Director with a myriad of skilled staff; from a small organisation with a limited budget, to one distributing millions of dollars of sports aid worldwide. The gradual increase in funding, the changing scenario of world politics, the influence of different Presidents, IOC policy change, the increasing diversity of NOCs, the demand for accountability, and the introduction of new technology were all part of the changing environment of the organisation (Slack and Parent, 2006).

5.6.2. Organisational Structure

Mintzberg, in his influential work on organisational structures and values, identifies a number of ideal-type configurations (Table 39), suggesting that “the structure of an organisation can be defined simply as the sum total of the ways in which it divides its labour into distinct tasks and then achieves coordination among them” (1979:2), but organisational structure could also include the relationships between employees and the “co-ordinating and controlling mechanisms used” in the organisation (Slack and Parent, 2006:6). Mintzberg (1979) argued that organisations were made up of five parts: the operating core, the strategic apex, the middle line, the technostructure and the support staff. The dominating part would determine which one of his proposed ideal ‘design configurations’ the organisation would take: the simple structure, the machine bureaucracy, the professional bureaucracy, the divisionalised form, or the adhocracy. He also suggested that five coordinating mechanisms, or basic elements of structure, could be used to explain how organisations coordinate their work: mutual adjustment, direct supervision, standardisation of work processes, standardisation of outputs, and standardisation of skills (Mintzberg, 1979). Mutual adjustment was a simple mechanism for the coordination of work through informal communication. As staff increased, individuals would be given responsibility for a group of people, issuing instructions and supervising the group’s performance. However, standardised work where the workload was specified could be carried out without mutual adjustment or supervision if it required predetermined skills and standards. Outputs were not standardised despite the expectation of particular products or performances. Standardisation of skills was related to the qualifications or expertise that enhanced the workforce with a level of autonomy and decision-making.

As organisational work becomes more complicated, the favoured means of coordination seems to shift...from mutual adjustment to direct supervision to standardisation, preferably of work processes, otherwise of outputs, or else of skills, finally reverting back to mutual adjustment (Mintzberg, 1979:7)

During the various stages of its development, Olympic Solidarity during the early years (1982-1996), showed a range of characteristics clearly related to Mintzberg’s

(1979) ideal type of the 'simple' structure. Moving through the transitional period (1996-2000), and the restructured period (2001-2008) we see evidence of a transition towards some of the characteristics of the three more developed configurations mainly the mechanical bureaucracy, the divisionalised structure, and the professional bureaucracy.

Mutual Adjustment

In its early days all Olympic Solidarity staff undertook more or less all types of work. The interviewees employed at the time stated that everyone did a bit of everything, with tasks allocated informally among the staff. However, it was explained that, on his appointment Anselmo Lopez set about giving Olympic Solidarity a structure. This intention was also evident from the Olympic Solidarity reports

1983 brought with it the beginning of the future new administrative organisation. Its application basically consisted of the gradual introduction of principles usually applied in companies, i.e. decentralisation, rationalisation and greater individual responsibility for particular fields of activity, together with the necessary coordination (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a:18).

It was stated that he disagreed with the diversity of content of the Olympic Solidarity courses "he could not have different people going all over the place with different agendas and different curricula" (9). Instead of bringing one representative from various NOCs to a common venue he preferred to send sports directors to the NOCs. International Federations provided 'experts' and became responsible for technical aspects of the programmes. From 1983, Olympic Solidarity changed the way it worked; annual budgets were set up which from 1985 evolved into budgets on a quadrennial basis. The development of new programmes was however perceived to be more spontaneous; programmes would be initiated by the Director when more funding was available; thus although there was central guidance by Olympic Solidarity for the content of programmes, there was no strategic plan in relation to the development of the range and focus of courses. By 1992, its four employees covered different tasks: the Head of Department would be responsible for secretarial work, an accountant for finance, while two Executive assistants, sharing an almost equal number of the NOCs would administer the programmes.

Standardisation of Work

With the advent of the new Director, Pere Miro, in 1997, intense formalisation of procedures, with documented guidelines for the administration of programmes, saw a shift in the organisation from what Mintzberg (1979) referred to as a 'simple' structure, to more of a 'machine bureaucracy'. An interviewee explained that advisory boards or groups of experts were consulted, and guidelines were set up for both the NOCs and the staff to clarify what was being done and why. The increased workload led to the recruitment of young graduates to assist the experienced staff in each of the four functional areas; with the introduction of a Project Manager for each section, employees used to working on their own were each faced with the prospect of training and working with another person, sharing tasks to cover a specific administrative area. Formalisation, which might differ between hierarchical levels, was concerned with people's behaviour, and the "extent to which mechanisms such as rules and regulations, job descriptions and policies and procedures govern the operation" (Slack and Parent, 2006:67) of an organisation.

Standardisation of Skills

In 2001, the quadri-sectional grouping was retained, but reconfigured, so that each section would be guided by function and market, as a result of which the characteristics of the organisation were more in line with those of what Mintzberg (1979) suggested was a 'professional bureaucracy'. Although some of the Section Managers had additional responsibilities, each section was departmentalised with a specific number of tasks:

1. Working with NOCs worldwide on a particular area of the World Programmes,
2. Responsibility for NOCs from one or two continents
3. Coordination with the Continental Associations for Continental Programmes
4. Development of the Olympic Solidarity World programmes.

Henry and Theodoraki suggest that the as organisations become larger "the more likely they are to require subdivision of duties and responsibilities to remain effective", and would be expected to operate in a more standardised manner with more formalised objectives; maintaining standards through employing more professional staff (Henry and Theodoraki, 1994:251).

Table 38 Dimensions of Mintzberg's Five Structural Configurations proposed as 'ideal' types of organisations*

	Simple Structure	Machine Bureaucracy	Professional Bureaucracy	Divisionalised Form	Adhocracy
Key coordinating Mechanism	Direct Supervision	Standardisation of Work	Standardisation of Skills	Standardisation of outputs	Mutual Adjustment
Key part of Organisation	Strategic Apex	Technostructure	Operating Core	Middle Line	Support staff, operating core in Op. Admin.)
Design Parameters:					
Specialisation	Little	<i>Much horizontal/vertical</i>	<i>Much horizontal</i>	Some horiz. and vert. between div. and HQ	Much horizontal
Training/Indoctrination	Little	Little	<i>Much</i>	training/indoctrination (of div. managers)	Much training
Formalisation of behaviour	Little formalisation	<i>Much formalisation</i>	Little formalisation	Much formalisation (in divisions)	Little formalisation
bureaucratic/organic	<i>organic</i>	<i>bureaucratic</i>	<i>bureaucratic</i>	bureaucratic	organic
Grouping	Usually Functional	<i>Usually functional</i>	Functional and market	<i>Market</i>	<i>Functional and market</i>
Unit size	Wide	Wide bottom, narrow elsewhere	Wide at bottom	Wide (at top)	<i>Narrow throughout</i>
Planning and Control	Little	Action planning	Little	<i>Much performance control</i>	Limited action
Liasion devices	Few	Few	In administration	Few	<i>Many throughout</i>
Decentralisation	<i>Centralisation</i>	<i>Limited horizontal</i>	<i>Horizontal/vertical</i>	<i>Limited vertical descent</i>	<i>Selective descent</i>
Functioning:					
Strategic apex	All administrative work	Fine tuning, coordination of functions, conflict resolution	External liaison, conflict resolution	Strategic portfolio, performance control	External liaison, conflict resolution work balance, project monitoring
Operating core	Informal work with little discretion	routine, formalised work with little discretion	Skilled, standardised work, much individual autonomy	Tendency to formalise due to divisionalisation	Truncated or merged with administration to do informal work
Middle Line	Insignificant	Elaborated, differentiated, conflict resolution, staff liaison, support vert. flows	Controlled by professionals, much mutual adjustment	Formulation of division strategy, managing operations	Extensive but blurred with staff involved in project work
Technostructure	None	Elaborated to formalise work	Little	Elaborated at HQ for control	Small, blurred within middle in project work

Support staff	small	often elaborated to reduce uncertainty	Elaborated to support professionals; MB structure	Split between HQ and divisions	Highly elaborated, but Blurred within middle in project work
Flow of authority	significant from top	significant throughout	Insignificant	Significant throughout	Insignificant
Flow of regulated system	Insignificant	Significant throughout	Insignificant	Significant throughout	Insignificant
Flow of informal communication	Significant	Discouraged	Significant in admin.	Insignificant	Significant throughout
Work constellations	None	Insignificant, especially at lower levels	Some in admin.	Insignificant	Significant throughout
Flow of decision-making	Top down	Top down	Bottom up	Differentiated between HQ and divisions	Mixed, all levels
Contingency Factors:					
Age and Size	Typically young/small	Typically old/large	Varies	Typically old, very large	Typically young
Technical system	Simple, not regulating	Regulating but not automated; not very sophisticated	Not regulating or sophisticated	Divisible, otherwise like Machine .Bureaucracy.	Very sophisticated often automated (Adm. Ad); not regulating or sophisticated(Op. Ad)
Environment	Simple and dynamic, sometimes hostile	Simple and stable	Complex and stable	Relatively simple and stable, diversified markets	complex and dynamic;
Power	Chief Executive control, often owner, managed	Technocratic and external	Professional operator	Middle line control	Expert control
Status	Not fashionable	Not fashionable	Fashionable	Fashionable	Very fashionable
*italic type designates key parameter					

(Mintzberg, 1979:466-467)

Staff skills were departmentalised into a matrix structure of responsibilities which was set up on what Hoye et al. suggest were the “basis of functions, products or services, processes, geography or customer type, with a division of labour dependent on the scope of each unit” (2012:102). Although this type of grouping (Table 40) might be considered closely indicative of the divisionalised structure (Mintzberg, 1979), the sections did not involve completely different tasks or outcomes, neither did they function totally independently.

Table 39 Vertical and Horizontal Co-ordination with NOCs

	Programme Administration and Development/NOCs	Africa	America	Asia	Europe	Oceania
Section 1	Coaches	Responsibility Section 1			Responsibility Section 1	
Section 2	Athletes			Responsibility Section 2		
Section 3	NOC Management		Responsibility Section 3			
Section 4	Olympic Values					Responsibility Section 4

It was explained that a large diversity existed between the NOCs on the same continent, as well as between continents; the World programme areas covered Athletes, Coaches, NOC Management and Olympic Values targeting different stakeholders in the Olympic Movement; they were different and required specialised expertise. While each section was responsible for NOCs from one or two continents, all the staff worked with all the NOCs for the World programme in their section. As one interviewee explained:

You are responsible for [continent], but everybody else works with them (3)

The interviewees stated that although each section had similar overall tasks on which staff worked autonomously as a group, and “each one of the section members has his own responsibilities so it’s clear who does what” (4), allocation of tasks in each section was different, and adapted according to the competencies of the staff in that group; skills included experience, knowledge about the programmes, individual language skills and technical expertise. The Section Managers still performed similar

tasks carried out by other members in their group, and particularly for Africa, “because they knew me and they trusted me” (5) the Head of Section directly administered the Continental Programmes budget in addition to her other responsibilities. Thus the organisation moved from direct supervision to skills-based responsibility, where tasks were formalised (bureaucratisation) but the manner of performing tasks was left open, trusting the skills of the individuals. Thus this represents aspects of professional bureaucracy where neither outcomes nor methods are standardised but training, skills and competencies are to some degree standardised.

Centralisation/Decentralisation in Decision-making

During the early years, the interviewees insisted that a degree of mutual trust enabled the staff members to administer their tasks independently, but the Director had the final say in decision-making. It was claimed that the Olympic Solidarity Commission, and particularly as Chairman of the Commission, Samaranch was involved in its daily affairs; holding regular meetings in Lausanne with the Director and some of the staff. Although some voluntary ‘technical’ experts proposed by the NOCs were involved in carrying out some courses, most of the decisions related to programmes were taken within the organisation. The interviewee confirmed that during the transitional period, the meetings between IOC President and the new Director continued, and advisory boards and experts were introduced, contributing to the adjustment or change to ongoing programmes. During this period, even though decision-making was still fundamentally hierarchical in structure, decisions were often taken after consultation with staff.

There was agreement between some interviewees that the appointment of the new Chairman created a change in the dynamic of the organisation, since he was not directly involved with the staff, but trusted the Director with the responsibility of managing the organisation. Although, Project Managers had been appointed during the quadrennial period 1997-2000, their ‘supervision’ involved collaboration within the sections in the division of tasks, rather than a hierarchical type of control within the groups. The interviewees emphasised that programme guidelines and regulations, together with a mix of experience, academic qualification, and training enabled the staff to take individual decisions on programme allocation in their section,

depending on the complexity of the task. Difficult situations would be discussed within the group; or transversally with other sections if problematic situations arose about NOCs or programmes that were the responsibility of the other sections. The move from vertical (hierarchical) authority, to more horizontal decision-making within the groups, thus enabled Olympic Solidarity staff to take informed decisions related to their tasks, as well as contribute to overall implementation of the aims of the organisation, suggesting that Olympic Solidarity had moved towards becoming a more decentralised decision-making organisation in an effort to become more efficient in the delivery of its programmes.

Regret was expressed that as the sections worked autonomously the amount of interaction between them decreased; liaison devices, such as the G5 and the G21, which met on a regular basis, contributed to the complexity of the organisation. This complexity was related to how the organisation was divided into units and subunits with a hierarchy of authority and how these were differentiated: horizontally, vertically or spatially, with committees, rules, procedures and management information systems introduced to manage the increasing complexity (Slack and Parent, 2006). Vertical differentiation, often assumed to represent the hierarchy of authority, was present in the decision-making structure. It was explained that the outcome of discussions held by the G21, which included all the staff, would subsequently be discussed within the different sections, and subsequently by the Section Managers together with the Director forming the G5. Proposals would then be made by the Director for approval by the Commission, which was in turn accountable to the IOC Executive. Thus hierarchy in the chain of command was still evident in the approval of proposals involved within these groups.

However, the perception among some interviewees was that, although all proposals had to be approved hierarchically, it was actually the staff that had the major influence on what programmes would be proposed and why, since they were the ones with the knowledge of how the system worked. On the other hand, they were aware that the decentralisation of funding to the continental associations entailed the 'abdication', by the Olympic Solidarity Lausanne office, of *responsibility* for the organisation of the continental programmes but not of their *accountability*. The Executive Boards of the respective continental associations decided on which NOC

requests would be approved, and although some reports were submitted, the decision-making process was perceived to be unclear.

Mintzberg (1979) adheres to the notion that centralisation is primarily related to the power to take decisions and where that power was located. In Olympic Solidarity this power was perceived to be in the hands of the Olympic Solidarity staff but was also contingent on which area of their multiple tasks their decisions were related to; some employees had more power than others in particular areas such as finance and human resources. It was suggested that being the Director or Section Manager also entailed more decision-making capability because the position entailed more responsibilities. Employees took decisions on tasks in their sections, while contributing to those taken by others, adhering to the notion that an organisation was hardly ever entirely centralised or decentralised, both of these concepts operating, to varying degrees, in its organisational structure (Hoye et al., 2012). The organisation moved from a centralised 'simple' structure where the Director was responsible for decision-making, to one with different degrees of vertical and horizontal decentralisation of decision-making, which adheres to the characteristics of the professional bureaucracy in Mintzberg's (1979) concept of ideal types of organisations.

Figure 41 gives an indication of the structure of Olympic Solidarity together with its decision-making groupings. The areas representing the sections include a continental association with the number of NOCs each section is directly responsible for. The sections are also responsible for one of the areas of the World Programmes, where each works with all the NOCs. The Section Managers together with the Director make up the G5, whilst all the staff members make up the G21. The Director is a member of the Olympic Solidarity Commission, and some programmes require the involvement of the International Federations. Although sections work autonomously, transversal co-operation between sectors was used when necessary which was a characteristic usually found in the organisational configuration of an 'adhocracy' (Mintzberg, 1979).

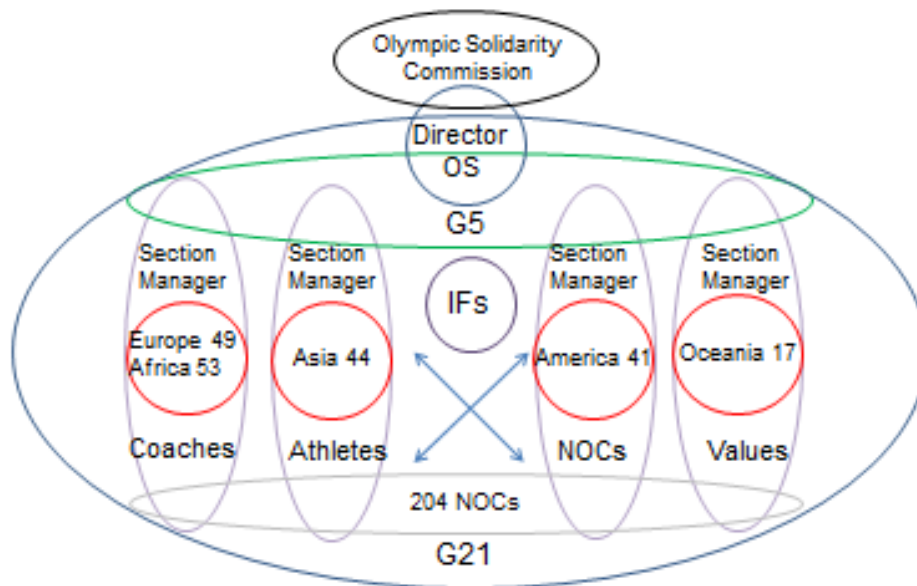


Figure 41 Span of Responsibility and Decision-making

Information Technology

During the period 1982-1996, the organisation was considered by an interviewee as a pioneer in the Olympic Movement because it had a 'data processing system' to manage finance and activities however most of the administration was done manually, with paperwork cleared on a daily basis. The Olympic Solidarity reports were published with extensive details and individual programme descriptions, but external communication was still a significant issue. The sports environment was still very different, with many fewer NOCs, and high levels of inequality in the development levels of the NOCs from different continents.

The interviews revealed that during the transitional period, communication with NOCs was still being done by fax; a time consuming process entailing long waiting periods of uncertainty. Contact was still difficult particularly in what were considered at the time NOCs with the greater need, in Africa, Asia and America. This was partially due to the lack of technology, but also some reluctance on the part of some

of the NOCs to embrace technology. A programme to supply IT was available, but it seemed that some NOCs did not have the administrative capability to use it or just did not want to use it. However, many NOCs made use of the Olympic Solidarity Information Technology programme, and by the end of this period most NOCs had a computer, an email address and access to the internet.

During the quadrennium 2001-2004, most interviewees agreed that the introduction of improved information technology systems enhanced communication and accessibility to all stakeholders including NOCs and continental associations. The Olympic Solidarity Information System (OSIS) was an accounting system which provided analytical, financial and technical information about the programmes. The Extranet enabled all NOCs to access their own programme allocations, continental associations to access those for the NOCs in their continent, and Olympic Solidarity staff to see everything. Live link was a filing system; most correspondence with NOCs was carried out electronically, and records were stored online, so it was no longer deemed necessary to publish comprehensive details in the annual reports. It was suggested that access to technology also impacted the decision-making process within the organisation. Although the vertical chain of command established authority and responsibility for each position within the organisation, the increased use of information technology and ease of communication within all levels of the organisation had made the principles for this line of authority less relevant (Hoye et al., 2012).

Through the responses of the interviewees and the inferences to the Olympic Solidarity structure, areas in common with Mintzberg's (1979)'s various design configurations could be identified. Olympic Solidarity had a very small technostructure, since the rules and regulations were set up by members of staff in consultation with 'experts' in the field as the need arose. Its staff-support was made up of individuals such as technical officials and lecturers, proposed by IFs, NOCs or IOC Commissions, who would be involved in the programmes. Although the individuals in the separate sections were 'supervised' by the section managers whose performance was in turn 'overseen' by the Olympic Solidarity Commission, the commission was not involved in the day to day operations of the organisation, and it was perceived that the staff members were the people with the wider

knowledge about how the organisation worked and consequently took responsibility for most of the administration related to the Olympic Solidarity programmes.

As a small organisation in the early years, Olympic Solidarity started off with what Mintzberg (1979) suggests was a simple structure. With the formalisation of work processes it began to manifest aspects of Mintzberg's (1979) Machine Bureaucracy, which, with increased resources staff and programmes, underwent further restructuring subsequently also developing traits of a Professional Bureaucracy, in which the standardisation of skills commanded particular importance, even though the separation of staff into semi-autonomous groups tended towards the divisionalised form. It is not uncommon for an organisation to be developing from one type into another; whilst some organisations with a hybrid structure might simultaneously have characteristics of more than one type (Slack and Parent, 2006). Mintzberg suggests that the professional bureaucracy is democratic, "disseminating power directly to its workers", while giving them extensive autonomy to perfect their skills without interference (1979:371) while intercommunication, similar to what happens in an adhocracy enables it to develop innovation to new contingencies.

5.6.2. Performativity

Performativity was the term given to describe the extent to which the competencies and work procedures of the Olympic Solidarity staff enabled them to administer the distribution of Olympic Solidarity programmes in a manner that reflected 'good' organisational governance. This related in particular to the expected efficient and effective allocation of programmes and resources to all NOCs whether it is through the World Programmes or the Continental Programmes, and consequently the fulfilment of its aims. The interview analysis has shown how Olympic Solidarity has adapted its performance in order to cope with its changing environment and increasing workload. It was recounted how, during its early years, limited funding restricted the number and variety of programmes. The small number of multi-tasking staff were allocated areas of administration, and through allocation of tasks managed to service the few NOCs recognised at the time, in particular those that had recently joined the Olympic Movement. With the introduction of better technology, communication was improved, and staff became more accessible; transparency automatically ensured accountability as well as enabling the staff to foster a measure

of equitable distribution of World programmes. As the use of television increased world wide, so too did income from the sale of the TV broadcasting rights, paralleled with a rising number of programme options.

The interviewees suggested that the diversity between the 204 NOCs was huge, not only in the level of sporting development, but also in size, administrative competence, technological accessibility, affluence and culture. Differences varied between continents, as well as within each continent. The interviewees suggested that the fact that the employees were multi-lingual and multi-national also contributed to the efficiency of action, and as more individuals with different backgrounds and skill sets interacted, 'social specialisation' (Robbins, 1990) increased the organisational complexity. Learning about the diverse cultures of the NOCs, achieved through visits and networking, was also deemed essential for the job

They insisted that the allocation of tasks to the different sectors during the transition period, and the standardisation of skills in the reconfigured quadrisectional structure during the latter two quadrennia, enabled each member of staff to concentrate on particular areas of the Olympic Solidarity service tasks. Each section could concentrate on the NOCs from a particular continent, visiting them and getting to know them better, subsequently they were able to adapt and provide programmes that were closer to needs of these NOCs. The quadrennial evaluation of the World programmes by the NOCs ensured feedback on what did or did not work. Programmes could be changed or improved, allowing for ongoing adaptation to the changing environment and its needs.

Since there was a limit to the amount of work any person could perform, by concentrating their attention on one area of the World programmes the staff in each section were able to improve their skills in that area, enabling them to work more autonomously and consequently more efficiently, while regular access to colleagues who were 'experts' other areas, allowed for transfer of knowledge from one section to another. Specialisation enabled staff to become more skilled in delivery of their World Programme; inductive learning increased their knowledge of NOCs requirements, while at the same time, retaining accessibility to inter-sectional consultation as the need arose, for better efficiency and effectiveness in delivery.

Efficiency is a way of assessing the values of different methods of achieving a goal through “allocations of resources that yield the most value for society from existing resources” (Stone, 2002:61).

The setting up of guidelines and procedures on how the programmes were allocated and organised, ensured uniformity, transparency and accountability for all NOCs on an equal footing; everyone knew what was expected from them. This standardisation also gave staff the justification for their decisions. Although equity was not specifically outlined in written terms, but appeared as a recommendation in the guidelines for some programmes, an intrinsic belief that it was a value supported by the IOC, encouraged staff to promote it; whether it was related to the number of programmes allocated, or the diversity of the individual applicants. The interviewees stated that all members of staff contributed to the decision-making process, by contributing to the outputs from each section; and in particular for the development of programmes by being involved in the G21 meetings for all staff; as well as through their section managers in the G5 meetings. The Director was part of both the G5 and the Olympic Solidarity Commission.

It was emphasised that the gradual introduction of improved information technology helped to streamline the work process. Financial, technical and analytical information on the system outlined what everyone was doing and what programmes each NOC was involved with. It also increased the level of communication worldwide, reaching most NOCs on the web and giving them access to information and to the staff associated with the allocation of their programmes. Nevertheless, some NOCs were still reluctant to fully embrace technology. In 2001, it was decided that online storage of records justified the decreased level of detailed information available in the quadrennial reports, and despite the extensive information available about the organisation of different World programmes, it was intimated that not enough effort was made to ensure that funds allocated to NOCs were used in the manner they were set out to be used. It was inferred that there was a reluctance of the part of Olympic Solidarity, to delve too deep into the workings of the NOCs, particularly when something might be going amiss. Although all the decisions and allocations regarding the World programmes were guided by strict procedures, there was concern about the lack of transparency and possible conflict of interest in the

management of the Continental programmes, with funding allocations being made by the Executive Boards of the Continental Associations. Furthermore, not all continental reports were being provided.

An appropriately functioning governance system assures stakeholders that the organisation in which they have invested time, effort or their reputations, is subject to adequate internal checks and balances, and that the people empowered to make decisions on behalf of the organisation act in the best interests of the organisation and its stakeholders (Hoye and Cuskelly, 2007:3)

The analysis of the life-histories of the Olympic Solidarity staff gave an insight into the evolving structure and agency within the organisation, in its quest to ensure efficiency in the delivery of its multidimensional tasks. It was claimed by interviewees that in the short term the efficiency of their action could be gauged by the large number of courses and programmes that had been successfully organised. Nevertheless, how effectively the programmes have reached all of the aims Olympic Solidarity purports to have, might be a more difficult process to assess. Efficiency and effectiveness are two interrelated paths in the performance of an organisation; the former being a measure of how the organisation utilises its resources, whilst the latter relates to how well it achieves its goals (Slack 1997).

The NOCs each have different expectations of what they can receive from Olympic Solidarity as well as what they are able to achieve by carrying out the programmes. Although the aims of the organisation are outlined in the Olympic Charter, it is not easy to pin down specifics. Although the overall aim since its inception has been to help the NOCs with the greatest need of it, there could be different perspectives of what 'the greatest need' actually means, with diverse definitions depending on who makes that definition; whether they are NOCs aspiring to improve their administration, to have their athletes and coaches trained professionally, or to develop an unfunded sports discipline. Although all had different aims, these would still fall under the context of NOC needs.

Before 2001, the Olympic Solidarity reports contained statements defining some programmes as restricted to NOCs 'in development'. Although there was no

evidence of written change to this restriction, according to the transcripts there was a gradual shift in the perspective that the programmes were gradually accessible for all NOCs. However, it was explained that a considerable number of what were considered 'developed' NOCs were still under the impression that restrictions were in force, but gradual awareness was evident with the increased application and the set-up of offices and staff to focus solely on Olympic Solidarity applications, by even very well established NOCs. Even though there was no defining statement or specific indicated timeframe in relation to the distribution policy, the interpretation of the interviewees suggested that it gradually moved from a distribution policy concerned with assistance for NOCs with an under-developed sports and administrative structure, to a policy of assistance for all. It was suggested that in the past money was restricted so aid had to be more focused; the increased availability of funding made it possible for Olympic Solidarity to help everyone.

Although the importance of the concept of universality of the Games ensured that athletes still had funding priority, and scholarships helped to increase participation at the Games, an interviewee bemoaned the fact that a large number of NOCs were still unable to qualify athletes, so participation was still only possible by invitation. The Universality of the Games was reached with the participation of all NOCs in the London 2012 Games; and furthermore with all delegations having a least one female athlete. However, questions could be raised about this 'Universality', when there was such a big range between the biggest and the smallest NOC delegations, as well as in the level of technical ability between their athletes. Some NOCs still participated through invitations on a long term basis, sometimes with athletes who were merely token participants without much competitive capability. Although it was emphasised that follow-up of organised programmes was very strict, no indication was made on the existence of any process to evaluate whether the programmes used by the NOCs had contributed to the improvement of the sports development in their countries.

Olympic Solidarity has been fortunate in that the resources, or funding, required for it to carry out its tasks, have seen a steady rise with each quadrennium. Although there is no guarantee for the future, despite the threat that internet would increasingly have a negative effect on TV broadcasting, the expected the dip in

revenue after the 2008 Beijing Games did not happen (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008). So assuming that this scenario will not change much in the foreseeable future, Olympic Solidarity would still be able to carry out its mission – how efficiently or how effectively will depend on how well the organisation is able to adapt to the needs of the NOCs, albeit always guided by its own aims and mission, but hampered also by its inability to secure effective evaluation data from NOC receipts, about the funded projects.

5.6.3. Organisational Culture

There have been different definitions of organisational culture, from the personality of an organisation, to what makes a particular organisation unique (Hoye et al., 2012). It was explained that when still a small organisation, with a family-like, collegial atmosphere there was a feeling among the staff that ‘Olympic Solidarity being something special’, which led to an assumption of a particular culture. Responses indicate that some employees had managed to maintain that spirit through time and change, but apprehension was expressed that as the organisation became bigger this feeling, or guiding force which helped new members of staff understand and accept how things were done in the organisation (Taylor et al., 2011) was becoming somewhat dissipated.

When Mario Vasquez Rana took over the Chairmanship in 2002, his relationship with the staff at Olympic Solidarity was perceived to be very different to that previously held by Juan Antonio Samaranch. Whilst Samaranch attended regular meetings in Lausanne, under the tenure of Vasquez Rana, the Director was obliged to go to Mexico on a regular basis, providing information and reports for the Chairman and the Commission, contributing to a feeling of detachment from the other staff members. The opinion was expressed that it was probably not easy for the Director either. As an IOC employee, his loyalty was to the IOC, while Mr Vasquez Rana, as Chairman of ANOC was directly accountable to the NOCs. Although the increased staff was allocated particular tasks on a functional basis, the interviewees noted that dynamic interaction among the staff members still created a very collegial atmosphere. As the organisation developed a more divisionalised structure, it was stated that the individual groups worked separately from each other, decreasing the daily interaction and familiarity, consequently increasing isolation between staff in

different groups. Criticism was expressed about the fact that the collegial atmosphere was also being dissipated as people spent more and more time in front of the computer, even sending emails to their colleagues in a neighbouring office. However, despite the diminished collegiality throughout the office, it was intimated that 'familiarity' among staff in each sector eventually contributed to a collegial atmosphere being experienced within that unit.

The several references to guidelines and regulations indicate that the staff took informed decisions, and implied a belief that their decisions were accountable and beneficial for the NOCs concerned. A number of staff explained how they tried to provide personal assistance, adapted to the NOCs needs, through the availability of multiple information systems. Employees showed an eagerness to learn how to work with the Olympic Movement, and particularly with the NOCs, by visiting them regularly and attending General Assemblies; getting to know better how they worked since they believed that acquiring that knowledge was part of their job and would enable them to provide a better service.

Several of the employees showed deference for the Olympic Movement; some actually being in awe of it; several interviewees considered they were very fortunate to have the job. Although not specifically targeted in the questions asked, the interviewees were more appreciative of intrinsic rewards in relation to their work, suggesting that they enjoyed seeing the development to which their work might have contributed. It was suggested that there was a level of satisfaction in seeing an idea turn into a programme with a positive outcome. One interviewee justified the hardship of carrying out a course for a 'developing' NOC in that the participants "were like little Olivers, asking for more" (1), and was sure it was worth the money spent, "to promote certain values in life, then whether they are participating in the Olympic Games, the African Games in the Asian Games, those values stay with them and they will pass them to others" (1).

A sense of discipline could be identified in the statements by some of the staff who took on tasks related to a promotion they were not particularly keen on; in order to continue doing that part of their job they enjoyed the most. It seemed that being able to successfully perform their job carried the highest motivational incentive, with high

motivation still felt by several interviewees, including all those who had been in the job for over fifteen years. Organisational culture has regularly been associated with staff attitudes and behaviour, with the level of the staff's perception and acceptance of these values and beliefs directly related to increased loyalty and effectiveness in the workplace (Deal and Kennedy, 1982).

It was emphasised that although Olympic Solidarity staff followed internal guidelines in relation to the allocation of programmes, there were also instances when written rules were not available, and they had to make their own decisions based on their personal perspectives of the situation. There was a degree of flexibility, fostering personal initiative on how they carried out their tasks. Hoyer et al. suggest that much of the behaviour of staff "is determined by the systems they operate" (2012:164). Concepts such as equity or 'developmental level' were not specifically defined in documentation related to programme distribution. It was felt that it was difficult to define what a 'developing' NOC was, and one suggestion stated that it should not be defined at all. Staff members probably had different lists of who was deserving of more help. Categorisation had not worked and had been discarded. Interviewees stated that decisions on who needed more help were guided by the perceived intrinsic values of the organisation or those of the individuals themselves rather than by extrinsic rules. In the case of gender equity it was stated that since the last two IOC Presidents supported it, then Olympic Solidarity staff promoted it, and it was also included in the guidelines for some programmes. Staff members were all able to contribute with ideas and proposals in the development of Olympic Solidarity programmes.

Particular topics, such as the Salt Lake City Scandals, were obvious by their absence, and it has been suggested that there is reluctance on the part of many members of the Olympic Movement to discuss anything negative, particularly in relation to accountability. Slack and Parent (2006) suggest that strong cultures which are difficult to change might be detrimental to the performance of the organisation, but change eventually becomes unavoidable. This topic is particularly poignant in that it also involved Olympic Athlete scholarships and a number of Olympic Solidarity Commission members were warned or expelled, while the Director was involved in one of the Working Groups set up by the Commission 2000.

5.7. Conclusion

According to Greenwood and Hinings (1976) organisational change can take the form of radical change which alters the organisation completely, or convergent change which is related to fine-tuning of what is already there. Mintzberg and Westley (1992) proposed that change could happen either to the organisation or to its strategy; but also on a conceptual (thought) level or concrete basis (action). They argued that changes in an organisation occurred in cycles starting from a change in its culture and corresponding strategic vision; restructuring of its operations and services; enhanced organisational systems and procedures, and finally change in its people, as well as how and where it worked. Although change happened all the time, it might be more frequent at the bottom and probably be more strategic at the top. They also suggested three modes of organisational change: procedural planning which was deliberate and deductive often implemented on a higher level in the hierarchy, visionary leadership which was an informal approach driven by one person; or inductive learning which was “emergent rather than deliberate and [could] take place anywhere in the organisation” (Mintzberg and Westley, 1992:44). Through the explanation of their personal history in Olympic Solidarity, it was possible to identify changes experienced by the interviewees in relation to the structure, management, decision-making and inter-relationship among the staff. However, the impact was not always consistent throughout, being very much dependent on the position in the organisation of the person/persons involved, and their relationship with the cause of that change.

In the case of the external environment, it is evident that the services that Olympic Solidarity could provide were very dependent on the level of finance available. Lack of finance meant that Olympic Solidarity was originally run by the “visionary” (8) leadership of an unpaid Director, with a few staff working from a small office in Lausanne. The creation of Olympic Solidarity was partially instigated by a degree of political allegiance of developing countries through the provision of sport aid primarily by the USSR and the USA during the Cold War, which the IOC considered as a threat, as well as by the increasing number of NOCs joining the Olympic Movement after the collapse of the Soviet-Union. However, its services were particularly

influenced by the extensive differences in the level of sports development between the NOCs in the periphery and the established NOCs in the core. With the spread of television networks the IOC was able to identify a source of considerable income, with ever rising funding allocations for the NOCs. However, although by the late 1980s the worldwide web had been established and facilitated Olympic Solidarity staff tasks and accessibility, communication was still a significant issue in some NOCs. The advent of increased income resulted in the introduction of new programmes, so that during the period between 1982 and 1996, the core of the Olympic Solidarity World programmes was set up with the aim to focus primarily on NOCs that required expertise in sports administration, technical expertise and athlete support.

The introduction of a new full-time Director in 1997, led to a more professional approach in the development of the organisation. As it expanded and was restructured, work procedures and staff skills were gradually standardised and departmentalised. The introduction of a sophisticated IT system improved communication with most NOCs, and enhanced staff and stakeholder access to information on the allocation of programmes. It established strong channels of communication with staff close to decision-making, but also created competition for access to its technology. Even though they were provided with the physical aspects of technology (equipment), this did not necessarily mean that NOCs had the skills and competence to be able to use it efficiently. Access was related to NOC competence so there was still a disparity between those with technological competence and those without. Consequently, although all NOCs had the same access, this did not mean it was equal access. NOCs with numerous qualified staff were always at an advantage. However, it was evident that access to technology increased the overall level of participation.

A mixture of experience and individual skills enabled the staff to get to know better the NOCs they were responsible for, and according to the interviewees, they were able to administer more efficiently the increased number of World programme options for more NOCs, as well as cope with the introduction of the Continental Programmes. The absence of the Commission Chairman from Lausanne, changed the dynamic of the organisation, and the Director and his staff were empowered to

take over more responsibility. A proactive approach to encourage more involvement was adopted in tandem with frequent visits to NOCs, enabling staff to understand better the NOC needs. The regular interaction with the NOCs; the perceived success of the programmes; and the improvement in NOC performance were considered highly motivating for the staff. The simple structure of the organisation in the early 1980s had developed more aspects of machine bureaucracy during the transitional period between 1997 and 2000, and eventually showed aspects of a professional bureaucracy, a tendency toward a divisionalised form, and traits of an adhocracy after 2001, turning it into a 'hybrid' organisation.

The Olympic Solidarity Commission Chairmen during the period being researched were both perceived to be influential in how the organisation changed. Samaranch ensured that the organisation was instilled with a certain culture 'Olympic Solidarity was something special' (5). According to Simson and Jennings (1992), "Samaranch's vision [was] of an all-encompassing Olympic Movement that must remain at the top of the world of international sport" (Simson and Jennings, 1992:227). He was a rather transformational leader (Hoye et al., 2005), closely involved in the daily workings at Olympic Solidarity, during a long period of growth of the organisation. By ensuring control of the broadcasting rights, the IOC also ensured the viability of Olympic Solidarity, and the gradual increase in the programmes it had to offer in response to the demand from an increasing number of NOCs. He was instrumental in the consolidation of Olympic Solidarity office in Lausanne as a worldwide provider for sport aid, at a time when priority was still given to those NOCs, with a developing sports and administrative structure, with the aim of enabling them to eventually train and qualify athletes for the Games. Documentation about the allocation of programmes was abundant and accessible.

On the other hand, by the time Mario Vasquez Rana, who had worked closely with Samaranch (Simson and Jennings, 1992), took over as Commission Chairman, Olympic Solidarity was already a well-established professional organisation. The structure was reorganised before he officially took office, and the income from the sale of TV broadcasting rights had already been assured. He was more of a transactional leader (Hoye et al 2005), trusting the Director to ensure the

organisation functioned well, but rarely involved with the staff. Before 2001 all NOC funding was disbursed from the IOC, through the Olympic Solidarity Lausanne office. After 2001, a large proportion of funding was disbursed through the Continental Programmes directly by the NOCs through their continental associations. This major de-centralisation of funds which Vasquez Rana had favoured for a long period of time was finally implemented. Thus Juan Antonio Samaranch set up a process that ensured funding would be disbursed by the IOC through Olympic Solidarity, whilst Mario Vasquez Rana favoured a policy that significantly decentralised the funding to the NOC continental associations to organise their own programmes. Although this decentralisation of funding, might imply that the NOCs believed that the Olympic Solidarity programmes were too limited to satisfy all their needs, the control over the funding allocated to the NOCs from the sale of the TV Broadcasting rights, had long been the bone of contention between the NOCs and the IOC.

With the increased income from the broadcasting rights, a high percentage (40%) of the Olympic Solidarity budget was de-centralised to the continental associations and five liaison continental offices were established. Most of these co-ordinators, Robin Mitchell (Fiji) who was replaced by Riccardo Blas (Guatemala) in 2009, Hussain Musallam (Kuwait), and Lasanda Palenfo (Cote d'Ivoire) were members of the Olympic Solidarity Commission, while Reynaldo Gonzalez Lopez (Cuba) was an IOC member. They were also members of their relative NOC continental association which was responsible for allocating the funding for the Continental Programmes. Gianluca De Angelis was the head of administration at the EOC Secretariat in Rome, but according to the interview transcripts had no decision-making powers in relation to allocation of the programmes. While there was a limitation on the amount of work that could be performed by the current Olympic Solidarity staff, there was also a perception that the increase in budget for continental programmes was gradually eroding the importance of the World Programmes originally set up to help the NOCs with the greatest need. The EOC set up a budget for 'needy NOCs', but with other NOCs in control of the funding. In the 2002 report the Commission Chairman had pre-empted the positive outcome of the decision to de-centralise the Olympic Solidarity funds; this change in policy reduced the power over funding from Olympic Solidarity office in Lausanne, i.e. under the aegis of the IOC, and handed it over

directly to the NOCs – without the accountability that had always been in place for the World Programmes.

Although the definition of the aims of Olympic Solidarity in the Olympic Charter had not changed, and there was no drastic announcement of policy change, starting from 2001, the restriction of programmes to ‘developing NOCs’ was gradually eased, and all World programmes became accessible to all NOCs. It took time for many NOCs to realise they were eligible to apply, but eventually more applications were received from even the most established NOCs. Although its structure enabled access for all programmes to all NOCs, decentralisation of decision-making power to the staff in relation to allocation of programmes, and the intrinsic influence of Olympic values and ethical considerations were perceived to be fundamental in enabling the staff to maintain disbursement on ‘progressive’ level to all NOCs.

Through agency of its staff, those who really required Olympic Solidarity funding were accorded particular attention, and through its network of organisations, a system of advice enhanced the service offered enabling NOCs to benefit from facilities and technical aid, beyond the remit of the Olympic Solidarity programmes. The interview analysis indicated that despite efforts of the Olympic Solidarity staff to maintain progressive funds to favour NOCs with the greatest need, the increased access to previously restricted programmes contributed to the change in policy of disbursement of Programme Grant funds from a primarily progressive one to a more ‘equal’ but less ‘equitable’ one as evidenced in the statistical data. Although a criterion of support by Solidarity was still the level of ‘development’ of an NOC, the level of development of a sport discipline became a criterion of growing significance such that ‘underdeveloped’ sports, even in ‘developed’ NOCs were given increasing consideration.

Chapter 6

Conclusion

6.1. Introduction

The overall aim of this research was an evaluation of the role and development of Olympic Solidarity in the provision of sport aid programmes, and of whether the organisation had maintained an ability to achieve the aims for which it was established. For five decades Olympic Solidarity has been a vehicle through which the Olympic Movement has channelled aid to the National Olympic Committees, as a means of promoting development with funding allocated to the NOCs from the sale of Broadcasting Rights for the Olympic Games. It has done this predominantly through the World Programmes, Olympic Games Subsidies, and more recently Continental Programmes. The study has sought to identify changes in the structure of the organisation, its programmes, its aims and distribution policy, and what might have brought about such changes.

Parallels were drawn between the impact of theories of change, in particular between globalisation as a context for change, as a process in itself and its influence on sport in the international sphere, on the IOC and consequently on Olympic Solidarity. The research sought to examine to what extent the Olympic Solidarity programmes still catered for the needs of the NOCs with their diverse socio-cultural, economic and political backgrounds, and whether it could still achieve the aims for which it was established. The study primarily focused on sourcing knowledge to provide the means to answer the research questions introduced in Chapter One.

- Have Olympic Solidarity aims and policy changed through time?

- Does the Olympic Solidarity programme distribution process fulfil the aims for which the organisation was set up, particularly with regards to assistance to NOCs ‘with the greatest need’?
- How have the Olympic Solidarity programmes changed and what are the implications for the equitable distribution of resources?

On a macro-level the research was primarily concerned with whether external change in the worldwide socio-political and economic environment had had any influence on the Olympic Movement, and consequently how this might have impacted the structural organisation and distribution policy of Olympic Solidarity. The analysis related to the context of the organisation, its structure, as well as the influence of technology, size or strategy. On the meso-level it sought to review normative accounts and implications of behaviours on the governance of the organisation, “the role of power, and how such processes as decision-making and change [were] managed” (Slack, 1997:8), while on the micro-level it analysed the personal perspectives and behaviours of the interviewees themselves through accounts of their career life histories.

Goals communicate what an organisation stands for, and provide guidelines for the assessment of its performance, and that of its employees (though as we know, given multiple constituency accounts of organisational effectiveness they may be differently perceived and emphasised by different stakeholders) (Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000; Slack, 1997). Olympic Solidarity was originally set up with the principal aim of providing sport aid to the newly recognised National Olympic Committees in the 1960s, providing courses for them to improve their sports structure and administration, and consequently enhancing their capability to produce trained athletes to participate in the Games. The different levels of ‘development’ of the NOCs inspired the structure of the programmes as they gradually expanded with different options to cater for the varied needs, with the help of ‘experts’ and facilities from well-established, mostly ‘Western’ NOCs and International Federations. Changes in the programmes and distribution policy of Olympic Solidarity and in the organisation itself were reflected in its funding opportunities; issues that influenced some of these changes were reflected in the career life histories of some of its staff.

Critical realists propose that a distinction is to be made between how the world is made up, and what it appears to be (Archer, 1995); its appearance could be misleading as to its true character (Benton & Craib, 2011). The statistical analysis of financial data gave an outline of programme development, the flow of Olympic Solidarity programme funding, and patterns of how this funding was disbursed to NOCs individually, continentally and worldwide, yet, the numerical data cannot of themselves explain why the funding followed the patterns it did. Research to delve beneath the surface of the outer appearance of the organisation would be required to uncover its 'true' structure.

For critical realists, reality is stratified or layered with the key levels of reality considered to be the real, the actual and the empirical; research "attempts to penetrate behind or below the surface appearances of things to discover their generative causes" (Benton & Craib, 2011:126). Structures enabled some actions while constraining others, and actions, whether intended or unintended, have transformed social structures instigating change in the organisation. The personal accounts of the life histories of the interviewees produced insights into their perceptions of the power relations, leadership influence, organisational culture and change, the governance, and the distribution policy of Olympic Solidarity, as well as contributing to the explanation of the patterns of distribution of funds as identified through the statistical analysis.

6.2 Macro-level – Theories of Change and the Olympic Movement

Modern sport has been increasingly globalised through a dispersion of 'Western' ideologies and culture, the spread of 'Olympism' (or some might argue, 'Olympisms'), the globalisation of consumer markets, and the global reach of television and technology. It has been suggested that, in the post-World War II context, the Olympic Solidarity project reflected a form of cultural imperialism operating through the visits and Olympic Solidarity scholarship programmes, reinforcing the dominance of the 'Western' model of Olympic sport. Experts and educators proposed by predominantly European NOCs, and International Federations from countries in the 'core' disseminated the ideology of Olympism together with technical and administrative training in largely 'Western' Olympic sport to NOCs in the periphery (Al-Tauqi, 2003).

OS was born in the early 1960s, an era in which global politics had a dominantly bi-polar, East-West division, and in which aid (including sport aid) was seen as a tool for promoting the hegemony of one bloc or the other, particularly in the newly independent countries in Africa, Asia and South America. However, the lack of finance during the early years and a measure of mistrust in NOC officials and how they would administer these funds, meant assistance to the increasing number of NOCs was, for the most part, not financial but took the form of services through other NOCs; reinforcing the dependency of NOCs in the periphery on the NOCs or multinational companies from the core who provided those facilities and services (Henry & Al-Taqui, 2008). In order to placate struggles for power on the part of the IFs and the NOCs for access to its funds, the IOC recognised the Associations of International Winter Sports Federations (AIWF) and Summer Olympic International Federations (ASOIF); as well as the Association of National Olympic Committees (previously the PGA of NOCs). It arranged for funds to be disbursed to the NOCs through Olympic Solidarity. Their inclusion as part of the IOC organisational infrastructure unified “dominant and subordinate powers around shared cultural projects”, and fostered “the development of the global network of the Olympic family” (Chatziefstathiou, Henry, Theodoraki, & Al-Tauqi, 2006:290). The IOC adapted its hegemonic structure of power, and was drawn into a new form of systemic governance so that sport was governed through interaction with a wider range of stakeholders.

In the later decades of the twentieth century post-industrial states turned toward internationalism favouring information and services-based economies (Roche 2000). When Samaranch became IOC President, the IOC was not in a strong position financially. The financial success of the Los Angeles 1984 Olympic Games was, however, a revelation for the IOC; the Games could be “organised to maximise income from television, sponsorship and merchandising” (Roche, 2000:137). Through the introduction of television networks the world became a global social space; as well as a global market for sport. The increase in IOC income enabled the professionalisation of the IOC administration, and ensured that the finance was finally available for Olympic Solidarity to function; lack of finance had proved to be a difficult hurdle in the past. The Olympic Solidarity Commission was restructured to include a majority of NOC representatives, with the first Director also from an NOC

background, and the move to Lausanne started a process of structuring Olympic Solidarity from a fund for, into a service-provider for an ever increasing number of NOCs with sport-aid programmes whilst still ensuring IOC control of funds.

In the late 1980s and early 1990s the collapse of communism brought about the spread of 'Western'-centered, policy-oriented modernisation former colonies and ex-communist countries; or as some asserted this began the start of a new process of the globalisation of modernity (Roudometof, 2009). In the context of what was happening internationally, it was not easy for the IOC and for a number of other sports organisations to cope with the sudden disintegration of the 'Eastern European' states. The end of the Cold War did not end Olympic politics either; instead it was replaced with a spread of sporting rivalry on the field (Senn, 1999). A decrease in the expertise provided by the countries of the Eastern Bloc as support for Olympic Solidarity, and what Chatziefstathiou (2005) describes as a less intensive spirit of competition on the part of governments accompanied a decrease in funding of sport in many countries. Although the former communist states still had the technological and scientific knowledge to train and prepare their athletes, their economies were unable to adequately support their sport structure and there was an increased demand for Olympic Solidarity aid. As evidenced in the statistical analysis, following the increase in NOCs, the preferential allocation of programmes for these NOCs saw a surge in European funding during the period 1993-1996 so that it came second only to Africa in the level of disbursement.

The fall of communism saw end of the bi-polar political divide; the United States of America was perceived to be the only country able to sustain hegemonic control of transnational practices in economic, political and cultural domains (Sklair, 1992), with its hegemony also reflected in its continued enjoyment of a privileged proportion of Olympic income. Whether it was from Broadcasting Rights or TOP Sponsors, or for the use of the Olympic 'rings' logo, the USA clung on to its hegemonic position though its dominance is less assured than it had been in the past. Nevertheless, as the statistical analysis has indicated, while also benefiting from some World Programmes, the USA's income from the Olympic Games Subsidy continues to exceed the disbursements of Programme Grant funds for all other NOCs worldwide, while Europe is the major beneficiary of the Olympic Games Subsidy continentally.

Globalisation increased worldwide connectivity with spread of the media through television; digital technology brought about a “multiplicity of linkages and interconnections” (McGrew, 1992:65), which went beyond the boundaries of nation states which changed the way sport was perceived, administered, followed, and experienced. Yet, the highly uneven spread of television and the internet was also an indication of the differences in life chances between populations and the availability of resources between the NOCs. The speeding up of technological and organisational change facilitated increased global movement of capital, and with the deregulation of financial markets sport became more incorporated into the workings of global capitalism. The rise of multi-tiered political and regulatory institutions increased the pressure on international sport organisations to adopt ‘good governance’. With increased exposure to the media, sport activities became more exposed to scrutiny. Despite the economic outlay required, the success of previous Games; the global access to the media; and potential income from related tourism fostered increased competition to host the Games. Broadcasting rights revenue rose but so did criticism of the Olympic Movement. The Salt Lake City Scandals put the IOC in the spotlight, and the Commission 2000 recommendations designed to restore IOC integrity also included changes to the way in which Olympic Solidarity should operate.

The imposition of predominantly ‘Western’ sports as the ‘Olympic Sports’ suggests that the NOCs from the periphery would be at a disadvantage. Critics have questioned the ‘Western’-centered vision of globalisation and its imposition on other cultures (Roudometof, 2009), and this critique is reflected in an increasing number of social movements protesting for change on a global scale. Worldwide activities of these social groups in the media brought pressures to bear also on the Olympic Movement to recognise it needed to introduce change to accommodate the growth of public scrutiny of the governance of sport. Through, Olympic Solidarity it introduced the Values Programmes primarily concerned with funding participants to attend seminars and conferences in “fields that were less accessible to NOCs and required particular attention” (Olympic Solidarity, 2001:34). The Women and Sport Working Group was established in 1995, and led to the introduction of the Olympic Solidarity ‘Women and Sport Programme’ and the adoption of minimum targets for gender

equity in the National Olympic Committees. However, the IOC itself failed to meet the minimum level of female representation it was recommending to NOCs and IFs.

The 'post-Westernisation' process represents the existence of a varied mix of different modernities with the East capable of influencing global affairs (Rumford, 2007). The Olympic Movement put under pressure to recognise diversity, responded by increasingly choosing to host the Olympic Games outside the 'West', notably Beijing 2008, Sochi 2014, Rio 2016 and Pyongchang 2018. Nevertheless, 'Western' dominance was still reflected in the Olympic Movement and despite the inclusion of a number of NOC, IF, and athlete representatives, there has been on-going criticism about the predominantly 'Western' make-up of the IOC membership.

6.3 Meso-level - Olympic Solidarity

During the 1970s Olympic Solidarity was a fund rather an organisation. Even though the IOC had imposed a distribution ratio for the TV rights starting from the 1972 Games, there was not much direction in how the money was to be divided or distributed. The few courses available to NOCs were administered through an office at the premises of the Italian Olympic Committee in Rome. In 1977, after the resignation of the Director, control of the funds returned to the IOC. On becoming IOC President, Samaranch took over the Chair of the Olympic Solidarity Commission and the inclusion of ANOC representatives on this Commission ensured that all continents were represented. Samaranch became directly involved in a concerted effort to strengthen the financial and administrative structure of the organisation. Anselmo Lopez took office as Director in September 1983, with a staff of four (all women), and started a process of structuring the organisation which by then had moved to Lausanne. Catering for the diversity of all the NOCs' needs gave the Olympic Solidarity staff an almost impossible task. To achieve administrative efficiency in dealing with an increasing number of NOCs and a multitude of differently organised programmes, the OS programmes and their contents were structured into thematic groups, and applications with a homogenised content were sought from NOCs on all the continents, with quadrennial budgets set to start in 1985. However, there was no strategic plan on programme development, and new proposals were made with every budget increase.

This was not an easy period; there were difficulties with communication; with travel to NOCs in what were considered 'developing' countries; mistrust in disbursement of direct funds to the NOCs, and cancellation of a number of courses, yet the number of programmes available to the NOCs was on the increase. A lack of effective communication with some NOCs, particularly those in the periphery, negatively affected applications for, and organisation of, the Olympic Solidarity programmes particularly during the early years; this was a local issue but also a transnational one. The small organisation, managed by a voluntary Director and multi-tasking staff, showed characteristics of the 'simple' organisational configuration proposed by Mintzberg (1979) as one of the ideal-types of organisational structure. Although funding was on the rise in all continents, during the period 1993-1996, increased funding was directed towards the new NOCs from the ex-Soviet-bloc, particularly those in Europe.

The increased number of NOCs necessitated a reorganisation of the services provided by Olympic Solidarity. The introduction of a professional Director, Pere Miro, in 1997 led to further expansion and professionalisation of the organisation; with new technology, increased formalisation with internal and external standardised procedures for all programmes; and the set-up of external advisory groups. The organisation saw a shift from aspects of a simple structure to that associated with a 'machine bureaucracy' (Mintzberg, 1979). Electronic access and storage of data reduced information on the Olympic Solidarity reports. The programme options had increased to twelve, and the statistical data evidences a gradual rise in funding with an increasing negative correlation between the Programme grants and the affluence of the NOC country of origin suggesting that the NOCs in 'greatest need' were receiving higher levels of Programme Grant funding, though the overall level of variance explained remained modest.

The period 2001-2004 saw a significant change in the organisation. Although perceived to be a result of a large increase in funding, it was also contingent on recommendations made by the Commission 2000 following the Salt Lake City scandals, as well as the de-centralisation of funds to the Continental Associations. This change was also reflected in the format of the Olympic Solidarity Reports. The

organisation underwent further professional recruitment, and moved to a larger office in Villa Mon Repos; Mario Vasquez Rana took over the Chair of Olympic Solidarity in 2002. The introduction of more developed technology enhanced communication and accessibility, while the standardisation of skills which came with greater formalisation saw the re-construction of areas of competence into a matrix structure of sectionalised responsibilities. There was also a move from a vertical (hierarchical) system of authority, towards more of a horizontal decision-making process related to allocation of programmes; a number of management boards enabled interaction between groups, involvement in programme development and a contribution to decision-making.

The creation of co-ordinating offices in the five continents added to the complexity of the organisation. Thus from a 'simple' organisational structure Olympic Solidarity developed aspects of both the 'machine' and 'professional' bureaucracy, a tendency towards the 'divisionalised' form with interdepartmental communication, resulting in a 'hybrid' form of Mintzberg's ideal types of organisations. This re-organisation facilitated the staff servicing of over 200 NOCs, with a wide range of programme options. Apart from the overall dip in the rise in funding possibly related to the continental de-centralisation of funds, this period saw a direct impact on the funding distribution pattern; with a downturn in the negative correlation between the Programme Grant and the GDP per capita, suggesting decreased progressive funding for NOCs 'with the greatest need'.

The overall performance of the organisation can be divided into two different periods. Under the Chairmanship of Samaranch the organisation underwent a process of construction and consolidation, setting up foundations for an efficient service provider with the finance to carry out its programmes. During the tenure of Vasquez Rana Olympic Solidarity was reconstructed in an attempt to ensure 'good governance' and professionalisation in the delivery of its programmes, and the co-ordination of the decentralised funds of the Continental programmes. The change in Chairmanship also coincided with a change in direction of the funding distribution pattern.

6.4 Micro-level – Career Life Histories

Despite a predominance of European staff, the multinational skilled workforce of the IOC was reflected in the staffing of Olympic Solidarity. However, below the level of director, females occupy senior positions and have tended to outnumber male Olympic Solidarity staff members. They include people with diverse language skills, and national and ethnic backgrounds, reflecting a belief that this diversity was essential for the organisation to provide an efficient service to the NOCs from the diverse continents.

The rapid worldwide interaction and access to information, or what Giddens (1990) had termed 'time space distancing', supported the intensification of connectedness between all those involved; the Olympic Solidarity Extranet network with ongoing links to the NOCs, IFs and Continental Associations enabled the intensification of relationships developing mutual trust and producing what interviewees perceived to be a more efficient and effective organisation. Advances in technology also brought about higher expectations in the speed of resolution, putting pressure on the Olympic Solidarity staff, increasing and intensifying their workload. 'Time-space compression' (Harvey 1989), diminished geographical distance; travel became faster than ever (Rosenau, 1990) and apart from enabling Olympic Solidarity staff to travel to the NOCs; it eased the burden of programme organisation by creating a travelling sporting cosmopolitanism.

Although technology contributed to the development of the organisation, its staff played a fundamental part in the ability of the organisation to service the ever increasing number of NOCs. From its early years staff were organised to manage different areas of service; there was a structure. Despite being organised into working sections, the agency of the staff regularly broke the mould with transverse communication between groups. Although vertical decision-making was evident in programme development the knowledge gained by staff, through working with the NOCs, enabled them to regularly contribute with consultation on different levels proposing adaptations, changes or new options to established areas. The increased workload demanding the involvement of more qualified staff, complex administration and decision-making processes, created an on-going process of formalisation and change in the structure of the organisation and in the type of service provided by its

staff. This research has shown that increases in budget were followed by change both in the programmes and in the structure of the organisation.

Although the interviewees emphasised that the application, allocation and implementation of the Olympic Solidarity programmes was strictly guided by a number of 'rules and regulations', the career life history' accounts also give an insight into the intrinsic values of the staff, which have guided them to go beyond these rules to facilitate the allocation of programmes to 'deserving' NOCs, such as in the case of allocation of more 'coaching' programmes for women or proactively encouraging NOCs in difficulty. These values could be informed or shaped by the personal background of the individual; acquired through adoption of the philosophy of the Olympic Movement; or promoted through the perceived intrinsic values of working with Olympic Solidarity. Consequently, despite the fact that the level of Olympic Games Subsidy, over which OS staff do not have control, favours the more established, well developed NOCs, ethical considerations and the intrinsic values of the staff enable them to fulfil, to some degree, the aims of Olympic Solidarity by helping those NOCs 'most in need'.

However, the phrase funding those 'with the greatest need' might not necessarily mean the same thing to everyone. A different perspective has been seen to be one of the reasons behind the increase in funding to 'underdeveloped' sport in more 'developed' or established NOCs. Thus although the words describing policy aspirations have remained the same their interpretation has possibly changed. Furthermore, apart from the differences in the capabilities of NOCs to apply for or organise the programmes, decentralisation of decision-making related to allocation of programmes has increased the various criteria on which staff base their decisions; which might also differ between the staff themselves: The diverse criteria guiding those decisions contributed to the differences between the levels of Programme Grant distribution and to some extent to a more 'equal' distribution of funding. This could explain why a substantial amount of the variance could not be explained by the indicators relating to the level of need or of development of the NOCs.

A lack of reference to the Salt Lake City scandals and their implications, during the career life history accounts, might indicate that this was not a topic interviewees felt comfortable with. This lack of reference to Salt Lake and its aftermath was

complemented by an insistence that all decision-making was guided by specific rules, implying that decisions were more accountable and less subject to malpractice. They were unwilling to comment that the organisation they belonged to underwent radical change in order to change strategy and shed the old IOC problems. Respondents however did make reference to a lack of information and reports from continental associations about expenditure through the Continental Programmes implying a suspicion that at the very least there was a problem with transparency in this aspect of OS funding. Concern on the part of employees / respondents reflected the fact that any misallocation of funds might impinge on the credibility of Olympic Solidarity itself; and was accompanied by a concern that increased funding towards Continental Programmes would decrease the importance of the World Programmes administered from the International Office of Solidarity.

6.5 Continental Programmes

The Olympic Solidarity programmes could be perceived as an imposition of a Western concept of sport development; a largely European staffed organisation providing sport aid in predominantly 'Western' sport, founded on a base of 'Western' expertise. Although the programmes had many options, and were professionally organised, the 'menu' was the same for everyone, even though each programme would be tailored by the NOC it was allocated to. The decentralisation of substantial funds to the Continental Associations could be seen as a triumph for the NOCs in their struggle for power over the distribution of income; which they felt belonged to them. It could also be perceived as a victory for diversity, since the remit for these programmes was to meet the 'needs' of each individual NOC. These programmes covered different areas of each particular NOC's agenda, and as such could be considered 'glocal', that is a mixture of top down and bottom up policy, and proposals put forward by NOCs could not be the same as those organised through the Lausanne Office; however, some issues did arise with parallel programmes and the absence of some reports implied a lack of accountability for some continents creating uncertainty. Furthermore, although indicative data for funding levels for NOCs in the same continent suggested a more 'equal' distribution of decentralised funding targeting diversity rather than financial capability, the lack of substantial comparative public data prevented any such analysis during this study.

The fact that funding allocated to the African NOCs was still subject to considerable influence on the part of one of the Section Managers, might be an indication of a continuing lack of trust in the African NOCs abilities, as previously expressed during the early years of Olympic Solidarity. Although the policy of favouring 'NOCs with the greatest need' was gradually being eroded as one of the World Programmes allocation criteria, yet the European Olympic Committee sought to maintain progressive funding for NOCs which needed the aid, on their own terms and under their control, by introducing programmes specifically targeted to fund NOCs "with special needs" (Olympic Solidarity 2006:78).

A very significant amount of funding was being disbursed to the NOCs, and there was a perceived lack of complaints by the NOCs themselves about the costs of administering the Continental Associations which would still require staff to process and analyse programme activities and documentation. Apart from the coordinator for Europe who is a member of staff, the Continental coordinators were predominantly NOC representatives involved in the decision-making continental boards allocating the programmes, and members of the Olympic Solidarity Commission. Since their organisations are potential beneficiaries, theirs is potentially a very different view from that of the purportedly 'dispassionate', professional view of the full time Olympic Solidarity staff.

6.6 Universality

Through its Olympic Athlete Scholarships or training grants, Olympic Solidarity provided funding to a large number of athletes, yet a large number of NOCs were still dependent on invitations for their athletes to participate in the Games. Consequently, even though Olympic Solidarity grants provided essential funding for the athletes' preparation, this was considered to be only a contributory factor to the Universality of the Games. Furthermore, the athletes from European NOCs for every Olympic Games have continued to outnumber those from any other continent, and although participation levels have gradually risen for all continents, participation levels between the continents have not changed substantially. One hundred NOCs participated in Beijing 2008 with ten or less athletes, forty of which had less than the six athletes fully funded through the Olympic Games Subsidy.

NOCs who participated with small contingents did not necessarily come from small countries; some came from countries where the sport development structure was unable to adequately finance the preparation of its athletes (dependent on support from the Olympic Solidarity programmes); or from affluent countries where NOCs were unable to technically support the high preparation of elite athletes (dependent on the Olympic Solidarity advisory service). Small contingents contributed to Universality, but their participation levels did not significantly contribute to the problem of gigantism which is a product of the numbers of sports and disciplines and the size of the larger teams rather than additions to small teams' athletes.

6.7 Research Questions

This research has sought to identify sources of change that have impacted on the development of Olympic Solidarity and its patterns of disbursement to the worldwide spread of NOCs, and how it has coped with an increasingly divergent 'menu' of programmes financed through an ever rising budget. It was able to delineate how the organisation was influenced by the financial, cultural and political agenda, and how it survived and flourished. The research analysis has therefore contributed to the framing of a response to the research questions posed at the beginning of this research.

Have Olympic aims and policy changed?

In answer to the first question, although some changes have been made to the section related to Olympic Solidarity in the Olympic Charter, the formal aims of Olympic Solidarity have not been changed through any significant official declaration or written statement. A different perception or interpretation of what is defined in the charter, particularly of the words "those which have the greatest need [of aid]", has had an impact on the redistributive policy of Olympic Solidarity. Thus in 2001, the restriction of a number of programmes to what were considered 'developing' NOCs, was removed so that all NOCs could apply for all programmes. An 'underdeveloped' sport discipline in a country with a national 'developing' sports structure was still the priority for funding and in particular for the allocation of the Olympic Solidarity World programmes, but widening of eligibility to all NOCs meant that funding outcomes

became less progressive. Thus some NOCs with well-established sport disciplines became able to access funding for sports in which they do not perform strongly in international competition, such as triathlon in France. This change in direction may explain the decrease in the proportion of funding going to less affluent NOCs, as evidenced in the decrease in correlation between World Programme Grant funding and GDP per capita, indicated in the statistical analysis. Although the justification reflected the fact that OS funding belonged to all NOCs, and this new understanding of 'need' could result in increasing the competitive level of a sport for those NOCs who were already successful in other disciplines, it also implied reducing the money available to 'developing' NOCs whose financial needs may be greater.

Does the Olympic Solidarity programme distribution process fulfil the aims for which the organisation was set up, particularly with regards to assistance to NOCs 'with the greatest need'?

The two sources of financial disbursement to the National Olympic Committees, subjected to statistical analysis for this research, have produced different outcomes. During the six quadrennia under study, the progressive funding, albeit in decline in the immediate past, was reflected in the amounts received through the World Programmes Grants by NOCs predominantly from countries in the periphery. This progressive funding of the less affluent and developed, was to a certain extent off-set by the Olympic Games subsidy received by affluent NOCs from countries in the global core. However one should acknowledge that the World Programmes grant for the vast majority of NOCs was considerably larger than their Olympic Games Subsidy. As we have noted above, information obtained through analysis of the interviews concerning this distributive pattern refers to the easing of the restriction of certain programmes to 'developing' NOCs, and the inclusion of 'modified' criteria for the allocation of programmes relating to the needs of a developing sport in any NOC rather than the needs of a developing NOC per se. It also points to the decentralisation of a significant portion of the Olympic Solidarity budget which was to be allocated for the Continental programmes.

Furthermore, well-established, predominantly 'Western' NOCs also benefit from long-standing agreements with Olympic Solidarity, through the financial outlay

disbursed for the scholarships or training courses, allocated to the 'developing' NOCs, to be carried out at the sports facilities of 'Western' countries, and through the involvement of 'Western experts' within the Olympic Solidarity programmes. It has also been suggested that the Olympic Solidarity system of sport aid put the NOCs 'in the most need' to further disadvantage since they were less likely to apply for programmes, because they did not have the administrative structure to make effective applications or, if successful, to carry out them out. The system therefore benefited those who were able to effectively construct applications or organise the programmes, "rather than those most in need...since the neediest groups include those with the fewest resources" (Henry, 2007:13).

With reference to our research question, Olympic Solidarity *remains* progressive in the redistribution of the Programme Grant funds over which it exercises most control. In relation to the Olympic Games Subsidy, because of the flat rate funding approach per athlete attending the Games as part of this funding programme, NOCs with the larger teams at the Games inevitably benefit the most.

How have the Olympic Solidarity programmes changed and what are the implications for the equitable distribution of resources?

The Olympic Solidarity programmes have changed. The original Olympic Solidarity programmes consisted of a number of technical and administrative courses carried out in designated NOCs by predominantly 'Western experts', most of which catered for NOCs considered 'most in need'. Increased funding secured through the sale of the Broadcasting Rights for the Games instigated the development in quality and quantity of programmes on offer; serviced by a professional organisation. The four World Programme areas for Athletes, Coaches, NOCs and Values have developed with various options. During the 2001-2004 quadrennium Olympic Solidarity programmes increased in diversity, and were organised by different organisations in all five continents. 40% of the funds allocated to the NOCs were ceded to a decentralised system of funding through Continental Programmes to the 'autonomous' Continental Associations of NOCs, giving them control over content and allocation of programmes for their NOCs.

It was suggested that Olympic Solidarity had enough funds to help everyone and by 2001 the World Programmes, with individual budgets were available for all NOCs. Some new programmes such as the training grants for teams were used predominantly by established 'Western' NOCs. This equal access to all programmes did not translate into equal or equitable funding for all NOCs, with the statistical analysis indicating high disparities between the NOCs in each continent and between the continents. Programme allocation was also dependent on application; well-staffed, experienced NOCs increasingly applied for all programmes, while those 'most in need' did not necessarily improve their situation. The rising awareness of accessibility for all NOCs to all programmes suggests that funds were increasingly more widely spread across all the NOCs. Some might suggest that this was more of an equal rather than an equitable distribution of the funds. Nevertheless, instead of closing the gap between the sports development levels of NOCs in the core and the periphery, the increased opportunities for efficient, established NOCs to access more funding can be perceived to be consistently making the gap between rich and poorly served NOCs wider.

Despite the efforts of Olympic Solidarity staff to ensure progressive World Programme allocation of resources to NOCs with a 'developing' sports structure, the shift in policy saw the percentage of the overall funding received by these NOCs gradually decline. The regular increase in the Olympic Games Subsidy per capita disbursement preferentially benefits those NOCs from the core with larger teams at the Games. Furthermore, the domination of broadcasting networks by the USA impinged on the equitable allocation of funding, and as indicated in Chapter 1, the NOC of the USA received further significant funding, from the share of the Broadcasting Rights allocated to the NOCs; and its share thus outweighed by far the funds received by the other NOCs through the World Programme and the Olympic Games Subsidy. Consequently, despite defining NOCs 'in need' still being an issue, limiting the number of athletes subsidised through the Olympic Games Subsidy, and some measure of restricted access or targeted programme for NOCs 'with the greatest need' might prove beneficial in readdressing the equitable distribution of NOC funding.

The underrepresentation of women as beneficiaries of Olympic Solidarity applications, particularly in coaching, indicates that lack of gender equity is a widespread phenomenon. Yet there was no evidence of any progressive measures or negative restrictions in relation to access to programmes for lack of adherence to gender equity, and indeed some NOCs have never utilised the Women and sport programme. There seems to be little evidence of any recommendation for equity in the composition of delegation officials, which might encourage NOCs to nominate more women for technical and administrative programmes.

6.8 Limitations and Further research

Although the financial data used in this research has been sourced from official public documents, the data might not reflect a fully transparent account of the actual funds received by all the NOCs and their uses. NOCs may mask what money is used for if they are not transparent. In addition the data used in the statistical analysis reflects the data and the level of detail that Olympic Solidarity has chosen to make public. The analysis does not, for example, take into account variances related to different levels of costs in organising programmes in different continents or NOCs, the possible implications of the travel to different areas covered in the varied programmes, or the varied percentage of travel expenses involved in each programme. Neither do the annual or quadrennial financial values identify how many times a particular programme has been carried out in a given NOC.

Even more tellingly, the numerical data analysed does not include disbursements to Continental Associations through which NOCs would also have also benefited, but only reflects those funds directly allocated to each NOC on the Olympic Solidarity reports of World Programme and Games Subsidy. The low level of explanation of the variance in the World Programme grant disbursements may be indicative of a lack of definite structure in the allocation of programmes. While the involvement of the author in the Olympic Movement, prior to this research, could also be considered a limitation to the 'detachment' expected for valid data collection, and could have had an impact on the discourse contributed by the interviewees; knowledge of the Olympic Movement would have enabled for easier communication of that discourse.

The statistical data on the financial disbursement to National Olympic Committees worldwide as documented in the Olympic Solidarity Reports over a period of 30 years has not been previously subject to statistical analysis, and as such the contribution of this study seeks to shed new light on the factors affecting the uses of some of the major sources of the financial income of the Olympic Movement, and how its distribution has shaped Olympic Solidarity into the organisation it has become. The information garnered through the career life histories of key actors involved with Olympic Solidarity gives an important insight into the inner workings of an organisation within the Olympic Movement, which during the period 2005-2008 had a budget of US\$ 244 million, and responded to over 9,000 applications from NOCs for its programmes (Olympic Solidarity, 2009). Although consultation with the NOCs on the effectiveness of the delivery or adequacy of programmes was carried out by Olympic Solidarity on a quadrennial basis, there was no evidence of any action or research to determine the effectiveness of the outcome of the programmes on the individual NOCs.

The amount of statistical data available in the Olympic Solidarity reports could be considered a very useful source of raw materials for research. The financial disbursements to NOCs used for this study were primarily the sum quadrennial totals for the World Programme grants and the Olympic Games Subsidies. The data compiled also include the disbursements to the NOCs for the individual programmes in all the different sectors for Athletes, Coaches, NOC Administration, and Values, with all their separate options. The temptation to diverge into an analysis of the individual programmes, had to be strictly curbed, because of pragmatic concerns of time, and the volume of work this would imply. Some preliminary analyses of individual programmes have been included in the Appendix AA – CC, and this data offers a clear opportunity for further work. Analysis of programmes previously restricted to the ‘developing’ NOCs and those for the Values programmes could provide valuable insights on the type of programmes used by the NOCs in the different continents, and on those that are not used. Analysis could also be undertaken in relation to evidence of impact of funding for example of athlete or coach development on performance at subsequent Olympic Games.

Comparative analysis of NOCs in particular continents or related to particular Games, such as the small NOCs participating in the Games of the Small States of Europe, would certainly be of interest, as well as the potential of the data to inform the analysis of female athlete participation in the programmes and in the Games, and the differential support for female participation in leadership development programmes. Apart from the disbursement of finance in the Olympic Solidarity programmes, the reports contain further statistical data about the types of sports involved in the programmes as well as actual allocation of programmes to the different NOCs. Although data was more abundant in the reports before 2000, during the last few quadrennia, Olympic Solidarity has also provided statistical data on the performance of athletes who had been allocated Olympic Solidarity Scholarships for each Olympic Games since Sydney 2000. The data sources uncovered and the material relating to participation thus provide rich material for further exploitation in an area of Olympic research which has until recently been largely neglected.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A NOC Country Codes

AFRICA		AMERICA	
RSA	SOUTH AFRICA	ANT	ANTIGUA
ALG	ALGERIA	AHO	NETHERLANDS ANTILLES
ANG	ANGOLA	ARG	ARGENTINA
BEN	BENIN	ARU	ARUBA
BOT	BOTSWANA	BAH	BAHAMAS
BUR	BURKINA FASO	BAR	BARBADOS
BDI	BURUNDI	BIZ	BELIZE
CMR	CAMEROUN	BER	BERMUDA
CPV	CAPE VERDE	BOL	BOLIVIA
CAF	CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC	BRA	BRAZIL
COM	COMOROS	CAY	CAYMAN ISLANDS
CGO	CONGO	CAN	CANADA
ZRE/COD	DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO	CHI	CHILE
CIV	REPUBLIQUE DE COTE D'IVOIRE	COL	COLOMBIA
DJI	DJIBUTI	CRC	COSTA RICA
EGY	EGYPT	CUB	CUBA
ERI	ERITREA	DOM	DOMINICAN REPUBLIC
ETH	ETHIOPIA	DMA	DOMINICA
GAB	GABON	ESA	EL SALVADOR
GAM	The GAMBIA	ECU	ECUADOR
GHA	GHANA	USA	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
GUI	GUINEA	GRN	GRENADA
GBS	GUINEA BISSAU	GUA	GUATEMALA
GEQ	EQUATIOIAL GUINEA	GUY	GUYANA
KEN	KENYA	HAI	HAITI
LES	LESOTHO	HON	HONDURAS
LBR	LIBERIA	JAM	JAMAICA
LBA	LIBYAN JAMAHIRIJA	MEX	MEXICO
MAD	MADAGASCAR	NCA	NICARAGUA
MAW	MALAWI	PAN	REPUBLIC OF PANAMA
MLI	MALI	PAR	PARAGUAY
MAR	MOROCCO	PER	PERU
MRI	MAURITIUS	PUR	PUERTO RICO
MTN	MAURITANIA	SKN	SAINT KITTS AND NEVIS
MOZ	MOZAMBIQUE	LCA	SAINT LUCIA
NAM	NAMIBIA	VIN	SAINT VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES
NIG	NIGER	SUR	SURINAME
NGR	NIGERIA	TRI	TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO
UGA	UGANDA	URU	URUGUAY
RWA	RWANDA	VEN	VENEZUELA
STP	SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE	IVB	BRITISH VIRGIN ISLANDS
SEN	SENEGAL	ISV	US VIRGIN ISLANDS
SEY	SEYCHELLES		
SLE	SIERRA LEONE		
SOM	SOMALIA		
SUD	SUDAN		
SWZ	SWAZILAND		
TAN	UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA		
CHA	CHAD		
TOG	TOGO		
TUN	TUNISIA		
ZAM	ZAMBIA		
ZIM	ZIMBABWE		

ASIA

AFG AFGHANISTAN
 KSA SAUDI ARABIA
 BRN BAHRAIN
 BAN BANGLADESH
 BHU BHUTAN
 BRU BRUNEI DARUSSALAM
 CAM CAMBODIA
 CHN PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA
 KOR REPUBLIC OF KOREA S
 UAE UNITED ARAB EMIRATES
 HKG HONG KONG, CHINA
 IND INDIA
 INA INDONESIA
 IRI ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF IRAN
 IRQ IRAQ
 ISR ISRAEL
 JPN JAPAN
 JOR JORDAN
 KAZ KAZAKHISTAN
 KGZ KYRGYZSTAN
 KUW KUWAIT
 LAO LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC
 LIB LEBANON
 MAS MALAYSIA
 MDV MALDIVES
 MGL MONGOLIA
 BIR/MYA BIRMANIA (1989), MYANMAR (BURMA)
 NEP NEPAL
 OMA OMAN
 UZB UZBEKISTAN
 PAK PAKISTAN
 PLE PALESTINE
 PHI PHILIPPINES
 QAT QATAR
 PRK DEMOCRATIC PEOPLE'S REP. OF KOREA
 SIN SINGAPORE
 SRI SRI LANKA
 SYR SYRIA ARAB REPUBLIC
 TJK TAJIKISTAN
 TPE CHINESE TAIPEI (TAIWAN)
 THA THAILAND
 TLS DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF TIMOR-LESTE
 TKM TURKMENISTAN
 VIE VIETNAM
 YEM R.A YEMEN ARAB REPUBLIC
 YEM R.D YEMEN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC
 YEM YEMEN

OCEANIA

AUS AUSTRALIA
 COK COOK ISLANDS
 FIJ FIJI
 FSM FEDERATED STATES OF MICRONESIA
 GUM GUAM
 KIR KIRIBATI
 MHL MARSHALL ISLANDS
 NRU NAURU
 NZL NEW ZEALAND
 PLW PALAU
 PNG PAPUA NEW GUINEA
 SOL SOLOMON ISLANDS
 SAM SAMOA
 ASA AMERICAN SAMOA
 TGA TONGA
 TUV TUVALU
 VAN VANUATU

EUROPE

ALB ALBANIA
 GER W.GERMANY
 AND ANDORRA
 ARM ARMENIA
 AUT AUSTRIA
 AZE AZERBAIJAN
 BLR BELARUS
 BEL BELGIUM
 BIH BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA
 BUL REPUBLIC OF BULGARIA
 CYP CYPRUS
 CRO CROATIA
 DEN DENMARK
 ESP SPAIN
 EST ESTONIA
 FIN FINLAND
 FRA FRANCE
 GEO GEORGIA
 GBR GREAT BRITAIN
 GRE GREECE
 HUN HUNGARY
 IRL IRELAND
 ISL ICELAND
 ISR ISRAEL
 ITA ITALY
 LAT LATVIA
 LIE LIECHTENSTEIN
 LTU LITHUANIA
 LUX LUXEMBOURG
 MLT MALTA
 MKD FORMER YUGOSLAV REP. OF MACEDONIA
 MDA REPUBLIC OF MOLDOVA
 MON MONACO
 MNE REPUBLIC OF MONTENEGRO
 NOR NORWAY
 NED NETHERLANDS
 POL POLAND
 POR PORTUGAL
 GDR EAST GERMANY
 ROU RUMANIA
 RUS RUSSIAN FEDERATION
 SMR SAN MARINO
 SCG/SRB SERBIA
 SVK SLOVAKIA
 SLO SLOVENIA
 SWE SWEDEN
 SUI SWITZERLAND
 TCH CZECHOSLOVAKIA
 CZE CZECH REPUBLIC
 TUR TURKEY
 URSS SOVIET UNION
 YOG YUGOSLAVIA
 UKR UKRAINE

Appendix B International Federations

SUMMER

Aquatics	FINA	Fédération Internationale de Natation
Archery	FITA	International Archery Federation
Athletics	IAAF	International Association of Athletics Federations
Badminton	BWF	Badminton World Federation
Baseball (up to 2008)	IBAF	International Baseball Federation
Basketball	FIBA	International Basketball Federation
Boxing	AIBA	International Boxing Association
Canoeing	ICF	International Canoe Federation
Cycling	UCI	International Cycling Union
Equestrian	FEI	Fédération Équestre Internationale
Fencing	FIE	Fédération Internationale d'Escrime
Football	FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
Gymnastics	FIG	International Gymnastics Federation
Golf (from 2016)	IGF	International Golf Federation
Handball	IHF	International Handball Federation
Hockey	FIH	International Hockey Federation
Judo	IJF	International Judo Federation
Modern Pentathlon	UIPM	Union Internationale de Pentathlon Moderne
Rowing	FISA	International Rowing Federation
Rugby (from 2016)	IRB	International Rugby Board
Sailing	ISAF	International Sailing Federation
Shooting	ISSF	International Shooting Sport Federation
Softball (up to 2008)	ISF	International Softball Federation
Table tennis	ITTF	International Table Tennis Federation
Taekwondo	WTF	World Taekwondo Federation
Tennis	ITF	International Tennis Federation
Triathlon	ITU	International Triathlon Union
Volleyball	FIVB	International Volleyball Federation
Weightlifting	IWF	International Weightlifting Federation
Wrestling	FILA	International Federation of Associated Wrestling Styles

WINTER

Biathlon	IBU	International Biathlon Union
Bobsleigh	FIBT	Fédération Internationale de Bobsleigh et de Tobogganing
Curling	WCF	World Curling Federation
Ice Hockey	IIHF	International Ice Hockey Federation
Luge	FIL	International Luge Federation
Skating	ISU	International Skating Union
Skiing	FIS	International Ski Federation

Appendix C NOC Year of Recognition

1894	France	1948	Guyana
1894	United States of America	1948	Puerto Rico
1895	Germany	1948	Trinidad and Tobago
1895	Greece	1948	Iraq
1895	Hungary	1948	Lebanon
1895	Australia	1948	Pakistan
1900	Norway	1948	Singapore
1905	Denmark	1948	Syrian Arab Republic
1905	Great Britain	1950	Netherlands Antilles (ceased 2011)
1906	Belgium	1950	Thailand
1907	Finland	1951	Nigeria
1907	Canada	1951	Hong-Kong
1909	Portugal	1951	Soviet Union
1910	Egypt	1952	Israel
1911	Turkey	1952	Ghana
1912	Austria	1952	Bahamas
1912	Luxembourg	1952	Indonesia
1912	Netherlands	1953	Monaco
1912	Switzerland	1954	Ethiopia
1912	Japan	1954	Costa Rica
1913	Sweden	1954	Cuba
1914	Romania	1954	Malaysia
1915	Italy	1955	Kenya
1919	Poland	1955	Liberia
1919	Czechoslovakia	1955	Fiji
1920	Yugoslavia/Serbia	1955	Barbados
1920	New Zealand	1956	Uganda
1922	Ireland	1956	Honduras
1923	Argentina	1957	Tunisia
1923	Mexico	1957	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
1923	Uruguay	1959	Albania
1924	Bulgaria	1959	San Marino
1924	Spain	1959	Morocco
1924	Haiti	1959	Sudan
1927	India	1959	Ecuador
1929	Philippines	1959	Nicaragua
1934	Chile	1959	Suriname
1935	Iceland	1960	Chinese Taipei
1935	Liechtenstein	1962	Benin
1935	Brazil	1962	Dominican Republic
1935	Venezuela	1962	El Salvador
1936	Malta	1962	Mongolia
1936	Bermuda	1963	Cameroon
1936	Bolivia	1963	Côte d'Ivoire
1936	Jamaica	1963	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
1936	Peru	1963	Mali
1936	Afghanistan	1963	Senegal
1937	Sri Lanka	1963	Jordan
1939	Colombia	1963	Nepal
1947	Guatemala	1964	Algeria
1947	Panama	1964	Chad
1947	Islamic Republic of Iran	1964	Congo
1947	Korea	1964	Madagascar
1947	Myanmar (ex. Burma until 1989)	1964	Niger
1964	Sierra Leone	1985	Maldives
1964	Zambia	1986	Cook Islands
1965	Central African Republic	1986	Guam
1965	Guinea	1986	Aruba

1965	Togo	1987	American Samoa
1965	Saudi Arabia	1987	Vanuatu
1966	Kuwait	1987	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
1967	Belize	1991	Estonia
1967	Virgin Islands	1991	Latvia
1968	Democratic Rep. of the Congo	1991	Lithuania
1968	Gabon	1991	Namibia
1968	Malawi	1991	South Africa
1968	United Republic of Tanzania	1993	Armenia
1968	East Germany	1993	Azerbaijan
1970	Paraguay	1993	Belarus
1972	Burkina Faso	1993	Bosnia and Herzegovina
1972	Lesotho	1993	Croatia
1972	Mauritius	1993	Czech Republic
1972	Somalia	1993	Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia
1972	Swaziland	1993	Georgia
1974	Papua New Guinea	1993	Republic of Moldova
1975	Andorra	1993	Russian Federation
1976	Gambia	1993	Slovakia
1976	Antigua and Barbuda	1993	Slovenia
1976	Cayman Islands	1993	Ukraine
1978	Cyprus	1993	Burundi
1979	Mauritania	1993	Cape Verde
1979	Mozambique	1993	Comoros
1979	Seychelles	1993	Sao Tome and Principe
1979	Bahrain	1993	Dominica
1979	Lao People's Democratic Republic	1993	Saint Kitts and Nevis
1979	People's Republic of China	1993	Saint Lucia
1979	Viet Nam	1993	Kazakhstan
1980	Angola	1993	Kyrgyzstan
1980	Botswana	1993	Tajikistan
1980	Zimbabwe	1993	Turkmenistan
1980	Bangladesh	1993	Uzbekistan
1980	Qatar	1994	Nauru
1980	United Arab Emirates	1994	Cambodia
1981	Yemen	1995	Guinea-Bissau
1982	British Virgin Islands	1997	Federated States of Micronesia
1982	Oman	1999	Eritrea
1983	Samoa (until 1996 W. Samoa)	1999	Palau
1983	Solomon Islands	2003	Kiribati
1983	Bhutan	2003	Timor-Leste
1984	Djibouti	2006	Marshall Islands
1984	Equatorial Guinea	1995	Palestine
1984	Rwanda	2007	Tuvalu
1984	Tonga	2007	Macedonia
1984	Grenada		
1984	Brunei Darussalam		

Adapted from (Terret, 2008)

Appendix D The Olympic Charter - Olympic Solidarity

Chapter 1 Article 5 Olympic Solidarity

The aim of Olympic Solidarity is to organise assistance to NOCs, in particular those which have the greatest need of it. This assistance takes the form of programmes elaborated jointly by the IOC and the NOCs, with the technical assistance of the IFs, if necessary.

Bye-Law to Rule 5

The objectives of the programmes adopted by Olympic Solidarity are to contribute:

- 1. to promote the Fundamental Principles of Olympism;*
- 2. to assist the NOCs in the preparation of their athletes and teams for their participation in the Olympic Games;*
- 3. to develop the technical sports knowledge of athletes and coaches;*
- 4. to improve the technical level of athletes and coaches in cooperation with NOCs and IFs, including through scholarships;*
- 5. to train sports administrators;*
- 6. to collaborate with organisations and entities pursuing such objectives, particularly through Olympic education and the propagation of sport;*
- 7. to create where needed, simple, functional and economical sports facilities in cooperation with national or international bodies;*
- 8. to support the organisation of competitions at national, regional and continental level under the authority or patronage of the NOCs and to assist the NOCs in the organisation, preparation and participation of their delegations in regional and continental Games;*
- 9. to encourage joint bilateral or multilateral cooperation programmes among NOCs;*
- 10. to urge governments and international organisations to include sport in official development assistance.*

Such programmes are administered by the Olympic Solidarity Commission.

(International Olympic Committee, 2011:17-18)

Appendix E Agreements with Training Centres and NOCs (2002)

Olympic Solidarity signed agreements with training centres and other partners ...to accommodate scholarship holders in various sports for Athens 2004:

- Training centres:
 - National Institute of Sport and Physical Education (INSEP), Paris, France
 - Centro de Alto Rendimiento (CAR), Barcelona, Spain
 - World Cycling Centre (WCC), Aigle, Switzerland
 - Bolles school, Jacksonville, USA
 - Dakar International Athletics Centre (CIAD), Dakar, Senegal
 - Kip Keino High Altitude Training Centre, Eldoret, Kenya
 - International Judo and Wrestling Centre (CIJLA), Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire

- Partner NOCs (agreements with NOCs allowing access to their national training centres)
 - Australian Olympic Committee
 - Canadian Olympic Committee
 - United States Olympic Committee
 - Egyptian Olympic Committee
 - National Olympic Committee for Germany

- Partner IFs (agreements with IFs allowing access to their training centres)
 - International Badminton Federation (IBF)
 - International Rowing Federation (FISA)

(Olympic Solidarity, 2002:21)

Annex No. 7.

In 1974, Olympic Solidarity proposed five programmes of Sport Aid:

1. Mission of Experts: At the request of the NOC, OS would delegate one or several highly qualified experts to carry out on the spot assessment of a problem and recommend a possible solution.
 - The mission would last between 7 and 30 days
 - Implementation of any outcome would be responsibility of the NOC.
 - Travel and insurance expenses to be paid by OS
 - Local expenses of travel, office services, etc. to be paid by NOC.

2. Courses:
 - a. Symposia of general information for the preparation, training and perfection of Leaders of NOCs, NSFs, sports administrators and managers.
 - b. Courses of specialization and sports information for training perfection and professional specialization of National Technical Managers, National trainers, Directors of Institutes, Sports Medicine Centres, etc.
 - c. Courses of specialization and orientation in a given sport, for trainers and instructors in a well-defined sport and specialty, and for doctors in a given sport specialty.
 - National, Regional or Continental Courses lasting from 7 to 12 days, with 30 to 40 participants from the same geographical region, and organised by OS in collaboration with the NOC, and with the relevant International Federation if necessary.
 - Travel expenses, insurance and remuneration of experts and course director to be paid by OS.
 - Living expenses to be paid by NOC.
 - Organisational expenses to be paid by NOC
 - Documentation expenses to be paid by OS

3. Scholarships: exclusively for perfection and of training and specialization, for already qualified personnel. Diplomas in higher education are required for Sports Medicine and Sports Infrastructure courses.
 - To last between one and eight months
 - Travel expenses to be paid by NOC
 - Living and study expenses the responsibility of OS

4. Documentation:
 - a. The publication of handbooks in French, English and Spanish, on contemporary sport would include organisation, teaching, sports infrastructure and sports medicine.
 - b. A central reserve of audio-visual aids of didactic type which NOC would be able to borrow free of charge for a limited time.

5. Sports Venues and Equipment: missions of experts for advice regarding sports infrastructure of a town, country or region, or for specific consultation on a venue or complex, technical documentation, model of specific venue, scholarship for specialists in the planning and building of sports venues.

(Olympic Solidarity, 1975:45-47),

Proposals for structured Programmes 1978

After being discussed at the Mexico City meeting in April 1978, the Commission eventually put forward its first proposals towards a structured aid programme at the 80th IOC session in Athens, in May 1978

1. “The distribution of \$5,000 per year to be made to each NOCs requesting it.
2. Payment of travel and accommodation expenses of one representative per NOC to the General Assembly of NOCs to be held in Puerto Rico in 1979.
3. Partial reimbursement to NOCs for accommodation expenses incurred for the 1980 summer and Winter Games, or else contribution to athletes’ travel expenses according to a percentage to be established
4. Allotment by continent of a part of Olympic Solidarity funds. On the basis of the allocation, each NOC will be able to submit proposal for using these sums to the Olympic Solidarity Commission.”

All NOCs asking for this Olympic Solidarity aid must specify their needs and the use to which the money will be put; the NOCs must demonstrate the existence of a bank account into which the sum allocated by the IOC would be credited.

(International Olympic Committee, 1978f)

Appendix G Olympic Solidarity Aid 1981

1. Technical Participation – courses for a maximum of 20 participants of a Federation of an organizing NOC with a maximum duration of 3 weeks. OS would pay for the travel and indemnity of the expert nominated by the IF, with a budget of \$1,000 - \$3,000. All other expenses would be paid by the NOC. Experts to be recognised and nominated by the International Federation
2. National Course – courses for a maximum of 25 participants of National Federations of the organizing NOC with a duration of 12 to 14 days. OS would pay for the administration costs and the travel, lodging and indemnity of a maximum of 2 experts nominated by the IF, with a budget of \$12,000 - \$15,000.
3. Regional Course – courses for the organizing NOCs and 4 participating NOCs with duration of 13 to 14 days. OS would pay the administration costs and the travel, lodging and indemnity of a maximum of 2 experts nominated by the IF, with a budget of \$20,000 - \$30,000.

Some light equipment (balls, sports bags etc.) could also be provided for all these courses. (International Olympic Committee, 1980c-461)

<http://www.la84foundation.org/OlympicInformationCenter/OlympicReview/1980/ore154/ORE154v.pdf>

Appendix H Olympic Solidarity Programme Development

	Funded NOCs	167	187	197	200	202	205
	Programme	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
NOCS	MEMOS						
	NOC Exchange and Forums, Consultancy						
	NOC Admin./Infrastructure/IT						
	Subsidy						
	Aid						
	NOC Administrators						
	Itinerant School						
COACHES	Technical Courses						
	Coaches						
	National Sports Structure						
	Olympic Coach Scholarship						
	Courses/Activities						
ATHLETES	Olympic Athlete Scholarship						
	Young Athlete Scholarship						
	O.G. Preparation						
	Winter Games Preparation						
	Team Support						
	Cont. & Regional Games						
	TID						
OLYMPIC VALUES	IOA						
	Olympic Day Run (SFA)						
	Medical						
	Marketing						
	Environment						
	Women and Sport						
	Culture and Education						
	Legacy						
SUBSIDIES	Olympic Games Subsidy						
	General Assembly						
CONTINENTAL	Continental Associations						
	Continental Programmes						

1. Continental Programmes

- Continental Associations support and contribute to the various stages of planning, organisation, co-ordination and follow-up of OS programmes within their specific zones in order to guarantee their successful implementation
- Annual grant to enable them to cover a part of the operating costs
- Financing of annual seminars for Secretary Generals of NOCs and of periodic meetings, such as executive committees and general assemblies

2. Programmes for National Olympic Committees

Activities

Funds that were primarily intended for technical sport training programmes can now be allocated to other fields:

- Organising technical sports training programmes
- Acquiring sports equipment
- Developing National Olympic Academies
- Organising Courses on training, advanced coaching or retraining
- Enabling national teams to participate in various international competitions
- Organising local competitions

Administrative Assistance

They receive a grant to cover their operating costs

Preparation and participation in the Olympic Games

- For the first time, designed to offer support towards the final stages of preparation of the athletes for their participation in the Olympic Games.
- Payment of travel and accommodation of President/Secretary at Games and subsidy that is in proportion to the number of athletes

taking part in the games, which seeks to strengthen the universality of the Olympic Games, by ensuring that all NOCs may participate and by providing additional support to those NOCs that make a proportionally greater contribution to the development and success of the Games.

- Travelling expenses of one delegate to attend the seminar for Heads of National Teams (Chef de Mission)

International Olympic Academy

- Annual sessions for young people
- International sessions for Directors and Senior Executives of NOAs/IFs/NOCs
- International seminars for graduates in Olympic Studies
- Specialised sessions for sports journalists, teachers, coaches, sports leaders and medical staff.

Medical Commission

- To disseminate scientific knowledge and make it available worldwide
- Sports medicine courses; protecting the athlete, defending medical and sporting ethics, ensuring all participants have an equal chance
- Training courses organised by NOCs and
- participation of delegates to the IOC biennial world congresses on sports science

Sport for All – Olympic Day Run

Women and Sport

- Regional seminars
- NOC activities encouraging female participation in sport
- Training and participation of NOC delegates at the world conferences

Environment

- Regional seminars
- Specific NOC activities aimed at safeguarding the environment
- Participation of delegates at the IOC global conferences

- Programmes designed for the exclusive benefit of the most disadvantaged NOCs with the aim of raising the technical standard of their athletes, coaches and sport leaders.

Olympic scholarships for young promising athletes

- Training conditions within their country or high level training centres (this programme was terminated in December 1997 and a new programme will start for 1998/2000)

Olympic Scholarships for Athletes – Sydney 2000

- Athletes who have demonstrated their ability to achieve at least the minimum standards required to qualify for the Summer Olympiad. To benefit from the best possible preparation

Olympic Scholarship for Coaches

- Training in sciences applied to sport
- Sport specific training
- Development of the local sporting infrastructure
- Average 3-6months

Training for Sports Administrators/Leaders

- Itinerant School Programme – National Course Directors

3. IOC-IF Programme - Joint courses with IFs

- IFs support the technical and the pedagogical aspects of the NOC programmes. They appoint expert instructors to advise OS on the selection of scholarship candidates and on evaluation of the training programmes for scholarship-holders.

(Olympic Solidarity, 1997a:11-15)

WORLD PROGRAMMES 2001-2004

World programmes are those from which all NOCs may benefit. The programmes will be managed by Olympic Solidarity in Lausanne, in co-ordination with the respective Continental Associations, in order to achieve greater benefit and specificity for the different continents and regions. The Continental Associations will be informed of all the different actions undertaken by Olympic Solidarity concerning these programmes in their respective continent.

These programmes (21 in total) cover 4 main areas:

1. Athletes programmes
2. Coaches programmes
3. NOCs Management programmes
4. Special fields (in co-operation with the IOC Commissions)

ATHLETES

1. OLYMPIC SCHOLARSHIPS FOR ATHLETES "ATHENS 2004"

Objective: To assist athletes nominated by their respective NOCs in their preparation and qualification for the Games of the XXVIII Olympiad, Athens.

Conditions:

The programme will be operational from 1st August 2002 to 31st July 2004. **All NOCs will be eligible to apply for this programme.**

Athletes having won medals at the Olympic Games or World Championships prior to 1st December 2001 will not be eligible to benefit from an Olympic scholarship.

All athletes will be required to submit to Olympic Solidarity a detailed preparation and competition plan for the period of their scholarships - including all qualifying competitions.

Olympic Solidarity will offer a limited number of scholarships per NOC.

Training options:

Each athlete's training option will be decided by Olympic Solidarity following consultation with the IFs, NOC and Continental Association.

Athletes may be offered a "home training option" to train in their home country. In these cases, the fixed amount per month per scholarship will be variable depending on the economic situation of the country and other factors.

According to the various technical needs of the athlete, these may be offered the possibility to train abroad in a high level training centre with which Olympic Solidarity has an agreement. Through a closer collaboration with the IFs and large NOCs, Olympic Solidarity will aim to expand the training centre network.

2. REGIONAL AND CONTINENTAL GAMES NOC PREPARATION PROGRAMME

Objective: To offer NOCs assistance for their individual athletes and/or national teams in their final preparation programmes for regional and Continental Games.

Conditions: The programme will be operational from 1st April 2001 until 31st July 2004. **All NOCs will be eligible to apply for this programme.** A specific programme, including the list of Games to be included, will be determined for each continent following consultation with the respective Continental Associations. NOCs must present a detailed programme, with proposed budget, for the final preparation of team sports and/or individual athletes. Athletes benefiting from this programme who are subsequently put forward for an "Athens 2004" scholarship will no longer be eligible for support.

3. YOUTH DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

Objectives:

1. Identify young, talented athletes at a national level.
2. Offer high level training to a limited number of young, talented athletes who have a strong potential and who have already demonstrated a good standard.

Conditions: The programme will run from July 2001 to December 2004. The programme will be divided into two separate and distinct parts:

1. Talent identification. A fixed annual subsidy will be provided to NOCs. NOCs will be required to submit a detailed programme for talent identification and youth sports development. Olympic Solidarity will provide the NOCs with very clear guidelines on how they may utilise the budget available. Olympic Solidarity will encourage that the NOCs carry out this programme in collaboration with the national sporting authorities.

2. Training for elite youth. To be managed in collaboration with the Olympic sports IFs, on behalf of the NOCs. **A limited number of highly talented young athletes, identified by the IFs through results at continental and international junior competitions,** will be offered short term training courses at IF designated and approved training centres. The best athletes from this programme could be offered a full scholarship on the Athens 2004 programme from 2003.

SALT LAKE CITY 2002- NOC PREPARATION PROGRAMME

Objective: To offer financial assistance towards the final preparation stages and qualification of NOC teams eligible to participate in the XIX Olympic Winter Games.

Conditions / Guidelines: The programme will be operational from 1st June 2001 to 7th February 2002. **Only NOCs having sent a team of less than 70 athletes to the Nagano Winter Games and having financial difficulties** in the preparation of their teams for Salt Lake City will be asked to send a proposal for assistance under this programme. NOCs must present a detailed programme, with proposed budget for the preparation of team sports or individual athletes. All proposed athletes must have competed at an international level during the 1999/2000 or the 2001/2002 Season.

ATHENS 2004 - TEAM SPORTS SUPPORT GRANTS

Objective: To offer the NOCs the financial support needed to maximise their chances to qualify one team for the Games of the XXVIII Olympiad in Athens 2004.

Conditions: This programme will offer two possibilities to NOCs:

1. Financial assistance towards the organisation of training camps for the national teams prior to Olympic qualification competitions.

2. Financial assistance for the participation of the national teams in the official qualification events where these are not financed by the respective IFs.

The programme will be operational from 1st April 2002 to 31st July 2004. **All NOCs will be eligible to apply for this programme.** Seven team sports to be included in the programme: baseball, basketball, handball, field hockey, waterpolo, softball and volleyball. The programme is not focused on the development of team sports from the grass roots level but will concentrate on assisting already established teams, which have a viable chance to qualify for the Athens 2004 Olympic Games. NOCs shall only be able to apply for assistance towards one team sport during the four year period. NOCs must present a detailed programme, with proposed budget, to cover the Olympic qualification period for their chosen team sport. A maximum budget per NOC [is] to be established by Olympic Solidarity. Should a team qualify for the Athens 2004 Olympic Games, further assistance could be provided prior to the Olympic Games for specialised training camps.

COACHES

TECHNICAL COURSES

Objective: To offer basic level training for coaches in all Olympic sports, similar programme to that which has been offered during the 1997-2000 quadrennial.

Conditions: **All NOCs have access to this programme.** Each NOC may organise two courses per year. Standard curricula will be developed by each IF (levels 1, 2 and 3) in collaboration with Olympic Solidarity. Every course must conclude with an official IF recognised certification. Level 1 courses will always be organised on a national basis. Level 2 and level 3 courses could be organised on a regional basis.

Note: It is important to note that for the 2001-2004 quadrennial, the programme of technical courses has been completely separated from the former NOCs Activities programme. The NOCs Activities programme still exists with an annual budget to NOCs of US\$ 40'000 for the implementation of individual priority actions, but will henceforth be managed under the continental programmes. A detailed explanation follows in the section "Continental Programmes".

SCHOLARSHIPS FOR COACHES

Objective: To offer coaches the possibility to benefit from high level training experience and knowledge which they can afterwards apply to the advantage of their respective national sports structures.

Conditions: The programme will be divided into two parts.

1. Training in sports sciences Individual scholarships to upgrade certified coaches by attending courses organised by different Universities and high level training centres. Olympic Solidarity will work to expand the scope of courses available, during this four-year period.

2. Sports specific training Short to medium term (one to six months) coaching experience and training in specific sports for practising coaches. The basic implementation of these programmes will follow similar procedures to those adopted during the 1997-2000 quadrennial.

DEVELOPMENT OF NATIONAL COACHING STRUCTURE

Objective: To allow NOCs to develop the national sports and coaching structure by implementing an action plan for a specific sport.

Conditions: **This option will be offered to NOCs with weak sports structures** and will incorporate the visit of an experienced coach from abroad on a mid to long term basis. The coach will be involved in

training local coaches, support and training for athletes, improving the different training programmes for elite sport, sport for all, school sport and so on. The basic implementation of this programme will follow similar procedures to those adopted during the 1997-2000 quadrennial.

NOC INFRASTRUCTURE

Sub-programme 1: Administrative Assistance

Objective: To support the administrative structure of the NOC to enable it to meet general running costs, (salaries, telecommunication costs, rental of office space, costs of NOC meetings, training of office staff, development of Games times services, etc.).

Conditions: **All NOCs have access to this programme.** In the past NOCs received a grant of US\$15,000 - per year for supporting their administrative infrastructure. For 2001 - 2004 this amount will be increased to US\$20,000 - per year.

Sub-programme 2: Information Technology Development

Objective: To ensure that all NOCs are equipped with suitable computer technology that will enable them to use up-to-date word processing, communicate by e-mail, access the Internet and the NOC Extranet This will also involve educating and training NOC personnel to be competent in its use.

Conditions: All NOCs have access to this programme. This programme will be implemented in three phases:

1. By the end of June 2001, Olympic Solidarity will have carried out the necessary research to indicate the areas of need, including necessary upgrading of hard and software.
2. From July 2001 up until the end of 2002 Olympic Solidarity will complete the task of providing all necessary equipment.
3. From the beginning of 2002 up until the end of 2004 the emphasis will be placed upon guaranteeing the maintenance of this equipment as well as providing the essential training for using

SPORTS ADMINISTRATORS PROGRAMME

Objective: The organisation of courses for sports leaders on a national level based on the recently upgraded and much praised Sports Administration Manual, using National Course Directors trained under the former "Sports Administrators Programme" and International Course: Directors where special needs arise.

Conditions: **All NOCs have access to this programme.** NOCs may claim US\$1,500 - per course as well as an indemnity of US\$400 - for the National Course Directors. Payment will be made on receipt of the course report.

For 2001, this programme will continue to be implemented according to the same format used for the last quadrennial. However, from January to July 2001 an overall objective appraisal of the 1997 -2000 programme will be carried out (manual, structure, course implementation) with a View to preparing improvements for 2002 - 2004.

Olympic Solidarity will send a letter to the NOCs reminding them of the normal procedures of applying for the Sports Administration courses. This system will remain in place until the NOCs are informed otherwise.

HIGH LEVEL EDUCATION FOR SPORTS ADMINISTRATORS

Objective: To provide promising young sports administrators with high level training programmes of international significance.

Conditions: **All NOCs have access to this programme.** This programme will be implemented in two ways:

1. During 2001, the creation of a network of universities who can provide training courses for administrators on a continental basis. This will be very much along the lines of the high level training for coaches. These courses will be available from January 2002.
2. The creation of a limited number of scholarships at a high level for individuals who would benefit from such training and who would bring their knowledge to bear on the work of the NOCs. These scholarships will be available from July 2001.

NOC MANAGEMENT CONSULTANCY

Objective: This "*a la carte*" programme will assist individual NOCs to develop a range of different aspects of management, administration and specific programmes (e.g. marketing). A group of external experts will be created to work with the NOCs on a mentoring basis and provide in depth support.

Conditions: **All NOCs have access to this programme.**

NOCs may make an application by letter to Olympic Solidarity as from January 2001 explaining their particular requirements. However, more detailed information will be sent during the first quarters of 2001 setting out specific guidelines.

If accepted onto the programme, following consultation with the Continental Association, an expert will be dispatched to work with the NOC. In some cases, programme may involve more than one NOC working collaboratively.

REGIONAL FORUMS

Objective: The organisation of forums for groups of a limited number of NOCs, to be decided in collaboration with each of the Continental Associations. Different topics will be addressed depending on the area of interest of the NOCS.

Conditions: **All NOCs have access to this programme.** The forums will take place in two phases:

Phase 1: The objective in this phase is for Olympic Solidarity to explain to the NOCs the new programmes to be implemented during the 2001-2004 quadrennial. These forums will take place during the first half of 2001 and will be undertaken in close co-operation with the Continental Association.

Phase 2: Forums on various topics which deserve special attention (eg. IOC programmes on doping, women and sport, Olympic Games operations) will be held in close collaboration with the IOC, Continental Associations and Organising Committees.

Applications should be made through the Continental Association who will apply to Olympic Solidarity in the first instance. Each Continental Association will develop an annual programme of regional forums which meets the needs of the NOCs of that continent.

SPECIAL FIELDS

OLYMPIC GAMES PARTICIPATION

Objectives: To assist all NOCs with athletes qualified to attend the Olympic Games in Salt Lake City and Athens, as well as the corresponding Chefs de mission meetings.

Conditions: **Only NOCs with qualified athletes will have access to this programme.**

Salt Lake City - Chef de mission meeting (28.2-4.3.2001) : one air ticket per NOC covered.

Salt Lake City - Participation: Transport: 3 athletes / 1 official, Logistics Assistance for transportation / accommodation NOCs Presidents and Secretaries General. Grant based on number of athletes having participated in the competitions,

Athens - Chef de mission meeting, Athens - Participation

More information will be sent, at the beginning of January regarding the Chefs de mission meeting in Salt Lake City and in due time regarding the other assistance.

SPORTS MEDICINE

Objectives: To spread the latest medical techniques and update the knowledge in sports medicine and especially to reinforce education programmes against doping.

Conditions: This programme will be similar to the current programme. The sports medicine courses offered to the NOCs will be renewed – the standards of the courses would be brought up to date and adapted with the new means of communication (CD-ROM, Internet) Purchase of handbooks, encyclopaedia by the IOC in favour of NOCs Anti-doping initiatives by the NOCs.

SPORT AND ENVIRONMENT

Objectives: To encourage respect for and preservation of the environment through sport and to support the implementation of actions plans to preserve our natural heritage.

Conditions: This programme will be similar to the current programme. Support for the organisation of regional seminars organised by the "sport and environment" IOC Commission. Assistance to the NOCs for individual initiatives in the frame of a sustainable development (educational projects, regular actions at the community level). Assistance to the NOCs for their participation in biennial IOC international conferences (2001 et 2003).

WOMEN AND SPORT

Objectives: To promote sports activities for women, to reinforce the actions launched by the NOCs and to encourage the participation of women to take up administrative positions in sport.

Conditions: This programme will be similar to the current programme. Support to the NOCs for specific initiatives, such as national information workshops, training of sports leaders, research projects and other initiatives in relation to women and sport. Assistance for the organisation of sub-regional seminars by the IOC Assistance to some NOCs for their participation in international conferences organised by the IOC (2004)

SPORT FOR ALL

Objectives: To promote sport and encourage the practice of sport activities at all levels of society. A special action financed through this programme that implicates more than 50% of the expenses of this project is the Olympic Day Run.

Conditions: The programme will be similar to the current programme. Assistance towards the expenses incurred by the NOCs in organising the Olympic Day Run. Assistance towards individual initiatives organised by the NOCs Training courses for instructors in Sport for All Financial support to the NOCS for their participation in Sport for all World Congress (2002 NED -2004).

CULTURE AND EDUCATION

Objectives: To promote culture and Olympic education as well as research and studies in this field.

Conditions: New programme for the 2001 - 2004 quadrennial. Support for the organisation of regional or continental forums. Development of activities / short or middle term projects with the IOC Culture and Olympic Education Commission Development of activities / short or middle term projects with the IOC Olympic Studies Centre at the Olympic Museum in Lausanne Creation of an universal manual on Olympism (scheduled over several years) Assistance to the NOCs for a cultural competition launched by the IOC Culture and Olympic Education Commission Assistance to the NOC for the development of individual initiatives / activities in the field of: Creation of National Olympic Academy Organisation of sessions / seminars of National Olympic Academy Organisation of specific competitions (painting, poetry, etc.) Research on Olympism, Support for studies and research on Olympism by means of scholarships

Beneficiaries: The NOCs, the National Olympic Academies (with NOC support), Schools or Universities (with NOC support)

NOC LEGACY

Objectives: To preserve national Olympic legacies.

Conditions: New programme for the 2001 - 2004 quadrennial. Assistance to the NOCs for the preservation of their country's Olympic legacy, assistance for museum maintenance, and implementation of NOC archives (training)

CONTINENTAL PROGRAMMES 2001-2004

Definition: Specific programmes for each continent aimed at addressing the specific needs and priorities of each continent as well as complementing the programmes offered at a world level.

Areas (programmes) covered:

1. Continental Association Administration: Budget to contribute to the development and maintenance of the structure and running of the Continental Association.
2. Continental Association Meetings: Budget to contribute to the organisation of all meetings (General Assembly, Secretaries General, Executive Board, Commissions.....) that are considered necessary for the proper running of the Continental Association.
3. Continental Association Activities: Budget to assist with the development of specific Activities for the continent, for the benefit of the NOCs, and which the Continental Association considers priority. It should cover areas not included in the list of world programmes or complement and strengthen areas that are included but that are of special interest for the continent.
4. Continental and Regional Games (organisation): Through this programme, funds are granted to the Continental Association so that it can assist with the organisation of Continental and Regional Games. The policy for distributing these funds in each continent remains the complete responsibility of the respective Continental Association.

We believe that this new programme responds to the requests of a vast majority of NOCs and also to the IOC 2000 recommendations, showing the growing importance of these competitions in the development of sport and Olympism in many regions of the world.

* Note: With a view to perfect co-ordination between world and continental programmes, this programme shall not cover assistance for the preparation of athletes for these games, since this concept is covered by the "World programmes" under "Regional and Continental Games - NOC preparation programme".

5. NOCs Activities: This programme, which already existed in the past quadrennial, aims to provide each NOC with a fixed subsidy per year to enable them to develop their own priority and specific activities. For the 2001- 2004 quadrennial Continental Association will define the distribution of these funds among the respective NOCs (from a total budget), as well as the rules for obtaining the subsidies and the systems of technical and financial control.

(Text highlighted in red by author)

(Olympic Solidarity Programmes for 2001-2004 (PDF))

Appendix K Individual Programme Aims

1. Olympic Athlete Scholarship Programme/ Team Grants - To help athletes/teams qualify for, and participate in the Olympic Games
2. Youth Development Programme - to set up or improve systems for identifying young, talented athletes and to provide assistance for their training.
3. Technical Courses for Coaches - to provide basic training for Coaches in different sports
4. Scholarships for Coaches- to enable NOCs to develop training for coaches at national level by organising a range of courses at different levels in close collaboration with the IFs
5. National Coaching Structure – to enable NOCs to develop a national sports structure, particularly training for national coaches, through a plan of action focused on a specific sport.
6. Sport Management – strengthening the NOCs’ administrative infrastructure, training sports administrators and offering assistance tailored to the individual NOC’s needs.
7. NOC infrastructure – to enable NOCs to improve their administrative arrangements and strengthen their operational systems by meeting their general running costs. To develop information technology in order to ensure that NOCs are equipped with suitable computer technology and, if necessary, that their staff can be trained to use it.
8. Sport Administrators – to enhance sports administrators’ abilities in sport management and knowledge of the Olympic Movement, and to reach out on grassroots level to sports administrators in different regions of the country
9. MEMOS – to provide , via the NOCs, sports administrators with high-level training programmes of international scope
10. Management Consultancy – to offer NOCs “a la carte” assistance in developing management and administration in different fields such as marketing, communication and legal issues, so they can improve their internal structures.
11. NOC Exchange - to foster and promote as sharing of experiences between NOCs.

12. Regional Forums – to help groups of NOCs to organise forums addressing topics deserving special mention

13. Special Fields

To help the NOCs fulfil their tasks as members of the Olympic Movement, to strengthen their role in their respective countries, and to increase their presence within international sport.

14. Sports Medicine – to develop and spread scientific and technical knowledge in sports medicine and to intensify anti-doping educational programmes for NOCs.

15. Sport and Environment – to raise awareness of and accountability for sport and its links with the environment.

16. Women and Sport – to take a number of actions which are necessary to meet IOC objectives, i.e. promoting sports activities or women and encouraging the participation of women in sports administration

17. IOA- to encourage NOCs and NOAs to send participants to the various IOA sessions, which are designed to teach, spread and champion the ideas of the Olympic Movement, and to facilitate access to them.

18. Sport for All – to promote sport at all levels and encourage the practice of physical activities by all segments of society.

19. Culture and Education – to promote culture and Olympic education through the activities of the IOC Commission for Culture and Education and individual NOC initiatives as well as research and studies in this field.

20. NOC Legacy – to preserve national Olympic history and legacies by offering support to NOCs in the form of training assistance for setting up archives and support for museum maintenance.

21. Olympic Games Participation – to help NOCs participate in the Olympic Games by offering financial assistance before, during and after the Games.

(Olympic Solidarity, 2004)

1. World Programmes 2009-2012

World programmes offer the NOCs access to TECHNICAL, FINANCIAL and ADMINISTRATIVE assistance for the organisation of specific sport development activities.

Olympic Solidarity has elaborated 19 distinct World Programmes for the 2009-2012 quadrennial that highlight four main areas of sports development considered as essential for NOCs to accomplish the mission that is entrusted to them by the Olympic Charter.

The four programme areas available to the NOCs during the 2009-2012 quadrennial as well as the world programmes offered in each area are noted below :

ATHLETES	
1	Olympic Scholarships for Athletes "Vancouver 2010"
2	Olympic Scholarships for Athletes "London 2012"
3	Team Support Grants
4	Continental and Regional Games – Athletes Preparation
5	Youth Olympic Games – Athletes Preparation
COACHES	
6	Technical Courses for Coaches
7	Olympic Scholarships for Coaches
8	Development of National Sports Structure
NOC MANAGEMENT	
9	NOC Administration Development
10	National Training Courses for Sport Administrators
11	International Executive Training Courses in Sport Management
12	NOC Exchange and Regional Forums
PROMOTION OF OLYMPIC VALUES	
13	Sports Medicine
14	Sport and Environment
15	Women and Sport
16	Sports for All
17	International Olympic Academy
18	Culture and Education
19	NOC Legacy

The Olympic Solidarity (International) offices in Lausanne, will manage the World programmes in coordination with the respective Continental Associations (CAs), in order to achieve a greater specificity for the different continents and regions. Olympic Solidarity will also work closely with the International Olympic Sports Federations (IFs), IOC Commissions and various other partners to develop and deliver these world programmes to all NOCs.

Olympic Solidarity Programmes

2009-2012

All NOCs will have access to the 19 World Programmes during the 2009 – 2012 quadrennial. Please note, however, that, in accordance with Olympic Solidarity's mission, budget allocation within the programmes will favour the NOCs with the most needs.

2. Continental Programmes

Continental programmes offer the NOCs access to TECHNICAL, FINANCIAL and ADMINISTRATIVE assistance which addresses the specific needs and priorities of the NOCs in that continent, as well as complementing the programmes offered at a world level and are administered by each Continental Association Olympic Solidarity office.

In accordance with the policy of decentralisation of Olympic Solidarity, the five Continental Associations of NOCs listed below will offer specific Continental programmes to their constituent NOCs during the 2009 – 2012 quadrennial:

Olympic Solidarity Programmes

2009-2012

Following the approval of the 2009 – 2012 quadrennial budget by the Olympic Solidarity Commission in October 2008, each Continental Association will be required to decide upon the programmes, objectives and budgets of the Continental programmes that will be offered to the NOCs during the period 2009 – 2012. The Continental quadrennial plan (programmes, objectives, options within the programmes, annual and programme budgets) will be submitted to,

and duly approved by, the relevant body within the Continental Association structure and will subsequently be ratified by the Olympic Solidarity Commission.

The strategic management of the Continental programmes will be carried out by the five Continental Association Olympic Solidarity offices in complete coordination with the Olympic Solidarity International office in Lausanne.

3. Olympic Games Subsidies

Olympic Games Subsidies assist NOCs to participate in the Olympic Games by offering FINANCIAL assistance, before, during and after the Olympic Games.

Beijing Olympic Games

NOC participation

Vancouver Olympic Winter Games

NOC participation and Chef de Mission seminar

London Olympic Games

Chef de Mission seminar

Olympic Solidarity (International) in Lausanne, will distribute the subsidies in coordination with the respective Organising Committees of the Olympic Games (BOCOG, VANOC and LOCOG) and the International Olympic Committee. All NOCs that participated in the Beijing Olympic Games and will participate in the Vancouver Olympic Winter Games will receive these subsidies.

The subsidy for the NOCs' participation in the London Olympic Games will form part of the 2013 – 2016 quadrennial budget as these funds will be derived from the revenues from the London and Sochi Olympic Games.

Olympic Solidarity official communication for 2009-2012 quadrennial Programmes

http://www.sportingpulse.com/get_file.cgi?id=230597

Olympic Solidarity Commission 1973

President:

Jonkheer Herman A. van Karnebeek Netherlands (NED)

Co-ordinator:

Giulio Onesti Italy (ITA)

Appointed by the IOC:

José Bercasa A	Venezuela (VEN)
Raymond Gafner	Switzerland (SUI)
Gabriel Gemayel	Lebanon (LIB)
Abdel Mohamed Halim	Sudan (SUD)
Douglas F. Roby	United States of America (USA)
Vitaly Smirnov	Soviet Union (USSR)
Hugh Weir	Austria (AUS)

NOC Representatives:

General H. E. Adefope	Nigeria (NGR)
Sabino Aguad Kunkar	Chile (CHI)
Bo Bengston	Sweden (SWE)
Sandy Duncan	Great Britain (GBR)
Jean-Claude Ganga	Congo (CGO)
Gunther Heinze,	East Germany (GDR)
Kazushige Hirasawa	Japan (JPN)
Raoul Mollet	Belgium (BEL)
Hassan Rassouli	Iran (IRI)
Walther Tröger	West Germany (GER)
Harold M. Wright	Canada (CAN)

(International Olympic Committee, 1973a:261)

Olympic Solidarity Commission 1984

Juan Antonio Samaranch (Chairman) Spain (ESP) (IOC President)

Mario Vasquez Rana (V/Chairman) Mexico (MEX) (PASO) (ANOC)

Members:

Constantin Andrianov Soviet Union (USSR)

Raymond Gafner Switzerland (SUI)

Walther Troger West Germany (GER)

William Simon United States of America (USA)

Richard Kevin Gosper Austria (AUS)

Zhenliang He China (CHN)

Dawee Chullasapya Thailand (THA)

Lamine Keita Mali (MLI)

Marian Renke Poland (POL)

Fahad Al-Ahmad Al-Sabah Kuwait (KUW) (OCA)

Franco Carraro Italy (ITA) (EOC)

Anani Matthia Togo (TOG) (ANOCA)

Lance S. Cross New Zealand (NZL) (ONOC)

Klaus Kotter Germany (GER) (IF)

Horst G. Schreiber Germany (GER) (IF)

(Olympic Solidarity, 1984a)

OLYMPIC SOLIDARITY

“The aim of Olympic Solidarity is to organize aid to National Olympic Committees recognized by the International Olympic Committee, in particular those which have the greatest need of it. This aid takes the form of programmes elaborated jointly by the IOC and the NOCs, with the technical assistance of the IFs, if necessary.”

-- Olympic Charter Definition

Olympic Solidarity, whose origins date back to 1961, reflects the Olympic ethic based on the notions of generosity, understanding and international co-operation, cultural exchange, sport and its educational aspects, and a society concerned with human dignity and peace.

It is one of the Olympic Movement’s greatest achievements. Through the NOCs, Olympic Solidarity promotes and assists the development of Olympism and sport worldwide and plays a central role in achieving the goal of universal participation in the Games.

The IOC 2000 Commission confirms and reinforces the current IOC policy for the following points:

- The programmes currently being conducted by Olympic Solidarity should continue to be supported, and the excellent work being carried out can be further developed. The programme helps the NOCs and the Continental Associations to develop sports infrastructure in their respective areas by carefully tailoring programs to match specific needs and priorities.

- In the current quadrennial, Olympic Solidarity has granted the NOCs and Continental Associations much greater autonomy to apply the funds provided to them as they see fit. To date, this decentralisation has yielded the expected results. The IOC 2000 Commission encourages this current Olympic Solidarity policy regarding the support for Continental Associations and their role as the vehicle for

delivery of the proposed decentralized programmes. The Continental Associations provide extensive support at all stages in the planning, organization, coordination, follow-up and supervision of the programmes implemented in their respective zones. This has to be an important basis for continuing towards this decentralized structure.

The IOC 2000 Commission proposes the following recommendations on this topic to the IOC Session:

RECOMMENDATION 23: ROLE OF OLYMPIC SOLIDARITY

Olympic Solidarity should act as the co-ordinator of the development programmes of all members of the Olympic Movement. This will ensure better use of existing resources, avoid duplication in the delivery of programmes, and ensure better co-ordination in joint strategies with partners outside the Olympic Movement, such as governmental and non-governmental organizations.

RECOMMENDATION 24: DECENTRALIZED PROGRAMMES

24.1 Olympic Solidarity must provide support to Continental/Regional Games under IOC patronage by:

24.1.1 promoting and facilitating the transfer of knowledge and technology to Organizing Committees of these Games, especially that deriving from the Olympic Games.

24.1.2 providing assistance for the preparation of athletes.

24.1.3 providing support for participation by NOCs.

Continental and Regional Games are becoming more important in the development of sports in their regions, as well as being recognized as qualifying tournaments for the Olympic Games. In many instances, Continental Games provide many athletes from around the world their only opportunity to compete in multi-sports events, as higher qualifying standards and the ever-increasing size of the Olympic Games prevents them from participating in the Olympic Games.

24.2 The IOC 2000 Commission recommends developing Regional/Sub-regional Sports Training Centres through Olympic Solidarity assistance according to the

needs and aspirations of the Continent. These centres will help further the technical development of sports and the athletes who practise them.

Regional / Sub-regional Training Centres already have been established in certain sports, e.g., tennis and weightlifting, and provide a centre of excellence in areas where national centres are not affordable but are located in areas of cultural similarity. Athletes are then able to comfortably adapt and train away from home without having to travel to and train in a “foreign” environment.

RECOMMENDATION 25: HUMANITARIAN ACTIVITIES

Humanitarian projects developed in collaboration with other organizations will be pursued and reinforced as long as they meet the following conditions:

25.1 they should concern only members of the Olympic Family.

25.2 they should concern the development and practice of sport.

25.3 they should convey a message which clearly highlights the IOC’s commitment to the cause.

RECOMMENDATION 26: INFORMATION TRANSFER

The IOC, through Olympic Solidarity, will ensure that all NOCs have access to appropriate and compatible technology to encourage information transfer between the members of the Olympic Movement.

RECOMMENDATION 27: EDUCATION

The IOC 2000 Commission proposes that NOCs include a session in all Olympic Solidarity-funded programmes to educate athletes, administrators, coaches and sports scientists concerning the Olympic Movement.

RECOMMENDATION 28: REGIONAL INFORMATION CENTERS

The IOC 2000 Commission recommends that Olympic Solidarity help set up, where feasible, Regional / Sub-regional Sports Information Centres to enable the further dissemination of information on the Olympic ideals and on the technical and administrative development of sport.

RECOMMENDATION 29: EVALUATION/ACCOUNTABILITY

With the increased autonomy being given to NOCs and Continental Associations for the administration and delivery of Olympic Solidarity programmes comes the responsibility to ensure that funding made available has been applied in accordance with the purpose for which it was given.

For that reason, better co-ordination between the different IOC departments involved and an improved auditing procedure of Olympic Solidarity programmes will be implemented.

This should be in co-ordination with the ongoing consultation with the partners of the Olympic Movement on how to evaluate the effectiveness of sports development through Olympic Solidarity.

The IOC 2000 Commission recommends the following item for further study:

- An assessment of NOCs, related to factors such as national development, territorial size and population, is required in order to implement specific solutions in accordance with the needs of these NOCs. The Olympic Solidarity programme, in its current format, excludes the more developed (in economic terms) NOCs from some of its programmes, yet funds them equally irrespective of size or population base.

(International Olympic Committee, 2000:17)

http://www.olympic.org/Documents/Reports/EN/en_report_588.pdf

Olympic Solidarity Commission (as at 31st December 2012)

Chairman	Sheikh Ahmad Al-Fahad AL-SABAH	Kuwait (KUW)
Members :	Husain AL-MUSALLAM	Kuwait (KUW)
	Ricardo BLAS	Guam
	Richard Kevan GOSPER	Australia (AUS)
	Patrick Joseph HICKEY	Ireland (IRL)
	Gunilla LINDBERG	Sweden (SWE)
	The Grand Duke of LUXEMBOURG	Luxembourg (LUX)
	Julio César MAGLIONE	Uruguay (URU)
	Robin E. MITCHELL	Fiji (FIJ)
	Raffaele PAGNOZZI	Italy (ITA)
	Intendant General Lassana PALENFO	Nigeria (NGR)
	Richard PETERKIN	Saint Lucia (LCA)
	Yumilka RUIZ LUACES	Cuba (CUB)
	Jimena SALDAÑA	Mexico (MEX)
	Khaled ZEIN EL DIN	Egypt (EGY)

(Olympic Solidarity, 2012)

Annex 4 - Part B. – Budget: US\$858,170.

AFRICA

Maroc	Egypt	Soudan	Haute Volta	Chad	Kenya
Tunisia		Uganda	Togo	Cameroun	Tanzania
Libya		Ethiopia	Dahomey	Central Africa	Zambia
Algerie		Somalia	Niger		Malawi
Senegal		Gabon	Sierra Leone		Madagascar
Mali		Congo	Liberia		Swaziland
Guinee		Zaire	Ghana		Lesotho
Cote D'Ivoire			Nigeria		Mauritius

ASIA

Afghanistan	Birmania	Syria	Thailande	Coree RPD
Pakistan	Nepal	Liban	Malasie	Coree
Iran	Sri Lanka	Irak	Singapore	Mongolia
Turkique	India	Jordan	Indonesia	Hong Kong
				Philippines
Arabie Saoudite				
Koweit				

AMERICA

Mexico	Cuba	Nicaragua	Bahamas
Guatemala	Haiti	Costa Rica	Jamaïque
Honduras	Rep. Dom	Panama	Honduras Brit

El Salvador	Porto Rico	Venezuela	Isles Verges (US)
Barbados	Brazil	Paraguay	Colombia
Netherland Antilles		Chili	Equateur
Trinidad & Tobago		Uruguay	Peru
Guyana		Argentina	Bolivia
Suriname			

Turkey is listed under ASIA

Malta (6) and Yugoslavia (1) were also granted scholarships.

Birmanian / Burma was renamed Myanmar by the military government in 1989.

Haute Volta (1920-1983) became Burkina Faso

Dahomey (1960-1975) became Benin

Zaire (1971-1997) became Democratic Republic of Congo

British Honduras (1862-1964) became Belize

(Olympic Solidarity, 1975:32-34)

Appendix Q NOCs who benefited from Olympic Solidarity Aid 1974-1976

110 NOCs (81.48%) benefited from 760 activities.

Africa (35)	America (32)	Asia (30)	Europe (12)	Oceania (1)
Algeria	USA	Japan	Iceland	Fiji
Morocco	Mexico	D.P.R. Korea	Ireland	
Tunisia	Guatemala	Korea	Germany	
Mali	Honduras	P.R. of China	Andorra	
Haute Volta (Burkina Faso)	Belize	Mongolia	Portugal	
Gambia	Nicaragua	R. of China	Malta	
Senegal	Costa Rica	Hong-Kong	Finland	
Sierra Leone	Panama	Vietnam	Poland	
Ghana	Bahamas	Laos	Hungary	
Guinea	Bermuda	Cambodia	Greece	
Ivory Coast	Cuba	Philippines	Turkey	
Liberia	Haiti	Indonesia	Yugoslavia	
Togo	Dominican Republic	Brunei		
Benin	Jamaica	Singapore		
Libya	Barbados	Malaysia		
Niger	Virgin Islands	Thailand		
Nigeria	Antigua	Birmania (Myanmar)		
Gabon	Trinidad	Bangladesh		
Chad	Puerto Rico	Sri Lanka		
Sudan	Surinam	India		
Ethiopia	Colombia	Nepal		
Somalia	Venezuela	Pakistan		
Kenya	Guyana	Afghanistan		
Uganda	Antilles	Iran		
Tanzania	Brazil	Bahrain		

Rwanda	Ecuador	Kuwait
Malawi	Peru	Saudi Arabia
Zambia	Bolivia	Israel
Swaziland	Chile	Lebanon
Burundi	Paraguay	Iraq
Lesotho	El Salvador	Taiwan
Madagascar	Uruguay	
Mauritius		
Congo		
Zaire (D.R. of Congo)		

(Olympic Solidarity, 1976:8)

Appendix R Development of Olympic Games Subsidy

The aim of the Olympic Games subsidy was

“To favour Universality of the Games by paying for the transport and accommodation of a number of athletes and officials

To reward NOCs according to the number of participants they provide”

(Olympic Solidarity, 1992:29)

Lake Placid 1980 Partial travel and accommodation costs

Moscow 1980 Partial travel and accommodation costs

In talks between the NOCs and the Organising Committee of the Moscow games and the USSR NOC, the dire financial position of developing countries was noted and it was decided that the Organising Committee would help some developing countries to transport their delegations to Moscow. Based on a decision taken in Puerto Rico in 1978, a million dollars were allocated for distribution among all NOCs for travel to the Games (International Olympic Committee, 1979a).

Lake Placid 1980 Partial travel and accommodation costs

Moscow 1980 Partial travel and accommodation costs

“In order to assist NOCs participating in the Olympic Games the following decisions were made:

-The first ten percent of the Los Angeles television income, prior to distribution, will be reserved for the travel and accommodation expenses of athletes at the Los Angeles Games.

- The second ten Percent of this income similarly prior to distribution will be allocated towards travel and accommodation for the judges and referees

- In the same way, travel expenses for the foreign technical officials of the IFs governing winter sports in Sarajevo will be covered by the IOC.”

(International Olympic Committee, 1982a:324)

Sarajevo 1984 2 athletes +1 official (12 days @ \$35/day accommodation + transport)
+ \$5,000 Equipment Grant
(Olympic Solidarity, 1984a)

Los Angeles 1984 4 athletes + 2 officials (20 days accommodation + transport)
+ \$5,750 Equipment Grant
(Olympic Solidarity, 1984a)

Calgary 1988 3 athletes + 1 official + (20 days @ US\$45 accommodation and transport)
+ US\$6,000 Equipment Grant
+ US\$500 per participating athlete (after deducting the 3 who received subsidies)
(Olympic Solidarity, 1988)

Seoul 1988 6 athletes + 2 officials (accommodation and transport)
+ US\$8,000 Equipment Grant
+ US\$500 per participating athlete (after deducting the 3 who received subsidies)
(Olympic Solidarity, 1988)

Albertville 1992 3 athletes + 1 official (transport)
1 official accommodation (21 days @ US\$110 per day (US\$2,310)
+ \$6,000 Equipment Grant
+ \$800 per participating athlete
(Olympic Solidarity, 1993a)

Barcelona 1992 6 athletes + 1 officials (transport)
+ 2 officials (accommodation, 21 days @ US\$110 per day (US\$4,620)

+ US\$8,000 Equipment Grant
+ US\$800 per participating athlete (after deducting the 3 who received subsidies)
(Olympic Solidarity, 1993a)

Lillehammer 1994 3 athletes + 1 official (transport)
+ US\$6,000 Equipment Grant
+ US\$800 per participating athlete
(Olympic Solidarity, 1996)

Atlanta 1996 6 athletes + 2 officials (transport)
+ US\$8,000 Logistical grant
+ US\$800 per participating athlete
+ US\$8,000 for travel and accommodation of President and I
Secretary General (4,000 each)
1 person Youth Camp
(Olympic Solidarity, 1996)

Nagano 1998 3 athletes + 1 official (transport)
+ US\$8,000 Logistical grant
+ US\$1,200 per participating athlete (after deducting the 3 who received subsidies),
+ US\$8,000 for travel and accommodation of President and I
Secretary General (4,000 each)
+ 1 person Youth Camp
+ 1 person Chef De Mission Meeting
(Olympic Solidarity, 1998)

The Nagano Organising Committee (NAOC) will pay a travel subsidy of US\$1,000 for each participating athlete other than those already subsidized by Olympic Solidarity.

(International Olympic Committee, 1997:72)

Sydney 2000 6 athletes + 2 officials (Transport)
 + US\$8,000 Logistical Assistance
 + US\$1,200 per participating athletes (excluding 6)
 + US\$10,000 for Transport and Accommodation for President
 and Secretary General (5,000 each)

 SOCOG paid for the travelling expenses for all duly accredited
 athletes and officials participating in the Games

 + 1 person Youth Camp
 + 1 person Chef De Mission meeting

 (Olympic Solidarity, 2000)

As part of its Bid commitments Sydney Olympics 2000 Bid Ltd (SOBL) agreed that transportation of athletes and officials to the Games would be paid for by the Sydney Games organisers. The NOC Services Program was responsible for implementing and administrating this initiative. At the request of certain NOCs the name of the plan was changed from Travel Grants to NOC Support Grants

(Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games 2000 (SOCOG), 2004)
(Olympic Solidarity, 2000)

Salt Lake City 2002 3 athlete + 1 official (transport)

 +US\$8,000 logistical grant

 +US\$10,000 for travel and accommodation for President and
 Secretary General (5,000 each)

 + US\$1,200 per participating athlete
 + 1 person Chef de Mission Meeting

 (Olympic Solidarity, 2002)

Athens 2004 6 athletes + 2 officials (transport)
 + US\$10,000 Logistical grant
 + US\$14,000 for travel and accommodation for President and
 Secretary General (7,000 each)
 + US\$1,450 per participating athlete
 + I person Youth Camp

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + 1 person Chef De Mission Meeting (Olympic Solidarity, 2004)
Torino 2006	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3 Athletes + 1 official (transport) + US\$10,000 logistical grant + US\$14,000 for travel and accommodation for President and Secretary General (7,000 each) US\$1450 per participating athlete + 1 person youth camp + 1 person Chef de Mission meeting (Olympic Solidarity, 2005a)
Beijing 2008	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 6 athletes + 2 officials (transport) + US\$ 12,000 logistical grant + US\$16,000 for travel and accommodation for President and Secretary General (8,000 each) US\$1,700 per participating athlete 1 person Youth Camp 1 person Chef de Mission meeting (International Olympic Committee, 2007)
Vancouver 2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3 athletes + 1 official (transport) + US\$12,000 logistical grant + US\$16,000 for travel and accommodation for President and Secretary General (8,000 each) +US\$1, 700 per participating athlete + 1 person Chef de Mission meeting. (Olympic Solidarity, 2009a)
London 2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 6 Athletes + 2 officials (travel) +US\$14,000 logistical grant

+ US\$2,000 per participating athlete

+US\$18,000 for travel and accommodation for President and Secretary General (9,000 each)

+ 1 person Chef de Mission meeting

(Olympic Solidarity, 2011)

Appendix S SPSS Categories

1. Name of Country	
2. NOC Country Code	
3. Population size – CIA	2010
4. GDP per Capita US\$ - World Bank.	1983-2012
5. GINI Coefficient	2011
6. Country Area – CIA	
7. Country size – divided according to size of population	
8. Year of Recognition – Terret	
9. NOC Stages - Chamerois	
10. NOC Configurations – Terret	
11. Full-time NOC Employees (middle value)	
12. Internet Users – CIA	
13. Internet Users per capita	
14. List of Developing NOCs 1974/1975	
15. ODA – Official Development Assistance	2005
16. Net Official Development Assistance per capita	
17. Annual Grant without OG subsidies	1983-2008
18. Annual Grants with OG subsidies	1988,1992, 1994,1996,2004,2008
19. Quadrennial Total without OG subsidies	6 x 1985 to 2008
20. Quadrennial Total with OG subsidies	6 x 1985 to 2008
21. Olympic Games Subsidies	1988,1992,1994,1996,1998, 2000, 2002, 2001- 2004, 2005- 2008
22. Olympic Games athlete participation	1988 - 2008
23. Courses	1985 - 1996
24. Activities	1996 - 2008
25. International Olympic Academy	1985 - 2008
26. Subsidy	1985 - 2000
27. Special Aid	1985 - 1996
28. Office Aid	1995 - 1996
29. General Assembly	1985 - 1999

30. Itinerant School	1986 - 1996
31. Administrators	1997 - 2008
32. Olympic Day Run	1987 - 2008
33. Medical Commission	1988 - 2008
34. Olympic Athlete Scholarship	1990 - 2008
35. Olympic Coach Scholarship	1990 - 2008
36. Young Athlete Scholarship	1995 - 2008
37. Marketing	1993 - 1994
38. Women and Sport	1997 - 2008
39. Environment	1997 - 2008
40. Team Support	2001 - 2008
41. Coaching Structure	2001 - 2008
42. MEMOS	2001 - 2008
43. Forums	2001 - 2008
44. Culture and Education.	2001 – 2008
45. Legacy	2001 – 2008
46. Gold/Silver/Bronze/Total 1968	
47. Gold/Silver/Bronze/Total 1980	
48. Gold/Silver/Bronze/Total 2008	

Appendix T SPSS Notes to Compilation of Data

1. Zaire changed its name to Republic of Congo in 1997
2. Birmania (Burma) changed its name to Myanmar in 1989
3. Israel in Asia till 1993; Israel in Europe 1994
4. Yemen Arabic , Yemen Democratic became one Yemen in 1990
5. URSS till 1992 – Russia from 1993
6. Yugoslavia till 2003
7. Czechoslovakia up to 1992; Czech Republic 1983 and Slovakia 1983
8. CIA site - no GDP for Guam
9. 1974/1976. Fiji is registered under ASIA
10. 1975; Dahomey became Benin
11. 1983: Haute Volta became Burkina Faso
12. 1983 – Expenditure or Budget?
13. 1983 Individual totals do not make up 1983 totals in OS book 1983-1992
14. 1983 Total Annual Grant taken from OS Book 1983-1992. No breakdown of individual programmes.
15. 1984. Continental Totals in List from OS Book 1983 to 1992, and separate annual reports are different
16. 1984. Total Annual Grant taken from OS Book 1983-1992. No breakdown individual allocation in OS Annual Report
17. 1985 – not all countries have an allocation for General Assembly
18. 1985. Tonga is present in 1985 and 1987 but not in 1986
19. 1985. no allocation for Oceania
20. 1985. Maldives is present in 1984 and 1986, but not in 1985.
21. 1985 – confusion between American Samoa and Samoa
22. Yemen in OS Book 1983-1992, only under 1 column
23. 1988. Value for Subsidy, Olympic Day run and Medical are under one column and one total.
Proposal to divide them for SPSS as follows: Subsidy \$5000, Olympic Day Run \$1500 and the rest Medical. – to check values with Medical courses on Annual Report
24. 1989 Allocations to Continental Associations include Continental Activities
25. 1989. Botswana Total 128060 (high)
26. 1989. Ecuador Total 116253.25 (high)

27. 1989. China Total 111917.62 (high)
28. 1989. Budget for courses 116.00
29. 1989 – 1992 – one Germany
30. 1990 Expenses for Continental Associations ... into activities and expenses
31. 1990 Germany listed as FRG
32. 1990. Sport for All and Medical together in one column. (Like 1996)
33. 1990 MTN total 104,813.00 (high)
34. 1990. Div. 2: Women in Sport Regional Seminar, Jamaica
35. 1990. Div. 2: America, Sport for All IOC Congress in Quebec (accommodation and registration)
36. 1990. Div. 4: 40th IOA Session, US103,500, - IOA running expenses Olympic Studies, 8th Session Postgraduate
37. 1990. Africa. ACA Courses \$489,000: \$240,000 Admin Fees/Expenses, \$247,000 Activities
38. 1990. Fax GEQ, \$20,000 (4 x the rest)
39. 1990. ODE: Aid for Courses \$240,000 Admin Fees/Expenses, \$126,500 Activities
40. 1990. Value of Courses Aid is different between Continents
41. 1990. No Row or Value for Yemen
42. 1991. Bulgaria, Athlete Scholarships, \$190,000 (high)
43. 1991. Zimbabwe (-\$23,000)
44. 1991. NOCs are identified by Code
45. 1991 MRI total 105,572.98 (high)
46. 1991 TAN total 115,016.43 (high)
47. 1991 ARG total 134517.70 (high)
48. 1991 BUL total 206,729.00 (high)
49. 1991 Three columns for Yemen
50. 1992. Lillehammer Extraordinary Budget?
51. 1992. Commissions all under one Column
52. 1992: USSR ceases to exist. From 1993 it is identified as RUS.
53. 1992: Czechoslovakia TCH, is split into Czech Republic CZE and Slovakia SVK recognised in 1993
54. 1992. All ex-Soviet bloc countries were given \$3232 under Marketing

- 55.1992: Olympic Games participation subsidy of US\$424,650 for Independent Olympic Games participants from ex-Yugoslavia classified under Yugoslavia.
- 56.1992. Olympic Games Subsidies for Barcelona 1992: Georgia, Moldova, Ukraine, Armenia, Azerbaijan and Belorussia are grouped under Ex-soviet republics. The value of US\$549,722 also includes Kazakhstan, Kirghizstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan although they are in Asia. This Value is credited to RUS in the 1992 Report.
- 57.1994: Israel, originally grouped with Asia, is reported as part of Europe. Data compiled on both continents
- 58.1995. No Young Athlete Scholarships?
- 59.1995. Young Athlete Scholarships Soviet Bloc Countries, \$21,600.
- 60.1996.
- a. Medical, Sport for All and IOA all under one column
 - b. Young Athletes and Olympic Coach scholarships under one column
 - c. Itinerant School and Marketing under one column
- 61.1996. Olympic Athlete Atlanta Scholarships included in Atlanta Extraordinary Budget
- 62.1996. Extraordinary Budget: Funds from Lillehammer Winter Games. Since both these Winter Games were in the same Quadrennial: Lillehammer 1994, Albertville 1996.
- 63.1996. Olympic Scholarships and Training Grants for qualifying competitions and Atlanta Games in same column.
- 64.1997: Zaire became Democratic Republic of Congo
- 65.1997 The minus sum in Scholarships for Coaches refers to a deduction for fees already distributed for the course at INSEP, for which Walid Gharbi from Tunisia did not attend in 1996.
- 66.1997 Total Div. 4 Women in Sport: Seminar in Croatia (accommodation /organisation)
- 67.1997 Total Div. 4 Sport and Environment: Seminar in Italy (accommodation/organisation)
- 68.1997 Greece/IOA : Board and Lodging Costs IOA Session 37th session
- 69.1997 Div. 1: Women and Sport Cote D'Ivoire (accommodation)
- 70.1997 Div. 2: Sport and Environment: Brazil (accommodation and organisation)
- 71.1998: OS Videos to be produced

- 72.1998 (also 1997) Annual operating grant, annual seminars NOC Secretary Generals in Continental Programmes/ 8 Programmes for all, 4 programmes for most disadvantaged.
- 73.1999 Europe/Greece: 39th IOA Session (Accommodation) high value
- 74.1999. Brazil, Sport and Environment World Conference (Accommodation)
- 75.1997 Young Athlete Scholarships: Gambia \$103,029.92: Rwanda \$95,643.88 (high)
- 76.1997. IOA Greece \$142,936 - International conference
- 77.2000: Sport for all commission: DIV 2: accommodation and registration fees for the IOC World Congress in Quebec
- 78.2000: Europe GRE: IOA Board and Lodging costs, participants 40th IOA session US\$104,500 and IOA running costs.
- 79.DIV4: Europe IOA Financial support to the 8th international post graduate seminar on Olympic Studies
- 80.2000, Vietnam Sport for All \$12,763.00 (high)
- 81.2000, Afghanistan not listed
- 82.2001-2004. Africa, Asia, America, Europe, Oceania; Olympic Games Participation: Sydney 2000 and Salt Lake City 2002 in same column with Chef De Mission: Salt Lake City 2002 and Athens 2004.
- 83.2001-2004. Oceania: Technical courses were financed through ONOC Continental Programme (NOC activities)
- 84.2001-2004. Oceania: Sports Administration Programme financed through ONOC Continental Programme (NOC Activities)
- 85.2004. Turkmenistan in Asia given Country code for Turkey
- 86.2005-2008. Games Participation Grants Athens 2004 and Torino 2006, in same column with Chef De Mission Turin 2006 and Beijing 2008.
ONOC Technical Courses from World Programmes managed by ONOC.
ONOC courses for Sports Administrators Programme financed through ONOC continental programme Sports Administration (OS 2008b)
- 87.2008 Total incorrect by 1, MAS and SEY (MAS 630011, SEY 738443)
- 88.Country code SCG=Serbia and Montenegro (2004-2006). For Analysis compiled together with SRB.

89.2011 Netherlands Antilles (AHO) ceases to exist following the dissolution as a country of the Netherlands Antilles in October 2010.

Appendix U Year of funding for Olympic Solidarity Programmes

Year	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Courses	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x																
Activities													x	x	x	x												
Subsidy	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x													
NOC Administration/Infrastructure																x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Special Aid - President	x	x	x																									
Direct Aid				x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x																
Itinerant School			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x																
NOC Administrators													x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
MEMOS																x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
NOC Exchange and Forums																x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Olympic Athlete Scholarship						x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Summer Games Preparation											x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Winter Games Preparation														x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Team Support																	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Cont. & Regional Games																	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Young Athlete Scholarship											x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Youth Development																	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Olympic Coach Scholarship						x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Technical Courses Coaches																	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
National Sports Structure																	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Marketing									x	x																		
Medical				x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Environment													x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Women and Sport													x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Olympic Day Run			x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
IOA	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Culture and Education																	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Legacy																	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Olympic Games Subsidy				x				x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x		x				
General Assembly	x	x		x				x		x		x																
Continental Associations	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x																	
Continental Programmes													x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				

o missing values

Appendix V SPSS Selected Independent Variables

Apart from utilising the data from Olympic Solidarity publications, other information will be used together to aid the analysis.

- GDP per Capita - World Bank website
- Population and Country size CIA World Factbook
- Internet Users CIA World Factbook.
- Year of NOC recognition Thierry Terret (2008)

The original intention to use the GINI index as an indicator of the affluence of a country for this analysis, had to be abandoned since 48 countries were totally missing between the lists from the CIA and the World Bank sites

Access 18.11.2010

World Bank <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.pCAP.CD?page=5>

CIA <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/rankorder/2119rank.html>

Missing GDP values for the first year of every quadrennial were filled in as follows:

GDP per capita values missing from World Bank website.

Guam	Nil	Grants from 1987
Tuvalu	Nil	Grants from 2008
Nauru	Nil	Grants from 1994
Cook Islands	Nil	Grants from 1987
American Samoa	Nil	Grants from 1987
North Korea	Nil	Grants from 1983
Somalia	Nil	Grants from 1983
US Virgin Islands	Nil	Grants from 1984
British Virgin Islands	Nil	Grants from 1993
Cayman Islands	Only 1996 available	Grants from 1984
Iran	Missing 1991- 1992	Grants from 1984

Iraq	Missing 1990 -1996	Grants from 1984
Burma/Myanmar		
Puerto Rico	Up to 2001	Grants from 1983
Palestine (West Bank)	Up to 2005	Grants from 1994
Andorra	Start from 1990	Grants from 1984
Haiti	Start from 1990	Grants from 1983
Tanzania	Start from 1990	Grants from 1983
San Marino	Start from 2004	Grants from 1984
STP	Start from 2001	Grants from 1993

Missing for 2009

Andorra, Puerto Rico, Cuba, Kuwait, Suriname, Palestine (West Bank)

The CIA World Factbook website gives the latest figure for GDP per capita in just one column, whereas the World Bank website gives GDP per capita values for each year since 1960, so using the latter values for each relevant year would give a more accurate analysis. However the values indicated above were missing from the World Bank Website on the 9.06.2011, when the values on a yearly basis, from 1980 to 2009, were compiled into SPSS. With a view to enhancing the reliability of the data and the eventual analysis, the missing values were inserted into the SPSS database using a proportional calculation.

On comparing the values, the disparity between figures from the two different sources indicated that their calculation on the CIA site had not been carried out following the same numerical formulae as that of the World Bank. The CIA GDP per capita figures were inputted separately into SPSS and analysis of the data showed a significant statistical correlation between them of 0.82.

The mean value for both groups of data was obtained using SPSS Descriptive Statistics/Descriptives:

Mean WB / Mean CIA = converting value of 0.885.

The missing values for 2009 were obtained by multiplying the value given on the CIA list by 0.885.

Since a number of analyses of data are to be carried out on a quadrennial basis, a similar procedure was carried out for the missing values in 2005, 2001, 1997, 1993, and 1989 in that order with the following values:

2005/2009 0.81

1001/2005 0.65

1997/2001 0.99

1993/1997 0.82

1989/1993 0.87

1985/1989 0.687

The GDP per capita value for GUAM was not available on both the CIA and World Bank Lists but was obtained from the country webpage on the CIA site.

The population list from the CIA website was utilised for analysis. The population for Guam was absent and obtained from the country webpage.

No GDP values for Yugoslavia were available.

No values were available for Internet Users in Netherland Antilles, North Korea and Palau.

Appendix W Olympic Solidarity Employees 1982-1996

	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Director	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Previous IOC Staff	x	x	x												
Previous IOC Staff	x	x	x	x	x	x	x								
Head of Department	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Executive Assistant				x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Executive Assistant				x	x	x	x	x							
(Temporary replacement)									x						
Executive Assistant										x	x	x	x	x	x
Accountant									x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Division of Tasks (1992)

<i>Head of Department</i>	<i>Executive Assistant</i>	<i>Executive Assistant</i>	<i>Accountant</i>
Secretary to director Administration and general services Olympic Solidarity Publications Relations with IOA Marketing: preparatory phase, manual, training of advisors NOC seminars by continent	All matters concerning: Africa Europe Oceania International Federations IOC Medical Commission	All matters concerning: America Asia The Itinerant School Marketing	Financial and accounting matters control of all economic activities carried out by Olympic Solidarity

(Olympic Solidarity, 1993a:18)

Appendix X Olympic Solidarity Structure and Staff 1997-2012

		4 Employees 1985	4 Employees 1992	8 Employees 1997		
Director	Executive Assistant	Africa Europe Oceania Coaches Technical Courses	Executive Assistant	Africa Europe Oceania Coaches Technical Courses International Federations IOC Medical Commission	Deputy Director, Project Manager Project Officer	Africa Europe Olympic Athlete Scholarship Young Athlete Scholarship
	Executive Assistant	America Asia Itinerant School Courses	Executive Assistant	America Asia Itinerant School Programme	Project Manager Project Officer	America Asia Oceania Coaches Programmes Administrators Programmes
	Office Manager	Secretary to Director	Head of Department	Secretary to Director Administration and general services Olympic Solidarity Publications Relations with IOA Marketing	Project Manager Project Officer	Secretariat Planning, logistics Reports, Experts Expenses Olympicafrica
	Accountant	Accounts and Finance	Accountant	Accounts and Finance	Project Manager Project Officer	Finance, Olympic Values, IOA Contracts, Participation, Administration of OG Subsidy

16 Employees	2001-2004	18 Employees	2005-2008	20 Employees	2009-2012
Deputy Director, Project Manager Project Officer Project Officer Telephone	Africa Europe Coaches Programme Young Athlete Scholarship Secretariat, IFs Office Logistics and Support	Deputy Director Project Manager Administrative Assistant Reception	Africa Europe Coaches Programme Human Resources Office Logistics	Deputy Director, Section Manager Project Manager Administrative Assistant Reception Supervisor Project Officer	Africa Europe Coaches Programme Human Resources Logistics, OS Communication
Project Manager Project Officer Project Manager Admin Assistant	America NOC Management Programme	Head of Section Project Officer Administrative Assistant	America NOC Management Programme	Section Manager Project Manager Administrative Assistant Project Officer	America NOC Management Programme
Project Manager Project Officer Administrative Assistant	Asia Athletes Programme	Head of Section Project Manager Project Assistant Project Officer Adm. Assistant	Asia Athletes Programme Information Technology Public Relations	Section Manager Project Officer Administrative Assistant Project Officer Administrative Assistant	Asia Athletes Programme Information Technology Public Communication
Project Manager Administrative Assistant Accounts Secretary Communications Secretary	Oceania Special Fields Programmes Finance Communication	Head of Section, Administrative Assistant Accountant Accountant Project Officer Project Officer	Oceania Olympic Values Programmes Finance Institutional Communication Control and Planning	Section Manager, Finance Manager Administrative Assistant Accountant Accountant Project Officer Project Officer	Oceania Olympic Values Programme Finance Institutional Communication

Appendix Y Quadrennial World Programme Grant Data

Africa

	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
SEY	83805	116926	332748	444467	621270	683750
MAR	94693	158878	251957	205590	382381	610434
MRI	109399	319102	432839	503048	557110	488641
TUN	153745	170687	222618	417851	554093	750001
CPV			214297	387806	245410	290527
STP			243503	456027	306973	325116
ZIM	87533	196804	239629	479639	509569	865458
ALG	105407	178610	209674	424649	596157	687448
SUD	100271	212191	234085	354832	455671	315566
RSA		17620	24831	293975	811477	756132
KEN	153800	357177	556615	366228	590997	623689
UGA	92707	154236	263603	431901	237501	445364
SEN	164672	190211	175524	367040	808328	857868
NGR	109665	221774	350120	398811	631490	629209
GAM	95286	190280	308135	488605	368615	450262
BOT	88350	267457	179055	242485	209711	289371
GAB	93735	208112	177812	436147	203770	316095
ZAM	101914	188839	496673	501029	359469	472505
TOG	81908	164928	227973	288583	362418	423846
NAM		62750	259351	360658	320662	425186
LBA	86022	131500	160150	226393	368849	284301
ANG	83129	122934	245357	346117	395506	464764
GHA	134951	183736	330277	460671	514146	548988
LES	90246	140986	193267	262642	231780	591353
CMR	114825	312391	561097	405794	598352	731729
CGO	200795	247659	245808	366120	321887	509076
SWZ	98914	292779	380471	264103	329475	373672
ERI				59338	274761	442714
CIV	151627	187659	313574	462934	508365	909870
COM			140458	302491	113783	253866
RWA	101115	164943	300642	540100	401227	553662
GBS			63499	280863	284841	488866
MAW	76368	204586	230160	393278	453868	818097
GEQ	113845	167055	310025	367313	248677	188375
BEN	152256	168494	252434	404801	589079	743971
DJI	120822	245909	182901	296302	200450	376186
MOZ	96732	168637	294055	292257	343253	445648
MAD	100645	109054	283616	321623	578737	622944
MLI	100383	161864	374612	308188	624312	893133
MTN	89783	248212	234499	266558	225303	240245
TAN	121519	259100	389592	589391	356412	330502
CHA	94593	204654	276270	511164	336503	491485
SOM	103710	94384	159698	254764	241346	236638
GUI	128740	274586	228811	327363	309933	519364
BUR	154599	226410	364024	436142	575627	937797
BDI			237931	518550	580377	654643
LBR	110032	129206	193728	282229	195871	424727
NIG	80803	201445	374068	282223	570777	902818
ETH	68341	144960	362108	336803	417006	501494
ZRE/COD	76280	162497	258541	251097	322774	415799
CAF	121157	246729	319199	383420	501451	503707
SLE	118417	170109	326331	329028	287297	296559
EGY	76782	156215	512636	490155	719789	629400

America

	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
ANT	81832	89917	214853	344240	328169	487716
BER	78334	91970	144084	222603	214051	272850
CAN	161929	218331	192966	225744	270442	467777
BAR	90327	93132	236646	522589	636505	802236
VIN	25916	101031	237547	255733	386716	710141
LCA			118209	322708	303248	539870
JAM	103081	128382	150123	323412	462622	448744
CAY	75251	98752	147183	223340	173452	293140
COL	83567	183977	324784	628367	610659	709403
URU	92306	238068	407733	582732	827246	1038429
DMA			109305	285899	331703	499619
BAH	73220	82885	143823	228674	321123	331368
CHI	139527	190189	284291	506402	687168	745890
CRC	95120	284322	259108	352735	399215	350301
BRA	81851	221202	246635	510653	861612	1185251
SKN			124700	254913	224584	265773
PAN	92390	147746	208716	379878	283403	234518
GUY	81980	95245	186360	352067	341396	349562
ISV	81676	86463	193964	295268	238917	334632
ARG	313833	467614	338461	697030	729994	807510
VEN	82500	186391	213227	245411	253100	362602
PUR	92228	207654	265403	457694	734013	707012
PER	109415	241219	264094	440085	729205	838005
ARU	28206	113592	147355	238648	195734	283948
GRN	76117	98016	137812	311316	308424	529709
DOM	75570	173076	164881	207879	402936	465704
MEX	304700	272658	314468	285510	389165	513871
TRI	74708	116797	172301	402282	418458	597859
IVB	72795	77890	136926	235717	116914	268413
GUA	101611	245499	260379	404743	652344	990799
PAR	81623	144423	233148	410237	664206	763171
ESA	109290	131433	330630	520750	731486	972566
CUB	70000	91468	204909	515574	684518	743905
HAI	90046	94399	214148	382675	811188	875566
BIZ	76363	89496	148615	229923	195508	400337
SUR	85771	107639	205368	262674	234922	298744
BOL	90217	147798	246568	355937	238325	287130
ECU	83059	406174	362869	531133	590250	1023929
HON	87397	184352	278028	349846	478510	724723
NCA	60000	65940	205319	232327	291268	250978
USA	132798	169869	216684	223692	209786	131568
AHO	88865	110904	164631	229901	234834	566159

Asia

	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
KOR	181833	180467	204157	239108	444909	431183
JPN	175679	190160	221279	232347	227754	239327
SIN	119212	166674	186131	266081	307214	521811
TPE	76177	96727	188204	238025	423934	597141
MAS	166404	206084	441944	516728	474838	567742
UAE	136003	151156	205135	220000	271390	297297
HKG	154200	204185	203456	236318	346350	467056
BRU	40350	122484	166406	215457	116798	146202
BRN	75248	157113	209369	229118	323190	354608
LIB	84527	142082	257182	424216	560417	485067
QAT	80503	125898	180699	226922	188493	308092
KUW	103713	116585	156179	242427	162044	186500
IRI	144346	207607	258078	439659	603975	493538
PLE			128244	393210	282568	265754
KSA	100578	136351	179068	225506	307055	212394
THA	115347	276409	448102	243418	555262	604842
JOR	82883	131688	224691	290686	353219	426927
VIE	110972	134578	292828	340999	441552	620177
CHN	263825	383556	271301	242070	428050	479236
MDV	22011	164513	205589	255240	194508	336436
SYR	86457	170728	409432	514454	295836	488827
OMA	99572	147441	231339	252925	242962	330563
KGZ		13053	365185	451309	499720	299987
KAZ		10986	319600	529590	625901	572851
INA	196454	192543	194584	397737	431839	480487
MGL	86252	178210	234396	441999	600689	765453
PAK	114575	218251	274904	265113	201380	506591
UZB		10962	296893	535489	555558	641764
TJK		10980	242131	220548	423562	705445
IND	228025	333928	305851	473237	632001	623706
BHU	95807	177780	276039	360169	551240	386527
PHI	102654	242724	217193	290131	331874	466746
SRI	163083	246657	434696	458292	338136	492756
LAO	24370	148809	250207	392072	369906	391532
NEP	160467	105089	179966	245212	230570	322857
AFG	37543	98160	173500	130000	197958	270998
YEM		50000	226733	330364	415929	536389
TKM		10944	230733	512567	471932	455422
IRQ	90470	133608	170543	218470	193060	324872
CAM			116117	248802	283744	284592
BAN	87966	171597	234998	299508	273993	425352
BIR/MYA	25598	128289	241243	266064	268217	346874
TLS					41509	133000
ISR	73132	64886	9222			
YEM R. A	88234	106721				
YEM R. D	104099	101520				
PRK	126510	74430	187234	288205	455922	698953

Europe

	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
SWE	88881	107884	177978	172193	221978	431345
NED	65684	71579	136476	174492	182743	405221
NOR	96989	108835	169074	171713	281847	278769
FIN	108498	140887	200806	178682	310439	501781
DEN	72620	90427	129487	198524	168321	239043
ISL	111459	131188	433353	516393	683416	613222
GBR	95345	76075	155412	176003	326753	548485
LUX	73709	90891	155214	318506	194106	277049
GER	108888	156807	200397	176185	149091	382087
SUI	82171	87509	170794	187448	261636	258553
AUT	60866	92044	170286	255300	176795	331058
MON	42048	68906	116184	167588	94112	168183
BEL	58103	93609	129909	174766	246251	414598
AND	45691	70616	126665	290548	266033	310171
EST		27973	497964	509102	528275	749432
FRA	140525	98449	171690	163473	439415	413859
IRL	74599	65537	117756	190214	503344	472683
LIE	64073	83405	122531	185491	179041	312936
SVK			187269	469934	563997	598622
ESP	65069	165490	202797	168467	290455	301420
HUN	119838	106409	185774	307984	497498	467348
CZE			165085	203585	449204	668205
LAT		33675	343150	473409	496045	694242
SLO		6859	187476	208404	445652	489799
SMR	59424	66445	120623	156000	196822	378298
LTU		23217	273147	517884	754292	759647
MLT	84233	255400	304209	342362	473039	603475
POL	65911	120695	215384	485165	549674	647111
MNE						208046
ITA	144986	94723	167460	160400	398815	170040
CRO		6859	191550	233948	368890	646325
POR	72950	93964	130528	188961	201092	317684
MKD			251699	399945	465213	787290
SCG/SRB					691699	824264
GRE	61769	98041	510451	729008	240379	418162
BUL	102507	314339	190371	393962	567485	594533
RUS			177983	182379	185733	205496
BLR		17467	351357	584716	367049	608624
TUR	57439	102581	140543	334808	611528	639599
CYP	72719	98296	190893	311496	465735	438087
ISR			103751	203464	373804	519622
BIH		4786	429557	277897	242155	259300
ROU	103952	195339	252898	480940	624973	754323
UKR		10650	362251	476617	603889	696070
GEO		10876	368804	474994	464582	498245
MDA		16085	371059	553905	427142	750014
AZE		10900	310191	434556	394079	499216
ALB	47000	84948	217419	356276	399287	470628
ARM		10886	317718	507775	495497	632937
GDR	65071	38500				
TCH	199614	89524				
URSS	340876	76500				
YOG	117591	61786	338271	567473		

Oceania

	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
NZL	307476	355807	412857	342030	594045	795585
AUS	372359	398792	381615	332675	342681	298214
GUM	48861	273588	299673	337513	110796	157092
COK	46420	211153	251655	355535	258597	358644
TUV						41113
NRU			83973	362776	131323	252364
FSM				284762	399347	477987
FIJ	277848	312741	357931	376094	377726	647364
VAN	39669	138904	314024	328172	201386	284968
TGA	51066	275065	264071	343631	199032	271128
SAM	203101	271581	318055	310285	172448	180919
MHL						148486
ASA	45611	260608	269169	379565	289154	364791
KIR					73965	183382
SOL	98424	101464	251463	333863	181297	262843
PNG	190084	242509	282130	327104	262788	381154
PLW				131487	225009	363703

Appendix Z Quadrennial Olympic Games Subsidy Data (summer + winter)

Africa

	Calgary 1988/ Seoul 1988	Barcelona 1992/ Albertville 1992	Lillehammer 1994/ Atlanta 1996	Nagano 1998/ Sydney 2000*	Sydney 2000/ SLC 2002	Athens 2004 Torino 2006
	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
RSA		102876	109824	191247	204561	206050
ALG	56352	49238	67784	86820	86820	139350
BEN	52044	28508	36244	41294	43637	48024
BUR	52024	25064	41840	40125	43902	64523
CMR	57084	33276	55848	85521	107821	67693
CAF	58212	40804	41458	38130	41456	48971
CHA	50200	29836	31200	34370	37116	37061
CGO	48188	34084	46051	42416	45089	70687
ZRE/COD	62312	41724	54480	34695	35833	44543
EGY	49748	79700	58624	134704	135133	168923
ETH	0	40628	54176	67227	67227	80324
GAB	45872	33108	49888	33926	36803	42829
GHA	46312	49228	67760	63885	65684	80176
GUI	50592	27388	43280	49128	51216	58349
KEN	63264	59516	86872	105591	117934	110832
LES	41984	33972	41384	32940	36352	32424
LBR	58672	0	29557	46077	47969	37393
LBA	40904	19180	32176	31698	33355	35600
MAD	0	48684	53424	45608	47409	87052
MAW	56416	28118	32580	27231	28946	32864
MLI	50208	25500	33615	38472	39787	81233
MRI	36624	45680	66912	51099	51996	52612
MAR	66903	71326	58264	104280	106156	120321
NIG	50200	22370	33576	39740	42850	51002
NGR	61488	61148	96112	135864	137586	153134
CIV	60980	34580	42624	51072	52630	46955
SEN	58004	50799	65096	66192	70522	78988
SEY	0	45764	40032	42651	44427	54692
SLE	49192	32476	46064	46311	48543	36481
SOM	53552	27170	45918	31925	33917	24000
SUD	39312	25380	45435	30059	30059	36315
SWZ	41000	47020	37664	33561	34968	39978
TOG	51672	28508	46816	35802	37443	44216
TUN	54440	21388	71144	88112	88112	109605
UGA	39916	26316	48216	49305	50714	52653
TAN	30568	29572	30942	30773	32362	49971
ZAM	51396	36540	49088	40479	42173	46793
	57304	51676	70536	65442	68191	67500
BOT	41064	32012	43720	36030	37460	66275
BDI			35235	42012	43358	47028
CPV			34138	34000	35473	41731
COM			41416	27925	31414	49299
DJI	55405	33204	43678	30455	33004	25435
GEQ	51608	33492	37823	42170	45179	39204
ERI				31320	34147	36584
GBS			36070	37272	40391	41612
MTN	40224	21076	32164	30917	33005	41082
MOZ	36504	27620	32460	30696	31743	40565
NAM		33468	45176	40146	41462	57322
RWA	62080	28964	42022	37992	39207	39934
STP			42688	29600	21221	31551
GAM	43440	25628	39752	34535	36603	35951
ZIM	47492	39996	48488	46083	49531	71018

America

	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
BER	59624	55538	35054	57095	62510	37847
CAN	391584	364530	342272	574763	589047	732466
USA	566835	599674	648300	980477	617897	1152124
ARG	148106	133198	195604	227294	243345	296736
BAH	42512	40156	38840	62229	63941	73691
BAR	37492	45340	32888	58428	59738	38500
BIZ	32176	31116	24036	28585	30296	39626
BOL	66874	64162	37280	37240	40518	38543
BRA	122204	202742	210822	278127	302127	426502
CHI	72877	68454	61636	115952	124847	111943
COL	54944	66588	58728	87486	89200	112035
CRC	55118	60202	25536	46470	67033	81526
CUB	0	164564	153592	314944	314944	250963
DOM	41560	51164	31240	49575	52356	94215
ECU	41084	42316	37224	49809	51210	68608
ESA	35728	27452	29824	45843	47243	48209
GUA	72646	38796	48488	52416	54596	61690
GUY	32312	35740	27680	39754	41760	44340
HAI	29984	33292	22352	38798	40887	52121
HON	36728	49254	28496	59495	62733	46140
JAM	70590	80786	68712	102210	115517	111788
MEX	103168	144234	108196	125388	150733	191788
AHO	40572	49132	25512	45885	47512	42543
NCA	0	33996	43568	39504	39504	34936
PAR	44704	54548	35200	37224	38501	69859
PER	51072.64	45852	52536	62913	64586	41400
PUR	81160	104922	86412	90452	87535	84900
PAN	35984	29924	29376	40572	42104	47178
SUR	33760	34908	28656	40097	40097	45588
TRI	31312	33084	43544	75363	82032	67943
URU	48644	45324	44792	56591	47324	59834
VEN	36048	48412	43928	99224	108384	108425
ISV	70300	74834	40372	68654	79260	78850
ANT	41644	41452	31608	34614	35376	47593
ARU	32328	32108	21945	39432	41314	33142
CAY	39744	37164	27032	32466	34552	32846
DMA			29368	36751	38298	36366
GRN	32376	30320	28064	34770	36077	41974
SKN			28200	32070	33615	38624
LCA			25544	41144	43363	46658
VIN	33664	38612	30488	35393	37638	39553
IVB	34712	30708	29096	25768	25768	27945

ASIA

	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
TPE	86528	90762	103424	112131	115437	159645
ISR	46004	44508	0			
JPN	263848	319778	354372	539619	504087	732926
AFG	30960	0	40400	0	1420	32900
BIR/MYA	17800	29702	33545	33184	34141	26101
PRK	29958	123202	65656	85359	69017	152710
HKG	40008	60452	50576	67008	85459	92241
IND	63560	73864	72336	116172	124859	163781
INA	35596	69052	66200	81033	83185	79100
IRQ	45580	27868	20460	30012	30012	80812
IRI	49300	51172	54824	75488	91688	106529
JOR	37604	22588	41488	39798	40098	36814
KUW	44820	47452	63168	66512	67112	48246
LIB	62220	45314	25750	37236	63486	66290
MAS	23132	51732	66176	71841	73552	62328
MGL	56760	79306	69748	78505	96840	115465
NEP	30792	25941	45288	30937	56684	66855
PAK	36516	41772	59296	60968	64137	69356
PHI	66900	66310	40696	49506	54050	67356
KOR	264615	265906	294920	418927	442099	522784
KSA	35932	30580	57024	51444	51444	47200
SIN	24632	49028	58536	40524	41724	58489
SRI	24392	32284	41528	50094	51267	34150
SYR	37628	25916	41528	37817	38413	39717
THA	25768	63444	64424	86790	88905	121565
BRN	39512	30540	43321	29976	31102	38500
BAN	24048	31868	36844	31686	34045	39710
BHU	19440	28364	21768	27045	28980	44620
BRU	840	0	22446	25490	25490	25450
CAM			46688	28806	32196	46748
TLS					0	40020
KAZ		0	153944	281618	274112	312060
KGZ		0	81528	105476.29	123026	84771
LAO	24800	37596	43472	26066	28740	47754
MDV	25924	31476	59128	29079	29079	29800
OMA	34072	27348	36016	36104	37937	26900
PLE			32988	25352	25352	16311
CHN	209506	272298	305864	448435	464783	723303
QAT	40148	47564	44904	49994	51561	45750
TJK		0	44064	36780	62380	65294
TKM		0	55120	44064	44750	51715
UAE	39568	34516	37234	28938	30038	29800
UZB		0	124656	134216	149163	161262
VIE	29360	40972	41168	34707	36768	41120
YEM		27996	56768	27425	28220	30196
YEM R A	30404					
YEM R D	36400					

Europe

	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
GDR	282590					
ALB		21324	48080	36184	36459	64658
AND	54514	28126	41144	48285	58398	69946
AUT	254314	160146	170784	257856	270571	267379
BEL	69792	81462	83911	126018	141921	137340
TCH	153858	250902				
DEN	89266	123722	139666	180118	182088	189847
FIN	196160	152954	151792	236658	263043	271616
FRA	304122	374004	352140	563877	593499	617018
GBR	326444	359196	298744	446631	481722	490208
GRE	78762	86560	138392	223551	229495	654937
HUN	153858	221545	219576	281791	293288	373776
ISL	88924	62258	49476	86397	88479	105777
IRL	71028	76442	85256	127508	137000	122272
ISR			72376	99395	108789	109831
ITA	306980	359902	386388	613664	617897	839347
LIE	82594	31938	43600	54062	56626	61431
LUX	65123	30292	40466	49388	43099	71017
MON	56920	25728	43187	61356	78797	72555
NED	142816	202411	240216	349187	365262	414248
NOR	212166	166984	181240	240987	262437	227789
POL	172486	228842	189732	314992	308198	397515
POR	90998	84572	122922	120116	104322	178099
BUL	188420	159758	148248	193296	188399	221260
ROU	108440	187642	201736	244600	252990	246631
RUS			453208	736403	617897	954355
SMR	58420	38858	46696	31660	52853	57262
SRB					200274	206631
URSS	523808	666112				
ESP	188684	368074	277204	445794	450803	540163
SWE	274454	247990	253696	353658	365516	382179
SUI	239407	162338	189540	264490	304486	374751
GER	402866	486270	512260	700544	617897	913983
YOG	169268	453968	94984	187007		
MLT	45376	20756	37800	37164	37554	38077
TUR	81208	66637	78126	108460	124168	154977
ARM		0	79464	94523	102399	88151
AZE		0	62656	94734	101973	107138
BLR		0	201568	287148	221011	310512
BIH		20700	61380	70680	60756	79694
CRO		57970	118112	147919	172297	208854
CYP	56902	44418	63348	70532	81008	65714
CZE			183396	268042	289581	376244
EST		81098	102380	114287	115242	161086
GEO		0	83344	106327	112022	118143
LAT		78654	109228	147808	173001	177879
LTU		74802	103448	119538	139894	149390
MDA		0	81150	104506	101660	107497
MNE						1818
SVK			134640	208104	236813	236940
SLO		72922	85684	174976	186213	222716
MKD			44288	21134	76692	71279
UKR		0	262356	396180	419400	468500

Oceania

	1985-1988	1989-1992	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
AUS	206916	316074	409061	789740	617897	803073
FIJ	51726	79788	62171	30009	50080	60313
NZL	117040	189818	145064	224222	237197	330453
PNG	31532	58950	50560	27383	32370	68624
ASA	27448	34068	62056	28617	33466	51242
COK	30316	38817	35330	24410	26436	47432
FSM				33208	36196	64153
GUM	68334	60782	53552	37200	42567	51767
KIR					3550	54307
MHL						2770
NRU			39045	26190	32448	50009
PLW				35448	38845	29800
SAM	28956	61305	44896	19189	22128	46477
SOL	29416	27185	44404	23132	23132	45237
TGA	31032	53584	50546.14	26292	28710	33318
TUV						4086
VAN	28704	61788	53098	25014	28172	43976

*1997-2000: the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games Subsidy was not disbursed during this quadrennium but was added for comparative purposes.

Olympic Solidarity

Programme Development

This Report follows the historic reconstruction of the chronological development of the Olympic Solidarity Programmes sourced predominantly through official Olympic Solidarity Annual Reports issued from 1984 to 2008. Information was also be sourced from a few other publications produced by Olympic Solidarity prior to these, entitled *Up to May 1975* and *Up to December 1976*, the publication *1983-1992. Olympic Solidarity - the Last 10 Years*, and its report *Creation and Development* issued in 2006 and the Olympic Review. Some proposals or comments found in the reports which were felt to be relevant were also included. In order to avoid repetitive accounts of programme distribution and outcome following similar patterns, the principal focus will be on the annual and quadrennial changes and additions to the programmes.

Through lack of available funds, the Commission for International Olympic Aid, set up by the IOC during the 59th IOC Session in Monaco in 1962 (International Olympic Committee, 1962), was just an advisory organisation. With help from the International Institute for Development of NOC, the PGA formed a collaboration network among the NOCs from developed and non-developed countries, and organised a programme of mutual aid and sports technical assistance. Although approved in 1971, 1972 saw the beginning of a common commission called Olympic Solidarity, but it was only in September 1974, that assistance was officially offered to the National Olympic Committees in the form of itinerant lectures, courses in coaching, and scholarships in sports administration (Miller, 1979).

The Solidarity programme takes two forms, the first is a Symposium... where people are gathered from many nations on a regional basis and will hear lectures and have discussions with experts on a number of subjects... The other part of the Solidarity programme is the running of special courses ...either by sending special instructors or coaches to areas to give courses for people who may themselves become instructors, ... or by bringing people from different countries under the aegis of the NOC and /or IF concerned to a centre for specialised courses (International Olympic Committee, 1974c:393)

Under the Presidency of Lord Killanin, with Van Karnebeek as Chairman and Giulio Onesti as coordinator, from an office manned by one part-time employee, set up at CONI in Rome, work was carried out “within the framework of the General Secretariat of the IOC of Lausanne” (Olympic Solidarity, 1975), and “*only in the form of services and not with any subsidies or facilities*”.(Wieczorek, 1974:599). Besides, the assistance would be mainly in three areas: formation of leaders, compilation and distribution of sports documentation, and programming and construction of sports installations, the latter of which would include technical documentation, an advice service and refresher courses for architects and engineers in developing countries (Wieczorek, 1974).

Scholarships covered a large area of specialists such as administrators, trainers, coaches, instructors, sports doctors, physical education teachers, sports architects and engineers, for which seminars and symposiums were also organised. Sports related documentation tackled physical and sports education, sports medicine and training whilst an advisory service was set up with regards to planning and construction of sports venues in the context of local conditions. In 1974, Olympic Solidarity proposed five programmes of Sport Aid: Mission of Experts, Courses, Scholarships for perfection and training and specialisation, Documents and Advice on Sports Venues and Equipment (Olympic Solidarity, 1975:Annex 7).

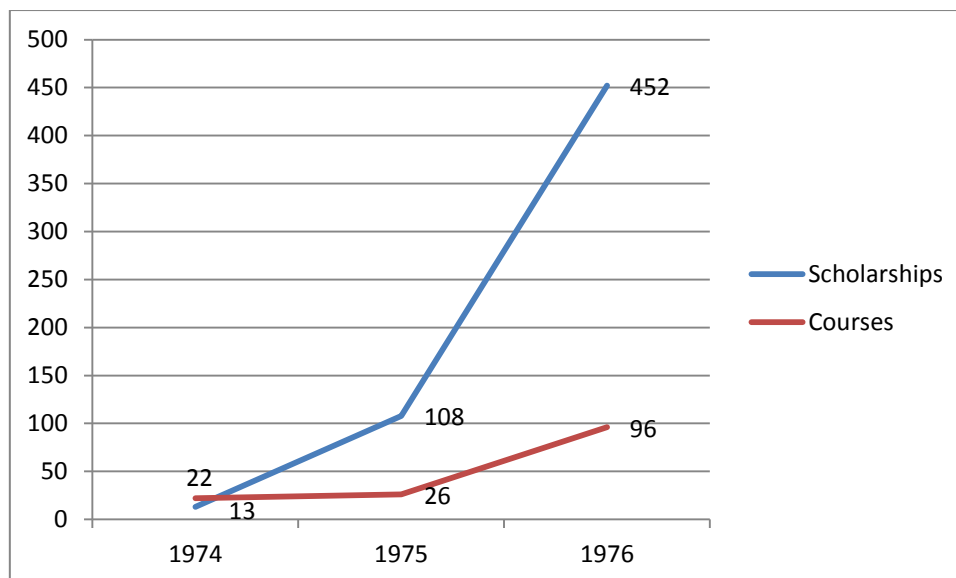
It provided the NOCs with a list of programmes, the NOCs would put forward their proposals for the particular programme and how they wished to organise it and OS would approve or refuse the request. The programmes for 1974/1975 were approved by the IOC Executive Board in Lausanne, on the 9th February 1974. These were to

include thirty six missions with fifty four experts, eighty courses with 164 lecturers, 115 scholarships, as well as ten brochures, a reserve of audio-visual aids and wide ranging assistance on sport infrastructure, with a budget of US\$858,170. Thirty three countries in nine geographical regions in Africa, twenty four countries in seven geographical regions in Asia and thirty countries in seven geographical regions in Latin America had been identified as areas for assistance. Seventy two voluntary experts, teachers and lectures were at the disposal of Olympic Solidarity, for the 175 programmes held, in fifty countries, up to May (Olympic Solidarity, 1975)

In two years, by June 1976, Olympic Solidarity had carried out 371 schemes of assistance and co-operation in 85 countries, and could count on assistance from the NOCs of Italy, USSR, West Germany, Rumania, East Germany, Spain, Poland, India, Czechoslovakia, Great Britain, Bulgaria, the USA, Hungary, etc. (Wieczorek, 1976). However, some Olympic Committees did not provide Olympic Solidarity with the required reports some scholarships were cancelled because of the delay in confirmation by the NOCs. No communication at all was received from some NOCs, whilst others provided excellent collaboration. Some NOCs were unaware of the benefits they could reap from the Olympic Solidarity programmes, whilst others did not have sufficient knowledge of the sports arena in their own countries to benefit. Only 230 scholarships were carried out of the 757 applied for, but the greatest challenge was to find and train enough men and women (Wieczorek, 1976).

From 23rd August to 17th September 1976, the University of Sussex, in Brighton, organised the first Olympic Solidarity course for sport administrators (International Olympic Committee, 1976). In order to create a permanent presence of the NOCs in the activities and management of the Olympic Solidarity commission, a sub-committee made up of Van Karnebeek, Onesti, Andrianov and Krumm was set up and met for the first time in October 1976 (Olympic Solidarity, 1976) but by December 1976 only fifty one NOCs had replied to an Olympic Solidarity questionnaire, with only forty two complete answers, even though they had received requests for help or offers of co-operation from at least 118 National Olympic Committees since the official inception of Olympic Solidarity. During 1976, some programmes were not only offered to those who requested them, but offered to all NOCs. Since 1974 Olympic Solidarity had held 760 programmes, for 110 National

Olympic Committees (81.48%), with the collaboration of 59 National Olympic Committees.



(Olympic Solidarity, 1976:5)

Although Olympic Solidarity had achieved good relations with a number of International Federations, such as Athletics, Cycling, Wrestling, Sports Medicine, Fencing, Volleyball and others, there was pressure for Olympic Solidarity to provide similar activities for training of judges and linesmen, but the Commission was totally against this proposal. The IOC believed this was the responsibility of the International Federations. Decentralisation of Olympic Solidarity funds to the different continental and geographical areas was also being proposed in order that programmes could be better adapted to the diverse conditions worldwide, but at the same time keep a level standard. By December 1976, Olympic Solidarity could benefit from knowledge of 174 qualified experts from thirty countries, covering thirty different specialisations, but was also aware that some NOCs tried to financially entice the experts carrying out training courses to join them, possibly resulting lack of experts to carry out future training; besides Sports Federations would probably not propose other experts to replace them. As a result of a donation from Adidas, starting from 1977, the experts would be provided with a uniform, and starting from the 12th October 1976, apart from paying for the travel and insurance of the expert, Olympic Solidarity would provide a daily US\$5.00 allowance, to cover for transfers,

excess luggage, travel tax, refreshments, etc., but would not compensate for loss of earnings (Olympic Solidarity, 1976)

Between February and April 1977, the activities of Olympic Solidarity were slightly interrupted; the Director Edward Wieczorek was replaced by Marcello Garroni who became attaché to Giulio Onesti (International Olympic Committee, 1977a). Van Karnebeek stepped down due to increasing deafness (Miller, 1979). In spite of the setbacks, it organised 43 itinerant missions in more than thirty countries, in sixteen sports disciplines and with 2,551 technicians and coaches (Miller 1979, p.152) as well as 51 international and regional courses which attended by 1,948 technicians and trainers of which 954 had received scholarships. In all, 123 NOCs were involved. A sports medicine manual and a basic cycle manual were also published. In 1977 technical agreements were made with fifteen International Federations which covered the organisation of international courses and itinerant missions as well as the use of the IF experts as teachers (International Olympic Committee, 1978e), emulating the pre-Olympic Solidarity sport aid distribution to peripheral countries mostly by the Soviet Union and the USA (Tomlinson and Whannel, 1984).

As the income from TV rights increased, the commission discussed a number of proposals, such as including direct grants to countries with a population of five million or less, but realised that some small countries were rich enough not to really need financial aid, whereas other countries with much greater populations could be ineligible for this aid, but were in real need of it. Technical experts from the more advanced sports related countries were utilised to improve knowledge in other lesser sports developed, consequently more 'needy', countries on a voluntary basis and in his report to the session, Onesti suggested that Olympic Solidarity should consider limited financial aid to NOCs "undergoing particular economic hardships" which could "guarantee a minimum of independence to some NOCs, especially those which are forced to turn to their country's authorities for even their smallest needs" (International Olympic Committee, 1977d). Another suggestion was to finance the transport of athletes to the Olympic Games and help towards their accommodation in the Olympic Village. A number of IOC members were reluctant to part with money directly to the NOCs, since not all officials were trusted:

Sports officials in the Third World might spend their Solidarity allocation on Cadillacs for themselves so that they might drive around the their country to observe how poor their athletes' facilities really were (Miller, 1979:154)

It was noted that a number of NOCs were so low in funds, they found it difficult to perform their tasks and “remain free from political and commercial pressures” (Miller, 1979:155). There were also no criteria to determine what constituted a deserving country, so it was decided that more controls would be sought on how to utilise this money for the benefit of the NOCs. After being discussed at the Mexico City meeting in April 1978, the Commission eventually put forward its first proposals towards a structured aid programme during the 80th IOC session in Athens, in May 1978.

1. The allocation of \$5,000 per year to be made to each NOCs requesting it.
2. Payment of travel and accommodation expenses of one representative per NOC to the General Assembly of NOCs t be held in Puerto Rico in 1979.
3. Partial reimbursement to NOCs for accommodation expenses incurred for the 1980 summer and Winter Games, or else contribution to athletes' travel expenses according to a percentage to be established
4. Allotment by continent of a part of Olympic Solidarity funds. On the basis of the allocation, each NOC will be able to submit proposal for using these sums to the Olympic Solidarity Commission.”
5. All NOCs asking for this Olympic Solidarity aid must specify their needs and the use to which the money will be put;
6. The NOCs must demonstrate the existence of a bank account into which the sum allocated by the IOC will be credited.

(International Olympic Committee, 1978e:252)

1978 saw the first direct assistance to the NOCs, Olympic Solidarity sent out four letters to the NOCs and IFs with details of the different aid programmes, which from June 1978 would be published on the Olympic Review. The fifth sent in June, outlined the 1978 budget and programme, inviting the NOCs to send their proposals for 1979 by the 31st August 1978 – these would be examined and approved at the beginning of the month of October (International Olympic Committee, 1978b).

Although budgets had a fixed limit, the amounts paid out could be varied on request, so some safeguards would be required, NOCs had to submit bills justifying their expenses. An allocation of US\$800 was proposed to help with the athlete travel and partial accommodation costs for the Moscow and Lake Placid 1980 Olympics. Further sums for regional distribution on a continental basis were suggested, with “US\$225,000 for Africa, US\$200,000 for Asia, US\$175,000 for the Americas and US\$ 100,000 each for Europe and Australia” (Miller, 1979:155-157).

The Olympic Solidarity office staff had increased to two Italian sports technicians, five secretaries and interpreters speaking French, English, Spanish, German and Italian. The increase in workload of Olympic Solidarity was mirrored in the increase of correspondence from 2,542 to 5,330 letters without counting hundreds of telegrams and telexes (International Olympic Committee, 1978e). The level of technical expertise grew globally through the symbiotic relationship between the IOC, who provided the money, and the IFs, who provided the technical expertise in sports involved in the Games. During the 18th Session of the International Olympic Academy, 46 participants from 31 NOCs, out of a total of 147 participants from 39 NOC, were awarded an OS scholarship which covered travel and accommodation in Olympia (International Olympic Committee, 1978c).

During the meeting of the National Olympic Committees in Puerto Rico, on 26-27th June 1979, a motion was approved for a proposal to be made to the IOC, on the 30th June 1979 outlining how the finance from Olympic Solidarity should be divided.

III. The total sum allocated to the National Olympic Committees as their share in the TV rights which shall come in to effect in 1981 shall be used for the following purposes:

1. 80% of the total funds available shall be distributed as follows:
 - a. Subsidies to the National Olympic Committees for their participation in the Olympic Games;
 - b. Contribution towards covering the administrative expenses of the National Olympic Committees amounting to \$1,000 per year;
 - c. Regional and superregional measures and activities of Olympic Solidarity
 - d. Contribution towards covering the administrative expenses of the Olympic Solidarity Bureau;

- e. 20% carried forward to the following four-year period as an Olympic Solidarity reserve
 2. 20% of the available total funds shall be assigned to GANOC. These funds shall be spread as follows:
 - a. Support of the participation of one representative of each NOC in the meetings of the Association of the National Olympic Committees;
 - b. Contribution to the cost of administration of regional organisations;
 - c. Financing of the administration expenses of the General Secretariat of NOCs, covering also the meeting of its Executive Committee.
- (Association of National Olympic Committees, 1979:21-22)

In 1979 Olympic Solidarity moved to Lausanne. By this time Olympic Solidarity was proposing three areas of aid and provision of equipment (Appendix G). It was also decided that Olympic Solidarity would pay for one delegate per NOC to attend the 1981 Olympic Congress; IOA scholarships for 1980 would be available on the same basis as they were for 1979, and a new standard diploma would be available for participants (International Olympic Committee, 1979b). During the first ANOC meeting in Lausanne on the 8th and 9th August 1979, it was decided that Olympic Solidarity would provide one million dollars to fund all NOCs sending athletes to the Winter Games in Lake Placid or the Summer Games in Moscow (International Olympic Committee, 1979a). In 1980, 74 experts, predominantly from Europe or America, were nominated by eleven International Federations, were involved in the Olympic Solidarity national and regional courses (International Olympic Committee, 1981b). Even though some scheduled courses were postponed because it was an Olympic year, 34 regional courses were organised involving 1020 participants, and 23 national courses with around 575 participants

The Commission was appointed during the meeting of the Executive Board on the 30th and 31st December 1980, and its first meeting was on the 26th January 1981 in Lausanne (International Olympic Committee, 1980b). The programmes for 1981 included:

1. Technical Participation – courses for a maximum of 20 participants of a Federation of an organising NOC with a maximum duration of 3 weeks. OS

would pay for the travel and indemnity of the expert nominated by the IF, with a budget of \$1,000 - \$3,000. All other expenses would be paid by the NOC.

2. National Course – courses for a maximum of 25 participants of National Federations of the organising NOC with a duration of 12 to 14 days. OS would pay for the administration costs and the travel, lodging and indemnity of a maximum of 2 experts nominated by the IF, with a budget of \$12,000 - \$15,000.
3. Regional Course – courses for the organising NOCs and 4 participating NOCs with duration of 13 to 14 days. OS would pay the administration costs and the travel, lodging and indemnity of a maximum of 2 experts nominated by the IF, with a budget of \$20,000 - \$30,000.

Some light equipment (balls, sports bags etc.) could also be provided for all these courses (International Olympic Committee, 1980c:459-461).

Although budgets were allocated for the separate continents and the budget for the 1981 programmes had been increased to US\$1,900,000 (International Olympic Committee, 1981c), it was not enough to accommodate all the requests made by the NOCs, and some requests had to be refused. The budget for 1982 was further increased to US2,900,000 (International Olympic Committee, 1981a) but National Olympic Committees were asked to restrict their “proposals (to a maximum of 3) taking into consideration your priority needs on the one hand, and facilities suitable for the good organisation of a course on the other hand” (International Olympic Committee, 1981c:436). In January 1982 it was decided that funding would also be available for travel and accommodation for a maximum of 8 days, for the President or General Secretary to go to the General Assembly of NOCs in Los Angeles in January 1983 (International Olympic Committee, 1982b).

The newly structured Olympic Solidarity Commission, with Juan Antonio Samaranch as Chairman, which was previously only a consultative body, took full “responsibility for Olympic Solidarity in 1982, and in particular for the approval of accounts and budgets and for proposals by the Director of Olympic Solidarity in respect of all Olympic Solidarity activities” (International Olympic Committee, 1993:19) and the IOC-Olympic Solidarity co-ordination group met on a monthly basis. In May 1982, during the 85th IOC Session in Rome, the IOC decided that one tenth of the

revenues derived from the sale of the TV rights for the Games of the XXIIIrd Olympiad – a little more than three million dollars – would be used to help NOCs with travel expenses to the Los Angeles Games.

The first ten per cent of the Los Angeles television income, prior to distribution, will be reserved for the travel and accommodation expenses of athletes at the Los Angeles Games...”(International Olympic Committee, 1982a:324)

The second 10% would be allocated to cover travel and accommodation expenses for judges and referees. A similar procedure would be carried out for the Winter Games. It would not be enough to cover the expenses for the athletes of all 151 NOCs, but should be available only for those “in real need of assistance”. NOCs were asked to submit documents to justify their requests. It was eventually decided to fund “travel and accommodation expenses of six persons per National Olympic Committee – of which four must be athletes – for Los Angeles, and of three persons – of which at least two must be athletes – for Sarajevo” (International Olympic Committee, 1983a:203). If NOCs decided to refute the assistance it would be shared amongst the others.

A sum of US\$5,000 was allocated to each NOC for its administration, and Continental Associations started organising courses in their regions, with Oceania organising the first sport administration course outside Australia and New Zealand. On recommendation by the Association of National Olympic Committees, in October 1982 Anselmo Lopez took office as Honorary Director of Olympic Solidarity (Olympic Solidarity, 2005a) but took full responsibility as Director in March 1983, and a data processing system was installed to handle “the never ending number of new programmes” (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a:18).

The budget for 1983 was almost doubled, and in order to benefit from Olympic Solidarity programmes, NOCs were invited to make proposals for the kind of aid they required, while budgets for technical courses were allocated for each continent. The budget for 1980/1981/1982 was allocated on a continental basis:

	1980	1981	1982	1983
	Budget US\$	Budget US\$	Budget US\$	Budget US\$
Africa	370,000	200,000	440,000	551,000
America	300,000	180,000	360,000	455,000
Asia	290,000	180,000	400,000	500,000
Europe	260,000	170,000	300,000	390,000
Oceania	270,000	170,000	300,000	350,000

(International Olympic Committee, 1981c)

All NOCs were eligible to apply for these courses, each of which also had a fixed budget by making proposals or relative nominations. Olympic Solidarity would approve or deny in consultation with the Continental NOC Association and relative International Federation. In the past, travel and accommodation expenses for the experts carrying out the Technical courses had been paid by the NOCs, however, in 1983, in agreement with the International Federations, Olympic Solidarity started to foot the bill. Between August and September 1983 Olympic Solidarity moved offices to the south wing on first floor of the building at 10 Avenue de la Gare, Lausanne. The new offices included a conference room for twenty people, and a utility room containing a photocopier, telex, telefax and 'Victor' the computer. At the time there were three members of staff directed by Anselmo Lopez. A data processing system was installed, together with the introduction of "decentralisation, rationalisation and greater individual responsibility for particular fields of activity together with the necessary coordination" (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a:18).

In Africa, "apart from administration problems, many NOCs suffered from lack of equipment and facilities, and from poor communication... some experts were shocked by the desperate economic conditions, which invariably affected the courses held" (Olympic Solidarity, 1983:1). Since many of the experts selected to conduct courses in Africa were from Europe or America, it involved high travel costs. In America, NOCs were allocated US\$10,000 for their 1983 courses, but lack of communication was blamed for some courses not being organised, consequently PASO would be taking a "more disciplined approach" before payments were made in 1984. The newly formed Olympic Council of Asia was undergoing re-organisation; communication issues caused problems with transport of experts, furthermore lack of

equipment and timely provision of reports were areas that needed attention. Although courses in Europe were well organised and attended some NOCs lacked facilities or needed interpreters. The Continental Association citing inadequacy of reports and insufficient control of the courses, would be taking a more participatory role the following year. The International Federations were faced with a recurring problem: lack of communication resulted in insufficient time to identify suitable experts and Olympic Solidarity highlighted the importance of that choice

An expert from a different part of the world is not necessarily acquainted with the problems of another continent. Olympic solidarity considers it essential that experts understand the mentality of the country in which they conduct a course – this question is at least as important as the question of language (Olympic Solidarity, 1983:6).

At the end of the 1983, Olympic Solidarity proposed its first four year plan for the period 1985-1988, aimed to achieve the following:

- To give all of the world's NOCs a budget guaranteed in advance for a four – year period;
- To oblige the NOCs and the National Federations to rethink the programming of their medium-term activities while avoiding improvisation;
- To simplify administrative norms as much as possible but with the least possible intervention, with a view to promoting effective thorough and responsible work

(Olympic Solidarity, 1986:8)

A proposal was made to send advisors to visit NOCs organising courses, either in by using IOC members or by having a permanent group of experts travelling from one course to another. The report contained comments about every course organised (or not organised) and recommendations by the continental Associations of NOCs.

Although the budget for 1984 rose to around \$24,000,000 (Olympic Solidarity, 1983), administration problems still existed, in the different levels of organisation of the courses and lack of adequate reporting. Olympic Solidarity acknowledged that the level of the courses “were not subject to any rules... they are all different and thus do not constitute any uniformity of teaching”, they are organised by “different bodies pursuing distinct objectives”(Olympic Solidarity, 1984a:174). Some African NOCs

exceeded their programme budgets; communication was an issue with NOCs from the Americas, whilst lack of equipment affected some Asian NOCs. Oceania had only six NOCs, but the distance between them resulted in lack of communication and high travel costs. However some NOCs, particularly the newer ones, were also lacking in qualified administrative staff. “Many of them nevertheless lack the necessary administrative structures to enable the Olympic Solidarity to produce effective tasks” and Olympic Solidarity was “obliged at times to reject vouchers justifying the use of the budgets” (Olympic Solidarity, 1985:180).

The most worrying area was the lack of sports directors and their administrative staff in both the NOCs and National Federations. It was therefore proposed that an itinerant school for the education of Sport leaders would be set up, with a group of experts attached to Olympic Solidarity and would be open to all NOCs. Olympic Solidarity in collaboration with the Continental Associations of the NOCs,

would establish a programme of courses indicating their levels, the dates when they would take place, the designated experts and the budget envisaged (Olympic Solidarity, 1984b:176)

Manuals in English, French and Spanish for both experts and participants would be made available, and Olympic Solidarity would follow the development of the courses using computerised data, registering the background of the participants and monitoring their future movements (International Olympic Committee, 1985a)

The procedure for application of courses was also changed; Olympic Solidarity structured its programmes, these were proposed to the NOCs who would apply through a proposal to participate in or organise.

- NF will be informed by IFs and NOCs on the availability of OS courses.
 - NFs together with IFs determine their course needs
 - NFs apply to the NOC with their course requests
 - NOC present proposals to Continental Association
 - Continental Association/IFs discuss NOC needs and draft programme
 - Draft Programme presented to OS for approval
- (Olympic Solidarity, 1984b)

As an incentive to increase recruitment of highly qualified experts, Olympic Solidarity agreed to increase the daily indemnity for experts to US\$30. A handbook was to be produced to overcome the problems caused by the frequent changes in NOC and National Federations. A proposal for a four-year programme, starting from the 1985-1988 quadrennial, giving the Continental Association, NOCs and NFs advance knowledge of the allocated budgets, would enhance planning and the appointment of experts. After the 1984 Los Angeles Games, Samaranch decided that Olympic Solidarity would provide funds for participation of athletes at the Calgary and Seoul Games in 1988 with US\$500 per participating athlete, this fund was raised to US\$800 for the Albertville and Barcelona Games in 1992. The new programme of bursaries for participation in the Olympic Games, amounting to six million dollars, also generated such an increased workload that the 1984 Olympic Solidarity annual report was not ready in time for the 90th IOC session in Berlin in June 1985 (International Olympic Committee, 1985b:466).

By 1985 Olympic Solidarity was involved with five continental associations, 161 recognised NOCs and 28 International Federations, and this year saw the start of Olympic Solidarity's first quadrennial Programme even though some NOCs were still unable to envisage a four-year plan. A request made at the beginning of 1985 by the Organising Committee for the Seoul 1988 Olympic Games, for funding to train judges/referees, and 'games operation' personnel, was accepted by the IOC, and twelve courses were held. Similarly, eight courses were also held in preparation for the Calgary 1988 Winter Games, financed from a different source to that of the Olympic Solidarity training budget. In February, the IOC and the World Federation of Sporting Goods Industry (WFSGI) signed an agreement covering a sports aid programme designed to help developing countries. Distribution of sporting goods such as shoes, and kits would be available on written confirmation that goods would be exempt of duty. Unfortunately, not all written documents were forthcoming so not all countries received the goods. A Medical sub-commission for co-ordination with NOCs was set up to take over the administration and organisation of the Sports Medicine Courses and the scheduled courses for that quadrennium would be coordinated by the continental representative of the Medical Commission. Allocated budgets would be supplemented with those from the Medical Commission, and

regulations, certificates and a course manual would be issued (Olympic Solidarity, 1985).

Issues related to late submission of final course reports were still a problem African, American and Asian NOCs. Some countries, namely Mexico, Brazil Cuba, Argentina, and the United States provided a number of qualified experts and Canada contributed to the improvement in organisational skills in the English-speaking NOCs in America. In Europe ENOC inspectors declared that the regional courses organisation was excellent. The English Manual for the Itinerant School was finalised and two pilot courses in Jamaica (26th January -1st February 1986) and Zambia (9th - 14th February1986), were followed by one in Lesotho and another in Kenya. Similar basic level courses were planned for Asia, Africa and the Americas.

to cover the most common needs and skills of a volunteer administrator or elected executive of a National Olympic Committee or any other sports organisation (Olympic Solidarity, 1985:302)

In 1986 Olympic Solidarity had a list of fifteen experts who, following a period of training, would act as Course Conductors for the Sports Leadership programme under the guidance of Olympic Solidarity. The first international seminar for sports journalists was organised by the International Olympic Academy in June, and was attended by twenty participants from thirteen countries. This year also saw the start of a new programme called the IOC–International Federation Development programme, which varied depending on the type of sport and the individual requirements, of the twelve Sports Disciplines that benefited (Olympic Solidarity, 1986) and “in December 1986, the IOC Programme Commission asked Olympic Solidarity to examine possible means of cooperation with a view to propagating sports in developing countries and promoting women’s sports” (Olympic Solidarity, 1988:265).

According to the 1987 Olympic Solidarity report, although there was clear improvement in comparison with previous years, credited mainly to the Continental Associations of NOCs, problems with communication and administrative structure were still an issue; at times the passive attitude of the NFs and NOCs suggested a lack of interest. Twenty-three National Olympic Committees did not participate in any of the Olympic Solidarity Programmes, even though they had been allocated budgets.

Eleven African Secretary Generals did not attend the meeting in Brazzaville (Congo) in October, even though all expenses would have been paid by Olympic Solidarity. In order to help those African NOCs lacking sporting, social and educational facilities, the Olympiafrica project was set up “to construct low-cost, functional sporting and cultural centres run by young people from the surrounding communities” (Olympic Solidarity, 1998:20). On the other hand 36 courses were held through the Itinerant School in Africa, Asia and the Americas, but Anne Foulkes, the development Programme Coordinator for the IAAF, apart from suggesting more attention should be paid to experts request, and more publicity for the courses, commented on the lack of women at the training courses (Olympic Solidarity, 1987). ANOC commented on the lack of budgets to “acquire and produce technical and teaching documentation” and requested an extension to the deadline for report submission, since “letters sometimes took 1-2 months to arrive” because of communication difficulties in Africa (Olympic Solidarity, 1987:48).

The PASO report stated the NOCs lacked teaching equipment, facilities and enough publicity for the courses, but suggested that the Americas could be the right place to pilot an Olympic Solidarity proposal to set up a University for technique. The report from OCA proposed that during the itinerant courses one lecture should be about Olympism, and recommended that NOCs would be able to use Olympic Solidarity funding to hold training camps, or to send coaches or athletes abroad for training, particularly before Regional, Olympic or International Competition. The FINA report suggested that since most of the courses were held in under-developed sport countries, this contributed to organisational difficulty, consequently experts required information about the culture, the level and number of participants. To commemorate the founding of the Olympic Games, on the 23rd June 1894, the Olympic Day Run was organised for the first time through funding from Olympic Solidarity, and with the help of the Federation of Sporting Goods Industry (WFSGI), the IAAF, and the National Olympic Committees. It took place in the five continents, and was the beginning of the Sports for All Programme (Olympic Solidarity, 1987)

In 1988, according to Anselmo Lopez, Olympic Solidarity had “drawn a plan with a view to equipping the most impoverished NOCs with telecopying systems” (Olympic Solidarity, 1988:10). Two events to promote the development of women and sport were funded for the first time by Olympic Solidarity; the International Rowing

Association held a conference in Holland on the development of world level women's rowing, and the International Handball Federation organised the first symposium for female coaches in Austria. As happened previously in 1986, following an Olympic Games, 1989 saw a downturn in the organisation of programmes by the NOCs. Some courses were postponed because NOCs did not adhere to 1st September deadline to propose their schedule of programmes for the following year. Proposals to promote women's sport in collaboration with the Olympic Programme Commission were received from the International Federations of athletics, handball, rowing, tennis and sailing. At the request of AENOC, Mr Anselmo Lopez, Director of Olympic Solidarity, agreed to consider funding for the preparation and participation in the Games for the Small States of Europe (GSSE), Spartakiades and the Mediterranean Games. A suggestion was also made by Marculescu, from FINA, for the organisation of a world coaches' clinic, or to send "coaches for six months or one year to different development countries and also to send the best athletes for exhibitions and development" (Olympic Solidarity, 1989:236).

As a result of requests from a large number of NOCs, who at the end of Seoul Games in 1988 complained that they did not achieve good results because they did not have the same facilities to train their athletes as those in developed countries (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a), Olympic Solidarity started a new programme in 1989 called the Olympic Athlete Scholarship for "national athletes, male or female, who is considered to be a potential elite athlete" (Olympic Solidarity, 1989:275) practicing an individual sport in developing countries with insufficient sports facilities. The scholarship was renewable every four months and would cover travel, board and lodging, pocket money, studies, illness and accident insurance. Training would be carried out in established training centres, giving them the opportunity to train at the same level as other athletes from more developed countries. In December 1989 the Olympic Solidarity Commission approved a proposal by Lamine Kieta for the Olympic Scholarship for Coaches programme, which would start in 1990, where coaches aged 24 to 45yrs could participate "in seminars and courses with a duration between one and six months, in order to obtain a higher qualification and improve their skills" (Olympic Solidarity, 1991:231).

The theme for the 30th International Session of the International Olympic Academy, held in June 1990, was Women in the Olympic Movement, with an unprecedented

attendance of 200 participants from seventy one National Olympic Committees. In the same year, the IAAF held a conference on Women's athletics in Nairobi, Kenya in September, and a seminar on Women's Athletics in Santa Fe, Argentina, the latter being "the first structured opportunity in South America for discussion of women's athletics on a continental level" (Olympic Solidarity, 1990:260). The IOC Commission for the Olympic Programme, and the NOCs organised a programme of activities "specifically designed to promote women's sport and consequently increase the participation of women at the Olympic Games and other high level international competitions" (Olympic Solidarity, 1990:335). A programme funding the provision of fax machines improved NOC communication and courses were no longer held in the capitals of the countries, particularly in Africa. Although they were only originally offered to developing countries in Africa, Asia and the Americas, in 1990 Olympic Scholarships for Athletes were also open to Malta, Cyprus, Iceland and the Eastern European Countries, while a very low number of requests, seven out of a possible 108, were also approved for Olympic Coach Scholarships. A joint venture between ONOC and the Australian Sports Institute, and financial aid from the Australian Government saw the formation of the Oceania Olympic Training centre, for training of athletes from the Island Nations with a lower technical level than that required for Olympic Solidarity Scholarships (Olympic Solidarity, 1990). The Sports Medical Manual was published in English, French and Spanish (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a).

The Association of National Olympic Committees was working to "define a new training programme for administrative and technical leaders which takes into consideration the various needs of the NOC" (Olympic Solidarity, 1991:53). The first European Youth Olympic Days was held in Brussels, and the EOC introduced the European Project with new initiatives more in line with European NOC expectations. Most courses by OCA were postponed to 1992, partly because of the Gulf War, whilst Brian Wightman, as Zone Development Officer for Oceania, carried out similar courses to those of the itinerant school for NOCs on that continent. Follow up visits were carried out over the previous two years, in order to gauge the success of the itinerant school. In Africa, 40% of those who had participated in the courses were interviewed. It was discovered that only one out of ninety three was not involved in sport. In Asia, 39% of participants were interviewed, out of which 30% had improved their position in sport. No visits were made in the Americas.

162 Scholarships were distributed between 1989 and 1992, whereas 178 scholarships for Coaches, a new programme introduced in 1990, were distributed within three years (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a). In 1992 new programmes included the possibility of acquiring sporting equipment, and NOCs were encouraged to use underutilised funds from their 1992 budget. A Marketing programme for NOCs was also introduced for NOCs 'with the most need' based on four principles

- a. A marketing manual,
- b. Training course for Olympic Solidarity Marketing Advisors
- c. Seminar on Marketing
- d. Set up of a Marketing Programme by each NOC

Technical Courses held by Olympic Solidarity between 1983 and 1992 reached 2,443; and the Olympic Solidarity's budget was a total of US\$42,416,560 out of which the Continents of Africa and Asia received 26% and 24% of the budget respectively (Olympic Solidarity, 1993a).

In 1993, once again, there was a slowdown in programme activity, after the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games and particularly in Africa due to "political struggles which have led many countries to war" (Olympic Solidarity, 1993b:10). The representative from OCA was critical of the expertise of those sent to conduct courses, and suggested that only few NOC benefited from the athlete and coach scholarships. After the political upheaval created by the collapse of the Soviet-bloc in Europe and the division of Czechoslovakia and recognition of the Republic of Macedonia – the EOC had 47 member NOCs in November 1993 (Olympic Solidarity, 1993b). A number of new European NOCs, benefited from the development of the Marketing programme. A new programme for Graduate Students was introduced by the IOA, divided into three groups of fifteen day cycles, aimed at preparing the participants for their Doctorate, at the same time carrying out research on a subject given to them by the IOA.

In 1994 a new directive was issued that only athletes with potential to participate in the Olympics would be awarded scholarships, nevertheless the NOCs wanted this programme to be extended to cover Regional Games. All NOCs were provided with the technical demonstration video tapes produced using biomechanics recordings from the Barcelona Games (Olympic Solidarity, 1994) and Olympic Solidarity

assumed responsibility for training National Course directors through the itinerant school programme (Olympic Solidarity, 1997a). The annual subsidy granted to all NOCs was increased from US\$5,000 to US\$10,000 and new programmes for 1995 were introduced, including Atlanta Training grants that were valid from 1st January to 30th June 1995, and would be available for six athletes in individual sport, for six months, but could be renewed on a monthly basis for up to eighteen months. A new programme was being developed for athletes under twenty years of age, with a five term bursary to cover training and studies. Scholarships for young athletes were valid from 1st July to 31st December 1997, for three athletes, from each NOC. Athletes under seventeen years could only use the scholarship in their own country. Scholarships were renewable every six months, NOCs could replace athletes if a scholarship was cancelled, and the budget covered by the scholarship depended on where the training was to be held. A Women and Sport working group was established to advise the IOC. A budget of US\$7,500 was being considered to help a selected group of most needy NOCs improve the infrastructure of their offices (International Olympic Committee, 1995) and a questionnaire was sent out to the NOCs in 1996, to garner feedback about the Olympic Solidarity Programmes. Anselmo Lopez resigned from Olympic Solidarity in 1996.

1997 saw the start of a new era for Olympic Solidarity. Pere Miro de Sellares took over as Director of Olympic Solidarity, stating that

Olympic Solidarity will develop a new strategy; one that is specifically focused on teamwork with the continental associations of the NOCs and the IFs, and which will allow us to develop a truly global vision and achieve an even high standard of efficiency in carrying out our diverse activities (Olympic Solidarity, 1997a:7)

The format of the Olympic Solidarity Annual Report changed. The list of individual courses and personal analysis was gone, replaced by groups of comprehensive continental lists for each Olympic Solidarity Programme with an individual description of programmes in each continent. Financial statistics for each programme for each NOC were still provided annually, together with a breakdown of the Olympic Games Participation in the year of the Games. Funding was budgeted and directly available to the Continental Associations to be distributed for the activity aid programmes for

NOCs, each with a budget of US\$25,000 per year. Several new programmes of scholarships and assistance to athletes, coaches and sport administrators were introduced as well as new programmes for Women and Sport, and Sport and the Environment (Appendix (I)).

The support from Olympic Solidarity primarily covered three areas: Continental Programmes, twelve Programmes for National Olympic Committees, and IOC-IF Programmes. Special agreements were made between Olympic Solidarity and ONOC, with regards to the Olympic Athlete Scholarship programme which was jointly financed by the Australian government through the ASP 2000 Programme. The collaboration agreement between the EOC and the Arab Sports Confederation, which had ended, was to be renewed, and a similar agreement was being negotiated with ANOCA. The Irish NOC and seven NOCs from the Americas were first to organise programmes in Women and Sport. 178 out of 197 NOCs benefited from the Olympic Solidarity Programmes in 1997 (Olympic Solidarity, 1997a).

In 1998 saw a progressive increase in the role of the Continental Associations in the development of the Olympic Solidarity programmes in their continents, with high involvement in the technical departments of OCA and ONOC, a better means of communication with PASO, increased efficiency of the headquarters of ANOCA and the excellent collaboration of the Technical Cooperation Commission of the EOC. The programmes for the more disadvantaged NOCs were updated, and 197 NOCs benefited from at least one Olympic Solidarity programme. The Olympafrica programme was restructured with the aim of completing the centres in construction and together with ANOCA carry out an analysis of what had been done. Apart from regular articles in the Olympic Review, and its page on the IOC website, Olympic Solidarity established the 'Horizon Project', where visitors could follow the preparation of five athletes, one from each continent, and all Sydney 2000 Olympic Scholarship holders. 42 NOCs benefited, for the first time, from funds allocated for athletes' and coaches' preparation in training camps, and qualifying competitions leading to the Nagano Winter Games, during which four of the athletes eventually won medals; a number of NOCs obtained funds for the Nagano Youth Camp participants.

Two new options were added to the Olympic Scholarships programme: 'specific sports training' and 'development of the local sports infrastructure', whereas a number of 'sport for all' activities were approved apart from the Olympic Day Run. The programme for sports administrations had new administrative and educational structure, with Mr Richard W. Palmer as general coordinator and regional coordinators for each continent, with a new English manual and an academic council chaired by Dr. Roger Jackson set up to provide updated directives and information. Technical agreements were concluded with 32 International Federations, 26 of which were participating in the Summer Games (Olympic Solidarity, 1998).

As a result of the Salt Lake City scandals, 1999 was a particularly difficult year for the African NOCs. A number of African IOC members, including the ANOCA President, had been dismissed or expelled; nevertheless all African NOCs participated in the 1999 activities. The Itinerant school programme was totally restructured and transformed into the Sports Administrators programme, putting emphasis on the training of the directors of National courses, and the first training seminar for Olympafrica Centre Managers was held in Dakar in July. The first joint meeting between Olympic Solidarity, the Department of the IOC in charge of relations with the NOCs, and representatives of five Continental Associations was held towards the end of the year to discuss past and future programmes, to consider the importance of the continental and regional games, and propose ways of improving communication, between all stakeholders. 151 NOCs were connected to the online Extranet network developed for better communication with the NOCs (Olympic Solidarity, 1999).

In order to ensure more international participation by some of the less developed sportive nations, the IOC also changed the rules of the Olympic Charter concerning the invitations to athletes to participate in the Olympic Games, so that these invitations came directly from the IOC and not from the organising committee. In 1999 it was made obligatory for all NOC's who received funding to send athletes to participate in the Olympic Games and invitations for two athletes in both swimming and athletics would potentially enable universal participation. A separate Olympic Solidarity programme ensured funding would be made available for flights and accommodation, for up to eight participants from each NOC; consequently no NOC could complain that they could not afford to send their athletes for the Games (Hill C,

2002). Nevertheless, Djibouti did not participate in Athens in 2004, (Chappelet and Kubler-Mabbott, 2008) and Brunei did not participate in Beijing 2008. In December 1999 the Olympic Solidarity Commission approved the necessary objectives, programme and budgets for the launching of a new phase in the following four years.

A special programme for the installation of computer facilities greatly improved email communication with NOCs. 43 delegates received Olympic Solidarity funding to attend the 2nd World Conference on Women and Sport which was held in Paris in March 2000. Olympic Solidarity monitored the results of the Olympic Athlete Scholarship holders, making them available on the Olympic website during the Sydney 2000 Games (OS 2000). Nine of the planned fifteen centres to be built in Africa, Burkina Faso (BUR), Cote d'Ivoire (CIV), Cameroon (CMR), Guinea (GUI), Mali (MLI), Niger (NIG), (2) Senegal (SEN), and Swaziland (SWZ) had been completed and were operational. Those for Angola (ANG), Gambia (GAM), Guinea (GUI), and Mozambique (MOZ) would be inaugurated shortly, and another two for Mozambique (MOZ) and Uganda (UGA) would soon be completed (Olympic Solidarity, 2000).

In 2001, under the presidency of Jacques Rogge, the Olympic Solidarity Commission was restructured, changes were made to the Olympic Charter, and Mario Vasquez Rana, was appointed Chairman. This year involved decentralisation of funding, reorganisation and change; new members of staff were recruited, and staff sectors were restructured; staff belonged to nine different nationalities. It also marked the transition to a new computer system (Olympic Solidarity, 2001b); the structural and organisational foundations for the system to function properly were set down, and a number of forums were held to inform the NOCs. New procedures were established to transfer some responsibilities to the Continental Associations. Once again, the reports took on a new format; they no longer contained the annual financial disbursements to the NOCs; these were printed as quadrennial totals in the report for the fourth year of the quadrennium. The budget for the 2001-2004 quadrennium was 780% higher than the first budget for the 1985-1988 quadrennium, and 70% higher than that of the previous quadrennium 1997-2000 (Olympic Solidarity, 2001a). Olympic Solidarity offered 21 World programmes Appendix (J) and five Continental programmes, one for each continent. Nine of the World Programmes were new in comparison with those in the previous plan, and the programmes were divided into

four areas: athletes, coaches, NOC management and special fields. All the guidelines and forms for each programme would be accessible to all NOCs on the NOC Extranet (www.cno-noc.olympic.org).

One of the new programmes provided support for the preparation of seven team sports including baseball, basketball, handball, hockey, water polo, soft-ball and volleyball. For the first time assistance was provided to individual athletes and/or their national teams to prepare for Regional and Continental Games, with a programme that was specific to each continent. Another new programme provided NOC with expertise to develop a range of different aspects of management and administration such as marketing, communication and legal issues. NOCs could also request an annual administrative subsidy of US\$20,000 to cover expenses of office rent, staff salaries, telecommunication fees, meetings, etc.; this subsidy was particularly targeted at those NOCs with a lack of technology. A new programme for sports administrators in European NOCs gave participants the choice to follow an Executive Masters in Sport Organisation Management (MEMOS) recognised by the University of Lyon, or scholarships for high level training at a university of their choice (Olympic Solidarity, 2001a:29). The development of the Young Athlete Scholarship introduced the possibility of assistance for Talent Identification schemes, while coaching courses included the option for training of National coaches, which for Oceania and Europe would be held under the umbrella of the Activities budget of the Continental Associations.

Coaching courses were held at the Semmelweis University in Budapest, the Centro de Alto Rendimiento (CAR) in Barcelona, and the National Institute of Sport and Physical Education (INSEP) in Paris (Olympic Solidarity, 2001b). The Sports Administration Manual was updated and published in three languages: English, French and Spanish, and NOCs could apply to Olympic Solidarity for translation into their national language. Additions to the Special Fields' programmes included one promoting Culture and Olympic Education as well as research and studies in this field, whilst the European MEMOS programme was open to NOCs outside Europe. Another new programme was aimed at preserving national Olympic Legacy, with training assistance for the setting up of archives and assistance for museum maintenance. The Continental programmes targeted five similar areas for all the continents:

- Continental Associations developing and functioning costs
- Assistance to attend general assemblies, seminars for secretaries general and meetings of the executive or other committees
- They covered areas of activity not included in the World Programmes
- Financial support to assist with the organisation of Continental and/or regional games
- A subsidy for specific activities (Olympic Solidarity, 2001a)

Once again Olympic Solidarity provided assistance for 690 athletes and four ice hockey teams, in their preparation for the Salt Lake City 2002 Olympic Winter Games; 77% of these athletes came from Europe. NOCs utilised this assistance in diverse ways including training camps, travel to qualification competitions, and payment of coaching fees. The aim of the Athens 2004 Olympic Athlete Scholarships was “to promote the Universality of the Games and to improve the technical level of elite athletes”; funding was available only two years before the Olympic Games, since the primary aim was to “enable athletes to qualify and prepare for the Games” (Olympic Solidarity, 2002:20). By 2002 agreements had been made with several organisations (Appendix E), to enable most of 728 Scholarships granted to athletes from 112 NOCs, to be carried out, nevertheless some scholarships were cancelled because some athletes were injured or did not achieve good results. 37 projects for team preparation scholarships were also approved, and some NOCs benefited from funding for preparation to participate in Regional and Continental Games. In 2002, the new Talent Identification Programme which began in 2001, was endorsed by 41 NOCs who set up traditional or scientific methods adapted to the local situation, with the greater success being obtained by those focusing mainly on one or two sports, and with identification of talent in individual sport having a better outcome. The network of centres willing to accommodate coaches was expanded, and the French-speaking NOCs were offered a new coaching programme for National Coaches at the National Multisport Center in Montreal, entitled “*Programme D’appui Canadien au Sport Africain*” (Canadian Support Programme for African Sport – PACSA), while responsibility for some technical courses was transferred to the Continental Associations particularly ONOC and EOC. Emphasis on the need of NOCs to train

more women resulted in 28% of participants in the administration courses in 2002 being female.

The programme for training of high level administrators was expanded with eighty scholarships awarded to participants for Masters Studies in English and French with a selection of options:

- Executive Masters in Sports Organisation Management (MEMOS) programme offered by a network of European universities and schools of sport – conducted in English
- Diplôme d'Etudes Supérieures Spécialisées (DESS): Encadrement et direction de structures et d'organismes sportifs (Master in Management of Sport Organisations) offered by INSEP and the Université Claude Bernard Lyon – conducted in French.
- Ten “*a la carte*” scholarships of up to US\$12,000 awarded annually on a competitive basis to NOC candidates to complete a masters level course in sports administration, such as an MBA, at a university of their choice (granted each year from 2002-2004). (Olympic Solidarity, 2002:50)

The Information Technology Development sub-programme, which in 2001 was available for NOCs that did not have the minimum IT requirements, was extended in 2002, and funding up to US\$5,000 was available for all NOCs to purchase hardware and software, as well as for IT training courses for staff. Starting from October 2002, a number of articles from a sports Medical publication were regularly posted on the NOC Extranet.

In 2003, new evaluation forms were created for the technical courses for national coaches, and applications for the “Development of National Coaching Structure Programme” increased significantly in comparison to those in 2002. The first ‘world edition’ of the MEMOS programme (VI) was offered exclusively to 34 NOC staff, or volunteers outside of Europe, in a series of four one-week modules, each focusing on a different aspect of management (Olympic Solidarity, 2003:46). During the pre-Olympic year, priority in awarding the Olympic Scholarships, was given to those who were not awarded scholarships in 2002, with 161 new scholarships from 20 NOCs,

with a similar situation regarding team support grants. By June 2003 152 NOCs had asked for support to purchase information technology and train their staff. The publication “NOC Games Preparation, Proven Practices and Guidelines” was published in English, French, Spanish, Russian and Arabic (Olympic Solidarity, 2003:50) distributed to NOCs participating in the Regional Forums Programme. An education sub-programme was created at the request of the IOC Medical Commission, with funding allocated to each continent, and targeting doctors and physiotherapists.

The plan for the administrative construction of an “Olympic Solidarity diverse in its universality, but unchanging in its basic principles”, (Olympic Solidarity, 2004:9) was completed in 2004. Six Olympic Solidarity offices were established; one in Lausanne and one in each continent. Since the Olympic Solidarity Commission had approved the proposal to carry out a worldwide evaluation of the 2001-2004 quadrennium, a questionnaire was sent to NOCs, the Continental Associations and ANOC and an internal evaluation by the Olympic Solidarity staff produced both quantitative and qualitative results on the use and advantages of each programme. Vazquez Rana suggested that “the NOCs’ participation in the analysis and evaluation of the results of the 2001-2004 quadrennial period was a valuable contribution to the process of devising the Programmes for 2005-2008” (Olympic Solidarity, 2004:3).

Although year of the Games, made it an intense year of work, and although the last one and a half years saw a steady increase in the number of athletes benefiting from Olympic Athlete Scholarships programme, “intended to help athletes to qualify for and participate in the Games”, the number of participants began to fall, as scholarships were withdrawn from athletes who had not chance of qualifying for the Games, Nonetheless, some eventually received invitations through the IOC Tripartite Commission. By the end of 2004, all NOCs except two had an email address through which they submitted most of the correspondence and applications to Olympic Solidarity. Feedback from the NOCs during the Athens Games suggested the need to provide higher level courses in the Sports Administrators Programme. Consequently Olympic Solidarity worked with the MEMOS network to introduce advanced level management courses for the following quadrennial, and when considering candidates, for the MEMOS programme, preference was given to NOCs who had not participated previously. A new option within the IOC Management

Consultancy programme, NOC Exchange, was launched in co-operation with the IOC NOC relations Department, in order for NOCs to share experiences. According to the Olympic Solidarity Report for 2004, athlete development and preparation is the primary task of the NOCs, and the results from Atlanta and Sydney indicated that the Olympic Scholarships for athletes programme had a “real impact on the preparation figures of the small NOCs and went some way to guaranteeing the universality of the Olympic Games” (Olympic Solidarity, 2004:15).

The analysis of the information gathered in 2004 about the Olympic Solidarity programmes helped to define the strategy for the next quadrennium, 2005-2008, based primarily on increased decentralisation of some of the funds and programmes to the Continental Associations, while the World Programmes would still be administered by the Olympic Solidarity office in Lausanne.

The key concept is based on autonomy between the world and continental programmes, but with complementary objectives and fully coordinated implementation and management (Olympic Solidarity, 2005b:6)

Discussions were also held with a number of ‘large’ NOCs, who offered training facilities for scholarship holders, including those of Australia, Canada, Cuba, Germany, Islamic Republic of Iran, Mexico, and People’s Republic of China, Republic of Korea, South Africa and the United States of America. Apart from the Continental Programmes, NOCs were now being offered a choice of 20 different programmes, which, in 2005, included the financial assistance for, mostly European, NOCs to prepare athletes for the Winter Olympic Games in Torino 2006. This programme would cover costs relating to training and coaching for athletes’ and/or teams’ preparation, participation in Olympic qualification competitions or international competition not covered by the IF; subsidiary activities linked to the preparation of athletes; or purchase of specialised winter sports equipment. Athens 2004 results prompted Olympic Solidarity to grant a limited number of interim scholarships on a one-off basis to 28 athletes from 25 NOCs to continue their training in international training centres.

2005 was the first year when the NOCs were expected to submit a quadrennial plan for the ‘team support grant’, including the competitions they intended to participate in, and it was also open to teams who would only qualify for continental or regional

competitions. NOCs were entitled to US\$1,500 for training of staff. Some programmes were slightly amended, so that for the quadrennial 2005-2008 NOCs were asked to submit a 'quadrennial plan' for the 'Technical Courses for Coaches' programme, whilst the development of National Sports Structure Programme would now not focus only on Coach education, but an expert could also provide advice about the whole national structure of a sport. A 'pilot' internship programme was launched with the support of NOCs from Australia, Belgium, Great Britain, New Zealand and United States of America, who hosted five applicants from Brunei Darussalam, Guatemala, Iraq, Malaysia and Tunisia and for the first time, scholarships were offered to thirty female NOC administrators from all five continents to enable them to participate in the Sport Management Seminar for Women in Lausanne (Olympic Solidarity, 2005a).

The level of support for young and high-level athletes was significantly higher than in 2005, while the increase in interest in Talent Identification programmes meant that some applications were refused. A number of athletes with specific needs were placed in high level training centres. The internships 'pilot' programme became a permanent sub-programme within the NOC exchange and Regional Forums programme. In 2006, NOCs were permitted to request reimbursement of costs related to staff training courses, held the previous year, as part of the NOC Administration programme. In Africa the IOC organised the first continental seminar for women from African NOCs in Cairo, which also included project management, leadership and negotiation skills. The new Spanish-speaking edition of the MEMOS programme was launched and offered by the INEFC (Institut Nacional d'Educacio Fisica de Catalunya) in collaboration with the Spanish NOC (Olympic Solidarity, 2006).

There was not much change in the programmes of 2007 and 2008; a lot of activity was focused on preparation for the Olympic Games in Beijing. By 2007, 1,048 athletes from 164 NOCs, and 109 participating teams had received Olympic Scholarships and a pilot series of advance sports management courses based on the new manual, for Managing Olympic Sports Organisations, was launched. The manual of NOC Games Preparation, Proven Practices and Guidelines was updated. There was a decrease in requests for activities related to projects promoting women in sport, while 'sports for all' requests doubled in comparison to the previous year. A

mid-plan change was made to the educational Medical scholarships programme, in 2007, providing financial assistance for attendance to Medical congresses, with the option being revised for the 2009-2012 quadrennium (Olympic Solidarity, 2008).

In 2008, the MEMOS programme in French was launched, and the first MEMOS Graduates Worldwide Convention was held in Barcelona in November 2008, during which Olympic Solidarity supported 55 NOCs. Besides sending a questionnaire to all NOCs, in order to gauge their views about the 2005-2008 quadrennial programmes, the international office of Olympic Solidarity also held an internal evaluation in collaboration with the NOC Continental Associations. The grant given to the NOCs for participation in the Beijing Games “was higher than for previous editions following the decision taken by the Olympic Solidarity Commission in December 2007” (Olympic Solidarity, 2008:80).

The options provided in some of the programmes can be very diverse, and there is continuing development, so NOC's really have much more than 20 different programmes they can use to improve the performance of their NOC, their athletes, administrators, and technical officials. Budgets are allocated for every programme, but most do not provide direct finance to fully fund the programme. After approval of a proposal is made by an NOC, an NOC, IF or relevant party pays the expenses for the programme and these are reimbursed by Olympic Solidarity on receipt of specific documentation. In certain programmes some of the funds are paid directly by the National Federation involved, particularly for use of technical staff and facilities, whereas in some other programmes Olympic Solidarity pays a portion of the funding directly. Not all programmes requested by an NOC might be accepted. Although it is assumed that these programmes are allocated on merit, it has been suggested that there is an element of “political calculation” into the division of percentages of the budget destined for the different continents (Hill, 1992:73). There are no written criteria or published policy of how allocations and approvals for the programmes are carried out by Olympic Solidarity administrators.

Statistical Analysis of Individual World Programmes

This section will deal with the analysis of individual programme data for three core programme groups, NOC Management, Coaches and Athletes. These programmes originally conceived to provide development in different areas for those NOCs 'most in need', eventually developed into a number of options for each sector. The year in which the data for that particular programme is available is indicated in the heading.

7. Courses 1974 -1996 / Activities 1997–2000

Up to 1984 all programmes available were considered as Courses even though they covered different areas of activity, including technical and administrative scholarships. Programmes were compiled under the heading of Courses up to 1996, but in 1997 were re-titled as Activities with a wider choice of options including:

- organising technical sports training
- acquiring sports equipment
- developing National Olympic Academies
- organising courses on training, advance coaching specialisation or retraining
- enabling national teams to participate in various international competitions
- Organising local competitions (OS 1997, p.11)

This grouping lasted until 2000, when the different activities were either developed into new programmes or integrated with existing ones. In 1985 most NOCs in Africa received at least US\$15,000 and NOCs in America received a minimum of US\$11,000, rising up to US\$45,000 for Mexico (MEX), Argentina (ARG) and the USA. The range of funding for NOCs in Asia varied from US\$11,000 to US\$30,000,

but both NOCs received substantially more, with US\$45,000 for China (CHN) and US\$60,000 for Kuwait (KUW).

Table 40 Courses and Activities

Continental Division		NOCs	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	Courses 1985	45	0	66,000	14,000	10,721
	Courses 1996	52	0	28,500	27,951	3,952
	Activities 2000	53	40,000	40,000	40,000	0
Americas	Courses 1985	37	11,000	46,000	13,837	9,685
	Courses 1996	42	26,300	26,300	26,300	0
	Activities 2000	42	40,000	40,000	40,000	0
Asia	Courses 1985	37	0	60,000	17,837	12,164
	Courses 1996	43	16,500	52,500	33,523	6,602
	Activities 2000	42	40,000	40,000	40,000	0
Europe	Courses 1985	34	0	42,500	10,755	8,693
	Courses 1996	48	19,500	19,500	19,500	0
	Activities 2000	48	25,000	25,000	25,000	0
Oceania	Courses 1985	7	0	124,960	45,993	51,711
	Courses 1996	12	25,000	80,000	55,612	14,636
	Activities 2000	14	55,000	75,000	66,428	10,271

European NOCs grants were completely varied, in a similar fashion to those of Oceania, whose six NOCs grants ranged from nil to the US\$124,150 for Australia. Although amounts in different continents were not equal, by 1996 most NOCs from the same continent were receiving the same amount. In 1997 funding was made available through the Continental Associations with a minimum of US\$25,000 for each NOC.

When the courses were re-titled Activities, the grants had more or less the same value for each NOC within the continent; with a mean of US\$40,000 for Africa, Asia and the Americas, and a mean of US\$25,000 for Europe. The funding data for Oceania is much higher than all the other continents, with a mean for 1996 of US\$55,612, rising to a mean of US\$66,428 for Activities in 2000, which is also much higher than the mean for the three continents of Africa, the Americas and Asia; possibly indicating that the courses in Oceania required a higher budget.

7.1. NOC Management

7.1.1. Subsidies/Aid 1985 – 2000

This grant was intended to cover NOC administrative costs, in 2001 this programme was retitled NOC Infrastructure and included Information Technology development, eventually becoming NOC Administration Development programme in 2005. The amount of subsidy was the same for all NOCs, ranging from US\$5000 in 1985 to US\$15,000 in 2000. Apart from the years 1986 and 1987, there were few occasions when NOCs from every continent did not get a subsidy.

7.1.2. Itinerant School –1986-1996 / Sport Leaders (1994-1996)/ National Courses for Sports Administrators – 1997

The itinerant school consisted of missions of international experts from over 30 countries, proposed by the IOC and established NOCs who carried out courses for 'developing' NOCs. Although the first courses were held in 1986, funding data was produced in the reports in 1987.

Table 41 Itinerant School Courses 1987-1996

	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1993	1994	1995	1996
Africa	14	24	36	34	29	16	20	27	24
Americas	8	20	20	16	23	20	6	11	9
Asia	11	7	16	22	18	13	13	12	14
Europe	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	0
Oceania	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Until 1996, the courses were predominantly carried out in Africa, Asia and the Americas with the exception of a three small NOCs in Europe: Cyprus (CYP), Iceland (ISL) and Malta (MLT). Brian Wightman, as Zone Development officer for Oceania, carried out similar courses to those of the itinerant school (Olympic Solidarity, 1992) in that continent. In 1994, Olympic Solidarity assumed responsibility for training National Course directors through the itinerant school programme (Olympic Solidarity, 1997) with the intention that these would in turn organise courses on a local level. In 1997 the courses were retitled Sport Leaders Courses, but there was also a decline in the number of courses held. The programme was restructured in 2001 and called NOC Administrator Course. Once again there was a

rise in participation, most of which is explained by the inclusion of the 11 newly established ex-Soviet bloc NOCs from Europe.

Table 42 Correlation between the Administration Courses Grant and the GDP per capita

	Itinerant School 1985-1988	Itinerant School 1989-1992	Itinerant School 1993-1996	Leaders 1997- 2000	NOC Administrators Courses 2001-2004	NOC Administrators Courses 2005-2008
GDP per capita US\$	-.265** .001	-.421** .000	-.254** .000	-.205** .004	-.293** .000	-.260** .000

There is a statistically significant correlation between the Itinerant School grants and the GDP of the country of origin of the NOC; it is negative indicating that the larger grants are directed towards NOCs from countries with a low GDP per capita. The value of the correlation coefficient for 1989-1992 was twice as large as that for the other quadrennia, possibly related to the high correlation between the GDP per capita and the Itinerant School grant, indicating that more courses, or more funding was allocated to NOCs from less affluent countries in the Americas than during the other quadrennia.

Table 43 Correlation of Administration Courses grants and GDP per capita – Continental basis

Continental Division		Itinerant School 1985-1988	Itinerant School 1989-1992	Itinerant School 1993-1996	Leaders 1997-2000	NOC Administrator 2001-2004	NOC Administrator 2005-2008
Africa	GDP per capita US\$.084 .584	-.145 .341	-.157 .272	.005 .974	-.190 .174	-.268 .052
Americas	GDP per capita US\$	-.371* .034	-.451** .004	-.368* .017	-.256 .102	-.371* .016	-.366* .017
Asia	GDP per capita US\$	-.001 .995	-.458** .005	-.288 .068	-.333* .033	-.352* .019	-.154 .319
Europe	GDP per capita US\$. ^a .	-.133 .483	.082 .589	-.099 .506	-.224 .126	-.241 .095
Oceania	GDP per capita US\$. ^a	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

a. Cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant. – Programme organised by ONOC

Analysis on a continental basis indicates that during this quadrennium there were high statistically significant correlations only for the Americas and Asia, most of which were at a lower statistically significant level. Analysis of the data shows that there were no courses in Europe during 1985-1988 and only thirteen NOCs from Europe participated at all in this programme, most of which came from the Small States of Europe, or countries from the ex- Soviet-bloc. The data for Oceania is not available since this programme was carried out by ONOC. No correlation is evident for both Africa and Europe throughout the existence of the programme, while a statistically significant negative correlation is present for most of the quadrennia for the other two continents, except for the Americas during 1997-2000, whilst that for Asia fluctuates from one year to the other.

7.1.3. MEMOS – 2001

The European Executive Masters in Sport Organisation Management had been run in Europe since 1995/1996, but became one of the options in an Olympic Solidarity Programme in 2001. The other option was to follow a Masters in another University of Choice. The new Spanish-speaking version of the MEMOS programme was launched in 2006 and offered by the INEFC (*Institut Nacional d'Educacio Fisica de Catalunya*) and the Spanish NOC (OS 2006), whilst MEMOS programme in French was inaugurated in Brussels (Belgium) in 2008 (OS 2008)

Table 44 Executive Master's in Sport Organisation Management

Continental Division		NOCs	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	MEMOS 2001-2004	52	19,778	303,150	5,829	5,242
	MEMOS 2005-2008	53	30,587	471,400	8,894	8,565
Americas	MEMOS 2001-2004	42	18,899	200,592	4,776	5,682
	MEMOS 2005-2008	42	69,609	582,265	13,863	15,140
Asia	MEMOS 2001-2004	44	18,725	281,203	6,390	6,255
	MEMOS 2005-2008	43	39,603	300,246	6,982	9,455
Europe	MEMOS 2001-2004	48	15,715	195,065	4,063	4,760
	MEMOS 2005-2008	49	27,053	251,468	5,132	6,437
Oceania	MEMOS 2001-2004	15	13,559	66,049	4,403	5,675
	MEMOS 2005-2008	17	15,249	51,928	3,054	5,740

The data indicates that 50-60% of the NOCs in each continent benefited from this programme, except for Oceania with a lower participation rate. However a number of countries benefited during both quadrennia whereas others do not have grants in either of them. Not all applicants are granted scholarships, so this does not mean that they did not participate. During the period 2001 -2004, although Africa was the continent with the highest range of grants, with Swaziland being the highest recipient with US\$19,778, it was followed closely by the Americas and Asia.

The range of grant will differ from one year to another because of the different countries in which different sections of the MEMOS programme is organised and the distance of the country of origin of the participants, so participant rates are more important than actual values, however, in 2005-2008, the box plot indicates a number of outliers in every continent, particularly in the Americas with Brazil US\$69,609 and Colombia US\$53,986 having values much higher than all the other NOCs, so that the mean for the Americas in 2005-2008 is nearly twice that of any other continent.

7.1.4. NOC Exchange and regional forums – 2001

This programme helps NOCs to organise forums to discuss topics of common interest, and exchange of expertise.

Table 45 Forums

Continental Division		N	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	International Exchange/regional forums 2001-2004	53	17,901	1,910	4,028
	Management Consultancy 2005-2008	53	11,856	3,412	3,062
Americas	International Exchange and regional forums 2001-2004	42	16,379	3,042	4,237
	Management Consultancy 2005-2008	42	30,661	3,111	5,699
Asia	International Exchange/regional forums 2001-2004	44	6,187	462	1,523
	Management Consultancy 2005-2008	44	16,034	3,275	4,439
Europe	International Exchange/regional forums 2001-2004	48	15,002	807	2,679
	Management Consultancy 2005-2008	49	11,115	1,729	2,637
Oceania	International Exchange/regional forums 2001-2004	15	17,989	3,972	5,376
	Management Consultancy 2005-2008	17	14,193	1,772	3,550

This programme was of benefit to 46 NOCs from Africa, twelve of which participated in both quadrennia, whilst the lowest participation rate was for Europe with 28 NOCs only three of which benefited during each quadrennium. Apart from some NOCs getting no grant at all, there was a large range in the grants received, with the lowest for both quadrennia being in Asia, with US\$159 for India in 2001-2004, and US\$416 for the United Arab Emirates in 2005-2008, whilst the highest grant was received by Guyana for US\$30,661 in 2005-2008. Asia also has the lowest continental mean in the first quadrennium. All continental means have risen to different degrees, in the second quadrennium, except for that for Oceania which had decreased by more than 50% to reach a value similar to that for Europe.

7.2. Coaches

7.2.1. Olympic Scholarships for Coaches 1991- 2008

This programme was started in tandem with the Olympic Athlete Scholarship, programme after the Seoul Olympic Games and at the time targeted towards developing NOCs, but “open exceptionally to the NOCs, of Malta (MLT), Cyprus (CYP), Iceland (ISL) and Eastern European countries” (OS 1990, p. 247).

Table 46 Olympic Scholarships for Coaches

Continental Division		NOCs	Maximum	Cont. Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	Scholarships for Coaches 1997-2000	39	94,905	21,769	21,096
	Scholarships for Coaches 2001-2004	47	87,443	29,753	18,926
	Scholarships for Coaches 2005-2008	49	167,549	50,113	38,366
Americas	Scholarships for Coaches 1997-2000	31	128,414	26,586	29,476
	Scholarships for Coaches 2001-2004	35	98,445	30,954	28,150
	Scholarships for Coaches 2005-2008	32	132,631	36,444	32,276
Asia	Scholarships for Coaches 1997-2000	18	92,961	10,669	19,471
	Scholarships for Coaches 2001-2004	27	57,372	12,386	15,653
	Scholarships for Coaches 2005-2008	35	134,830	24,569	28,675
Europe	Scholarships for Coaches 1997-2000	12	60,000	4,645	12,610
	Scholarships for Coaches 2001-2004	14	35,008	2,670	6,535
	Scholarships for Coaches 2005-2008	21	37,034	6,965	10,500
Oceania	Scholarships for Coaches 1997-2000	0	.00	.0000	.00000
	Scholarships for Coaches 2001-2004	11	22,500	9,828	8,709
	Scholarships for Coaches 2005-2008	13	81,080	16,138	20,953

The value for 1996 is made up of the grants for the Young Athlete Scholarship and the Olympic Coach Scholarships, which were grouped together in the report and could not be separated. There were no values for 1994. Thus comparison of quadrennial period 1993-1996 with the later data would be unreliable. A negative US\$41674.74 appears in the 1997 table for minimum grants, which was a reimbursement to INSEP for non- attendance of Walid Gharbi from Tunisia (TUN). This value was not included in the sum of annual grants compiled for comparison of the last three quadrennia.

A high percentage of the African NOCs participated in this programme, 35 NOCs of which participated in each quadrennium, with only Mauritania and Comoros missing out. A similar situation exists for the Americas where 27 out of 42 NOCs participated in each quadrennium and only four NOCs of Bahamas (BAH), Belize (BIZ), Bermuda (BER) and the Cayman Islands (CAY) did not participate at all. The participation in Asia for all quadrennia was lower, only three NOCs did not benefit; Saudi Arabia (KSA), Kuwait (KUW) and the Democratic Republic of Timor-Leste (TLS). The four NOCs from Europe that received grants throughout this period were Albania (ALB), Iceland (ISR), Malta (MLT) and Turkey (TUR), with fifteen NOCs not participating at all. Samoa (SAM) and Tuvalu (TUV) never received a grant for this programme. Although the continental mean rises with time, the levels of mean are very different, with the highest means in Africa and the Americas.

Table 47 Correlation between Olympic Scholarship for Coaches Grant and GDP per capita

Olympic Scholarship for Coaches	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
GDP per capita US\$ in the first year of the quadrennium	-.262**	-.315**	-.309**
	.000	.000	.000

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlation analysis was only possible with the statistical values for the last three quadrennia in the analysis. The values for 1997-2000 were compounded from the annual values. A high statistical correlation is evident between the variables exists for all the quadrennia. The negative correlation indicates that the higher levels of funding were received by NOCs from countries with a lower level of affluence.

Table 48 Correlation between Olympic Scholarship for Coaches Grand and GDP per capita - Continental Division

Olympic Scholarships for Coaches Continental Division		1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
Africa	GDP per capita US\$	-.101	-.219	-.167
		.472	.115	.233
Americas	GDP per capita US\$	-.320*	-.395**	-.469**
		.039	.010	.002
Asia	GDP per capita US\$	-.261	-.104	-.083
		.090	.503	.592
Europe	GDP per capita US\$	-.228	-.210	-.230
		.123	.151	.112
Oceania	GDP per capita US\$. ^a	-.513	.363
		.	.050	.152

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

a. Cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.

The overall data for the Olympic Scholarship for Coaches indicates a statistically significant negative correlation with the GDP per capita suggesting that participants were more likely to be from countries with a low GDP per capita value. However, analysis of the variables, on a continental basis, indicates that the Americas is the only continent with a high statistically significant negative correlation for all the three quadrennia, so that in fact coaches participating in this programme from the other continents do not follow the same pattern, even though the Olympic Scholarship for Coaches programme was originally limited to 'developing' NOCs.

There is no correlation between this variable and the population, or the years of operation of the NOC, but continental analysis identifies the statistically significant correlations of .351 with population of Africa, in 1997-2000, and .300 for in Asia in 1997-2000, and .026 for Oceania in 2005-2008 for Years of operation of an NOC with the Olympic Coach Scholarships. Data for Oceania is not reliable since scholarships were organised in a different manner to those of the other continents so data is not consistent.

7.2.2. Technical Courses for Coaches – 1996 (1998)

This was one of the programmes available to the NOCs from the early days of Olympic Solidarity, and was originally grouped with other sport aid under the title of Courses which have been analysed separately earlier in the Chapter.

Table 49 Technical Courses for Coaches

		Recognised NOCs	Programme Grants	NOC in both	NOC actual	% Total NOCs	Mean US\$
Africa	2001-2004	53	52	51	53	100%	59,788
	2005-2008	53	52				58,045
America	2001-2004	42	36	31	39	93%	46,522
	2005-2008	42	34				46,503
Asia	2001-2004	44	39	36	41	93%	59,653
	2005-2008	44	38				53,793
Europe	2001-2004	48	11	6	20	41%	3,642
	2005-2008	49	15				9,074
Oceania	2001-2004	16	0	0	0	0	0
	2005-2008	17	1	0	1	6%	1,176

In 2000 the coaching courses included the option to organize national courses for training of National coaches, which for Oceania and Europe would be organized under the umbrella of the Activities budget of the Continental Associations. Coaching courses were held at the Semmelweis University in Budapest, the Centro de Alto Rendimiento (CAR) in Barcelona and the National Institute of Sport and Physical Education (INSEP) in Paris (OS 2001).

This programme has one of the highest participatory rates for Africa, in that 100% of its NOCs received grants over the 8 year period, all NOCs except for Gabon and Sao Tome and Principe obtained grants for both quadrennia. Similarly 93% of NOCs in the Americas and Asia organised Technical Courses for Coaches, with a high percentage also in both quadrennia. The European NOCs were mostly from the new ex-Soviet republics, whilst Fiji was the only NOC from Oceania involved, since most of their courses were organised by the NOC Continental Association.

The mean for both quadrennia remained more or less on the same level, the low value for Europe explained by the low participatory rate amongst the 49 European NOCs. The levels of grant also cover a wide range, from US\$ 3,000 for Malta (MLT)

in 2001-2004 to US\$ 101,601 for Thailand (THA) in 2005-2008, so it is possible than more than one grant was received during a quadrennial period, since NOCs could organise a maximum of 10 courses each (OS 2005).

Table 50 Correlation for Technical Coaching Courses and Independent Variables

	GDP per capita US\$	Internet Users per capita
Technical Coaching courses 2001-2004	-.380	-.399
	.000	.000
Technical Coaching Courses 2005-2008	-.404	-.418
	.000	.000

Correlation Analysis indicates that there is a statistically significant correlation between the GDP per capita and the level of funding for the Technical Coaching Courses, suggesting that participation in these courses is predominantly through NOCs from countries with a low GDP per capita, however, a high correlation evident with the indicator for NOCs with a high communicating level.

7.2.3. Development of Coaching Structure – 2001 (1998)

The Programmes targeted at Coaches were restructured to involve the provision of experts to organise the Coaching structure of sports organisations, however, financial data for this programme is only available for the 2001-2004 and 2005-2008 quadrennia.

Table 51 Development of Coaching Structure

		Recognised NOCs	Programme Grants	NOC in both quadrennia	Individual NOCs	% Total NOCs	Mean Grant US\$
Africa	2001-2004	53	21	12	36	68%	12473
	2005-2008	53	27				20629
America	2001-2004	42	20	18	24	57%	18390
	2005-2008	42	22				25902
Asia	2001-2004	44	10	4	18	41%	9123
	2005-2008	44	12				10968
Europe	2001-2004	48	16	12	23	48%	11730
	2005-2008	49	19				14107
Oceania	2001-2004	16	7	6	12	70%	11830
	2005-2008	17	11				27717
Total			165	52	113	68%	

Although 165 grants were issued over the 8 years, 52 NOCs received grants in both quadrennia. The grants range between US\$112,000 for Honduras (HON) in 2001-2004 to US\$4,500 for Peru (PER) in 2005-2008, but the data does not indicate if the programme was utilised more than once or for different sports disciplines during the same quadrennium. 113 NOCs worldwide actually benefited from the programme, with the majority of the 53 African NOCs (68%) followed closely by 57% of the 42 NOCs in the Americas. 70% of the NOCs from Oceania benefited, but this represented a much lower number of NOCs than those who benefited in the other continents. There was a rise in mean grant particularly for NOCs in the Americas and Oceania. There was a statistically significant increasing negative correlation (-.188**) and (-.122**) for the two quadrennia, between this programme and the GDP per capita, indicating that most of the funding for Coaching Structure development was increasingly organised for less affluent NOCs.

7.3. Athletes

7.3.1. Olympic Scholarship for Athletes – summer – 1990 (1989)

This programme began after the Seoul 1988 Games and was awarded to athletes practicing an individual sport and preparing for an Olympic Summer Games. It was originally awarded two years before the Games, and was withdrawn if the athlete did not qualify for the Games at the last qualifying event.

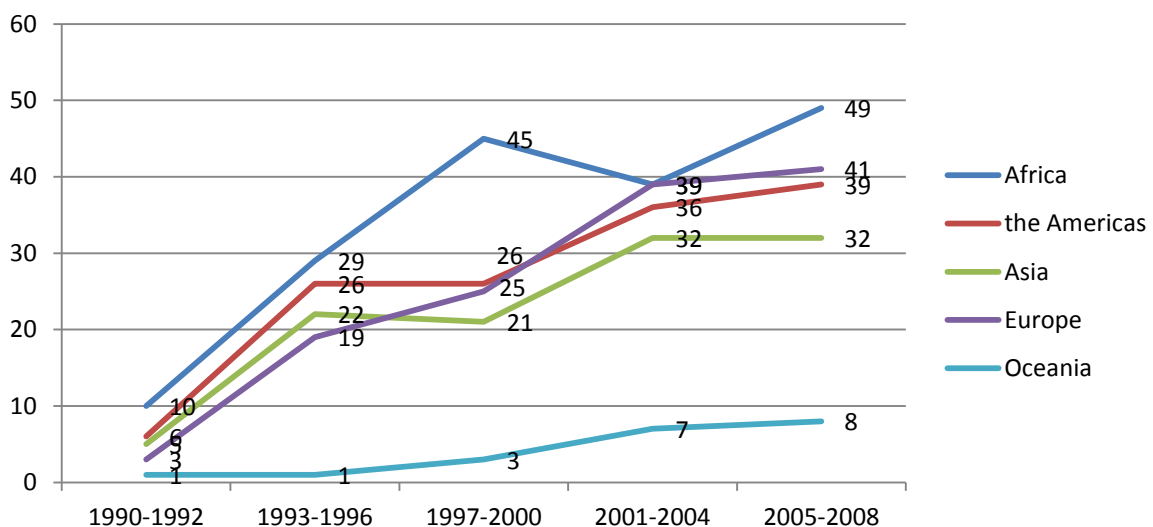


Figure 42 Olympic Scholarship for Athletes - NOCs funded

NOCs who had participated in previous Winter Games were also provided with support for preparation of their athletes for the next Winter Games, but not on an individual basis. Since Olympic Athlete Scholarships allocation for the period 1997-2000 started in 1998, so no data is available for 1997. The table compares the number of NOCs funded for Olympic scholarships for Athletes over the quadrennia in the different continents. Although there is a consistent increase in the number of NOCs receiving grants, the graph indicates a sharp rise in the number of African NOCs for the 1997-2000 quadrennium with a dip in all the other continents. Many NOCs benefited regularly from this programme, among which are Cameroon (CAM) and Malta (MLT) who received funding annually until 2000, whilst five others, Ecuador (ECU, Guyana (Uruguay (URU), Mauritius (MAU) and Sri Lanka (SRI) only missed out on one year during that period. However, although this programme was originally restricted to 'developing' NOCs, it was open to more NOCs during 2001-2004 and 2005-2008, with only 38 NOCs not benefiting from the programme in the last quadrennium. These included 9 from Oceania whose programme was managed by ONOC (OS 2008), which might explain the low level of participation, apart from the fact that there were only a small number of NOCs in Oceania.

Among the NOCs missing from this programme were twelve NOCs from Asia, five of which came from Arab countries with high GDP per capita such as Bahrain (BHR), Qatar (QAT), Kuwait (KUW), Brunei (BRU) and United Arab Emirates (UAE). The NOCs from Europe with no athlete scholarships, were amongst those considered well developed; Belgium (BEL), Denmark (DEN), Spain (ESP), France (FRA), Italy (ITA), Russia (RUS), Switzerland (SUI) and Sweden (SWE), whilst USA, Costa Rica (CRC) and Nicaragua (NCA) missed out in the Americas. The African NOCs that did not benefit from this programme but still participated in the Beijing Games were Equatorial Guinea (GEQ), Mauritania (MTN), Sierra Leone (SLE), Somalia (SOM), San Tome et Principe (STP), and Tanzania (TAN).

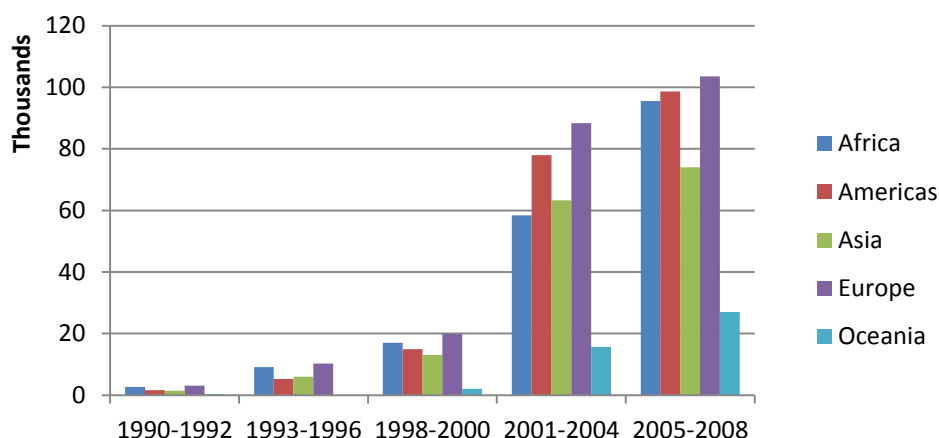


Figure 43 Olympic Athlete Scholarships - Mean Continental Grant

Although it is evident that the funding, on a quadrennial basis has increased for all continents, Asia is consistently the lowest beneficiary. Fig. 43 indicates a close proximity between the grant means of Europe, the Americas and Africa, but with Asia having a lower mean grant. Starting with a mean grant of US\$955 for this programme in 1990, when 11 NOCs were funded, the mean has risen to US\$87,777 during the period 2005-2008 when 167 NOCs benefited from Olympic Athlete Scholarships.

Table 52 Correlation between Olympic Athlete Grant and GDP per capita

Olympic Athlete Scholarship	1993	1994	1995	Atlanta 1996
GDP per capita US\$	-.088	-.167*	-.167*	-.174*
	.226	.027	.026	.020

Olympic Athlete Scholarship	Sydney 1998	Sydney 1999	2000 + preparation	Athens 2004 2001-2004	Beijing 2008 2005-2008
GDP per capita US\$	-.197**	-.294**	-.239**	-.210**	-.226**
	.008	.000	.001	.003	.001

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

There is an increasingly negative correlation of statistical significance ($p < 0.01$) for the Olympic Athlete Scholarship Grants and the GDP per capita starting from 1993, which would indicate that NOCs with lower GDP values benefited from more funding

as would be expected from a programme which was conceived to help 'developing' countries prepare their athletes to possibly qualify and participate in the Olympic Games. However analysis of the data for the continents separately highlights inconsistencies in the correlation.

Table 53 Correlation between Olympic Athlete Scholarship Grant and GDP per capita - Continental Division

Olympic Athlete Scholarship Continental Division		Sydney 1998	Sydney 1999	Sydney 2000 + preparation	Athens 2004 2001-2004	Beijing 2008 2005-2008
Africa	GDP per capita US\$	-.065 .654	-.090 .531	.055 .700	.232 .094	-.067 .632
Americas	GDP per capita US\$	-.130 .437	-.198 .233	-.249 .132	-.213 .175	-.347* .024
Asia	GDP per capita US\$	-.277 .088	-.417** .008	-.380* .017	-.300* .048	-.264 .084
Europe	GDP per capita US\$	-.407** .006	-.500** .000	-.427** .003	-.594** .000	-.501** .000
Oceania	GDP per capita US\$	-.156 .690	-.144 .691	-.156 .666	.006 .982	-.321 .209

Continental analysis indicates no correlation between the Olympic Athlete Scholarship Grants and the GDP per capita for the first five years of the programme, however in 1995 there was a statistically significant correlation in Europe between these grants and the GDP per capita, of -.334, suggesting that the grants with higher values were going to countries with a lower GDP, as evidenced by the rise in scholarships to the new ex-Soviet bloc countries. This correlation persists in Europe in all the following years with a higher correlation coefficient and a stronger statistical significance.

The award of these scholarships had no statistical significance in Africa or Oceania at all, the former possibly because of the anomaly whereby countries with high GDP per capita values, but with inferior sports development benefited from this programme, and the latter because Oceania received scholarship funding from alternative sources and scholarship programme was managed differently through ONOC. The correlation between the two variables was evident in Asia from 1999 to

2004 suggesting that highest scholarship grants went to NOCs from countries with a lower GDP, whilst for the Americas the statistical significance for the correlation was only evident during the last quadrennium of 2005-2008 by which time this programme was open to all NOCs.,

7.3.2. Young Athlete Scholarship (Youth Development) – started 1995

Table 54 Young Athlete Scholarship/Training Grants

	NOC	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Young Athlete Scholarships 1997-2000	88	162,443	39,074	47,344
Young Athletes Training Grants 2001-2004	140	171,206	31,680	32,966
Young Athletes Training Grants 2005-2008	154	117,441	21,631	26,025

Young athlete scholarships consisted predominantly of three to six months of training in specialist centres with top-level coaches and facilities. The data indicates a significant decrease in the maximum and mean value of this programme for 2005-2008, since funding for Talent Identification was listed under the Youth Development Programme in 2001-2004 but as a separate programme for Athletes in 2005-2008. The gap in funding between the quadrennia 1997-2000 and the 2001-2004, might be related to the restructuring of the Olympic Solidarity Programmes in 2001.

Analysing the data on a continental basis, during the period 1997-2000, the highest mean grant was received by the African NOCs with US\$53,243, followed closely by those for Asia and Europe, mirroring the mean values obtained for the Olympic Athletes Programme for the same quadrennium. The mean level of funding decreased after the 2001 restructuring of the Olympic Solidarity programmes, and by the period 2005-2008, the mean for Africa was no longer the continental highest, since both Europe and the Americas received a higher mean grant. .

Table 55 Young Athlete Scholarship - Continental Division

Young Athlete Scholarships - Continental Division		Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	Young Athletes Scholarships 1997-2000	162,443	53,243	47,941
	Young Athletes Training Grants 2001-2004	171,206	37,381	36,727
	Young Athletes Training Grants 2005-2008	117,441	20,097	26,381
Americas	Young Athlete Scholarships 1997-2000	140,966	41,432	42,861
	Young Athletes Training Grants 2001-2004	153,175	30,817	31,907
	Young Athletes Training Grants 2005-2008	111,071	30,355	30,890
Asia	Young Athlete Scholarships 1997-2000	139,200	27,498	40,339
	Young Athletes Training Grants 2001-2004	120,670	19,665	28,394.
	Young Athletes Training Grants 2005-2008	88,563.	16,770	21,890
Europe	Young Athlete Scholarships 1997-2000	159,460	45,834	55,071
	Young Athletes Training Grants 2001-2004	134,680	37,629	35,803
	Young Athletes Training Grants 2005-2008	85,000	24,069	26,296
Oceania	Young Athlete Scholarships 1997-2000	0	0	0
	Young Athletes Training Grants 2001-2004	55,120	30,166	11,338
	Young Athletes Training Grants 2005-2008	42,146	10,409	11,915

Comparing the participation in the programme during the three quadrennia, there was an increase in the number of NOCs who benefited from the Young Athletes Scholarships in the Americas, Europe and Asia

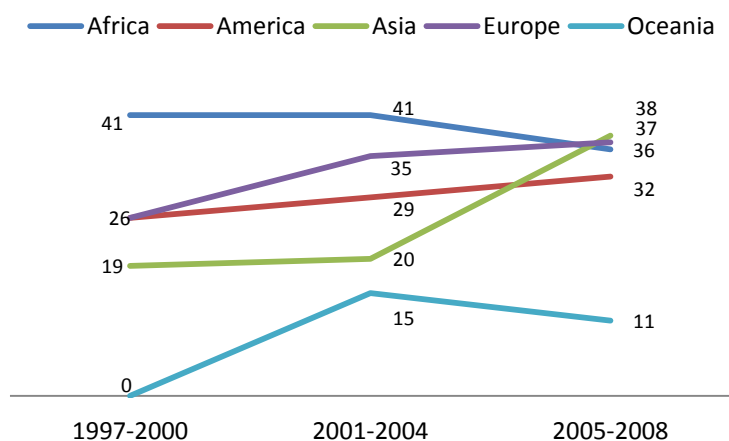


Figure 44 Young Athlete Scholarship - NOCs funded

No data exists for Oceania in 1997-2000, but fifteen and eleven NOCs from Oceania benefited during the following quadrennia. During the period 1997-2000, 41 African NOCs benefited from the programme. This was sustained for the following 2001-

2004, but decreased to 36 in 2005-2008. The levels of grant fluctuated across the continents, with the NOC of South Africa (RSA) receiving the highest, in the period 2001-2004 with US\$171,206. 61 NOCs did not get any funding in 2001-2004 and 49 in 2005-2008.

Table 56 Correlation between Young Athlete Scholarship Grant and GDP per capita

	Young Athlete Scholarships 1997-2000	Young Athletes Training Grants 2001-2004	Young Athletes Training Grants 2005-2008
GDP per capita US\$ in first year of Quadrennium	-.307** .000	-.222** .001	-.124 .077

A statistically significant correlation exists between the GDP per capita and the value of Young athlete scholarship funding in all three quadrennia, intimating that the NOCs from countries with a lower GDP value were more likely to receive more scholarships, or higher valued grants; however the correlation is not statistically significant in the period 2005-2008.

Table 57 Correlation between Young Athlete Scholarship Grant and GDP per capita - Continental division

Continental Division		1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
Africa	GDP per capita US\$.031 .824	-.099 .480	-.077 .584
Americas	GDP per capita US\$	-.321* .038	-.308* .047	-.306* .049
Asia	GDP per capita US\$	-.382* .012	-.185 .228	-.184 .232
Europe	GDP per capita US\$	-.555** .000	-.429** .002	-.216 .135
Oceania	GDP per capita US\$.	-.018 .949	-.121 .643

A continental analysis of the data indicates that there is no correlation between the variables for Africa while the data for Oceania is unreliable because of its different administrative structure. There is a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) negative correlation between the variables for the Americas throughout the three quadrennia

suggesting that most grants went to countries with a lower GDP per capita, and with a similar level of correlation for Asia but only in the period 1997-2000. A strong statistical significant correlation ($p < 0.01$) during the first two quadrennia of 1997-2000 and 2001-2004 in Europe possibly reflects the aid to the new ex- Soviet, and Ex-Yugoslav NOCs.

7.3.3. Team Support

The first team support programme in 2001 provided support for seven team sports of baseball, basketball, handball, hockey, water polo, softball and volleyball, to improve the potential of qualification for the Olympic Games.

Continental Division		NOC	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	Team Support Grant 2001-2004	53	190,000	26,037	49,091
	Team Support Grant 2005-2008	53	165,000	33,171	43,863
America	Team Support Grant 2001-2004	42	175,000	20,670	46,932
	Team Support Grant 2005-2008	42	200,000	34,474	46,839
Asia	Team Support Grant 2001-2004	43	150,000	12,910	38,013
	Team Support Grant 2005-2008	44	100,000	19,953	32,884
Europe	Team Support Grant 2001-2004	47	200,000	58,147	66,653
	Team Support Grant 2005-2008	49	170,000	63,328	51,718
Oceania	Team Support Grant 2001-2004	15	153,000	21,933	49,691
	Team Support Grant 2005-2008	17	175,000	21,702	44,276

Table 58 Team Support Grants

The mean for team support grants in Europe was at least twice that of any of the other continents in both quadrennia, with a European NOC receiving the highest grant. The majority of grants were also disbursed to European NOCs, compared to other continents as indicated in Table 60 below. There was a significant increase in both the Grant value and number of NOCs in each continent funded in the quadrennial period 2005-2008, however Europe was far ahead in both the number of NOCs funded and the amount of funding. All NOCs could apply for these grants; even the more experienced/ developed NOCs might have teams in which they had not reached a high international level, as they had in other sports.

Table 59 Team Support Grants - NOCs funded

Continental Division		NOCs with grants	Sum of Grants
Africa	Team Support Grant 2001-2004	14	1,380,000
	Team Support Grant 2005-2008	29	1,758,100
Americas	Team Support Grant 2001-2004	9	868,180
	Team Support Grant 2005-2008	21	1447944
Asia	Team Support Grant 2001-2004	5	555,140
	Team Support Grant 2005-2008	14	877962
Europe	Team Support Grant 2001-2004	27	2,732,941
	Team Support Grant 2005-2008	36	3,103,093
Oceania	Team Support Grant 2001-2004	3	329,000
	Team Support Grant 2005-2008	6	368,934

7.3.4. Preparation Winter Games

This programme was started with funding for preparation of athletes for the Nagano 1998 Games. Athletes are not funded for individual scholarships, but NOCs are allocated budgets for preparation of their contingent.

Table 60 Winter Games Preparation Grants

Continental Division		NOCs	NOCs	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	Preparation Nagano 1998 All	52	1	27,000	519	3,744
	Preparation Salt Lake City 2002	53	1	35,000	660	4,807
	Preparation Torino Winter Games 2006	53	5	35,000	1,490	5,583
Americas	Preparation Nagano 1998 All	42	7	27,000	3,659	8,550
	Preparation Salt Lake City 2002	42	8	35,000	5,714	12,765
	Preparation Torino Winter Games 2006	42	7	35,000	4,107	10,310
Asia	Preparation Nagano 1998 All	42	4	27,000	2,267	7,167
	Preparation Salt Lake City 2002	44	9	35,000	6,738	13,542
	Preparation Torino Winter Games 2006	44	12	35,000	5,898	11,310
Europe	Preparation Nagano 1998 All	47	28	24,000	13,531	11,430
	Preparation Salt Lake City 2002	48	36	34,000	23,609	14,771
	Preparation Torino Winter Games 2006	49	44	35,000	27,718	11,581
Oceania	Preparation Nagano 1998 All	12	0	.00	.00	.00
	Preparation Salt Lake City 2002	15	3	35,000	3,666	9,347
	Preparation Torino Winter Games 2006	17	2	3,5000	3,235	9,510

The value for the Winter Games Preparation grants are more or less for fixed values so that most NOCs received the same level of grant, particularly in Europe, where a large number of NOCs received US\$ 24,000, US\$ 34,000 or US\$35,000 for the respective Games. The bulk of the preparation grants went to NOCs from Europe; South Africa was the only African NOC in comparison to 24 European NOCs, to receive preparation grants for all three games under analysis. The highest increase in participation for subsequent games was also in Europe, the mean grant for which was also much for all three Games than that for the other continents with that for Torino being over four times higher than any other mean. Only 5 NOCs in Europe did not receive grants, these being Albania, Luxembourg, Malta, Montenegro and Switzerland.

7.3.5. Continental and Regional Games – 2001

Although there are a number of instances as far back as 1985 where NOCs were given aid for particular International Games, such aid became an Olympic Solidarity Programme in 2001. During the 2001-2004 quadrennium, most of the NOCs in every continent were allocated grants, with a quite a large percentage of them being of the same value as indicated in the following Table 62, even though the grants were at times for substantially different values for the different continents.

Table 61 Continental and Regional Games

Continent		NOCs	NOC Grant	NOCs Same Grant	Value	No Grants	Continent Mean
Africa	2001-2004	53	50	14	75,000	COM,MAR,TOG	56,314
	2005-2008	53	48	27	80,000	BOT,CPV,GAB,SLE,SUD	70,358
Americas	2001-2004	42	42	21	61,500	BAH,BOL,CRC,USA NCA,PAN,VEN,ISV	53,013
	2005-2008	42	34	29	70,000		67,654
Asia	2001-2004	44	37	15	70,000	BRU,CHN,MDV,OMA, QAT,PAK,TLS	50,581
	2005-2008	44	42	28	75,000	BRU,KSA	65,490
Europe	2001-2004	48	47	11	20,000	MON	30,562
	2005-2008	49	39	26	50,000	BIH, ESP,GBR,HUN LUX, MON, MNE, NOR, POR, SUI	43,072
Oceania	2001-2004	15	13			AUS,KIR	25,651
	2005-2008	17	14			AUS,GUM,NZL	40,491

During the quadrennium 2005-2008, the grant value increased from an overall mean of US\$42,988 to that of US\$52,071. This rise was also reflected in the individual continental mean, but the number of NOCs benefiting from this programme decreased, except for those in Oceania and Asia. A large number of NOCs received grants of the same value, although these differed from continent to continent, whereas other NOCs did not receive any grants at all during that particular quadrennial period.

Statistical Analysis of Values

World Programmes

This part of the chapter will concentrate on the analysis of the statistical data for the individual programmes which make up the sector for Olympic Values. These programmes include Women and Sport, Sport Medicine, Environment, Legacy, Olympic Academy and Culture and Education. Apart from the Women and Sport Programme this chapter only contains preliminary descriptive analysis of the other programme grants which are predominantly related to attendance at conferences or seminars on the programme topic.

8.1. Women and Sport – 1997

Although a couple of events to promote the development of women in sport, were funded for the first time by Olympic Solidarity in 1988 (Olympic Solidarity, 1988), the data for the Women and Sport was available as a separate programme from 1997, for the first four years, i.e. 1997-2000 separately, and for quadrennials 2001-2004 and 2005-2008, so the total for the 1997-2000 quadrennium would allow analysis across three quadrennia.

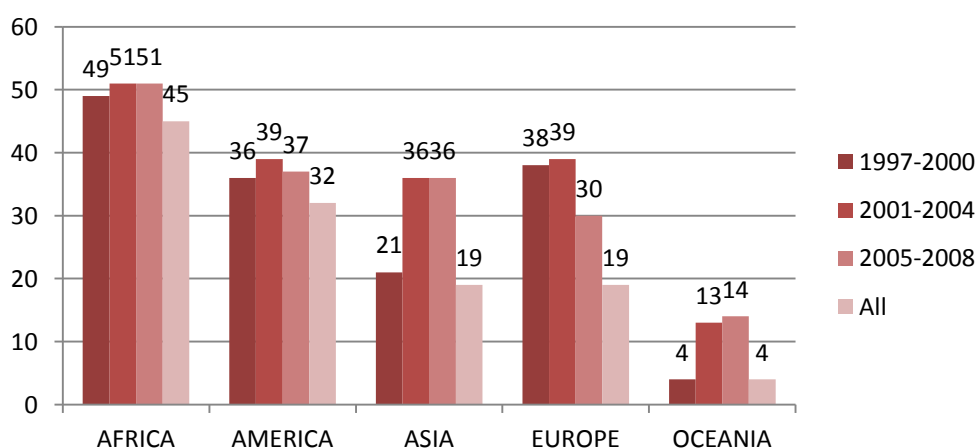


Figure 45 Women and Sport – NOCs funded

During 1997 only the Irish NOC from Europe and ten NOCs from the Americas received funding, followed in 1998 with Argentina, 30 NOCs from Africa and 37 NOCs from Europe. The participation rate increased overall in 1999 but decreased in 2000, by which time this programme was at least present in all continents with four NOCs in Oceania organising projects under this programme for the first time.

Table 62 Women and Sport Grants

	Maximum	Sum	Mean
Women and Sport 1997 - 2000	12,351	419,111	2,095
Women and Sport 2001 - 2004	24,624	858,200	4,248
Women and Sport 2005 - 2008	29,162	1,094,738	5,340

The participation in the programme rose from 148 NOCs during the first quadrennium to 178 NOCs in 2001-2004, but in spite of the rise in the overall sum total of grants, the number of NOCs making use of the programme decreased to 168 NOCs in the period 2005-2008, the biggest decrease coming from European NOCs.

Table 63 Women and Sport Programme - Continental division

Continental Division		Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	Women and Sport 1997 - 2000	12,351	161,015	3,038	2,674
	Women and Sport 2001 - 2004	22,219	286,590	5,407	4,143
	Women and Sport 2005 - 2008	24,348	327,038	6,170	5,916
Americas	Women and Sport 1997 - 2000	11,140	91,503	2,178	2,281
	Women and Sport 2001 - 2004	15,279	151,532	3,607	3,564
	Women and Sport 2005 - 2008	22,784	265,044	6,310	6,757
Asia	Women and Sport 1997 - 2000	5,481	55,460	1,289	1,678
	Women and Sport 2001 - 2004	15,282	158,940	3,612	3,996
	Women and Sport 2005 - 2008	21,941	175,152	3,980	5,180
Europe	Women and Sport 1997 - 2000	11,859	95,718	1,994	2,755.
	Women and Sport 2001 - 2004	20,257.	159,326	3,319	4,077
	Women and Sport 2005 - 2008	29,162	210,008	4,285	6,592
Oceania	Women and Sport 1997 - 2000	4,437	15,413	1,100	1,821
	Women and Sport 2001 - 2004	24,624	101,812	6,787	7,348
	Women and Sport 2005 - 2008	20,955	117,496	6,911	6,505

Analysis of the disbursements on a continental basis indicated that Africa was consistently allocated the highest total grant, however although the sum distributed

for the Women and Sport Grants increased with each quadrennium, this increase was not uniformly reflected in the mean, where particularly for 2001-2004, that for Oceania is much higher than the rest, whilst Asia has a lower mean for the periods 1997-2000 and 2005-2008. Although Africa received the highest grants overall, the biggest grant was disbursed to the European NOC of France (FRA) during the quadrennial period of 2005-2008.

On comparing the three quadrennia, the highest participation rate was in Africa, with 51 NOCs participating in both quadrennia, 2001-2004 and 2005-2008. All African NOCs participated in at least two of the quadrennia. Although a number of NOCs from each continent participated in the programme during all the quadrennia, some NOCs from other continents have never organised projects under this programme i.e. Nicaragua (NCA), Saudi Arabia (KSA), Kuwait (KUW), Kyrgyzstan (KRG), Luxembourg (LUX), Monaco (MON) and Guam (GUM). The wide range of grants from US\$308 for Belize (BIZ) to US\$ 29,162 for France (FRA) in the same quadrennium also indicates different levels of activity within the same programme.

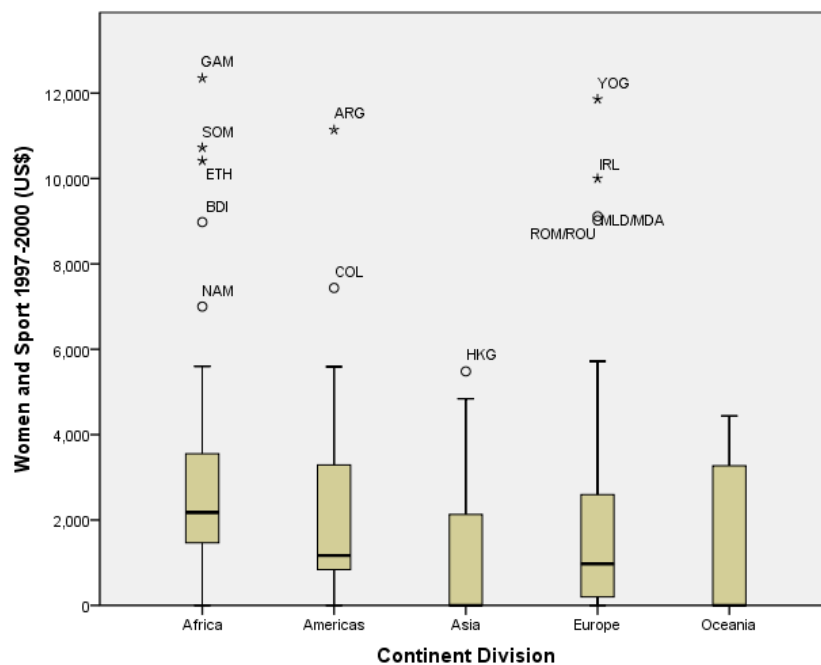


Figure 46 Women and Sport Programme Grants 1997-2000

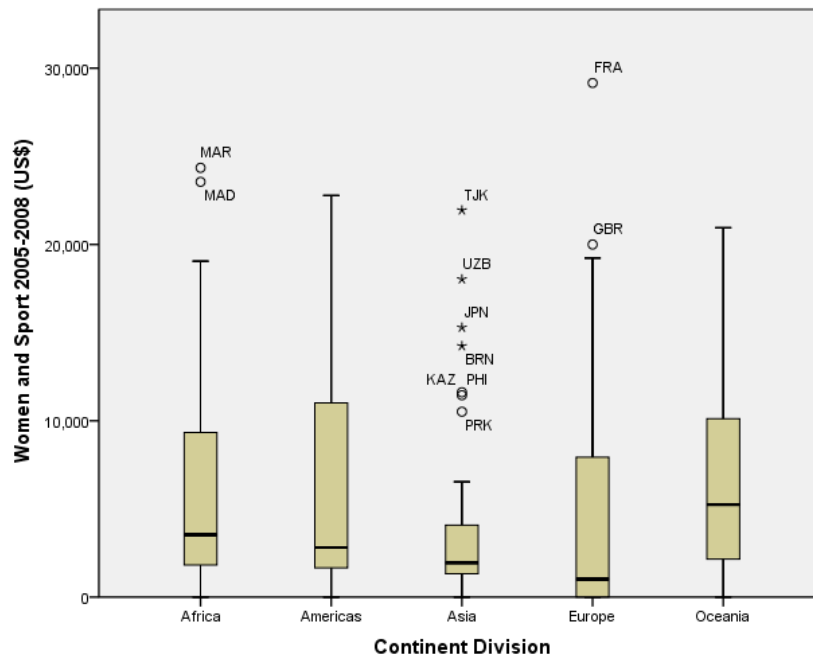


Figure 47 Women and Sport Programme Grants 2005-2008

Boxplots for the first and last quadrennial under analysis highlight the NOCs with the grants outside the range of the majority of NOCs in their continent. The low median during the period 1997-2000 indicate that a large number of NOCs either did not participate in the programme, or had very low grants; this is particularly indicative of the situation on the Asian continent. There was a decrease in NOCs with much higher grants (outliers) from one quadrennium to the next, but in 2005-2008 there was a big difference in grant levels of NOCs in Asia where a number of NOCs received very high grants in contrast to majority of NOCs in that continent, whereas in the other continents most larger grants were closer in size to the rest, except for Morocco (MAR) and Madagascar (MAD) in Africa, but particularly for the NOC of France (FRA) with an extremely high grant in 2005-2008.

Table 65 below indicates a statistically significant negative correlation between the Grant for the Women and Sport Programmes with the GDP per Capita for the period 1997-2000 with a decreasing significance for the later quadrennia. A similar decreasing pattern is followed for the indicator for communication, but which loses its significance during 2005-2008. The correlation between the Grant and the indicator for the professional level of the NOC has a lower statistical significance only valid for the period 1997-2000.

Table 64 Correlation between Women and Sport Grant and Independent Variables

Women and Sport	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008
Population	-.023 .373	-.082 .124	-.028 .347
NOC Years in Operation	-.063 .190	-.013 .428	.063 .184
GDP per capita	-.179** .006	-.160* .011	-.150* .016
Full time NOC employees	-.177* .037	-0.128 .097	.134 .085
Internet Users	-.208** .002	-.150* .017	-.045 .264
Programme Grant	.215** .002	.198** .005	.425** .000

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The high statistically significant correlation between the Programme grant and the Women and Sport Grant indicates that NOCs with a higher Programme grant were more likely to have also received a higher grant for this programme. Up to 2004, the highest grants for the Women and Sport programmes have been disbursed to NOCs from less affluent countries, with a lower level of communication, but during the last quadrennium the level of communication of a country and the professionalised level of an NOC played no part in the size of Grant received by an NOC for the Women and Sport programme. The selected variables played no statistically significant part in the explanation of the variance between the Women and Sport Grants allocated to the NOCs for all the quadrennia.

8.2. Sports Medicine – 1988 (1967)

Data for sports medicine as an Olympic Solidarity programme included annual values from 1988 to 2000, and quadrennial totals from 2001 to 2008, however there were three years when the values for the Medical, Sport for All and International Olympic Academy programmes were grouped into one and cannot be separated. The value for 1988 was calculated, since it was also included with the Sport for All Programme and the Subsidy. Consequently, creating totals for quadrennia might distort the analysis, because participation in the other Programmes is much higher than in the Medical Programme. Since data for 1988 might be unreliable, this will not be taken into consideration. When discarding the years of combined data, during the years between 1989 and 2000, the highest yearly participation is 15 for Europe in

1995, 9 for Africa, 4 for Oceania and Asia and 5 for the Americas. Although 67 NOCs benefited from the Medical programme in 1997-2000, 89 in 2001-2004, and 111 in 2005-2008 only 30 NOCs (67% European) received grants during the three quadrennials and 46, out of 205 NOCs, did not benefit at all from this programme during the three quadrennials under analysis.

Table 65 Sports Medicine Grant

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Sports Medicine 1997-2000	201	.00	40000.00	4483.6209	8280.11513
Sports Medicine 2001-2004	202	.00	54794.00	6550.6733	10032.40301
Sports Medicine 2005-2008	205	.00	52954.00	9319.6439	11985.23442

Rounded values for most of the grants, as well as a fixed amount of US\$3,750 compiled for several European NOCs in more than one quadrennium, would indicate participation in the same type of programme in different years, or budgets allocated irrelevant of expenses incurred.

8.3. Sport and the Environment – 1997

The IOC has signed a co-operation agreement with the United Nations Environment Programme (UNP) and wanted to make the environment the ‘third dimension’ of Olympism (Olympic Solidarity, 1997a). Information about the environment programme was available with annual values for 1997-2000, and quadrennial values for 2001-2004 and 2005-2008. The participation in this programme was rather haphazard, with 23 programmes carried out in 1997 in the Americas, and only three in Africa and Asia, and one Oceania. The following year 1998, Africa and Europe showed high participation of 21 and 36 respectively, with most grants in Europe having a fixed value of US\$1000. This common value also appears worldwide seventeen times in 1999, the year of the first Sport and Environment conference in Brazil. New Zealand was the only NOC from Oceania participating, until 2000.

Table 66 Sport and Environment Grant - Continental Division

Continental Division		Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	Environment 1997-2000	3,970	1,003	1,069
	Environment 2001-2004	22,538	2,829	4,522
	Environment 2005-2008	30,000	5,041	6,601
Americas	Environment 1997_2000	52,500	3,853	9,592
	Environment 2001-2004	30,223	2,898	5,596
	Environment 2005-2008	36,000	5,772	7,992
Asia	Environment 1997_2000	43,405	1,149	6,608
	Environment 2001-2004	30,000	2,291	5,057
	Environment 2005-2008	15,814	3,379	3,000.
Europe	Environment 1997_2000	23,295	1,471	3,329
	Environment 2001-2004	22,500	4,195	6,004
	Environment 2005-2008	86,855	6,054	16,765
Oceania	Environment 1997_2000	2,118	151	566
	Environment 2001-2004	12,276	1,408	3,382
	Environment 2005-2008	44,644	6,808	12,536

No NOC is present in all three quadrennia under analysis, and 35 NOCs have never participated in this programme.

8.4. Sport for all – 1987

To commemorate the founding of the Olympic Games, on the 23rd June 1894, the Olympic Day Run was organised, for the first time, through Olympic Solidarity, with the help of the Federation of Sporting Goods Industry (WFSGI), the IAAF and the National Olympic Committees. It took place in five continents, and was the beginning of the 'Sports for All' programme (Olympic Solidarity, 1987). It was originally set up for the organisation of the Olympic Day Run. Apart from 1987, when all the 30 NOCs utilizing the programme for the first time were given US\$3,000, the following year the grant was for US\$1500 for all NOCs and this remained in force until 1996. In 1997 it was raised to US\$2500, but during some NOCs, were given grants for US\$4,000. In 1998 although the minimum grant remained US\$2,500, grants were not as consistent in value, since, apart from the Olympic Day Run, other activities were included in the Sport for All programme. The annual grant data for the Sport for All 1988, 1992, 1994, 1996 is not available separately; they are included with that for the Medical Programme and the NOC subsidy in 1988. Since the subsidy grant and

the Sport for all Grant are fixed rates they could be separated, but also on the premise of whether the NOC organised of the Olympic Day Run in 1987 and 1989. The Grants for the three other years are included with the Medical and International Olympic Academy Grants, both of which could have much higher variable values, so the Sport for All Grant could not be separated. The annual data for 1997-2000 was combined for comparative analysis of three quadrennials.

Table 67 Sport for All Grant

Continental Division		Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	Sport for all 1997-2000	.00	17,280	9,329	3,487
	Sport for all 2001-2004	3,882	23,000	10,941	4,092
	Sport for All 2005-2008	.00	100,000	12,178	13,847
Americas	Sport for all 1997-2000	.00	19,470	8,877	4,065
	Sport for all 2001-2004	.00	34,805	11,689	8,279
	Sport for All 2005-2008	2,500	65,443	14,119	11,675
Asia	Sport for all 1997-2000	.00	24,763	9,322	5,731
	Sport for all 2001-2004	.00	24,365	11,025	5,376
	Sport for All 2005-2008	.00	37,142	10,623	7,018
Europe	Sport for all 1997-2000	.00	25,000	9705	5,890
	Sport for all 2001-2004	.00	31,660	12,683	6,729
	Sport for All 2005-2008	.00	46,096	13,303	9,181
Oceania	Sport for all 1997-2000	.00	1,7655	6,955	4,955
	Sport for all 2001-2004	.00	30,000	11,936	8,306
	Sport for All 2005-2008	.00	71,341	16,853	18,123

There was a gradual increase in participation by the NOCs from all continents, with 188 during quadrennial 1997-2000, to 193 and 191 in 2001-2004 and 2005-2008 respectively. This included all the African NOCs in 2001-2004, and all the NOCs in the Americas in 2005-2008. Mauritania and Bhutan utilised the programme every year up to 2000 and during quadrennial 2001-2004 but not in quadrennial 2005-2008. Kuwait (KUW), Democratic Republic of Timor Leste (TLS), Montenegro (MNE) and Kiribati (KIR) have not utilised the Sport for All Programme. The continental means are very close in value, and possibly this programme will not contribute much to the analysis of the data in the years before 2001 since grants were the same for everyone and most NOCs organised the Olympic Day run at some point or other, although not all NOCs did so on a regular annual basis.

8.5. International Olympic Academy – 1985 (1967)

The IOA was created in 1967, and its aim is to study and teach the history of the Olympic Games and to spread the ideals of peace and fraternity and Olympic solidarity funds the attendance of the participants.

Table 68 International Olympic Academy

Continental Division		Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	International Olympic Academy 2001-2004	48,933	4,555	7,566
	International Olympic Academy 2005- 2008	22,686	4,231	4,892
America	International Olympic Academy 2001-2004	28,567	5,484	6,357
	International Olympic Academy 2005- 2008	22,806	6,481	6,781
Asia	International Olympic Academy 2001-2004	19,867	4,359	6,099
	International Olympic Academy 2005- 2008	48,543	7,124	9,368
Europe	International Olympic Academy 2001-2004	10,943	5,856	3,290
	International Olympic Academy 2005- 2008	13,867	7,396	4,671
Oceania	International Olympic Academy 2001-2004	31,806	3,107	8,807
	International Olympic Academy 2005- 2008	26,791	2,652	7,274

IOA activities became one of the Olympic Solidarity programmes, and financial data is available from 1985. Olympism became one of the subjects included in the Itinerant School programme. Grants for 1992, 1994 and 1996 cannot be analysed since the IOA grant is included together with that for the Medical and Sport for All programmes. The sum of data for 1997 to 2000 was used to create values for the quadrennial 1997-2000. The largest number of NOCs participating in these programmes was that from Europe, 36 of which are present in each quadrennial. The lowest participant was Oceania both numerically and as a percentage of NOCs in that Continent (13-26%).

The grant value for Greece indicated as maximum for 1997-2000 includes funding for the 39th IOA session. This then distorts the mean to give a very high value for Europe for the quadrennial 1997-2000, in comparison with that for the other continents. There was a decrease in mean for Oceania and Africa in the last quadrennial, with only four NOCs from Oceania ever participating in the IOA programme. A number of countries from each continent never participated in the programme, six from Africa, five NOCs each from the Americas and Asia, and one

from Europe. A number of others did not participate in the last three quadrennia, but analysis of their participation before this period is unreliable, so there are possibly 43 NOCs who have never participated in the IOA Olympic solidarity programme.

8.6. Culture and Education – 2001

This programme was run jointly with the Culture and Education Commission, and “aims to promote culture and Olympic education as well as research and studies in this field” (Olympic Solidarity, 2001a:40).

Table 69 Culture and Education

Continental Division		NOC	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Africa	Culture and Education 2001-2004	53	29642	5,688	5,458
	Culture and Education 2005-2008	53	42204	5,271	8,798
Americas	Culture and Education 2001-2004	42	31478	7345	7,888
	Culture and Education 2005-2008	42	50000	11,175	14,370
Asia	Culture and Education 2001-2004	44	28157	5,623	6,258
	Culture and Education 2005-2008	44	31547	4,365	8,155
Europe	Culture and Education 2001-2004	48	40436	7,462	9,807
	Culture and Education 2005-2008	49	102586	19,985	26,473
Oceania	Culture and Education 2001-2004	15	69210	8,210	17,508
	Culture and Education 2005-2008	17	100960	13,571	30,527

Data is only available on a quadrennial basis for the quadrennia 2001-2004 and 2005-2008. Although there was a rise in budget from US\$1,800,000 to US\$2,500, this was not reflected in the participation rate of the NOCs, since there was 18% to 50% decrease in the participation throughout the continents from one quadrennium to the other, the most significant being in the African continent since 52 NOCs out of 53 made use of the programme in 2001-2004, whilst the Americas had the highest participation in the 2005-2008 quadrennial with 27 out of 42 NOCs (64%). Table 70 indicates that the means for Africa and Asia also decreased from one quadrennium to another, in contrast to that for the other three continents which rose in value considerably, particularly that for Europe with an increase of 167%.

8.7. Olympic Legacy – 2001

This programme appeared in 2001, it was set up in order for NOCs to be able to preserve their knowledge of the past, including archive preparation and conservation, opening and maintenance of museums, museum equipment , research projects and staff training. Data is only available on a quadrennial basis.

Table 70 Olympic Legacy

Continental Division		Sum	Maximum	Mean
Africa	NOC Legacy 2001-2004	166,903	22,500	3,149
	NOC Legacy 2005-2008	177,604	29,943	3,351
Americas	NOC Legacy 2001-2004	276,709	25,000	6,588
	NOC Legacy 2005-2008	511,884	70,000	13,140
Asia	NOC Legacy 2001-2004	95,304	20,166	2,166
	NOC Legacy 2005-2008	182,000	50,000	4,136
Europe	NOC Legacy 2001-2004	318,035	38,000	6,625
	NOC Legacy 2005-2008	788,983	100,000	16,101
Oceania	NOC Legacy 2001-2004	80,426	24,750	5,361
	NOC Legacy 2005-2008	227,666	119,038	13,392

Although the data seems to indicate that the Americas and Europe are the highest participants, 37 of the NOCs were involved in this programme during both quadrennia under analysis, so in actual fact only 110 NOCs made use of the programme during the eight years in question, with 33 NOCs from Africa, 28 in the Americas, ten in Asia, 32 in Europe and seven in Oceania benefiting from this programme. The continent with the highest level of grant for this programme was Europe, whose grants in 2005-2008 by far surpassed those for the other continents, with the African and Asian NOCs being the lowest recipients for overall grant, maximum grant or average grant. During the period 2005-2008, Oceania with only seventeen NOCs received much more funding than all the African (53) NOCs or Asian (44) NOCs together.

8.8. Marketing 1993-1994

The reports only list this programme for two years in 1993 and 1994. Marketing was included again in the NOC management programme in the period 2001-2004.

Table 71 Marketing 1993-1994

Continental Division		NOCs	Maximum	Mean
Africa	Marketing 1993	52	12,957	326
	Marketing 1994	52	5,598	198
Americas	Marketing 1993	42	4,068	555
	Marketing 1994	42	2,211	52
Asia	Marketing 1993	43	8,216	1,463
	Marketing 1994	44	5,465	198
Europe	Marketing 1993	47	3,232	1,306
	Marketing 1994	48	.00	.00
Oceania	Marketing 1993	13	.00	.00
	Marketing 1994	13	.00	.00

Although Swaziland (SWZ) benefited from the highest grant overall with US\$12,957 in 1993, only 3 African NOCs participated in the programme during that year, together with 17 NOCs from the Americas and 14 from Asia, whilst 19 NOCs from Europe. The majority of European NOCs came from the ex-Soviet bloc and were each given a grant of US\$3232. Only six NOCs, three of which were from Africa, received grants in 1994 whilst no NOCs from Oceania received any grants during both quadrennia.

