Abstract

As truly global institutions, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the modern Olympic Games depend on the services of professional conference interpreters. Starting from the premise that conference interpreters are likely to perform better if they are familiar with the topic and the environment in which they operate, this study aims to give an introduction to the Olympic Movement and to show how interpreting is organised at the IOC and the Olympic Games. Besides analysing various documents and critical literature to explain key concepts, documents, institutions and events that are part of the Olympic system, this thesis sheds new light on the interpreting service by interviewing an authoritative expert in the field. As a result, interpreters who consider working for the Olympic system can use this text to find useful preparatory information on the topic and on their potential workplace.

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Olympic Interpreting:
A Guide to the Olympic Movement for
Conference Interpreters

Mémoire présenté à la Faculté de Traduction et d’Interprétation
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ABSTRACT

As truly global institutions, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the modern Olympic Games depend on the services of professional conference interpreters. Starting from the premise that conference interpreters are likely to perform better if they are familiar with the topic and the environment in which they operate, this study aims to give an introduction to the Olympic Movement and to show how interpreting is organised at the IOC and the Olympic Games. Besides analysing various documents and critical literature to explain key concepts, documents, institutions and events that are part of the Olympic system, this thesis sheds new light on the interpreting service by interviewing an authoritative expert in the field. As a result, interpreters who consider working for the Olympic system can use this text to find useful preparatory information on the topic and on their potential workplace.

Key Words: Conference interpreting, International Olympic Committee, IOC, Olympic Movement, Olympic Games
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1. INTRODUCTION

By all standards, the Olympic Games are a record-breaking event. They are the largest international sports festival on the planet in terms of “the number of sports on the programme, the number of athletes present and the number of people from different nations gathered together at the same time in the same place” (International Olympic Committee, 2012, 3). Add to that the multicultural and multilingual dimension of the event, with more than 10,000 athletes competing from 204 Olympic nations at the London 2012 Summer Games (International Olympic Committee, 2013a, 1), and it is no longer surprising that a host of interpreters with a multitude of language combinations is needed to ensure communication between all the different participants and stakeholders. At the 2014 Winter Games in Sochi, more than 1,000 language professionals are reported to have been deployed, including many conference interpreters and hundreds of multilingual volunteers. It is clear that recruiting and coordinating such a large number of qualified individuals must be a daunting task that requires professional planning by an experienced language service department. But even in the interval between the Games, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and other institutions of the Olympic system rely on the work of conference interpreters for the IOC Sessions, Executive Board meetings and other gatherings of international Sports Federations and organising committees.

It is thus safe to say that the International Olympic Committee, as the chief representative of the Olympic Movement, is one of the international institutions that have the greatest demand for conference interpreters at a global level, at peak times even eclipsing that of the United Nations, as Germani (1983, para. 10) claims. In fact, Germani is not alone in drawing a parallel to the UN: Bill Weber, senior interpreter for the IOC and long-standing chief

1 The term “Olympic nation” is not synonymous with that of a political nation. For an explanation cf. part 1 ch. 4.2. below and Coubertin’s notion of “sports geography” (Müller, 2000, 590).
2 One website mentions 1,000 translators and interpreters (“Olympic translation secrets were revealed in Sochi”, 2011, para. 1).
3 For exact numbers and references see Part II.
4 This term is borrowed from Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott (2008) who generally refer to “what we shall call the Olympic system” (2), an unofficial concept meaning all structures, ideas and organisations associated with the IOC and the Olympic Games. They do so to avoid confusion with other established and well-defined concepts such as “Olympic Movement” etc. (cf. Part I Ch. 2 below). The term will occasionally be used in this study to refer to the institutions associated with the Olympic Movement.
interpreter/interpreting consultant at the Games, who contributed invaluable information to this study, called the IOC Sessions a “mini United Nations GA [i.e. General Assembly, SH]” (personal communication, 24 Oct 2014). This demonstrates the huge relevance that the Olympic Movement has to interpreters. Conversely, it is likely that there are many members of the profession who are interested in sports and who would probably be keen to work for the Olympic system, thus becoming part of one of the world’s most prestigious sporting organisations and events. Some interpreters even regard their involvement with the Olympic Games as a highlight of their career (see Schubert, 2006, para. 12). The Olympics and the conference interpreting profession seem to have formed a symbiotic relationship.

However, while conference interpreters who are passionate and knowledgeable about sports might be strongly motivated to work at the IOC and the Olympic Games, it cannot be taken for granted that they will make good Olympic interpreters. This is largely due to the fact that, in order to understand and use the appropriate terminology, interpreters need to be familiar with the ins and outs of the Olympic system. The problem is that the latter is far more complex than what many ordinary people probably believe. Despite attracting considerable publicity, there seems to be widespread ignorance of the intellectual and historical underpinnings of the Olympic Games.

For most people – and most novice conference interpreters, too – probably the only thing the word “Olympic” conjures up is the two-week long sports mega-event with all its trappings: the flag depicting the five rings, the torch relay, the opening and closing ceremonies, the competitions in the various disciplines, occasional doping scandals and political controversies. Few people realise that the Olympics actually have a wider meaning, one that goes beyond the obvious facts of physical exertion and vying for first place. Today’s Olympic Games are merely the tip of the iceberg, the visible part of an otherwise submerged ideological movement that has been in existence for centuries, if not millennia, and that only sports historians, philosophers and educators seem to be aware of or care about.⁵ Surprisingly, those who look beneath the surface will find that the Olympics are not exclusively about competition. Rather, the sporting activities seem to be the means to a much more exalted end, as Austin explains: “the Olympics is not merely a movement for sport, but also a philosophical movement whose ultimate goal is to build a peaceful and better world” (2012, 20). Very simply put, the idea is that if athletes as well as spectators

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⁵ Most publications on the Olympics are written by academics who profess these subjects, cf. e.g. Altenberger et al. (2004), Güldenpfennig (2004), Hansen (2004), Horne (2012), Reid and Austin (2012) and many more authors and editors listed in the reference section.
apply the rules and precepts of Olympic competition to their lives outside the arena they will become virtuous and morally sound human beings, thus making the world a better place to live in. McLaughlin and Torres (2012) point out that this philosophical dimension is an intrinsic part of the Olympics and that it constitutes their specificity; without it, they would just be another run-of-the-mill athletic contest: “When the Olympic Games are approached as merely sporting championships, however, the significance of the Olympic movement and its inspiring ideals are neither fully understood nor appreciated” (ibid., 101). These quotes illustrate that a knowledge of, and interest in, sports is not sufficient to be a good interpreter for the Olympics. As Luigi Luccarelli points out, “to perform the task successfully, interpreters must have a complete grasp of subject matter and the context they are working in” (2013, para. 3). Therefore, conference interpreters who aspire to work in an Olympic context must be cognisant of the Olympic system as a whole, in particular of its culture, its history and the concepts on which it is founded, in order for them to be able to comprehend and convey the messages of those who operate within it.

The cultural and historical background of the Olympic system is indeed remarkable. Having originated in Ancient Greece, the Olympics are almost as old as Western civilisation itself. At the Olympic Games of Antiquity, however, interpreters would not have been necessary as “only free men who spoke Greek could compete” (“Ancient Olympic events”, 2004, para. 1). In spite of this requirement, the Games did already have an international aura as participants came from Greek colonies all over Europe and Asia Minor. Significantly, the key words of today are still Greek in origin: the adjective Ὀλύμπιος (Olympios), meaning “of Olympus, dwelling on Olympus” (Liddell & Scott, 1901e, 1045), is an epithet given to the Greek god Zeus who was believed to reside on the highest peak of Mount Olympus and in whose honour the ancient Olympic Games were celebrated; an ἀθλητής (athletēs) was a “combatant, champion” (Liddell & Scott, 1901a, 30) in these Games. The home of the Olympics, which the poet Pindar called “the foremost of festivals”, was the ancient religious site of Olympia situated in the west of the Peloponnese, a place so named because it was dedicated to the said Zeus Olympios who was worshipped at a temple featuring a magnificent gold and ivory statue that qualified as one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World.

The combination of athletic combat and religious festivities may seem unlikely from a contemporary point of view, yet it lies at the heart of the extraordinary character of the Olympics as a sort of idealistic sporting event that has carried through to the present day. In

6 “ἀέθλων τε κορυφᾶν” (Pind. O. 2, 13).
Ancient Greek thought, there was no clearly defined boundary between the physical world of men and the abstract level of ideas, symbols and myths. The material and the ideational spheres were closely related and informed each other. For instance, the Greeks traced the Olympic Games back to various mythological origins. They claimed that the gods themselves instituted the competition and that some even took part in it, thereby justifying the existence of the Games by a more sublime reason and situating them in a larger, more meaningful tradition. The connection between the real and the ideal was based on the fact that, as Read argues, “the ancient Greek gods symbolized and exemplified the kind of perfection for which human beings strive” (2012, 88).

Therefore, it comes as no surprise that the notion of an ethical dimension in sports was first conceived of by the Greeks. The ancient competition was no end in itself, centred on the idea of who can beat everyone else (as is the case with most modern-day sports championships), but rather served a higher purpose, namely that of becoming an excellent human being in every respect. The cultivation of the body and the mind went hand in hand, a fact that is borne out by a number of Greek words that are ambiguous in that they relate both to physical effort and to moral virtues. Thus, the prime goal of the Games was the pursuit of aretē, or “excellence”, which referred both to the feats performed by the athletes and to the impeccable character that was expected of them. Similarly, the word ἀσκησις (askēsis), meaning “exercise, practice, training” (Liddell & Scott, 1901c, 232), was applied to bodily as well as mental and moral fitness, as the Encyclopædia Britannica makes clear:

As values other than those concerned with physical proficiency were developed, the concept expressed by askēsis and its cognates was applied to other ideals—e.g., mental facility, moral vitality, and spiritual ability. The ideal of training for a physical goal was converted to that of attaining wisdom or mental prowess by developing and training intellectual faculties. ("Asceticism", 2014)

These examples demonstrate how closely intertwined sport and character were in the minds of the ancients. To them, athletics was worth engaging in because it fostered the internal qualities of those who practised it.

The tradition of the Olympic Games of Antiquity lasted for more than a thousand years before being abolished in 393 or 394 AD by the Roman emperor Theodosius I for being a heathen.
festival that was incompatible with Christian beliefs ("Frequently Asked Questions about the Ancient Olympic Games", n.d., last para.) However, when the French educator Pierre de Coubertin revived the Olympic Games in 1894, he expressly invoked the ancient Greek unity of body, mind and character and its resulting virtues as their basis. For him, the modern Olympic Games were an outgrowth of "Hellenism", as he called it, a revamped version of the ancient Greek athletic tradition to which he attributed universal validity:

We used to believe that Hellenism was a thing of the past, a dead notion, impossible to revive and inapplicable to current conditions. This is wrong. Hellenism is part of the future. Its philosophy of life is suitable for and adaptable to modern existence. That is why sport is such an essential element in modern progress. (Müller, 2000, 202)

The continuous insistence on ancient Greek values as the prime building blocks for the modern Olympic Games can be found throughout Coubertin’s prolific writings and is part of the founding myth of the Olympic system as we know it. The ancient tradition reinstated by Coubertin is enshrined in the Olympic Charter and is still officially the policy of the IOC.

Unfortunately, as some critics bemoan (cf. Kistner & Weinreich, 1996, 2000), this idealism has receded into the background over the years and been replaced by an allegedly shallow media-driven focus on performance and money-making. Ilundáin-Agurruza summarises this development, claiming that “[t]he primary source of interest in Olympic events nowadays is not the pursuit of aretē, but an instrumental practice centered on records – results external to and removed from the competitive moment” (2012, 80). Additionally, corruption, doping, political strife, violence and an increasing “disneyfication” (Tomlinson, 2004, 147) often cast a shadow over the Games, dominating the news headlines and preventing relevant issues from gaining importance. But even if the general public is oblivious of the rich intellectual background of the Games, those who are closely involved in the Olympics (notably the interpreters) cannot afford to ignore it.

The creation of the International Olympic Committee in 1894 and the subsequent rise of the Modern Olympic Games at the beginning of the twentieth century coincided with the birth of many international organisations, which in turn gave rise to the profession of conference interpreters (cf. Baigorri-Jalón, 1999). It took a while, however, for this new profession to make its way into the recently established Olympic institutions. Possibly the founder of the Games had hoped that linguistic multiplicity might give way to, in the words of Girginov and Perry, “sport as a universal language” (2005, 146). While sports do indeed hold a universal appeal worldwide, the IOC itself works much like any other international organisation, with regular Sessions and Executive Board Meetings that depend on a functioning interpreting
service. And unlike the ancient festival, the modern Olympic Games take place in a different country every four years, thus continuously changing and multiplying the number of language combinations that need to be covered. That is why today, due to the global appeal and the extensive international media coverage of the competitions, interpreting services seem to be indispensable to the running of the Olympic institutions and the Games.

As reported by Germani (1983), faulty simultaneous interpreting equipment at a meeting of representatives from different National Olympic Committees (NOCs) and the ensuing breakdown of communication in 1982 showed that interpreters are a huge asset to the institution – provided, of course, that interpreters are sufficiently knowledgeable and familiar with the inner workings of the Olympics to perform their task efficiently. It is hard to imagine that anyone today would dispute their prominent role in making sure that Olympic actors and stakeholders from all over the world can communicate successfully. It is to be hoped that an increasing number of interpreters will be ready to take on the Olympic challenge and that they, too, will be spurred on to attain “excellence” at a human and a professional level by being part of the Olympic system.
2. BACKGROUND AND OBJECTIVES

The motivation for the present study stems from an argument put forward in literature on simultaneous interpreting which suggests that conference interpreters perform better if they are familiar with the institutions and topics they are working with. Seleskovitch, for instance, argued that “[an] interpreter lacking the slightest knowledge of the subject dealt with and developed in a speech is in the same position as a viewer who chances upon an unknown photo [...] neither the ignorant interpreter nor the chance viewer would understand the meaning of the forms perceived” (1976, 99). On a similar note, Moser-Mercer lent qualified support to the claim that “high-level skills of experts are not immediately transferable to other domains and that experts forced to perform in an unfamiliar environment are like fish out of water: they will revert to being novices” (2000, 89). These claims seem to suggest that even though some interpreters may be experienced professionals, their expertise is usually restricted to the areas they have been working in for a longer period of time and does not usually extend to other fields of knowledge. Applied to the present case, this would imply that even long-standing conference interpreters who have no previous experience of the Olympic system might come to grief if they are called upon to work for the IOC or at the Olympic Games. Taking on an assignment in a completely new environment can be a real challenge that might make interpreters uncomfortable and be detrimental to the quality of their performance.

The risk of underperforming, however, can be greatly reduced by thorough preparation on the subject-matter to be interpreted, as student interpreters are continuously told during their training. Intensive preparation, such as gathering information on the new workplace or institution, on the way it is organised and the issues it regularly deals with, researching terminology, compiling glossaries, familiarising oneself with the particular jargon used by that institution etc., is crucial for the success of interpreters that are new to a subject.

It is the overarching aim of this study to assist potential or newly recruited conference interpreters in the Olympic system with their preparation of this vast topic. How essential such help is can be gauged from the account of one conference interpreter, Martine Bonadona, who went on her first Olympic interpreting assignment at the Athens Olympic Games in 2004. Before setting off for the Greek capital, she felt “anxious”, as she explained in an online newsletter she wrote for Calliope, a global network of consultant interpreters:
I was not sure I had the necessary experience to do a first-rate job in all of the various athletic
disciplines. I knew I had to prepare, and prepare well, but did not know exactly how to go about
it. What precisely would our work consist of? Typical press conferences, expert meetings
discussing the technical side of each sport, or assisting the athletes? I didn't have a clue
(Bonadona, n.d., para. 1).

Asking experienced colleagues who have worked at the Games, as she goes on to suggest,
is, of course, an excellent option. Such colleagues, however, might not always be readily
available, which is why a compendium drawing together the essential information on the
Olympic system from the vantage point of language professionals might prove useful—a
compendium that interpreters would so far have looked for in vain.

This is the gap that the present study aims to fill. It is an academic handbook that is designed
to serve as a first port of call for debut conference interpreters who wish to work at the
Olympic Games or other institutions of the Olympic system and whose knowledge in this
area is largely restricted to that of a layman. Its academic merit lies in the fact that, while
principally giving factual information, it also offers critical perspectives on some controversial
aspects of the Olympic Movement, making readers aware of the debate going on behind the
scenes. This study is primarily aimed at members of the profession who wish to get a concise
yet critical introduction to this peculiar and challenging workplace, allowing them to get their
bearings in the complex world of the Olympic system and pre-empting any worries they might
have about what to expect. Consequently, the research question guiding this investigation
could be formulated as follows: “What background information would conference interpreting
graduates and young professional interpreters need to have in order to perform well when
beginning to work for the Olympic Movement?”

No such study exists among the academic literature available to date. The reference work by
Mallon and Buchanan (2006) and the in-depth analysis by Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott
(2008) come close to what this study aspires to achieve, although they are too detailed and
unwieldy for the purposes of language professionals. It must be emphasised that the IOC
and the Olympic Games is not a topic that offers itself readily for research. “The IOC”, as
Chappelet writes, “is not an easy organization to write about” given its “relatively secretive
and diffuse nature” (2008, xiv). Moreover, scholarship in the field of Olympic studies is still
relatively young. Originally, only historians and archaeologists exploring Ancient Greek
civilisation had been interested in the Olympics. Since its inception, the Movement has been
written about by its founding fathers and followers, though almost exclusively in a positive
and enthusiastic way. Pierre de Coubertin himself was a prolific writer whose selected
writings fill three volumes (Müller 1986a, 1986b, 1986c); his aim was above all to construct a
narrative around his project and to provide it with an ideological basis. Critical interest in the subject picked up relatively late, as Cromidas highlights in her interview with the eminent Olympics researcher and professor of social sciences John MacAloon: “When John MacAloon began his research on the Olympics, past scholarship amounted to little more than a box of files in a room” (2009, para. 1). In the decades following World War II, research on the Olympic Movement gradually became more nuanced and reflective. Since then, the body of published works has grown considerably and now comprises up-to-date and comprehensive book-length studies that examine the Olympics in the light of different issues, from philosophy (e.g., Reid & Austin, 2012; Bale & Christensen, 2004; Güldenpfennig, 2004), ideology and discourse construction (e.g., Chatziefstathiou, 2012), politics and diplomacy (e.g., Beacom, 2012; Preuss & Liese, 2011; Majumdar & Collins, 2008; Wagg & Andrews, 2007), gender (e.g., Lenskyj, 2013), sports medicine (e.g., Prokop, 1999) to the environment and sustainable development (e.g., Pitts & Liao, 2009). Although Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott (2008) could still claim that “[v]ery few academic works exist, however, on what we shall call the Olympic system and more specifically on its governance” (2), a whole range of excellent introductory studies and compilations of essays have now become available that also address historical and organisational questions (e.g., Horne & Whannel, 2012; Girginov, 2010b; Haag, 2008; Girginov & Perry, 2005). Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott (2008) themselves offer an insightful overview of the structure of the Olympic system, as do Altenberger, Haag and Holzweg (2004) as well as Haag (2008). Outstanding reference works on the Olympic Movement like the historical dictionary by Buchanan and Mallon (2006) and the encyclopaedia by Findling and Pelle (2004) are other very useful sources of well-researched information. The many journal articles on the Olympics would be too numerous to cite here; a selection of them can be found in the reference section of this study. In 1992, the Olympic Movement was given its very own scholarly journal, Olympika, which publishes articles by researchers in Olympic studies.

None of the studies available to date, however, mentions the conference interpreters that are so vital to the functioning of the Olympic Games and the IOC. This failure may be regarded as proof of their discreet role of ensuring communication in the background, but it also testifies to the still widespread disregard for, or simple ignorance of, the importance of their professional skills. Therefore, besides giving an overview of the Olympic system, this study will attempt to remedy the situation by examining the role of interpreters in the Olympic system and by shedding some light on the way this essential service is organised. Some sparse information can be gleaned from personal accounts by Olympic interpreters which have been published on websites of interpreters’ associations or language service providers, but we aim to elicit more specific details straight from the horse’s mouth, as it were, that is to
say directly from professional interpreters who have first-hand experience working at the Olympics.

In contrast to the existing overviews of the Olympic system cited above, our innovative approach will be to present information on the Olympic system from the perspective of students of conference interpreting.

To summarise, then, this study pursues a practical aim by applying a theoretical approach: our objective is to help conference interpreters who intend to work for the Olympic system with their preparation for the assignment by providing them with a comprehensive guidebook that analyses and collates essential factual and linguistic information on the Olympic system and its language service from the plethora of literature, materials and sources that are available in printed and electronic form.
3. METHOD AND METHODOLOGY

Traditionally, social science research makes a distinction between quantitative and qualitative methods, also known as empirical-analytical, positivist or objectivist approaches on the one hand and interpretative or subjectivist approaches on the other. These are the two pivotal categories around which analyses of social phenomena revolve, each subsuming a wide range of specific methods such as factor analysis, case studies, grounded theory etc. They form the staple ingredient of all major textbooks on research methodology (cf. e.g. the influential introductory works by Babbie, 2004, and Neuman, 2003).

It is noteworthy, however, that although the quantitative vs. qualitative divide is a fundamental tenet of sociology as an academic discipline the two concepts are not always neatly distinguished or kept apart. Some sociologists have bemoaned the lack of a clear-cut definition, stating that “current literature is replete with instances of imprecise and conflicting usage of these terms” (Lynch, 1983, 461), while others have made a strong case for a pragmatic mixed methods research (e.g. Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) or downright questioned the legitimacy of a separation between these concepts (Howe, 1992; Prakash et al., 2007). In a recent attempt at conciliation that is representative of the current trend, Haig has argued that “we are likely to gain a better understanding of the research methods we use not by viewing them as either qualitative or quantitative but by regarding them as having both qualitative and quantitative dimensions” (2013, 28).

It is probably true that many researchers strive to diversify their methods and to tackle their subject from different angles in order to strengthen their inquiry and findings. And it is certainly true that the quantitative and qualitative categories do have a common denominator in that they are both considered to represent valid scientific approaches; both rely on data gathering, on a particular research design and on the subsequent analysis of that data in an attempt to arrive at meaningful conclusions about social reality. But this does not detract from the fact that, at a conceptual level, they still represent two antithetical sides of the same research coin, as it were. What separates them might even be more significant than any

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9 The canonical terms seem to be “qualitative” and “quantitative” as used, for instance, in the handbooks by Babbie and Newman. Nevertheless, “empirical-analytical” and “interpretative”, though maybe not as neat an opposition, are useful designations too as they come closer to what the respective methods are about (they are taken from the University of Southern California website on research methodology). “Objectivism and subjectivism” are the headings employed by Holden and Lynch (2004, 400), while Howe speaks of the “positivist-interpretivist split” (1992, 238).
potential common ground between them, namely the epistemological underpinnings of each term. Both are embedded in fundamentally different world views and spring from diametrically opposed assumptions about our relationship with the world around us. As Guba puts it, “one precludes the other just as surely as belief in a round world precludes belief in a flat one” (1987, 31). Even in his own attempt to overcome their binary opposition, Howe concedes that “[t]his argument is basically correct when properly restricted: positivism and interpretivism are incompatible” (1992, 239; italics in the original). Consequently, every researcher seems to be obliged to choose one side over the other, even though he may do so only implicitly. This epistemological dimension should not be neglected; it is a decisive factor in any kind of research, as Trochim points out: “All research is based on assumptions about how the world is perceived and how we can best come to understand it” (2006, para. 3). To critics who would dismiss these philosophical considerations as extraneous to research, Holden and Lynch reply with a rhetorical question that puts the finger on the problem: “if a researcher perceives ontology and epistemology to be irrelevant, then how can they ensure that their methods are really appropriate to the problem in hand?” (2004, 407). Therefore, in order to understand and justify the choice of a particular research method, it seems necessary to make these underlying ideas explicit and to connect them with the research project.

This study sides with the proponents of qualitative methods who believe that meaning is not inherent in the world ready to be discovered but needs to be constructed by means of an interpretative process on the part of the researcher. Both the subject under study and the researcher are embedded in certain linguistic, historical and ethical contexts which has a bearing on their actions and thoughts. The general approach adopted here is therefore qualitative since the investigation focuses on a specific scenario from which no extrapolation or generalisation can be made. In the words of the online writing guide published by the University of Southern California, this study will “focus on analytically disclosing the meaning-making practices of human subjects [the why, how, or by what means people do what they do]” (“Groups of research methods”, 2014, para. 2).

As has been stated, the aim is to gather information on the Olympic Movement and its interpreting activities to help interpreters prepare for potential assignments in the Olympic institutions. To achieve this end, the two qualitative research methods proposed here are (1) document analysis (an critical evaluation of published texts) and (2) an interview/questionnaire (data obtained through written and oral communication with an expert). Both approaches are exclusively word-based and thus necessarily imply a subjective
selection, interpretation and ordering of the data extracted from the various sources, a process that will be guided by considerations of relevance and utility.

The document analysis method forms the basis for Part I of this thesis. We will draw on the numerous publications by the IOC and other Olympic bodies as the mainstay of the study. In particular, the websites of the IOC (www.olympic.org/ioc) and of the Olympic Museum (www.olympic.org/museum) are treasure-troves of information and will prove useful especially for Part I. They contain most of the official documents of the Olympic Movement in the official languages English and French, but also a large number of publications in other languages (notably German). Apart from this promotional material, we will also include critical comments and analyses from the academic literature on the Olympic Movement. The book-length studies and academic journal articles referred to throughout this study offer an intellectual backdrop to the more factual information and serve to elucidate the conceptual underpinnings of the Olympic Movement. The main challenge of the text analysis will be to select relevant sources and to reduce the complexity of the topic. Only essential information will be retained and subsequently arranged in a logical way so that it can be easily and quickly accessed by readers to provide them with a firm grounding in the topic. The chapters and subsections of this study are organised in the form of key words and concepts that allow for a quick look-up.

The questionnaire/interview method will be used for Part II and will consist of a conversation conducted by email and VoIP telephony with the long-standing chief interpreter and interpreting consultant of the Olympic Games, Bill Weber. While also interpreting for the IOC during its Executive Board meetings and Sessions, Bill Weber has been involved in all Summer and Winter Games since the 1984 Summer Olympics in Los Angeles. His first Olympic assignment dates back to the 1968 Winter Games in Grenoble (Schubert, 2006, para. 5). The Los Angeles Games offered an opportunity for him to mobilise the staff and students at the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation of the Monterey Institute of International Studies (MIIS), where he was dean from 1978 to 1992 (ibid.) He has recruited interpreters for many IOC Sessions and Commissions as well as for other institutions of the Olympic Movement. In total, he has been chief interpreter at eight Olympic Games. The 2016 Olympics in Rio de Janeiro will be his last in this capacity. Considering this impressive track record, Bill Weber is very likely the most authoritative expert in the field. Again, the approach pursued in this part of the thesis is exclusively qualitative as it will only involve one, if highly reliable and instructive, source of information. It will not generate any quantifiable data or provide the basis for constructing general theories. The questionnaire/interview is semi-structured and divided into five sections covering different aspects of the language service at
the Olympic Games and the IOC (see the questionnaire with the original questions and answers that have served in large part as the basis for the elaboration of Part II of this study). Thanks to the interview and the kind collaboration of Bill Weber, it was possible to obtain valuable details about the subject that have not previously been published in any publicly available sources.
PART 1: THE OLYMPIC SYSTEM
1. HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT

1.1. Ideological Background

For Pierre de Coubertin, history was “la première de toutes les sciences en importance et en efficacité éducatrice” (Müller, 1996b, 5). A chapter on the history of the IOC and the modern Olympic Games is therefore in order, especially as their origins go well back in time and as they have undergone many changes ever since they were established in 1894/86.

Though essentially starting out as the ambitious project of one man, the French aristocrat Pierre de Coubertin, the IOC is one of the few international institutions that have survived the dramatic upheavals of the twentieth century. Not only did it surmount the initial difficulties it had in rallying support and getting off the ground, but it also survived two devastating world wars, the Cold War and major crises such as terrorist attacks, boycotts and corruption scandals. The academic literature does not offer an explanation for this remarkable fact. Sarantakes merely mentions in passing that “the Olympic movement has proven quite resilient” (2014, 327), while Hansen puts this longevity down to the IOC’s ability to reinvent itself, claiming that “når den olympiske bevægelse har overlevet de 20. århundrede skyldes det, at den international olympiske komité (IOC) har været i stand til å forny sig” (2004, 11).

Yet the extraordinary success of the Olympics also be regarded as support for the IOC’s claim that the Olympic Movement, which is described in the Olympic Charter as a “universal and permanent action” (IOC, 2014, 11), has a general relevance that transcends temporal and geopolitical fault lines. As Hansen goes on to suggest, this universal character might be due to the protean and somewhat obscure nature of the Olympic philosophy (2004, 17). In view of its “vieldeutigen und damit breit interpretierbaren Symbolik” (Alkemayer, 2012, 251), it could easily be changed and updated to fit different contexts.

The reinvention of the Olympic Games and the birth of the Olympic Movement took place against the political, educational and philosophical backdrop of the late nineteenth century. These three areas are closely interrelated and had a significant influence on the ideological underpinnings of the Olympics. At the political level, the period was marked by the Franco-

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10 “[T]he Olympic Movement has survived the twentieth century due to the fact that the IOC was able to renew itself” (my translation, SH).
Prussian War in 1870/71 which France had lost and which led to the emergence of Germany as a unified nation-state. The defeat at the hands of the Germans had dealt a severe blow to the French self-esteem and caused a sense of national trauma. For Coubertin, who professed “un goût passionné pour l'histoire contemporaine”, the “terrible crise de 1870” only added to what he described as “nos échecs successifs … dont je me sentais humilié” (Müller, 1986c, 52). Accordingly, he envisaged education as the way forward to restore France to its former glory.

As a means of overcoming this feeling of humiliation, he advocated placing the focus on the new generation that represented hope for the future and openly called for “une grande réforme pédagogique” (ibid.) For him, it was primarily through education that society could be reformed. From 1883 to 1886, Coubertin had toured the UK and Ireland and become acquainted with the concept of education through sports as it was widely practised at English public schools and universities. In line with the ideas of the famous British educator and headmaster of Rugby School, Thomas Arnold, he regarded it as an effective way of providing young people with an upright character and strong morals that would ultimately lay the foundation of a healthy and outward-looking society. Contrasting the lack of physical education in France with the development of athleticism at schools and universities in the UK, he became a fervent campaigner in favour of strengthening the role of sports in education. Aiming to introduce a similar form of physical education in France, he developed his idea of a “pédagogie sportive”, which he regarded as “tout un plan de formation morale et sociale dissimulée sous le couvert des sports scolaires” (cited in Durry, 1996, 16), which shows that for Coubertin both personal development and social advancement could be promoted by physical exercise. “Character”, as Coubertin proclaimed in his closing speech at the 1894 Sorbonne congress that restored the Olympic Games, “is not formed by the mind, but primarily by the body” (cited in MacAlloon, 2006, 545). He hoped that, as a result, sports education would transcend the sort of narrow-minded nationalism that had led to the recent war and thus help solve and prevent international conflicts. As Alkemayer puts it, Coubertin propagated “eine auf den modernen Sport gegründete Pädagogik als Instrument der Krisenlösung” (2012, 254). Although the starting point for his interest in sports education had nationalist overtones in that it was motivated by the defeat of the French in the war against Prussia, he insisted that he had revived the Olympic Games “thinking not merely of France or England, Greece or Italy, but of humanity in general” (cited in Girginov, 2010a, 10). This combination of national self-confidence and international peace seems to be a contradiction in terms, but it is nevertheless at the heart of Olympism. From the beginning, Coubertin highlighted the interplay between individual nations united by enthusiasm for peace and their coming together at an international festival as an expression for their peaceful ambitions. To
his mind, a truly international sporting competition in which all the nations of the world participated might promote mutual understanding and respect between people of different countries, races and social classes.

This essentially humanist approach was influenced by prominent philosophical ideas of his day, notably the tenets of Jean-Jacques Rousseau (cf. Müller, 1986c, 36) and many others. One of the most important philosophical influences on Coubertin’s thinking was Auguste Comte’s positivism (cf. the study by Simonovic-Duci, 2004, and Wernick, 2001, 15 n. 40). Comte, who is regarded as one of the founding fathers of modern sociology, had advocated social progress based on strictly scientific principles and a religion of humanity whose priests were sociologists of a sort (Alkemeyer, 2012, 261), similar to Coubertin’s disciples of Olympism. Like Comte, Coubertin took the view that society needed to be equipped with a strong moral foundation and discipline in order to reign in the egoism of its individual members. Nonetheless, in contrast to Comte’s systematic theories, Coubertin’s own philosophical statements often remain eclectic and vague, as many critics have noted with respect to his conception of Olympism. One example is the grandiloquent passage quoted by Durry in which Coubertin expounds his project with a mix of theoretical reflections on history, world peace, social equality and the youthful body:

Je rebronzerai une jeunesse veule et confinée, son corps et son caractère par le sport, ses risques, et même ses excès. J’élargirai sa vision et son entendement par le contact des grands horizons sidéraux, planétaires, historiques, ceux de l’histoire universelle surtout, qui, engendrant le respect mutuel, deviendront un ferment de la paix internationale pratique. Et tout cela pour tous, sans distinction de naissance, de caste, de fortune, de situation, de métier.

(Durry, 1996, 16).

It seems plausible that Coubertin used this rather flowery language as a countervailing force to the sober discourse and depressing political reality of his day. The fin de siècle environment in which he lived was marked by social strife and pessimism; there was a widespread feeling that Western civilisation was in decline and that its post-Enlightenment societies were drifting apart. Coubertin’s mythological, romantic and aesthetic project of the Olympic Games offered an antidote to the feeling of bleakness as it promised a higher, richer sphere of meaning in contrast to the toils of every-day life. Significantly, the Olympic Games initially did not only comprise sports competitions but art exhibitions as well. Art and sport

11 For a comprehensive overview of the complex "history of ideas" that had a bearing on Coubertin’s conception of Olympism, cf. Loland, 1995.
12 Cf. chapter 2.1 on Olympism below.
were aesthetic practices around which people of all walks of life could rally and which could prove to be a unifying force in society.

In order to promote his project, Coubertin turned to Ancient Greece and its athletic tradition as a model for his own progressive educational project. In his mind, the study of antiquity – or “Hellenism”, as he termed it – would help attain the ideal unity of body, mind and soul, of society and individual, that he attributed to the Ancient Greeks. So far, the benefits of a classical education had been reserved to the ruling class that attended the public schools and universities Coubertin had visited in Britain. Through the reinstitution of the Olympic Games, he aimed to make the Greek ideal of humanity available to all members of society. Of course, Coubertin’s take on Antiquity is based less on historical facts than on an idealised reworking of stereotypical ideas. As Tomlinson points out, Coubertin “excelled at hyperbole” (2004, 148). There was a general enthusiasm for all things Greek in his time, given that archaeology was having a field day with the rediscovery of Troy and other ancient sites; Coubertin had notably admired the archaeological reconstructions of ancient Olympia at the Exposition Universelle in Paris in 1889. By creating a romanticised link to this mythological past, he aimed to endow his modern educational project with symbolic meaning. As Rider and Wamsely note, the fact that “the Olympic Games, Ancient and Modern, are shrouded in similar mythologies […] is part of the source of their popular appeal” (2012, 291).

In the 1890s, Coubertin’s project finally came to fruition. After years of giving lectures, writing reports and organising congresses on sports and physical education, he voiced his intention to revive the Olympic Games for the first time in November 1892 (MacAloon, 2006, 525). On his travels in the preceding years, he had built up the international contacts without whose support he would not have been able to found the Olympic Movement. In 1894, he convened the International Athletic Congress at the Sorbonne, a gathering of sports associations and their representatives from Europe and North America, under the pretext of discussing amateurism in sport. His secret goal, however, was to convince the delegates of the need to see the Olympic Games restored. The Congress was a huge success; it led to the establishment of the International Olympic Committee, elected Dimetrios Vikelas as its first president and determined that the first modern Olympic Games were to be held in Athens in 1896. Athens, of course, was a symbolic choice: by associating the modern Olympic Games with their birthplace, Coubertin could claim continuity and enhance the impact and significance of his Olympic Movement.
## 1.2. Milestones in the History of the Olympic Movement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
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</table>
| 16-23 June 1894 | International Athletic Congress at the Sorbonne in Paris  
- 2000 guests with 78 official delegates representing 37 sports associations from England, France, the United States, Sweden, Belgium, Greece, Italy, Spain, Russia, Austro-Hungary and Bohemia  
- unanimous resolution to establish the International Olympic Committee and to restore the Olympic Games with the following conditions:  
  - four-year intervals for the Games  
  - exclusively modern sports  
  - exclusion of competitions for children  
  - establishing a permanent International Olympic Committee whose members would represent Olympism in their respective countries  
  - changing host cities  
- Dimitrios Vikelas (sometimes transliterated as Bikelas) elected as the first president of the International Olympic Committee |
| 1896       | Athens Olympics  
- first Olympic Games of the modern era  
- more than 300 athletes from 13 countries (230 from Greece and 81 from another 12 countries); 43 competitions in 9 disciplines (cycling, fencing, gymnastics, lawn tennis, shooting, swimming, athletics, weightlifting, wrestling), also including marathon  
- Pierre de Coubertin elected as the second president of the IOC |
| 1900       | Paris Olympics  
- 11 female athletes were allowed to compete in lawn tennis and golf |
| 1904       | St. Louis Olympics  
- gold, silver and bronze medals were introduced |
| 1906       | - first and last Intercalated Games are held in Athens, which planned to hold interim Games between the official Olympics |
| 1908       | London Olympics  
- the 1906 eruption of Mt. Vesuvius requires the Games to move from Rome to London  
- for the first time, a stadium is built especially for the Games, with the athletes marching in behind their nations' flags  
- Olympic creed is coined by Coubertin quoting the words of Ethelbert Talbot, Bishop of Pennsylvania |
| 1912       | Stockholm Olympics  
- for the first time, women were generally admitted to compete at the Games  
- more than 2500 athletes representing 28 countries |
| 1914-18    | World War I interrupted Games (1916 Games had originally been awarded to Berlin) |
| 1915       | Lausanne becomes the permanent headquarter of the IOC |
| 1920       | Antwerp Summer Olympics  
- Olympic flag and Olympic oath are introduced  
- Germany, Austria, Bulgaria, Hungary, and Turkey are not invited, having been defeated in World War I |
<p>| 1924       | - first Winter Olympics: the &quot;International Winter Sports Week&quot; (“Semaine international des sports d’hiver”) takes place in Chamonix; two years later, this event is retroactively given the status of the first Olympic Winter Games |
| 1925       | - Count Henri de Baillet-Latour elected as the third president of the IOC on 28 May |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event/Episode</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td>- launch of the “Bureau International de Pedagogie sportive” which published an annual bulletin and a number of books on Olympism</td>
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</table>
| 1928 | Amsterdam Summer Olympics  
- Olympic flame is lit for the first time |
| 1936 | Berlin Olympics  
- first torch relay  
- the first to be televised, being shown on large screens around Berlin  
- African-American athlete Jesse Owens wins several gold medals, thwarting Hitler’s plan to use the Berlin Games as a way to disseminate Nazi propaganda; Owens makes friends with his German competitor in the long jump, Luz Long, and the pair’s lap of honour became a symbol of the triumph of sportsmanship over Nazi ideology |
| 1937 | - Coubertin dies on 2 September; his heart, which had been removed from his body shortly after his death, is placed inside a stele put up at ancient Olympia the following year |
| 1938-1944 | - the “Centre d’études olympiques” is established in Berlin under the leadership of Carl Diem |
| 1939-1945 | - World War II interrupted Games |
| 1946 | - Sigfrid Edström elected as the fourth president of the IOC on 4 September |
| 1948 | - June 23 is declared Olympic Day; first adopted by only 9 countries but celebrated all over the world today  
- International Wheelchair Games set up by Ludwig Guttmann to help rehabilitate wounded veterans of World War II; using sports therapy, he invited wheelchair athletes to compete, and the event eventually became the modern Paralympic Games |
| 1952 | - Avery Brundage elected as the fifth president of the IOC  
Helsinki Summer Olympics  
- West Germany participated for first time after World War II, Soviet Union returned after 40 years of absence |
| 1956 | Melbourne Summer Olympics  
- China withdrew after recognition of Taiwan by IOC, only to return in 1980  
- boycott by Spain, Switzerland and Netherlands following the Soviet invasion of Hungary |
| 1960 | Rome Summer Olympics  
- first Games covered by television worldwide  
- South Africa was excluded because of its apartheid regime; ban lifted only at the 1992 Barcelona Games  
- Abebe Bikila became the first African Olympic champion after winning the marathon, which he ran barefoot  
- first suspected doping case, leading the International Olympic Committee to form a medical committee in 1961 |
| 1961 | - founding of the International Olympic Academy (IOA) in ancient Olympia |
| 1968 | Mexico City Summer Olympics  
- first participation by East Germany  
- US athletic champions Tommie Smith and John Carlos gave the Black Power salute during the national anthem as a protest against racism and segregation in the US  
Grenoble Winter Olympics  
- first drug tests conducted  
- East and West Germany form separate teams for the first time |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Details</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>Sir Michael Morris</td>
<td>Elected as the sixth president of the IOC on 21 August</td>
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<td>Munich Summer Olympics</td>
<td>Terrorist attack leaving 11 Israeli athletes dead; five days before the end of the Games, 8 Palestinian terrorists forced their way into the Olympic Village, killing two Israelis and taking nine others hostage before demanding the release of 200 Palestinian prisoners from Israel; the security forces launched an assault during which all nine Israeli hostages were killed, as were five of the terrorists and one policeman; IOC president Avery Brundage took the decision to continue the Games after a 34-hour suspension.</td>
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<td>1974</td>
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<td>The word &quot;amateurism&quot; is deleted from the Olympic Charter, paving the way for changes in Olympic policy</td>
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<td>1976</td>
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<td>Montreal Summer Olympics</td>
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<td>Boycott of the Olympics by 22 African because New Zealand was allowed to compete after sparking outrage among African countries for sending its national rugby team to play in South Africa, which was under apartheid rule</td>
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<td>Taiwan withdrew after the People’s Republic of China had pressured Canada to deny the Taiwanese athletes the right to compete</td>
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<td>1980</td>
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<td>Juan Antonio Samaranch elected as the seventh president of the IOC on 16 July</td>
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<td>Moscow Summer Olympics</td>
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<td>Biggest politically motivated boycott in Olympic history: 62 nations, including West Germany and Japan, boycotted the Moscow Games to protest against the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan; the American-led boycott reduced the number of participating nations from 120 to 81, the lowest number since 1956; countries such as Britain and France supported the boycott but allowed their Olympic committees to participate should they wish to do so</td>
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<tr>
<td>1981</td>
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<td>International sports federations are given the right to determine which athletes may compete, paving the way for professional athletes to be admitted; however, athletes are still not allowed to accept money during the Games</td>
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<td>For the first time, two women are elected as members of the IOC</td>
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<td>1984</td>
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<td>Los Angeles Summer Olympics</td>
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<td>In retaliation for the boycott of the 1980 Games, the Soviet Union led a boycott of the US Games by 14 socialist nations, claiming that the Los Angeles Olympic Committee was violating the spirit of the Olympics by using the Games to generate commercial profits</td>
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<td>1985</td>
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<td>Launch of the “The Olympic Programme”, later rebranded “The Olympic Partners” (TOP), a fund-raising programme designed to generate funds for the IOC by granting marketing rights to a number of sponsors for the duration of an Olympiad</td>
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<td>1992</td>
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<td>Barcelona Summer Olympics</td>
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<td>End of the Cold War</td>
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<td>Germany competed under one flag for the first time since 1964</td>
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<td>Post-apartheid South Africa was invited again after a 32-year ban</td>
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<td>1994</td>
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<td>Lillehammer Winter Olympics</td>
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<td>First Winter Games to be organised in a different year from the Summer Games (the four-year-cycle shifted by two years)</td>
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<td>Year</td>
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| 1996 | Atlanta Summer Olympics | - for the first time a website was launched to accompany the Games  
- first to be organised without government subsidies, which meant that the Games were exploited commercially  
- explosion of a pipe bomb in Atlanta’s Centennial Olympic Park, killing two people and injuring a further 110; the perpetrators were never found  
- around 10,000 athletes from 197 countries and regions (including Hong Kong and the Palestinian Authority) |
| 1999 | - following a corruption scandal over the awarding of the 2002 Winter Games to Salt Lake City, the IOC institutes an ethics commission  
- given the rising number of doping cases, the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) is founded |
| 2000 | Sydney Summer Olympics | - largest Games yet, with 10,651 athletes competing in 300 events  
- Aboriginal athlete and national hero Cathy Freeman lit the Olympic torch  
- North and South Korea paraded together under a single flag  
- approximately 15,000 media representatives covered the Games, which were watched on TV by more than half the world’s population  
- estimated cost of the Games: USD 3bn |
| 2001 | - Jacques Rogge elected as the eighth president of the IOC on 16 July |
| 2004 | Athens Summer Olympics | - approx. 11,000 athletes from nearly 200 Olympic nations; 296 competitions  
- new medal was distributed to winners at the Athens Games, replacing the long-standing design by Italian sculptor Giuseppe Cassioli that incorrectly depicted the Roman Colosseum rather than a Greek venue. Olympic medals now feature the Panathinaiko Stadium in Athens, one of the world’s oldest stadiums and the site of the first modern Olympic Games in 1896 |
| 2012 | London Summer Olympics | - female athletes from every competing nation for the first time ever |
| 2013 | - Thomas Bach elected as the ninth president of the IOC |
2. CONCEPTS, SYMBOLS AND MARKS

The introduction of a new event requires symbols, myths, narratives and a shared history to be successful and to take root. This is why certain traditions were established from the start: the opening ceremony with the formulaic opening phrase that is now enshrined in Rule 55 of the Olympic Charter, the silver medal and olive wreath bestowed on the winners, the copper medal and laurel wreath given to the runners-up, the national flags flown at ceremonies etc. Further elements, such as the oath and the flame, were added later on. This chapter explains some of the key concepts used to provide the Olympic Movement with continuity and visibility.

2.1. Olympism

Subsuming ideas such as peace, culture, education and humanity, Olympism is the central philosophical concept underpinning the Olympic Movement. Sometimes also referred to as the Olympic idea or ideal, it is used as a label for all the beliefs and values that give meaning to the movement and that take its inspiration from ancient Greek athletics. Being more of a moral stance than a coherent system of thought, it is the differentia specifica of the Olympic Games that distinguishes them from ordinary sports competitions. This is significant, as the Olympic Games are more than just sports; in the words of Coubertin, they are sports plus “something else’ [...] , and it is just this ‘something else’ that matters, as it is not to be found in any other variety of athletic competition” (Müller, 2000, 542 f.) Olympism, therefore, represents “einen wertorientierten Bezugsrahmen für die Olympische Bewegung und die Olympischen Spiele” (Haag, 2008, 15; italics in the original).

Olympism is notoriously difficult to define. Broadly speaking, it is modelled on the ancient Greek ideal of forming a person’s body, mind and morals through physical exercise and a cultivation of art and ideas, thus connecting the material world of the body with the world of ideas and giving it a higher purpose. In response to the question “What is Olympism?”, Coubertin gave the following explanation: “C’est la religion de l’énergie, le culte de la volonté intensive développée par la pratique de sports virils s’appuyant sur l’hygiène et le civisme et s’entourant d’art et de pensée” (Müller 1986b, 15).

Though Coubertin used the term as far back as 1894, Olympism was first officially enshrined in the Olympic Charter in 1914. Its significance can be gauged by the fact that two of the
seven Fundamental Principles of the Charter deal with the subject. The most important
document of the Olympic Movement famously opens with the words: “Olympism is a
philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and
mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life
based on the joy of effort, the educational value of good example, social responsibility and
respect for universal fundamental ethical principles”. The second Fundamental Principle runs
as follows: “The goal of Olympism is to place sport at the service of the harmonious
development of humankind, with a view to promoting a peaceful society concerned with the
preservation of human dignity” (International Olympic Committee, 2014d, 11). In recent
teaching material of the IOC, Olympism is simply referred to as “a philosophy of life which
places sport at the service of humanity” and which comprises three essential values:
excellence, friendship and respect (The Olympic Museum Educational and Cultural Services,
2013, 3). It is put into practice in the Olympic Games and in schools and universities, as
Girginov emphasises: “The concept of Olympism was a social, political and educational
project designed to transform society through sport. According to Coubertin this project had
two distinct and successive enterprises – athleticism, in the form of the Olympic Games, and
education” (2010a, 20).

Notwithstanding its salience and ubiquity in the literature published both by and on the IOC,
the term is one of the most controversial aspects of the Olympic Movement. And “the
impassioned and seemingly endless debate between the defenders and detractors of
‘Olympism’” (Hoberman, 1995, 2) shows no sign of abating. Some academics criticise
Olympism as an unconvincing attempt at conceptualising the Olympic Movement and an
unlikely combination of vague, ambiguous ideas with high-flying words, bemoaning the lack
of a distinct and easily comprehensible definition that does not resort to glittering generalities
or boil down to “a nebula of speeches, a sea of myths, ideologies and prejudices” (Caillat &
Brohm, 1984, cited in Chatziefstathiou & Henry, 2012, 3). Conversely, the abstract nature of
Olympism is valued by other commentators because it allows for a certain flexibility and is
able to accommodate various interpretations that are not tied to a particular time or place,
thus supporting its claim to universal validity (cf. Hansen, 2004). In an attempt to clinch the
argument, DaCosta refers to Olympism as a “protophilosophy” or “process philosophy” that is
“generally defined today as a speculative construction of philosophical positions or directions

13 For an overview of the scholarly debate cf. DaCosta (2010). For a comprehensive analysis of the
concept of Olympism and the various ideological influences that had a bearing on its genesis, cf.
without internal coherence that asserts that reality is constantly in a process of change” (2006, 157 f.)

Olympism has also come under criticism from some corners for being impracticable and too idealistic. The attempt to endow sport with a sort of humanitarian or civilisatory mission effectively puts the Olympic Movement on a par with other large international institutions such as the United Nations; however, as Roche points out, “like the other examples of post-war internationalism, its idealistic and moralistic rhetoric has all too often been badly and sadly adrift both from its own practices and from the reality of world events” (2000, 194 f.) Though generally optimistic about Olympism, Daly concedes that the “problem for the Olympic movement has been that any controversial incidents that occur are counterpoised against the idealistic words of Coubertin” (2004, xix). Lenskyj is scathing in her criticism, complaining that the tenets of Olympism are deliberately couched in heroic-sounding terms to obscure the fact that the actions of the Olympic Movement are effectively guided by more mundane considerations: “pseudo-religious terms like ‘Olympic movement’ and ‘Olympic spirit’ are carefully selected to evoke feelings of universal excitement and belonging, while the less savoury profit making motive is concealed” (2004, 383).

2.2. Olympic Education

Imparting Olympism and Olympic values to young people is one of the priorities of the Olympic Movement. Rule 2(1) of the Olympic Charter specifies that the IOC’s mission expressly includes the “education of youth through sport” (International Olympic Committee, 16) while Rule 2(16) underscores the importance of “the International Olympic Academy (‘IOA’) and other institutions which dedicate themselves to Olympic education” (ibid., 17). However, the term “Olympic education” appeared in Olympic literature at a relatively late stage, from the 1970s onwards, and has flourished particularly in Germany, with influential academics such as Carl Diem and Norbert Müller contributing decisively to its elaboration.

Olympic education is based on the premise that if young people engage in sport they will lead happier, more fulfilled lives but will also learn to live together harmoniously in society. Sport simultaneously benefits personal development and the common good. This idea goes back to Coubertin’s original conception of a “pédagogie sportive” as inspired by nineteenth-century physical education at public schools, and ultimately to the athletic tradition in Ancient Greece which regards sport as a way of forming the minds and bodies of young people in a positive manner. In ancient times, Reid argues, athletics was “adapted to the educational
function of cultivating individual virtue (aretē) or, in modern parlance, moral character” (2009, 40).

Müller (2004, 11) has identified five core components of Olympic education that young people are supposed to acquire during Olympic education:

1. the concept of harmonious development of the whole human being;
2. the idea of striving for human perfection through high performance, in which scientific and artistic achievement must take equal rank with sporting performance;
3. sporting activity voluntarily linked to ethical principles such as fair play and equality of opportunity, and the determination to fulfil those obligations; also included is the ideal of amateurism, which has been almost totally abandoned in international sport today;
4. the concept of peace and goodwill between nations, reflected by respect and tolerance in relations between individuals;
5. the promotion of moves towards emancipation in and through sport.

In terms of specific teaching methods, the IOC has launched its own initiative called “Olympic Values Education Project” (OVEP), complete with toolkit, media campaign and dedicated website. The toolkit in particular contains teaching materials that take account of different teaching styles around the world and offer corresponding “pathways” for a range of teaching approaches. Directly addressing members of the Olympic Family, educational authorities, coaches, sports club leaders, teachers, instructors and young people on how best to teach and learn the values of Olympism, the toolkit gives the following examples of educational activities (International Olympic Committee, 2007, 14):

- academic research, courses and seminars in universities and Olympic studies centres
- programmes of national and international Olympic academies and national Olympic committees
- information books, textbooks, videos, CDs and TV programmes on the Olympic Games and Olympic sport
- Olympic Day activities, Olympic festivals and competitions in schools and communities
- high-performance training and physical education from within the framework of Olympic values
- “Education through Olympism”: integrated and life-oriented values teaching programmes for children and young people
- education and youth programmes of OCOGs
- Olympic and sport youth camps
- Olympic museums, halls of fame, art and culture exhibitions
- marketing and promotion programmes of Olympic sponsors and supporters

For these methods to be implemented, an adequate organisational framework is required. From the outset, Coubertin had attempted to provide his “pédagogie sportive” with an institutional foundation. In 1926, he launched the “Bureau international de pédagogie sportive” in Lausanne, which published an annual bulletin and many of Coubertin’s own articles and books. It was followed by the “Centre d’études olympique” in Berlin, which existed from 1939 to 1944. Today, the Olympic Movement has its own permanent institutions with exclusive responsibility for Olympic education, above all the International Olympic Academy (IOA) which was founded as the main Olympic study centre in ancient Olympia in 1961. Apart from the IOA, there are seventy National Olympic Academies (NOAs) in the Olympic nations which have sprung up since 1966 and have made a considerable contribution towards spreading Olympism in schools and universities and among the public. One of the prime tasks of the IOA and the NOAs is to compile teaching materials and lesson plans that can be downloaded and used for free by schools and sports associations. At university level, the Centre d’Estudis Olímpics at the Autonomous University of Barcelona (CEO-UAB) with its International Chair in Olympism has become an international centre of reference in the field of Olympic studies, promoting scholarly research on Olympism and its impact on society.

According to Naul, the IOC has taken five major steps to promote Olympic education since World War II: (1) the founding of the International Olympic Academy; (2) the institution of Olympic Youth Camps alongside the Games; (3) the set-up of National Olympic Academies; (4) the call of the IOC at its 1994 centennial congress for a lasting promotion of Olympic ideals during the Games and (5) the decision by the IOC in 2007 to hold a separate sports competition event for 14-18-year-olds which later came to be known as the Youth Olympic Games (2008, 30 f.)

14 Cf. for instance the excellent collection of teaching materials on the website of the German Olympic Academy at http://www.doa-info.de/publikationen/unterrichtsmaterialien.
2.3. Olympic Motto

The famous Olympic motto consists of the three Latin words “citius altius fortius” (faster, higher, stronger). It is designed to encourage athletes to give their utmost during competitions.

The motto was adopted by Coubertin after being told about its use by the Dominican friar and teacher Henri Didon. Didon was headmaster of the school Albert-le-Grand d’Arcueil and, like Coubertin, was a sports education enthusiast. After a meeting between the two on 2 January 1891, Didon founded a sports society at his school and began to organise competitions with other schools. At one such competition, the school team came equipped with a pennant featuring an embroidered slogan reading “Citius, Altius, Fortius”. It was this formula that caught Coubertin's eye, as he himself recorded later on: “Tout l’athlétisme tient en ces trois mots que le Père Didon donna une fois pour devise sportive aux élèves de son école, à l’issue d’une partie de football : citius, fortius, altius ; plus vite – plus fort – plus haut. Ils forment un programme de beauté morale” (Müller 1986b, 89).

2.4. Olympic Creed

Usually shortened in common parlance to an expression like “it’s the taking part that counts, not the winning”, the Olympic creed was inspired by the words of the Bishop of Pennsylvania, Ethelbert Talbot, who is reported to have said during a sermon at the 1908 London Olympics: “The important thing in life is not the triumph, but the fight; the essential thing is not to have won, but to have fought well”. Pierre de Coubertin first used this phrase at a reception given by the British government on 24 July 1908 before it went on to become the Olympic creed.

The Olympic creed represents an ideal which Coubertin promoted as an important lesson for life learned from taking part in sports activities and, above all, the Olympic Games. It is the essence of what constitutes moral virtue in athletes and is one of the main objectives of Olympic education.

2.5. Olympiad

The Olympiad is the term used to designate a four-year interval associated with the Olympic Games. The term is derived from the Greek word Ὀλυμπιάς (Olympias) meaning “the space
of four years between the celebrations of the Olympic games [...] the common era of the Greeks, and used as an historical date" (Liddell & Scott, 1901d, 1045).

It used to be the case that an Olympiad started with the opening of one edition of the Games and ended with the beginning of the next Games. That definition was later changed to mean a period of “four consecutive calendar years, beginning on 1 January of the first year and ending on 31 December of the fourth year” (Bye-law 1 to Rule 6 of the Olympic Charter; International Olympic Committee, 2014d, 21), the first year meaning the year in which the Olympic Games are held. The term should therefore not be taken to stand for the Games themselves, which are correctly referred to as the “Games of the Olympiad”.

2.6. Olympic Family

As used by the IOC, the term describes participants in the Olympic Games who have been granted particular privileges for the duration of the Games. The Olympic family is made up of athletes and their families, officials, media and press representatives, sponsors and their guests, guests invited by the IOC, National Olympic Committee (NOC) members, International Sports Federations (IFs) and members of the Organising Committees of the Olympic Games (OCOG). The privileges they enjoy include preferential accommodation, special means of transport and preferential seating at competitions. IOC members are considered to be the highest-ranking members of the Olympic family.

2.7. Olympic Legacy

Olympic legacy is a term that describes the long-term beneficial effects of the Olympic Games on the host city. As one of the world’s sporting mega-events, the Olympic Games involve large sums of money that are invested in local infrastructure, the economy and other measures, which has the potential of changing the host city for the better even after the Games are over. Legacy is one of the factors that play an important part in the decision to award the Games. The applicant cities’ plans for the afterlife of its Olympic venues are increasingly taken into account by the IOC. This was the case when Rio de Janeiro was chosen for the 2016 Summer Olympics: the city proposed 27 government initiatives in the areas of infrastructure, the environment and social improvement, promoting the revitalisation of Rio de Janeiro’s historic port area, the extension of the metro system and the creation of a light rail transit (LRT) service in the city centre, sanitation improvements, anti-flood measures
and the construction of educational and sports facilities. While many of those facilities will remain in use following the Games, an innovative technique called ‘nomadic architecture’ will be used to convert some venues into schools.

In general, there are five types of Olympic legacy: sporting, social, environmental, urban and economic. These types can be further subdivided into tangible and intangible forms.

Legacies in tangible form include improvements in sports venues, infrastructure, transport, energy sources and urban development that aim to raise the quality of life for citizens. Very often, the stadiums built for the Games are used as permanent sporting venues afterwards. In London, many of newly erected venues were designed already with their subsequent use for professional and community sports in mind: the Olympic Stadium will play host to the World Athletics Championship in 2017 while the Aquatics Centre is now open to schools, associations and the general public. The availability of new and refurbished venues has also improved access to sports for amateurs, boosting interest in sports and helping to promote Olympism in society. Statistics from Barcelona show that thanks to the 1992 Olympics the proportion of local residents engaging in physical activity at least once a week rose from 36% to 51% between 1983 and 1995 (International Olympic Committee, 2013b, 18).

Intangible forms of legacy include the development of new professional skills and employment opportunities, educational programmes, peace initiatives, social inclusion measures, a sense of national identity in conjunction with a cosmopolitan outlook, stronger social cohesion, the fight against discrimination, an awareness of cultural practices and a heightened responsibility for the environment. In the UK, for instance, a new PE curriculum was introduced following the 2012 Olympics that makes participation in a competitive sport mandatory for all primary school pupils. Similarly, the four-year Cultural Olympiad in the UK culminated in the 12-week London 2012 Festival, the largest cultural event in the country’s history that saw the creation of nearly 200 permanent works of art. The local job market received a boost as more than half of all contractors for the Games came from the London area, with more than 30,000 unemployed Londoners getting back into work.

Not only the Olympic Games can leave behind a legacy as even unsuccessful bids to host the Olympics can entail benefits for the cities involved. Chicago, for example, one of the applicants for the 2016 Olympic Games that lost out to Rio de Janeiro used the bidding process to create a youth sports organisation that is still thriving.
Recently, the legacy concept was expanded to include the idea of sustainability. The IOC even amended the Olympic Charter (new Rules 2(13) and 2(14)) to include a specific mention of the creation of a sustainable Games legacy. However, as Girginov points out, this new approach is ambiguous as it “tries to satisfy the games’ insatiable drive for faster, higher, stronger (progress) while delivering the central tenets of sustainability including equality, solidarity and accountability” (2010a, 16). Greenfield et al. note that “[l]egacy has become a somewhat overused term” despite the fact that “there are no legal guarantees in place to ensure that a lasting legacy is actually delivered” (2012, 304 f.) Horne and Whannel are even more wary of the concept, warning against the risk of getting carried away by an all-too-positive rhetoric that ignores potential negative consequences of the Games: “legacy is a warm word, sounding positive, whereas if we consider the word ‘outcomes’ it is a more neutral word, permitting the discovery of both negative and positive outcomes” (2012, 202).

2.8. Olympic Solidarity

Olympic Solidarity is the name of a programme designed to provide financial and administrative assistance to National Olympic Committees (NOCs), particularly those with limited resources. The concept goes back to the 1960s when a Committee for International Olympic Aid was established to help NOCs in developing countries in Asia and Africa that had recently become independent from their former colonial powers. After some reorganisation, the Olympic Solidarity Commission was created in 1981 under the aegis of the IOC with the aim of distributing revenues from the Olympic Games to the NOCs. Today, the commission manages the activities of Olympic Solidarity and defines its policy guidelines, approving programmes and monitoring their implementation. Though being independent from a financial and administrative point of view, the Olympic Solidarity Commission regularly reports to the IOC Executive Board and to the president.

The objectives of the programme are set out in Rule 5 of the Olympic Charter and include assisting NOCs in the preparation of their athletes and teams for the Olympic Games, providing scholarships to improve the technical level of athletes and coaches in collaboration with NOCs and IFs, training sports administrators, constructing functional sports facilities, supporting the organisation of competitions and encouraging cooperation between NOCs.

Help is provided in four programme sections: world programmes, continental programmes, Olympic Games subsidies and complementary programmes. Olympic Solidarity obtains its funds entirely from the NOCs’ share in the TV rights for broadcasting the Olympic Games.
which it allocates to its programmes by means of four-year financial plans. The development
and assistance budget approved by the Olympic Solidary Commission for the 2013-2016
quadrennial plan amounts to USD 438m, corresponding to the share of the broadcast rights
from the Olympic Games in London and Sochi. The 2009-2012 quadrennial plan supported
10,000 NOC activities worldwide, including 2,100 scholarships for athletes, 1,300 training
courses for coaches and sports administrators and 650 initiatives to promote the Olympic
values.

2.9. The Olympic Truce

The Olympic Truce is a concept that requires nations or groups that are at war with each
other to cease their hostilities for a certain period of time, usually coinciding with the two-
week-long Olympic Games. This tradition of a temporary truce goes back to Ancient Greece
where a thirty-day truce called ἐκκεχείρια (ekecheiria) was introduced to allow athletes safe
passage on their journey to and from Olympia.\(^{15}\)

Although peace was one of Coubertin’s foremost concerns when he reinstituted the Olympic
Games in 1894, the Olympic truce was not an essential part of his project. It took almost a
century for it to be reintroduced in time for the Winter Games in Lillehammer in 1994. This
may be due to the somewhat paradoxical nature of Olympism, given that it aims to build
international peace and understanding by virtue of competition between national teams. Yet
it is actually in keeping with Olympism and the Olympic education, which start from the
premise that peace, like moral virtue, is not a natural state of affairs but can only be achieved
by making a deliberate effort. This is why “a time and place have to be set aside for it”, as
Reid claims (2006, 207). The relevance of peace to the Olympic Movement is borne out by
the Olympic Charter, which contains a reference to “promoting a peaceful society” in its

The Olympic truce is an idea that has a straightforward political dimension, showing that IOC
plays, or at any rate aspires to playing, an important role on the international political stage.
By promoting peace between nations during the Games, the Olympic truce is in line with the
ideals enshrined in the UN Charter. The decision to resuscitate the truce is a result of the
cooperation between the Olympic Movement and the UN in the early 1990s, a period marked
by the violent disintegration of the former Yugoslavia. The general concept of the Olympic

\(^{15}\) Described in Pausanias’ *Description of Greece*, cf. Paus. 5.20.1.
truce was elaborated by the Association of National Olympic Committees (ANOC) and submitted by the IOC to the UN Secretary General with a request for approval by the UN General Assembly. The proposal was backed unanimously by the General Assembly, which additionally decided to declare 1994 the “International Year of Sport and of the Olympic Ideal”. The truce has been proclaimed with formal approval by the United Nations at all Games ever since. At each edition of the Olympic Games, a “truce wall” is put up in the Olympic Village which athletes are asked to sign to express their support to the project.

Although far from leading to a suspension of all conflicts during the Games, the truce has achieved some remarkable results. For instance, the call launched by IOC president Antonio Samaranch to respect the Olympic truce during the Winter Games in Lillehammer was successful in Sudan, where the civil war between the Sudanese rebels and the government was suspended, in Georgia, where the conflict with Abkhazia came to halt, and in Bosnia, where a ceasefire arrangement supported by the UN General Assembly allowed 10,000 children to be vaccinated in one day. Other successes of the Olympic truce include the national teams of North and South Korea entering the Olympic stadium together under one flag. However, these few glimmers of hope cannot hide the fact that major recent conflicts such as the war in Iraq or the civil war in Syria have continued regardless, casting doubt on whether the Olympic Movement can really claim to be promoting peace. As Hoberman ironically notes, “[a]ny cause-and-effect relationship between the Olympic Games and the absence of armed conflict is suspect at best. The Olympic century that began in 1896 turned out to be the bloodiest in human history (though this fact did not prevent the IOC from seeking a Nobel Peace Prize)” (2008, 28).

The IOC has set up separate institutions entirely devoted to the idea of the Olympic truce. In 2000, the IOC created the International Olympic Truce Foundation (IOTF) with an office in ancient Olympia to promote the idea that sport and peace are interlinked. In turn, the IOTF established the International Olympic Truce Centre (IOTC) in Athens which oversees specific projects that try to foster peace through sport.

### 2.10. Olympic Games Knowledge Management

Olympic Games Knowledge Management (OGKS) refers to the system put in place to ensure that knowledge about the organisation of the Olympic Games is passed on from one host city to the next.
Each edition of the Olympic Games in a given host city is planned by an organisation set up specifically for that purpose, the Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (OCOG). During their roughly ten years of existence, the OCOG in question gathers vast amounts of information about setting up the Games and about ways to speed up or improve the process. Passing on that information would obviate the need for each subsequent OCOG to start from scratch and would enable it to learn more quickly, thus helping it to deliver a successful event within the constraints imposed by time and budget. To preserve the knowledge and to use the learning curve of OCOGs for the future, the IOC introduced a knowledge management system, first in the form of the transfer of knowledge (TOK) programme launched in 2000, then by founding an independent company named Olympic Games Knowledge Services (OGKS) in 2002 and finally by creating today’s Olympic Games Knowledge Management platform (OGKS) in 2005.

OGKM makes services and documentation available to future organisers to help them in their preparations of the Games. However, it allows them enough flexibility to take the context of each host city into account by adapting the experience to their specific local conditions. There are several programmes that are designed to gather and communicate knowledge about the Games, both tacitly and explicitly and both on an individual and on a collective level. The “observer programme”, for instance, arranges for future organisers to see the current Games’ preparations for themselves during visits and discussions. The “Games evaluation” and “IOC debriefing” programmes collect feedback and lessons learned from current organisers and pass this information on to the next host city during a seven-day debriefing seminar. Other ways of making knowledge available include workshops and technical manuals, publishing online information through what is known as the “OGKM Extranet” and the “secondee programme” which provides future organisers with the opportunity to do a stint at the current Games.

2.11. Olympic Rings and Flag

The Olympic rings are the only Olympic symbol properly speaking; each of the other representative elements is referred to by a different name. The symbol of the five interlocking rings on a white background was designed by Pierre de Coubertin as a visual representation of Olympism. It first appeared drawn by hand in the head of a letter sent by Coubertin in 1913. The rings and the flag were introduced by him at the Olympic Congress held in Paris in 1914. However, since World War I prevented the Games from taking place in Berlin as intended, it took six years before the flag and the rings were finally presented to the public at
the 1920 Summer Games in Antwerp. Before this event, however, the flag had already been in use at the Pan-Egyptian Games on 5 April 1914, at the San Francisco Exhibition in 1915 and at the 1919 IOC Session in Lausanne. The original flag remained in use until the Summer Games in Seoul in 1988, where a new Olympic flag made of silk was presented by the Koreans to the IOC. A second flag was donated by Norway in 1952 for the Oslo Games and has been used at all Winter Olympics ever since.

The Olympic flag is raised in the Olympic stadium during the opening ceremony and remains in place until it is lowered at the closing ceremony and solemnly handed over by the mayor of the current host city to the mayor of the next host city. The flag is supposed to be kept in the town hall of that city until the next Olympic Games.

The rings in the flag represent the five continents; they are interlinked in an allusion to the fact that the athletes come together from all over the world for the Olympic Games. The rings are arranged in two rows, with three rings appearing above and two in the lower row. From left to right, the rings in the upper row are blue, black and red, while in the lower row they are yellow and green. The six colours of the flag (i.e. those mentioned above plus the white background) represent all the nations of the world in a reference to the colours frequently used in national flags; the colours are not, as is widely believed, associated with the continents. Coubertin gave the following description of the rings and flag: “Le drapeau olympique, […], est tout blanc avec, au centre, cinq anneaux enlacés : bleu, jaune, noir, vert, rouge; […]. Ainsi dessiné, il est symbolique; il représente les cinq parties du monde unies par l’Olympisme et ses six couleurs d’autre part reproduisent celles de tous les drapeaux nationaux qui flottent à travers l’univers de nos jours” (Müller 1986b, 470).

Without doubt, the symbol of the rings is one of the most widely recognised in the world. These days, however, it is a registered trademark that is the exclusive property of the IOC and is subject to very strict regulations. There are precise graphic standards specifying the exact position and colour of each of the rings. The use of Olympic emblems, that is to say of designs displaying the Olympic rings in conjunction with other distinctive features, is reserved to members of the Olympic family (such as NOCs and OCOGs). For the Games, the use of emblems is also licensed to official sponsors, and anyone else who is caught using the rings in an emblem risks severe fines. At the London Olympics in 2012, the Organising Committee even put in place a so-called “branding police” to protect the sponsors’ rights, a measure that was widely criticised as overly severe and detrimental particularly to small businesses (cf. Addley, 2012).
## 2.12. Olympic Anthem

The Olympic anthem, or Olympic hymn as it is sometimes informally called, was composed by Spiros Samaras (music) and Kostis Palamas (lyrics). It was performed for the first time in 1896 at the first modern Games in Athens and was used again at the Games in 1906 before falling out of use. In 1954, following a competition launched by the IOC for a new anthem, an atonal composition by Michael Spisak with words from Pindar’s Odes was briefly favoured as a new Olympic anthem but then dropped because of its unpopularity. The IOC decided to return to the Samaras’ and Palamas’ composition, which was again performed at the 1958 Summer Olympics in Rome.

The Olympic anthem is part of the official protocol of the Olympic Games opening ceremonies. It has been played at all Games since 1958 and accompanies the entry of the Olympic flag in the Olympic stadium.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original Greek version</th>
<th>English translation</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Άρχαίο Πνεύμα αθάνατο, αγνέ πατέρα του ωραίου, του μεγάλου και τ’ αληθινού Κατέβα, φανερώσου κι άστραψε εδώ πέρα στη δόξα της δικής σου γης και τ’ ουρανού Στο δρόμο και στο πάλεμα και στο λιθάρι Στων ευγενών αγώνων λάμψε την οριμή Και με το αμάραντο στεφάνωσε κλωνάρι και σιδερένιο πλάσε και άξιο το κορμί και σιδερένιο πλάσε και άξιο το κορμί Κάμποι, βουνά και θάλασσες φέγγουνε μαζί σου σαν ένας λευκοπόρφυρος μέγας ναός Και τρέχει στο ναό εδώ προσκυνητής σου Και τρέχει στο ναό εδώ προσκυνητής σου</td>
<td>Immortal spirit of antiquity, Father of the true, beautiful and good, Descend, appear, shed over us thy light Upon this ground and under this sky Which has first witnessed thy unperishable fame Give life and animation to those noble games! Throw wreaths of fadeless flowers to the victors In the race and in the strife! Create in our breasts, hearts of steel! In thy light, plains, mountains and seas Shine in a roseate hue and form a vast temple To which all nations throng to adore thee, O immortal spirit of antiquity!</td>
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2.13. Olympic Flame and Torch Relay

Together with the flag, the Olympic flame and torch relay are the most well-known identifying elements of the Games. Fire, of course, holds a special place in human history as it is probably the most important element that marked the transition from a state of nature into a state of culture. Often regarded as sacred, it is used in religious rites in many faiths and religions. The Ancient Greeks, for instance, had a permanent fire burning outside their largest temples. In ancient Olympia, the site of the Olympic Games in Antiquity, a fire burnt on the altars of Zeus and Hera during the Games. Fire was also an important part of the ancient torch races, or lampadedromia, held in Athens in honour of the gods associated with fire.

This powerful symbol is also a part of the Olympic Movement. In 1928, the Olympic flame made its first appearance in modern times at the Amsterdam Olympics. It was lit again for the Los Angeles Games in 1932, though for the last time at the actual site where the Games were held. In 1936, Carl Diem, secretary-general of the Organising Committee for the Olympic Games in Berlin and important figure in the history of Olympism, came up with the idea of lighting the flame in ancient Olympia and staging a torch relay enlisting the help of 3,000 participants to transport it all the way to Berlin. The first runner to carry the torch was Konstantin Kondylis, a young Greek who set off on his journey on 20 July 1936. The distance of 3,075 kilometres was covered entirely on foot in 12 days, beginning with the flame ceremony in Olympia and passing through seven countries taking part in the Games, notably Greece, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, Hungary, Austria, Czechoslovakia and Germany. The flame entered the Olympic stadium in Berlin on 1 August 1936 carried by German athlete Fritz Schilgen. The first Winter Games to use the torch relay were the Oslo Winter Olympics of 1952. The flame was not lit in Olympia but in a valley in Norway. However, Olympia has been the starting point for all Winter Olympics torch relays ever since the Winter Games in Innsbruck in 1964.

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16 Cited in “Ξεπερασε τις προσδοκιες” (2012, 37).
Today, as specified by Rule 13 of the Olympic Charter, the Olympic flame is still lit under the authority of the IOC during a ceremony before the former temple of Hera at Olympia in Greece in reference to the ancient Greek roots of the Olympic Games, creating a link between the ancient and the modern Games. The lighting ceremony is always organised by the Hellenic Olympic Committee (HOC) which also oversees the transport of the flame by runners to the ancient Panathinaiko stadium in Athens which was used for the 1896 Games. At Olympia, a curved mirror is used to light the torch by concentrating the rays of the sun. The torch is then handed over to the first torchbearer by a woman dressed in ancient costume and posing as a priestess of Hera. Once it has left Greece, the torch relay is organised under the responsibility of the Organising Committee of the Olympic Games (Rule 54 of the Olympic Charter). On its journey, the torch, stopping over in various places, is deemed to spread the values associated with Olympism throughout the world. Technically, the torch relay does not only involve one torch for the entire journey; instead, the sacred flame is passed on from one torch to the next. On its arrival in the host city, the final torchbearer carries the torch into the stadium before lighting the Olympic cauldron with the flame, which remains burning for the entire duration of the Games and is only extinguished at the closing ceremony.

2.14. Olympic Oath

The Olympic oath is sworn by various participants in the Olympic Games who pledge that they will observe the values of Olympism in their activities. It was devised by Coubertin in reference to the ancient Greek tradition of athletes competing in the Games at Olympia taking an oath before the statue of Zeus that they would abide by the rules.

The Olympic oath has become a part of the official protocol of the Olympic Games opening ceremonies. In the version conceived by Coubertin, it was sworn for the first time by the Belgian fencer Victor Boin at the 1920 Antwerp Summer Olympics in the name of all athletes taking part in the Games. The words have been modified over time to respond to changes in the nature of the sports competitions, for instance by incorporating an allusion to doping in the athletes’ oath at the 2000 Sydney Olympics. It is required that the person taking the oath must be a competitor and a national of the host country, and they must mount a rostrum and hold a corner of the Olympic flag as they say the words (rather than swearing on the entrails of a sacrificed animal, as used to be the case in Ancient Greece).
Today, the oath is not only taken by an athlete but also by a referee and a coach. The first time an oath was taken by a judge was at the opening ceremony of the 1972 Games in Munich, while the coaches’ oath was added to the Olympics protocol at the 2012 Summer Games in London after having been used for the first time at the Youth Olympic Games in Singapore in 2010. The three oaths are taken one after the other.

The current versions of the oaths are as follows (cited in International Olympic Committee, 2014c, 3):

**Athletes’ oath:**

“In the name of all the competitors I promise that we shall take part in these Olympic Games, respecting and abiding by the rules which govern them, committing ourselves to a sport without drugs, in the true spirit of sportsmanship, for the glory of sport and the honour of our teams.”

**Oath for judges and officials:**

“In the name of all the judges officials, I promise that we shall officiate in these Olympic Games with complete impartiality, respecting and abiding by the rules which govern them, in the true spirit of sportsmanship.”

**Oath for coaches:**

“In the name of all the coaches and other members of the athletes’ entourage, I promise that we shall commit ourselves to ensuring that the spirit of sportsmanship and fair play is fully adhered to and upheld in accordance with the fundamental principles of Olympism.”
3. DOCUMENTS

3.1. The Olympic Charter

The Olympic Charter\(^\text{18}\) represents a sort of “founding constitution of the Olympic Movement” (Greenfield et al., 2012, 309). It sets out the rules that apply to all the principal institutions of the Olympic Movement such as the IOC, IFs, NOCs while also regulating the organisation of the Olympic Games. The Charter itself outlines a threefold purpose: (1) setting forth and recalling the Fundamental Principles and essential values of Olympism; (2) serving as statutes for the International Olympic Committee; and (3) defining the main reciprocal rights and obligations of the three main constituents of the Olympic Movement, namely the IOC, the IFs and the NOCs, as well as the OCOGs (cf. International Olympic Committee 2014, 9).

This rulebook has been continuously modified over time\(^\text{19}\). Its first version, titled “Comité International Olympique: Annuaire”, was adopted in 1908 based on handwritten notes which Coubertin had made after setting up the IOC in 1894. After changing its name a number of times, the document became officially known as the “Olympic Charter” in 1978. It is amended regularly, often as the result of reviews conducted by the IOC Reforms Commission or Ethics Commission, though many of the policies originally adopted in the 1890s remain intact. Only the IOC Session as the supreme organ of the IOC has the power to modify the Charter. It was extensively revised between 1982 and 1990 in an effort to tidy up its structure and to update its content by incorporating a range of previous amendments. As a result of the 1998/99 corruption scandal over the Salt Lake City Winter Games,\(^\text{20}\) a number of major amendments were introduced with respect to IOC membership. In 2014, following the controversy about LGBT rights at the Sochi Winter Games, the anti-discrimination section in the Fundamental Principles was extended to include a specific mention of “sexual orientation”. The most recent edition available for this study is the amended version of December 2014.

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\(^{18}\) The text of the Olympic Charter has been included here in Annex 2 for convenience. However, all specific references to the Charter in this thesis will be to the pages of the original version as published by the International Olympic Committee on its website (see the reference section, International Olympic Committee, 2014d).

\(^{19}\) All previous editions of the Olympic Charter are available online at http://www.olympic.org/olympic-charters?tab=the-charter-through-time.

\(^{20}\) Cf. section 4.1 on the IOC below.
The Olympic Charter has a complex structure. It is divided into rules and bye-laws, the latter constituting a sort of implementing provisions. Many rules consist of several subsections or paragraphs and are accompanied by a set of bye-laws pertaining to that rule following immediately below. The Charter contains six chapters with a total of 61 rules that are preceded by a preamble and a section titled “Fundamental Principles of Olympism”. The six chapter headings are indicative of the scope of the Charter. They read: (1) “The Olympic Movement”, (2) “The International Olympic Committee”; (3) “The International Federations”; (4) “The National Olympic Committees”; (5) “The Olympic Games”; (6) “Measures and sanctions, disciplinary procedures and dispute resolution”. The Fundamental Principles are arguably the most important part of the Charter as they articulate the ideology or ethos that sets the Olympic Movement apart from other sports organisations. It is this section that contains the sweeping statements on Olympism that are often criticised for their vagueness and ambiguity. Moreover, the Charter sets out the nature of the relationship between the individual constituents of the Olympic Movement.

The Charter has been criticised for being out of step with the lofty ideals of Olympism and for not living up to its aims. Rather than setting out the values of Olympism in a manifesto, it has an exclusively legal purpose: according to Jennings, the Charter was not “drafted by poets, philosophers and altruists. In fact it was hammered out by a bunch of lawyers” (1996, 12).

3.2. Code of Ethics

The Code of Ethics sets out the principles that should guide the conduct of all members belong to the Olympic Movement. It is drafted under the responsibility of the IOC Ethics Commission and was first adopted at the 1999 IOC Session, which also ruled on establishing the commission following the 1998/99 bribery scandal that had cast doubt on the ethical conduct of IOC members.

Just as WADA\textsuperscript{21} and its World Anti-Doping Code regulate doping, the Ethics Commission and its Code of Ethics have been established to deal with corruption. According to Rule 22 of the Olympic Charter, the Code of Ethics must be based on the values and principles laid down in the Olympic Charter and forms an integral part of the latter. All members of the Olympic Movement are expected to draft a similar code of ethics or to adopt the IOC Code of

\textsuperscript{21} The World Anti-Doping Agency (see chapter 4.10 below).
Ethics in a written declaration. The IOC Ethics Commission is an independent body composed of nine members, most of which are non-IOC members. Notwithstanding its formal independence, all texts and regulations emanating from the commission must be submitted to the Executive Board for approval. The commission meets at least twice a year or more frequently if urgent cases need to be dealt with.

The Code of Ethics is divided into seven sections with the following headings: (A) Dignity; (B) Integrity; (C) Good governance and resources; (D) Candidatures; (E) Relations with states; (F) Confidentiality and (G) Implementation. Since its introduction in 1999, the code has been revised several times to accommodate changes in the world of sport, focusing in particular on the issues of betting on Olympic Games competitions and basic universal principles of good governance. Over the years, the code has been complemented by a series of other texts and implementing provisions, for instance directions concerning the election of the IOC president, rules concerning conflicts of interest, rules of conduct for applicant cities and rules of conduct for International Sports Federations (IFs) wishing to be included in the Olympic programme.

The Code of Ethics and all the implementing provisions must be observed by all “Olympic parties” – a term consistently used throughout the Code of Ethics that is defined as including the IOC, its members and administration; the cities that wish to organise the Olympic Games and the Youth Olympic Games; the National Olympic Committees (NOCs); the Organising Committees for the Olympic Games and the Youth Olympic Games (OCOGs); and all participants in the Olympic Games and the Youth Olympic Games, in particular the athletes and their entourage, the NOCs and International Federations’ (IFs) delegations, the referees and the judges.

Based on the Code of Ethics, the Ethics Commission conducts the complaints procedure and recommends possible sanctions. Anyone can submit a complaint either in writing or through the Integrity and Compliance Hotline, an online platform that can be used to report violations of the Code of Ethics, suspected manipulations of competitions or any other misconduct. However, the IOC president alone decides whether a case is submitted to the Ethics Commission for consideration. If a case is referred to it, the commission launches a confidential investigation which is sometimes led by a rapporteur. It is free to hear any person that can contribute to elucidating the alleged facts. After coming to a conclusion, the commission compiles a report about the outcomes of its investigation and submits a

22 The hotline can be found at https://secure.registration.olympic.org/en/issue-reporter/index.
recommendation about any measures or sanctions (as set out in Rules 16(3.8) and 59 of the Olympic Charter, for instance suspension, expulsion or withdrawal of an Olympic Games accreditation) to the IOC Executive Board. The Executive Board then makes its own decision or, in particularly serious cases, refers the case to be decided by the IOC Session. At the end of the process the decision is published.

The complaints procedure, however, has been hampered by the ever-increasing complexity of the Code of Ethics and its accompanying legislation. As Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott have noted: “When reading all these texts, in part redundant and reworked over the years, the impression gained is one of a juridical tangle that is difficult for common mortals to grasp” (2008, 161).

### 3.3. Medical Code

In 2009, the IOC Executive Board adopted the new IOC Medical Code, also called Medical Guidelines, elaborated by the Medical Commission. The commission was set up in 1967 to deal with the growing problem of doping in sports, but its mission now centres around three general principles: protection of the health of athletes, respect for both medical and sports ethics and equality for all competing athletes.

The Medical Code regulates the relationship between athletes and health care providers and sets out principles for the protection and promotion of the athletes’ health during training and competition. In its introduction, the Code states: “The Olympic Movement […] should take care that sport is practised without danger to the health of the athletes and with respect for fair play and sports ethics. To that end, it takes the measures necessary to protect the health of participants and to minimise the risks of physical injury and psychological harm. It also protects the athletes in their relationships with physicians and other health care providers” (International Olympic Committee, 2009, 3).

### 3.4. World Anti-Doping Code & Prohibited List

Before the World Ant-Doping Code came into effect on 1 January 2004, a range of documents had been adopted to deal with drug abuse in sports. The first legal instrument at international level was the Anti-Doping Charter for Sport, promulgated by the Council of Europe in 1984 and subsequently approved by the General Association of International Sports Federations (GAISF). In June 1988, a conference held in Ottawa and co-chaired by the Canadian government and the IOC adopted an International Anti-Doping Charter that was similar to the one drafted by the Council of Europe. Finally, a conference specifically convened for the purpose in Copenhagen in March of 2003 approved the World Anti-Doping Code, which was adopted by the IOC and all the IFs and NOCs just in time for the 2004 Summer Olympics in Athens – the IOC had threatened that failure to do so had would have entailed their exclusion from the Olympic Movement. Apart from the Olympic institutions, the Code was also adopted by some 500 national and international sport associations.

The World Anti-Doping Code underwent two major revisions to bring it into line with recent developments in sports. After a thorough consultation process, the second edition of the Code was unanimously approved by WADA’s foundation board. Having been adopted at the Third World Conference on Doping in Sport in 2007, it entered into force on 1 January 2009. One important change was the possibility of extending or reducing the two-year suspension incurred by athletes for a first positive test under the 2003 code, with a maximum suspension period of four years. The Code was revised again beginning in 2011, and a third version incorporating some 2,000 changes was adopted in 2013 and entered into force on 1 January 2015. The 2015 Code is both clearer and shorter than the previous two versions.

The World Anti-Doping Code is a non-governmental document that applies only to members of sports organisations. To give it international legal effect, it has been supplemented by UNESCO’s International Convention on Doping in Sport which entered into force on 1 February 2007 and which provides a legal framework under which governments can tackle the problem of doping outside the domain of sports organisations. By establishing global anti-doping rules, policies and guidelines, the Convention helps to combat doping at an intergovernmental level.

The World Anti-Doping Code has been an effective mechanism to streamline and harmonise anti-doping measures worldwide. Besides being supported by governments and sports associations, it also plays an important part in rulings by the Court of Arbitration for Sport (TAS/CAS).
Since 2004, the World Anti-Doping Code has been accompanied by a list of prohibited substances and methods known as the Prohibited List. It includes all known substances and methods that satisfy any two of the following three criteria: (a) potential to enhance or enhances sports performance; (b) an actual or potential health risk to the athlete; (c) use violates the spirit of sport. Substances or methods which mask the effect of prohibited substances are also prohibited. The substances and methods on the list are classified according to different categories (e.g. steroids, stimulants, gene doping). The list is regularly updated to keep up with changes in practice.

3.5. Official Publications

In July 1894, the first Bulletin du Comité International des Jeux Olympiques was published with the aim of serving as the official source of information about the Olympic Movement. It was edited on and off from 1894 onwards and changed its title a number of times. Since 1970, it has been edited on a monthly basis in English, French, German and Spanish, under its current official title Olympic Review, Revue Olympique, Olympische Rundschau and Revista Olímpica. Commonly, the Olympic Review publishes the minutes of meetings as well as the decisions of Olympic Sessions and Congresses (and, from 1921, the Executive Committee/ Executive Board meetings), the status of members and stories related to the Olympics.

The Olympic Message was the name of another official journal that was published three or four times a year between May 1982 and December 1994. In contrast to the Olympic Review, each issue of the Olympic Message centred around a specific topic related to the Olympic Movement.

Today, the IOC issues a broad range of publications: presidents' speeches, the Olympic Charter and its amendments, manuals and fact sheets on the Olympic Movement and Games, historical overviews as well as comic books, postcards and posters. A collection of major publications, reports, studies and documents on the Olympic Movement can be found online at http://www.olympic.org/in the document section.
4. INSTITUTIONS

4.1. Olympic Movement

The Olympic Movement is a central yet ambiguous concept. In an abstract sense, it describes the effort to unite the international community around a common sports festival called Olympic Games with the aim of providing educational incentives and promoting peace; more concretely, it can be taken to refer to the sum of all official Olympic institutions that promote Olympism, above all by harnessing the high profile of the Olympic Games. The Olympic Movement is defined in Rule 1(1) of the Olympic Charter as “encompass[ing] organisations, athletes and other persons who agree to be guided by the Olympic Charter” with the aim of “building a peaceful and better world by educating youth through sport practised in accordance with Olympism and its values” (International Olympic Committee 2014, 15). Though not being an institution in its own right, the Olympic Movement is the highest and most abstract level in the hierarchy of the Olympic system, a sort of generic term that subsumes all other official Olympic institutions and actors.

The three main constituents of the Olympic Movement are the International Olympic Committee (IOC), the International Sports Federations (IFs) and the National Olympic Committees (NOCs). Yet there are other key organisations and groups that have an interest in the Olympic Movement and are involved in the organisation of the Olympics. They include the Organising Committees for the Olympic Games (OCOGs), which are locally responsible for organising the Games, as well as the Sports Federations (NFs), the clubs and the individuals belonging to the IFs and NOCs, above all the athletes, who are at the centre of public attention at the Games, but also referees, judges, coaches and other sports officials and technicians.

Together these actors constitute what Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott have termed the “classical Olympic system”, for which they have come up with the following graphic representation (2008, 7):
The three pillars of the Olympic Movement are sport, culture and the environment (the latter having been introduced in 1994). Belonging to the Olympic Movement requires compliance with the Olympic Charter and recognition by the IOC.

### 4.2. International Olympic Committee

The International Olympic Committee, famously known as the IOC for short, was founded by Pierre de Coubertin and his circle of followers on 23 June 1894. It is described in Rule 1 of the Olympic Charter as having “supreme authority and leadership” over the Olympic Movement (International Olympic Committee, 2014d, 15). As the highest ranking institution of the Olympic Movement, it represents a sort of umbrella organisation for the others and has control over all entities, individuals and events within the context of the Olympic Movement. It owns all rights to the Olympic symbols (the rings and the flag), the Olympic motto and anthem and to the Olympic Games.

The IOC is defined in the Olympic Charter as “an international non-governmental not-for-profit, of unlimited duration, in the form of an association with the status of a legal person, recognised by the Swiss Federal Council” (International Olympic Committee 2014, 31). Its mission includes implementing decisions taken by the Sessions, Executive Board and the president, coordinating the work of the IOC commissions, overseeing the preparation and
celebration of the Olympic Games, supervising the bidding process and advising applicant and host cities, licensing broadcasting rights for the Olympic Games, liaising with all institutions belonging to the Olympic Movement, operating the Olympic Museum and the Olympic Study Centre in Lausanne, promoting research and editing publications on the Olympic Movement, promoting amateur and professional sport and ensuring compliance with the Olympic Charter.

The IOC’s headquarters were originally located in Coubertin’s private offices in Paris but were moved to Lausanne on 10 April 1915, where they have remained ever since. Since 1968, they have been located in the Chateau de Vidy and its annexe, Olympic House, which was built in 1986. The relationship between the IOC and the Swiss government is an important aspect of the IOC’s day-to-day business operations. Administrative work at the IOC headquarters is managed by a secretariat (officially labelled IOC Administration) operated by a director general and around 500 staff. There are twelve departments which in turn are organised into different task units. The following is a graphic representation of the IOC’s internal structure (taken from Chappelet & Kübler-Mabbott, 2008, 32):

Figure 2: The internal structure of the IOC (taken from Chappelet & Kübler-Mabbott, 2008, 32)
The twelve departments are: Olympic Games, International Cooperation and Development, Finance and Administration, Sports, Relations with the National Olympic Committees, Technology and Information, Communications, Television and Marketing Services, Legal Affairs, Medical and Scientific, Olympic Museum and Olympic Solidarity.

The IOC also entertains relations with other international organisations such the EU, the UN and UNESCO. Having had UN Observer Status since 2009, the IOC was formally recognised by the UN following a resolution adopted at the 69th session of the UN General Assembly in 2014 which states that the General Assembly "supports the independence and autonomy of sport as well as the mission of the IOC in leading the Olympic Movement".

4.2.1. Controversial issues

The IOC is the one body of the Olympic Movement that has consistently come under severe criticism over the past decades, having repeatedly been accused of corruption, lack of transparency and overreach. Arguably the most vocal critic of the IOC is the investigative sports reporter Andrew Jennings, whose controversial book *The Lords of the Rings: Power, Money and Drugs in the Modern Olympics* co-authored with Vyv Simson caused an uproar when it was published in 1992 (cf. Simson & Jennings, 1992). The main thrust of their argument is directed at what they perceive as the IOC’s quasi-authoritarian power, complaining that the Olympics do not belong to the athletes but are the exclusive property of the IOC. The authors were even sued for libel by the IOC and its then president, Antonio Samaranch.

In 1998, a corruption scandal erupted over the attribution of the 2002 Winter Olympics to Salt Lake City. On 12 December, following revelations on scholarships awarded by the Salt Lake City Organising Committee to IOC members or their relatives, Swiss IOC member Marc Hodler gave an interview to the press claiming that at least 5 to 7 per cent of IOC members had accepted bribes from applicant cities in exchange for their votes. The subsequent investigations into the way the IOC conducted its business revealed that the Olympic Movement was mired in corruption on many levels. As a result of the scandal, ten members were expelled from the IOC, limitations were placed on business trips and the Ethics Commission was set up. Another significant measures in response to the scandal was the creation of the IOC 2000 Commission which was tasked with reviewing the structure of the IOC and the bidding process and with making suggestions on how these could be improved.
The Commission had 82 members, with less than half coming from the IOC itself. Its final report was published in November 1999 and contained 50 recommendations, e.g. limiting the number of IOC members to 115 and their term of office to eight years allowing for one re-election, imposing an age limit of 70 years across the board, increasing the number of Executive Board members to 15 and limiting the president’s term of office to eight years with the possibility of being re-elected for another four years. All 50 recommendations were adopted by the IOC. However, suspicion persists among some critics, who have accused the Olympic Movement of being “a racket that has provided the IOC’s ruling elite with small luxuries and a fleeting celebrity very few of them could have achieved on their own. The IOC has served as a home for a long procession of shady and self-serving people” (Hoberman, 2008, 28).

Criticism has also been levelled at the IOC for wielding too much power and influence. The Olympic Movement and its principal emanation, the IOC, are formidable actors on the international stage, yet their role is not easy to define. The fact that they do not fit into the traditional pattern of international organisations casts doubts over their status and leaves them open to criticism. A number of commentators have attempted to clarify this issue by comparing them to other international organisations. In view of its political relevance and connections at the level of international diplomacy, Roche has described the Olympic Movement as “the biggest and probably the most important cultural INGO [i.e. international non-governmental organisation, SH] in the world/international system outside of world religions and scientific associations” (2000, 196). Black and Peacock take a more complex view by pointing out that “the IOC embodies key elements of three of the four actor types that characterize contemporary network diplomacy (i.e. NGOs [non-governmental organisations, SH], IGOs [intergovernmental organisations, SH], and MNCs [multinational companies, SH])” (2013, 709). On a more critical note, they explain that, given “the de facto privileges and immunities (e.g. extraterritoriality, legal exemptions, treaty-making and monitoring, etc.) it has consistently enjoyed, the IOC has functional equivalence to an IGO”, while “commercialization of the Olympic ‘brand’ over the past several decades has made the IOC an exorbitantly wealthy NGO, so much so that much of its behaviour, policies, and accounting measures more closely resemble a large MNC” (ibid.) Parry has outlined parallels “between the Olympic Movement and the United Nations, two global organizations facing similar problems in regard to universality and particularity. The general problem faced by both is how they are to operate at a global (universal) level while there are such apparently intractable differences at the particular level” (2006, 202). This comparison is in line with the global ambitions of the IOC itself, which according to Black and Peacock “has often portrayed itself as the United Nations (or, as Coubertin put it in an earlier era, a ‘miniature
League of Nations’) of global sport” (2013, 710). The current IOC president Thomas Bach, however, has rejected this claim, insisting that the IOC “is neither a world government, nor a superior world parliament” (“Bach: IOC doesn't always agree with host country politics”, 2015, para. 13).

More recently, the IOC has taken a more constructive approach in response to criticism, for instance by drafting a reform agenda titled “Olympic Agenda 2020” that was unanimously adopted at the 127th IOC Session in December 2014. The agenda contains 40 recommendations on a wide range of topics, including an emphasis on bringing all aspects of the Olympic Movement in line with the concept of sustainability, but also a proposal for the creation of a digital Olympic Channel to enhance the media profile of athletes and sports between the Olympics and to educate the public on Olympic history, culture and values.

4.2.2. Members

The IOC members are all natural persons. In contrast to other international organisation, they act as representatives of the IOC in their home countries rather than as their country’s delegate within the IOC, as stated in Rule 16(1.4) of the Olympic Charter: “Members of the IOC represent and promote the interests of the IOC and of the Olympic Movement in their countries and in the organisations of the Olympic Movement in which they serve” (International Olympic Committee, 2014, 33). They are co-opted onto the IOC by their peers. This idea goes back to Coubertin, who offered the following explanation for this peculiar arrangement, which he called “reverse delegation” (Müller, 2000, 743):

The privilege of the committee nominating its own members is essential. They act in their respective countries rather as “ambassadors” of the committee, and if I use such an expression, as “the trustees of the Olympic Idea”. Their independence and stability answer for the great work achieved by the committee. (ibid., 736)

Currently, the IOC has 102 members, 34 honorary members and 1 honour member.23 When it was founded in 1894, the IOC had 15 members, all belonging to the ruling class, as Andrew Jennings noted in a biting comment:

23 As per April 2015. The current list of members is available at http://www.olympic.org/ioc-members-list.
Among the first 15 members were five European nobles and two generals. By the turn of the century Coubertin added ten more princes, counts and barons. From then until 1914 35 more members drawn from the ruling classes graciously accepted invitations to run the People’s Games. (2012, 462)


Sweeping changes to membership were introduced following the 1998/99 bribery scandal. According to Rule 16 of the Olympic Charter, which governs members, membership is now limited to 115, with a maximum of 70 individual members, 15 active athletes, 15 representatives of the IFs and 15 representatives of the NOCs. Each new member must take an oath of admission in which they undertake to respect the IOC Charter, to comply with the Code of Ethics, to resist any political and commercial influence and to fight against all forms of discrimination. Members must attend the annual Sessions, participate in the many commissions or hold an office in any other body recognised by the IOC. Several criteria exist for cessation of membership, including being over 70 years old, failing to attend Sessions or to take an active part in the work of the IOC and moving one’s domicile to a different country. Members can also be expelled from the IOC for “neglect[ing] or knowingly jeopardis[ing] the interests of the IOC or act[ing] in a way which is unworthy of the IOC” (International Olympic Committee, 2014d, 36). A peculiar feature is the distinction between “honorary members”, i.e. long-serving IOC members who have demonstrated exceptional merit, and “honour members”, a status reserved for eminent persons from outside the IOC.

4.2.3. Presidents

Though being the founder of the modern Olympic Movement, Pierre de Coubertin was not the first president of the IOC. Originally, he had the idea of a rotating presidency, with the president coming from the country hosting the Olympic Games. As the first Games were to be held in Athens in 1896, it was the Greek IOC member Demetrius Vikelas (sometimes transliterated as Bikelas) who was chosen as the first president. The rule of changing the president with each edition of the Games was quickly dropped, so that in its more than 120 years of history the IOC has only seen nine presidents:

List of IOC presidents and their terms of office
Demetrios Vikelas (Greece) 1894 – 1896
Pierre de Coubertin (France) 1896 – 1925
Henri de Baillet-Latour (Belgium) 1925 – 1942
Sigfrid Edström (Sweden) 1946 – 1952
Avery Brundage (USA) 1952 – 1972
Lord Killanin (Ireland) 1972 – 1980
Juan Antonio Samaranch (Spain) 1980 – 2001
Jacques Rogge (Belgium) 2001 – 2013
Thomas Bach (Germany) 2013 –

Today, in accordance with Rule 20 of the Olympic Charter, the president is elected by secret ballot for a period of eight years, with the possibility of a single extension of four years. Jacques Rogge is the honorary president of the IOC.

The president is officially only the head of IOC Administration. Theoretically, presidents wield little power, and most of their decisions must be approved by the Executive Board. The Olympic Charter stipulates that presidents can only appoint working groups and commissions (apart from the Executive Board and the Athletes Commission). In reality, though, the president is very influential and even enjoys a certain financial autonomy that allows him to allocate major sums to projects at his own discretion. The office of president has gained in prestige over time and is now a full-time position, in contrast to former presidents who did not get heavily involved in the Olympic Movement beyond administrative affairs. Presidents still receive no remuneration, however, even though all expenses related to their duties are paid by the IOC.

4.2.4. Executive Board (EB)

The Executive Board is the “government” of the IOC. Created in 1921 and known as the Executive Committee until 1955, the Executive Board is responsible for the administration and management of the affairs of the IOC. It is composed of the president of the IOC, four vice-presidents and ten other members that are elected by the IOC Session in a secret ballot, by a majority of votes cast. These other members are usually the chairs or presidents of the IOC Athletes’ Commission, of the Association of Summer Olympic International Federations (ASOIF), of the Association of the International Olympic Winter Sports Federations (AIOWSF) and of the Association of National Olympic Committees (AIOC). Members are elected for a four-year term and are allowed to serve for two consecutive terms, after which they need to wait two years before being re-eligible.
The Executive Board meets four or five times a year, usually at the request of the president or of the majority of its members. Meetings often take place alongside an IF or NOC association meeting. The Executive Board is responsible for taking relevant decisions in-between Sessions, but it also submits recommendations to the Sessions, which are rarely opposed. The duties of the Executive Board include:
- assuming the general overall responsibility for the administration of the IOC;
- monitoring the observance of the Olympic Charter;
- approving the IOC’s internal organisation, its organisation chart and all internal regulations relating to its organisation;
- managing the IOC’s finances and preparing an annual report;
- presenting a report to the Session on any proposed change of the Olympic Charter, one of its Rules or Bye-laws;
- submitting the names of the persons it recommends for election to the IOC to the IOC Session;
- conducting the procedure for acceptance and selection of candidatures for the organisation of the Olympic Games;
- establishing the agenda for the IOC Sessions;
- appointing the director general on nomination by the president;
- enacting all regulations necessary to ensure the proper implementation of the Olympic Charter and the organisation of the Olympic Games (in the form of codes, rulings, norms, guidelines, guides or instructions);
- organising periodic meetings with the IFs and with the NOCs at least once every two years;
- awarding IOC honorary distinctions;
- performing all other duties assigned to it by the Session.

4.2.5. IOC Sessions

The Session is the annual general assembly of the Olympic Movement and the supreme authority and “parliament” of the IOC. It decides on the main issues concerning the IOC, such as choosing the host cities of the Games, determining the sports programme of the Olympic Games and electing new members). Sessions have been held every year since the revival of the Olympic Games, apart from the years during the two World Wars. Initially, these meetings were referred to as congresses, but this term is now used for a different kind of assembly. From 1936 to 1992, two Sessions per year were held, but after the Winter Games were shifted by two years in 1994 the IOC reverted to the practice of meeting once a year. Occasionally, Extraordinary Sessions are called at the request of the president or of at least
one third of IOC members. Sessions usually last for 2-3 days. In years in which the Olympics are celebrated, they traditionally take place a week or so before.

The main duties of the IOC Session are as follows (adapted from International Olympic Committee, 2015, 1):
- electing the host city of the Olympic Games, seven years before they are held.
- electing the IOC president, vice-presidents and other members of the Executive Board
- electing IOC members following a proposal by the Executive Board
- adopting amendments to the Olympic Charter
- deciding on the inclusion or removal of a sport on the programme of the Olympic Games
- deciding on the recognition (or exclusion) of International Federations (IFs), National Olympic Committees (NOCs) or any other sports organisation which submits a request
- selecting the cities which will host forthcoming Sessions (the president decides on the location of Extraordinary Sessions)
- approving the reports and accounts of the IOC

Meetings at the Session are accompanied by a comprehensive programme of cultural activities. The meetings themselves follow a strict protocol. The session is chaired by the IOC president or, in his absence, the longest-serving vice-president who is present. The required quorum for the decisions of the Session to be valid is half the total membership of the IOC plus one. Every member has one vote; voting by proxy is not allowed. Abstentions and spoiled or blank votes are not counted. IOC members must abstain from voting if the vote relates to a city (Olympic Games, Session, Congress), a person (IOC member) or any other matter from his or her country. The majority of votes cast determines the outcome of a vote. However, the Fundamental Principles and Rules of the Olympic Charter can only be amended by a majority of two-thirds of the members present at the Session. If a host city for the Olympic Games is to be elected, the particular Session must be convened in a country other than those having put forward candidate cities. The host city is elected by a majority of votes cast. In the absence of a majority, the city with the fewest votes is eliminated, and IOC members proceed to another round of voting. The procedure is repeated until an absolute majority is obtained. Election of IOC members (president, vice-presidents and Executive Board members) is equally by a majority of votes cast Abstentions are not taken into account, nor are spoiled or blank votes.
4.2.6. Commissions

In the course of its history, the IOC has created numerous permanent commissions, each dealing with a particular set of issues related to the Olympic Movement. Several commissions have instituted subcommissions (e.g. the Subcommission on Doping and Biochemistry of Sport within the Medical Commission) and working groups (e.g. the Remuneration Working Group). Occasionally, ad hoc commissions are formed to address particular short-term issues (e.g. the Disciplinary Commission).

In 2014, the IOC had the following commissions (cited in International Olympic Committee, 2014a):

**IOC Commissions**

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<th>IOC Executive Board</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Athletes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nominations</td>
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<td>Coordination for the Games of the XXXI Olympiad - Rio 2016</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coordination for the Xxiii Olympic Winter Games - Pyeongchang 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination for the Games of the XXXII Olympiad - Tokyo 2020</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coordination for the 2nd Summer Youth Olympic Games - Nanjing 2014</td>
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<td>Coordination for the 2nd Winter Youth Olympic Games - Lillehammer 2016</td>
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<td>Coordination for the 3rd Summer Youth Olympic Games - Buenos Aires 2018</td>
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<td>Culture and Olympic Education</td>
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<td>TV Rights and New Media</td>
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<td>Entourage</td>
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<td>Ethics</td>
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<td>Evaluation for the 3rd Winter Youth Olympic Games - 2020</td>
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<td>Evaluation for the XXIV Olympic Winter Games - 2022</td>
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<td>Audit Committee</td>
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<td>Medical</td>
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<td>Olympic Philately, Numismatic and Memorabilia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Press</td>
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<tr>
<td>Olympic Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>Radio and Television</td>
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64
4.3. National Olympic Committees (NOCs)

The National Olympic Committees (NOCs) are the representatives of the IOC at country level. This definition can be slightly misleading since Olympic nations do not necessarily tally with nations or countries in a political sense. As Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott point out, “the notion of ‘country’ […] requires quotation marks since it has evolved somewhat over the Olympiads” (2008, 49). Coubertin himself introduced the idea of an “athletic geography” shortly after re-establishing the Olympics, notably to allow the participation of Finland and Bohemia in the first modern edition of the Games, despite the fact that these territories were part of Russia and the Austro-Hungarian Empire at the time:

The fundamental role of the modern Olympiads is summarized in these terms: “All games, all nations.” It is not even within the power of the International Olympic Committee, the highest authority in this matter, to change this. I must add that a nation is not an independent State. There is an athletic geography that may differ at times from political geography. (Müller, 2000, 590)

Today, the accepted principle is to allow one NOC per country, which is defined in the Olympic Charter as “an independent State recognised by the international community” (International Olympic Committee, 2014d, 66). However, there are exceptions to this rule: Palestine has been allowed to take part in the Olympics since 1996, even though its political status is controversial. Similarly, the former British colony Hong Kong kept its NOC after becoming part of China in 1997; the former Portuguese colony Macau, however, was not granted its own NOC on the same occasion. There are currently 205 NOCs worldwide.24

The NOCs perform many different functions in their respective countries. Their main task is to set up national teams of athletes for the Olympic Games and Youth Olympic Games, but

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24 As per April 2015. For an up-to-date list of all NOCs in IOC protocol order, cf. the IOC website at http://www.olympic.org/content/footer-pages/documents/national-olympic-committees/.
they are also engaged in promoting sport at all levels, implementing educational programmes and training sports administrators. NOCs must ensure that all national activities and programmes comply with the Olympic Charta and the IOC Code of Ethics.

NOCs are governed by an executive body and are required to hold a general assembly of all its members at least once a year. Members are predominantly National Sports Federations (NFs), i.e. those sports federations that bring together local and regional sports associations in a particular country. To be recognised by the IOC, NOCs need to have a minimum of five NFs affiliated to International Federations (IFs) representing sports that are included in the programme of the Olympic Games. Individuals can also be members of an NOC, for instance the IOC members of the country in question or athletes. IOC members are ex officio members of the NOC’s executive body.

Technically, NOCs are commonly constituted as not-for-profit associations under the relevant national legislation. Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott distinguish between four different categories of NOC in terms of their resources and level of independence: (1) politically independent NOCs with significant resources of their own, beyond those made available by Olympic Solidarity or the state; (2) politically independent NOCs but without significant financial resources of their own considering the tasks at hand; (3) NOCs controlled by national government on both a financial and political level; (4) “fantasy” NOCs that only emerge every four years with a view to symbolic participation in the Games (2008, 54).

4.3.1. Association of National Olympic Committees (ANOC)

Although the first general assembly of all NOCs took place in Rome in 1965, it was not until June 1979 that the Association of National Olympic Committees (ANOC) was formally established. This delay was in part due to the fact that the IOC had long resisted the creation of such an organisation. Between 1982 and 2010, ANOC had its headquarters in Paris but moved them to Lausanne in May 2010.

ANOC’s mission is to represent the interests of the NOCs and to take a stand in all matters related to the Olympic Movement and the Games. It brings together all NOCs during general assemblies held every two years in parallel with IOC Executive Board meetings. ANOC’s first president was Mario Vázquez Raña from Mexico, who held the office for more than 32 years. He was succeeded by the Kuwaiti Sheikh Ahmad Al-Fahad Al-Sabah in April 2012.

ANOC is divided into five continental associations:
Some of these continental associations were established before ANOC. Each association organises its own games at a regional level, for instance the Pan-American Games (since 1951), the Asian Games (since 1951), the African Games (since 1965), the South Pacific Games (since 1963) and the European Youth Olympic Festival (since 1991).

4.4. Organising Committees for the Olympic Games (OCOGs)

The Organising Committees of the Olympic Games (OCOGs) are responsible for the practical work involved in organising the Olympic Games. For each edition of the Games, the local authorities of the host city and the National Olympic Committee of the country in which the Games will take place set up an OCOG within eight months after the successful applicant city has been picked by the IOC, that is to say around seven years prior to the corresponding edition of the Olympics.

Each OCOG has a particular name. Very often, the generic designation “Organising Committee of the Olympic Games” is preceded by the name of the host city, usually adding the first letter or letters before the abbreviation “OCOG”. Thus, for the London 2012 Olympics, the full title of the OCOG in question was “London Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games” which was abbreviated to “LOCOG”. Sometimes, the final “OG” standing for “Olympic Games” is omitted, as in “ATHOC” for the 2004 Olympic Games in Athens. More recently, Organising Committees have taken to forming their names by combining the host city name and the year of the Olympics, e.g. “Rio 2016” and “Tokyo 2020”.

OCOGs are established as part of the detailed host city contract (usually comprising around 100 pages) that is signed by the IOC, the host city and the relevant NOC. The OCOG is the principal actor involved in staging the Games under the contract and the IOC’s main contact throughout the organisational phase. OCOGs come in different legal forms, from entirely private companies (ACOG for Atlanta 1996) and companies with publicly appointed
executives (ATHOC for Athens 2004) to foundations (TOCOG for Turin 2006), associations (COJO for Albertville 1992) and government agencies (SOCOG for Sydney 2000). Recently, OCOGs have often been accompanied by a second entity in public hands that was in charge of constructing the necessary facilities, e.g. the Olympic Delivery Authority for London 2012. The executive body of the OCOG includes the IOC members of the host country, the president and secretary general of the NOC and at least one member representing the host city. The IOC sets the framework for the operations of OCOGs through technical manuals and other guidelines, but the OCOGs essentially develop their own rules and procedures. Thanks to the revenues they receive from organising the Olympics, they are financially self-sufficient. OCOGs are not permanent but exist only for around ten years. Taking the candidature process into account, their lifespan usually includes two years of bidding, seven years of preparations, sixteen days of competitions and about one year of dissolution. This is why the IOC is always dealing with three or four OCOGs at the same time.

As the OCOG has close links with the local government of the host city and to other levels of government in the country, it is well-placed to tackle organisational issues such as construction work, security, transport, customs etc. However, the OCOGs' task is immense as they are responsible for all aspects of the Games (sport, venues, finance, technology, accommodation, catering, media services etc.) The OCOG is obliged to organise the Games based on the pledges given by host city in its candidature dossier, building or refurbishing competition venues, stadiums and the Olympic Village as well as putting in place and improving the infrastructure necessary for the smooth running of the Games, including transport and medical services. Another of the OCOG's duties is the organisation of a cultural programme including concerts, theatre plays and exhibitions before and during the Games. The OCOG recruits and trains thousands of volunteers to help with the running of the Games. Their activities vary from transporting athletes to administration and, incidentally, interpreting.\textsuperscript{25} Without these volunteers, the Games would probably grind to a halt. After the Games, the final task of the OCOG is to draft the Official Report of the Games.

\textbf{4.5. International Sports Federations (IFs)}

The International Sports Federations (IFs) are non-governmental organisations that govern sports at an international level. As such, they are recognised by the IOC and constitute one of the three main constituents of the Olympic Movement. Each discipline is represented by a

\textsuperscript{25} For further details cf. Part II of this study.
particular International Federation. Consisting of the corresponding National Sports Federations (NFs), the IFs are responsible for representing their discipline at a global level. Their task is to draft rules for their sport, promote it at a global level and support the athletes who practise it. During the Olympic Games, the IFs’ role is to take care of the practical organisation and the technical aspects of the competitions, such as equipment, venues, judging etc.

All IFs are a not-for-profit organisations, commonly associations, under the legislation of the country in which they have their headquarters. Some 30 IFs are headquartered in Switzerland and 20 in Lausanne, in close proximity to the IOC. IFs seeking IOC recognition must ensure that their statutes, practices and activities conform with the Olympic Charter. Some 60 IFs have been recognised by the IOC, but only 35 enjoy the privilege of having had their sport included in the programme of the Olympic Games, with 28 for the Summer Games and 7 for the Winter Games. The following IFs are currently included in the Games (the list is adapted from Chappelet & Kübler-Mabbott, 2008, 60 f., and has been updated in line with Rule 45 of the 2014 edition of the Olympic Charter which lists the current Olympic IFs; each IF is followed by the year in which its sport was first admitted to the Olympics):

*Summer*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF)</th>
<th>1896</th>
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<tr>
<td>International Rowing Federation (FISA)</td>
<td>1896</td>
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<tr>
<td>International Badminton Federation (IBF)</td>
<td>1992</td>
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<td>International Basketball Federation (FIBA)</td>
<td>1936</td>
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<td>International Boxing Association (AIBA)</td>
<td>1904</td>
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<td>International Canoe Federation (ICF)</td>
<td>1936</td>
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<td>International Cycling Union (UCI)</td>
<td>1896</td>
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<td>International Equestrian Federation (FEI)</td>
<td>1900</td>
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<td>International Fencing Federation (FIE)</td>
<td>1896</td>
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<td>International Football Association Federation (FIFA)</td>
<td>1900</td>
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<tr>
<td>International Golf Federation (IGF)</td>
<td>1900</td>
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<tr>
<td>International Gymnastics Federation (FIG)</td>
<td>1896</td>
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<tr>
<td>International Weightlifting Federation (IWF)</td>
<td>1896</td>
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<tr>
<td>International Handball Federation (IHF)</td>
<td>1936 and 1968</td>
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<td>International Hockey Federation (FIH)</td>
<td>1908</td>
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<td>International Judo Federation (IJF)</td>
<td>1964</td>
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<td>International Federation of Associated Wrestling Styles (FILA)</td>
<td>1896</td>
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<tr>
<td>International Swimming Federation (FINA)</td>
<td>1896</td>
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<tr>
<td>International Union of the Modern Pentathlon (UIPM)</td>
<td>1912</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
World Rugby (WR)— 1900
World Taekwondo Federation (WTF)— 2000
International Tennis Federation (ITF)— 1896-1924 and 1988
International Table Tennis Federation (ITTF)— 1988
International Shooting Sport Federation (ISSF)— 1896
International Archery Federation (FITA)— 1900-1920 and 1972
International Triathlon Union (ITU)— 2000
International Sailing Federation (ISAF)— 1900
International Volleyball Federation (FIVB)— 1964

Winter
International Biathlon Union (IBU)— 1960
International Bobsleigh and Tobogganing Federation (FIBT)— 1924
World Curling Federation (WCF)— 1998
International Ice Hockey Federation (IIHF)— 1924
International Luge Federation (FIL)— 1964
International Skating Union (ISU)— 1924
International Ski Federation (FIS)— 1924

4.5.1. SportAccord / General Association of International Sports Federations (GAISF)

The first platform uniting the various International Sports Federations (IFs) was established as early as 1921, but it was not until the 1960s that a large-scale organisation representing the IFs' interests was founded. The General Association of International Sports Federations (GAISF) has existed under that name since 1976 and was renamed SportAccord in 2009. It is a forum grouping together International Sports Federations (IFs) and deals with technical, scientific and educational aspects of sport. All its member bodies come together once a year for an exchange of views on topics of common interest. Currently, SportAccord has 92 full members, all of them IFs, and 17 associate members, which are organisations with similar activities as those of the IFs.

The offices of the organisation were moved from Lausanne to Monaco in 1978. The Council is the executive body of SportAccord and is responsible for implementing the policies laid down by the Members. The Council is elected every four years and consists of eight members. Its president (currently Marius Vizer) is elected by the General Assembly.
4.5.2. Association of Summer Olympic International Federations (ASOIF)

Established in 1983, the Association of Summer Olympic International Federations coordinates and defends the interests of the International Sports Federations (IFs) that represent sports included in the programme of the Summer Olympic Games. It liaises between its members and the other members of the Olympic Movement.

4.5.3. Association of the International Olympic Winter Sports Federations (AIOWF)

The Association of International Olympic Winter Sports Federations (AIOWF) collaborates with the International Sports Federations (IFs) that govern a winter sport included in the Olympic programme. Encouraging cooperation between its members, AIOWF deals with all issues in connection with winter sports. AIOWF also selects delegations or appoints winter sports representatives for the International Olympic Committee and its commissions. Moreover, it is responsible for scheduling sports events at the Winter Games.

4.5.4. Association of IOC Recognised International Sports Federations (ARISF)

The Association of the IOC Recognised International Sports Federations (ARISF) was created in 1983 and represents the interests of all International Sports Federations (IFs) that are recognised by the IOC but have not been included in the programme of the Olympic Games.

4.6. International Olympic Academy (IOA)

From the outset, Coubertin had the intention of shoring up his project by an educational institution devoted to the dissemination of Olympism. After a “Centre d’études olympiques” was briefly established in Berlin from 1939 to 1944, the project of a permanent academic institute for the promotion of Olympism was pursued by Ioannis Ketseas and Carl Diem, a close friend of Coubertin devoted to the Olympic Movement. Diem and Ketseas, who had worked together for the first torch relay from Olympia to Berlin in 1936, came up with the idea
for an educational institution named “International Olympic Academy” which was approved at the 44th IOC Session in Rome in 1949.

After a long struggle, the International Olympic Academy was officially opened on the 14th of June 1961. Located at ancient Olympia, it was designed as multicultural and interdisciplinary learning centre devoted to the study of Olympism and the promotion of its ideals. Until 1966, participants used to camp out in tents and held the meetings under the pine trees. Since then, several buildings, sports facilities and a new conference centre have been constructed to house the meetings.

Initially, the IOA merely coordinated the International Session for Young Participants, an international conference that is still the most important event held every year. Since 1970, the IOA has been developing a range of teaching programmes on the Olympic Movement. Today, the IOA plays host to a whole range of educational programmes for athletes and other stakeholders of the Olympic Movement. The following events are held on a regular basis (cited in Altenberger et al., 2004, 39 f.):
- “International Session for Young Participants” for PE students, athletes or sportspersons who are PE teachers or hold some sort of position in the Olympic Movement
- “International Post Graduate Programme on Olympic Studies” for graduates doing research on any aspect of the Olympic Movement and for readers in Olympic studies
- “International Session for Directors of National Olympic Academies (NOAs), Members and Staff of National Olympic Commissions (NOCs) and International Federations (IFs)” as a sort of continuing education for those who work within these institutions
- “International Session for Educationists and Staff of Higher Institutes of Physical Education” for PE teachers and instructors
- “International Session for Sports Journalists” for media representatives who are taught about the cultural, historical and educational implications of the Olympic Games

**4.7. Olympic Museum (TOM)**

The foundation of the current Olympic Museum was laid by Coubertin in the years following the IOC’s move to Lausanne in 1915. The provisional museum established by Coubertin was closed again in 1970 before the idea was taken up again during the 1980s. Work on the new museum began in 1988, and on 23 June 1993 the Olympic Museum was opened in Ouchy, a well-to-do suburb of Lausanne on the shores of Lake Geneva. In late 1993, the IOC acquired the adjacent Villa Guelfi which now houses the museum’s administrative headquarters.
Beginning in 2011, the museum was extensively refurbished and reopened equipped with the latest technology in December 2013.

The main purpose of the Olympic Museum is to collect and preserve artefacts from the history of the Olympic Movement. Every year, it attracts over 200,000 visitors. Its aim is to educate the public and to spread knowledge about the Olympic Movement to a wide audience. Its collection is spread across three main galleries over three floors and features some 10,000 items, including archaeological objects from Ancient Greece, sportswear and equipment from 1894 to the present as well as Olympic medals, torches and mascots. The permanent exhibition is complemented by temporary exhibitions on a variety of topics related to sport and the Olympics. The museum offers workshops, educational programmes and themed tours but also cultural events such as concerts, shows and festivals. It is renowned for its hands-on, interactive approach that makes a visit particularly suitable for young people. The museum regularly organises an “Olympic Week” which combines outdoor activities with a range of educational programmes.

However, some commentators have disapproved of the Olympic Museum for being too uncritical and not reflecting the complexity of contemporary sport. Thus, Kenneth Hudson, director of the European Museum of the Year Award, complained that “Olympic Museum is museologically strong but intellectually weak. It does not encourage discussion of today’s great [sporting] controversies – money; the growing pre-eminence of black athletes; athletics and national prestige; the definition of ‘physical fitness’; the meaning, if any, of the ‘Olympic spirit’” (cited in Adair, 2010, 181).

4.8. Olympic Studies Centre (OSC)

The Olympic Studies Centre was created in 1992 and has been part of the Olympic Museum in Lausanne since 1994. It was established by the IOC to preserve and disseminate information about the Olympic Movement. With its extensive library, it also serves as an important research centre for scholars and students interested in Olympic studies. The library boasts the world’s most comprehensive collection of materials relating to the Olympic Games and the Olympic Movement, including some 18,000 monographs, 250 periodicals and 410,000 photographs and slides (cf. Adair, 2010, 177). The OSC is also home to the Historical Archives with primary sources that can be accessed by scholars and academics on request. The Images and Sound Department contains more than 17,500 hours of film
footage of the Olympic Games from 1896 to today. However, of the seven OSC departments, only the library is open to the public.

The Olympic Studies Centre also organises conferences and symposia with the aim of spreading Olympism. In 1999, a Postgraduate Research Grant Programme was established as a connection between the IOC and the academic world with the aim of supporting postgraduates, university lecturers and young professors in the humanities and social sciences. By covering their transport and living costs, the programme allows grant holders to study the OSC’s archives and collections. Research topics include the history of the institutions belonging to the Olympic Movement, the economic, social and environmental aspects of the Olympic Games and multiculturalism.

4.9. Centre d’Estudis Olímpics at the Autonomous University of Barcelona (CEO-UAB)

The Olympic Studies Centre at the Autonomous University of Barcelona (CEO-UAB) describes itself as a university research centre dedicated to fostering and supporting research in the field, educating future professionals and facilitating access to quality academic-based resources. It was founded in 1989 in preparation for Barcelona’s bid as host city for the Games of the 25th Olympiad.

Today, CEO-UAB is an international centre that carries out academic research, education, documentation and outreach activities. Its task is to promote knowledge on the Olympic values, investigating how the Olympic Games as a global event can help to improve society. In collaboration with the Olympic Movement, CEO-UAB aims to support the development of practices and policies in the field of sport and the Olympics.

4.10. World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA)

As a relatively new actor on the Olympic scene, the World Anti-Doping Agency was established by the IOC on 10 November 1999 following the adoption of the “Lausanne Declaration” at the World Anti-Doping Conference in Lausanne in February 1999. This declaration was hotly debated and contained two major outcomes, namely the redefinition of doping to include any method employed by athletes to enhance their performance and the creation of an independent international agency as a regulatory body.
One of WADA’s first actions was the adoption of the World-Anti-Doping Code. The organisation subsequently worked together with UNESCO in drafting the International Convention Against Doping in Sport, which created a form of public international law for doping matters.26

WADA’s logo is a green equals sign set in a black box with a tag line reading “play true”. The equals sign symbolises equity and fairness while the square box represents the customs and rules on which all sports are based. The black background is the traditional colour used by referees and stands for neutrality. The motto “play true” encapsulates the core values of WADA and is meant as an exhortation to all athletes.

The statutes of WADA spell out the following objectives:
- to promote and coordinate at international level the fight against doping in sport in all its forms;
- to reinforce at international level ethical principles for the practice of doping-free sport and to help protect the health of the athletes;
- to establish, adapt, modify and update for all the public and private bodies concerned, inter alia the IOC, IFs and NOCS, the list of substances and methods prohibited in the practice of sport;
- to encourage, support, coordinate and, when necessary, undertake, in full cooperation with the public and private bodies concerned the organisation of unannounced out-of-competition testing;
- to develop, harmonise and unify scientific, sampling and technical standards with regard to analysis and equipment, including the homologation of laboratories, and to create a reference laboratory;
- to promote harmonised rules, disciplinary procedures, sanctions and other means of combating doping in sport and contribute to the unification thereof, taking into account the rights of the athletes;
- to devise and develop anti-doping education and prevention programmes at international level, in view of promoting the practice of doping-free sport in accordance with ethical principles;
- to promote and coordinate research in the fight against doping in sport.

26 Cf. section 3.4 above on the World Anti-Doping Code.
In 1999, the headquarters of WADA were provisionally established in Lausanne. In August 2001, the WADA Board voted to move its headquarters to Montreal, Canada. Notwithstanding the location of its headquarters, WADA still has its seat in Lausanne and is a Swiss private law foundation pursuant to Articles 80 to 89 of the Swiss Civil Code. Like all Swiss foundations, it is governed by a foundation board. A special feature of WADA is its hybrid status as a half private and half public organisation. The foundation board of the WADA is allowed to have a maximum of 40 members (currently 38), with half coming from institutions belonging to the Olympic Movement and the other half from the public authorities. Their term of office is three years, with a maximum of three consecutive terms. The foundation board elects an executive committee that is responsible for managing the agency and that is composed of 12 members who are elected for a one-year term, again with one half coming from Olympic Movement institutions and the other half from the public authorities. Apart from the executive committee, there are five specialised committees consisting of experts in the field, notably: (1) Athletes; (2) Education; (3) Finance and Administration; (4) Health, Medical and Research; and (6) the Ethical Issues Review Panel. Administration is run by a director-general overseeing ten directorates and a staff of around 50.

From 1999 to 2007, the WADA president was Canadian IOC member Dick Pound. He was appointed by the IOC on a provisional basis before being officially elected by the foundation board in December 2001 following his failure to become president of the IOC. He was followed in that position by John Fahey in 2008 and Craig Reedie in 2014. The president works alongside a vice president from the public authorities. The media is allowed in on foundation board meetings, and minutes from the meetings are published online.

WADA is also responsible for accrediting drugs-testing laboratories for the Olympics, which test up to 200 samples a day during the Games.

4.11. Court of Arbitration for Sport (TAS/CAS)

The Court of Arbitration for Sport (TAS/CAS) was created in 1984 by the IOC to deal with an ever increasing number of international sports-related disputes that could not be settled in a legally binding manner. Over the past three decades since its creation, the court has gained in significance and become the reference for sports arbitration worldwide.
The structure and organisation of the CAS has evolved considerably over time. A major reform was initiated in 1994 following a legal ruling criticising the close relationship between the CAS and the IOC. This led to the creation of the International Council of Arbitration for Sport (ICAS) as the responsible entity for running the CAS, making the latter completely independent from the IOC. Moreover, two arbitration divisions were set up (called “ordinary arbitration division” and “appeals arbitration division”) to distinguish between direct actions and appeals against decisions by a sports body.

The CAS reforms were incorporated into the “Code of Sports-related Arbitration”, which came into effect on 22 November 1994 and was last revised in 2013.27 Regulating the organisation and arbitration procedures of CAS, this code consists of around 70 articles and falls into two parts: the “statutes of bodies working for the settlement of sports-related disputes” (articles S1 to S26), and the “procedural rules” (articles R27 to R70). In 1999, a number of mediation rules for a non-binding, informal procedure were added. The code provides for four distinct types of procedure: (1) the ordinary arbitration procedure; (2) the appeals arbitration procedure; (3) the non-contentious advisory procedure, which enables the CAS to pronounce advisory opinions on sports-related legal questions; and (4) the mediation procedure, which allows parties to settle their dispute in an amicable manner. The arbitration proceedings are split into two parts: written proceedings, that is to say an initial exchange of pleadings, and oral proceedings, during which the parties are heard by the arbitrators, generally at the seat of the CAS in Lausanne. After deliberation, the panel of arbitrators renders its final decision in the form of an arbitral award that has the same enforceability as a judgement delivered by an ordinary court.

While the CAS itself is based in Lausanne, it has two decentralised offices in Sydney and New York. In addition, regularly sets up ad hoc divisions, for instance for each edition of the Olympic Games or other similar events. Special procedural rules are defined on each occasion to allow for the specific circumstances of these events. Nearly 300 sports and legal experts from 87 countries are registered as arbitrators with the CAS and can be nominated by the parties or the court to sit on an arbitration panel. Around 300 cases are filed with the CAS every year.

The court considers all disputes directly or indirectly linked to sport. Actions must fall into one of two categories: commercial disputes (e.g. relating to sponsorship contracts, television

rights or player transfers) and disciplinary disputes (following a decision by a sports organisation, e.g. doping cases). The majority of cases adjudicated by the CAS are related to drug use and doping in sport. Athletes often use the court to fight doping accusations by challenging the testing methods. Many International Sports Federations (IFs) have granted the CAS exclusive competence to deal with sports-related disputes, and the World Anti-Doping Code mentions the CAS as the sole recourse for cases of doping. Before competitions begin, athletes are often required to agree to an arrangement whereby any legal issues in connection with their participation in the event will be settled by submitting the case to the CAS.

4.12. Other IOC-recognised organisations

The following is a list of other organisations that have been officially recognised by the IOC and that are associated to the Olympic Movement:

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<th>Education / Dissemination of the Olympic Ideal / Fair Play</th>
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<th>Multi-Sports Organizations and Events / Sport for All</th>
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**Disabled Sport**

| IPC | International Paralympic Committee |
| CISS | International Committee of Sports for the Deaf |
| SOI | Special Olympics Inc. |

**Sports Medicine and Sciences**

| ECSS | European College of Sport Science |
| AICVS | International Association for Non Violent Sport |
| ICSSPE | International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education |
| FIMS | International Federation of Sports Medicine |

**Sports Equipment and Facilities**

| IAKS | International Association for Sports and Leisure Facilities |
| WFSGI | World Federation of the Sporting Goods Industry |

**Media - Information**

| AFP | Agence France Presse |
| Reuters Limited |
| AIPS | International Sports Press Association |
| FICTS | Fédération Internationale du Cinéma et Télévision Sportifs |
| AP | The Associated Press |
| IASI | International Association for Sports Information |

**Other**

| WOA | World Olympians Association |
| Fondation Internationale OLYMPAFRICA |
| FIC | International Timekeeping Federation |
| ENGSO | European Non-Governmental Sports Organisation |
| ISOH | International Society of Olympic Historians |
| RTP | Right to Play |
| Generations for Peace |
5. EVENTS

5.1. Olympic Games

The Olympic Games are the cornerstone and showcase of the Olympic Movement, so much so that most people who are familiar with the Olympic Games will be unaware of the Movement of which they are part. While the modern Games have existed for more than 120 years – in itself no mean feat – their origins go back several millennia. Over the past decades, the Olympic Games have become “the leading contemporary global mega-event” (Roche, 2000, 99), not just in the domain of sport. Their complexity makes it difficult to analyse them in terms of traditional sociological categories; MacAlloon, for instance, maintains that “[t]he genres discussed below – spectacle, festival, ritual, game – by no means exhaust the roster of performance types found in an Olympic Games” (2010, 81). Many critics have noted that the Games expose an inherent conflict between the heroic ideals of Olympism and the mundane reality of the world we inhabit. Thus, it is hardly surprising that they have often been surrounded by controversy. Nevertheless, as Roche argues, the Games still enjoy undiminished acclaim as they are “associated, via the global popularity of sport culture, with largely positive feelings and experience among the international public and media” (2010, 116).

Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott distinguish five phases in the history of the modern Games (2008, 78 f.), which may be summarised in the following way:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases in the history of the modern Olympic Games</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phase 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1896-1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult beginnings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920-1936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interwar period</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948-1968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972-1992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The age of television</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996-present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercialisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 6?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present-2020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis on sustainability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Phase 1 (1896-1912) saw the Games struggling to become established. Their difficulties were largely due to the fact that they were taking place on the margins of international exhibitions and trade fairs, thus receiving only little attention. During Phase 2 (1920-1936),
i.e. the period between the two World Wars, many of the identifying elements of the Olympic Movement such as the rings and the flag, the anthem and the torch relay were introduced. The Games began to grow in importance and reached a high point in 1936 during the Berlin Olympics, which were staged with pomp and circumstance by the Nazis in an attempt to glorify their terror regime. Phase 3 (1948-1968) was marked by the internationalisation of the Games, which moved beyond Europe and North America for the first time but were also increasingly affected by the ideological divide of the Cold War. Many former colonies and newly independent countries joined the Games. Phase 4 (1972-1992) further boosted the profile of the Games thanks to the spread of television from the 1960s onwards, which moreover led to ever-increasing revenues. Yet the costs of the Games began to rocket too: the 1976 Montreal Olympics went so far over budget that public debts had to be paid off for many years. The Cold War exacerbated tensions between the West and East, leading to the biggest boycott of the Games in their history during the 1980 Olympics in Moscow. Terrorism made its entry into the Games in 1972 during the Israeli hostage crisis in Munich. The fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 and the subsequent Summer Olympics in Barcelona in 1992 marked a new beginning and hope for an era of peaceful internationalism. Phase 5 (1996-present) has been characterised by an increasing involvement of governments in the running of the Games but also by rampant commercial exploitation. The bribery scandal in 1999 shook the foundations of the Olympic Movement and led to numerous changes being introduced to make the Games and the institutions behind them more democratic and transparent. More recently, environmental and ethical concerns have been high on the agenda, leading to the adoption of the Olympic Agenda 2020, which is designed to improve the bidding process and to make the Games more sustainable and less costly. Perhaps this may be taken as a sign that a new, more positive phase in the history of the Olympic Games is imminent.

The following table gives an overview over all modern Olympic Games since their inception (adapted and updated from Horne & Whannel, 2012, xv f.):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Host cities for Summer and Winter (W) Olympics</th>
<th>Continent</th>
<th>Olympic President</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1896</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Athens</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Demetrios Vikelas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>Paris</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Pierre De Coubertin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>III</td>
<td>St Louis</td>
<td>N. America</td>
<td>Coubertin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906*</td>
<td></td>
<td>Athens</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Coubertin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>IV</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Coubertin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1912</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>Stockholm</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Coubertin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916**</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Berlin</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Coubertin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>VII</td>
<td>Antwerp</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Coubertin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Olympic Games</td>
<td>Host City</td>
<td>Region</td>
<td>Chairman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924</td>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>Paris / Chamonix (W)</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Coubertin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>IX</td>
<td>Amsterdam / St Moritz (W)</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Henri de Baillet-Latour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Los Angeles / Lake Placid (W)</td>
<td>N. America</td>
<td>Baillet-Latour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1936</td>
<td>XI</td>
<td>Berlin/Garmisch-Partenkirchen (W)</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Baillet-Latour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>XII</td>
<td>Tokyo; Helsinki / Sapporo; Garmisch-Partenkirchen (W)</td>
<td>E. Asia / Europe</td>
<td>Baillet-Latour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1944</td>
<td>XIII</td>
<td>London / Cortina d'Ampezzo (W)</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>J. Sigfrid Edström</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>XIV</td>
<td>London / St Moritz (W)</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Edström</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952</td>
<td>XV</td>
<td>Helsinki / Oslo (W)</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Edström</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>XVI</td>
<td>Melbourne† / Cortina d'Ampezzo (W)</td>
<td>Australasia / Europe</td>
<td>Avery Brundage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>XVII</td>
<td>Rome / Squaw Valley (W)</td>
<td>Europe / N. America</td>
<td>Brundage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>XVIII</td>
<td>Tokyo / Innsbruck (W)</td>
<td>E. Asia / Europe</td>
<td>Brundage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>XIX</td>
<td>Mexico City / Grenoble (W)</td>
<td>N. America / Europe</td>
<td>Brundage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>XX</td>
<td>Munich / Sapporo (W)</td>
<td>Europe / E. Asia</td>
<td>Brundage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>XXI</td>
<td>Montreal / Denver; Innsbruck (W)††</td>
<td>N. America / Europe</td>
<td>Lord Killanin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>XXII</td>
<td>Moscow / Lake Placid (W)</td>
<td>Europe / N. America</td>
<td>Killanin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>XXIII</td>
<td>Los Angeles / Sarajevo (W)</td>
<td>N. America / Europe</td>
<td>Juan Antonio Samaranch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>XXIV</td>
<td>Seoul / Calgary (W)</td>
<td>E. Asia / N. America</td>
<td>Samaranch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>XXV</td>
<td>Barcelona / Albertville (W)</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Samaranch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>LillehammerTTT (W)</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Samaranch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>XXVI</td>
<td>Atlanta</td>
<td>N. America</td>
<td>Samaranch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Nagano (W)</td>
<td>E. Asia</td>
<td>Samaranch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>XXVII</td>
<td>Sydney</td>
<td>Australasia</td>
<td>Samaranch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Salt Lake City (W)</td>
<td>N. America</td>
<td>Samaranch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>XXVIII</td>
<td>Athens</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Jacques Rogge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Turin (W)</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Rogge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>XXIX</td>
<td>Beijing</td>
<td>E. Asia</td>
<td>Rogge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Vancouver-Whistler (W)</td>
<td>N. America</td>
<td>Rogge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Rogge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Sochi (W)</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Thomas Bach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>XXXI</td>
<td>Rio de Janeiro</td>
<td>S. America</td>
<td>Bach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>Pyeongchang (W)</td>
<td>E. Asia</td>
<td>Bach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>XXXII</td>
<td>Tokio</td>
<td>E. Asia</td>
<td>Bach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2022</td>
<td>Almaty or Beijing (decision to be taken on 31 July 2015)</td>
<td>E. Asia</td>
<td>Bach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Notes:

* This event celebrated the tenth anniversary of the first modern Games; whilst officially intercalated by the IOC, it is not numbered as an edition of the Olympic Games.

** The VI Games (scheduled for Berlin) were not held due to the First World War, but the IOC officially counts it.

*** The XII and XIII Summer Olympic Games (scheduled respectively for Tokyo, then Helsinki before finally being called off in May 1940, and London) were not held due to the Second World War, but are officially counted by the IOC. The Winter Olympics in 1940 scheduled for Sapporo were relocated to Garmisch-Partenkirchen even after the German invasion of Poland in September 1939 before finally being called off.

† Because of Australian quarantine laws, the equestrian events were held in Stockholm, Sweden.

†† Awarded to Denver in Colorado, the Winter Olympics were transferred to Innsbruck when Colorado residents rejected the hosting decision.

††† The IOC decided in 1986 to reschedule the Summer and Winter Games, so a new four-year cycle for the Winter Games began in 1994 with the Summer and Winter Olympics staggered two years apart.

5.1.1. Olympic programme

According to the Olympic Charter, the Olympic programme is a list of “all sports competitions of the Olympic Games established by the IOC for each edition of the Olympic Games” and is made up of the sports programme and the events programme (International Olympic Committee, 2014d, 84). Olympic sports are those governed by International Federations (IFs) that are recognised by the IOC. Only sports that implement the World Anti-Doping Code can be included in the Olympic programme. A sports event is a competition in a particular sport or one of its disciplines that ends with medals being awarded.

Since the first Olympic Games in 1896, the programme has changed considerably, with many sports disappearing (such as croquet or tug of war), reappearing (such as archery) or being newly added (such as judo or triathlon). Sports and events that are included in the programme are determined by the Olympic Programme Commission, which reviews the programme after each edition of the Games. The commission consists of IOC members and representatives of the National Olympic Committees (NOCs), the IFs and the athletes.

Different rules apply to the scheduling of sports and events. The sports programme of any edition of any Olympic Games must be decided no later than at the Session choosing the host city for those Games. The events programme, however, is determined by the IOC Executive Board no later than three years before the opening of the Olympic Games.

For the 2016 Summer Games in Rio de Janeiro, 26 core sports plus two additional sports were admitted. The additional sports (golf and rugby) are making a return to Olympics after
almost a century of absence. The following is a list of all the IFs and their sports that have been included in the 2016 Olympic programme (cited in International Olympic Committee, 2013c, 2 f.):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Year established</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IAAF</td>
<td>International Association of Athletics Federations</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FISA</td>
<td>International Rowing Federation</td>
<td>1892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BWF</td>
<td>Badminton World Federation</td>
<td>1934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIBA</td>
<td>International Basketball Federation</td>
<td>1932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIBA</td>
<td>International Boxing Association</td>
<td>1946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICF</td>
<td>International Canoe Federation</td>
<td>1924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCI</td>
<td>International Cycling Union</td>
<td>1900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEI</td>
<td>Federation Equestre Internationale</td>
<td>1921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIE</td>
<td>Federation Internationale d’Escrime</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIF A</td>
<td>Federation Internationale de Football Association</td>
<td>1904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIG</td>
<td>International Golf Federation</td>
<td>1958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGF</td>
<td>International Handball Federation</td>
<td>1946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIG</td>
<td>International Gymnastics Federation</td>
<td>1881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IWF</td>
<td>International Weightlifting Federation</td>
<td>1905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IHF</td>
<td>International Judo Federation</td>
<td>1951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FILA</td>
<td>International Federation of Associated Wrestling Styles</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FINA</td>
<td>Federation Internationale de Natation</td>
<td>1908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UIPM</td>
<td>Union Internationale de Pentathlon Moderne</td>
<td>1948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRB</td>
<td>International Rugby Board</td>
<td>1886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WTF</td>
<td>World Taekwondo Federation</td>
<td>1973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITF</td>
<td>International Tennis Federation</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITTF</td>
<td>International Tennis Table Federation</td>
<td>1926</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISSF</td>
<td>International Shooting Sport Federation</td>
<td>1907</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WA</td>
<td>World Archery Federation</td>
<td>1931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITU</td>
<td>International Triathlon Union</td>
<td>1989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISAF</td>
<td>International Sailing Federation</td>
<td>1907</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIVB</td>
<td>International Volleyball Federation</td>
<td>1947</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.1.2. Bidding Process

ELECTING THE HOST CITY THAT WILL ORGANISE THE SUMMER AND WINTER GAMES HAS ALWAYS BEEN ONE OF THE MAIN FUNCTIONS OF THE IOC AND ITS MEMBERS. THIS PROCESS TAKES PLACE DURING AN IOC SESSION COMMONLY HELD SEVEN YEARS BEFORE THE GAMES IN QUESTION WILL BE HELD AND IN A DIFFERENT COUNTRY FROM THOSE TO WHICH THE CANDIDATE CITIES BELONG.

THE PROCESS OF ELECTING A HOST CITY IS GOVERNED BY RULE 33 OF THE OLYMPIC CHARTER. THE ELECTION TAKES PLACE SEVEN YEARS BEFORE THE GAMES, BUT THE BIDDING BEGINS TEN YEARS BEFORE
and lasts for three years. The complex bidding procedure comprises three stages: (1) the invitation phase; (2) the applicant phase; and (3) the candidature phase.

Phase 1 (the invitation phase) was introduced following the adoption of Olympic Agenda 2020. At this earliest stage in the process, NOCs declare their interest in bidding, while the IOC supports the cities by advising them on best practices, providing information and making sure the cities understand the implications of a bid, particularly issues of legacy and sustainability. At the end of the invitation phase, those cities who firmly commit to the bidding process become official applicant cities.

Phase 2 (the applicant phase) is reserved for the cities to develop a specific project. The applicant city and the relevant NOC are given comprehensive information on the bidding procedure and receive all necessary forms that need filling in. The host city contracts are drafted, placing great emphasis on the issues of sustainability and legacy. The IOC organises a seminar for the potential host cities. In addition, applicant cities are required to answer an IOC questionnaire known as the application file. The application file is studied by a working group of the IOC which carries out a risk and opportunity assessment and submits a detailed report to the IOC Executive Board. The board will then select the cities allowed to enter the next stage, after which they become candidate cities.

Phase 3 (the candidature phase) begins with the candidate cities answering another questionnaire and submitting more detailed plans, which constitute the candidature file. Additionally, candidate cities make their pitch to the general assembly of ANOC, to the IFs and to the IOC members. The candidature files are then examined by the IOC Evaluation Commission, which will visit the cities to get a first-hand impression of the local conditions. The commission compiles a report, highlighting the risks and opportunities involved in the bid. The IOC members rely on this report to come to a conclusion about which city to select.

Following a final candidate city presentation and a report by the chair of the Evaluation Commission, the IOC members vote to elect the host city by secret ballot at one of their Sessions. The host city then signs the host city contract with the IOC.

**5.1.3. Opening and Closing Ceremonies**

A unique aspect of the Olympic Games are its opening and closing ceremonies. Their splendour is an integral part of the celebration of the Games, effectively setting them apart
from other sports competitions. The opening ceremony is governed by Rule 55 of the Olympic Charter, which sets out the protocol for the event.

The opening ceremony consists of the following elements (adapted from International Olympic Committee, 2014c, 1-4):

1. **Entry by the head of state**: The head of state of the host country is received at the entrance of the stadium by the IOC President before proceeding together to the official stand.

2. **Playing the national anthem**: After the introduction of the head of state, the national anthem of the host country is played or sung while its national flag is raised.

3. **The parade of the athletes**: Tradition dictates that the delegations parade in alphabetical order according to the language of the host country, except for Greece, which leads the parade, and the host country, which brings up the rear. The number of athletes taking part in the Games has steadily increased over the years as the number of National Olympic Committees (NOCs) rose from 22 in 1908 to 204 in London in 2012. All NOCs are to receive equal treatment, and no single country must receive greater attention than any other. Each delegation is preceded by a board bearing its country’s name and by its flag. The usual practice is for the athletes to march behind the flag of their country, but there are sometimes exceptions. For example, the Olympic flag has been used by some nations, such as Great Britain in 1980 in Moscow, the Unified Team in 1992, and Timor Leste in 2000. On other occasions, a special flag has been used, for instance by the two Koreas, which marched together in 2000 and 2004, or for the Independent Olympic Athletes in London in 2012.

4. **The symbolic release of pigeons**: The opening ceremony protocol calls for a symbolic release of doves as the traditional symbol of peace. From 1936 to 1988, the release of the pigeons used to take place before the arrival of the Olympic flame. However, following the unfortunate demise of several pigeons sitting on the edge of the Olympic cauldron at the opening ceremony of the Games in Seoul, the use of real birds has been replaced by a symbolic release of doves, which now takes place after the parade of athletes and before the lighting of the Olympic cauldron.

5. **The opening of the Games by the head of state**: After a brief speech by the president of the Organising Committee (OCOG), the president of the IOC addresses the audience and invites the Head of State to proclaim the Games open. Protocol requires that the Games
shall officially be declared open by the host country's head of state, either its monarch, president or their representatives.

6. **Raising the Olympic flag and playing the Olympic anthem**: After the head of state has opened the Games, the Olympic flag, unfurled horizontally, is brought into the stadium. The Olympic anthem is performed as the flag is raised to the top of the pole. The Olympic flag must be flown for the entire duration of the Games.

7. **The taking of the Olympic oath by an athlete.**

8. **The taking of the Olympic oath by an official.**

9. **The taking of the Olympic oath by a coach.**

10. **The Olympic flame and torch relay**: Having been carried from Olympia by a relay all the way to its final destination, the Olympic torch and flame now make their entry into the stadium, carried by the final torchbearer who will run a lap of the stadium before the flame is used to light the Olympic cauldron. The Olympic flame remains lit for the entire duration of the Games and is extinguished only at the Closing Ceremony of the Games.

11. **The artistic programme**: The artistic programme is the most spectacular part of the opening ceremony and is usually kept secret until the last minute. Over the years, Games organisers have managed to find creative ways to combine Olympic protocol with just the right amount of entertainment, cultural references, technological innovations and festive atmosphere.

The closing ceremony protocol comprises the following stages (adapted from International Olympic Committee, 2014b, 1 f.):

1. **Entry by the head of state**: As for the opening ceremony, the first step is the entrance of the head of state of the host country (or his/her representative), accompanied by the president of the IOC and the president of the relevant OCOG.

2. **Playing of the national anthem**: The national anthem of the host country is played and its flag hoisted in the Olympic stadium.
3. **Entry of nations’ flags:** One of the key moments of the closing ceremony is the parade of flags of the countries participating in the Games. The Greek flag opens the march, and the host country’s flag brings up the rear. Each flag is generally carried by an athlete chosen by his or her National Olympic Committee (NOC).

4. **Parade of athletes:** The athletes’ parade begins immediately afterwards, with the athletes walking en masse and in no particular order. During Summer Games, the athletes enter the stadium after the artistic programme, and remain in the centre of the field. For the Winter Games, the athletes’ march is near the beginning of the ceremony, and the athletes take seats reserved for them in the audience. The idea of having all the athletes parade in no order comes from a young Chinese man, John Ian Wing, an apprentice carpenter in Australia for the 1956 Games in Melbourne. Before these Games, the athletes always marched behind their flag-bearer, as during the opening ceremony.

5. **Victory ceremony:** After the athletes’ parade, a medals ceremony is held. The IOC, with the help of the OCOG, decides which event will have its medals ceremony during the Closing Ceremony (for the Summer Games, it is generally the marathon). For the first few editions of the Games, all the medals were presented on the last day.

6. **Introduction of the Athletes’ Commission’s newly elected members and recognition of the volunteers:** The next protocol element is the presentation of the athletes elected by their peers to the IOC Athletes’ Commission during the Games. On behalf of the athletes, one of these new members then presents a bouquet of flowers to a representative of the volunteers, as a tribute and mark of gratitude for their work carried out during the Games.

7. **Playing of the Greek national anthem:** The seventh protocol element is the Greek flag being raised to the left of the Olympic flag. The Greek national anthem is played simultaneously. This is a symbol of the link between the Games of Antiquity and those of the modern era.

8. **Lowering the Olympic flag and flag handover ceremony:** Then comes a solemn moment, as the Olympic flag is lowered to the sound of the Olympic anthem. The mayors of the current host city and next host city join the IOC President. The mayor of the host city hands the flag to the IOC president, who hands it on to the mayor of the next host city. The flag of the next host country is then raised to the right of the flag of the current host country,
to the sound of its anthem. This handover is a symbolic highlight. The flag will usually be displayed in the next host city’s town hall.

9. **Next host city artistic segment**: A brief artistic show lasting eight minutes and organised by the next host city is performed. This part is intended as an invitation to the youth of the world to attend the next Games.

10. **Speeches by the OCOG president and IOC president**: After this segment of the Ceremony, which projects us into the future, the OCOG President delivers a brief speech thanking the athletes and volunteers, before giving the floor to the IOC president, who declares the Games closed and invites the youth of the world to come together for the next edition of the Olympic Games four years later.

11. **Extinguishing of the Olympic flame**: The last protocol element is consists in extinguishing the Olympic flame in the stadium.

### 5.2. Youth Olympic Games

In 2007, the IOC decided to hold the Youth Olympic Games (YOG) following the example set by the European Youth Olympic Days, which had been organised by the European Olympic Committees from 1991 to 1999 at the initiative of IOC president Jacques Rogge. The first Summer YOG were held in Singapore in 2010, the first Winter YOG took place in Innsbruck in 2012.

The YOG aim to be an inspiration for young people to engage in sport and to live by the Olympic values. To qualify for the YOG, athletes must be between 15 and 18 years old on 31 December in the year in which the YOG are held. Likewise, they are classified in different age groups based on their age on 31 December.

The sports programme essentially follows that of the Olympic Games, with 28 sports featured on the summer programme and seven on the winter programme, while some other sports and formats are generally added.

As they are geared towards young athletes, the YOG play an important part within the context of Olympic education. This is why, over and above the competitions, they include a Culture and Education Programme (CEP), another innovative element of the YOG that aims...
to teach young athletes about Olympism and the Olympic values. During the Games, the CEP includes interactive workshops and forums. Before and after the Games, the programme is continued through online activities.

5.3. Paralympic Games

The Paralympic Games are the equivalent of the Olympic Games for athletes with certain physical disabilities. Their origins go back to the Stoke-Mandeville Games organised by Sir Ludwig Guttmann in 1948, a sports competitions for wheelchair-bound World War II veterans with spinal injuries. The first Paralympic Games were held in Rome in 1960 with 400 athletes from 23 countries, while the first Winter Games in Paralympics history took place in Sweden in 1976. Since 1988 for the Summer Games and 1992 for the Winter Games, they have been taking place in the same city and the same venues as the Olympic Games, starting around ten days after the Olympics end.

Today, the Paralympic Games are celebrated under the aegis of the International Paralympic Committee (IPC), which was founded on the 22 September 1989 by merging several other organisations involved in sport for people with physical disabilities. The adjective “Paralympic” is explained as combining the Greek preposition παρά (para), meaning “beside”, with the word “Olympic” in reference to the fact that they take place alongside the Olympic Games. Headquartered in Bonn, the IPC organises the summer and winter Paralympic Games and acts as the International Federation for nine sports.

Since the 1990s, the IOC and the IPC have signed a number of agreements which have given the Paralympic Games an official status within the Olympic Movement. The president of the IPC is a member of the IOC, and the IPC has representatives on several commissions of the IOC. Also, the IPC’s structure is similar to that of the IOC as it works together with a around 170 National Paralympic Committees (NPCs), 17 International Sports Federations and four International Organisations of Sports for the Disabled (IOSDs). Since the 2002 Winter Olympics in Salt Lake City, the Organising Committee for the Paralympic Games has been integrated into the current OCOG. Olympic and Paralympic athletes live together in the Olympic Village and use the same services. The Paralympic Games have become the second biggest global sporting event after the Olympics.
5.4. Olympic Congresses

At the beginning of the Olympic Movement, Sessions of the IOC were referred to as Congresses. Today, the term is reserved for less regular meetings that deal with particular topics or issues of fundamental relevance. The first Congress in 1894 was the founding congress of the Olympic Movement. Three Congresses were held when a change of presidents (in 1925 when Comte Henri de Baillet-Latour replaced Coubertin; in 1972 when Lord Killanin replaced Avery Brundage; and in 1981 when Juan Antonio Samaranch replaced Lord Killanin). In June 1994, a centenary congress was convened in Paris to mark the 100 years since the creation of the IOC.

The Congresses are an important part of the history of the Olympic Movement as they deal with fundamental aspects of sport at an international level. When the IOC was formed in the late nineteenth century, only few international sporting organisations such as the IFs existed. It was the Congresses that took on the role of tackling basic issues such as the standardisation of rules, equipment and judging, financing and organising the Olympic Games, sport pedagogy and putting together the sports and events programme.

Congresses are governed by Rule 4 of the Olympic Charter. They have a purely consultative function and are convened by the president following a decision by the Session, which also determines its place and date. Congresses are attended by the members, honorary president, honorary members and honour members of the IOC, IF and NOC delegations, representatives of IOC-recognised bodies, athletes and invited guests.

Thirteen Olympic Congresses have taken place to date:

List of Olympic Congresses, their date and title

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Olympic Congress</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I Olympic Congress</td>
<td>Paris 1894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II Olympic Congress</td>
<td>Le Havre 1897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III Olympic Congress</td>
<td>Brussels 1905</td>
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<tr>
<td>IV Olympic Congress</td>
<td>Paris 1906</td>
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<tr>
<td>V Olympic Congress</td>
<td>Lausanne 1913</td>
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<tr>
<td>VI Olympic Congress</td>
<td>Paris 1914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII Olympic Congress</td>
<td>Lausanne 1921</td>
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<tr>
<td>VIII Olympic Congress</td>
<td>Prague 1925</td>
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<tr>
<td>IX Olympic Congress</td>
<td>Berlin 1930</td>
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<tr>
<td>X Olympic Congress</td>
<td>Varna 1973 - “Sport for a World of Peace”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
XII Olympic Congress - Paris 1994 - “Centennial Congress” or “Congress of Unity”
XIII Olympic Congress - Copenhagen 2009 - “The Olympic Movement in society”

5.5. IOC World Conferences

IOC World Conference are organised to promote technical expertise and state-of-the-art research in specific fields that are relevant to the Olympic Movement. As is customary for academic conferences, the IOC World Conferences feature keynote talks by high-profile lecturers, symposia, workshops, poster presentations and panel discussions designed to disseminate knowledge and to stimulate further research. Often, the topics of World Conferences are related to the remit of a particular IOC Commission. Some World Conferences have been organised in collaboration with other organisations (e.g. UNESCO).

List of recent IOC World Conferences

- 15th World Conference on Sport for All – Lima (Peru), 2013 (1st edition in 1986)
- 4th World Conference on Doping in Sport - Johannesburg (South Africa) (1st edition in 1999)
- 10th World Conference on Sport and the Environment – Vancouver (Canada), 2013 (1st edition in 1995)
- 5th World Conference on Women and Sport - Los Angeles (USA), 2012 (1st edition in 1996)
- 7th World Conference on Sport, Education and Culture - Durban (South Africa), 2010 (1st edition in 1999 under the title “World Conference on Education and Sport for the Culture of Peace”)
- World Conference on Sport and Tourism - Barcelona (Spain), 2001
PART II: INTERPRETING FOR THE OLYMPIC MOVEMENT
This part of the thesis is for the main part based on new data that have been collected during the empirical research phase of this project and that has previously not been available to the public.

It contains the information gathered in an interview with the long-standing chief interpreter and interpreting consultant of the Olympic Games, Bill Weber. The first stage of the interview took the form of a preliminary questionnaire which was sent to Bill Weber by email and which he answered in November 2014. It is included in the annex to this thesis. The follow-up interview was conducted by phone in early April 2015. Unless otherwise indicated, all information in this section is derived from personal communication with the interviewee.

The interview is complemented by details from published texts, some of them blog entries or online articles by interpreters who have worked at the Olympic Games and reported about their experience. Other information is cited from the Official Reports published by the Organising Committee after the Olympic Games of each Olympiad. The source of such additional information will be indicated.

1. General set-up of language services in the institutions of the Olympic Movement

The institutions of the Olympic system have no permanent language service department that is responsible for translation, interpreting and terminology work. All of the various institutions make their own arrangements in terms of recruiting service providers according to their needs. There is no particular reason for this approach (and seeming lack of synergy), but it has become the established procedure. Each local Organising Committee of the Olympic Games (OCOG) will, however, set up their own language service department for its edition of the Olympic Games, the OCOG being a separate organisation and independent from the IOC.

1.1. Translators

The only permanent language service staff in the Olympic system are four in-house translators who work for the IOC. They translate documents between its two official languages, French and English, and have been with this institution for more than two decades. Occasional assignments into Spanish are outsourced to external service providers. Translations are also handled by the language service department of each OCOG, notably
into and out of the language of the respective host country. For the 2016 Games in Rio, however, translations will for the first time be taken care of by the OCOG’s publication department and not by the language service.

1.2. Interpreters

There are no staff interpreters; all of them are contracted on a freelance basis. The IOC recruits its own interpreters directly without an intermediary or chief interpreter for specific events or assignments (e.g. for the Sessions or Executive Board meetings). For the Olympics, there is a chief interpreter (which is the official title) or, in some cases, an interpreting consultant (not an official title) who is responsible for recruiting and coordinating professional interpreters before and during the Games. His task is to select interpreters and to put together teams with all the required language combinations for the sports events.

1.3. Terminologists

Although there is some standard terminology used across Olympic institutions – “football”, “athletics” and “aquatics” being prominent examples – it would seem that no special terminologists are employed to coordinate the development and consistent application of official terms.

2. Interpreting for the IOC

Interpreters at the IOC are recruited from a common pool of interpreters who have experience of working in an Olympic context. The freelance interpreters are not selected by a chief interpreter. Usually, new interpreters become part of the pool by recommendation of experienced colleagues who have been working for the IOC for some time. The principal location for their work is Lausanne at the IOC’s headquarters, although during Sessions, Congresses and the Olympic Games they have to travel to wherever that particular event is held.

For Executive Board meetings, interpretation is only offered in English and French. For some years, Spanish was added for the exclusive benefit of a Mexican member of the Executive Board who was only conversant in that language. After his departure, Spanish was again dropped.
For the IOC Sessions, six languages are covered: French, English, German, Spanish, Russian and Arabic. These languages roughly correspond to the official UN languages, with German substituted for Chinese. The German booth has become a tradition of sorts; it used to be essential during the Cold War era when East Germany, or the German Democratic Republic as it was officially known, at one point was represented by two delegates who only spoke German. The reason why German is kept is that, although German members usually speak English, they prefer to listen to the German booth whenever Arabic or Russian is spoken.

Relays will be avoided if at all possible, as is the case with other high-level political events such as the G7 Summits. Booths will be organised in a manner to cover virtually all language combinations directly, the only exception being Arabic, which is usually taken from an Arabic-English relay. All in all, the IOC Sessions appear like a mini-version of the United Nations General Assembly. They usually involve the sports ministers of the member countries, which means they are rather high-profile and political in character.

All in all, in order to interpret efficiently at Executive Board meetings and Sessions, it helps to have the “institutional memory” of the IOC and to be familiar with the ins and outs of its recent history. As this is not always possible, care is taken to put younger interpreters and new recruits together with experienced colleagues to break them in, as it were, by explaining certain nuances and allusions that would otherwise be lost on them.

3. Interpreting at the Olympic Games

Interpreting services for the Olympic Games are usually under the responsibility of a chief interpreter, who has a contract with the respective Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (OCOG), or sometimes an interpreting consultant (as for the 2014 Sochi Games), who works with the OCOG but has been delegated to it by the IOC. As for the IOC, all professional interpreters are freelance. They are recruited by the chief or consultant interpreter, although they will officially be under contract directly with the institution they work for. The chief interpreter at the Games is responsible for all the coordinating work. At the 2000 Summer Olympics in Sydney, for instance, his role was described as having “overall

28 This language regime is laid down in Rule 23(2) of the Olympic Charter: “At all Sessions, simultaneous interpretation must be provided into French, English, German, Spanish, Russian and Arabic” (International Olympic Committee, 2014d, 52).
responsibility for interpreting services, including development of venue operating plans and the language combinations required for specific venues based on sport and anticipated media attendance, and recruitment of both local and overseas interpreters” (Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games, 2001, 325). This arrangement with the chief interpreter recruiting all the professional interpreters has become a tradition.

The interpreting services themselves are provided both by professional interpreters and by volunteers. The professional interpreters are under contract with the local OCOG from which they will also receive their pay. Contracts are usually made for the entire duration of the Games. Usually one week before the Games, the IOC will convene an Executive Board meeting and organise a Session, both of which involve interpreting under the aegis of the IOC and not the OCOG. As is the case with the IOC, recruits are selected from a list of veteran conference interpreters with a track record of working for institutions affiliated with the Olympic Movement. Generally, they will have had a minimum of five years’ Olympic experience, with only few exceptions to this rule. Work for other international organisations is not considered relevant, nor is AIIC membership or EU accreditation. However, most Olympic interpreters are AIIC members.

Younger colleagues do not receive any coaching or mentoring. Recruitment takes places both in the host country and overseas if some language combinations or Olympic experience are not available locally, which is usually the case, as the example of the 2006 Turin Winter Olympics shows (reported in Kelly, n.d., 30). The OCOG had stipulated that 60% of the professional interpreters had to be sourced at regional level. This turned out to be difficult as those professionals who were based in the region lacked the specific sports terminology as well as the required experience. As a result, most of them were not up to the task, which led to many complaints and even instances of athletes or trainers themselves having to act as interpreters.

As a rule, three main criteria apply to the recruitment of professional interpreters at Olympic Games: (1) they need to have at least three languages; (2) they need to have at least one very good active B language; (3) consecutive interpretation skills are mandatory as simultaneous is not used in all venues. The last of these criteria might come as a surprise as conference interpreters usually receive training in both consecutive and simultaneous when they take their degree; it would seem, however, that this cannot be taken for granted in all places. Another requirement is that interpreters love sports, although this should be a given if they are interested in working for the Olympic Movement.
Usually, between 80 and 100 professional interpreters are hired for the Summer Games, and between 60 and 80 for the Winter Games. Their number can be lower if the host country has English or French as its official language. For the 2016 Games in Rio de Janeiro, more than 100 interpreters will be under contract; for Beijing, the number was more than 200. At the Winter Games in Sochi in 2014, an unusually high number of 100 interpreters were deployed, which was partly due to the fact that many Russian interpreters only had one foreign language. As a result, a large number of them had to take relay off each other, though this is usually avoided. If, by contrast, all interpreters have three foreign languages, as is ideally the case, then 40 professionals are enough during Winter Games. This is the preferred solution for most OCOGs, not least because it is more cost-effective.

Interpreters are expected to prepare for their assignment by becoming familiar with the way the IOC and the Olympic Games are organised, with the rules and regulations of the various Olympic sports, with the names of previous medal winners and current favourites and with athletes’ biographies (cf. Pastor, n.d., para. 4). Some sports are highly technical both in their technique and in their jargon, which can be hard to understand for amateurs. For this reason, thorough preparation is crucial.

During the Games, the professional interpreters have a clearly defined remit: they are exclusively deployed at post-competition medal rounds (press conferences and interviews with the winners of gold, silver, bronze medals in the actual venues), at the Main Press Centre (MPC), at the meetings of the “chefs de mission” (i.e. the leaders of the national sports teams who meet every morning) and at meetings of the IOC, the Organising Committee (OCOG) and the International Sports Federations (IFs). Interpreters are likewise needed in the event of doping cases. All meetings and press conferences take place at the Main Press Centre, at the press centres in the individual venues and at the IOC hotel. There are no outdoor meetings. Interpreters also service the Court of Arbitration for Sport (TAS/CAS). CAS procedures are usually conducted in French or English, although under certain conditions other languages may be used.

At the press conferences, athletes will typically speak about the difficulties of the competition, their state of mind and about the weather conditions. As most athletes are not trained public speakers, sometimes their way of expressing themselves can pose problems for the interpreters. Another challenge is the fact that some of them will speak in a language that is not their mother tongue. During meetings of the Olympic institutions, likely topics include judges, referees and officials, alleged judges’ errors, physicians and medicine, doping issues, protests and arbitration.
As far as interpreting modes are concerned, both consecutive and simultaneous are used at the Games. Tour guide systems (“bidules”) are never employed, and whispering only occasionally for languages that are not offered officially. Roughly 60% of assignments are consecutive and 40% are simultaneous. At the Summer Games, simultaneous is only used in sports venues for what is known as “sports with high media content”, that is athletics, aquatics, basketball and gymnastics.

Typically, interpretation at the Olympics is offered in eleven languages: English, French, Spanish, Russian, German, Italian, Portuguese, Korean, Chinese, Japanese, Arabic. However, Spanish and Arabic are not used during Winter Games. In Rio de Janeiro in 2016, seven languages will be covered at the Main Press Centre. Again, relays are avoided if possible.

As most professional interpreters who work at the Games are members of AIIC, working conditions follow AIIC guidelines. It has to be said that working hours are minimal, though, as press conferences usually do not go on for longer than half an hour. However, interpreters need to be flexible as they can be called upon to work virtually at any time. Bonadona reports that interpreters’ contracts at the Athens Olympics stipulated a seven-hour-long working day, requiring interpreters to remain available if they had worked less (n.d., para. 9). An enjoyable part of the interpreters’ work is watching the competitions before the interviews with the winners, which is counted as work time. All in all, working hours are short, and no overtime is paid.

Apart from professional interpreters, basic interpreting services are provided by multilingual volunteers recruited in the host country. Their number varies between 2000 and 5000, depending on whether the host country has English or French as one of its official languages, in which case fewer volunteers are required. The volunteers’ chief responsibility is to facilitate communication between the athletes and the officials of the host country. Though not required to have trained as interpreters, they are tested rigorously for foreign language skills, and some who have been found to be particularly adept at their job have subsequently gone on to train as professional interpreters at the Monterey Institute of International Studies. The volunteers are tested and recruited by the human resources department but are supervised by the language service department. The chief interpreter’s only involvement with the volunteers is during a crash course in consecutive note-taking organised one week before the Games.
In the following, some statistics are given to paint a clearer picture of what the work of the interpreters is like at the Games. The language service department for the 1992 Summer Olympics in Barcelona, for instance, was set up four and a half years before the event. 176 professional interpreters were recruited: 62 from Barcelona, 19 from the rest of Spain and 95 from 18 other countries. Interpretation was offered in nine languages in addition to the four official ones for a total of 338 sessions at 42 different units (Kelly, n.d., 31).

For the 2000 Sydney Summer Olympics, the chief interpreter was appointed two years before the event. 88 professional interpreters were contracted for the Games, with 38 simultaneous interpreters mostly from overseas and 50 consecutive interpreters who were to a large extent recruited through the National Accreditation Authority of Translators and Interpreters in Australia. The languages covered by them were English, French, Spanish, Russian, German, Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Portuguese, Italian and Greek. They were deployed across 25 competition venues as well as 2 non-competition venues (the Main Press Centre as well as the Olympic Village and Olympic Family hotels). Simultaneous interpreting was provided in the non-competition venues plus some competition venues (Olympic Stadium, Sydney International Aquatic Centre, Sydney SuperDome, Pavilions and Dome, Sydney Entertainment Centre, Sydney Exhibition Halls and Convention Centre). Consecutive was offered in all remaining competition venues. From 28 August to 1 October 2000, a total of 2300 interpreting assignments were covered. Over and above the 88 professional interpreters, 898 multilingual volunteers were recruited. In addition to these traditional interpreting service providers, a Multi-Lingual Switchboard (MLSB) in the Olympic Village provided phone interpreting services in 51 languages. In case no volunteer could be found to answer a call or a specific language was not available, the call would be put through to the Translating and Interpreting Service (TIS) of the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs (DIMA) of the Australian government. A special agreement signed with DIMA had attributed a maximum of AUD 120,000 to the service, one call being charged at AUD 14. Over the course of the Games, the MLSB dealt with 2162 calls, with 883 being redirected to the TIS. In addition to professionals and volunteers, health care interpreters were engaged for polyclinic services ((Sydney Organising Committee for the Olympic Games, 2001, 325 f.)

For the Athens Summer Olympics in 2004, Kelly reports that language services centres were organised at all competition venues, at the Olympic Village, at the Main Press Centre (MPC) and Olympic Family hotels (n.d., 45 f.) There were two MPC press conference halls equipped for simultaneous interpretation, one covering 5 languages and the other 3 languages, plus three smaller meeting rooms where simultaneous interpretation was available upon request.
At the Olympic Village, the daily chefs de mission meetings offered simultaneous interpretation in 5 languages. Arabic was added for the first time on a request by the Arabic-speaking National Olympic Committees. Moreover, the Greek ministry of health provided 20 interpreters specialised in medical terminology, who offered their services at the Olympic Village Polyclinic, covering 6 languages and working over two shifts. A mobile emergency unit consisting of a fleet of 9 vehicles and 23 drivers operated around the clock to transport interpreters and volunteers to venues if a request was received for less common languages. A multilingual call centre provided call-based interpretation – not information, it is stressed – in 12 languages (French, English, Arabic, Chinese, German, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Portuguese, Russian, Serbian and Spanish). It operated around the clock, from the opening to the closing of the Olympic Village (30 July to 1 September 2004). There were a number of interpreters for each language, with 78 interpreters in total. A specially designed leaflet with instructions and telephone numbers per language was distributed to all the NOCs, the media, security staff and to all participants in the Games. The multilingual call centre handled more than 1,800 calls during the Games, with security personnel making extensive use of it besides the medical services, doping control services and the Olympic Village venue team. The languages with the greatest demand were Russian, Chinese, Spanish, Portuguese, Arabic, Japanese and Korean. Thirty staff based at the headquarters of the Athens Organising Committee of the Olympic Games (ATHOC) supervised the scheduled daily work of interpreters and volunteers, coordinated the movements of the mobile emergency unit and visited venues every day ensuring that operations ran smoothly.

4. Terminology work

The work of the IOC is mostly administrative and is organised in specialised commissions, requiring interpreters to be familiar with technical vocabulary in the areas of finance, law and medicine besides sport. As there is no terminology department as such, the official terminology has evolved over time and is based on tradition. The four staff translators employed by the IOC are likely to have had an influence on the choice of particular lexical items, given their long-standing work for the IOC. As the languages of the IOC are English and French, official terminology only exists in these two languages.

As for sports terminology, the Organising Committees of the Olympic Games (OCOGs) and some International Sports Federations (IFs) have glossaries of their own to which interpreters have access. Usually, each IF publishes technical manuals and explanatory brochures in English and French. In recent decades, terminology has also increasingly been
developed in the context of the Olympic Games. Kelly notes that a positive legacy of the 1996 Atlanta Games was the creation of sport-specific French and English glossaries compiled with the help of volunteers who researched terminology in publications from previous Olympics; these glossaries were expanded during the Sydney Games in 2000 and have been built on and used ever since (n.d., 32). During the Games in Athens 2004, a trilingual (French, English, Greek) dictionary was published together with a glossary of around 5,000 specialised sporting terms.

Significantly, terminology work has been particularly supported by the French government and other French-speaking institutions, notably the “Organisation internationale de la Francophonie” (OIF), with the aim of bolstering the use of French in the Olympic Movement. Being the mother tongue of its founder, Pierre de Coubertin, French has been pushed into second place by English. To counter that trend, the French have provided extensive terminological assistance. Kelly reports that during the 1996 Olympics in Atlanta the French ministry of foreign affairs financed a programme called FOCUS on French Olympic Terminology to provide native and non-native speakers of French with the opportunity to study issues and terminology unique to the Olympic Movement and Atlanta. For Kelly, this “is an indication of how the French Government intends to maintain the French language in diplomacy, including sports diplomacy” (n.d., 33). In an OIF press kit edited for the London 2012 Games, it is expressly stated that “[l]es Jeux olympiques et paralympiques sont l’occasion de conforter la place du français dans l’arène olympique, en tant que langue natale des Jeux modernes mais aussi comme gage d’avenir contre l’uniformité linguistique sur la scène internationale” (“La langue française aux Jeux olympiques de Londres 2012”, 3).

The OIF has even created the post of “Grand Témoin de la Francophonie”, a language envoy of sorts who is to watch over the use of French at the Olympic Games. This position has been filled with high-ranking individuals for each edition of the Olympics since the Athens Games in 2004. ATHOC, the Athens Organising Committee of the Olympic Games, was even awarded the “Prix de la Francophonie” by the French government for its efforts in promoting the use of the language. Given this commitment by the French, it comes as no surprise that the glossaries and terminology lists available to the public have been edited by a French publisher.29

29 These exhaustive glossaries have been published under the title “Lexique des sports olympiques” (plus the languages and a mention of Winter or Summer Games) by INSEP, some in book form, some on CD-ROM, and some have even been made available online at www.lexique-jo.org. Cf. the reference section for bibliographic details (Institut national du sport, de l’expertise et de la performance: Service d’information et de documentation, 2004, 2005).
CONCLUSION

It seems likely that neither the International Olympic Committee nor the Olympic Games could be run as successfully as they are without interpreters. As is the case with most international organisations, the Olympic institutions rely on them to ensure smooth communication between all the different participants and stakeholders. Conversely, it seems difficult for committed freelance interpreters who are looking for new opportunities to ignore one of the major recruiters of their profession. This is why newly established interpreters in particular but also more experienced professionals might take an interest in becoming familiar with the inner workings of the Olympic world. After reading the previous pages, it should be evident that the various institutions and events of the Olympic Movement offer a challenging but, above all, highly rewarding and exciting work environment for conference interpreters.

The aim of this thesis has been to assist them in their initial research by giving them essential background information on the Olympic Movement, elucidating some of the lesser known aspects of the Olympic system and, last but not least, providing them with details about how the interpreting services are organised. While a vast amount of factual information is available on the history and structure of the Olympic Movement, hardly anything can be found about the role of interpreters at the Olympics and the IOC. We hope that this study, notably Part II which builds on the interview with Bill Weber, has contributed somewhat to clarifying this issue and provided helpful guidance to those who would like to find out more about it.

Apart from serving a practical purpose by providing selected information on the history and structure of the Olympics, it is our hope that this study will serve as a starting point for further in-depth research on the topic of Olympic interpreting or particular aspects of it. As with many research projects relying for the most part on document analysis, the full complexity of the topic only became apparent in the course of writing. New material was discovered, and more and more references were followed up. Naturally, it was impossible to cover all aspects of the subject, nor could all relevant sources be taken into consideration. On the contrary, this study has been an exercise in trying to sort and simplify the plethora of data that was gathered. One aspect in particular, that of terminology, was regretfully too complex and rich to be treated in greater detail here. However, all relevant materials are listed in the reference section and can be traced either online or in libraries.
Finally, we hope that this study has made this complex subject more approachable and easy to understand without oversimplifying so that interpreters will be aware of the profound implications of working at the Olympics. The words of Klaus Steinbach, former president of the German National Olympic Committee (NOK) and member of the IOC’s Medical Commission, seem appropriate in this context:

Wenn der Olympische Athlet ausreichend Hintergrundwissen über die Olympische Bewegung besitzt, wird es ihm besser möglich sein, die Olympischen Werte zu vertreten und nach außen zu tragen.\(^{30}\) (2004, 5)

Not only athletes but interpreters too need to have sufficient background knowledge about the Olympic system in order to understand and communicate the Olympic values to the outside world and to become worthy representatives of the Olympic ideal.

\(^{30}\) "If Olympic athletes have sufficient background knowledge on the Olympic Movement they will be better able to represent and promote the Olympic values" [my translation, SH].


APPENDIX

1. Preliminary interview questionnaire

[The following is a transcript of the preliminary interview questionnaire. Original questions are in black, Bill Weber's answers are in red.]

General set-up of language services at the Olympic Games

1. How are language services (interpreters, translators and terminologists) organised? Are they outsourced or in-house? Is there a special language service department or does the secretariat organise these services?

   The IOC has four in-house translators for E and F, the two official languages of the Olympic Movement. There is no LS department per se. Some translations for Spanish are occasionally outsourced. All interpreters are freelance, both for the regular IOC meetings (Executive Board, Commissions and the Session), and for the Games. (More about these below).

2. Is it true that the different bodies of the Olympic movement each make their own arrangements, i.e. do the IOC and the Olympic Games each have their own language services? If so, do you know why are they organised separately (possibly based on tradition, different requirements of each body etc.)? Are there synergies between the different language services (do the share lists of interpreters, do they cooperate in any other way)?

   Yes, all bodies make their own arrangements but usually have a consultant interpreter whom they contact to put teams together for their events. Contracts are with the organizations directly, but the consultant does all the coordinating work. This has become a tradition of sorts. Again, none of the organizations have their own language services. There has been no need for that. There is a high degree of overlap with the interpreters, as prior experience with the Movement is a must.

3. Do you know if there is an official Olympic terminology, styleguide or glossary to make sure there is consistent use of terms by all language professionals (including interpreters) and across all publications (e.g. football vs. soccer)?

   Unfortunately, no official terminology or glossary has ever been published, but we use the official websites (E and F) of all organizations, including the IOC as a point of reference. There are some “set” terms. As you mentioned, the official terms are, f.ex. Football, Athletics, and Aquatics. I do not know if the IOC has a style guide for translations. As the four in-house translators have been with the IOC for over twenty years, I assume that they have agreed to
some rules internally. Traditionally, the LOCOGS (Local Organizing Committees of the Olympic Games) have published their own glossaries, usually in E, F and the language of the host country if it is different.

4. Are there **separate departments** for interpreters, translators and terminologists, or are they all integrated in one service?

As mentioned above, there are no departments for language services. To my knowledge, there are no terminologists

**Recruitment of interpreters**

5. Are interpreters exclusively **freelance** or is there a core of **in-house** interpreters? If there are both freelancers and staff interpreters, what is the **ratio** between the two?

- For in-house interpreters: How and where are **openings** announced?
- For freelancers: How are **contracts** offered to interpreters? Is contact to interpreters established through an agency, on the basis of recommendations by colleagues, personal contact, other?

All interpreters are freelancers. No agencies are involved, recruitment is handled through recommendation and personal contacts, from a pool of interpreters with past experience with the IOC and the Olympic Games.

6. Are interpreters recruited **locally** (i.e. from the respective Olympic city or country) or are they sourced from other destinations? Why?

Interpreters are recruited both locally from the organizing country and from abroad if some language combinations or Olympic experience are not available locally.

7. Is there something like an ideal **language profile** or most sought-after **language combination** for interpreters at the Olympic Games (e.g. AA, ABC, ACCCC)?

There some parameters: given that SI is not used in all venues, all interpreters MUST do CI and have a strong B language. Moreover, all must have more than two languages, so, ideally, a double A or an A plus a strong B and at least one C language. An ACCC combination would not be good.

8. What are the **criteria** that influence the selection process (professional domicile, language combination, personal knowledge, age, experience, other)? Are there any **special criteria** that you would consider unique to the Olympic Games (affinity to sports, stamina, and physical fitness)?

All of the above are important, except age, provided that candidates don’t mind travelling between venues every day. It is impossible to assign interpreters to ONE venue at all times. And, of course, they must love sports. We try to avoid relays if at all possible.
9. What is the level of **professional experience** that is expected (e.g. a certain number of years of professional practice, having worked for international organisations etc.)?

Generally, team members have had a minimum of five years’ experience. Work for international organizations is not a criterion.

10. Are young professionals or recent graduates recruited? If so, do they receive formal or informal mentoring?

As mentioned above, five years of professional experience is generally required, although there have been exceptions. Younger colleagues do not receive any special training. They are expected to prepare for this assignment like everyone else.

11. Are other **quality criteria** applied (e.g. AIIC membership, EU accreditation) to obtain a contract?

Quality criteria yes, but not necessarily AIIC membership or EU accreditation. Personal recommendations are more important.

12. Are **proficiency tests** carried out? No.

13. Who is **responsible for selecting** successful candidates?

The chief interpreter of the Games.

14. Are interpreter **contracts** made for specific events, for specific bodies or for specific periods of time?

No, usually for the whole duration of the Olympic Games. Interpreters must be available to work anywhere.

Assignment at the Olympic Games

15. **How many** interpreters work at the Games on average? How does this number compare with other language professionals (translators, multilingual stewards etc.)?

The number varies depending on whether the Games are hosted by a country where English or French are the national language. If that is the case, the number is usually between 60 and 80 for the Summer Games and between 30 and 40 for the Winter Games. In countries where neither English nor French are spoken, the number can reach 200 (Beijing), or 100 (Rio). I have no information about other language professionals. Language Services typically has about 500-800 volunteers.

16. Can you quantify **man-days** and the average **number of languages** at the Games?

I do not have statistics on man-days. Typically, 11 languages are used: English, French, Spanish, Russian, German, Italian, Portuguese, Korean,
Chinese, Japanese, and Arabic. Spanish and Arabic are not used for the Winter Games.

17. On average, how far are assignments fixed in advance? Are there interpreters who are on call?

All interpreters receive a contract for the whole duration, none are on call. Contracts are usually signed six months before the Summer Games and four months before the Winter Games.

18. What are the typical assignments for interpreters (briefings, press conferences, negotiations with NOCs, sports competitions, assisting athletes, expert meetings on technical issues, panel discussions, TV and radio programmes etc.)?

All of the above, with the exception of TV and Radio. These media only interview athletes from their own countries and do not need interpreters. If there are doping cases, interpreters will be needed. We also service the Court of Arbitration for Sports (CAS) and some Federation meetings.

19. What are the settings that interpreting usually takes place in (conference rooms, hotel lobbies, outdoors, sports facilities)?

All meetings and press conferences are held in the venue press centers, the Main Press Center, and the IOC hotel. No meetings are held outdoors.

20. What are the most common interpreting modes (simultaneous, consecutive, bilateral, whispering, hush-a-phone/bidule)?

No bidules ever. Mostly 60% CI, 40% SI. Whispering for languages that we do not offer officially.

21. What are the working conditions like (limit on working hours, manning strength, documents being made available to interpreters before events, booths corresponding to ISO standards)? How do they compare to AIIC conditions?

As most interpreters are AIIC members, AIIC conditions prevail. Working hours are very minimal because press conferences usually do not exceed about 30 minutes. Watching the competitions before the interviews with the medalists is counted as work time. Typically, the actual work time is very short, and no overtime is paid.

Terminology

22. What are common technical areas addressed at the Olympic Games (sports, finance, administration, medicine etc.)?

All of the above. The IOC Session is a mini United Nations GA.
23. Do interpreters have to use “official” terminology for sports (e.g. football vs. soccer; umpire vs. referee; coach vs. trainer; track-and-field vs. athletics; rame vs. aviron)?

Absolutely, and they have access to the glossaries of the organizing committees and of some federations. Also, Technical Manuals and Explanatory Brochures are published by each federation in E and F.

Final Questions

24. Is there anything important that you would like to add?

We can discuss over the phone.

25. What would you recommend to recent graduates and young professionals who are interested in working at the Olympic Games?

Write to the IOC and the International Federations, most of which are now located in Lausanne.
2. Text of the Olympic Charter

The following annex reproduces the text of the Olympic Charter as amended on 8 December 2014. For the Charter in the format published by the Internation Olympic Committee please refer to the reference section (International Olympic Committee 2014d).

Preamble

Modern Olympism was conceived by Pierre de Coubertin, on whose initiative the International Athletic Congress of Paris was held in June 1894. The International Olympic Committee (IOC) constituted itself on 23 June 1894. The first Olympic Games (Games of the Olympiad) of modern times were celebrated in Athens, Greece, in 1896. In 1914, the Olympic flag presented by Pierre de Coubertin at the Paris Congress was adopted. It includes the five interlaced rings, which represent the union of the five continents and the meeting of athletes from throughout the world at the Olympic Games. The first Olympic Winter Games were celebrated in Chamonix, France, in 1924.

Fundamental Principles of Olympism

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

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

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

4. The practice of sport is a human right. Every individual must have the possibility of practising sport, without discrimination of any kind and in the Olympic spirit, which requires mutual understanding with a spirit of friendship, solidarity and fair play.

5. Recognising that sport occurs within the framework of society, sports organisations within the Olympic Movement shall have the rights and obligations of autonomy, which include freely establishing and controlling the rules of sport, determining the structure and governance of their organisations, enjoying the right of elections free from any outside influence and the responsibility for ensuring that principles of good governance be applied.

6. The enjoyment of the rights and freedoms set forth in this Olympic Charter shall be secured without discrimination of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, sexual orientation, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.
Belonging to the Olympic Movement requires compliance with the Olympic Charter and recognition by the IOC.

Chapter 1: The Olympic Movement

1 Composition and general organisation of the Olympic Movement

1. Under the supreme authority and leadership of the International Olympic Committee, the Olympic Movement encompasses organisations, athletes and other persons who agree to be guided by the Olympic Charter. The goal of the Olympic Movement is to contribute to building a peaceful and better world by educating youth through sport practised in accordance with Olympism and its values.

2. The three main constituents of the Olympic Movement are the International Olympic Committee ("IOC"), the International Sports Federations ("IFs") and the National Olympic Committees ("NOCs").

3. In addition to its three main constituents, the Olympic Movement also encompasses the Organising Committees for the Olympic Games ("OCOGs"), the national associations, clubs and persons belonging to the IFs and NOCs, particularly the athletes, whose interests constitute a fundamental element of the Olympic Movement's action, as well as the judges, referees, coaches and the other sports officials and technicians. It also includes other organisations and institutions as recognised by the IOC.

4. Any person or organisation belonging in any capacity whatsoever to the Olympic Movement is bound by the provisions of the Olympic Charter and shall abide by the decisions of the IOC.

2 Mission and role of the IOC

The mission of the IOC is to promote Olympism throughout the world and to lead the Olympic Movement. The IOC's role is:

1. to encourage and support the promotion of ethics and good governance in sport as well as education of youth through sport and to dedicate its efforts to ensuring that, in sport, the spirit of fair play prevails and violence is banned;

2. to encourage and support the organisation, development and coordination of sport and sports competitions;

3. to ensure the regular celebration of the Olympic Games;

4. to cooperate with the competent public or private organisations and authorities in the endeavour to place sport at the service of humanity and thereby to promote peace;

5. to take action to strengthen the unity of the Olympic Movement, to protect its independence and to preserve the autonomy of sport;

6. to act against any form of discrimination affecting the Olympic Movement;

7. to encourage and support the promotion of women in sport at all levels and in all structures with a view to implementing the principle of equality of men and women;
8. to protect clean athletes and the integrity of sport, by leading the fight against doping, and by taking action against all forms of manipulation of competitions and related corruption;
9. to encourage and support measures relating to the medical care and health of athletes;
10. to oppose any political or commercial abuse of sport and athletes;
11. to encourage and support the efforts of sports organisations and public authorities to provide for the social and professional future of athletes;
12. to encourage and support the development of sport for all;
13. to encourage and support a responsible concern for environmental issues, to promote sustainable development in sport and to require that the Olympic Games are held accordingly;
14. to promote a positive legacy from the Olympic Games to the host cities and host countries;
15. to encourage and support initiatives blending sport with culture and education;
16. to encourage and support the activities of the International Olympic Academy ("IOA") and other institutions which dedicate themselves to Olympic education.

Bye-law to Rule 2

1. The IOC Executive Board may grant IOC patronage, upon such terms and conditions as it may consider appropriate, to international multisports competitions - regional, continental or worldwide - on condition that they take place in compliance with the Olympic Charter and are organised under the control of NOCs or associations recognised by the IOC, with the assistance of the IFs concerned and in conformity with their technical rules.

2. The IOC Executive Board may grant IOC patronage to other events, provided such events are in keeping with the goal of the Olympic Movement.

3 Recognition by the IOC

1. The IOC may grant formal recognition to the constituents of the Olympic Movement.

2. The IOC may recognise as NOCs national sports organisations, the activities of which are linked to its mission and role. The IOC may also recognise associations of NOCs formed at continental or world level. All NOCs and associations of NOCs shall have, where possible, the status of legal persons. They must comply with the Olympic Charter. Their statutes are subject to the approval of the IOC.

3. The IOC may recognise IFs and associations of IFs.

4. The recognition of associations of IFs or NOCs does not in any way affect the right of each IF and of each NOC to deal directly with the IOC, and vice-versa.

5. The IOC may recognise non-governmental organisations connected with sport, operating on an international level, the statutes and activities of which are in conformity with the Olympic Charter.

6. In each case, the consequences of recognition are determined by the IOC Executive Board.
7. Recognition by the IOC may be provisional or full. Provisional recognition, or its withdrawal, is decided by the IOC Executive Board for a specific or an indefinite period. The IOC Executive Board may determine the conditions according to which provisional recognition may lapse. Full recognition, or its withdrawal, is decided by the Session. All details of recognition procedures are determined by the IOC Executive Board.

4 Olympic Congress

The Olympic Congress gathers representatives of the constituents of the Olympic Movement, at intervals determined by the IOC; it is convened by the IOC President; its role is consultative.

Bye-law to Rule 4

1. The Olympic Congress is convened by the President, upon decision of the Session, and organised by the IOC at a place and on a date determined by the Session. The President shall preside and determine the procedure.

2. The Olympic Congress consists of the members, Honorary President, honorary members and honour members of the IOC, the delegates representing the IFs and the NOCs; it may also include representatives of organisations recognised by the IOC. In addition, the Olympic Congress is attended by athletes and personalities invited in their individual or representative capacity.

3. The IOC Executive Board determines the agenda of the Olympic Congress after consultation with the IFs and the NOCs.

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.

6 Olympic Games

1. The Olympic Games are competitions between athletes in individual or team events and not between countries. They bring together the athletes selected by their respective NOCs, whose entries have been accepted by the IOC. They compete under the technical direction of the IFs concerned.

2. The Olympic Games consist of the Games of the Olympiad and the Olympic Winter Games. Only those sports which are practised on snow or ice are considered as winter sports.

Bye-law to Rule 6

1. An Olympiad is a period of four consecutive calendar years, beginning on 1 January of the first year and ending on 31 December of the fourth year.

2. The Olympiads are numbered consecutively from the first Games of the Olympiad celebrated in Athens in 1896. The XXIX Olympiad will begin on 1 January 2008.

3. The Olympic Winter Games are numbered in the order in which they are held.

7 Rights over the Olympic Games and Olympic properties

1. As leader of the Olympic Movement, the IOC is responsible for enhancing the values of the Olympic Movement and for providing material support in the efforts to organise and disseminate the Olympic Games, and supporting the IFs, NOCs and athletes in their preparations for the Olympic Games. The IOC is the owner of all rights in and to the Olympic Games and Olympic properties described in this Rule, which rights have the potential to generate revenues for such purposes. It is in the best interests of the Olympic Movement and its constituents which benefit from such revenues that all such rights and Olympic properties be afforded the greatest possible protection by all concerned and that the use thereof be approved by the IOC.

2. The Olympic Games are the exclusive property of the IOC which owns all rights and data relating thereto, in particular, and without limitation, all rights relating to their organisation, exploitation, broadcasting, recording, representation, reproduction, access and dissemination in any form and by any means or mechanism whatsoever, whether now existing or developed in the future.

3. The IOC shall determine the conditions of access to and the conditions of any use of data relating to the Olympic Games and to the competitions and sports performances of the Olympic Games.

4. The Olympic symbol, flag, motto, anthem, identifications (including but not limited to “Olympic Games” and “Games of the Olympiad”), designations, emblems, flame and torches, as defined in Rules 8-14 below, may, for convenience, be collectively or individually referred to as “Olympic properties”. All rights to any and all Olympic properties, as well as all rights to the use thereof, belong exclusively to the IOC, including but not limited to the use for any
profit-making, commercial or advertising purposes. The IOC may license all or part of its rights on terms and conditions set forth by the IOC Executive Board.

8 **The Olympic symbol**

The Olympic symbol consists of five interlaced rings of equal dimensions (the Olympic rings), used alone, in one or in five different colours. When used in its five-colour version, these colours shall be, from left to right, blue, yellow, black, green and red. The rings are interlaced from left to right; the blue, black and red rings are situated at the top, the yellow and green rings at the bottom in accordance with the following graphic reproduction. The Olympic symbol expresses the activity of the Olympic Movement and represents the union of the five continents and the meeting of athletes from throughout the world at the Olympic Games.

OQP

9 **The Olympic flag**

The Olympic flag has a white background, with no border. The Olympic symbol in its five colours is located in its centre.

10 **The Olympic motto**

The Olympic motto “Citius - Altius - Fortius” expresses the aspirations of the Olympic Movement.

11 **Olympic emblems**

An Olympic emblem is an integrated design associating the Olympic rings with another distinctive element.

12 **The Olympic anthem**

The Olympic anthem is the musical work entitled “Olympic anthem”, composed by Spiro Samara.

13 **The Olympic flame, Olympic torches**

1. The Olympic flame is the flame which is kindled in Olympia under the authority of the IOC.
2. An Olympic torch is a portable torch, or a replica thereof, as approved by the IOC and intended for combustion of the Olympic flame.

14 **Olympic designations**

An Olympic designation is any visual or audio representation of any association, connection or other link with the Olympic Games, the Olympic Movement, or any constituent thereof.

Bye-law to Rules 7-14

1. Legal protection:
   1.1 The IOC may take all appropriate steps to obtain the legal protection for itself, on both a national and international basis, of the rights over the Olympic Games and over any Olympic property.
   1.2 Each NOC is responsible to the IOC for the observance, in its country, of Rules 7-14 and BLR 7-14. It shall take steps to prohibit any use of any Olympic properties which would
be contrary to such Rules or their Bye-laws. It shall also endeavour to obtain, for the benefit of the IOC, protection of the Olympic properties of the IOC.

1.3 Where a national law or a trademark registration or other form of legal instrument grants legal protection to an NOC for the Olympic symbol or any other Olympic property, such NOC may only use the ensuing rights in compliance with the Olympic Charter and with instructions received from the IOC.

1.4 An NOC may at any time call upon the IOC for its assistance in obtaining legal protection for any Olympic property and for the settlement of any dispute which may arise with third parties in such matters.

1.5 The IOC may at any time call upon an NOC for its assistance in obtaining legal protection for any Olympic property and for the settlement of any dispute which may arise with third parties in such matters.

2. Use of Olympic properties by the IOC or by third parties authorised or licensed by the IOC:

2.1 The IOC may create one or several Olympic emblems which it may use at its discretion.

2.2 The Olympic symbol, the Olympic emblems and any other Olympic properties of the IOC may be exploited by the IOC, or by a person authorised by it, in the country of an NOC, provided that the following conditions are respectively fulfilled:

2.2.1 For all sponsorship and suppliership agreements and for all marketing initiatives other than those referred to in paragraph 2.2.2 below, such exploitation shall not cause serious damage to the interests of the NOC concerned, and the decision shall be taken by the IOC in consultation with such NOC, which shall receive part of the net proceeds deriving from such exploitation.

2.2.2 For all licensing agreements, the NOC shall receive half of all net income from such exploitation, after deduction of all taxes and out-of-pocket costs relating thereto. The NOC will be informed in advance of any such exploitation.

2.3 The IOC, in its sole discretion, may authorise the broadcasters of the Olympic Games to use the Olympic symbol, the Olympic emblems of the IOC or other Olympic properties of the IOC and the OCOGs to promote the broadcasts of the Olympic Games. The provisions of paragraphs 2.2.1 and 2.2.2 of this Bye-law do not apply in respect of any such authorisation.

3. Use of the Olympic symbol, flag, motto and anthem:

3.1 Subject to paragraph 2.2 of this Bye-law, the IOC may use the Olympic symbol, flag, motto and anthem at its discretion.

3.2 The NOCs may only use the Olympic symbol, flag, motto and anthem within the framework of their non-profit-making activities, provided such use contributes to the development of the Olympic Movement and does not detract from its dignity, and provided the NOCs concerned have obtained the prior approval of the IOC Executive Board.

4. Creation and use of an Olympic emblem by an NOC or an OCOG:

4.1 An Olympic emblem may be created by an NOC or an OCOG subject to the approval of the IOC.
4.2 The IOC may approve the design of an Olympic emblem provided that it considers that such emblem is distinct from other Olympic emblems.

4.3 The area covered by the Olympic symbol contained in an Olympic emblem shall not exceed one third of the total area of such emblem. The Olympic symbol contained in an Olympic emblem must appear in its entirety and must not be altered in any way.

4.4 In addition to the foregoing, the Olympic emblem of an NOC must fulfil the following conditions:

4.4.1 The emblem must be designed in such a way that it is clearly identified as being connected with the country of the NOC concerned.

4.4.2 The distinctive element of the emblem cannot be limited to the sole name - or abbreviation of such name - of the country of the NOC concerned.

4.4.3 The distinctive element of the emblem must not make reference to the Olympic Games or to a specific date or event so as to be limited in time.

4.4.4 The distinctive element of the emblem must not contain mottoes, designations or other generic expressions which give the impression of being universal or international in nature.

4.5 In addition to the provisions contained in paragraphs 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 above, the Olympic emblem of an OCOG must fulfil the following conditions:

4.5.1 The emblem must be designed in such a way that it is clearly identifiable as being connected with the Olympic Games organised by the OCOG concerned.

4.5.2 The distinctive element of the emblem cannot be limited to the sole name - or abbreviation of such name - of the country of the OCOG concerned.

4.5.3 The distinctive element of the emblem must not contain mottoes, designations or other generic expressions which give the impression of being universal or international in nature.

4.6 Any Olympic emblem which has been approved by the IOC before the foregoing provisions come into effect shall remain valid.

4.7 Whenever and wherever possible, the Olympic emblem of an NOC must be susceptible of registration, i.e. of legal protection, by the NOC in its country. The NOC must carry out such registration within six months of such emblem’s approval by the IOC and provide the IOC with proof of registration. IOC approval of Olympic emblems may be withdrawn unless the NOCs concerned take all possible steps to protect their Olympic emblems and inform the IOC of such protection. Similarly, the OCOGs must protect their Olympic emblems in accordance with the instructions of the IOC. Any protection obtained by the NOCs and the OCOGs cannot be invoked against the IOC.

4.8 The use of an Olympic emblem for any advertising, commercial or profit-making purposes whatsoever must be in accordance with the conditions laid down in paragraphs 4.9 and 4.10 below.

4.9 Any NOC or OCOG wishing to use its Olympic emblem for any advertising, commercial or profit-making purposes whatsoever, either directly or through third parties, must comply with this Bye-law and ensure its observance by such third parties.
4.10 All contracts or arrangements, including those concluded by an OCOG, shall be signed or approved by the NOC concerned and shall be governed by the following principles:

4.10.1 The use of an NOC Olympic emblem shall only be valid within the country of the said NOC; such emblem, as well as any other symbols, emblems, marks or designations of an NOC which refer to Olympism, may not be used for any advertising, commercial or profit-making purposes whatsoever in the country of another NOC without the latter’s prior written approval.

4.10.2 Similarly, the Olympic emblem of an OCOG as well as any other symbols, emblems, marks or designations of an OCOG which refer to Olympism, may not be used for any advertising, commercial or profit-making purposes whatsoever in the country of an NOC without the prior written approval of such NOC.

4.10.3 In all cases, the period of validity of any contract concluded by an OCOG must not extend beyond 31 December of the year of the Olympic Games concerned.

4.10.4 The use of an Olympic emblem must contribute to the development of the Olympic Movement and must not detract from its dignity; any association whatsoever between an Olympic emblem and products or services is prohibited if such association is incompatible with the Fundamental Principles of Olympism or the role of the IOC as set out in the Olympic Charter.

4.10.5 Upon request by the IOC, any NOC or OCOG shall provide a copy of any contract to which it is a party.

5. Philately:

The IOC encourages, in collaboration with the NOCs of the countries concerned, the use of the Olympic symbol on postage stamps issued in liaison with the IOC by the competent national authorities, subject to the conditions set forth by the IOC.

6. Musical works:

The OCOG and the NOC of the host city and country shall ensure that the procedure for designation of the IOC as owner of the copyright on any musical works specifically commissioned in connection with the Olympic Games occurs to the satisfaction of the IOC.

Chapter 2: The International Olympic Committee (IOC)

15 Legal status

1. The IOC is an international non-governmental not-for-profit organisation, of unlimited duration, in the form of an association with the status of a legal person, recognised by the Swiss Federal Council in accordance with an agreement entered into on 1 November 2000.

2. Its seat is in Lausanne (Switzerland), the Olympic capital.

3. The object of the IOC is to fulfil the mission, role and responsibilities as assigned to it by the Olympic Charter.

4. In order to fulfil its mission and carry out its role, the IOC may establish, acquire or otherwise control other legal entities such as foundations or corporations.

16 Members*

1. Composition of the IOC - Eligibility, recruitment, election, admittance and status of
IOC members:

1.1 IOC members are natural persons. The total number of IOC members may not exceed 115, subject to BLR 16. The IOC is composed of:

   1.1.1 a majority of members whose memberships are not linked to any specific function or office, including up to five members who may be elected in special cases; their total number may not exceed 70; except for the five members referred to above, BLR 16.2.2.5 shall be applicable and there may be no more than one such member national of any given country, as defined in and subject to BLR 16;

   1.1.2 active athletes, as defined in BLR 16.2.2.2, the total number of whom may not exceed 15;

   1.1.3 Presidents or persons holding an executive or senior leadership position within IFs, associations of IFs or other organisations recognised by the IOC, the total number of whom may not exceed 15;

   1.1.4 Presidents or persons holding an executive or senior leadership position within NOCs, or world or continental associations of NOCs, the total number of whom may not exceed 15; there may be no more than one such member national of any given country within the IOC.

1.2 The IOC recruits and elects its members from among such eligible persons as it considers qualified, in accordance with BLR 16.

1.3 The IOC admits its new members at a ceremony during which they agree to fulfil their obligations by taking the following oath:

   “Granted the honour of becoming a member of the International Olympic Committee, and declaring myself aware of my responsibilities in such capacity, I undertake to serve the Olympic Movement to the very best of my ability; to respect and ensure the respect of all the provisions of the Olympic Charter and the decisions of the International Olympic Committee, which I consider as not subject to appeal on my part; to comply with the Code of Ethics; to keep myself free from any political or commercial influence and from any racial or religious consideration; to fight against all other forms of discrimination; and to promote in all circumstances the interests of the International Olympic Committee and those of the Olympic Movement.”

1.4 Members of the IOC represent and promote the interests of the IOC and of the Olympic Movement in their countries and in the organisations of the Olympic Movement in which they serve.

1.5 Members of the IOC will not accept from governments, organisations, or other parties, any mandate or instructions liable to interfere with the freedom of their action and vote.

1.6 IOC members are not personally liable for the debts or obligations of the IOC.

1.7 Subject to Rule 16.3, each member of the IOC is elected for a term of eight years and may be re-elected for one or several further terms. The procedure for re-election is established by the IOC Executive Board.

2. Obligations:

Each IOC member has the following obligations:
2.1 to comply with the Olympic Charter, the Code of Ethics and other regulations of the IOC;
2.2 to participate in Sessions;
2.3 to participate in the work of the IOC commissions to which the member has been appointed;
2.4 to contribute to the development and promotion of the Olympic Movement;
2.5 to monitor, in the member’s country and in the organisation of the Olympic Movement in which the member serves, the implementation of the IOC’s programmes;
2.6 to inform the President, upon his request, of the development and promotion of the Olympic Movement and its needs in the member’s country and in the organisation of the Olympic Movement in which the member serves;
2.7 to inform the President, without delay, of all events liable to hinder the application of the Olympic Charter or to otherwise adversely affect the Olympic Movement in his country or in the organisation of the Olympic Movement in which he serves;
2.8 to perform other tasks assigned to the member by the President.

3. Cessation of membership:

The membership of IOC members ceases in the following circumstances:

3.1 Resignation:
Any IOC member may cease his membership at any time by delivering his written resignation to the President. Before recognising such resignation, the IOC Executive Board may ask to hear the resigning member.

3.2 Non re-election:
Any IOC member ceases to be a member without further formality if he is not re-elected in accordance with Rule 16.1.7, BLR 16.2.5 and, as the case may be, BLR 16.2.6.2.

3.3 Age limit:
3.3.1 Any IOC member ceases to be a member at the end of the calendar year during which he reaches the age of 70, subject to Rule 16.3.3.2 and BLR 16.2.6.1.
3.3.2 Extension of age limit:
3.3.2.1 The Session may, on the proposal of the IOC Executive Board, extend the age limit for any IOC member who is not subject to the transitional provisions set forth in BLR 16.2.6.1.
3.3.2.2 There may be no more than five such IOC members for whom the age limit is extended at any time.
3.3.2.3 Any extension will be for up to a maximum of four years.
3.3.2.4 The vote of the Session will be taken in a secret ballot, by a majority of the votes cast.

3.4 Failure to attend Sessions or take active part in IOC work:
Any IOC member shall cease to be a member without any further declaration on his part if, subject to force majeure, such member fails to attend Sessions or to take any active part in
the work of the IOC for two consecutive years. In such cases, the cessation of membership will be established by decision of the Session upon the proposal of the IOC Executive Board.

3.5 Transfer of domicile or of main centre of interests:

Any IOC member as defined in Rule 16.1.1.1 shall cease to be a member if he has transferred his domicile or main centre of interests to a country other than the country that was his at the time of his election.

In such case, the cessation of membership will be established by decision of the Session upon the proposal of the IOC Executive Board.

3.6 Members elected as active athletes:

Any IOC member as defined in Rule 16.1.1.2 above ceases to be a member upon ceasing to be a member of the IOC Athletes' Commission.

3.7 Presidents and persons holding an executive or senior leadership position within NOCs, world or continental associations of NOCs, IFs or associations of IFs or other organisations recognised by the IOC:

Any IOC member as defined in Rule 16.1.1.3 or Rule 16.1.1.4 ceases to be a member upon ceasing to exercise the function he was exercising at the time of his election.

3.8 Expulsion:

3.8.1 An IOC member may be expelled by decision of the Session if such member has betrayed his oath or if the Session considers that such member has neglected or knowingly jeopardised the interests of the IOC or acted in a way which is unworthy of the IOC.

3.8.2 The decision to expel an IOC member is taken by the Session upon the proposal of the IOC Executive Board. Such decision requires a majority of two-thirds of the votes cast. The member concerned has the right to be heard; such right includes the right to be acquainted with the charges and the right to appear personally or to submit a defence in writing.

3.8.3 Until the Session decides on an expulsion proposal, the IOC Executive Board may provisionally suspend the member concerned and deprive such member of all or part of the rights, prerogatives and functions deriving from his membership.

3.8.4 A member expelled from the IOC may not be a member of an NOC, an association of NOCs or an OCOG.

4. Honorary President - Honorary Members - Honour Members:

4.1 Upon the proposal of the IOC Executive Board, the Session may elect as Honorary President an IOC member who has rendered exceptional services as President of the IOC. The Honorary President has the right to offer his advice.

4.2 Any IOC member who retires after serving the IOC for at least ten years and having rendered exceptional services to it may, upon the proposal of the IOC Executive Board, be elected by the Session as an honorary member of the IOC.

4.3 Upon the proposal of the IOC Executive Board, the Session may elect as honour members eminent personalities from outside the IOC who have rendered particularly outstanding services to it.
4.4 The Honorary President, honorary members and honour members are elected for life. They do not have the right to vote, nor are they eligible for any IOC office. The provisions of Rules 16.1.1 - 1.5, 16.1.7, 16.2, 16.3 and BLR 16.1 and 16.2 do not apply to them. Their status may be withdrawn by decision of the Session.

Bye-law to Rule 16

1. Eligibility:

Any natural person aged 18 or over is eligible for IOC membership, provided that:

1.1 such person’s candidature is submitted in accordance with paragraph 2.1 below;
1.2 such person fulfils the conditions laid down in paragraph 2.2 below;
1.3 such candidature has been examined and reported upon by the Nominations Commission;
1.4 such person’s election is proposed to the Session by the IOC Executive Board.

2. Procedure for electing IOC members:

2.1 Submission of candidatures for election to IOC membership:

The following persons and organisations are entitled to submit candidatures for election to IOC membership: IOC members, IFs, associations of IFs, NOCs, world or continental associations of NOCs and other organisations recognised by the IOC.

2.2 Admissibility of candidates:

To be admissible, all candidatures must be submitted in writing to the President and fulfil the following conditions:

2.2.1 Any person or organisation submitting a candidature for election to IOC membership must clearly indicate, for each candidature, whether the candidate is being proposed as an active athlete pursuant to paragraph 2.2.2 below, or whether the candidature is linked to a function which the candidate exercises within one of the organisations cited in paragraphs 2.2.3 or 2.2.4 below, or whether the candidature concerns an independent individual in accordance with paragraph 2.2.5 below.

2.2.2 If the candidate is proposed as an active athlete in the meaning of Rule 16.1.1.2, such candidate must have been elected or appointed to the IOC Athletes’ Commission not later than the edition of the Games of the Olympiad or the Olympic Winter Games following the Olympic Games in which such candidate last participated.

2.2.3 If the candidature is linked to a function within an IF or association of IFs, or an organisation recognised by the IOC pursuant to Rule 3.5, the candidate must hold the office of president thereof or be a person holding within it an executive or senior leadership position.

2.2.4 If the candidature is linked to a function within an NOC or world or continental association of NOCs, the candidate must hold the office of president thereof or be a person holding within it an executive or senior leadership position.
2.2.5 Any other candidature proposal must concern an independent individual who is a national of a country in which such person has his domicile or main centre of interests and in which there is an NOC.

2.3 The IOC Nominations Commission:

2.3.1 Subject to the direction of the IOC Executive Board, the IOC Nominations Commission is charged with preparing profiles and proposing candidates in order to achieve a diverse and balanced membership of the IOC. To this end, the IOC Nominations Commission is to examine and evaluate all candidatures for election to IOC membership in accordance with BLR 21.3 and, for each candidature, provide a written report to the IOC Executive Board within the deadline set to that effect by the IOC President.

2.3.2 The IOC Nominations Commission gathers all useful information on the candidates, including career and sports activities; the Commission may ask the candidate to provide references from personalities from whom it may obtain information, and source information and advice from other person–alities and organisations; the Commission may also invite a candidate for an interview.

2.3.3 The IOC Nominations Commission verifies the eligibility, origin and admis–sibility of each candidature and, if necessary, the candidate’s status as an active athlete or the function to which the candidature is linked.

2.3.4 In evaluating candidatures linked to a function within an IF or NOC, the IOC Nominations Commission shall also take into consideration whether a candidate’s respective IF or NOC has an athletes’ commission which is compliant with the applicable regulations of the IOC, and that such IF or NOC is compliant with the Olympic Charter and the World Anti-Doping Code.

2.3.5 The IOC Nominations Commission must include at least one representa–tive of the IOC Ethics Commission and one representative of the IOC Athletes’ Commission.

2.4 Procedure before the IOC Executive Board:

2.4.1 The IOC Executive Board alone is competent to propose a candidature to the Session. When deciding to propose a candidature, the IOC Executive Board submits to the Session, no later than one month before its opening, a written proposal to which is attached the report by the Nominations Commission. The IOC Executive Board may hear a candidate. It may propose several candidatures for the election of a single member.

2.4.2 The procedure for examining candidatures proposed as active athletes pursuant to paragraphs 2.2.1 and 2.2.2 above may be accelerated and the deadlines provided in paragraph 2.4.1 above waived inasmuch as is necessary to allow the prompt election, as IOC members, of active athletes newly elected to the IOC Athletes’ Commission.

2.5 Procedure before the Session:

2.5.1 The Session alone is competent to elect any IOC member.

2.5.2 The Chair of the Nominations Commission has the right to communicate to the Session the opinion of the said Commission.

2.5.3 All candidatures for election to IOC membership proposed by the IOC Executive Board are submitted to a vote by the Session; votes are taken by secret ballot; decisions are taken by a majority of the votes cast.
2.6 Transitional provisions:

The established rights of IOC members whose election has taken effect before the date of the closing of the 110th Session (11 December 1999) are maintained as follows:

2.6.1 Any IOC member whose election has taken effect before the date of the closing of the 110th Session (11 December 1999) must retire by the end of the calendar year during which he reaches the age of 80, unless he was elected before 1966. If a member reaches this age limit during his term as President, Vice-President or IOC Executive Board member, the retirement will take effect at the end of the next Session.

2.6.2 The limitation to one member national of any given country, as set forth in Rule 16.1.1.1, last sentence, does not apply to IOC members whose election has taken effect before the date of the closing of the 110th Session (11 December 1999).

3. Register of members:

The IOC Executive Board keeps an up-to-date register of all the IOC members, Honorary President, honorary members and honour members. The register specifies the origin of each member’s candidature and indicates whether the member’s candidature was submitted as an active athlete, or linked to another function, or submitted as an independent individual.

4. Honorary President - Honorary Members - Honour Members:

4.1 The Honorary President is invited to attend the Olympic Games, Olympic Congresses, Sessions and meetings of the IOC Executive Board, where a place is reserved for him beside the President. He has the right to offer his advice.

4.2 Honorary members are invited to attend the Olympic Games, Olympic Congresses and Sessions, where a place is reserved for each of them; they offer their advice when requested by the President.

4.3 Honour members are invited to attend the Olympic Games and Olympic Congresses, where a place is reserved for each of them. The President may also invite them to attend other IOC meetings or events.

17 Organisation

The powers of the IOC are exercised by its organs, namely:

1. the Session,
2. the IOC Executive Board,
3. the President.

18 The Session*

1. The Session is the general meeting of the members of the IOC. It is the IOC’s supreme organ. Its decisions are final. An ordinary Session is held once a year. Extraordinary Sessions may be convened by the President or upon the written request of at least one third of the members.

2. The powers of the Session are the following:

2.1 to adopt or amend the Olympic Charter;
2.2 to elect the members of the IOC, the Honorary President, honorary members and honour members;
2.3 to elect the President, the Vice-Presidents and all other members of the IOC Executive Board;
2.4 to elect the host city of the Olympic Games;
2.5 to elect the city in which an ordinary Session is held, the President having the authority to determine the city in which an extraordinary Session is held;
2.6 to approve the annual report and accounts of the IOC;
2.7 to appoint the IOC’s auditors;
2.8 to decide on the awarding or withdrawal by the IOC of full recognition to or from NOCs, associations of NOCs, IFs, associations of IFs and other organisations;
2.9 to expel IOC members and to withdraw the status of Honorary President, honorary members and honour members;
2.10 to resolve and decide upon all other matters assigned to it by law or by the Olympic Charter.
3. The quorum required for a Session is half the total membership of the IOC plus one. Decisions of the Session are taken by a majority of the votes cast; however, a majority of two-thirds of the votes cast is required for any modification of the Fundamental Principles of Olympism, of the Rules of the Olympic Charter or if elsewhere provided in the Olympic Charter.
4. Each member has one vote. Abstentions and blank or spoiled votes are not taken into consideration in the calculation of the required majority. Voting by proxy is not allowed. Voting is held by secret ballot when so required by the Olympic Charter, or if the Chairman so decides or upon the request of at least a quarter of the members present. In the event of a tie, the Chairman shall decide.
5. The provisions of Rules 18.3 and 18.4 are applicable to elections, whether of persons or of host cities. However, when there are or remain only two candidates, the candidate obtaining the greater number of votes is declared elected.
6. The Session may delegate powers to the IOC Executive Board.

Bye-law to Rule 18
1. The IOC Executive Board is responsible for the organisation and preparation of all Sessions, including all financial matters relating thereto.
2. Notice of the dates of an ordinary Session shall be given to all IOC members at least six months before the Session’s opening. The Session is formally convened by order of the President, at least thirty days before it is held, if it is an ordinary Session, and at least ten days if it is an extraordinary Session, together with an agenda which must state the business to be dealt with at the meeting.
3. The President, or, in his absence or incapacity, the attending Vice-President who is senior in such office or, in the latter’s absence or incapacity, the attending IOC Executive Board member who is senior in such office, chairs the Session.
4. Any decision of the Session, including decisions on amendments to the Olympic Charter, comes into effect immediately, unless otherwise decided by the Session. A
matter which is not listed on the agenda of a Session may be discussed if one third of the members so request or if the Chairman authorises it.

5. An IOC member must refrain from taking part in a vote in the following circumstances:
5.1 when the vote concerns an Olympic Games host city election in which a city in the country of which he is a national is a candidate;
5.2 when the vote concerns the selection of a venue for a Session, an Olympic Congress or any other meeting or event for which a city or any other public authority of the country of which he is a national is a candidate;
5.3 when the vote concerns the election to membership of the IOC of a candidate who is a national of the same country as the member;
5.4 when the vote concerns the election, to any office on the IOC Executive Board, or to any other office, of a candidate who is a national of the same country as the member;
5.5 when the vote concerns any other matter relating to the country of which he is a national or the NOC of that country.

In case of doubt, the Chairman shall decide whether or not the member concerned may take part in a vote.

6. The President establishes the regulations for all elections except for the election of the President, for which the regulations are established by the IOC Executive Board.

7. Any matter of procedure concerning Sessions and votes, which are not covered by the Olympic Charter, are determined by the President.

8. In case of urgency, a resolution or decision may be submitted to a vote by correspondence, including by fax or electronic mail, of the members of the IOC by the President or the IOC Executive Board.

9. Minutes of all meetings and other proceedings of the Session are established under the authority of the President.

19 The IOC Executive Board*

1. Composition:
The IOC Executive Board consists of the President, four Vice-Presidents and ten other members. The choice of its members will reflect the composition of the Session. At each election, the Session shall see to it that the above-mentioned principle is respected.

2. Elections, terms of offices, renewals and vacancies:
2.1 All members of the IOC Executive Board are elected by the Session, in a secret ballot, by a majority of the votes cast.
2.2 The duration of the terms of office of the Vice-Presidents and of the ten other members of the IOC Executive Board is four years. A member may serve for a maximum of two successive terms on the IOC Executive Board, regardless of the capacity in which he has been elected.
2.3 In the case of a member having completed two successive terms of office pursuant to Rule 19.2.2 above, he may be elected again as member of the IOC Executive Board after a
minimum period of two years. This does not apply to the election for the office of President, for which there is no waiting period.

2.4 In case of vacancy of any office other than the President’s, the following Session elects a member to such office for a term of four years.

2.5 All members of the IOC Executive Board begin their terms of office and renewals at the end of the Session which elected them. Their terms of office cease at the end of the ordinary Session held during the year in which they expire.

2.6 For purposes of this Rule, a year means the period between two successive ordinary Sessions.

3. Powers, responsibilities and duties:

The IOC Executive Board assumes the general overall responsibility for the administration of the IOC and the management of its affairs. In particular, it performs the following duties:

3.1 it monitors the observance of the Olympic Charter;

3.2 it approves all internal governance regulations relating to its organisation;

3.3 it establishes an annual report including annual accounts, which it submits to the Session, together with the auditors’ report;

3.4 it submits a report to the Session on any proposed change of Rule or Bye-law;

3.5 it submits to the Session the names of the persons whom it recommends for election to the IOC;

3.6 it establishes and supervises the procedure for accepting and selecting candidatures to organise the Olympic Games;

3.7 it establishes the agenda for the Sessions;

3.8 upon the proposal of the President, it appoints - or dismisses - the Director General. The President decides on his compensation and may take sanctions;

3.9 it provides for the safe keeping of all minutes, accounts and other records of the IOC in compliance with the law, including minutes of all Sessions, IOC Executive Board and other commission or working group meetings;

3.10 it takes all decisions, and issues regulations of the IOC, which are legally binding, in the form it deems most appropriate, such as, for instance, codes, rulings, norms, guidelines, guides, manuals, instructions, requirements and other decisions, including, in particular, but not limited to, all regulations necessary to ensure the proper implementation of the Olympic Charter and the organisation of the Olympic Games;

3.11 it organises periodic meetings with the IFs and with the NOCs at least once every two years. Such meetings are chaired by the IOC President, who determines the procedure and the agenda after consultation with the relevant bodies;

3.12 it creates and confers the honorary distinctions of the IOC;

3.13 it exercises all powers and performs all duties not attributed by law or by the Olympic Charter to the Session or to the President.

4. Delegation of powers:
The IOC Executive Board may delegate powers to one or more of its members, to IOC commissions, to members of the IOC administration, to other entities or to third persons.

Bye-law to Rule 19
1. The President is responsible for the organisation and preparation of all IOC Executive Board meetings. He may delegate all or part of his powers to that effect to the Director General.
2. The IOC Executive Board meets when convened by the President or at the request of the majority of its members at least ten days before the meeting is held. The notice must state the business to be dealt with at the meeting.
3. The President, or, in his absence or incapacity, the attending Vice-President who is senior in such office or, in the latter's absence or incapacity, the attending IOC Executive Board member who is senior in such office, chairs the IOC Executive Board meetings.
4. The quorum required for an IOC Executive Board meeting is eight.
5. Decisions of the IOC Executive Board are taken by a majority of the votes cast.
6. Each member has one vote. Abstentions and blank or spoiled votes are not taken into consideration in the calculation of the required majority. Voting by proxy is not allowed. Voting is held by secret ballot if so required by the Olympic Charter, or if the Chairman so decides or upon the request of at least a quarter of the members present. In the event of a tie, the Chairman of the meeting shall decide.
7. An IOC Executive Board member must refrain from taking part in a vote in the circumstances enumerated in BLR 18.5.

In case of doubt, the Chairman shall decide whether or not the member concerned may take part in a vote.

8. Any matter of procedure concerning IOC Executive Board meetings which is not covered by the Olympic Charter is determined by the President.
9. The IOC Executive Board may hold meetings in the form of teleconferences or videoconferences.
10. In case of urgency, a resolution or decision may be submitted to a vote by correspondence, including by fax or electronic mail, of the members of the IOC Executive Board by the President.
11. Minutes of all meetings and other proceedings are established under the authority of the President.

20 The President*
1. The Session elects, by secret ballot, a President from among its members for a term of eight years renewable once for four years.
2. The President represents the IOC and presides over all its activities.
3. The President may take any action or decision on behalf of the IOC when circumstances prevent it from being taken by the Session or the IOC Executive Board. Such action or decision must be submitted promptly for ratification by the competent organ.
4. If the President is unable to fulfil the duties of his office, the Vice-President who is senior in such office replaces him until the President has recovered his ability or, if he is in a
condition of permanent disability, until a new President is elected at the next Session. This new President is elected for a term of eight years renewable once for four years.

Bye-law to Rule 20

Candidatures for the election of the President are declared three months before the date of the opening of the Session at which the election is due to take place. However, such deadline may be modified by decision of the IOC Executive Board if, in its opinion, the circumstances justify such modification.

21 IOC commissions

IOC commissions may be created for the purpose of advising the Session, the IOC Executive Board or the President as the case may be. The President establishes permanent or other standing or ad hoc commissions and working groups whenever it appears necessary. Except where expressly provided otherwise in the Olympic Charter or in specific regulations established by the IOC Executive Board, the President establishes their terms of reference, designates all their members and decides their dissolution once he considers that they have fulfilled their mandates. No meeting of any commission or working group may be held without the prior agreement of the President except where expressly provided otherwise in the Olympic Charter or in specific regulations established by the IOC Executive Board. The President is a member ex officio of all commissions and working groups and shall have precedence whenever he attends one of their meetings.

Bye-law to Rule 21

1. The IOC Athletes’ Commission:

An IOC Athletes’ Commission shall be constituted, the majority of whose members shall be athletes elected by athletes participating in the Olympic Games. The election shall be held on the occasion of the Games of the Olympiad and the Olympic Winter Games in accordance with regulations adopted by the IOC Executive Board, in consultation with the Athletes’ Commission, and communicated to the IFs and NOCs not later than one year prior to the Olympic Games at which such election is to be held.

All regulations and procedures of the IOC Athletes’ Commission shall be adopted by the IOC Executive Board after consulting the IOC Athletes’ Commission.

2. The IOC Ethics Commission:

The IOC Ethics Commission is constituted in accordance with Rule 22 and BLR 22.

3. The IOC Nominations Commission:

In order to examine all candidatures for election to IOC membership, an IOC Nominations Commission shall be established in accordance with BLR 16.2.3.

All regulations and procedures of the IOC Nominations Commission shall be adopted by the IOC Executive Board after consulting the IOC Nominations Commission.

4. The Olympic Solidarity Commission:

The Olympic Solidarity Commission is established in order to perform the tasks attributed to it in Rule 5 and BLR 5.

5. The Evaluation Commissions for Candidate Cities:
In order to examine the candidatures of the cities applying to host the Games of the Olympiad and the Olympic Winter Games, the President sets up two evaluation commissions for candidate cities in accordance with BLR 33.2.2.

6. The Olympic Games Coordination Commissions:

In order to assist in improving the organisation of the Olympic Games and the coop-eration between the IOC, OCOGs, IFs and NOCs, the President sets up Coordination Commissions in accordance with Rule 37 and BLR 37.

7. The IOC Medical Commission:

7.1 The President establishes a Medical Commission, the terms of reference of which shall include the following duties:

7.1.1 to implement the World Anti-Doping Code and all other IOC Anti-Doping Rules, in particular upon the occasion of the Olympic Games;

7.1.2 to elaborate guidelines relating to the medical care and health of the athletes.

7.2 Members of the Medical Commission shall not act in any medical capacity whatsoever for the delegation of an NOC at the Olympic Games nor participate in the discussions relating to non-compliance with the World Anti-Doping Code by members of their respective NOC’s delegations.

8. Procedure:

Each IOC commission is chaired by an IOC member. IOC commissions may hold meetings in the form of teleconferences or videoconferences.

22 IOC Ethics Commission*

The IOC Ethics Commission is charged with defining and updating a framework of ethical principles, including a Code of Ethics, based upon the values and principles enshrined in the Olympic Charter of which the said Code forms an integral part. In addition, it investigates complaints raised in relation to the non-respect of such ethical principles, including breaches of the Code of Ethics and, if necessary, proposes sanctions to the IOC Executive Board.

The Chair and the members of the IOC Ethics Commission are elected by the Session, in a secret ballot, by a majority of the votes cast.

Bye-law to Rule 22

1. The composition and organisation of the IOC Ethics Commission are provided for in its statutes.

2. Any modification of the Code of Ethics, the statutes of the IOC Ethics Commission and any other regulation and implementing provisions emanating from the IOC Ethics Commission is submitted for the approval of the IOC Executive Board.

23 Languages

1. The official languages of the IOC are French and English.

2. At all Sessions, simultaneous interpretation must be provided into French, English, German, Spanish, Russian and Arabic.
3. In the case of divergence between the French and English texts of the Olympic Charter and any other IOC document, the French text shall prevail unless expressly provided otherwise in writing.

24 IOC resources

1. The IOC may accept gifts and bequests and seek all other resources enabling it to fulfil its tasks. It collects revenues from the exploitation of any of its rights, including but not limited to television rights, sponsorships, licences and Olympic properties as well as from the celebration of the Olympic Games.

2. In order to enhance the development of the Olympic Movement, the IOC may grant part of its revenues to the IFs, to the NOCs including Olympic Solidarity, and to the OCOGs.

Chapter 3: The International Federations (IFs)

25 Recognition of IFs

In order to develop and promote the Olympic Movement, the IOC may recognise as IFs international non-governmental organisations administering one or several sports at world level and encompassing organisations administering such sports at national level.

The statutes, practice and activities of the IFs within the Olympic Movement must be in conformity with the Olympic Charter, including the adoption and implementation of the World Anti-Doping Code. Subject to the foregoing, each IF maintains its independence and autonomy in the administration of its sport.

26 Mission and role of the IFs within the Olympic Movement

1. The mission and role of the IFs within the Olympic Movement are:

1.1 to establish and enforce, in accordance with the Olympic spirit, the rules concerning the practice of their respective sports and to ensure their application;

1.2 to ensure the development of their sports throughout the world;

1.3 to contribute to the achievement of the goals set out in the Olympic Charter, in particular by way of the spread of Olympism and Olympic education;

1.4 to express their opinions on the candidatures for organising the Olympic Games, in particular as far as the technical aspects of venues for their respective sports are concerned;

1.5 to establish their criteria of eligibility for the competitions of the Olympic Games in conformity with the Olympic Charter, and to submit these to the IOC for approval;

1.6 to assume the responsibility for the technical control and direction of their sports at the Olympic Games and, if they agree, at the Games held under the patronage of the IOC;

1.7 to provide technical assistance in the practical implementation of the Olympic Solidarity programmes;

1.8 to encourage and support measures relating to the medical care and health of athletes.

2. In addition, the IFs have the right to:

2.1 formulate proposals addressed to the IOC concerning the Olympic Charter and the Olympic Movement;
2.2 collaborate in the preparation of Olympic Congresses;
2.3 participate, on request from the IOC, in the activities of the IOC commissions.

Chapter 4: The National Olympic Committees (NOCs)

27 Mission and role of the NOCs

1. The mission of the NOCs is to develop, promote and protect the Olympic Movement in their respective countries, in accordance with the Olympic Charter.

2. The NOCs’ role is:

2.1 to promote the fundamental principles and values of Olympism in their countries, in particular, in the fields of sport and education, by promoting Olympic educational programmes in all levels of schools, sports and physical education institutions and universities, as well as by encouraging the creation of institutions dedicated to Olympic education, such as National Olympic Academies, Olympic Museums and other programmes, including cultural, related to the Olympic Movement;

2.2 to ensure the observance of the Olympic Charter in their countries;

2.3 to encourage the development of high performance sport as well as sport for all;

2.4 to help in the training of sports administrators by organising courses and ensuring that such courses contribute to the propagation of the Fundamental Principles of Olympism;

2.5 to take action against any form of discrimination and violence in sport;

2.6 to adopt and implement the World Anti-Doping Code;

2.7 to encourage and support measures relating to the medical care and health of athletes.

3. The NOCs have the exclusive authority for the representation of their respective countries at the Olympic Games and at the regional, continental or world multi-sports competitions patronised by the IOC. In addition, each NOC is obliged to participate in the Games of the Olympiad by sending athletes.

4. The NOCs have the exclusive authority to select and designate the city which may apply to organise Olympic Games in their respective countries.

5. In order to fulfil their mission, the NOCs may cooperate with governmental bodies, with which they shall achieve harmonious relations. However, they shall not associate themselves with any activity which would be in contradiction with the Olympic Charter. The NOCs may also cooperate with non-governmental bodies.

6. The NOCs must preserve their autonomy and resist all pressures of any kind, including but not limited to political, legal, religious or economic pressures which may prevent them from complying with the Olympic Charter.

7. NOCs have the right to:

7.1 designate, identify or refer to themselves as “National Olympic Committees” (“NOCs”), which designation or identification shall be included or referred to in their name;

7.2 send competitors, team officials and other team personnel to the Olympic Games in compliance with the Olympic Charter;
7.3 benefit from the assistance of Olympic Solidarity;
7.4 use certain Olympic properties as authorised by the IOC and in compliance with Rules 7-14 and BLR 7-14;
7.5 take part in activities led or patronised by the IOC, including regional Games;
7.6 belong to associations of NOCs recognised by the IOC;
7.7 formulate proposals to the IOC concerning the Olympic Charter and the Olympic Movement, including the organisation of the Olympic Games;
7.8 give their opinions concerning the candidatures for the organisation of the Olympic Games;
7.9 participate, on request from the IOC, in the activities of the IOC commissions;
7.10 collaborate in the preparation of Olympic Congresses;
7.11 exercise other rights as granted to them by the Olympic Charter or by the IOC.

8. The IOC helps the NOCs fulfil their mission through its various departments and Olympic Solidarity.

9. Apart from the measures and sanctions provided in the case of infringement of the Olympic Charter, the IOC Executive Board may take any appropriate decisions for the protection of the Olympic Movement in the country of an NOC, including suspension of or withdrawal of recognition from such NOC if the constitution, law or other regulations in force in the country concerned, or any act by any governmental or other body causes the activity of the NOC or the making or expression of its will to be hampered. The IOC Executive Board shall offer such NOC an opportunity to be heard before any such decision is taken.

28 Composition of the NOCs

1. Whatever their composition, NOCs must include:

1.1 all IOC members in their country, if any. Such members have the right to vote in the general assemblies of the NOC. In addition, the IOC members in the country referred to in Rule 16.1.1.1 and Rule 16.1.1.2 are ex officio members of the NOC executive body, within which they have the right to vote;

1.2 all national federations affiliated to the IFs governing sports included in the programme of the Olympic Games or their representatives;

1.3 elected representatives of athletes. Those representatives must have taken part in the Olympic Games. They must retire from their posts at the latest by the end of the third Olympiad after the last Olympic Games in which they took part. Upon request by an NOC, the IOC Executive Board may grant an exemption to the requirement that such representatives must have taken part in the Olympic Games.

2. The NOCs may include as members:

2.1 national federations affiliated to IFs recognised by the IOC, the sports of which are not included in the programme of the Olympic Games;

2.2 multisports groups and other sports-oriented organisations or their representatives, as well as nationals of the country liable to reinforce the effectiveness of the NOC or who have rendered distinguished services to the cause of sport and Olympism.
3. The voting majority of an NOC and of its executive body shall consist of the votes cast by the national federations referred to in paragraph 1.2 above or their representatives. When dealing with questions relating to the Olympic Games, only the votes cast by such federations and by the members of the executive body of the NOC are taken into consideration. Subject to the approval of the IOC Executive Board, an NOC may also include in its voting majority as well as in the votes taken into consideration on questions relating to the Olympic Games, the votes cast by the IOC members referred to in paragraph 1.1 above and by the elected representatives of athletes referred to in paragraph 1.3 above.

4. Governments or other public authorities shall not designate any members of an NOC. However, an NOC may decide, at its discretion, to elect as members representatives of such authorities.

5. The area of jurisdiction of an NOC must coincide with the limits of the country in which it is established and has its headquarters.

OQp

Bye-law to Rules 27 and 28

1. NOC recognition procedure:

1.1 A national sports organisation applying for recognition as an NOC shall file an application with the IOC demonstrating that the applicant fulfils all conditions prescribed by the Olympic Charter, in particular in Rule 28 and BLR 27 and 28.

1.2 Proof must be adduced that the national federations which are members of the NOC exercise a specific and real on-going sports activity in their country and internationally, in particular by organising and participating in competitions and implementing training programmes for athletes. An NOC shall not recognise more than one national federation for each sport governed by an IF. Such national federations or the representatives chosen by them must constitute the voting majority of the NOC and of its executive organ. At least five national federations included in an NOC must be affiliated to the IFs governing sports included in the programme of the Olympic Games.

1.3 The approval of an applicant’s statutes by the IOC Executive Board is a condition for recognition. The same condition applies to any subsequent change or amendment to the statutes of an NOC. Such statutes shall, at all times, comply with the Olympic Charter to which they must refer expressly. If there is any doubt as to the signification or interpretation of the statutes of an NOC, or if there is a contradiction between such statutes and the Olympic Charter, the latter takes precedence.

1.4 Each NOC shall hold a General Assembly of its members at least once a year, in accordance with the NOC’s statutes. NOCs shall, in particular, include on the agenda of their General Assemblies the presentation of annual reports and audited financial statements and, as the case may be, the election of officers and members of the executive body.

1.5 The officers and members of the executive body of an NOC shall be elected in accordance with the NOC’s statutes, for a term of office not exceeding four years; they may be eligible for re-election.

1.6 The members of an NOC, except for professional sports administrators, shall not accept any compensation or bonus of any kind in consideration for their services or for the performance of their duties. They may be reimbursed for their travelling, accommodation and other justified expenses incurred in the carrying out of their functions.
1.7 The withdrawal or lapse of recognition of an NOC entails its forfeiture of all rights conferred upon it by the Olympic Charter or the IOC.

2. NOCs’ tasks:

The NOCs perform the following tasks:

2.1 They constitute, organise and lead their respective delegations at the Olympic Games and at the regional, continental or world multisports competitions patronised by the IOC. They decide upon the entry of athletes proposed by their respective national federations. Such selection shall be based not only on the sports performance of an athlete, but also on his ability to serve as an example to the sporting youth of his country. The NOCs must ensure that the entries proposed by the national federations comply in all respects with the provisions of the Olympic Charter.

2.2 They provide for the equipment, transport and accommodation of the members of their delegations. They contract for the latter’s benefit adequate insurance covering the risks of death, disability, illness, medical and pharmaceutical expenses and third-party liability. They are responsible for the behaviour of the members of their delegations.

2.3 They have the sole and exclusive authority to prescribe and determine the clothing and uniforms to be worn, and the equipment to be used, by the members of their delegations on the occasion of the Olympic Games and in connection with all sports competitions and ceremonies related thereto.

This exclusive authority does not extend to specialised equipment used by athletes of their delegations during the actual sports competitions. For the purposes of this rule, specialised equipment shall be limited to such equipment acknowledged by the NOC concerned as having a material effect on the performance of athletes, due to the specialised characteristics of the equipment. Any publicity in respect of any such specialised equipment must be submitted to the NOC concerned for approval if there is any reference, express or implied, to the Olympic Games.

2.4 They assist the IOC in respect to the protection of Olympic properties in their respective territories.

3. Recommendations:

It is recommended that NOCs:

3.1 regularly organise - if possible each year - an Olympic Day or Week intended to promote the Olympic Movement;

3.2 include in their activities the promotion of culture and arts in the fields of sport and Olympism;

3.3 participate in the programmes of Olympic Solidarity;

3.4 seek sources of financing in a manner compatible with the fundamental principles of Olympism.

29 The national federations

To be recognised by an NOC and accepted as a member of such NOC, a national federation must exercise a specific, real and on-going sports activity, be affiliated to an IF recognised by the IOC and be governed by and comply in all aspects with both the Olympic Charter and the rules of its IF.
30 **Country and name of an NOC**
1. In the Olympic Charter, the expression “country” means an independent State recognised by the international community.
2. The name of an NOC must reflect the territorial extent and tradition of its country and shall be subject to the approval of the IOC Executive Board.

31 **Flag, emblem and anthem of an NOC**
The flag, the emblem and the anthem adopted by an NOC for use in relation to its activities, including the Olympic Games, shall be subject to the approval of the IOC Executive Board.

Chapter 5: The Olympic Games

I. CELEBRATION, ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES

32 **Celebration of the Olympic Games**
1. The Games of the Olympiad are celebrated during the first year of an Olympiad, and the Olympic Winter Games during its third year.
2. The honour and responsibility of hosting the Olympic Games are entrusted by the IOC to a city, which is elected as the host city of the Olympic Games.
3. The dates of the Olympic Games are determined by the IOC Executive Board.
4. The non-celebration of the Olympic Games during the year in which they should be held entails the cancellation of the rights of the host city, without prejudice to any other rights of the IOC.
5. Any surplus incurred by a host city, an OCOG or the NOC of the country of a host city as a result of the celebration of an Olympic Games shall be applied to the development of the Olympic Movement and of sport.

Bye-law to Rule 32
The duration of the competitions of the Olympic Games shall not exceed sixteen days.

33 **Election of the host city**
1. The election of any host city is the prerogative of the Session.
2. The IOC Executive Board determines the procedure to be followed until the election by the Session takes place. Save in exceptional circumstances, such election takes place seven years before the celebration of the Olympic Games.
3. The national government of the country of any applicant city must submit to the IOC a legally binding instrument by which the said government undertakes and guarantees that the country and its public authorities will comply with and respect the Olympic Charter.
4. The election of the host city takes place in a country having no candidate city for the organisation of the Olympic Games concerned.

Bye-law to Rule 33
1. Application to host Olympic Games - Applicant Cities:
1.1 In order to be admissible, any application by any city to host Olympic Games must be approved by the NOC of its country, in which case, such city is considered as an applicant city.

1.2 Any application to host Olympic Games must be submitted to the IOC by the competent public authorities of the applicant city together with the approval of the NOC of the country. Such authorities and the NOC must guarantee that the Olympic Games will be organised to the satisfaction of and under the conditions required by the IOC.

1.3 Should there be several potential applicant cities in the same country to the same Olympic Games, one city only may apply, as decided by the NOC of the country concerned.

1.4 From the day of submission to the IOC of an application to host the Olympic Games, the NOC of the applicant city’s country shall supervise and shall be jointly responsible for the actions and conduct of the applicant city in relation to its application, and, as the case may be, to the city’s candidature to host the Olympic Games.

1.5 Each applicant city has the obligation to comply with the Olympic Charter and with any other regulations or requirements issued by the IOC Executive Board, as well as with all technical norms issued by the IFs for their respective sports.

1.6 All applicant cities shall comply with a candidature acceptance procedure, conducted under the authority of the IOC Executive Board, which shall determine the contents of such procedure. The IOC Executive Board shall decide which cities will be accepted as candidate cities.

2. Candidate Cities - Evaluation:

2.1 Candidate cities are those applicant cities which will be eligible for a decision by the IOC Executive Board to be submitted to the Session for election.

2.2 The President appoints an Evaluation Commission for candidate cities for each edition of the Olympic Games. These commissions shall each include IOC members, representatives of the IFs, of the NOCs, of the Athletes’ Commission and of the International Paralympic Committee (“IPC”). Nationals of candidate cities’ countries are not eligible as members of the Evaluation Commission. The Evaluation Commission may be assisted by experts.

2.3 Each Evaluation Commission shall study the candidatures of all candidate cities, inspect the sites and submit to all IOC members a written report on all candidatures, not later than one month before the opening date of the Session which shall elect the host city of the Olympic Games. Such report shall include an assessment of the opportunities and risks of each candidature, as well as of sustainability and legacy.

2.4 Each candidate city shall provide financial guarantees as required by the IOC Executive Board, which will determine whether such guarantees shall be issued by the city itself, or by any other competent local, regional or national public authorities, or by any third parties.

3. Election of the host city - Execution of Host City Contract:

3.1 Following the submission of its report by the Evaluation Commission, the IOC Executive Board shall draw up the final list of candidate cities retained by the IOC Executive Board in order to be submitted to the vote by the Session for election.
3.2 The election of the host city takes place after the Session has considered the report by the Evaluation Commission.

3.3 The IOC enters into a written agreement with the host city and the NOC of its country. At the discretion of the IOC, other local, regional or national authorities, as well as, if relevant, other NOCs and local, regional or national authorities outside the host country, may also be a party to such agreement. Such agreement, which is commonly referred to as the Host City Contract, is executed by all parties immediately upon the election of the host city.

34 Location, sites and venues of the Olympic Games*

All sports competitions and the opening and closing ceremonies must, in principle, take place in the host city of the Olympic Games. The IOC Executive Board, at its discretion, may authorise:

- the organisation of preliminary sports competitions in a city (or cities) located outside the host city or, in exceptional circumstances, outside the host country, notably for reasons of sustainability; and

- the organisation of complete sports, disciplines or events in a city (or cities) located outside the host city or, in exceptional circumstances, outside the host country, notably for reasons of geography and sustainability.

Bye-law to Rule 34

1. Any request to organise any event, discipline or other sports competition in any other city or location than the host city itself must include the reason(s) for such request, and be presented in writing to the IOC Executive Board for approval. Such request must be made prior to the visit of the IOC Evaluation Commission for candidate cities, unless otherwise agreed by the IOC Executive Board.

2. The organisation, holding and media coverage of the Olympic Games shall not be impaired in any way by any other event taking place in the host city or its neighbourhood or in other competition sites or venues.

35 Organising Committee*

The organisation of the Olympic Games is entrusted by the IOC to the NOC of the country of the host city as well as to the host city itself. The NOC shall be responsible for the establishment, for that purpose, of an Organising Committee (“OCOG”) which, from the time it is constituted, reports directly to the IOC Executive Board.

Bye-law to Rule 35

1. The OCOG shall have the status of a legal person in its country.

2. The executive body of the OCOG shall include:

   - the IOC member or members in the country referred to in Rule 16.1.1.1;
   - the President and Secretary General of the NOC;
   - at least one member representing, and designated by, the host city.

The executive body of the OCOG may also include representatives of the public authorities and other leading figures.

3. From the time of its constitution to the end of its liquidation, the OCOG shall conduct all its activities in accordance with the Olympic Charter, with the agreement entered into
between the IOC, the NOC and the host city and with any other regulations or instructions of the IOC Executive Board.

36 Liabilities - Withdrawal of the organisation of the Olympic Games

1. The NOC, the OCOG and the host city are jointly and severally liable for all commitments entered into individually or collectively concerning the organisation and staging of the Olympic Games, excluding the financial responsibility for the organisation and staging of such Games, which shall be entirely assumed jointly and severally by the host city and the OCOG, without prejudice to any liability of any other party, particularly as may result from any guarantee given pursuant to BLR 33. The IOC shall have no financial responsibility whatsoever in respect of the organisation and staging of the Olympic Games.

2. In the event of non-compliance with the Olympic Charter or other regulations or instructions of the IOC, or a breach of the obligations entered into by the NOC, the OCOG or the host city, the IOC is entitled to withdraw, at any time and with immediate effect, the organisation of the Olympic Games from the host city, the OCOG and the NOC, without prejudice to compensation for any damage thereby caused to the IOC. In such a case, the NOC, the OCOG, the host city, the country of the host city and all their governmental or other authorities, or any other party, whether at any city, local, state, provincial, other regional or national level, shall have no claim for any form of compensation against the IOC.

37 Olympic Games Coordination Commission

- Liaison between the NOCs and the OCOG*

1. Olympic Games Coordination Commission:

In order to improve the organisation of the Olympic Games and cooperation amongst the IOC, the OCOG, the IFs and the NOCs, the President shall establish an Olympic Games Coordination Commission (“Coordination Commission”) to manage and implement the working relationship between such parties. The Coordination Commission shall include representatives of the IOC, the IFs, the NOCs and the athletes.

2. Liaison between NOCs and OCOG - Chefs de Mission:

During the Olympic Games, the competitors, officials and other team personnel of each NOC are placed under the responsibility of a chef de mission appointed by his NOC and whose task, in addition to any other functions assigned to him by his NOC, is to liaise with the IOC, the IFs and the OCOG.

Bye-law to Rule 37

1. Coordination Commission’s mandate:

The mandate of a Coordination Commission includes the following:

1.1 to monitor the progress of the OCOG;
1.2 to review and examine all major aspects of the organisation of the Olympic Games;
1.3 to assist the OCOG;
1.4 to help liaise between the OCOG, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, the IOC, the IFs and the NOCs;
1.5 to help resolve any differences which may arise between any of the parties;
1.6 to ensure that all IFs and NOCs are kept informed, either through the OCOG or by the IOC at the Coordination Commission’s own initiative, of the progress of the organisation of the Olympic Games;

1.7 to ensure that the IOC Executive Board is kept informed of the opinions expressed by the OCOG, IFs and NOCs on matters of importance pertaining to the Olympic Games;

1.8 to examine, after consultation with the IOC Executive Board and the OCOG, the areas in which beneficial cooperation between NOCs can be established, in particular with regard to air transport, freight, rental of accommodation for additional officials and procedures for allocating tickets to IFs, NOCs and appointed travel agencies;

1.9 to suggest to the OCOG and to determine, subject to approval by the IOC Executive Board:

1.9.1 arrangements at the competition and training venues and for accommodation and facilities in the Olympic Village,

1.9.2 costs of participation, accommodation and related services to be provided by the OCOG,

1.9.3 provisions for transport and accommodation of participants and officials and other matters which, in its opinion, concern the well-being of competitors and officials and their ability to perform the necessary functions at the Olympic Games.

1.10 to inspect competition, training and other facilities, and to report thereon in respect of any matters it may be unable to resolve to the IOC Executive Board;

1.11 to ensure that the OCOG responds appropriately to the views of the IFs and of the chefs de mission;

1.12 to establish, subject to approval of the IOC Executive Board, specialised working groups which will deal with specific areas of the organisation of the Olympic Games and report to the IOC Executive Board with recommendations as to improvements which should be implemented by the Coordination Commission;

1.13 after the Olympic Games, to carry out an analysis relating to the organisation of the Games and to report on such matters to the IOC Executive Board;

1.14 to exercise any additional authority or carry out any other instructions conferred upon it by the IOC Executive Board;

1.15 in the case of any matter which the Coordination Commission determines that it is unable to resolve, or in respect of which any party refuses to act in accordance with its decision, it shall forthwith report such matter and the full circumstances thereof to the IOC Executive Board, which shall make the final decision;

1.16 at the Olympic Games, the duties of the Coordination Commission shall revert to the IOC Executive Board. The Chairman of the Coordination Commission attends the daily coordination meetings with the OCOG.

2. Chefs de mission:

During the period of the Olympic Games, the chef de mission stays in the Olympic Village and has access to all medical, training and competition facilities, as well as to the media centres and the Olympic Family hotels.

3. Attaches:
Each NOC may appoint an attache in order to facilitate cooperation with the OCOG. The attache acts as an intermediary between the OCOG and his NOC, in order to assist in solving practical problems such as for instance, travel and accommodation. During the period of the Olympic Games, the attache must be accredited as a member of his NOC delegation.

38 Olympic Village*

With the objective of bringing together all competitors, team officials and other team personnel in one place, the OCOG shall provide an Olympic Village for a period determined by the IOC Executive Board.

Bye-law to Rule 38
1. The Olympic Village shall meet all requirements as established by the IOC Executive Board.
2. The quotas for team officials and other team personnel accommodated in the Olympic Village shall be established by the IOC Executive Board.
3. Should the IOC authorise the OCOG to hold events in any location other than in the host city, the OCOG may be required to provide appropriate accommodations, services and facilities in accordance with requirements established by the IOC Executive Board.
4. The OCOG shall bear all expenses for board and lodging of competitors, team officials and other team personnel in the Olympic Village and other accommodations as required above, as well as their local transport expenses.

39 Cultural Programme

The OCOG shall organise a programme of cultural events which must cover at least the entire period during which the Olympic Village is open. Such programme shall be submitted to the IOC Executive Board for its prior approval.

II. PARTICIPATION IN THE OLYMPIC GAMES

40 Eligibility code*

To be eligible for participation in the Olympic Games, a competitor, coach, trainer or other team official must comply with the Olympic Charter, including the conditions of eligibility established by the IOC, as well as with the rules of the IF concerned as approved by the IOC, and the competitor, coach, trainer or other team official must be entered by his NOC. The above-noted persons must:
- respect the spirit of fair play and non-violence, and behave accordingly; and
- respect and comply in all aspects with the World Anti-Doping Code.

Bye-law to Rule 40
1. Each IF establishes its sport’s own eligibility criteria in accordance with the Olympic Charter. Such criteria must be submitted to the IOC Executive Board for approval.
2. The application of the eligibility criteria lies with the IFs, their affiliated national federations and the NOCs in the fields of their respective responsibilities.
3. Except as permitted by the IOC Executive Board, no competitor, coach, trainer or official who participates in the Olympic Games may allow his person, name, picture or sports performances to be used for advertising purposes during the Olympic Games.
4. The entry or participation of a competitor in the Olympic Games shall not be conditional on any financial consideration.

41 Nationality of competitors*

1. Any competitor in the Olympic Games must be a national of the country of the NOC which is entering such competitor.

2. All matters relating to the determination of the country which a competitor may represent in the Olympic Games shall be resolved by the IOC Executive Board.

Bye-law to Rule 41

1. A competitor who is a national of two or more countries at the same time may represent either one of them, as he may elect. However, after having represented one country in the Olympic Games, in continental or regional games or in world or regional championships recognised by the relevant IF, he may not represent another country unless he meets the conditions set forth in paragraph 2 below that apply to persons who have changed their nationality or acquired a new nationality.

2. A competitor who has represented one country in the Olympic Games, in continental or regional games or in world or regional championships recognised by the relevant IF, and who has changed his nationality or acquired a new nationality, may participate in the Olympic Games to represent his new country provided that at least three years have passed since the competitor last represented his former country. This period may be reduced or even cancelled, with the agreement of the NOCs and IF concerned, by the IOC Executive Board, which takes into account the circumstances of each case.

3. If an associated State, province or overseas department, a country or colony acquires independence, if a country becomes incorporated within another country by reason of a change of border, if a country merges with another country, or if a new NOC is recognised by the IOC, a competitor may continue to represent the country to which he belongs or belonged. However, he may, if he prefers, elect to represent his country or be entered in the Olympic Games by his new NOC if one exists. This particular choice may be made only once.

4. Furthermore, in all cases in which a competitor would be eligible to participate in the Olympic Games, either by representing another country than his or by having the choice as to the country which such competitor intends to represent, the IOC Executive Board may take all decisions of a general or individual nature with regard to issues resulting from nationality, citizenship, domicile or residence of any competitor, including the duration of any waiting period.

42 Age limit

There may be no age limit for competitors in the Olympic Games other than as prescribed in the competition rules of an IF as approved by the IOC Executive Board.

43 World Anti-Doping Code

The World Anti-Doping Code is mandatory for the whole Olympic Movement.

44 Invitations and entries*

1. The invitations to take part in the Olympic Games shall be sent out by the IOC to all NOCs one year before the opening ceremony.
2. Only NOCs recognised by the IOC may submit entries for competitors in the Olympic Games.

3. Any entry is subject to acceptance by the IOC, which may at its discretion, at any time, refuse any entry, without indication of grounds. Nobody is entitled as of right to participate in the Olympic Games.

4. An NOC shall only enter competitors upon the recommendations for entries given by national federations. If the NOC approves thereof, it shall transmit such entries to the OCOG. The OCOG must acknowledge their receipt. NOCs must investigate the validity of the entries proposed by the national federations and ensure that no one has been excluded for racial, religious or political reasons or by reason of other forms of discrimination.

5. The NOCs shall send to the Olympic Games only those competitors adequately prepared for high level international competition. Through its IF, a national federation may ask that the IOC Executive Board review a decision by an NOC in a matter of entries. The IOC Executive Board’s decision shall be final.

Bye-law to Rule 44

1. The IOC Executive Board determines the numbers of all participants in the Olympic Games.

2. The procedures and the deadlines for the entries of competitors for sports competitions at the Olympic Games and their acceptances are established by the IOC Executive Board.

3. All entries must be submitted as prescribed by the IOC.

4. As a condition precedent to participation in the Olympic Games, every competitor shall comply with all the provisions of the Olympic Charter and the rules of the IF governing his sport. The NOC which enters the competitor is responsible for ensuring that such competitor is fully aware of and complies with the Olympic Charter and the World Anti-Doping Code.

5. Should there be no national federation for a particular sport in a country which has a recognised NOC, the latter may enter competitors individually in such sport in the Olympic Games subject to the approval of the IOC Executive Board and the IF governing such sport.

6. All participants in the Olympic Games in whatever capacity must sign an entry form as prescribed by the IOC Executive Board.

7. The relevant NOC shall also sign the entry form referred to in paragraph 6 above to confirm and guarantee that all the relevant rules have been brought to the notice of the competitor and that the NOC has been authorised by the national sports federation concerned to sign such entry form on its behalf, with the approval of the relevant IF.

8. No entry shall be valid unless the above provisions have been observed.

9. The withdrawal of a duly entered delegation, team or individual shall, if effected without the consent of the IOC Executive Board, constitute an infringement of the Olympic Charter and shall be subject to an inquiry and may lead to measures or sanctions.

10. The number of entries for each sport is established by the IOC Executive Board following consultation with the relevant IFs three years before the Olympic Games concerned.
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.

13. In order to obtain an equitable breakdown in the number of substitutes in certain sports, both individual and team, and taking into account the fact that in certain other sports a single entry per event and per country is allowed without any substitute, the IOC Executive Board, following consultation with the IFs concerned, may increase or reduce the number of substitutes.

III. PROGRAMME OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES

45 Programme of the Olympic Games*

1. The programme of the Olympic Games ("the programme") is the programme of all sports competitions established by the IOC for each edition of the Olympic Games in accordance with the present Rule and its Bye-law.

2. The programme consists of two components, namely:

2.1 The sports programme, which includes all sports for a specific edition of the Olympic Games, as determined by the Session from among the sports governed by the IFs recognised by the IOC ("the sports programme").

2.2 The events programme, which includes all events, as determined by the IOC Executive Board for a specific edition of the Olympic Games ("the events programme").

An event is a specific competition in a sport resulting in a ranking giving rise to the award of medals and diplomas.

The events programme must include events from each sport included in the sports programme.

3. The programme is established following a review by the IOC of the programme of the previous corresponding edition of the Olympic Games.

Only sports which comply with the Olympic Charter and the World Anti-Doping Code are eligible to be in the programme.

4. Bye-law to Rule 45

1. The sports programme

1.1 Upon proposal from the IOC Executive Board, the Session shall decide on the sports programme not later than at the Session electing the relevant host city.

The Session shall vote en bloc. If the majority of the votes cast is not reached, there shall be additional rounds of votes as determined by the President, who may also proceed through individual or partial en bloc votes.

1.2 Upon proposal from the IOC Executive Board following an agreement between the relevant OCOG, the relevant IF and the IOC, the sports programme may be amended by decision of the Session not later than three years prior to the opening of the relevant Olympic Games.
1.3 The sports which may be included in the sports programme of the Games of the Olympiad are:

1.3.1 The sports, governed by the following IFs, which are currently included in the programme, namely:

- International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF);
- World Rowing Federation (FISA);
- Badminton World Federation (BWF);
- International Basketball Federation (FIBA);
- International Boxing Association (AIBA);
- International Canoe Federation (ICF);
- International Cycling Union (UCI);
- International Equestrian Federation (FEI);
- International Fencing Federation (FIE);
- International Association Football Federation (FIFA);
- International Golf Federation (IGF);
- International Gymnastics Federation (FIG);
- International Weightlifting Federation (IWF);
- International Handball Federation (IHF);
- International Hockey Federation (FIH);
- International Judo Federation (IJF);
- United World Wrestling (UWW);
- International Swimming Federation (FINA);
- International Modern Pentathlon Union (UIPM);
- World Rugby (WR);
- World Taekwondo Federation (WTF);
- International Tennis Federation (ITF);
- International Table Tennis Federation (ITTF);
- International Shooting Sport Federation (ISSF);
- World Archery Federation (WA);
- International Triathlon Union (ITU);
- International Sailing Federation (ISAF);
- International Volleyball Federation (FIVB).

1.3.2 Other sports governed by other IFs recognised by the IOC.

1.4 The sports which may be included in the Olympic Winter Games are:
1.4.1 The sports, governed by the following IFs, which are currently included in the programme, namely:
- International Biathlon Union (IBU);
- International Bobsleigh and Tobogganing Federation (FIBT);
- World Curling Federation (WCF);
- International Ice Hockey Federation (IIHF);
- International Luge Federation (FIL);
- International Skating Union (ISU);
- International Ski Federation (FIS).
1.4.2 Other sports governed by other IFs recognised by the IOC.
2. The events programme
2.1 Prior to any decision relating to the Events Programme, the IOC shall consult the relevant IFs.
2.2 The IOC Executive Board shall decide on the Events Programme not later than three years prior to the opening of the relevant Olympic Games.
3. Other provisions
3.1 The OCOG of a specific edition of the Olympic Games may propose to the IOC the inclusion, for such edition only, of one or more additional events; all decisions relating thereto shall be taken in full compliance with this Rule 45 and its Bye-law, and with any further specific conditions set forth by the IOC.
3.2 Unless agreed otherwise with the relevant OCOG, the following approximate numbers shall apply:
- with respect to the Games of the Olympiad, ten thousand five hundred (10,500) athletes, five thousand (5,000) accredited coaches and athletes’ support personnel and three hundred and ten (310) events.
- with respect to the Olympic Winter Games, two thousand nine hundred (2,900) athletes, two thousand (2,000) accredited coaches and athletes’ support personnel and one hundred (100) events.
3.3 The Session is entitled to exclude from the programme any sport, at any time, if the relevant IF governing such sport does not comply with the Olympic Charter or the World Anti-Doping Code. In addition, the measures and sanctions provided for in Rule 59 may apply.
3.4 Any deadline set forth in BLR 45 may be exceptionally waived with the approval of the relevant IF, of the relevant OCOG and of the competent IOC organ.
46 Technical responsibilities of the IFs at the Olympic Games*
1. Each IF is responsible for the technical control and direction of its sport at the Olympic Games; all elements of the competitions, including the schedule, field of play, training sites and all equipment must comply with its rules. For all these technical arrangements, the OCOG must consult the relevant IFs. The holding of all events in each sport is placed under the direct responsibility of the IF concerned.
2. The OCOG must ensure that the various sports included in the programme of the Olympic Games are treated and integrated equitably.

3. As to the schedule and daily timetable of events, the final decision lies with the IOC Executive Board.

4. After consultation with each IF, the IOC Executive Board determines the number and selection of competitors for doping tests and all other anti-doping measures during the period of the Olympic Games.

Bye-law to Rule 46

1. Technical arrangements at the Olympic Games:

The IFs have the following rights and responsibilities regarding the technical arrangements at the Olympic Games:

1.1 To establish the technical rules of their own sports, disciplines and events, including, but not limited to, results standards, technical specifications of equipment, installations and facilities, rules of technical movements, exercises or games, rules of technical disqualification and rules of judging and timing.

1.2 To establish the final results and ranking of Olympic competitions. Such results shall be made available to the IFs by the OCOG, at its expense, immediately after each event in electronic form, in accordance with guidelines established by the IOC. The IF concerned then has the right to display such competition results for its own sport on its official website.

1.3 Subject to the IOC’s authority, to exercise technical jurisdiction over the competition and training venues of their respective sports during the competition and training sessions at the Olympic Games.

1.4 To select judges, referees and other technical officials from the host country and from abroad within the total number adopted by the IOC Executive Board upon proposal of the IF concerned. The expenses for accommodation, transport and uniforms of such judges, referees and other technical officials coming from countries other than the host country shall be paid by the OCOG. The technical officials must be present at the site at least three days prior to the first event in their sport and at least one day after the last event.

1.5 To appoint two technical delegates during the planning and setting up of the facilities for their sports in order to ensure that their rules are complied with and to review and validate all technical elements of the competitions including entries, venue standards, competition schedule, pre-Olympic events as well as the conditions regarding accommodation, food and transport provided for the technical officials and judges.

1.5.1 The two technical delegates from each IF must be present at the site at least five days prior to the start of the first event in their sport, in order to make all necessary arrangements regarding entries.

1.5.2 The reasonable expenses of such delegates during such period and until the Olympic Games are over (business-class air fares if the journey exceeds 2,500km or economy class if the journey does not exceed 2,500km, board and lodging) are to be paid by the OCOG.

1.5.3 In exceptional cases when, for technical reasons, the presence of delegates or the organisation of extra visits is necessary, suitable arrangements are to be made by the
OCOG, after it has informed the IOC thereof. In case of disagreement, the IOC Executive Board shall decide.

1.6 To ensure that all competitors comply with the provisions of Rules 40 and 50.

1.7 To enforce, under the authority of the IOC and the NOCs, the IOC’s rules in regard to the eligibility of the participants before the Olympic Games (preliminaries) and during the Olympic Games.

1.8 To prepare and revise their IF’s technical requirements for the candidate cities together with the IOC.

2. Technical provisions requiring the agreement of the IFs and of the OCOG before being submitted to the IOC Executive Board for approval:

2.1 Daily timetable of the programme for a sport, not later than two years prior to the Olympic Games concerned.

2.2 Itineraries of events taking place outside the Olympic venues (e.g. sailing, marathon, walking, road cycle race and equestrian three-day event).

2.3 Training facilities requirements before and during the Olympic Games.

2.4 Technical equipment at the venues which is neither defined nor listed in the technical rules of the IFs.

2.5 Technical installations for establishing results.

2.6 Uniforms of IF officials (such as judges and referees) necessary during the Olympic Games.

3. IF proposals requiring the approval of the IOC Executive Board:

3.1 Establishment of the programme of the Olympic Games in their respective sports, including or deleting disciplines or events.

3.2 Establishment of the number of competitors per event and per country, and of the number of teams participating in the Olympic Games.

3.3 Establishment, not later than two years before the Olympic Games, of the qualification system.

3.4 Establishment of the system of grouping and selecting the athletes in qualifying heats (or teams in preliminary groups) for the Olympic Games.

3.5 Establishment of the number of substitutes in individual or team sports or events.

3.6 Delegation of more than two technical delegates to supervise the preparations for the Olympic Games or the organisation of additional visits, other than those provided for in the Olympic Charter.

3.7 Production by the IFs, in any medium, of any visual or audiovisual recordings of the Olympic competitions, any use of such recordings for commercial purposes being prohibited.

4. Further provisions regarding technical arrangements:

4.1 At the latest three years before the opening of the Olympic Games, the IFs must inform the OCOG, the IOC and the NOCs about the characteristics of the required technical installations and the sports equipment to be used to equip the venues during the Olympic
Games. The respective IF(s) may require that, subject to the guidelines established by the IOC Executive Board, such sports equipment be furnished by a particular company or companies.

4.2 The necessary technical officials (referees, judges, timekeepers, inspectors) and a jury of appeal for each sport are appointed by the IF concerned, within the limit of the total number set by the IOC Executive Board upon the recommendation of the IF concerned. They perform their tasks in accordance with the directions of such IF and in coordination with the OCOG.

4.3 No official who has participated in a decision may be a member of the jury responsible for making a ruling on the resulting dispute.

4.4 The findings of the juries must be communicated to the IOC Executive Board as soon as possible.

4.5 Juries make a ruling on all technical questions concerning their respective sports, and their decisions, including any related sanctions, are without appeal, without prejudice to further measures and sanctions which may be decided by the IOC Executive Board or Session.

4.6 The OCOG must provide facilities separate from the Olympic Village for the accommodation of all technical officials appointed by the IFs. Technical officials and members of the juries may not be accommodated in the Olympic Village. They do not belong to the NOCs’ delegations and answer only to their respective IFs.

5. Premises and facilities for the IFs:

5.1 At the Olympic Games, the OCOG shall provide, at its expense, the IFs governing the sports included in the programme of such Games with the premises and facilities necessary for processing matters of a technical nature.

5.2 Subject to the approval of the IOC Executive Board, the OCOG shall provide the above-mentioned IFs, at their request and at their expense, with the administrative and technical facilities, as well as accommodation, if available, enabling them to hold their meetings in the host city.

6. Qualifications established by the IFs:

6.1 The qualification systems must be submitted by each IF to the IOC Executive Board for approval. The NOCs will be informed by the IOC of such qualification systems.

6.2 For certain sports, the IFs may organise qualifying events or otherwise establish a limited participation in order to select the competitors, particularly teams in team sports, who will take part in the Olympic Games.

6.3 Rules 48, 55 and 56 are not applicable to the qualifying events.

7. Pre-Olympic events organised by the OCOG:

7.1 In accordance with a formula submitted to the IOC Executive Board for approval, the OCOG, after consultation with the IFs, may organise pre-Olympic events for the purpose of testing the facilities to be used during the Olympic Games, in particular the technical aspects of venues and technology.

7.2 The pre-Olympic events must take place under the technical supervision of the relevant IFs.
7.3 The pre-Olympic events are subject to the provisions of the Olympic Charter to the extent determined by the IOC Executive Board.

47 Youth camp

With the authorisation of the IOC Executive Board, the OCOG may, under its own responsibility, organise an international youth camp on the occasion of the Olympic Games.

48 Media coverage of the Olympic Games*

1. The IOC takes all necessary steps in order to ensure the fullest coverage by the different media and the widest possible audience in the world for the Olympic Games.

2. All decisions concerning the coverage of the Olympic Games by the media rest within the competence of the IOC.

Bye-law to Rule 48

1. It is an objective of the Olympic Movement that, through its contents, the media coverage of the Olympic Games should spread and promote the principles and values of Olympism.

2. The IOC Executive Board establishes all technical regulations and requirements regarding media coverage of the Olympic Games in a Technical Manual on Media, which forms an integral part of the Host City Contract. The contents of the Technical Manual on Media, and all other instructions of the IOC Executive Board, are binding for any and all persons involved in media coverage of the Olympic Games.

3. Only those persons accredited as media may act as journalists, reporters or in any other media capacity. Under no circumstances, throughout the duration of the Olympic Games, may any athlete, coach, official, press attache or any other accredited participant act as a journalist or in any other media capacity.

49 Publications relating to the Olympic Games*

All publications relating to the Olympic Games and required by the IOC shall be produced and distributed, at the expense of the OCOG, in such format as may be requested by the IOC.

Bye-law to Rule 49

1. The OCOG is responsible for the preparation, production, edition and distribution, including to the IOC, to the IFs and to all NOCs, of the following publications and documents:

1.1 for each sport, an explanatory brochure containing the general programme and technical arrangements;

1.2 a medical brochure in accordance with the IOC’s instructions; and

1.3 a complete report on the celebration and holding of the Olympic Games, as directed by the IOC.

2. For all documents and publications relating to the Olympic Games, the OCOG shall comply with the instructions of the IOC Executive Board. As a general rule, the content of all documents and publications shall be submitted to the IOC for prior approval.

50 Advertising, demonstrations, propaganda*
1. The IOC Executive Board determines the principles and conditions under which any form of advertising or other publicity may be authorised.

2. No form of advertising or other publicity shall be allowed in and above the stadia, venues and other competition areas which are considered as part of the Olympic sites. Commercial installations and advertising signs shall not be allowed in the stadia, venues or other sports grounds.

3. No kind of demonstration or political, religious or racial propaganda is permitted in any Olympic sites, venues or other areas.

Bye-law to Rule 50

1. No form of publicity or propaganda, commercial or otherwise, may appear on persons, on sportswear, accessories or, more generally, on any article of clothing or equipment whatsoever worn or used by the athletes or other participants in the Olympic Games, except for the identification - as defined in paragraph 8 below - of the manufacturer of the article or equipment concerned, provided that such identification shall not be marked conspicuously for advertising purposes.

1.1 The identification of the manufacturer shall not appear more than once per item of clothing and equipment.

1.2 Equipment: any manufacturer's identification that is greater than 10% of the surface area of the equipment that is exposed during competition shall be deemed to be marked conspicuously. However, there shall be no manufacturer's identification greater than 60cm².

1.3 Headgear (e.g. hats, helmets, sunglasses, goggles) and gloves: any manufacturer's identification over 6cm² shall be deemed to be marked conspicuously.

1.4 Clothing (e.g. T-shirts, shorts, sweat tops and sweat pants): any manufacturer's identification which is greater than 20cm² shall be deemed to be marked conspicuously.

1.5 Shoes: it is acceptable that there appear the normal distinctive design pattern of the manufacturer. The manufacturer's name and/or logo may also appear, up to a maximum of 6cm², either as part of the normal distinctive design pattern or independent of the normal distinctive design pattern.

1.6 In case of special rules adopted by an International Sports Federation, exceptions to the rules mentioned above may be approved by the IOC Executive Board.

Any violation of the provisions of the present clause may result in disqualification or withdrawal of the accreditation of the person concerned. The decisions of the IOC Executive Board regarding this matter shall be final.

The numbers worn by competitors may not display publicity of any kind and must bear the Olympic emblem of the OCOG.

2. To be valid, all contracts of the OCOG containing any element whatsoever of advertising, including the right or licence to use the emblem or the mascot of the Olympic Games, must be in conformity with the Olympic Charter and must comply with the instructions given by the IOC Executive Board. The same shall apply to contracts relating to the timing equipment, the scoreboards, and to the injection of any identification signal in television programmes. Breaches of these regulations come under the authority of the IOC Executive Board.
3. Any mascot created for the Olympic Games shall be considered to be an Olympic emblem, the design of which must be submitted by the OCOG to the IOC Executive Board for its approval. Such mascot may not be used for commercial purposes in the country of an NOC without the latter’s prior written approval.

4. The OCOG shall ensure the protection of the property of the emblem and the mascot of the Olympic Games for the benefit of the IOC, both nationally and internationally.

However, the OCOG alone and, after the OCOG has been wound up, the NOC of the host country, may exploit such emblem and mascot, as well as other marks, designs, badges, posters, objects and documents connected with the Olympic Games during their preparation, during their holding and during a period terminating not later than the end of the calendar year during which such Olympic Games are held. Upon the expiry of this period, all rights in or relating to such emblem, mascot and other marks, designs, badges, posters, objects and documents shall thereafter belong entirely to the IOC. The OCOG and/or the NOC, as the case may be and to the extent necessary, shall act as trustees (in a fiduciary capacity) for the sole benefit of the IOC in this respect.

5. The provisions of this Bye-law also apply, mutatis mutandis, to all contracts signed by the organising committee of a Session or an Olympic Congress.

6. The uniforms of the competitors and of all persons holding an official position may include the flag or Olympic emblem of their NOC or, with the consent of the OCOG, the OCOG Olympic emblem. The IF officials may wear the uniform and the emblem of their federations.

7. The identification on all technical gear, installations and other apparatus, which are neither worn nor used by athletes or other participants at the Olympic Games, including timing equipment and scoreboards, may on no account be larger than 1/10th of the height of the equipment, installation or apparatus in question, and shall not be greater than 10cm high.

8. The word “identification” means the normal display of the name, designation, trademark, logo or any other distinctive sign of the manufacturer of the item, appearing not more than once per item.

9. The OCOG, all participants and all other persons accredited at the Olympic Games and all other persons or parties concerned shall comply with the manuals, guides, or guidelines, and all other instructions of the IOC Executive Board, in respect of all matters subject to Rule 50 and this Bye-law.

IV. PROTOCOL

51 Protocol

1. Throughout the period of the Olympic Games, the IOC Executive Board alone has the authority to determine the protocol applicable at all sites and venues placed under the responsibility of the OCOG.

2. At all Olympic functions and events during the Olympic Games, the members, Honorary President, honorary members and honour members of the IOC in their order of seniority, the President, Honorary President and Vice-Presidents leading, take precedence followed by the members of the OCOG, the Presidents of the IFs and the Presidents of the NOCs.
3. The OCOG, the IFs, the NOCs and all other persons accredited at the Olympic Games, in any capacity whatsoever, shall comply with the IOC Protocol Guide, and all other instructions of the IOC Executive Board, in respect of all matters subject to this Rule.

52 Olympic Identity and Accreditation Card
- Rights attached thereto
1. The Olympic Identity and Accreditation Card is a document which establishes the identity of its holder and confers upon the latter the right to take part in the Olympic Games. Together with a passport or other official travel documents of the holder, the Olympic Identity and Accreditation Card authorises entry into the country of the host city. It allows the holder to stay and perform his Olympic function for the duration of the Olympic Games, including a period not exceeding one month before and one month after the Olympic Games.

2. The Olympic Identity and Accreditation Card is delivered, under the authority of the IOC, to persons eligible for accreditation. It gives access, to the degree necessary and as indicated thereon, to the sites, venues and events placed under the responsibility of the OCOG. The IOC Executive Board determines the persons entitled to such cards and the conditions applicable to their delivery. The OCOGs, IFs, NOCs and all other persons or parties concerned shall comply with the manuals, guides or guidelines, and all other instructions of the IOC Executive Board, in respect of all matters subject to this Rule.

53 Use of the Olympic flag
1. An Olympic flag of larger dimensions than any other flag must fly for the entire duration of the Olympic Games from a flagpole placed in a prominent position in the main stadium and in all other venues placed under the responsibility of the OCOG. Such flags are hoisted during the opening ceremony and lowered during the closing ceremony of the Olympic Games.

2. Large numbers of Olympic flags shall be flown in the Olympic Village, in all competition and training venues, in the host city and in all sites, venues and places placed under the responsibility of the OCOG.

54 Use of the Olympic flame
1. The OCOG is responsible for bringing the Olympic flame to the Olympic stadium. All arrangements for any torch relay and any use of the Olympic flame shall be carried out in strict compliance with the IOC Protocol Guide.

2. After the closing ceremony of the Olympic Games, any Olympic torch, cauldron or other device intended for any form of combustion of the Olympic flame may not be used, in any host city or elsewhere, without the approval of the IOC.

55 Opening and closing ceremonies
1. The opening and closing ceremonies shall be held in strict compliance with the IOC Protocol Guide.

2. The contents and details of all scenarios, schedules and programmes of all ceremonies must be submitted to the IOC for its prior approval.

3. The Olympic Games shall be proclaimed open by the Head of State of the host country by pronouncing either of the following sentences as the case may be:
- if at the opening of the Games of the Olympiad:
“I declare open the Games of... (name of the host city) celebrating the ... (number of the Olympiad) ... Olympiad of the modern era.”

- If at the opening of the Olympic Winter Games:

“I declare open the ... (number of the Olympic Winter Games) Olympic Winter Games of ... (name of the host city).”

During the entire period of the Olympic Games, including all ceremonies, no speeches of any kind may be held by any representative of any government or other public authority, nor by any other politician, in any venue placed under the responsibility of the OCOG. During the opening and closing ceremonies, only the IOC President and the President of the OCOG are entitled to deliver short addresses.

56 Victory, medal and diploma ceremonies

Victory, medal and diploma ceremonies shall be held in strict compliance with the IOC Protocol Guide. The format of the medals and diplomas shall be submitted to the IOC for its prior approval.

57 Roll of honour

The IOC and the OCOG shall not draw up any global ranking per country. A roll of honour bearing the names of medal winners and those awarded diplomas in each event shall be established by the OCOG and the names of the medal winners shall be featured prominently and be on permanent display in the main stadium.

58 IOC - Authority of last resort

The authority of last resort on any question concerning the Olympic Games rests with the IOC.

Chapter 6: Measures and Sanctions, Disciplinary Procedures and Dispute Resolution

59 Measures and sanctions*

In the case of any violation of the Olympic Charter, the World Anti-Doping Code, or any other regulation, as the case may be, the measures or sanctions which may be taken by the Session, the IOC Executive Board or the disciplinary commission referred to under 2.4 below are:

1. In the context of the Olympic Movement:

1.1 with regard to IOC members, the Honorary President, honorary members and honour members:

a) a reprimand, pronounced by the IOC Executive Board;

b) suspension, for a specific period, pronounced by the IOC Executive Board. The suspension may be extended to all or part of the rights, prerogatives and functions deriving from the membership of the person concerned.

The above-mentioned sanctions may be combined. They may be imposed on IOC members, the Honorary President, honorary members or honour members who, by their conduct, jeopardise the interests of the IOC, also regardless of any specific violation of the Olympic Charter or any other regulation.
1.2 with regard to IFs:
   a) withdrawal from the programme of the Olympic Games of:
      - a sport (Session),
      - a discipline (IOC Executive Board),
      - an event (IOC Executive Board);
   b) withdrawal of provisional recognition (IOC Executive Board);
   c) withdrawal of full recognition (Session).
1.3 with regard to associations of IFs:
   a) withdrawal of provisional recognition (IOC Executive Board);
   b) withdrawal of full recognition (Session).
1.4 with regard to NOCs:
   a) suspension (IOC Executive Board); in such event, the IOC Executive Board determines in each case the consequences for the NOC concerned and its athletes;
   b) withdrawal of provisional recognition (IOC Executive Board);
   c) withdrawal of full recognition (Session); in such a case, the NOC forfeits all rights conferred upon it in accordance with the Olympic Charter;
   d) withdrawal of the right to organise a Session or an Olympic Congress (Session).
1.5 with regard to associations of NOCs:
   a) withdrawal of provisional recognition (IOC Executive Board);
   b) withdrawal of full recognition (Session).
1.6 with regard to a host city, an OCOG and an NOC: withdrawal of the right to organise the Olympic Games (Session).
1.7 with regard to applicant or candidate cities and an NOC:
   withdrawal of the right to be an applicant or a candidate city to host the Olympic Games (IOC Executive Board).
1.8 with regard to other recognised associations and organisations:
   a) withdrawal of provisional recognition (IOC Executive Board);
   b) withdrawal of full recognition (Session).

2. In the context of the Olympic Games, in the case of any violation of the Olympic Charter, of the World Anti-Doping Code, or of any other decision or applicable regulation issued by the IOC or any IF or NOC, including but not limited to the IOC Code of Ethics, or of any applicable public law or regulation, or in case of any form of misbehaviour:

2.1 with regard to individual competitors and teams: temporary or permanent ineligibility or exclusion from the Olympic Games, disqualification or withdrawal of accreditation; in the case of disqualification or exclusion, the medals and diplomas obtained in relation to the relevant infringement of the Olympic Charter shall be returned to the IOC. In addition, at the discretion of the IOC Executive Board, a competitor or a team may lose the benefit of any ranking obtained in relation to other events at the Olympic Games at which he or it was
disqualified or excluded; in such case the medals and diplomas won by him or it shall be returned to the IOC (Executive Board);

2.2 with regard to officials, managers and other members of any delegation as well as referees and members of the jury: temporary or permanent ineligibility or exclusion from the Olympic Games (IOC Executive Board);

2.3 with regard to all other accredited persons: withdrawal of accreditation (IOC Executive Board);

2.4 the IOC Executive Board may delegate its power to a disciplinary commission.

3. Before applying any measure or sanction, the competent IOC body may issue a warning.

4. All sanctions and measures are taken without prejudice to any other rights of the IOC and of any other body, including but not limited to NOCs and IFs.

Bye-law to Rule 59

1. Any inquiry relating to facts that may lead to any measure or sanction is conducted under the authority of the IOC Executive Board, which may delegate all or part of its authority to that effect.

2. Throughout any inquiry, the IOC Executive Board may provisionally withdraw from any concerned person or organisation all or part of the rights, prerogatives and functions deriving from such person’s or organisation’s membership or status.

3. Any individual, team or any other individual or legal entity has the right to be heard by the IOC body competent to apply a measure or sanction to such individual, team or legal entity. The right to be heard in the sense of this provision includes the right to be acquainted with the charges and the right to appear personally or to submit a defence in writing.

4. Any measure or sanction decided by the Session, the IOC Executive Board or the disciplinary commission referred to in Rule 59.2.4 shall be communicated in writing to the party concerned.

5. All measures or sanctions shall be effective forthwith unless the competent body decides otherwise.

60 Challenging IOC decisions

Notwithstanding the applicable rules and deadlines for all arbitration and appeal procedures, and subject to any other provision of the World Anti-Doping Code, no decision taken by the IOC concerning an edition of the Olympic Games, including but not limited to competitions and their consequences such as rankings or results, can be challenged by anyone after a period of three years from the day of the closing ceremony of such Games.

61 Dispute resolution

1. The decisions of the IOC are final. Any dispute relating to their application or interpretation may be resolved solely by the IOC Executive Board and, in certain cases, by arbitration before the Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS).

2. Any dispute arising on the occasion of, or in connection with, the Olympic Games shall be submitted exclusively to the Court of Arbitration for Sport, in accordance with the Code of Sports-Related Arbitration.