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Doctoral Dissertation

Departament de Geografia

International Co-Tutelle – Politecnico di Torino

The Olympic Villages and Olympic urban planning

**Analysis and evaluation of the impact on territorial and
urban planning (XX-XXI centuries)**

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Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (UAB)

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My research project has been developed through joint international supervision between the two partner universities: Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona and Politecnico di Torino.



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The implementation of my research strategy is supported by my supervisors, the Centre d'Estudis Olímpics de Barcelona which is now the Institute of Sports Research (IRE) and the Interdepartmental Centre on Urban Studies (OMERO) of Università Degli Studi di Torino.

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the contents and organization of this dissertation constitute my original work and do not compromise in any way the rights of third parties, including those relating to the security of personal data.

Valerio della Sala

2022

* This thesis is presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements to obtain a doctoral degree at the Graduate School of the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona and the Politecnico di Torino (ScuDo).

Ai miei genitori, Roberto e Katia

Abstract

The editions of the Olympic Games created a major urban transformation, which allows for a new critical perspective on the new urban dimension of the Games, especially in the construction of the three main physical elements built: the athletics stadium, the swimming pool facilities and, above all, the "Olympic Village".

The study analyses the Winter and Summer Olympic Villages in a general way with a special focus on the relationship between the Olympic Village and the urban fabric. I will examine the Olympic Villages based on the quantitative treatment of statistical data referring to a series of criteria or parameters useful to characterise each specific experience. My research aims to demonstrate how socio-urban implications, impact, legacy and sustainability are key aspects to consider when planning and evaluating the Olympic Games.

The analysis identifies the different subsequent uses of the Olympic Villages after the end of the Games. The project involves a multi- and interdisciplinary methodology that, through a critical analysis approach, aims to develop an innovative analysis of Olympic urbanism in general and Olympic Villages in particular. Establishing and consolidating the field of study that represents Olympic urbanism as a useful tool for the future construction of new Olympic Villages in the coming decades. This research shows how cities must consider the intangible heritage that Olympic Villages represent, as part of the legacy of transforming host cities. It is only through these new philosophies that cities and regions could benefit from the intangible benefits associated with the Olympic Games, such as employment, infrastructure structure and use, tourism, job offers, SMEs, cultural development, decision-making and trade.

KEYWORDS: OLYMPIC GAMES, OLYMPIC LEGACY, SUSTAINABILITY, URBAN PLANNING, TERRITORIALISATION APPROACH.

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Introduction

Mega-events are considered to be a special phenomenon that in recent years has seen a considerable increase in interest, fuelling the proliferation of smaller events on a local or continental scale. The major metropolises remain interested in the competition and future allocation of a global event that can be a catalyst for other meanings about the socio-cultural context of the host cities.

London, Paris, New York, Moscow, Boston, Madrid, Melbourne, Rome, Milan, Beijing, Los Angeles, and Barcelona, are just some of the major metropolises that continue to compete in the Olympic event in their country. The interest in hosting an event of this size can take on different meanings and outcomes in each specific context. Over the years we have observed different experiences that allow us to affirm that the possibilities of rebuilding urban functions, improving and expanding global networks and consequently modifying and proposing to the world a new image of place on a symbolic and material level, are the main catalytic elements that we will observe in the study.

The approach chosen in this work is a territorial one, starting with the first question that arises for host communities before a major event: What types of urban functions have Olympic Villages assumed throughout history considering their use in the post-Olympic moment?

The following question can be adequately answered by looking at the different models of Olympic Villages developed over time.

Therefore, regarding the planning of the host cities, can the Olympic Village be considered a catalytic instrument for urban expansion and/or transformation?

From a local point of view, the event is a catalyst for new processes that can allow the city and the territory to temporarily take advantage of material and immaterial resources which, planned through strategic plans, can be reused and exploited in the post-Olympic period, thus becoming a new model of local development that the territory wants to implement in the medium and long term.

All the works and resources constitute a territorial inheritance that, however, can be transformed into a positive experience that becomes part of the available heritage of the city and the territorial resources. On the other hand, the Olympic experience can represent a negative and disruptive element for the evolution of phenomena such as territorial fragmentation, segregation, gentrification and other phenomena that can constitute a problem and a cost for society. The definition of adequate and long-term planning can allow the implementation of projects that respond to the needs of citizens and the specific local context.

One of the objectives of the study is to situate and explore the different Olympic Village experiences that constitute the most important and most impacting Olympic heritage in the host cities. The interpretation of the major territorial transformations of the Olympic cities will focus on the evolution of the Olympic Villages catalysed by the event itself.

The analysis will consider the Olympic territory as a phenomenon of extraordinary production of territory that must be confronted with the ordinary production of territory that is the responsibility of the different territorial actors in each specific context. Moreover, the consideration of the event as an extraordinary production of the territory allows us to observe different rules, processes, and obligations of an institutional and non-institutional nature. The study will take into consideration all the resources, reports and obligations provided by the International Olympic Committee for the host cities.

Should we analyse the Olympic Games from a purely economic analysis or strictly related to the production of urban physical infrastructures or should we also include other aspects related to 'Olympic urbanism' such as, for example, the heritage legacy derived from the transformation of the city?

The Olympic event permanently transforms and complexifies the territory and therefore it is difficult to reconstruct and observe the tangible and intangible values of the overall development of local systems. In this sense, a differentiation is introduced between the project territory and the context territory. The project territory is a temporary territory that is configured through the Olympic project and the works for the implementation of the mega-event. On the other hand, the context territory, whether or not it is affected by the Olympic event, follows its rules and tasks of ordinary transformations.

The representation of a material, perceptive and symbolic transformation of the territorial space through a mega-event can be seen as a production of values typical of contemporary society.

What are the planning models of Olympic Villages used over time? Does the analysis of the planning and management of Olympic Villages allow us to detect common patterns in terms of the existence of a typology that allows us to classify the different experiences?

The following paper tries to analyse the different spatial transformations of the Olympic event, leaving the focus on the event and focusing on the different Olympic Villages that have developed over time and that remain a heritage available to most host cities. We will look at the functions and re-use of the Olympic Village in the post-Olympic period in different territorial contexts. Furthermore, in consideration of the summer and winter events, different territorial contexts will be observed that can absorb or reject temporary situations by elaborating new cycles of territorialization. Metropolises are considered as subjects that can more easily absorb temporary events such as universal

exhibitions, the capital of culture, the Olympic Games and other events that involve new cycles of territorialization.

The following manuscript can be divided into three parts. The first part deals with conceptual, theoretical and methodological issues about the general and specific objectives of the paper. The first chapter tries to give an overview of urbanism and spatial planning in the 20th and 21st centuries, centuries of the different theories and philosophies about territory and urban development of cities. In the second chapter, an attempt is made to provide an overview of mega-events, examining and observing the different contributions and proposals elaborated by the international literature. After an overview, the chapter will finally focus on the issue of the heritage of mega sports events, namely the Olympic Games, by introducing the elements of impact, legacy, effect, and sustainability, which define the "Olympic legacy".

The third chapter tries to give an overview of the International Olympic Committee, the bidding process, and the rules and guidelines for hosting the Olympic Games. Subsequently, the chapter will attempt to look at the organisation and financing of the Olympic Games over time.

The second part of the paper analyses the research through an introductory chapter on the research and previous studies on Olympic urbanism.

The fourth chapter looks specifically at the Olympic Games and the candidate cities by considering the event as an urban instrument. Subsequently, the chapter allows us to observe the impact, the transformations, the heritage and the effects that the Olympic Games can have on the candidate cities. The chapter allows us to examine the theoretical aspects capable of demonstrating the different forms of territorial actions in the different phases of territorialization of the Olympic event. The next chapter allows us to define some characteristic elements and scenarios of the post-event period after the introduction of the Olympic Villages.

The fifth chapter attempts to provide a general overview of Olympic Villages, taking into account their history and their evolution over time through the contributions elaborated by the international literature. Subsequently, the summer and winter Olympic Villages will be observed through a quantitative and comparative analysis using common elements previously provided. The quantitative data provide an overview of the main elements that allow us to observe the Olympic Villages developed over time in each specific territory. Finally, a reflection on future Olympic Villages will be advanced.

Lastly, the third part analyses the results of the qualitative research on the case of Turin 2006 and the quantitative analysis provided through the interviews of 85 international specialists, professors and researchers who have studied or continue to study the subject of the study.

The research project has been made possible above all thanks to the many people who have supported and continue to support me in my research work.

First of all, I would like to thank Professor Francesc Muñoz and Professor Egidio Dansero, sources of inspiration and daily encouragement. Thanks to the support of Francesc and Egidio I have been able to discuss, debate, reflect and elaborate mine on work on different occasions. Collaboration with both of them has allowed me to produce a series of publications that constitute a fundamental part of my experience as a researcher.

In the same way, I would like to thank all the members of the Centre for Olympic Studies of the Autonomous University of Barcelona, the Institute for Sports Research (IRE-UAB) and the Interdepartmental Centre on Urban Studies OMERO of the University of Turin.

Furthermore, I would like to thank Berta and Emilio for their suggestions and availability for my PhD activities.

This project is also the result of an intense research activity on the Piemontese territory, which has been possible thanks to the suggestions of some people like Alfredo Mela, Chito Guala, Nico de Leonardis, Alberto Vanolo, Giovanni Semi, Magda Bolzoni, Antonio de Rossi, Piervincenzo Bondonio, Marta Bottero, Valentino Castellani, Giuseppe Gattino, Roberto Daneo, Luca Davico, Roberto Saini, Mario Viano.

Grazie.

I. RESEARCH

Research

Object of study

The following research aims to carry out a multidisciplinary analysis in the field of urban planning and more specifically Olympic urban planning. Exactly, the object of study is "The Olympic Villages and Olympic Urbanism".

Olympic urban planning can be defined as a set of three main elements: the Olympic stadium, the swimming pool facilities and, above all, the "Olympic Village" to house the participating athletes. Based on these urban elements, the Olympic Villages have been identified in concrete terms. The first classification of Olympic Villages, carried out by Francesc Muñoz (1995), allows us to observe a classification and urban analysis of the Olympic Villages developed for the Summer Games and how these Olympic Villages can be defined as a specific urban instrument in the territory (Muñoz 1996).

The following starting point allows us to analyse the different summer and winter projects carried out and relate them to another variable, which is the territory of production of the Olympic event. On the other hand, a change in the spatial dimension of the Olympic Games has also been observed, which in turn is related to the increase in the number of participants.

Although mega-events have always observed different spatial dimensions reflecting the different architectural forms of the cities in each historical moment.

The dimension of the Olympic event has introduced different socio-urban implications, impact, legacy and sustainability, becoming fundamental aspects to achieving the event's assignment. In this sense, all the Olympic projects realised will be analysed and the different spatial models planned over time will be reached.

Through the different cases, we will observe how the different models of Olympic Villages have been established in our cities until becoming urban pieces that add other meanings to the specific areas. To analyse the Olympic space and dimension, the study will use the territorialization cycle advanced by Turco (1984), characterised as a model of analysis that will allow us to observe the Olympic space in a general way in all its phases of development. Subsequently, the study will analyse the evolution of territorial models based on a quantitative treatment of statistical data referring to a series of parameters.

A critical analysis is therefore advanced, to develop innovative research on Olympic urban planning in general and Olympic Villages in particular. Similarly, it also aims to analyse how post-Olympic planning may affect the reuse of Olympic Villages over time. In this regard, the study will look at the Olympic Villages developed for the Turin 2006 Olympic Games.

The extension of a temporary Olympic space has made the Olympic project more complex and introduced a multitude of economic, cultural, morphological, political and social variables.

In turn, the Olympic Village presents a structure that is built with public or private resources for a limited period only. Given the breadth and diversity of Olympic projects, as well as the particularities of each territorial context, there is a need to delimit the study parameters more precisely to be able to analyse the Olympic Villages in greater detail. In this way, the study is restricted to the identification of patterns that present a relationship and a degree of affinity with their values. To be even more specific, the object of study is limited to Olympic Villages built on a temporary or permanent basis for the organisation of accommodation for Olympic athletes. Therefore, taking into account these considerations, the object of study is "The analysis and evaluation in territorial and urban planning of summer and winter Olympic Villages in the 20th and 21st century".

Introduction to the objectives

The main objective of the multidisciplinary and comparative study of winter and summer Olympic Villages proposed in this thesis is to analyse the morphological and spatial characteristics of the Olympic Village about the territory in the different documented experiences. The study also proposes a new type of analysis of Olympic Villages, introducing an innovative vision that considers criteria such as heritage legacy, urban location, heritage value in terms of the investments made, or land occupation, considering in this case parameters such as total surface area, residential area or the area dedicated to public spaces in the case of all the Olympic Villages built during the 20th century and the first two decades of the 21st century.

The thesis also considers the main motivations that have arisen historically about the urban planning and management of Olympic Villages, also taking into account the post-Olympic period and the conditions of recycling or abandonment of Olympic Villages after the Games.

In the absence of any previous study defined on this scale of treatment of the object of study, the main interest of the proposed research concerns the fact of being able to offer for the first time an integrated and comprehensive vision of every one of the urban development's resulting from the construction of all the Olympic Villages for the Summer Games and also the Winter Games throughout history.

From the methodological point of view, in addition to bibliographical and documentary research with original archive sources, a search for information is proposed based on a series of general interviews with quantitative treatment referring to the phenomenon of the Olympic Village and a series of in-depth interviews of a more specific and qualitative nature referring to the specific case study of the three Olympic Villages of the Turin 2006 Games.

General objectives

- To find out how the study of Olympic Villages has been developed from the perspective of academic research up to the present time.
- To carry out a general analysis of Winter and Summer Olympic Villages, paying special attention to the relationship between the Olympic Village and the urban fabric, based on the quantitative treatment of statistical data referring to a series of criteria or parameters useful for characterising each specific construction experience.
- To identify the different subsequent uses of the Olympic Villages after the end of the Games, considering a range of possibilities that go from abandonment, literal abandonment in some cases, to the recycling and enhancement of the facilities through the development of new urban functions.
- To propose an innovative analysis of Olympic urban planning in general and of Olympic Villages in particular, which will both consolidate the field of study that Olympic urban planning represents and offer a useful document about the future construction of new Olympic Villages in the future.

Specific objectives

- To propose an innovative analysis of the economic heritage dimension of winter and summer Olympic Villages during the 20th and 21st centuries, taking into account the conditions of financing and monetary inflation existing at each historical moment.
- To analyse and characterise the different urban models of Olympic Village developed to date by considering a series of explanatory criteria or information parameters that can be translated into statistical data to be processed quantitatively.
- To consider the intangible heritage represented by the Olympic Villages as part of the Olympic legacy that represents the transformation of the city, thinking about the moment after the Games.

Research questions

Regarding the general and specific objectives of my doctoral project the following research questions can be proposed:

- Regarding the planning of the host cities, can the Olympic Village be considered a catalytic instrument for urban expansion and/or transformation?
- Should we analyse the Olympic Games from a purely economic analysis or strictly related to the production of urban physical infrastructures or should we also include other aspects related to 'Olympic urbanism' such as, for example, the heritage legacy derived from the transformation of the city?
- What are the planning models of Olympic Villages used over time? Does the analysis of the planning and management of Olympic Villages allow us to detect common patterns in terms of the existence of a typology that allows us to classify the different experiences?
- What types of urban functions have Olympic Villages assumed throughout history, considering their use in the post-Olympic period?
- Should 'Olympic urbanism' in general, and the design of Olympic Villages in particular, be included in a long-term strategic city project embedded in conventional urban planning schemes?

Hypothesis

The research proposed in this thesis is based on the definition of a set of closely related hypotheses. Three introductory hypotheses and a central hypothesis are proposed, which also explains the choice and consideration of the specific case study represented by the three Olympic Villages built for the Turin 2006 Games.

Introductory Hypothesis 1: The development and validity of 'Olympic urbanism'.

The study of the different urban planning experiences of the cities organising the Summer Olympic Games during the 20th and 21st centuries allows us to support the hypothesis of the development of a unitary corpus in terms of the urban planning dimension of the Games, especially about the construction of the three main physical elements built: the athletics stadium; the Olympic swimming pool facilities; and, above all, the 'Olympic Village' to house the participating athletes. A true 'Olympic urban planning' has thus developed which, in parallel to conventional urban planning, has served to extend, rebuild or transform, as the case may be, the candidate cities. In these urban programmes, the physical definition, the architectural style and the model of implantation in the territory

of the 'Olympic Village' would constitute the central elements of this 'Olympic urban planning.

Introductory Hypothesis 2: The evolution of the Olympic Village as an urban strategy for the city.

The evolution of Olympic urban planning during the 20th century shows the consolidation of urban strategies in which the construction of the Olympic Village has gone from being an exceptional or occasional event, physically located in most cases outside the city and discursively conceived as external to local urban planning, to being a constituent element of long-term urban transformation strategies. In this sense, the Olympic Villages are no longer a place of intensive temporary use that becomes a territorial unknown in terms of the urban functions to be developed after the Games. On the contrary, they are urban pieces that have tended to become part of the definition of long-term urban change and recycling programmes, as is clearly shown in recent cases and experiences since Barcelona 1992, such as Turin 2006 or London 2012.

Introductory Hypothesis 3: The recent rethinking of the Olympic legacy'.

While the main element shaping Olympic urban planning during the 20th-century experiences has been the construction of physical infrastructures, since the Barcelona 1992 Games and, very clearly in the case of the London 2012 Games, the presence of a set of elements of a more intangible nature has been developing, associated with the idea of the urban legacy of the Games ('Olympic legacy'). This new aspect of Olympic urban planning integrates both elements of social and cultural identity, associated with the collective legacy that the memory of the Games represents about the transformation of the city, and tangible criteria of sustainability and resilience applied in the construction of the Olympic Village and the new collective facilities, which are proposed from the outset as an urban legacy based on their recycling for other uses after the Games.

Central Hypothesis: The Winter Olympic Games and their evolution towards the development of metropolitan and regional strategies.

The study of the different urban planning experiences of the cities organising the Winter Olympic Games during the 20th and 21st centuries allow us to propose the hypothesis of evolution from the first non-essential urban planning models, associated with the simple idea of the 'resort' for mountain tourism and with a temporary use during the sporting event, to specific and more complex urban planning models. This would be shown by the evolution of the 'Olympic Village' itself, progressively built with criteria similar to those of the Summer Games. The final point of this process would be the proposal of metropolitan and regional strategies in the most recent experiences. A model that combines various networked locations: on the one hand, the mountain resort areas and, on the other hand, the central city, as an expression of the real scope of the metropolitan phenomenon today.

Methodology

To carry out the study proposed by the thesis, several methodologies will be proposed that will allow us to better understand and define the object of study.

1. Bibliographic and documentary review (original archive material).
2. Quantitative methodology (statistical treatment of data and interviews).
3. Qualitative methodology (in-depth interviews).

To make up for the lack of previous studies and considering the complexity of the object of study derived from its multifaceted nature, methods have been proposed that will allow us to observe the phenomenon in all its dimensions. The use of a quantitative methodology for the analysis of the Olympic Villages based on the statistical treatment of the available information, the support of a survey with an equally quantitative treatment and, finally, the carrying out of a series of in-depth qualitative interviews on the specific case of Turin 2006, will allow a specific analysis of the relationships established between the Olympic Village and the territory. The choice of the Turin 2006 Olympic Games as a case study is due to its importance in the evolution of the spatial dimension of the Olympic Villages and the Olympic event but, above all, in terms of helping to corroborate and demonstrate the central hypothesis of the thesis.

Bibliographical review

Following the definition of the theoretical framework, an explanatory research methodology will be used to obtain information and data on Olympic urban planning and the Olympic Villages. The publications of the International Olympic Committee, the reports of the National Committees of each State and the documents in the library of the Olympic Museum in Lausanne will be considered.

In this bibliographic and documentary archive analysis, we will try to obtain the necessary data to strengthen the work objectives and support the hypotheses of the study, explaining the management processes and the different models of the spatial organisation of the Olympic Village over time. In this phase, it will be essential to develop a matrix that will allow us to observe the different management models that the committees have adopted for the candidate cities. To facilitate the understanding of the bibliographic sources, a bibliography without a detailed digital link and a bibliography with the complete link has been provided.

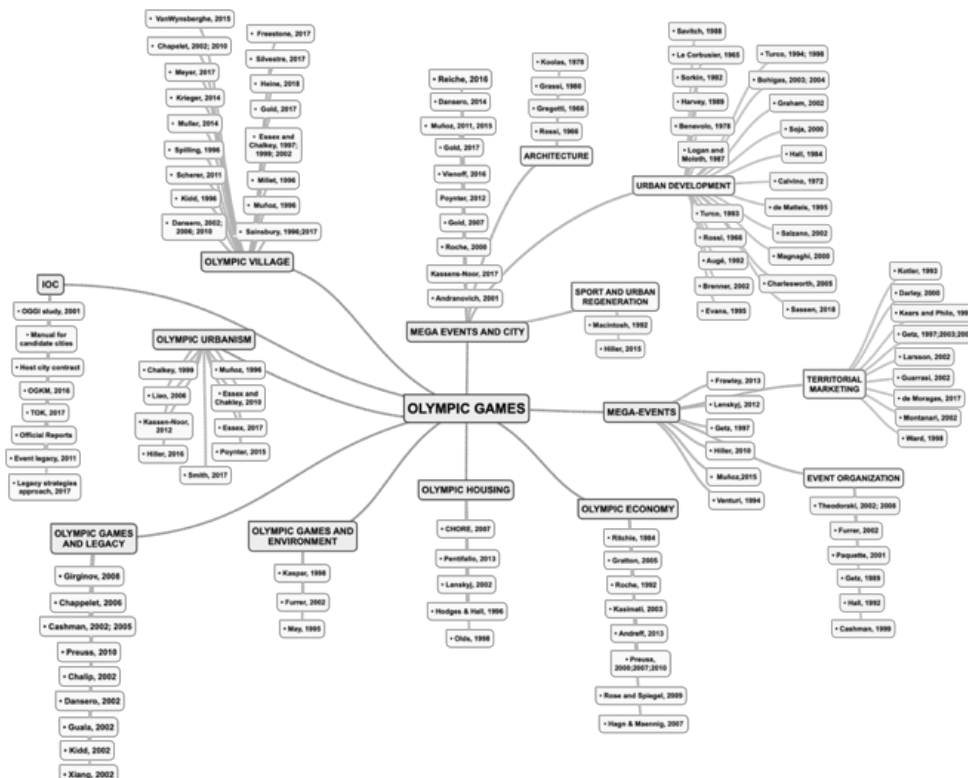
In addition, secondary sources of information will be taken into account, based on the United Nations guidelines, and OECD and CHORE reports.

As far as the specific case study of Turin 2006 is concerned, it will be carried out through the contributions of the OMERO Study Centre of the University of Turin, a partner and central part of the planning of the Olympic Games.

Thanks to my personal experience at the OMERO research centre, I have been able to benefit from and access the main academic contribution to the Olympic event in the specific case of Turin 2006.

Finally, there is access to resources of interest of the Autonomous University of Barcelona, such as the library of the Institute of Sport Research (IRE) and the libraries of the Faculty of Geography of the University of Barcelona, the University of Bologna, of the Polytechnic University of Turin, of the OMERO Research Centre, of the University of Turin and, the library of the Olympic Museum of Lausanne. In addition, the bibliographic documentation will be expanded by taking into account the internal contents of the internal documents of each organising committee as well as specific dossiers of the International Olympic Committee.

Reference:



Quantitative methodology

The explanatory research will be carried out through a longitudinal quantitative design of trends that will allow us to examine the different changes in the structures and spatial organisation of each territory under analysis.

Quantitative statistical analysis based on parameters

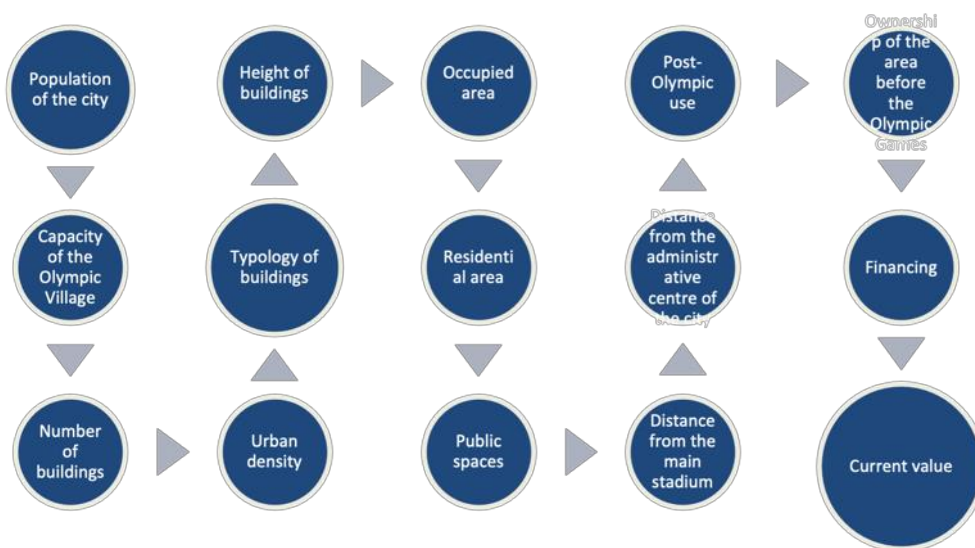
The analysis and comparison of the quantitative data referring to the different Olympic Villages (number of built units, surface areas, density, etc.), will be done previously through the creation of an Excel matrix that will help us in the classification of the different categories of analysis.

The statistical work with the open data sets referring to each city and Olympic Village has been classified according to the following phases:

1. Data preparation
2. Consideration of the variables
3. Consideration of multiple variables
4. Delimitation of the units of analysis

About the variables considered, the following list has been used to provide an optimal characterisation of each of the Olympic Villages:

- ◇ The population of the city
- ◇ The capacity of the Olympic Village (n. of inhabitants)
- ◇ Number of buildings
- ◇ Height of buildings
- ◇ Typology of buildings
- ◇ Urban density
- ◇ Occupied area
- ◇ Residential area
- ◇ International area (public spaces)
- ◇ Distance from the main stadium
- ◇ Distance from the administrative centre of the city
- ◇ Ownership of the area before the Olympic Games
- ◇ Post-Olympic use
- ◇ Asset value (financing)
- ◇ Current value



The use of raster layers will also help us to understand in depth the different changes that the host cities of the Games have undergone over time and the use of orthophotos will allow us to make a photographic comparison of the areas under study where the summer and winter Olympic Villages have historically been located in different locations and territories. As this is a project analysis, only a few examples of the GIS models will be shown in the study. In the appendices, you can see the GIS models made for the observation and analysis of the Olympic Villages about their spatial dimensions.

About the spatial dimension of the Olympic Village, and as an example of the productive work represented by the development of this quantitative level of the thesis, the processing of the data and statistical information has allowed us to classify the Olympic Villages, proposing a typology referring to the spatial organisation and the impact on the territory, considering the following situations:

- Olympic Village in the city
- Olympic Village in the city and with a satellite Village
- Olympic Village in the city with more than one satellite Village
- Olympic Village in extra-urban areas
- Olympic Village in extra-urban areas and with satellite Villages

Quantitative interview

As mentioned above, the lack of previous studies and the limited knowledge of the opinion of the agents involved in the different spatial dynamics that frame the development of the Olympic Villages, made it advisable to propose a quantitative methodology in which a questionnaire structured using twenty-seven (27) closed questions and one (1) open question was also carried out to allow the qualified interviewees to propose a personal opinion on the specific subject of the study.

The questionnaire is structured in four (4) parts: 1. profile; 2. introduction; 3. Olympic Village; 4. specific questions.

The interview subjects were selected about their direct or indirect involvement in the planning of the Olympic Village. Professors who have not been directly involved with the IOC but who have contributed effectively to the academic development of Olympic Games research have also been chosen.

The qualified testimonies chosen have had links with the Barcelona Olympic Studies Centre, the Institute for Sports Research, the Lausanne Olympic Studies Centre, the Sydney Olympic Studies Centre, the Ottawa Olympic Studies Centre, the Rio de Janeiro Olympic Studies Centre and various universities which, over the years, have collaborated directly in the planning and organisation of the Olympic Games.

In summary, the testimonies correspond to the following profiles:

- Members of the Olympic Studies Centre
- Managers of the research committees
- Professors who publish openly or with Olympic publishers on the subject of study.
- Those responsible for Olympic Games management or planning activities.

Qualitative interview

The use of a qualitative methodology of in-depth interviews made it possible to contemplate the specificities of the Olympic Village and its management in the post-Olympic period.

The qualitative methodology was based on a semi-structured interview that allowed for an in-depth study of the elements of sustainability, heritage and impact.

The interviews were carried out using a questionnaire addressed to Olympic professors, managers of the national committee and planners who contributed to the realisation and planning of the Turin 2006 Olympic Games.

After having formulated my hypotheses, I was able to develop a semi-structured interview through five (5) questions about the profile of the interviewees, six (6) general questions about the Torino 2006 Olympic Games, five (5) questions about the Olympic legacy, two (2) specific questions to observe the different opinions and perspectives on the impact and seven (7) specific questions about the Olympic Village.

The questionnaire is structured in four (5) parts: 1. Profile; 2. Turin 2006; 3. Olympic Legacy; 4.

The semi-structured interview was provided in two blocks, the first block was fundamental to know the interviewees' involvement in the Olympic Games and their basic information, while, in the second part, specific questions were asked on the topic of legacy, sustainability and impact of the Olympic Village.

The choice of teachers, managers and Olympic planners was made based on their involvement and relationship with the Turin 2006 Olympic event. The chosen subjects have had relations with the Centre for Olympic Studies of Lausanne, the University of Turin, the Polytechnic University of Turin, the University of Genoa, the City of Turin, the Region of Turin and, over time, have collaborated directly in the planning of the Olympic Games.

Thanks to the possibilities induced by my direct involvement in the Centre for the Study of Mega-events (OMERO) of the University of Turin and my PhD in co-tutelle with the Polytechnic University of Turin, I was able to contact all the interviewees to carry out an interview that could clearly explain all the different opinions on the specific topic of the thesis.

Participants were selected based on the following selection criteria:

- Members of the OMERO centre
- Mayor and councillor of the City of Turin
- Teachers who have published about the Turin Games 2006
- Responsible for the regional development of Piemonte.

To choose the different profiles involved in the realisation of the Turin 2006 Olympic Games, the following entities have been contacted:

- Arpa Regional: Agency for the environmental protection of Piemonte. This agency was directly involved in the environmental impact and sustainability assessment of the Turin Olympic event.

- OMERO: The OMERO research centre was responsible for the research of the Olympic Games during all phases of the project.

- Fondazione 20 marzo 2006: Members of the Olympic Foundation that has carried out the management and financing of the Turin Olympic Games.

- TOROC: Members of the Organising Committee of the Turin 2006 Olympic Games

- SITI: Members of the Higher Institute of Territorial Systems for Innovation

- Urban planners: Urban planners from the University of Turin who were involved in the planning of the city in the period before and after the event.

- Planners: Planners of the University of Turin who were involved in the planning of the city in the period before and after the event

- Municipality of Turin, Bardonecchia and Sestriere: Mayor and council member
- Piemonte Region: Advisor and responsible for regional planning

The following table details the participants and the information related to the provision of the interview.

Persons interviewed	Location	Profile	Date
<i>Alfredo Mela</i>	Turin	Researcher of the OMERO Group	08/04/2021
<i>Luca Davico</i>	Turin	Researcher at the Rota Institute	09/04/2021
<i>Roberto Daneo</i>	Turin	Director of Institutional Relations with the Territory TOROC	09/04/2021
<i>Alessandro Guala</i>	Turin	Researcher of the OMERO Group	12/04/2021
<i>Valentino Castellani</i>	Turin	Mayor of Turin from 1993 to 2001 President TOROC from 2001 to 2006	15/04/2021
<i>Piervincenzo Bondonio</i>	Turin	Researcher of the OMERO Group	07/05/2021
<i>Mario Viano</i>	Turin	Councillor for Urban Planning Assets of the City of Turin From 1995 to 2011	10/05/2021
<i>Marta Bottero</i>	Turin	Researcher at the SITI Institute	12/05/2021
<i>Giuseppe Gattino</i>	Turin	Head of Press Department - TOROC	17/05/2021
<i>Roberto Saini</i>	Turin	Director of the environment - TOROC	30/06/2021
<i>Piero Gros</i>	Turin	Mayor of the Olympic Volunteers TOROC	27/07/2021
<i>Maria Caire</i>	Turin	Responsible for the Olympic Education Project - TOROC	29/07/2021
<i>Francesco Avato</i>	Turin	Mayor of Bardonecchia from 2001 to 2011 and from 2016 to 2021 - Councillor of the Foundation XX March 2006 since 2010	09/09/2021
<i>Valter Marin</i>	Turin	Mayor of Pragelato from 1999 to 2009 and Sestriere from 2009 - Member of the Board of Directors of the Foundation XX March 2008 - Member of the Board of Directors of Agenzia Torino 2006 from 2001 to 2006	17/09/2021

Limitations

Among the main limitations faced in my study are the difficulties of analysing the internal documents of the International Olympic Committee and the various national committees. In addition, other limitations are related to the manuals for the candidate cities before 2000 and the TOK study, which until today are the exclusive property of the International Olympic Committee and therefore difficult to access information.

Thanks to my stay at the Olympic Study Centre in Barcelona, I was able to review some internal documents of the Organising Committee of the Barcelona Olympic Games which allowed me to analyse in a specific way the planning and management of the Olympic Villages.

As I explained before, being internal and non-public documents, I found some difficulties in locating the works related to my object of study. Moreover, thanks to the possibilities of the Olympic repository, I was able to find some online resources that allowed me to observe all the official reports of each Olympic city.

However, as far as papers and books on the subject of Olympic urban planning are concerned, I have found very few sources that analyse in a specific way the development of the Olympic Villages. The research model has been carried out based on the information obtained, which has allowed me to observe how academic production has focused on the subject over time.

In conjunction, it is pointed out how the information found is sufficient to explain my research.

On the other hand, the lack of previous specific studies on the subject of Olympic Villages should be underlined.

However, the study on Olympic summer Villages was carried out in 1995 during the Olympic Symposium on Olympic Villages in Lausanne, at the initiative of the Centre d'Estudis Olímpics de Barcelona (nowadays Centre de Recerca de l'Esport) and the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the Olympic Museum of Lausanne, in which the Department of Geography of the UAB participated with the help of professors Oriol Nel-lo and Francesc Muñoz, is considered a pillar.

This first cataloguing of the typologies and history of the Olympic Village will be my only starting point for the extension of my study in consideration of the evolutions of the Olympic Games and the importance of the Winter Olympic Games in the context of mega sporting events.

In this sense, the research will focus on the impact, the heritage and the sustainability of each Winter and Summer Olympic Village. Therefore, my research can be a starting point for future research on Olympic Villages.

The approach of my research analysis will allow me to explain in a concrete way the summer and winter Olympic Villages developed from 1924 until today. Furthermore, with the support of the Olympic Village of Turin, the introduction of a new model of territorial development for metropolises will be explained.

The research will be carried out in collaboration with the Centre for Olympic Studies in Barcelona, the Institute for Research on Sport and, finally, in international co-tutelle with the Politecnico di Torino.

During my studies, I will be able to take advantage of a period of mobility at the interdisciplinary study centre of the University of Turin (OMERO), an organisation involved in the organisation of the 2006 Olympic Games in Turin. Furthermore, I take into consideration that my study will be in Spanish, with an English translation in order to respect the directives of international co-guardianship. The translation was developed with the assistance of a software.

Additionally, the limitations induced by each target state, the geographical limitations of my study and by the evolution of the subject about the scientific production should also be considered. Together, longitudinal and cross-sectional effects induced by the time of the research and the evolution of the topic will be taken into account. In addition, the interviewees may have changed their opinions and considerations about the past Olympic Villages and their evolution in the city over time. For example, the awareness of sustainability and legacy issues over time has changed and continues to change about the new management and organisational models of the Olympic Games. Today, the ONU's and the IOC's awareness of this issue has been able to induce some intangible changes in the thinking of each interviewee. Even in the academic production on this subject.

Finally, I would like to underline that my involvement in the study is due to my passion, my experience and my specialisation in Olympic Games issues.

Thus, the hypotheses and questions of my research are developed on a concrete basis of previously analysed elements.

The interpretation of the specific topic and my object of study is entirely subjective and organised autonomously to obtain the most tangible interpretation possible. This is also recognised as a limitation of any researcher analysing a subject.

However, it is specified that the phenomenon observed in my study could be analysed according to other assumptions that change about the other researchers and their training on the specific topic.

Taking into account the academic contribution and the directives of the International Olympic Committee, this research is necessary so that the issue of Olympic Villages and their territorial impact can be further analysed shortly. Furthermore, research is essential for nations to be aware of the risks and dangers associated with major events.

Furthermore, quantitative studies on the Olympic Games were mainly conducted shortly after the Games and therefore measured impacts rather than legacies or legacies that had not been fully realised. Given these limitations, the following research gaps can be identified:

- Lack of longitudinal studies: Studies are limited to a maximum of 5 years after the Olympic Games.
- Lack of indicators: Lack of indicators that can reflect and operationalise the structural changes and their outcomes
- Lack of methods to measure intangible legacies: Other studies focus on a single set of specific elements, which is often not representative of the overall context

The Olympic Games over the last 20 years have generated substantial attention on the impacts generated directly by the sporting event, but the academic output has not focused on the issue of long-term impact. Impacts may be difficult to measure, but the importance of Olympic investment and promotion by the International Olympic Committee implies attention to the long-term impact on cities.

So, finally, I would like to emphasise integrity and honesty in the planning, design, production and reading of the results.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction to the theoretical framework

One of the key elements of the research is the relationship between urban transformation and its future implications on the territory, promoted by Olympic urbanism. As it has not been fully analysed at an academic level and noting the lack of previous and comparative studies on the subject, it is proposed that, given the complexity of the subject, a theoretical framework has been formulated that pursues the following research objectives.

Firstly, the territorial impact of the Olympic Games will be analysed from a historical perspective through the contributions of Chalkey and Essex (1999,2010), which is of fundamental importance to deepening the evolution of the developments associated with the Olympic Games. However, this analysis is incomplete in the observation of the Olympic Villages and the territorial models of the works related to the Olympic event.

Therefore, the contribution of Muñoz (1995), on the classification and urbanistic analysis of the Olympic Villages developed for the summer games until 1996, will be used, to observe how the Olympic Villages can be defined as a specific urban instrument in the territory. Mega-events are defined as accelerators or catalysts of urban change and renewal (Essex and Chalkley, 1998, 2004).

Affirming the importance of Olympic urbanism as a catalyst for the development of candidate cities, the study will draw on multidisciplinary contributions to the Olympic Games by the following authors: Preuss, 2000; Hiller, 1990; Liao and Pittis, 2006; Kassen-Noor, 2013; Gold, 2016; Andranovich, 2001.

Furthermore, to complete the analysis of the Olympic Games and the transformation of the territory, the research will take into account the contributions to the territorial impact of mega-events by the following authors: Macintosh, 1992; Roche, 1992,2000; Gratton, 2005; Andreff, 2013; Getz, 1997.

The failure to take into account different types of cities, different forms of citizen participation and planning choices have limited and conditioned the effects on urban regeneration and new strategies for rebuilding the image of post-industrial cities (Hall, 1984; Sassen, 1991; Soja, 2000, Brenner, 2002; Graham, 2002; Swyngedouw, 2004).

The observation of the territorial impact of the Olympic Villages on the city, the introduction of new models of organisation and the financing of the Olympic event, are considered essential in the analysis of the processes of territorialization and deterritorialization linked to the territory and its transformation over time. To observe the phenomenon of territorialization processes, which originated in the geographical field, (Raffestin, 1984; Turco, 1984,1988,1993), was applied to the local project by Magnaghi (2000), and taken up in depth by (Dansero, Mela, 2006) for a new interpretation of the different territorial effects that can arise through the organisation of a mega-event.

The different spatial domains in the preparation phase of the event are affected by certain territorial processes, which can be observed from the consideration and interpretation of the different mechanisms of spatial production provided by Lefebvre (1969,1991) and Harvey (2002).

Therefore, the study will analyse winter and summer Olympic Villages in general, with special attention to the relationship between the Olympic Village and the urban fabric. The analysis will be developed based on a quantitative treatment of statistical data referring to a series of criteria or parameters useful for characterising each specific "Olympic Village" construction experience.

The theoretical framework will be completed with contributions on the themes of heritage, heritage management and sustainability of the Olympic Games. Starting from the contributions made by: (Kaspar 1998; Furrer, 2002; Cashman y Hughes, 1998; Bondonio, Guala, Mela, 2008; Crivello, Dansero, Mela, 2006; Dansero and Mela, 2012; Guala and Crivello, 2006; Leopkey, 2012), on the themes related to events, the following section will rely on the reports and standards of the International Olympic Committee. On the other hand, the analysis of the dependence between the Olympic event and the heritage, the research will be based on the contributions of Preuss (2010; 2019) who has opened a fundamental stage in the consideration of the impact and heritage linked to the Olympic Games. Thus, Preuss' contributions will allow us to analyse Olympic urbanism as a set of elements of a more intangible nature, associated with the idea of the urban legacy of the Games (Olympic legacy). In the next new stage of Olympic urbanism, elements of social and cultural identity are integrated, as well as tangible criteria of sustainability and resilience applied in the construction of the Olympic Village.

On the other hand, to analyse the issue of sustainability linked to the territory, the contributions of the United Nations (ONU) (1992; 2015) will be considered through its specific action programmes: Agenda 21, Agenda 2020 and Agenda 2030.

After having established these concepts on the Olympic Games and therefore on the territorial impact of the Olympic Villages, to analyse the impact over time, the study will examine the planning of the Olympic Village over time in all its phases of development.

This point is of fundamental importance to be able to investigate and deepen the evolution of the Olympic Village and its impact on the territory. From another perspective, highlighting the importance of the urban impact and territorial expansion of the city, it is appropriate to analyse the territory through the contribution of Dematteis (1994) on models of sustainable development in local communities. Furthermore, it will be appropriate to sustain and consider the hypothesis made by Hiller in 2014, stating that the urban impact of the Olympic Games is a largely forgotten aspect in the analysis of mega-events being defined only as a "parallel" or "collateral" link.

In the following stages, we will the Olympic urbanism and analyse its impact on the territory, considering its characteristic implications over time. Through the contributions of Kassen-Noor (2013) and Gold (2016), the link between the city and the Olympic Games will be explored in depth.

Subsequently, the research will analyse the Olympic Games according to their specific function as an urban catalyst provided by Muñoz (1996). Based on this concept of territorial link and, affirming the importance of Olympic urban planning in the candidate cities, other contributions are presented to the infrastructure system and the organisation of the event in Olympic cities.

In parallel, an analysis of the evolution of the economy of the Games proposed by Preuss (2000) will be provided to explain the different economic models of the Olympic Games.

The study will propose an innovative analysis of the economic heritage dimension of the Winter and Summer Olympic Villages during the 20th and 22nd centuries, taking into account the conditions of financing and monetary inflation existing at each historical moment.

Finally, the study will also take into account the contribution of Aldo Rossi (1966,1978) to the architectural structures of the city, allowing us to analyse the games through another perspective that cannot be omitted, the architecture of the city and its environment. The contributions of Milizia, 1804; Calvino, 1972; Le Corbusier, 1942,1965; Augè, 1995; Logan, 1987; Brunet, 1995; Graham, 2002; Bauman, 1998; will help us to analyse urban elements through their singularities and their definition in space.

Through this theoretical framework, the study will carry out a multidisciplinary and comparative analysis of Olympic urbanism, trying to research the neglected aspects from the global (urban) perspective of the Olympic Games. The link to be established between city and territory will be a fundamental step for the candidate cities and the chosen territory.

The research proposes an innovative analysis of Olympic urban planning in general and Olympic Villages in particular, which will both consolidate the field of study that Olympic urban planning represents and provide a useful document about the future construction of new Olympic Villages in the coming decades.

1. Principles of urban and spatial planning in the 20th and 21st century

Abstract

The following chapter allows us to introduce some key concepts on the evolution of urban and spatial planning in the 20th-21st century. By observing the different utopian proposals, we will analyse the evolution of modern urban planning legislation through the significant urban interventions of the largest industrial cities in Europe and the United States. Subsequently, based on the criteria of modern planning put forward by the CIAM in 1933, we will analyse the city through the different urban functions that have evolved. Then, the chapter will analyse the processes of industrialisation and urbanisation of our cities, that have constituted and continue to constitute the dimension, fragmentation and expansion of modern metropolises. Meanwhile, to analyse the project of the city, we will consider the contribution of Rossi (1978) based on the relationship between the architectural heritage of places and the territory as production of urban elements and, through the contributions of Lefebvre (1969), Harvey (1991) and Soja (2000), we will observe the evolution of a standardised socio-economic system strongly linked to the territory. Lastly, we will analyse the evolution and the crisis of contemporary metropolises by considering the new global cities in a context of expansion and reconsideration of territorial limits. Finally, the chapter will analyse the territory through the contribution of Turco (1984) to define a regional perspective in consideration of the places that constitute the region.

1.1. Philosophies and theories on the city and territory

1.1.1. Industrial cities

The change in population density and the increase in the mortality rate have been determining factors in the transformation of the internal composition of our cities. Likewise, the increase in the number of inhabitants and their distribution over the territory has evolved through economic transformations. These transformations have mainly affected the organisation of work. The creation of new production techniques was reflected in society through the organisation and concentration of the new economic system. In this way, the changes in the settlements, set in motion by the first transformations, will take on the characteristics of social crises, sharply altering the old balance between town and country (Benevolo, 1967). The acquisition of the common areas around the inner cities in pursuit of urban growth has gradually transformed the rural areas and the landscape. In 1745 new trade routes were developed and in 1767 Reynolds built the first cast-iron road. Subsequently, in 1801 the Surrey Iron Railway, the world's first freight railway company, came into service. It was in 1825, with the birth of the first Stephenson locomotive, that the territory began to be transformed by the new railway tracks¹. This set of transformations changed the homes and lifestyles of the majority of the English population, altering the use of the land and permanently modifying the landscape. If we take into account the speed of transformation and the doubling of the population in the cities, it is easy to understand how these years saw the first speculative initiatives for the creation of infrastructures and the installation of new production systems. The transformations that arose in these years had no historical precedent. Thus, the culture and economy of the time were affected by the collapse of traditional structures and the development of new institutions involved in the free expansion of new private initiatives. Consequently, the loss of traditional structures was the breeding ground for the foundation of the first utopian theories in Europe.

1.1.2. Utopias of the 19th century

Robert Owen

One of the first utopian contributions to territorial development was provided by Robert Owen in 1816 in England. Owen is considered to be one of the first socialists of the first industrial revolution in Europe². Furthermore, Owen, in his ideal city project, thought of sport, culture and the education of young people for the development of a new society using new resources that were previously the privilege of the bourgeoisie. Thus, educational and leisure activities were included in the industrial project. Owen was one of the first to sponsor a new method of enterprise, a method that allowed workers to earn intangible profits over time.

¹ The Liverpool and Manchester Railway (L&MR) was the world's first inter-city railway. It opened on 15 September 1830 between the cities of Lancashire, Liverpool and Manchester in England.

² Its philosophy allowed workers to work in better conditions and produce more.

Owen's utopian idea quickly became a utopian law for the working and poor class until in 1917 it became a universal remedy to solve the problem of social destitution³. Owen argued that citizens had to get gainful employment. He can therefore be defined as one of the founders of modern socialism. Thus, he argued that the creation of villages of between 500 and 1200 people permitted the inhabitants to continue their usual production while maintaining the same level of wages and adding some fundamental rights such as education.

Owen's plan was presented in 1820 and the whole document deals with a long socio-economic argumentation that starts from some premises that respect the human input and cultural capital of the workers. The two main points of Owen's economic programme were:

1. Adoption of human labour as the unit of measurement for trade.
2. Creation of a market within the production section itself.

By increasing remuneration, workers became consumers of the goods produced and not just an instrument of production.

Still, for Owen, the population needs arable land in the territory. The formation of an elementary nucleus between 300 and 1200 people imply the availability of one and a half acres per person⁴. Therefore, the residential nucleus in the first half of the 19th century had the shape of a parallelogram, grouped in a large square⁵. Owen, after the implementation of his model in the United States, realised the errors behind itself. This led to new forms of cooperation that were focused on economic ends, without pursuing the social and urban interests proposed by Owen.



Figure 1 Graphical representation of New Harmon's ideal city project in 1838 (Source: CC)

³ The advent of machines in society led to a sharp reduction in the labour force and the price of labour.

⁴ Thus, the population will need between 600 and 1800 acres specifically for cultivation.

⁵ The parallelogram can be defined as the first modern urban plan.

François Marie Charles Fourier

According to Fourier, in a class society, it is immoral to pursue individual or class interests for all groups of individuals living in the territory. Fourier conceived of the city as a single social group capable of reinforcing each other, limiting contrasts and constraints. Consequently, Fourier decomposes the city into three belts:

1. The central city.
2. Suburbs and factories.
3. Avenues and suburbs.

Each of the three areas adopts different dimensions for the organisation and construction of the fabric, none of which can be realised without the prior approval of a building committee. Fourier agrees with the importance of integrated planning of the three areas so that conflicts and ruptures of the territory do not manifest themselves. Furthermore, according to Fourier, the rooms should be arranged in open spaces and isolated from each other. The squares should occupy 1/8 of the total surface area of the city and the streets should be planted with vegetation to beautify the area. The definition of heights, widths and distances are predefined to limit urban planning problems and uncontrolled development. However, Fourier's contributions anticipate the writings and theories of the early 20th century, when it began to be understood that people could no longer live in obsolete houses⁶.

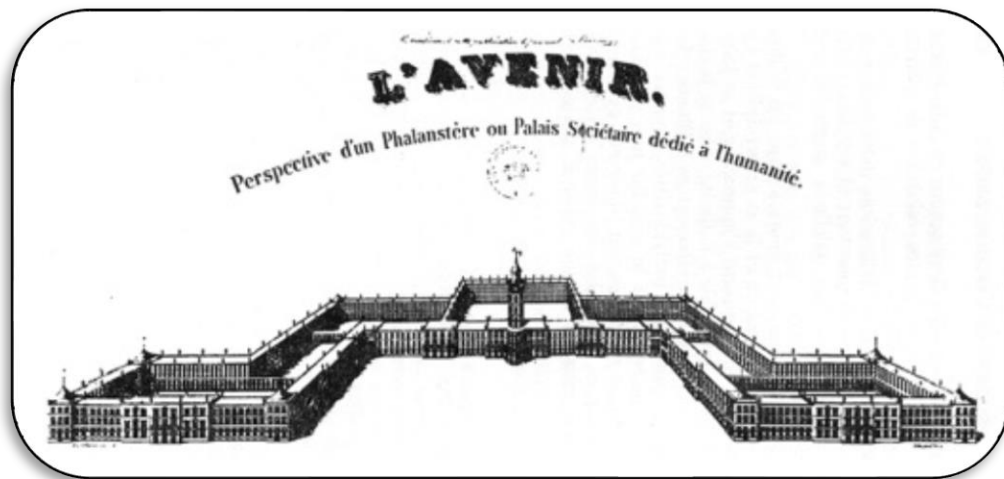


Figure 2 Perspective view of Charles Fourier's Phalanstère (Source: CC)

⁶ Fourier formed the idea of the phalanstery which was mainly carried out in America.

The familisterium of Jean-Baptiste André Godin

Godin's (1859-1876) idea is based on Fourier's philosophy but a smaller scale. His theory was developed using Fourier's principles of cooperation, identifying profits using four factors:

- Workers' compensation.
- Interest in the capital.
- Inventors' rights.
- Social security fund.

However, his model was the most successful experiment of the time and is also considered the forerunner of Le Corbusier's *Unité de Habitation*. On the other hand, Engels criticised the anti-urban characteristics of the model provided by Fourier and applied by Godin. Utopian theories placed the housing blocks outside the city, as completely autonomous systems without any relation to the existing ones. However, Fourier's model left no room for the growth of these settlements because the only form of development was the reproduction of another elementary organism.



Figure 3 The central pavilion of the social palace of the Guise (Aisne) (Source: CC)

The egalitarian tradition

Marx and Engels, starting from an analysis of economic relations, implicitly accept that urban changes are a necessary consequence induced by changing social relations. Economic relations have conditioned urban thinking and the different forms of settlement of future society. However, the utopian impulse has allowed the foundation of a solid base for the development of new urban philosophies up to the formation of modern urbanism. The research and theories of the socialist reformers will be used by Howard in his garden city (1898) and by German planners for the definition of the satellite neighbourhood (1902). For this reason, Marx and Engels, starting from a direct analysis of economic

relations, implicitly accept this identity by inverting the two terms, and assuming that urban changes are a necessary consequence of changing social relations: hence the indifference to the urban question, and the vagueness of the predictions about the forms of settlement in future society. The impulse of the utopians will allow the formation of a solid basis for the new philosophies of modern urbanism.

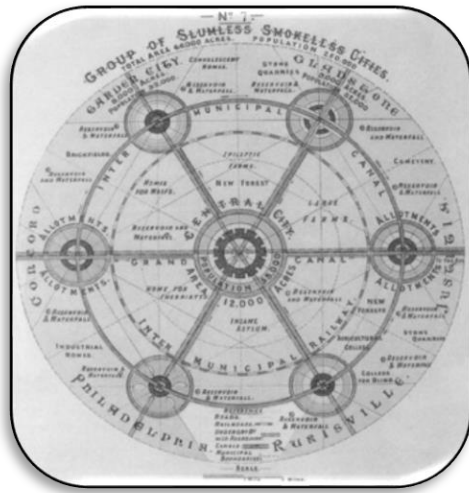


Figure 4 Map of Howard's garden city (Source: CC)

1.1.3. The beginnings of modern town planning legislation

In the second half of the 19th century, governments began to introduce solutions to the problems of the industrial city, advancing public utility functions that seemed fundamental to the development of modern society:

- Rationalisation of the road network.
- Renovation of old neighbourhoods.
- Construction of more hygienic and habitable housing areas.

However, during the years of the industrial revolution, most of the infrastructures were built by private initiative, as the States were in a critical situation for the development of the territory. Subsequently, the expansion of the railways caused many economic problems for the private sector, favouring the emergence of the public railway service. However, the expansion of railway traffic caused different urban development problems, mainly focused on the expropriation of land. Thus, between 1842 and 1845, England and France established special laws for expropriation⁷. Successively, the evolution of various pandemics became the direct precedent for modern urban planning legislation, expanding the notion of expropriation to all public works in the city. The first Sanitary Act of 1848 was advanced by the United Kingdom for the City of London and its environs, defining the

⁷ In France, the Napoleonic law of 1810 and the Orleanist law of 1833 were integrated into the expropriation law of 1841, which served as a model for other countries.

minimum requirements for dwellings⁸. Both countries are considered to be the main forerunners of urban planning legislation in the world. Thanks to the following laws, London and Paris were able to establish a new redefinition of the city through rules, standards and boundaries.

1848 and its impact on urbanisation

The revolution of 1848 is identified as a turning point in the cultural history and political experience of the 19th century. However, 1848 can be defined as the turning point in the history of modern urbanism. From this historical moment, the theories of Marx and Engel began to take shape in European society and politics. Urban planning experiences in these years were enhanced by new technical elements, which would encourage the development of large-scale urban interventions:

- The transformation of Greater London⁹ (1848-1865).
- Hausmann¹⁰ in Paris (1853-1869).
- The arrangement of the Ring in Vienna (1857).
- The enlargement of Barcelona with Cerdà¹¹ (1859).
- Anspach in Brussels (1867-1871).
- The enlargement of Florence¹² (1864-1877).
- The construction of the first metropolitan railway network in London¹³ (1863).

The idea of a unitary plan for a city implies the presence of an ideal model, different and opposed to reality. The fundamental change in planning consists in the acceptance of geometrical and technical aspects, leaving aside political and economic aspects. In this way, the contributions of socialist theorists become a means for the new development of our territories. Engels considered the future urban appearance of our cities as a simple consequence of the economic revolution. For this reason, between the acceptance and the struggle of the workers' movements, cities will be transformed by absorbing the questions

⁸ The Public Health Act 1848, which legislated for sanitary conditions in England and Wales, is one of the great landmarks in the history of public health, "the beginning of a commitment to proactive, rather than reactive, public health".

⁹ The Greater London Plan of 1844 represents the cornerstone of British planning. The five principles on which it is based are related to the ideas expressed in the Barlow Report for the general planning of the United Kingdom and that of the City of London. The first recommends that no new industry should be submerged in London and its home county. The second is in line with the programme of decentralisation of population and industry outlined in the London County Plan. The third is implicitly conditional on the first two and reiterates the criteria for urban decongestion. The fourth principle states the need for the Port of London to remain one of the largest in the world. The fifth principle states that planning powers for Greater London should include powers to control land values. The idea was to divide the Greater London area into four zones.

¹⁰ As Walter Benjamin pointed out, Hausmann's physical restructuring of central Paris had many facets, but the main result was the complete functional and social appropriation of the central areas of Paris.

¹¹ Cerdà's project revolved around an essential element, the "block" as the central scheme of the project and the life of the citizens. Thus, housing and the type of services in the area took on new importance in the city's economy. Meanwhile, the streets consisted of the public spaces reserved for mobility, to which were attached the services and connections necessary for the intermediate streets, the seat of the private life of the citizens. Cerdà conceived the "block" module by considering the determining factors that could guarantee a modest-quality of life: light, ventilation, sunshine and joie de vivre. Cerdà managed to rebalance the urban space through the central streets, reserving them for pedestrian traffic only, and integrating the public parks into the project.

¹² With the transfer of the capital to Florence for the first time, the issue of the urban development of an Italian city after the first phase of the realisation of national unity. Therefore, on 22 November 1864, the gonfalonier Giulio Carobbi invited Giuseppe Poggi to draw up the draft master plan to extend the city outside the circuit of the boulevards.

¹³ The London Underground system happens to be the world's oldest underground rail project.

of housing and the social question using new tools which will allow the definition of the project of the city.

1.2. The city project

Early approaches to industrialisation and urbanisation

The functionalist analysis of urban functions shows its inability to apply to the totality of human needs in cities. Human is a too complex element to be analysed by 4 simplistic functions, which leave out desire, play, symbolism, imagination and other needs that characterise the discovery of places through human capital (Lefebvre, 1969). The author Jane Jacobs, in her book "*The Death and Life of Great American Cities*" (Jacobs, 1961), sets out a new research method for the analysis of cities and citizens' habits:

1. Always think in terms of structures in motion, in terms of ongoing and dynamic processes.

2. Work actively, reasoning from the particular to the general, and not the other way around.

3. Look for unique signs or signals.

Neighbourhoods¹⁴ are therefore starting to transform into multifunctional and more complex models.

Since the post-war period, the city has come to be seen as the projection of the demands of global society into a limited space¹⁵. Furthermore, the communities that make up the city must be recognised within the values of modern society. It is only through the recognition of communities in the city that the different development perspectives of contemporary cities can be analysed.

1.2.1. Industrialisation and urbanisation: early models of development

The process of industrialisation¹⁶ is considered the starting point of the evolution and development of our contemporary cities. Therefore, the driving force behind the transformation of our cities in the process of industrialisation. However, the process of

¹⁴ The concept of neighbourhoods and neighbourhood units is a concept that only started to develop after the Second World War.

¹⁵ However, it is easier to build cities than urban life.

¹⁶ The process of industrialisation characterises the modern city (Lefebvre, 1969).

industrialisation has led to a rethinking of growth, planning and issues concerning the city and community development¹⁷.

With industrialisation and the rise of the bourgeoisie, the city changed its reality and its scale of intervention in the development of the territory. Society constituted itself as a network of cities, encouraging the constitution of territorial capitals. At this historical moment, cities retained their character about the community living in their specific context. The infant industry tended to develop outside the city to take advantage of space and expand the size of the cities. Textile, mining and metallurgical activities, on the other hand, are located close to energy sources, means of transport, raw materials and labour reserves. Thus, over time, the industry was transferred closer and closer to the urban centre until it became its main element at the end of the 19th century. From the second half of the 19th century, our cities were faced with a double process: industrialisation and urbanisation.

Both processes will be fostered by growth, development, economic production and social life. From this historical moment, monuments and places begin to transform into symbols that will represent a place of production and consumption over time¹⁸. Moreover, during the era of industrialisation, the relationship between urbanity and rurality intensifies, reducing the areas dedicated to agriculture and proposing new urbanisation proposals, encouraged by the large industrial economies.

Therefore, we can affirm that the urban core¹⁹ is founded on two new functions: a place of consumption and consumption of place (Lefebvre, 1969). After the Second World War, new neighbourhoods and new self-sufficient cities will start to be built and proposed to focus on the consumption of places. Therefore, since the Second World War, urban growth has been governed by land speculation and by the inability of governments to respond to citizens' demands through utopian proposals.

In Lefebvre's (1969) contribution to the right to the city, he advances a reflection on urbanisation through 3 periods:

1. The first period → Industry and the process of industrialisation assault and overwhelm the pre-existing urban reality, to the point of destroying it through practice and ideology and extirpating it from reality. Industrialisation, carried out according to a class strategy, behaves as a negative power of the urban reality: the industrial economy negates the social and urban.
2. The second period → Urbanisation spreads. Urban society becomes generalised. The urban reality becomes recognised in its destruction and, through this very destruction, as a socio-economic reality. It is discovered that society as a whole risks decomposing if the city and centrality are missing; an essential device for the

¹⁷ Ancient cities were mainly political or commercial cities.

¹⁸ Modern cities have nothing in common with the ancient city.

¹⁹ The city centre is transformed into a product for foreigners and tourists.

planned urbanisation of production and consumption has disappeared.

3. The third period → The urban reality is rediscovered or reinvented. An attempt is made to restore centrality. The old centralities, the decomposition of the centres, are now replaced by the decision-making centre.

In this way, urban reflection and planning are born or reconfigured as the successors of urbanisation without reflection. The purpose of urban thinking is to propose new strategies to justify an ideology that can respond to the demands of the communities that make up cities (Borja, 2000). Thus, through different development models and trends, a global strategy induced by consumption is emerging. Urbanism thus becomes an interdisciplinary element in the study and development of our modern cities.

1.2.2. The philosophy of modern cities

To be able to observe the problems of our cities, the following aspects are advanced, which should be considered before advancing new urban planning:

1. Cities are linked to global development processes.
2. Each city has a partial knowledge that constitutes the elements and structure of the city itself.

Urbanism, considered an ideology, formulates new problems for society, trying to reduce questions of space through history and awareness of places²⁰.

Global processes have shaped urban space and continue to shape the city. However, the city is transformed not only by global processes but also by profound changes in the mode of production, territorial relations and class and property relations.

Today, the modern city, by becoming a decision-making centre, or, better still, by grouping decision-making centres, intensifies and organises the exploitation of society as a whole (Lefebvre, 1969). Thus, the city is not a passive place of capital production, but the urban intervenes in contemporary production as a means of production.

1.2.3. Analysis of the city

The considerations in the preceding sections show that to analyse urban phenomena we need to use all the methodological instruments: form, function, structure; levels, dimensions, text, context, field and set, writing and reading, system, signifier and meaning, language and metalanguage, institutions, etc.

The theoretical study of the city and urban facts defines form as the field of encounters of changes. While function distinguishes the internal functions of the city and its social ensemble. On the other hand, the structure of the city defines the urban and social structure

²⁰ Le Corbusier defines the relationship between man and city through the four functions that we will observe in section 3 of the following chapter.

of the city. Moreover, as we have observed above, the city is linked to the processes of global development. Inversely, the city is a fragment of the social whole; it translates because it contains and incorporates institutions and ideologies in the sensitive matter. The city manifests itself as a grouping of wholes, with its double morphology (practical-sensible or material on the one hand, social on the other) (Lefebvre, 1969).

To analyse the city there are two possible approaches, the first one goes from the most general to the most singular (from the institution to everyday life), and the second one highlights the elements and particularities of what we observe at the urban level. The following way of proceeding aims to analyse observables such as the private sphere, everyday life and its Spatial-temporal organisation²¹. However, the city must be seen as a system of meanings and values. The theory of the city tends towards an ideology, separating the urban from social practice, reducing it to a signifier-signified relationship (Lefebvre, 1969).

Thus, we can affirm that the city has a symbolic dimension and a paradigmatic dimension of its own. The paradigmatic dimension implies and shows the different relationships and integrations that can be observed in urban society. Meanwhile, the symbolic dimension implies different figurations, images and historical moments that can be embedded in the structure of urban society.

The city's critical point

The urban society announces itself long after society as a whole has been inclined to the side of the urban (of the urban denomination) (Lefebvre, 1969). Thus, the city during the epoch of industrialisation will find itself in a period of prolific expansion, producing and creating new peripheries and new urban spaces in the territory.

The double process (industrialisation-urbanisation) produces the double movement: explosion-implosion, condensation-dispersion (Lefebvre, 1969). According to Lefebvre (1969), the current problem of the city and urban reality is situated around a critical point.

Political City→ Commercial City→ Industrial City→ Critical Point

Rational production planning, spatial planning, industrialisation and global urbanisation are essential aspects of the definition of socialisation in society. The socialisation of cities insists on changes following economic processes, leaving aside the importance of the use-value and exchange value of the land. The causes and ideological reasons for the crises, however, depend on the different political regimes, the different histories, and the different socio-economic reasons specific to each territory. Modern society as it has developed remains preoccupied with the homologation of economies without concern for new ideas and solutions to the urban problems affecting our cities (Koolhaas, 1995).

²¹ Each level of observation is defined through isotopies: political, religious, cultural, commercial space, etc. (Lefebvre, 1969).

The urban crisis followed the crisis of municipal institutions, due to the double pressure of the state and industrial enterprise (Lefebvre, 1969). In this way, the urban is based on the value of land use. Thus, the urban is transformed into a commodity.

1.2.4. The right to the city

Theoretical reflection on the city is restricted to the redefinition of forms, functions and structures. On the other hand, social needs have a specific anthropological basis in a specific time and socio-cultural context²². Human beings need to see, to touch, to taste and need to bring these perceptions together in a world (Lefebvre, 1969).

In addition to these anthropological needs, there are specific needs such as the need for creation, information, symbolism, imagination and leisure activities. Urban needs will consist of the organisation of the needs for qualified places, meeting places and specific places for trade and profit²³.

"SINCE NIETZSCHE, THE DANGERS OF THE SUPERMAN HAVE APPEARED IN CRUEL EVIDENCE. FROM SOCIAL ANIMAL TO URBAN ANIMAL" (LEFEBVRE, 1969).

However, countries that have developed through the industrial revolution have found their society across industrial development. Therefore, the evolution of places has been experienced by utopian models (Paris, Brasilia) or transfusion models (through intellectual operations). The humble inhabitant will begin to construct a subsystem made up of other values that entail the rethinking of the fact of inhabiting a new place. The meaning system of the inhabitant proposes its priorities, modifying the practice and perception of activities in the places. However, the planning of the territory through the construction and implementation of new functions and new forms was not designed to respond to the demands of housing and of the citizens who live in the place. On the one hand, urbanistic reflection proposes the establishment or reconstruction of social units through new centralities and territorial planning through malleable and hierarchical practices. On the other hand, sociological reflection focuses its urban practices on the knowledge and reconstruction of the integration capacities of the urban grid, about the people who participate in the practice of activities. At this stage, only groups, classes or fractions of social classes are capable of proposing revolutionary initiatives capable of providing solutions to urban problems. The renewed city will be the result of the work of the social and political forces of the time. The urban strategy-based city science needs social support and political forces to operate (Lefebvre, 1969).

²² Social relations in the age of industrialisation have evolved through solutions given by architects, town planners, and sociologists who do not have the powers of a miracle worker.

²³ Thus, the historic city is transformed into an object of cultural consumption for tourists and for the spectacularisation of society.

Lefebvre (1969) proposes the analysis of the city through two propositions:

- a) *A political programme of urban reform* → Singular and paradoxical character.
- b) *Urban projects* → Models for the shape of urban space and times.

The following propositions advanced by Lefebvre (1969) are constituted through short, medium and long-term programmes, founding the urban strategy of cities.

Therefore, the right to the city is put forward as a demand and as a solution for the realisation of urban society. Moreover, it can only be formulated as a right to urban life, transformed, and renewed (Lefebvre, 1969).

1.2.5. New perspectives for cities

As we have observed above, urban space has become a centrality that includes the centre of decision-making and the centre of consumption. It is interesting to observe the utopian conception of cities through Calvino's (1972) contribution to invisible cities.

Italo Calvino (1972) states that cities can be divided into two genres:

1. Cities that continue through the years and mutations shape their desires.
2. Cities that wish to erase the past or are erased by their past.

Utopia is linked to multiple realities, known, distant, unknown, etc...

The city is no longer linked to real life and everyday requirements. The ability to synthesise functions belongs to a political design of administrative forces that become social forces for the development of our cities.

To perceive the perspectives of cities, industrialisation and urbanisation must be seen as separate elements, where both pursue the concept of harmonious and balanced economic growth. Both structures must be supported and conceived through development concepts that allow for the reduction of potential conflicts. "*In other words, it is a question of guiding growth*" (Lefebvre, 1969). The end of industrialisation has brought about and enabled a change in the conception of society and social practices.

The conception of *welfare* and community leisure practices or spaces implies and obliges public administrations to provide a clearer strategy. Thus, one of the biggest problems in our cities is to rationalise the separation between daily life and leisure. Each urban typology analysed so far has proposed to realise a specific centrality, for example:

- Asian cities: Prince's palace, military triumphs and religion.
- Greek cities: Agora.
- Roman cities: Forum.
- Medieval town: Market square.

- Capitalist city: Consumption.

In this way, the industrial city has not established its centrality, except for a few examples of working-class cities (Ivrea, Olivetti). The playful centrality over time has coexisted and continues to coexist with different spaces: political, cultural, social, etc... Therefore, Lefebvre (1969) suggests that the right to the city manifests itself as a higher form of rights: the right to freedom, to individualisation in socialisation, to habitat and to inhabit.

Questions on the city, the urban and urbanism

Over time, two main elements have become problems for the development of the city and urban society: the question of housing and comprehensive planning.

Both of these issues have led to a stagnation whose ripple effect has a direct impact on the morphology of modern cities, conditioning the future development of these cities. The problem of housing and planning conditioned by the economic growth of industrial cities shows that no attention was paid to the social growth of the community. The double process²⁴ of industrialisation and urbanisation not being linked to the improvement of social conditions can be proclaimed as a defeat in our evolution as a society.

In this way, citizen participation and local organisations are essential for the overall planning to be shared by the whole community, without jeopardising the urbanisation of our future cities. The creation of an urban society implies the implementation of those social needs that the community has in each specific context. The working-class city still suffers from the old inherited morphologies and is a victim of segregation in the social urban processes. In these difficult conditions for the consumer society, new rights appear that define the conception of future civilisation in our cities. The social practice of our cities should include new fundamental rights such as work, education, health, housing, leisure and life. Among these rights is the right to the city (Lefebvre, 1969). The transformation of modern cities has led to a shift of the working class from the centre to the periphery. Only through housing planning and the conception of the right to the city, will we be able to invest in our future projects to build a more inclusive and sustainable society. Lefebvre (1969) calls for a cultural revolution seeking to reform and redefine our cities through an economic, political, social, cultural, etc. revolution (Harvey, 2012).

As Marx wrote, humanity only poses itself with the problems it can solve (Lefebvre, 1969).

²⁴ Industrialisation has produced and continues to produce urbanisation.



Figure 5 Contrast between industrial progress and urbanity (Source: CC)

1.3. Urban renewal

1.3.1. Stages of urban development in the capitalist city

To identify the urban planning project of the 21st century, it is necessary to first analyse the key points that allow us to understand more easily the phenomena that manifested themselves after the Second World War:

- I. In all the countries of the European Union, urban development seemed to be associated with economic development, according to the criteria observed during the industrial revolution, in favour of the capitalist system that was taking hold in the Western world.
- II. Many temporal events help us to affirm this urban growth. The territorial planning of cities became inevitable when economic growth was imposed. After the Second World War, the States, finding themselves in a need to reorganise their services, began to change the way they managed their services and public spaces. At the end of the 1980s, the major industrial cities found themselves at a historical moment where the reconversion of industrial functions and spaces became a long and complex process.
- III. The early stages of the industrial revolution and the capitalist system can be attributed to the emergence of services, as most of the work was done in rural areas.
- IV. Analysing the historical phases of each country, it can be seen that the urban development of cities was linked to the economic development of each individual and, above all, was conditioned by part of the migration of the population.
- V. In the urbanistic history of all cities, there are new, old, remodelled and disused buildings. Therefore, each state has its skeleton that must be adapted to the individuals who participate in the daily life of the city. The reconversion of urban spaces is a way of providing citizens with a new space aimed at increasing their quality of life and that of their fellow citizens.

- VI. The local government must preserve its territory and its city; on the other hand, the State, regional and local government bodies must adopt a plan in agreement with the city to decree a similar development that can be preserved over time. Of course, public works must always be coordinated with other cities and neighbouring local administrations to follow a single planning line²⁵.

Therefore, the latter phenomenon allows us to see spatial planning as a common element in the reconstruction and reorganisation of cities in the 21st century. It does not seem possible for urbanisation to follow old models and, above all, outdated planning ideas for the conception of the city as a metropolis and as a socio-economic centre.

1.3.2. Urban crisis

The capitalist system, fostered by the industrial revolution, caused problems that still have repercussions in today's society, where a worker cannot live with dignity in cities that do not protect the primary forces of labour²⁶.

The workers who mainly make up the tertiary sector, the domestic production sector, and the labour sector, have never had so many benefits and therefore never had this possibility to evolve as individuals within the socio-economic metropolis. The European ruling class is fully aware of this. In the past, it was thought that by providing new buildings and public works, the development of individuals would improve and productivity would also increase.

All over the world, states are trying to renew the urban fabric of cities by reusing spaces, reconverting buildings, and reclaiming industrial areas and ports. This renewal will lead to the construction of new neighbourhoods of popular buildings and the possibility of developing new neighbourhoods in a renewed spatial context. Barcelona is one of the most recent examples of post-industrial city reconstruction and reconfiguration. Milan, Glasgow, Manchester, Turin, Lyon, London, Dusseldorf, and Frankfurt are some of the major European cities that have reconverted their spaces after the industrial crisis. Some of these cities have used mega-events such as the Olympic Games and World Expos to catalyse physical transformations through the reconstruction of a new city image to the world. For example, the Barcelona Olympic project foresaw the development of essential infrastructures such as sewage networks, sewers, subways, trams, roads, highways, technology and telecommunications (Brunet, 1995).

1.3.3. Le Corbusier, Principle of Urbanism

To analyse the city from an urban and structural point of view, the advice of Le Corbusier and CIAM on modern urbanism will be analysed.

²⁵ I. Insolera, "La città e la crisi del capitalismo", *Tempi Nuovi* Laterza, 1978, pp.5-95.

²⁶ Wages. If this problem is not solved, there is a decrease in the labour force and, constantly, an increase in the cost of labour (I. Insolera, 1978).

The Congress of Modern Town Planners (CIAM) had drawn up the Athens Charter in 1933, which contained the following town planning principles.

City and region.

- I. The city²⁷ is only one part of the economic, social and political complex that makes up the region.
- II. Related to economic, social and political development are the psychological and physiological values that the human person brings into the structural debate. Life is made up of the two contradictory principles of the human personality²⁸: the individual and the group.
- III. Psychology and biology constantly influence the environment: geographical and topographical situation, political situation and economic situation. First of all, the geographical and topographical situation of the city introduces the importance of the elements, water and land, nature, soil and climate.
- IV. Secondly, the economic situation²⁹. The elaboration of a regional investment plan, contracting naturally or artificially with private subjects.
- V. The political situation; the administrative system³⁰.
- VI. Many particular circumstances have determined the characteristics of the city in its urban history: military defence, scientific discoveries, successive administrations, the progressive development and communication of means of transport³¹.
- VII. The reasons that characterise the development of the city are identified by the continuous changes³².
- VIII. Marxism has provoked many doubts about human behaviour, the distribution of land and its activities; continuous movement of citizens' concentration within cities to protect the mechanical speed³³; brute and universal evolution without considering the history of the city. Chaos has entered into the cities and urbanism.

Housing

- I. The interior of the historic city centre, shaped by the industrial expansion of the 19th century, became overcrowded.
- II. Within the congested urban sector, housing conditions are ridiculous considering the lack of space for housing units, the lack of available green spaces and finally the lack of citizens to take care of the building. All this has increased

²⁷ "The administrative unit of the city rarely coincides with the geographical unit of the region" Le Corbusier, Principles of Urbanism, 1971, p. 21.

²⁸ "The incorporation of the individual into a group allows his spontaneity and he automatically becomes a constituent element of a society, subtending it directly or indirectly" Le Corbusier, Principles of Urbanism, 1971, p. 24.

²⁹ "The economic situation, wealth and poverty, are the two most important factors in life that determine the flow of people towards progress or regression". Le Corbusier, Principles of Urbanism, 1971, p. 26.

³⁰ "This phenomenon is the most variable of all, since the future of the city is in the hands of the municipal administration" Le Corbusier, Principles of Urbanism, 1971, p. 28.

³¹ "The history of the city is written on the footprints and architecture of the city", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism, 1971, p.30.

³² "The growth or regression of the population, the prosperity or decay of the city, the new technologies, the new means of communication; these are the facts that determine substantial changes", Le Corbusier, Principles of Urbanism, 1971, p. 31.

³³ "The use of machines has transformed working conditions and the workers themselves", Le Corbusier, Principles of Urbanism, 1971, p. 33.

disproportionately due to the low economic level of the citizens, so their quality of life has also decreased.

- III. The urban growth of the city will tend to absorb all citizens, developing a new typology of agglomeration formed from green spaces and peripheries³⁴.
- IV. Buildings for housing are divided by the surface of the city, in contradiction with the hygienic needs of the citizens³⁵.
- V. Less populated neighbourhoods will move to less favourable areas.
- VI. The development of airy housing, especially within nature, will preserve the city and allow for the conservation of the landscape.
- VII. This partial distribution of dwellings by use and municipal regulations is considered: zoning³⁶.
- VIII. Buildings close to major roads and near major intersections are affected by noise, noxious gases and dust residues.
- IX. The traditional alignment of roadside buildings ensures sun exposure on only one side of the residence.
- X. The destruction of popular housing derives from the construction of arbitrary housing³⁷.
- XI. Schools are often located on traffic routes and aligned with residential structures³⁸.
- XII. The suburbs³⁹ are organised without a plan and linked to the normality of the city.
- XIII. In the past, the possibility of incorporating the suburbs into the administrative area was discussed⁴⁰.
- XIV. Too often, the suburbs are nothing more than a mass of shantytown agglomerations⁴¹ where normal viability seems elusive.

Needs

- I. Residential neighbourhoods should occupy the best positions in the urban space, taking advantage of the city's topography, considering climate and having adequate green spaces⁴².
- II. The determination of residential areas should be organised on hygienic grounds.
- III. Rational density should be encouraged according to the form of the proposed dwellings and, above all, preserving the land.
- IV. A minimum number of hours of sun exposure should be set for the entire dwelling.
- V. The construction of buildings along roads should be forbidden.

³⁴ "The growth of the city is inversely proportional to the respect of natural conditions and therefore to the provision of green spaces", Le Corbusier, *Principles of Urbanism*, 1971, p. 40.

³⁵ "The first objective of urban planning must be to adapt to the fundamental needs of humanity. The health of each individual depends, to a large extent, on his ability to submit to <<natural conditions>>", Le Corbusier, *Principles of Urbanism*, 1971, p. 42.

³⁶ "Zoning is the operation carried out on an urban plan in order to assign to each function and to each individual a suitable place to live", Le Corbusier, *Principles of Urbanism*, 1971, p. 45.

³⁷ This phenomenon has been observed in Los Angeles since the second half of the 1950s.

³⁸ "Schools, by limiting their judgement to design and architectural arrangements, are generally poorly placed in the urban plan", Le Corbusier, *Principles of Urbanism*", 1971, p. 50.

³⁹ "Suburbs derive from the evolution of suburbs", Le Corbusier, *Principles of Urbanism*", 1971, p. 51.

⁴⁰ "Too late. The suburbs were incorporated too late into the administrative framework of the city", Le Corbusier, *Principles of Urbanism*", 1971, p. 52.

⁴¹ "Decadence and sadness are the shame of the city and its territory", Le Corbusier, *Principles of Urbanism*, 1971, p. 54.

⁴² "Cities, as we see them today, are built in such a way as to guarantee private and individual ownership. It is a pity that they have been built in the opposite way", Le Corbusier, *Principles of Urbanism*", 1971, p. 55.

- VI. The investment plan has to be taken into account to use modern construction techniques.
- VII. Tall buildings, located at a great distance from each other, should clear the land to make room for large green areas.

Space allocation

- I. Free surfaces⁴³ are often insufficient.
- II. When free surfaces are large enough, they are often poorly distributed⁴⁴ and therefore not very useful for citizens.
- III. The peripheral development of open areas is not associated with the congested urban area improvement project⁴⁵.
- IV. Most sports facilities, in general, are distributed on land earmarked for the construction of new neighbourhoods or industrial districts. Precariousness and disorder are incessant⁴⁶.
- V. Land that can be used for weekly leisure activities is often disconnected from the city⁴⁷.

Needs

- I. The whole neighbourhood should have the necessary green space for a reasonable arrangement of playgrounds and spaces for children, adolescents and adults.
- II. Pedestrian islands should be transformed into green zones: green zones will make the neighbourhood more harmonious.
- III. The new green area should be allocated and clearly defined: it should contain playgrounds, schools, and youth sports centres, linked to the neighbourhood.
- IV. The weekly free hours should be used in a privileged place equipped: park, forest, sports area, stadiums, beaches, etc...
- V. Existing natural resources must be analysed beforehand: rivers, forests, hills, mountains, valleys, lakes, and seas.

Work

- I. The workplace⁴⁸ is often not distributed fairly and reasonably. The urban whole should be divided into the industry, crafts, shops, administration and commerce.
- II. The link between home and workplace should be left as a matter of course, without imposing a great distance⁴⁹.

⁴³ "Within every city there are free spaces", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 65.

⁴⁴ "When modern cities find themselves with fairly large empty areas, these areas are integrated into the suburbs or the centre of a particularly luxurious residential area".

⁴⁵ "Urban planning is called upon to confer the necessary norms that guarantee citizens the maximum living conditions that safeguard not only their physical, but also their moral and psychological health. Preserving the joie de vivre", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 67.

⁴⁶ "Sports facilities must be regulated to give free access to citizens. The administration must guarantee a weekly timetable and tariffs by national jurisprudence", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 69.

⁴⁷ "Once the land has been identified, all that remains is to convert it into useful centres for weekly leisure", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 70.

⁴⁸ "Home and work used to be bound together by close and permanent ties, if at all. The inexperienced expansion of machines has destroyed this condition of harmony".

⁴⁹ "The normal relations between the essential functions of life are living and working", Le Corbusier, Principles of Urbanism, 1971, p. 80.

- III. During rush hour, transport is in a critical state⁵⁰.
- IV. Uncontrolled development of cities and citizens, lack of a development plan, real estate speculation and unregulated industrial development⁵¹.
- V. All the city's shops are concentrated in the commercial area. This type of installation in prime locations in the city, giving full circulation to the area, will inevitably lead to real estate speculation⁵².

Needs

- I. The distance between the workplace and the home should be kept to a minimum.
- II. Industrial zones should be separate from residential zones; both should be separated by green zones.
- III. The industrial zone should be planned close to the canal, the railway and the motorway, to allow for trade.
- IV. Crafts, which are closely linked to urban life, must be able to have their premises in the city.
- V. The centre of commercial activity, whether dedicated to private or public administration, must be perfectly connected to all neighbouring districts and simultaneously to industry and crafts.

Circulation

- I. Today's urban street network is a branched complex developed around the major thoroughfares⁵³.
- II. The great roads were designed for the transport of pedestrians and carriages; today this structure does not fulfil the needs of modern means of transport⁵⁴.
- III. The dimensions of the roads are inadequate for the future, they oppose the use of new mechanical technology and the regular expansion of the city⁵⁵.
- IV. The distances between road junctions are too small for today's needs.
- V. Road width is insufficient. Road conversion is a costly and inefficient operation⁵⁶.
- VI. In the face of mechanical speed, the urban network seems to be built irrationally, lacking certainty, flexibility, diversity, and adequacy⁵⁷.
- VII. Shrine routes, with a representative purpose, could or may be an obstacle to traffic.
- VIII. In many cases, the rail network has been transformed with the extension of the city and has become a serious problem for the city.

⁵⁰ "Public transport, trains, subways, buses, only really run for a quarter of the day", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 81.

⁵¹ "The land of the city and the surrounding region belongs almost entirely to private individuals", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 82.

⁵² Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 83, "Industrial expansion translates into an increase in commercial activities, administration and private trade".

⁵³ "Some military or colonised cities have benefited from an orderly urban plan since their birth", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 89.

⁵⁴ "Ancient cities are surrounded by walls for security reasons", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 90.

⁵⁵ "The main problem is the impossibility of reconciling the natural speed of pedestrians and horses with the mechanical speed of cars, trains, trams, lorries and buses", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 92.

⁵⁶ "There is no standard height to standardise all streets", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 93.

⁵⁷ "Modern circulation is very complex", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 94.

Needs

- I. Based on rigorous statistics, useful analyses of all traffic in the city and its region should be carried out, revealing the causes of traffic and thus identifying traffic problems.
- II. Roads should be classified according to their nature and developed according to the vehicles and their speed.
- III. Intersections for heavy traffic are organised according to the form of continuous traffic using a change of level.
- IV. Pedestrians must be able to follow a path separated from cars and therefore from city traffic.
- V. Roads should be differentiated according to their use: residential streets, walking streets, transit roads and main arterial roads.
- VI. Green spaces should be channels to encourage circulation.

Historical heritage

- I. Architectural values must be safeguarded⁵⁸.
- II. Witnesses of the past must be safeguarded, whether they are expressions of a culture or in the general interest⁵⁹.
- III. Conservation does not imply the sacrifice of people⁶⁰.
- IV. It is possible to remedy the prejudice of their presence with radical measures: for example, the division of the vital elements of circulation, including the displacement of the centre hitherto considered immutable⁶¹.
- V. The destruction of slums and the surroundings of historical monuments will allow the creation of green areas⁶².
- VI. The use of the styles of the past, with an aesthetic pretext in the new construction (Le Corbusier, 1971).

In conclusion, it can be observed that over time, the demands of cities and citizens have changed and continue to change about their space. Therefore, the contribution of CIAM is considered the first contribution to urban planning through rational elements in consideration of the existing heritage.

⁵⁸ "The life of the city is a continuous change that manifests itself in the long term through the material works, which are endowed with their personality, giving off their soul within the urban ensemble", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 103.

⁵⁹ "Death, which spares no one, comes even to the works of men", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 104.

⁶⁰ "The norms of social justice cannot be allowed to be ignored just for the sake of a cult of the past", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 105.

⁶¹ "The exceptional development of a city can create a dangerous situation, which can lead to a dead end from which one can only get out by making certain sacrifices", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 106.

⁶² "There is a possibility that, in some cases, the demolition of houses and shacks in the vicinity of a monument of historical value may destroy a centuries-old environment", Le Corbusier, "Principles of Urbanism", 1971, p. 107.

1.3.4. Urban planning

"The whole stage can be divided into two periods, the first characterised by the railway and the steam engine, the second by the internal combustion engine and the dynamo: periods roughly separated by the turn of the century" (Dickinson, 1963).

Most European cities have been planned without a blueprint that could be structurally and functionally integrated into the city as a whole⁶³.

However, the Second World War and the industrial crisis introduced new requirements and needs that had not been considered before and had to be addressed quickly and effectively.

Without consideration of the real needs of the population, architecture has been transformed into a means of contrast with the city, defining new forms and new limits that tend to marginalise the population (Bohigas, 2003).

The architecture advocated by the great modern masters was conceived as an essential element of the urban fabric, an element capable of defining spaces, capable of preserving the landscape and integrating with the existing architecture.

These principles were not respected at the end of the Second World War; on the contrary, they were only applied in a few newly built suburbs of the big cities. European cities, as they are conceived, do not respond at all to the needs of modern citizens, nor their primary, biological and psychological needs, and are being overruled by major interests through the implementation of large-scale projects of social exclusion.

None of these cities has developed, safeguarded or built what is necessary to preserve the physical and moral health of its citizens. Every European city has gone through and continues to go through humanitarian crises, in which immigration and emigration are the main actors (Le Corbusier, 1942).

The crisis of European cities, advanced by Le Corbusier, remains a current problem that requires spatial planning and collaboration between all territorial actors.

Population growth, economic change, technology, information and the demands of citizens' lives continue to change and shape today's society. In this sense, it is essential to introduce Bauman's (1998) concept of the consideration of a liquid modern society. The consideration of modern society as a liquid element is a metaphor to be able to understand how today's society suffers and finds itself in continuous and irrecoverable changes. The liquid adapts and changes shape in its space. The liquid changes its shape easily and cannot

⁶³ G. Morbelli, "Città e piani d'Europa", Ed. Dedalo, 1997, pp. 19-85.

be easily stopped (Bauman Z., 1998). The change of routine, the change of the consideration of work, the short-term vision, the customs, the language, and the collectivises, were characteristics that accompanied us until the end of the 80s. After the industrial crisis, the landscape was completely transformed and the consideration of an individualised society, where we are all individuals, formed a macrosystem that is complex to change.

The world economy is changing its economic resources, and production have moved to other countries that 20 years ago were not even considered in the framework of world economic flows. Meanwhile, European cities, due to their history and morphology, do not respond to their needs today and, above all, do not allow all citizens to live in dignity.

Moreover, since the 1970s, given the demand for housing and the demands of citizens, new popular housing projects of all types began to be produced⁶⁴. From this historical moment on, the right to housing started to become a real demand for citizens, to the point of becoming a priority for some municipal governments ⁶⁵.

The development of these large cities was also limited by the industrial revolutions that swept the world. The age of machines and the industrial revolution increased private interests in public works. Personal interests prevailed over rationality and harmed the interest of the community.

The lack of intervention of the authorities in the conservation of the landscape and the illegal activities around public works, in many cases, allowed the destruction of the landscape, obstructing the natural course of the river and the seas.

Until today we have not been able to do worse than ⁶⁶. Cities are inhuman, and the inhumanity of private interests has led to the undoing of citizens. The economic power of private individuals has prevailed over any public interest, thus weakening administrative control and neglecting the importance of social solidarity.

Of course, not all administrations over time have continued with these management models, or rather, without foreseeing any management model adequate to the needs of citizens. Undoubtedly, the responsibility for this structural and human disaster can be attributed to the administrations which, by failing to provide for any up-to-date legislation for the protection of the health and human dignity of their citizens, contributed to favouring the loss of values and morals of the individual.

⁶⁴ J.V.Ribera in his text "La Política regional a la unió Europea, balance, I noves perspectives", analyses the European funds for territorial development, p. 15-40.

⁶⁵ In July 2021, for the first time in modern history, Berlin's city council, after a popular referendum, was forced to buy back all the private land that was sold over the years. This fact allows us to see how housing is a current issue that should be a priority for all major cities in the world.

⁶⁶ Collins P., "Changing ideals in modern architecture: 1750-1950", Faber & Faber, London, 1965, pp. 15-50.

As we have seen above, the 1933 congress of modern urban planners gave concrete expression to countless aspects: from the art of building to health, social organisation, work and many other areas⁶⁷.

However, the principles⁶⁸ that have been handed down over the years through articles, magazines and books have never been taken literally. Today, architecture has changed enormously in its form and economic resources. The principles are always the same⁶⁹, but the objectives conform to the indications of the municipal bodies responsible for urban planning. Therefore, first of all, we have to rely on the administrative bodies, which are the only ones that can guarantee a development that meets all modern requirements. The city must guarantee individual freedom, and it must also ensure benefits for the collective. Free expression and community are the two extreme poles of society, the two macro-systems in which our lives are developing. It is impossible to coordinate these harmoniously without a plan of action. The city must be developed in such a way as to ensure that all citizens can carry out their daily activities without structural constraints, taking into account the natural flow of people. Distances should take into account walking distances, and the use of public transport should be encouraged to drastically reduce environmental pollution and traffic in the city.

Therefore, the keys to modern urbanism are contained in the four main functions: living, working, leisure and movement. Urban planning expresses an era. It expresses the temporal needs of administrations and citizens. By not taking into account the four main functions of urban architecture and by intervening only in one of them temporarily, administrations will negatively influence the other three basic principles⁷⁰.

The four main functions of modern urbanism⁷¹ are:

- I. Guarantee housing for all citizens, define green spaces that guarantee the recycling of air and sunshine and natural light.
- II. Appropriate workplaces, ensuring adequate psychophysical health conditions.
- III. Guarantee of green spaces and facilities necessary for citizens' leisure and recreational activities.
- IV. Containment of the city's traffic network, guaranteeing reduced travel times, allowing citizens to make the most of their leisure time.⁷²

By applying the four principles of modern urban planning, administrations should always provide preliminary studies, feasibility studies and market studies to ensure results over time.

⁶⁷ A. Van der Wond, <<CIAM>>, in R.W.D. Oscenaar and A. van der Wond, *Het nieuwe bouwen international; CIAM; housing, then, planning*, Delft U.P., Delft 1983, pp.55-56.

⁶⁸ The architects who took part in the International Congress of Architecture in the 1920s succeeded in creating an architecture that was economical, functional and preserved the landscape and nature.

⁶⁹ . Simplicity, rationality, the conception of spaces, their division, the consideration of the citizen as a central part of the project, without neglecting any kind of detail.

⁷⁰ Le Corbusier, "Principi di urbanistica", 1971, pp. 119-121.

⁷¹ Le Corbusier, "Principi di urbanistica", 1971, p. 146.

⁷² Athens Charter, CIM, 1933

The allocation of the four functions mentioned above will mean the development of a better place for human beings. Each function will have its autonomy of development in consideration of its specific characteristics, such as climate and topography, elements that limit the natural expansion of the city. Therefore, through these types of distribution, the vital needs of individuals will be protected while preserving their primary interests.

The main objective of planning is to certify individual freedom and to allow all citizens to take advantage of and enjoy any space, without any architectural barriers.

Housing must be designed according to the pace of life of the citizens and the economic/administrative activities of the city. The new mechanical speed has turned the urban system into a permanent danger, leading to a weakening of sanitary conditions and paralysis of land communications. Heavy traffic characterises most European cities, which, although trying to counteract the phenomenon with some urban policies, have not succeeded because the urban morphology does not allow for any improvement in this respect. The introduction of the car into everyday life, especially in the city centre, has led to the development of many harmful factors. For example, the combustion gases, which are becoming more and more widespread in the area, are harmful to the lungs and breathing, and the noise causes an increase in nervousness. Thus, the increasing use of the car has led to a displacement of the family, which has led to the loss of natural functions such as "walking". Urban traffic principles should respect the needs of citizens and the city, providing for urban and suburban areas with a speed classification. The reform of zones is always linked to their very nature.

The zoning of the city should take into account the four key functions: living, working, enjoying and circulating. Circulation, the fourth key function, will have a single objective: to bring the three elements into useful and efficient communication. Therefore, the city will need a major transformation, it will have to be equipped with the best possible connections, and the urban network will have to use modern construction and circulation techniques to efficiently connect the peripheries and all metropolitan areas.

Urbanisation is considered a three-dimensional science and not just a two-dimensional one. When intervening with popular high-rise urbanisation, open spaces will allow for modern conclusions on circulation and green spaces. The key functions - work, housing and leisure - only develop if three basic needs are present: sufficient space, sunshine and ventilation. This not only depends on the topography of the city but tends to pay attention to buildings developed in height. Height helps to increase square metres without taking up floor space, but care must be taken to respect these principles in consideration of the landscape. Preserving nature and landscape should be the first objective of any architect working for a city.

For this reason, the development of the city should be integrated into a regional plan that involves all municipalities in a participatory manner to determine an effective and balanced development.

Meanwhile, the law should define development plans and master plans, to define the areas to be preserved and developed. In this sense, the problem of a common development is due to the differences between each administration that autonomously defines its priorities. Cities and countries with a strong economy will pursue their interests with continuous private pressure, leaving aside the public interest.

In consideration of the limited space of cities and the reduced possibilities for green and public spaces, we can identify building blocks as one of the solutions that should be adopted in a limited space. Le Corbusier's *Unité de Habitation* was conceived as a unique element of socio-economic development at a time when citizens needed short-term housing, and at the same time sociability, inclusion and green spaces. For this reason, the *Unité de Habitation* was included in a small micro-society equipped with all services and self-sufficient. However, this housing model is still a model of development today. Le Corbusier's solution is only one of the different resolutions that have been developed over time. Furthermore, as seen above, Le Corbusier's solution should be seen as an evolution of Godin's Familisterie. Godin's theory derives from the principle of cooperation advanced by Fourier, identifying four factors where profit should be shared: workers' compensation, interest on capital, inventors' rights and social security fund. However, this model was the most successful experiment in Fourierist utopian practice as reinterpreted by Godin. The theoretical framework of the Utopians was born in the second half of the 1800s in England as a result of the needs of factory workers. As noted in the first section of the previous chapter, the main theories of this movement were underpinned by the utopian thinking⁷³ of Owen and Fourier. The solution given by the utopians was focused on the creation of a complete dwelling containing all the services necessary to develop a community. Thus, we can affirm that architecture has become a fundamental element of the future of cities. Architecture is responsible for the well-being and beautification of the city. Therefore, the distribution and organisation of buildings in a given space will be determining factors in the creation of a harmonious and durable work over time.

The privatisation of areas and consequently the increase of private property within urban policies have slowed down this philosophy of development, not allowing it to get the most out of the city (Baldassarri, 1993). The absence of urbanisation is the cause of the anarchy that reigns in the municipal organisation. By omitting certain rules and principles, urban concentration has developed haphazardly, without any prior planning, in some cases allowing houses to be turned into shacks. Individual and common law can only be preserved through the urban organisation, supporting and reinforcing the value of housing. Individual rights must prevail over private interests. If private interests prevail over the individual and society, the humanity is condemned to live in mediocre conditions in a mass society characterised by stereotypes and prejudices. The collective interest must always prevail so that each individual can access and enjoy the basic elements of life. Being able to appreciate the places in one's city and admire their architectural beauty is fundamental to the individual's state of psychophysical health (Le Corbusier, 1965).

⁷³ Utopian thinking was first advanced by Tommaso Moro in 1516 through his novel "Utopia".

"The image we have today of the great European cities can be defined as chaotic" (Le Corbusier, 1965).

1.4. The relationship between architectural heritage and the city

Introduction

Architecture is not only the image of the city and its architecture as a whole, but architecture conceived as construction (Rossi, 1978). Architecture is a creation inseparable from civil life and the society in which it manifests itself. The collective character of architecture makes it possible to reproduce a construction in a specific environment. The creation of an environment that reflects everyday life and the aesthetic intentionality of places can be defined as the stable characteristics of architecture. The contrast between the particular and the universal and between the individual and the collective arises from the city and the construction of the thing itself: its architecture (Rossi, 1978).

Architecture is the fixed scenario of human events, it is made up of feelings, events, tragedies, new facts, and history. The principles and modifications of the real, constitute the structure of human creation (Rossi, 1978). The city can be defined as the product of functional systems that generate its architecture and therefore urban space. However, the city can be seen as the product of a spatial structure developed over time and the history of each specific place. The city as a result of functional systems implies an analysis of the political, social and economic systems of each urban space.

Meanwhile, the consideration of the city as a product of its spatial structure implies an architectural and geographical analysis of places. Thus, the study of the architecture of our cities should be based on the study of urban facts and on the integration of these facts in time and space (Gregotti, 1966). The analysis of the architecture and heritage of our cities should first identify the permanent forces existing in each space and universally analyse all urban facts.

1.4.1. Urban elements

To be able to analyse the architecture of our cities, we must first look at the urban elements that make up the city:

1. The city is a large artefact that grows over time.
2. The city is an aggregation of limited areas characterised by their architectures and forms.

After the evaluation of individual architectures, essentially related to their form, material, an organisation in space and time, and architectural analyses, we will add a fundamental element: memory. The memory of architecture will make it possible to

observe the buildings as a product of the community through the creation of relationships with the community itself.

Urban elements as works of art

The artistic character of urban elements is strongly related to their quality, their uniqueness and their definition in space. Urban elements are difficult to describe. The definition of a building, a street, or a neighbourhood will always be ambiguous and subjective to describe it.

As Cattaneo (1858) states, the city and the region, the agricultural land and the forests become human because they are an immense deposit of work, they are the work of our hands, but as an artificial homeland and a constructed thing they are also a testimony of values, they are permanence and memory⁷⁴.

Moreover, as suggested by Milizia (1804), the comfort of any building requires three main objects: 1. its situation, 2. its form, and 3. the distribution of its parts.

Therefore, typology is presented with a characteristic of necessity that is strongly conditioned by technique, functions, style and collective character at a given time and in a given space. Function and functionalist theories for the definition and observation of an urban element are incorrect. The function can change and modify over time. Sometimes, urban elements disappear in the territorialization phase. Functionalism and organicism, the two currents shaping modern architecture, reveal their weakness without taking form and type into account (Rossi, 1978). In conclusion, it can be stated that observing and classifying urban elements through their function, as a general rule, is acceptable. However, to analyse in-depth and observe the more complex elements, other factors such as style, use of space, materials and their spatial organisation in a given territorial context should be used.

Classification problems

As we have noted above, the analysis of the architectural elements of our cities is considered a complex observation that implies a deep observation that can go beyond the simple analysis of the amount of concrete on the ground. Therefore, the analysis of architectural elements should be linked to the contributions of social geographers. Tricart (1965), Marcel Poete (1929) and Milizia (1804) base their contributions on a continuous reading of the city and architecture based on a general theory of urban elements. For Tricart, the basis of the city is its social content. The social elements precede the analysis of form and function. Tricart, in his contribution to urbanism, proposes the analysis of the city on three different scales: the street, the neighbourhood and the city. The different scales should be considered as intertwined elements of the social content they represent.

⁷⁴ The city is the result of its historical heritage.

Meanwhile, Poete's work (1929) analyses urban elements as an indication of the urban organism in a pre-existing city. Therefore, to analyse architectural elements we must consider their continuity in time, history, economy, and geography so that knowledge of the past constitutes the comparison and the measure for future constructions. Historical analysis can ensure continuity and unity of the particular urban expressions of each place. Analysing urban land implies understanding the urban composition accompanied by the collective elements of each city⁷⁵.

On the other hand, Milizia (1804) proposes an analytical distinction between public and private buildings. Milizia proposes a classification of urban elements according to their type and their general function in the city. The function should be considered as the purpose of the building or urban element in the collective space.

In conclusion, the analysis of urban elements should proceed by recognising the city as a complex structure developed through different parts. This reveals an aspect of the city, which by its nature cannot be reduced to its simple typology or function, the latter element being in continuous evolution as it continually considers the requirements of the elements that live in the city: human beings, animals and plants.

The complexity of urban elements

The function of urban elements can be identified through the observation of urban morphology, without considering them in a context of continuity with space, time and urban structure. Starting from the consideration of the city as a container of urban elements, we can observe its complexity and significance in the urban evocation of some specific places. Therefore, the city is something that persists and is modified through its transformations in specific historical moments of a punctual type. An urban element becomes a monument only when it withstands the passage of time and the different civilisations while maintaining its morphology preserved. The permanence and persistence of monuments are ensured by the historical, artistic and architectural elements that remain in the memory of the community.

The city as a dynamic process tends more towards evolution than the conservation of sites, but monuments are preserved and represent the facts of their development. The form of the city is a dynamic and evolving fact that makes it difficult to contemplate the urban elements over time. However, the primary urban elements have a decisive character in the formation and constitution of the city.

⁷⁵ At the basis of this organism is the persistence of the plan (Poet, 1929).

1.4.2. Area of study

Once we define the city as an artefact of different elements and different phenomena, we advance three hypotheses:

1. Urban development is strongly related to time (there is a before, a during and an after).
2. The city follows a spatial evolution of territorial individualities (mountains, rivers, etc.).
3. In the urban structure, some particular elements have the power to condition or accelerate urban processes (industrialisation).

From a geographical point of view, the description of the city cannot take precedence over the analysis of its location. The study area cannot be considered abstract about space and urban elements. Moreover, each study area must be defined by its historical characteristics that coincide with specific urban phenomena. However, as we will observe through the contribution of Magnaghi (2000), the recognition and redefinition of boundaries will be the best guarantee to analyse the urban environment and all the elements that compose it. On the other hand, the structures of urban elements make cities distinguish themselves over time in consideration of the evolution of their spaces. All urban changes imply that urban growth is a continuous process in the different spaces where they manifest themselves. Therefore, the city is not by nature a creation that can be defined through a basic idea. Modern metropolises are the sum of different areas of territory, neighbourhoods and districts, differentiated in their characteristics, forms and cultures. The city in its naturalness, its beauty and its particularities are the creation and the result of the evolution of different moments of formation, united by an urban unity as a whole. The city must be analysed as a great work that develops to different historical moments that will condition the future of its evolution. Thus, the study of the area becomes a fundamental element for the study of the city concerning sustainability, integration, housing and other elements that must be observed in a specific socio-cultural context. The area, as part of the city, is an area determined by its morphology and density, linked to an internal tension between the city and periphery. The city area becomes the essential tool for the observation and analysis of existing urban elements.

The neighbourhood

The neighbourhood becomes an area, a moment, a sector, a form of the city that is intimately related to the evolution and image of the city. For social studies, the neighbourhood is the morphological and structural unit where a certain urban landscape is characterised by a certain social context. Changes in some of these elements will lead to changes in the neighbourhood. The analysis of the neighbourhood as a social element leads to the formation of modern metropolises. In such a way, neighbourhoods are not so subordinate or dependent on others, some are relatively autonomous and their relationships cannot be explained through the dependency functions of the urban structure. Zoning and functionalist theories have defined new trends and philosophies in the organisation of

neighbourhoods and districts in the territory⁷⁶. However, the definition of specific functional areas for each working class has proved to be a defeat for the organisation and evolution of our metropolises. The principle of growth according to infrastructures, services, work and administrative areas absorbs the value of each socio-economic context of the neighbourhoods.

Thus, neighbourhoods can only be studied as urban elements of their character through a specific history, structure and socio-economic situation. The following consideration allows us to affirm that the modern metropolis is a collection of cities differentiated into different parts within the metropolis. From a formal and historical point of view, these characteristics are especially found in the large European cities, as they reflect how the home of modern man is a city made up of different parts characterised by different elements.

Housing

As we have observed in the preceding section, housing should be treated as an urban element that is pre-eminent in the composition of the city⁷⁷. The form of residential buildings is closely linked to the urban form (Rossi, 1978). Throughout history, we have seen how residential land speculation is an element that still exists today. Thus, the relationship between residence and location becomes pre-eminent. Furthermore, the problem of residences is one of the most topical issues on a theoretical and practical level for the evolution of our future cities. Therefore, the analysis of cities should consider the fundamental models and particularities of each neighbourhood in order not to exclude it with the construction of infrastructures⁷⁸.

The city is a complex system where we carry out our daily life, however, shows a tendency of polarisation through a public and private social aggregation. The public and private spheres develop together through the exchange of information and aggregation characteristics. Thus, our future cities will develop through primary urban elements that can accelerate the urbanisation processes of the city. While other secondary features catalyse areas of smaller cities. An analysis that looks at the evolution of the city by points and areas, considers the evolution of cities in parts, offering a value to the unique and specific experiences that manifest themselves in neighbourhoods. Increasingly, this is having an impact on the fact that the city plan is losing its importance in the development of our cities.

⁷⁶ Chicago is the most relevant example of the application of functionalist theory and zoning of urban functions.

⁷⁷ The City of Vienna 1929 responded to the housing crisis by constructing housing complexes whose form was linked to the shape of the city. Vienna, through an institution with a special fund, granted subsidies and loans for the construction of new housing. In addition, a new policy was introduced in 1929 to provide further support to private individuals, cooperatives, municipalities and the Länder by granting a mortgage.

⁷⁸ The last architecture biennial in 2021 reflected on future metropolises and how we will experience the space of our cities.

1.4.3. The transformation processes of our cities

As we have already seen, the relationship between the residential areas and the primary elements of each city defines it concretely. Morphological analysis is considered to be one of the most important elements in the study of the town. Areas are specific elements of a transformation process, representing each time of urban dynamics. Where phenomena are reproduced with greater intensity, spaces and areas will be transformed more rapidly, producing greater pressure on land use and existing heritage. The redevelopment processes of the post-industrial phases in major European cities have left behind their historical heritage⁷⁹, evolving through different city models. Geographers and urban planners classify cities into two main families, planned cities and unplanned cities.

The first is based on a rational process of defining functions and boundaries. The latter is the result of an unconscious development that has been transformed into a process of acceptance of the urban functions of each place. Smailes (2008) in his text on urban geography defines the genesis of urbanisation as a process of aggregation of buildings around some peri-urban core. The core represents the beginning of the urbanisation process. The city, being made up of parts with different histories and characteristics, must be analysed through the primary elements of each area, as it will entail a specific grouping of each building. Therefore, the city cannot be reduced to a single basic idea. Monuments are identified as fixed points in urban dynamics, stronger than economic laws. Monuments are included in the tangible and intangible heritage of each specific area and history of places. Existing heritage, through architecture and politics, will raise its value about its particular historical situation with the place and with the life of the city. However, without taking into account geography, sociology, psychology, ecology or biology, it will always be more complex to understand the architecture of our cities, preserving the existing and specific heritage of each specific historical evolution in a given space-time (Grassi, 1980).



Figure 6 Galleria Vittorio Emanuele II in Milan (Source: Personal archive)

⁷⁹ London, Manchester, Glasgow, Milan, Barcelona, Turin, Lyon, are the most relevant examples of the loss of industrial heritage that has conditioned the urban forms of the largest European capitals.

1.5. The post-industrial city

Modern urban space

The concept of modernism can be explained through the evolution of culture and urban space. Modernism is therefore seen as a process open to the accumulation and involvement of new procedures and actions. The openness of modernism to urban change is based on the spatial and temporal restructuring of our cities. Modernity is not something that is created overnight but is an evolutionary process that develops spatially unevenly (Soja, 2000). However, the great spatial transformations were not accompanied by any social awareness as a strategy for the improvement and development of local communities.

The extensive destruction and reconstruction of territorial space supported by urban-industrial capitalism have transformed all knowledge and actions that could be undertaken for the evolution of our cities. Thus, the political, philosophical, economic and social redefinition and orientation have profoundly changed the urban space and the concept of modernity.

1.5.1. The building elements of the contemporary metropolis

In the following section, we will analyse the evolution of contemporary metropolises using some elements identified by Hall (1984) in his contribution to the evolution of contemporary metropolises. The elements we will analyse are work, life and mobility.

Work

Since 1850 the basic economy of the metropolis has changed drastically, producing continuous changes that have implied a development and concentration of production activities in the central areas of contemporary metropolises. The industrial crisis of the 1960s and 1970s introduced new changes in factories and material processing that were relocated, forcing citizens to move to other cities closer to them. The following process can be observed in all cities, with different magnitudes and at different historical moments (Hall, 1984). The *Central Business District* (CBD) has become the district where knowledge is produced, processed, specialised and realised. Decentralisation of processes and other functions did not work well for our territory and our cities. The reduction of the load of the centre led to a strong delocalisation of factories and productive activities.

Living

Life and the right to life is a central issue in large metropolises as well as in smaller cities. Mobility and the use of the private transport system have contributed to this evolutionary process tangibly. The spatial organisation of life must be supported by a

theoretical framework that responds to the needs of the inhabitants of our cities⁸⁰. The improvement of infrastructural networks allows for the evolution of connections between cities and the urban centre. The polycentric evolution of our cities forces us to rethink part of the existing network, with new inputs and strategies that can help citizens to live in a metropolitan region founded on the individuality of places and local communities.

Dislocation

Thomson's (1977) classification allows us to look at large cities through five typologies:

1. *Strong centre*: Metropolis with a large CBD in an area of more than 25 km² across rail lines, roads and without the existence of integrated public transport.



Figure 7 View of the CBD from the Empire State Building (Source: CC)

2. *Weak centre*: Historic centre governed by a radial (Stockholm, Copenhagen, Melbourne, Chicago, Boston) through a mixed public transport service.

3. *Total motorisation*: Metropolis with a small CBD and with a transport system that does not operate on a radial basis.



Figure 8 Exchanges in Los Angeles (Source: CC)

⁸⁰ The phenomenon of gentrification, observed since the 1930s and pronounced in 1960 in London, can now be observed in the world's largest cities (Hall, 1984).

4. *Low cost*: Poor metropolises that have evolved with little public investment. Congested cities with a wide network of buses and various forms of public transport. Network planning was inadequate due to a lack of organisation and strategy on the part of public administrations.

5. *Developing world*: Metropolis of the new developing Eastern world. Hong Kong, Singapore.

Among the metropolises of the newly developing world, I would like to mention Bangkok, Beijing, Dubai, Lagos y Kuala Lumpur, Lagos and Jakarta as they are considered to be the great metropolises of the new economy.



Figure 9 Exchange in Bangkok (Source: Personal archive)

Therefore, the factors that contributed to the expansion of our metropolises can be recognised in the increase in population and the industrialisation of other cities and territories. However, the empty areas between the radials favoured the expansion of the city and the evolution of the concept of urbanisation. Consequently, the first evolutionary stages of metropolises are characterised by an absolute centralisation of functions through other industrial systems in the territory. The continuous evolution of cities and the emergence of new factories and urban areas lead to a relative decentralisation of metropolises and a strong centralisation of territories. The fourth stage represents the shift from centralisation to decentralisation. The system moves from dispersive centralisation to absolute centralisation, to relative centralisation, to relative decentralisation and absolute decentralisation, and finally to dispersive decentralisation in the last evolutionary stage (Hall, 1984). Therefore, the urban planning process of cities takes place in different stages. Some contemporary metropolises have been transformed through only two stages, while others in Europe and the United States have been transformed through four or five stages (Savitch, 1988). The stages of transformation will always depend on factors related to labour and global economic flows. However, the only possibility for contemporary metropolises is to observe the evolution of the world's largest metropolises without repeating the same mistakes in the assessment and spatial planning.

1.5.2. The crisis of the metropolis

Space is a society. Social movements and dynamics bring new forms and new functions to the spatial structure of our cities. The post-war urban crisis in industrial countries was a process of restoration generated by crises that manifested themselves on all human scales (Salzano, 2002). From this moment on, the centre of decision and observation of urban studies shifted to modern metropolises, identified as the driving centres, as they led the post-war economic boom⁸¹.

The new approach to urban planning began to shape metropolises through the new basic needs of capital and the capitalist state. The new configuration of metropolises included the provision of new housing, transport networks, social services and urban renovations, all of which were more related to the new capitalist economy (Samoná, 1971). However, the links between industrialisation and urbanisation were not ignored. The conflict in contemporary metropolises centred on the place of work and the place of residence. The new formulations were a stimulus for the construction of urban agglomerations and the evolution of neighbourhood communities. The spatial forms born out of these social processes become places of resistance in a city space as a cause and consequence of urban crises. Therefore, the development of metropolises must strike a balance between the creation and destruction of their specific geography to reduce internal conflicts. From the first half of the 19th century, urban development can be shaped by the increasingly globalised economic and cultural flows in the capitalist impulse associated with modernism⁸². Periods of restructuring often end with a moment of crisis that will generate new processes of restructuring and reconfiguration of our metropolises. Moreover, since the 1960s, contemporary metropolises are being significantly restructured to such an extent that many scholars describe the era as post-Fordist, post-industrial, postmodern, etc. Urban space and urban life are evolving ever more fragmented, not only in terms of land use but also in patterns of local governance, social class, race and ethnicity (Soja, 2000). A city like Los Angeles, however, well represents urban fragmentation through the rise of suburbanism as a distinctive form of metropolitan evolution⁸³.

Los Angeles can therefore serve as a reference for the observation of post-war metropolises and the crisis of contemporary metropolises.

Are the forms of contemporary metropolises irreversible processes?

As we have observed in the previous sections, the metropolitan model of twentieth-century cities was rapidly constructed through the factory city.

⁸¹ Post-war metropolises were represented by massive urbanisation, the new society based on private transport, administrative fragmentation, the decline of the city centre, increasing segregation, changing labour relations, technologies and new social movements.

⁸² Moreover, the phenomena taking place in our cities over the last 20 years have reactivated the reconstruction and reconfiguration of our metropolises for a reinterpretation of the global development prospective.

⁸³ Los Angeles and the Greater Los Angeles District are a galaxy of more than 170 distinct municipalities, an agglomeration of agglomerations, each with its own hierarchy, its own spatial specificity of urbanism.

Cities are built and developed through a peripheral philosophy of taking advantage of infrastructures and natural resources. Leaving aside the historical urban network, the hills, mountains, rivers and natural resources form the landscape of the places. For this reason, the territory in its conception as historically constructed is made up of open spaces that can be summarised as follows:

- Spaces used for development.
- Metropolitan industrial areas.
- Spaces for mechanical and metalworking industries.
- Coastal areas.
- Mountain areas.

(Magnaghi, 2000)

The disruption of place-making processes occurs even as cycles of civilisation become automated about all previous cycles. Contemporary deterritorialization is thus the first in history that tends to be structural, with no turning back (Magnaghi, 2000). In this way, the decontextualization of places reveals the destruction of landscape identities caused by the rupture of relations between new morphological models and the standardisation of construction techniques. The use of materials, the typology of buildings, the models and the conception of housing are designed to respond to the demands of the consumer society. Degradation sets new scenarios to respond effectively to the effects of deterritorialization on the environment⁸⁴.

1.5.3. Hypertrophy and hypotrophy of contemporary metropolises

Contemporary metropolises are characterised by settlement elements that tend to be diffuse, fragmented and highly independent of the territorial context. The contemporary metropolitan model deterritorialises, decontextualises and degrades, producing the hypertrophic dissolution of the city (Magnaghi, 2000). The contemporary metropolis distinguishes itself from the historical city and the modern city through processes of de-linking all the identity elements of a place. The contemporary metropolitan organisation, which came to maturity in Europe in the second half of the 20th century, is the first to operate through different forms of territorial relations, as it does not include the dependence between machines and humans is a model of development that meets with increasing resistance from the identity of places and the demands of the communities that occupy the territory.

The following expectations for the development of our metropolises are based on the contribution of Magnaghi (2000), who sets out his vision of the dimension of contemporary metropolises and the key elements that constitute them.

⁸⁴ For Delueze and Guattari (1987) the history of capitalism is a history built on the deterritorialisation of places that progressively produces separation, expatriation, segregation, abstract labour and loss of identity of places.

Hypertrophy

- Release of the constraints of place and size of the city (change of scale of the project).
- The dominance of economic functions (production, circulation, reproduction, consumption) over the organisation of space (city user).
- Dissolution of public space (reduction of space)

Hypotrophy

- Application of industrial technologies and use of standardised materials for the construction of the city and the territory (the reproduction of the territory is entrusted to large technological and functional systems).
- The territory of metropolitan growth as a commodity (housing becomes a commodity of the territory).

Therefore, the shape of contemporary metropolises is in a conflict between local development and territoriality that founds the development problems of our cities (Zukin, 1998). The new elements of poverty are made up of urban, environmental and quality, complicating and inducing the growth models of our territories. The participation and the conception of a holistic sustainability model show how these two elements are fundamental to ensure new growth in our cities, without having to be modulated by hypertrophic functions and elements. Identity is recognised as the main element of the conflict between the local and the global, a dilemma that affects all the world's metropolises.

City of cities and networks of cities

Metropolis models at all scales are considered hierarchical territorial models producing polarisations, imbalances, simplifications and complexification of the territorial system. However, the metropolis model produces a great accumulation of wealth in the short term, which over time becomes unsustainable due to the accumulation of wealth and population density. The size of the territory and the distances between cities that make up contemporary metropolises encourage territorial imbalance and require ever greater mobilisation of energy to sustain them.

The reconstruction of city boundaries

The reconstruction and redefinition of city limits is the first phase in the construction of an ideal city that can diminish local inequalities. The model of contemporary metropolises, (in contrast to Plato's utopian model⁸⁵), asserts itself as one of the main causes of environmental, social and cultural unsustainability. For this reason, the city

⁸⁵ Plato set a limit of 5000 inhabitants for each city.

project must provide boundaries that can be made operational for the implementation of new techniques and the application of new urban planning regulations.

The reintroduction of a new boundary culture can reduce the sprawl of contemporary metropolises by redefining the system and subsystems of global functions.

Boundary planning should predispose rules on land consumption, densification of urban spaces, public space, urban and building typology, energy consumption or waste management. The application of appropriate measures and standards can set in motion new micro-balances in a way that reduces environmental pressure and the consumption of natural resources. Boundaries should be considered as an element that can prevent the consumption of land and the relationship of areas with the territory, defining a new conception of our cities (Zukin, 1998).

Cities as producers of complexities

The planning of contemporary cities, based on the identification and creation of new centralities, induces a decomposition of the metropolis that does not follow its functions. Functionalist theories can no longer be applied in the realisation of new, more complex urban identities. The complexity of the metropolis becomes an important prerequisite for the knowledge of significant urban units and the implementation of a self-sustainable local development strategy. The city is a memory. Conserving and preserving the characteristics of each city is a guarantee for the knowledge of our cities over time. The demand for complexity highlights the interdependencies between the categories of time, quality and aesthetics (Tiezzi, 1992).

From the metropolitan city to the villages

Villages are considered to be the areas where the greatest contradictions of the centre-periphery model are concentrated. Strategic planning involves improving integration between different areas and different territories, preserving their identity, differences, and architectural and urban characteristics. The decomposition and simplification of the metropolitan area can be considered as a means of overcoming the centre-periphery conflicts. Proposing a multipolar system will allow an adaptation of the interurban public transport system to the node systems of each metropolis. Small towns and villages, while preserving their morphology and their own identity, have become places where processes of conservation and enhancement of public space, as a place of expression, and recognition of the communities that inhabit them are put into practice.

Post-metropolis

The *post-metropolis*⁸⁶ can be seen as a product of globalisation processes through which the global and the local are becoming globalised at the same time. What was once

⁸⁶ Post-Metropolis is a term defined by Edward W. Soja for the definition of the globalised city, the fruit of late capitalist economic restructuring.

central is becoming peripheral and what was the periphery is increasingly becoming central (Soja, 2000). Urban space is increasingly homologated to global geographies, incorporating a cosmopolitan condensation of all the world's cultures and international conflicts. These phenomena are provoking radical new changes in the politics of urban space, proposing new forms, new identities, new multiplicities, and new integrations (Evans, 2009).

1.5.4. Global cities

Globalisation and glocalisation

Glocalisation refers to a twofold process that shifts from the national to the global scale, involving institutional and regulatory processes. Economic activities and business networks through glocalisation are simultaneously transformed into more localised and transactional processes. Thus, the scale of economic and institutional networks is shaped in ways that alter the geometries of social power in important ways (Swyngedouw, 2004). The proliferation of new forms through the process of deterritorialization/reterritorialization calls for the adoption of a politics of different scales for our territories. Moreover, internationalisation, globalisation, delocalisation, international competitiveness, cultural hybridisation and other more or less fashionable concepts come together in a plurality of highly mediatised discourses (Swyngedouw, 2004).

Therefore, it is fundamental to assert that social life is founded on processes, in a continuous state of perpetual transformation and reconfiguration (Harvey, 1991).

Spatial strategies over time have been seen as central to the explanation of the new dynamics of internationalisation of territorial places. The political economy of capitalism can be defined as a process of continuous transformation across its own temporal and spatial horizons⁸⁷. The current transformation process is seen as a reorganisation of geographical scales and a redefinition of territorial boundaries that include the political and economic life of each territory. Therefore, the general model of *glocalised* places refers mainly to the restructuring of institutional levels from the national to the global scale, shaping local, urban and regional strategies using a global localisation strategy that is the key to capitalism. Today, the economic success of cities and regions depends to a large extent on the local sectoral and institutional configuration and governance framework in which regional or urban economies are embedded (Swyngedouw, 2004). Regional economies are therefore characterised by highly specialised local affiliates embedded in a place-specific institutional, political and cultural framework. Territorial production systems are shaped by national, supranational and global networks. Meanwhile, at the local or regional level, public-private partnerships are shaped by business practices and ideologies necessary to be included in a process of inter-urban intensification on a supra- or transactional scale.

⁸⁷ There has been a transformation at the scale of networks of economic organisation (Swyngedouw, 2004).

The problems of global cities.

Today, modern cities continue to suffer from the metropolitan expansion of the phenomena of globalisation and the homogenisation of economies. The expansion of the metropolitan city and territorial space continues to bring with it problems of congestion of communication networks. In addition, the decline of public transport has drastically contributed to congestion problems, paralysing the city and reducing the quality of life of citizens. Territorial networks and nodes over time have left some parts and areas of the territory unindustrialised. The lack of industrialisation has drastically decreased the possibilities of building new communication infrastructures. The result of the construction of the metropolis can be identified in the lack of basic services, inadequate housing, job displacement, unemployment and an unstable economy. Nowadays, the metropolises of the world must propose solutions for the conception of a decisive economic system that can organise and strategically plan transport services and infrastructures. Therefore, the planning of local territorial systems should ensure the necessary public funding to preserve local territories, guaranteeing effective and equitable development (Hall, 1984).

Cosmopolis and Exopolis

Today, there is a new form of urban dualism, specifically linked to the process of restructuring and the expansion of the information economy (Soja, 2000). The processes of growth and restructuring take place most intensively at the nodal points of industry and business. Consequently, the new city can be seen as a growing process of labour differentiation in characteristic sectors based on the new information economy. The use of the terms most commonly used for the identification of the following process, *cosmopolis*, to refer to the economically, philosophically and culturally globalised city-region is a recent development.

Cosmopolis: the globalisation of urban space

Globalisation studies form the current debate on modernity and post-modernity for the understanding of socio-cultural changes in metropolises. The effects of globalisation are more profound and involve a reassertion of local power. Globalisation is associated with global media, information networks, post-imperialism, the end of the nation-state, and a world without borders. Globalisation implies an in-depth study of worldwide social relations linking distant places connected by global networks. Global cities are shaped by the intensity of processes, communications, infrastructures and social relations (Zukin, 2015). Globalisation can be associated with the breakdown of the international capitalist economy, as it distinguishes between the spatial division of labour and production. The reconfiguration of a global and transactional economy intensified through new networked links can describe the globalisation of urban spaces.

The momentum of this restructuring process in the new era of globalisation is founded on new forces that have a significant effect on the subsequent transition (Soja, 2000):

- The industrialisation of important segments of the former third world and the simultaneous de-industrialisation of established Fordist industrial production cities and regions.
- The creation of new forms of globally networked manufacturing is symbolised by products such as cars and Benetton's multicoloured jumper.
- The acceleration of the movement of people, goods, services and information across national borders and the growth of globally networked global labour and commodity markets.
- The regionalisation of the international trading system and markets, from the EU to the North American Free Trade Association (NAFTA) and various trading blocs in Asia, Africa and Latin America.
- The propulsive emergence of the transnational corporation to rationalise and coordinate global investment, production and capital accumulation.
- The effects of the telecommunications and information revolution in space and on the network.
- The emergence of powerful institutions promotes global financial integration, consolidating the three main circuits of capital (commercial, financial and industrial) on a global scale.
- The rise of the Pacific Rim as a competitive power to block the North Atlantic alliance.
- The concentration of political and economic power in a reordered hierarchy of global cities that act as command posts to control the volatile financial operations of the world economy.

Each of the following processes has provided a focal point in studies of the geopolitical economy of globalisation. The world market appears to be expanding at a faster pace than expected. This may represent new economic forces driving and conditioning growth in globalised places. Thus, global flows of capital investment, migration, labour, labour, information, and technological innovation, are elements that continue to reshape urban space and city-residence relations.

Exopolis

The causes of the profound and extensive reorganisation of urban space are attributed to its implicit capacity to act in the restructuring processes of the preceding crises. The various processes of urbanisation and the concrete effects on everyday life and city planning have provided the framework for interurban and suburban growth. Discussions on the restructuring of urban forms have advanced different models of restructuring our metropolis. *Megacity* is one of the first definitions used to define the spatial transformations of modern metropolises. However, the evolution of the suburbs has conditioned the development of a new form of a metropolis, defined by the historian Muller and Fisher as the outer city. The urbanisation of the suburbs has evolved through a reconceptualization of the urban environment and the metropolis as a whole. Not surprisingly, the literature on the development of modern metropolises have focused

primarily on suburban decentralisation or dispersal, as centralisation was in effect taken for granted (Soja, 2000). Hise (1997) also argues that these city-building processes were in most cases induced by uncontrolled suburban sprawl, but for the most part enjoyed carefully organised and planned urban development. De-industrialisation has emptied many of the major urban areas and cores, making room for the new demands of global cities. What could once be described as regional suburbanisation has become massive regional urbanisation, which is now most evident in almost every metropolis in the world. The new geography of post-metropolitan urbanism is seen as a product of decentralisation and deterritorialization that has led to the dispersion and intensification of the urban core. In post-metropolises such as Los Angeles, globalisation has intensified and polarised all municipalities, which now have to readjust, redefining the balance between work and housing.

Reconfiguring the urban imaginary

The main focus of post-war cities is the restructuring of the urban imaginary founded on our awareness and perception of the city. The urban imaginary of contemporary metropolises refers to mental maps of urban reality that continue to be reinterpreted through different temporal moments and events (Castells, 1974). Mega-events reconfigure the urban imaginary of Olympic cities. However, networks of reinterpretation and identification of places need time and continuous actions for reconfiguration into a social imaginary. In almost every aspect of the changing urban imaginary, there is the identification of labels that attempt to describe phenomena through naming. *Eco* has become a term that defines and conceptualises a sustainable aspect. *Hyper, meta, and trans* carry the notion of movements. *Post and meta* describe the existence of an after and a significant change of values, places and conditions.

"The world in which we used to speak confidently of change distinguishes between an idea and its referent, a representation and the represented, the image and reality (Baudrillard, 1983).

1.5.5. The different networks in global territories

Infrastructure networks

Critical analyses of infrastructures (transport network, telecommunications, energy, water, streets, etc.) offer a dynamic vision for the observation of our contemporary cities and regions.

The constant evolution of the infrastructural process of our territories has been constituted through different landscapes, connected and interconnected through spatial networks (Graham, 2010). One of the most important aspects of infrastructural analysis is the conception of networks as systems closely related to urban space and the urbanisation of our territories. In such a way, infrastructural networks are integrated with urban spaces.

Networks as a model for the urbanisation of places

Economic, social, environmental, cultural and geographical changes in cities are closely linked to the evolution of the infrastructural system of our networks. Consequently, infrastructural networks link the system of production and the system of relations of our territories. As we have noted above, there are global trends towards different types of privatisations and liberalisation of the organisation of infrastructural networks⁸⁸.

Some of the changes that have affected the evolution of the infrastructure system in our territories:

- The intensity of connections.
- The intensity of mobility in urban life.
- New technologies.
- The duplication, extension and density of infrastructure networks.
- The speed of sophistication of the most powerful and advanced infrastructures (Urry, 1995).

Therefore, nowadays, life in cities represents the place where the demand for all resources such as water, energy, transport, communications, etc. is concentrated. The infrastructure sector in the reconstruction of our cities has assumed the greatest importance in terms of financial flows, technology and international experience.

New information technologies will link the complete reconstruction of urban forms, consumption and landscape. This builds on the parallel processes of fragmentation and recombination of urban uses and functions (Mitchell, 1999). However, the global economy will be added in the 21st century through the power of telecommunications and information processing.

⁸⁸ In ancient Rome, for example, the city's sophisticated water network was organised to supply first public fountains, then public baths and finally individual households (Graham, 2002).

The processes of urban fragmentation

"Cities are disordered by definition" (Hickey D., 1994).

The process of fragmentation of urbanism has four key underpinnings (Graham, 2002):

- *The changing role of nation-states:* First, nation-states in developed, developing and post-communist countries have largely abandoned the project of the modern infrastructural ideal with its sustainable goal of equalising living conditions on a national scale (Brenner, 1998).
- *Urban municipalities:* Second, urban economic development business planning is emerging everywhere as the key imperative of urban governance (Clarke and Gaile, 1998).
- *Infrastructure capital:* Third, in response to global moves towards liberalisation and/or privatisation, infrastructure and real estate capital is moving away from deploying general networks in cities and regions. The focus is on local infrastructural articulations for strategically favoured locations and users, mainly within metropolitan areas (Crilly, 1993, Logan 1987).
- *Corporate capital:* Finally, it is clear that corporate capital is increasingly directly involved in fostering the production of the infrastructural network spaces that best suit its international and global needs.

Thus, the result of urban fragmentation assumes different forms in different parts and cities of the world. For the description of the dialectical whole formed by different processes surrounding the parallel disaggregation of infrastructural networks and the fragmentation of urban space, we use the term "*Splintering Urbanism*" (Graham, 2002).

Territorial fragmentation

During the process of industrialisation and urbanisation of our cities, modern metropolises began to manifest elements of infrastructural fragmentation, emphasising the evolution of a centralised and standardised system (Graham, 2002). Modern metropolises have therefore become a site of innovation and a maelstrom of social, cultural and economic transformations. The elaboration of new standardised structures in networks allowed the intensification of urban life, conditioning its future development. The modern forms of our cities can be observed through the domestic consumption of natural resources. Networked infrastructures were essential to support the application of new engineering techniques based on the efficiency and modernisation of metropolitan life. The idea of modern urban planning is the integration of infrastructural networks with public spaces, industrial areas and physical cities. The dispersion of the Fordist production system imposed considerable transformations for the reconstruction of the urban infrastructural system. Both the urban landscape and the urban form have been transformed by the rapid development of infrastructure and the new culture of domestic consumption of natural

resources⁸⁹. As Brenner (2002) suggests, infrastructural policies were the central way in which national governments engaged in shaping capitalist organisations. Modernisation theory proposed a model of infrastructure development that initially focused on key cities and users (Graham, 2002). However, in modern metropolises, formal principles of composition fall short of their objective⁹⁰. The physical expansion of cities and the changing spatial organisation of regional infrastructural networks have developed new polycentric and sprawling cores. Polycentrism implies discontinuous and disjointed urban growth in the region, intensely and intrinsically interconnected. However, the landscape of many contemporary cities has been destroyed to make room for the standardisation of circulation systems in the region. As we have noted above, Los Angeles is the most relevant example of the standardisation of infrastructural systems. Mark Augè (1995) calls these places "non-places": they are fully constructed and controlled sites to support the mobility of global commodities, signs and transit travellers.

Infrastructure segmentation

New technical capabilities and technologies can facilitate the unbundling of infrastructure networks. The concept of segmentation of the integrated infrastructure into different service network elements is fundamental to understanding network unbundling.

The disintegration of networks can take three different forms:

- *Vertical segmentation*: Division of the vertically integrated infrastructure network.
- *Horizontal segmentation*: Activities are separated by market, either geographically or by service category.
- *Virtual segmentation*: Virtual unbundling offers the development of new competitive services that can effectively overlay the monopolistic elements of unbundled infrastructure networks (Graham, 2002).

About the form of disaggregation of infrastructure networks, territories will adopt different functions and segmentation processes.

Finally, we should bear in mind some of Graham's considerations on the different forms of infrastructure network management:

- I. *Integrated infrastructure*: Managed by central government or by the state utility.
- II. *Commercialised infrastructure*: Owned by the state and operated by the public. The commercialised structure is integrated into a government department and is designed according to some commercial criteria.
- III. *Delegated infrastructure*: Public ownership and private operation. The delegated structure involves the regularisation of the system and the fulfilment of the specific contractual elements related to the operation of the infrastructure.

⁸⁹ The following transformations were linked to broader strategies by national governments to maximise the infrastructural impact of the new expansion of production and consumption.

⁹⁰ The centre and the periphery are categories that today allow us to explain urban phenomena by their complexity and dynamism.

- IV. *Private infrastructure*: Privately owned and operated. Privatisation of the infrastructure system is often linked to certain minimum requirements and investments by the operating companies.
- V. *Liberalised infrastructures*: Private competitors. Infrastructure liberalisation requires unbundling and segmentation of networks to allow all multiple providers to comply with the regulatory framework in each context.
- VI. *Community infrastructure*: Provision by users with political support. These types of organisations are seen in some self-sufficient neighbourhoods or in some communities that have developed infrastructure through collaboration and cooperation.
- VII. *Informal infrastructure*: Self-financing and private provision. Limited services with extensive financial support.

Therefore, the organisation of the infrastructural system allows for multiple options that require a general project for the future of the territory. The integration or disaggregation of infrastructures leads to different results in the organisation of life in each national context and in each territory that is the object of intervention.

For this reason, processes of infrastructural unbundling are likely to drastically reconfigure and condition the relationships between cities and their infrastructural networks. Within a territory, different networks and levels of networks that are crucial for the functioning of infrastructural systems and the evolution of local territories may coexist. Undoubtedly, infrastructural networks are in a historical moment of drastic restructuring and implementation, which continue to fail to meet the objectives of sustainable development in an organisation of local rather than global networks.

"Technological and economic integration is taking place in virtually all cities, but in an extremely partial, uneven and diverse way" (Sassen, 1991).

1.6. Region and regionalisation

1.6.1. Regionalisation

"Without space for freedom, there is no reproduction" (Turco, 1984).

The definition of regionalisation presents some ambiguities in different aspects. Therefore, can regionalisation being a partition of space be considered as a collective process of production-reproduction of a system of territorial decisions?

However, regionalisation is a process or an act of aggregation, merging, and differentiation implied through its definition and understanding of the specific context of the regional object under consideration (Turco, 1984). The etymology of the term implies governing and therefore exercising power over a specific territory, which means that the term can be used to define different scales or a specific sector.

Phases in the definition of a regional foresight process

For the analysis of the region and the regionalisation of territories, we will use the contribution of Turco (1984) who proposes an investigation of the evolution of territories through these four historical stages:

1. The first phase is linked to geographical discovery, colonialism and exploration of the world. This phase is characterised by the identification of regions, the description of distinctive elements and the rapid formulation of general principles for the organisation and management of space.

2. In the next stage, geography is founded and constituted as a science through adaptive hypotheses, oriented towards the description of the resources mobilised by ascendant capitalism. While the first phase can be defined as universal, the second is undoubtedly Eurocentric (Turco, 1984).

3. The third phase has developed in a framework of "explosive" capitalism, as opposed to the "exploratory" capitalism of the second historical stage. The next historical stage can be defined by the political, economic and scientific hegemony of the United States and the new consumerist culture.

4. Economic tensions and ideological tensions in this last stage have led to a break with the dominant systems. During the evolution of capitalism and its restructuring, culture finds itself in a global crisis of ideologies and paradigms. The confusion and uncertainty of our society allow us to rethink identity, territory, nature and the rediscovery of regional geography.

The following stages allow us to observe two different types of capitalism that continue to accompany the evolution of our society to this day.

Exploratory capitalism is a philosophy of major European denominations. Constituted using ideology, adoption and discovery of natural resources. On the other hand, explosive capitalism is a philosophy of American hegemony. Explosive capitalism is rooted in the culture of consumption through market laws influencing the definition of functions in the region.

However, the crises of culture and territorial ideologies help us to reconsider the territory through its singularities, redefining the region and its functions. The reproduction of any object in the territory implies an internal and structural differentiation of its organisational ensembles. Therefore, the region can etymologically be defined as the governance and management of the territory.

The administrative fabric of the region

The simplest form of regionalisation manifests itself through a subdivision of the territory into administrative units that correspond to other networks of political-administrative power of each place in the region. For this reason, regionalisation mobilises at least five basic principles (Turco, 1984):

- *The principle of purpose:* subdivision serves to exercise domination and a set of collective functions.
- *The principle of globality:* the subdivision tends to invest the totality of the space considered, without shadows, without gaps, without imperfections.
- *The principle of centrality:* in each mesh, there is a central location, a connection to the power of the state.
- *The hierarchy principle:* a strict hierarchy is established between the centre and the parts, at multiple, clearly differentiated levels; each network depends on a network at a higher level.
- *The equivalence principle:* at a given hierarchical level, all networks are equivalent.

Undoubtedly, the formation of these basic principles and the constitution of a territorial hierarchy can be considered as much more complex historical processes than can be seen from the result. The definition of a territorial hierarchy is the consequence of a process constituted by different unforeseen events that have introduced a redefinition of the territory. However, the origin must be recognised, confirmed and legitimised by the administrative power (Turco, 1984).

Consequently, the formation of hierarchies and the division of market areas are often supported by part of an administrative process, where commercial enterprises divide their territory by the areas assigned by each territorial administration. Integrated spatial planning, therefore, involves elements of confusion between the regulation and management of social and economic life. Thus, the spatial territory is completely hierarchised through the constitution of networks that exchange different elements. Moreover, territorial hierarchisation is sometimes strongly conditioned by global processes.

The formation of the region

The formation of the territorial region is based on the new questions that arose after the Second World War within Western societies. The economic and ideological crises, the reconsideration of habitat models, the different ways of experiencing space, the spread of the media and the transformation of business strategies have all contributed to the formation of a regional space in search of a territorial identity through the idiosyncrasies of each specific place. The territory is therefore rediscovered as a source of collective and individual identity. Thus, new approaches will be related to the lived space, the sense of place and the systems of labour production.

Culture, history, environment, work, and space, all these elements contribute to the transformation and reproduction of society in the regional development orientation⁹¹. The evolution of societies and communities are the most complex elements in the processes of territorial reproduction, extending research to internal differentiation and the particularities of each context. The structuring and re-structuring of territorial differences lead to an internal structuring that allows the identification of differentiated places linked to other places. Differentiation and more or less complex links between places will lead to the formation of hierarchical networks through different cultural, economic, social, etc. flows. The organisation of administrative power is therefore identified as a fundamental element in the definition of places and the relationships between networks. The organisation of the territory will be shaped by new management areas that will represent spatial products directly related and differentiated by levels of specialisation. In conclusion, society reorganises itself through subsystems catalysed by other processes, encompassing different global and local relationships⁹².

Metropolitan regions

The peripheral and marginal areas of the regions, through the constitution of contemporary metropolises, have been impoverished and degraded by their hierarchical dependence on the metropolitan centre. The process of reducing the complexity of the territorial system is promoting new relations of dependence between the periphery and the metropolitan centre. However, the reconstruction of the urban region in our territorial model is a complex process of reinterpretation of territorial hierarchies, which can activate a double dependence between marginal places and the metropolitan centre.

The process of redefinition and reconfiguration of peripheral areas and suburbs requires complex demolition operations. The reconnection of open spaces and the reconfiguration of public space based on identity elements can be seen as an incentive to catalyse the reduction of vehicles within a framework of sustainable development. However, open spaces must be reinterpreted through new formative processes to enhance the value of the whole territory:

⁹¹ However, over time, social theories have underestimated territorial space as a social product.

⁹² The potential of local territorial systems within the organisation of the regional system will be applied to the topic of study in chapter 4 through the contributions of Turco (1988), Dematteis (1995) and Magnaghi (2000).

1. The halting of peripheral expansion processes.
2. The creation of a diffuse city.
3. Safeguarding sustainability.
4. Safeguarding historical heritage.

Therefore, safeguarding historic settlements, identifying typologies and reusing norms, allow for the development of sustainable practices to favour the respect of the identity of places. The planning project of metropolitan regions, thanks to the construction of connections and reticular interconnections, can be a central factor in the solution of conflicts between the centre and periphery. In this way, the regional project can become a strength for local territories. Wealth indicators will be associated with other welfare indicators, consisting of urban quality, the environment and the valorisation of connections as central objectives of the plan⁹³.

The centrality of places

As noted above, the concept of the centrality of places can be analysed through the hierarchisation of small towns at the regional and urban levels. The construction of networks based on the potential of small and medium-sized urbanisations can favour territorial sustainability through the constitution of the peripheral region's on territorial systems. However, the construction of the territorial system should favour urban centres that were excluded from the metropolitan area during the redefinition of our cities. The preservation and improvement of urban and territorial systems can advance the constitution of a model and a new strategy for sustainable development in geographical terms. The landscape, through new planning, can be reborn and redefine the territorial limits that mark the conflicts between centre-periphery. Building typology, building materials and construction techniques can help to develop the territory within a framework of sustainability. Places of high territorial and environmental quality constitute the urban framework through the different landscapes surrounding the urban territory. The rural landscape, the coast, the hill system, the islands and the mountains are the places that preserve the main landscape values of our territory. Therefore, the strategy of territorial planning, particularly in Europe, must focus on the recovery of the landscape and the integration of existing territorial systems for the integration of the historic sites specific to each context. The metropolitan form of places organised through the sustainable spatial planning model will favour the improvement of the quality of the environment while preserving the landscape elements that constitute our historical heritage.

The municipality in the metropolitan area

Metropolitan expansion and the forms of our metropolises no longer include only a central municipality. The creation of different municipalities has led to the redefinition of the construction elements of our historic cities. The project of reconnection and rebirth of

⁹³ However, the metropolitan regions project will be easier to implement in cities such as Seville than in the metropolitan peripheries of Barcelona.

places must provide for a project of re-foundation of municipalities to promote the social integration of citizens. However, the repositioning of territorial systems in a geographical area will depend solely on economic factors. The density of our cities and the decreasing availability of public space force us to reinterpret the historical heritage and endogenous factors of each place. The historical heritage of places, through architecture, environment, traditions and habits, can favour the renaissance of municipalities by helping local self-government through a new philosophy of civic life. Public space has always been characterised by conviviality, political life or religious events, favouring the development of local society. The creation of local societies in the metropolitan area, supported by the activities of each neighbourhood and an infrastructural and social network that constitutes the new centralities, will favour the exchange of the identities of urban collectives, diminishing the possibilities of marginalisation and social exclusion.

"THE THREE AREAS OF MUNICIPAL RESTITUTION REFER TO THE REAPPROPRIATION OF SPACE, ECONOMY AND CULTURE. THE CRITERIA FOR THE REAPPROPRIATED MANAGEMENT OF THESE THREE SPHERES ARE COMMON, I.E. THEY REFER TO THE RECONSTRUCTION OF COMMUNITY SUBJECTIVITY" (TOESCA, 1993, P.8).

For this reason, the creation of a statute of sites would recognise the municipality as the founding and organising institution of practices and rules to preserve the singularities of the historic sites of our territories. However, in some territories, the municipality founds a new entity, formed by the union of different municipalities of the region (mountain sites, agricultural sites, coastal sites, national parks, etc.). In such a way that the structures founded through the union of municipalities and developed through variable geometries bring forward new problems and new rules for the conservation of regional identities (hydrographic, environment, ecological network, production district, services, etc.).

For this reason, using the statutes of places advanced by Magnaghi (2000), we will observe how the local territory should be organised from a regional development perspective.

1.6.2. The statutes of the places

The evolution of the territory by the production of wealth has changed the role of the territory through the peculiarities of the development of each local system. The inclusion and preservation of local systems by the values of territorial heritage has become a fundamental process for the preservation and implementation of sustainable territorial development. Territorial heritage, constituted via its environmental, urban, social or economic components, must necessarily be regularised through the implementation of a statute of places that allows for the codification of the identifying characteristics of each territory. The difference between heritage (value) and resource (specific use of the value) introduces the concept of heritage durability as a condition for sustainability (Magnaghi, 2000).

Definition of the statutes of places

The radical change in the role of spatial planning in the 21st-century sets in motion the experimentation of sustainable development models. Concepts such as sustainability, relationship with the environment, and redefinition of local networks can be defined through the status of places that define the functionality and potentialities of cultural changes in spatial planning. Consequently, the status of places should be identified as a fundamental tool for the planning and development of local communities⁹⁴. Place identity identifies the structure, character and potentiality of specific places, regardless of their current and future uses for the territory. However, territorial values are affected by culture and are harnessed as resources in the production of wealth by the capitalist economy. In this way, the statutes of places are configured as an institutional act for local development, which can favour a future project that is socially shared among local communities. The valorisation of the territory and territorial heritage stimulates the development and in-depth knowledge of each heritage site⁹⁵. In this sense, the envisaging of a statute of places makes it possible to reactivate new democratic institutions that can collaborate to achieve a constitutional pact for sustainable local development. The act is part of the new practices and forms of strategic territorial planning. Strategic planning involves new medium- and long-term projects through new forms of negotiation and territorial cooperation that change over time and according to the proposals of the social actors involved.

Moreover, the construction of new strategies, the activation of new institutions and the constitution of the status of places will be part of a complex process of transformation of the functionalist territorial development model. The new roles of local municipalities in territorial governance will be configured as a set of tools for the constitution of a long-shared pact, reminiscent of its historical precedent: the medieval municipal statute (Magnaghi, 2000). However, new legislation on municipal autonomy opens the way for experimentation with new territorial statutes that introduce different forms of participation through institutions and associations for popular consultation (Porto Alegre, Barcelona⁹⁶).

The rules of transformation

The general criterion to be applied in the formation of the status of sites should aim and focus on the sustainable enhancement of territorial heritage. The valorisation of territorial heritage is considered to be the main indicator of the sustainable development of local communities. Magnaghi (2000) considers some fundamental rules for territorial development in local communities:

- Multi-sectoral and integrated standards for open spaces and agriculture.
- Standards for redevelopment, extensions, and new settlements that increase urban quality are based on supply rather than demand.

⁹⁴ The definition of a status of places cannot be separated from place and place identity (Magnaghi, 2000).

⁹⁵ The most important operation to be carried out is to identify invariants: to identify places and artefacts, areas and territorial domains, elements of material culture and anthropic signs that have not changed (Cervellati, 1991, p.83).

⁹⁶ Barcelona City Council, Citizen Participation Platform, DECIDIM, 2016: <https://www.decidim.barcelona>

- Standards aimed at the tendency to close cycles.
- Standards on materials and construction techniques.
- Methods and techniques of building, urban and rural restoration (local restoration manual).
- Methods for controlling the aesthetic quality of projects about the urban and rural landscape.
- Rules for assessing how, when, where and what productive activities to implement.

A territorial context supported by some specific rules will encourage local autonomies and promote municipalities for the activation of new social actors, helping the construction and redefinition of shared rules. The new rules, oriented towards the valorisation of the territorial heritage, open the way to new forms of community democracy and new forms of collaboration based on the sustainable development of our territories.

Strategic spatial planning scenario

The methodology for the construction of a strategic scenario for territorial planning consists of the interpretation and identification of the community's daily behaviours and practices (Lynch, 1960). However, the project implies knowledge of the territory and its evolution throughout history. The strategy should highlight existing conflicts, forms, movements and behaviours that can constitute the concrete basis for the construction of a shared strategy at all levels. By developing a vision of the different urban and territorial scenarios, with particular attention to places at risk of marginalisation, a new scenario for spatial planning will be founded. The territorial project is based on the construction of an image of the global transformation in the long term, conserving and preserving its complexity (Dematteis, 1995). The territorial planning of the strategic project aims at the construction and management of a series of systems and sub-systems between different actors who can design the territorial project using different objectives. Pilot projects, experiments, strategic programmes and others are recognised as some of the strategic models for future spatial planning. The strategic scenario must necessarily be considered as a multidisciplinary project, as it proposes a transformation consequence based on the values constituting the new model of sustainable development. The strategy is therefore founded on a cultural, socio-economic, environmental and territorial project that focuses on the image of the transformation of the territory and the natural landscape, providing new indicators and standards for new systems of production and local governance.

2. Sports mega-events and the promotion of the territory

Abstract

This chapter presents considerations about mega-events from a global development perspective. After having illustrated the different types of events, by the contributions of Roche (2000), Guala (2002), and Getz (1997), we will look at the different relationships that events can develop in different parts of the world. The chapter will analyse Olympic cities by location, population and number of participating athletes, reflecting on the globalisation of the event. The consideration of the mega-event as a catalyst for the transformations of places, through the contribution of (Kearns, Philo, 1993) we can study the promotion of places from the perspective of the phenomenon of the sale of places. The chapter continues with the contribution by Kotler (1993), who will analyse the concept of strategic management of the image of places from a global concept of strategic place image management. Finally, the chapter will analyse the urban transformations that have taken place over time in summer and winter Olympic cities. To observe the urban transformations in the host cities, the study adopts a five-phase classification advanced by the geographers Essex and Chalkey in 1998.

2.1. Mega sporting events from a global perspective

2.1.1. The different types of events

The definition of mega-event is a specific notion introduced since the first edition of the London International Exhibition in 1851. Meanwhile, the first concept of an Olympic event was created by the Greek society, which held the first edition of the Olympic Games in 776 BC. Another event that marks the history of events is the Christian Jubilee, which was held for the first time in 1300 and is still organised every 50 years. The Ancient Greek editions of the Olympic Games were indeed different events, held in different city-states, implying different religious and symbolic meanings of antiquity. After fifteen centuries of interruption, in 1896 Baron Pierre de Coubertin re-established the modern Olympic Games through new rules guaranteeing global participation. Therefore, since 1869, the modern Olympic Games have been organised every four years in different countries and cities around the world. In addition, 1924 was the starting signal for the first winter edition, which since 1992 will be organised two years after the summer edition in a different city and country.

In modern times, cities have harnessed and used mega-events to bring their social and economic role to different levels and scales. For example, the international exhibitions first held in London in 1851¹, aimed to demonstrate and promote technological progress among the more developed nations through a political role. For the first time, train and boat trips were organised to see the scientific and technological progress of the English. Until the second edition of the Olympic Games in Paris in 1900, cities and local public administrations that wanted to organise a World's Fair promoted the image of cities open to change.

By analysing these historical assumptions, mega-events can be seen in a different context that will allow the discipline of territorial marketing to advance. "*Events are scheduled or unplanned events that have a limited duration and are created for a specific purpose*" (Aiest, 1987).

One of the characteristics of mega-events is the programming and the purposes that each administration wants to acquire for the territory. The Olympic event, as in other global events, during the preparation phase, is subject to different pressures that can acquire different meanings to the Olympic project, diminishing its substantial and long-lasting potential.

Moreover, the event loses its ephemeral characteristics when the works require an undeferrable timeframe for the organisation and the predisposition of the Olympic works on the territory. Over time, the Olympic works have almost always been permanent, especially the facilities and the Olympic Villages. Therefore, the permanent occupation of

¹ The 1851 event is recognised as the world's first tourist event.

space makes it possible to implement a territorial project, unlike other ordinary projects which remain unrealisable for various reasons. However, the mega-event highlights the perspective of the city and changes the priorities of the host cities.

Other authors such as Getz (1997, 2004, 2008, 2016) have investigated events through territorial marketing strategies. In 1997 Getz identifies the concept of dynamicity of events, i.e., the ability to evolve and manifest itself in different places in the world. Getz's studies allow us to identify events in eight categories:

- Celebrations (festivals, carnivals, religious events, commemorations);
- Artistic events (concerts, other shows, exhibitions, awards ceremonies);
- Business/commercial events (trade fairs, markets, meetings, conferences, conventions);
- Sports competitions;
- Educational and scientific events (seminars, workshops, congresses);
- Recreational events (games, non-competitive sports, hobbies);
- Political/civil events (inaugurations, investitures, visits of authorities, parades);
- Private events.

The classification of events was revised by Ferrari in 2002, including different variables that affect the preparation and management of the event, as well as the territorial consequences that the event itself may generate.

So far, the event as defined until 2000, maintains a certain conceptual distance from the space of production. According to Getz, the place of the event plays an almost secondary role, favouring only the evolution of the event in time. In reality, mega-events, as Dansero suggests, "*need a space to manifest themselves*" (Dansero, 2002). Therefore, the event can be observed as a specific point in space-time.

Mega-events in contemporary society often manifest and represent the gathering and overexposure of different values that follow different logics in space-time. The city is that which provides the space, the central government is responsible for the financing of the event, the Olympic world is responsible for the organisation of the event, the local community is responsible for the acceptance of the event and the whole world is that which defines the size and magnitude of the event on a global level.

Table 1 Classification of events (Source: Ferrari, 2002, p.42)

Criterion	Ranking
Cadence	Periodic events; one-off events
Duration and timetable	One day; one month; type of day/hours
Area of attraction	Local; regional; national; international; global

Number of visitors
Type of access	Free; Paid; Partly paid
Level of media attention	Local; regional; national; international
Target audience	Young people; seniors; singles; families with children; etc. Business tourism; cultural tourism; etc. Residents; tourists Experts; non-experts Unique visitors; repeat visitors
Spatial areas of location	One zone; several zones; zones for special events; a city district
Location	One; multiple (travelling events)
Package of attractions offered	One event; one main event and a set of smaller events and other attractions; several smaller events
Services offered	Information; reservations; transportation; reception; catering; security; health; other events for entertainment, socialising or other purposes
Main objective	Increasing tourism flows; fundraising; entertainment; trade promotion; improving the image of the locality; encouraging local participation in a type of activity; philanthropic; social; other
Theme
Initiative and ownership	Promoters, creators, owners of the contents of the label
Type of organisation	Volunteers; professionals; public bodies; multiple parties; sponsors; suppliers; other
Main sources of financial resources	Audience; sponsorship; ticket sales; other
Sector	Fair; festival; congress; concert; sports competition; exhibition; meeting; religious festival; expo; commemoration; other; other
Typology	Celebrative; cultural; recreational; folkloric; labour; religious; sporting; commercial; political; fundraising; other

2.1.2. The mega-events

The definition of mega-events refers to events of short duration, unique and with a high media impact. Mega-events "*serve to enhance the awareness, attractiveness and profitability of a tourist destination in the short and/or long term*" (Ritchie, 1990,1991).

According to the contributions of Burns and Mules (1986), mega-events are considered special events: exceptional events capable of generating a large demand for services limited to a relatively short period that can attract and acquire new international funds for the development of the entire host region.

Over time, mega-events have developed into a global category within which it is possible to distinguish different aspects of their media implications. Roche (2000) advanced the classification of mega-events in consideration of the magnitude of the target market and media interest (Tab.2).

Table 2 Typology of mega-events (Source: Roche, 2002, p.4)

Type of event	Example	Target/market	Media interest
Mega-event	Expo, Olympics, World Cup, Football World Cup	Global	Worldvision
Special event	Formula 1, regional sporting events (Pan American Games, European Cup)	World, Regional, National	National and international media
Hallmarks event	National sporting events (Australian Games), big city sport festivals/events	National, Regional	National media
Community event	Local events	Regional/Local Local	Local media Newspapers

In addition, to look at mega-events in-depth, we take into account other elements provided by Guala (2002) about the magnitude and involvement of participants and the budget for the organisation of the event. The table provides an updated classification in 2015 by Guala (Tab. 3). Thanks to this double classification, we will see other elements that help us to define mega-events in depth.

Table 3 Objectives and budgets of some events (budgets defined in 2005) (Source: Guala, 2015, p.45)

Event	Participation	Initial budget (€)
Summer Olympic Games	More than 10,000 athletes Olympic family 50,000 members 7,000-8,000 journalists	3,000-4,000 million
Olympic Winter Games	2,000-2500 athletes Olympic family 30,000 members 5000 journalists	800-900 million
G7/G8	Delegations, 5000 journalists	80-100 million
European City of Culture	Tourists, journalists	100-200 million
Tall Ships race	Visitors 1,000,000	500,000 thousand euros
Euroflora (Genoa)	Visitors 800.000	has not been detected
Motor Show (Bologna)	Visitors 1,000,000	has not been detected
Exhibition of Turner and the Impressionists (Brescia)	Visitors 500.000	has not been detected
Boat show	Visitors 350,000	has not been detected

Among the division observed in table 2, *mega-events* and *hallmark events* are those types of events that have particularities and characteristics of uniqueness, prestige and value (Hall, 1989; Ritchie, 1990; Roche 1992), taking into account their funding and public attendance.

Distinctive *hallmark events* can be defined as recurring events linked to a particular place that takes advantage of and enjoys some specific elements of attraction. The *hallmark events* attract a global audience and many visitors around a particular theme². Therefore, the organisation of *hallmark events* is complex about the number of visitors and the involvement of national and international media.

On the other hand, mega-events, in terms of visitor numbers and global audience, attract a high level of interest and attention on a continental level (Short, 2008). The preparation and planning of mega-events, being so complex, requires years of preparations and a vast involvement of human and financial resources. In addition, mega-events, having a global impact, require candidate cities to be prepared to host an event of such magnitude. Therefore, the celebration of these events normally takes place in tourist cities, metropolises, and capitals that can withstand the complexity of the impact of the event (Hiller, 1998).

Host cities can use and enjoy their connecting and attracting power to leverage different existing territorial elements. Therefore, mega-events must be organised through different general objectives in order to be toted at a global level. The possibility of hosting a mega-event triggers different territorial transformations, to rebuild the host territory for the new positioning at the global level. The repositioning of host cities involves improving transport systems, accessibility, services, structures and infrastructures. Therefore, mega-events can be an excellent opportunity for host cities that need to rebuild their fabric and spatial system. Moreover, they can be an intangible opportunity for a change in the philosophy of intervention and a unique opportunity to renew themselves and propose new perspectives for future development.

However, mega-events over time have suffered and continue to suffer crises about the specific historical phase. For example, the World's Fair has to transform itself to face a crisis that manifested itself in Seville and Hannover. On the other hand, the Olympic Games, after Montreal, have had to change their business model in order not to disappear again. The 1984 Los Angeles Olympics can be considered a turning point in history, described as the first Olympics to be planned and organised with private funding, mainly based on new sponsorship income and the sale of television rights. These two events have been, and continue to be, at odds with each other over time on common themes that allow the World's Fair and the Olympic Games to be linked.

² Examples: the Cannes Film Festival, the Oscar ceremony, the Sanremo Festival, the Turin Book Fair, the Perugia Jazz Festival, etc.

Through the contribution of Roche (2000), it can be seen how the Universal Expositions served as a great inspiration for the creation and re-establishment of the Olympic Games by Baron de Coubertin. The first editions of the Olympic Games (Paris 1900, London 1908) took place in the same year as the World's Fair, including some of the rituals such as the opening and closing ceremonies. According to this interpretation, many 21st century events are products of the Expo and the Olympic Games. Local events continue to draw inspiration from the mega-events to reproduce their philosophy and transmit their intangible values to the local community.

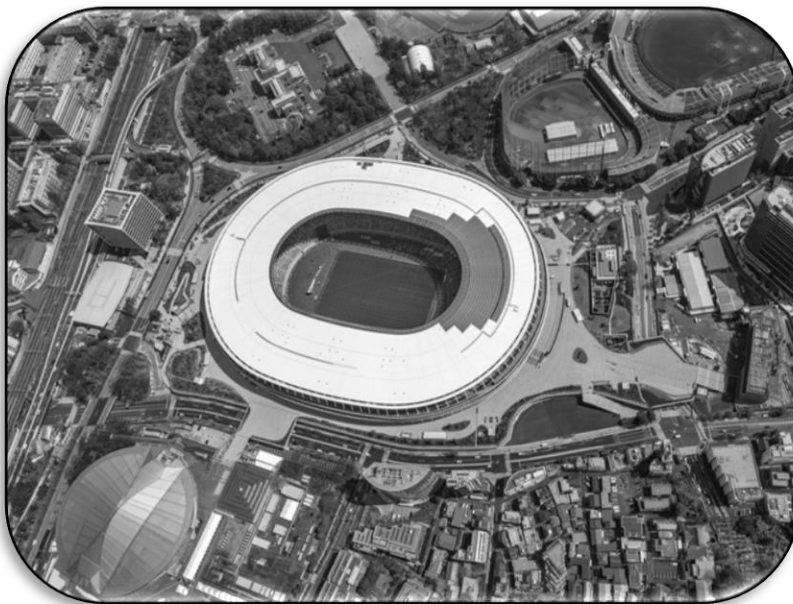


Figure 10 Japan National Stadium, Tokyo 2020 (Source: CC)

2.1.3. The Olympic map

As we have seen in the preceding paragraph, mega-events such as the World's Fair and the Olympic Games have developed through totally different geopolitical dynamics. The Expo was born in the 19th century and was developed in a bourgeois and colonising context. The World's Fair was intended to demonstrate and communicate the economic power of states through trade and technological progress. The chosen cities became new urban symbols that encouraged intense competition between the world's capitals, to the point of creating a body to regulate the organisation of the event (*the Bureau International des Expositions*).

The expositions can therefore be defined as an event that serves to boost new economic flows in the host cities. Over time, the cities that have hosted Universal Expos have tried to enter into the global city networks outlined by Professor Sassen (1991). On the other hand, the modern Olympic Games were born in 1896 and developed in a bourgeois context with Baron Pierre de Coubertin as the first sponsor of the revival of the Games. The Olympic Games were intended to raise awareness and communicate messages of fraternity, effort, loyalty and participation through sport. Over time, the

chosen cities have become new urban symbols that have encouraged competition between states, to the point of boycotts by the world's major economic powers.

Therefore, the Olympic Games can be defined as a geopolitical event that serves to boost new economic flows and media exposure of the Olympic city around the world. The network of Olympic cities is made up of "nodes" (the selected and excluded localities) and "networks" (the different relational flows that the nodes activate) (Dansero, 2002). The map representing the "nodes" generates an "Olympic map" where the large metropolises of the developed countries can be observed. "*The countries that have hosted the Olympic Games belong to the usual G7*" (Dansero, 2002).

It is necessary to say that in 1924 the Olympic Games were transformed into two completely different events: the summer edition and the winter edition. Since 1992, the two editions have become two different events organised every two years. As a result, the IOC has been able to expand its influence and magnitude throughout the world. However, there are still some differences between the two types of events. A summer edition is an event for the world's major metropolises, while the winter edition requires cities with a minimum climate, temperature and altitude for the competitions.

Therefore, the Olympic map and nodes have been expanded only on a few occasions, when geo-economic reasons and the phenomena of geographical expansion of trade have prevailed (Tokyo 1964, Moscow 1980, Seoul 1988, Sydney 2000, Beijing 2008, Sochi 2014, Rio 2016, PyeongChang 2018, Tokyo 2020, Beijing 2022). Tables 4 and 5 show the editions of the Olympic Games held to date, the population of the city and the athletes participating in the summer and winter editions.

Table 4 Population and athletes of the editions of the Winter Olympic Games (Own implementation)

<i>EDITION</i>	POPULATION OF THE CITY	ATHLETES	% POB/ATL
<i>OSLO 1952</i>	447.000	694	0,16%
<i>SQUAW VALLEY 1960</i>	4.000	665	16,63%
<i>INNSBRUCK 1964</i>	100.000	1091	1,09%
<i>GRENOBLE 1968</i>	180.000	1158	0,64%
<i>SAPPORO 1972</i>	1.000.000	1006	0,10%
<i>INNSBUCK 1976</i>	117.000	1123	0,96%
<i>LAKE PLACID 1980</i>	5.000	1072	21,44%

<i>SARAJEVO 1984</i>	448.000	1272	0,28%
<i>CALGARY 1988</i>	640.000	1423	0,22%
<i>ALBERTVILLE 1992</i>	20.000	1801	9,01%
<i>LILLEHAMMER 1994</i>	23.000	1737	7,55%
<i>NAGANO 1998</i>	361.000	2176	0,60%
<i>SALT LAKE 2002</i>	174.348	2399	1,38%
<i>TURIN 2006</i>	900.000	2508	0,28%
<i>VANCOUVER 2010</i>	603.400	2566	0,43%
<i>SOCHI 2014</i>	364.000	2780	0,76%
<i>PYEONGCHANG 1918</i>	43.600	2833	6,50%
<i>BEIJING 2022</i>	19.638.000	2871	0,01%
<i>MEDIA</i>	1.392.686	1.732	3,78%
<i>MAX</i>	19.638.000	2.871	21,44%
<i>MIN</i>	4.000	665	0,01%

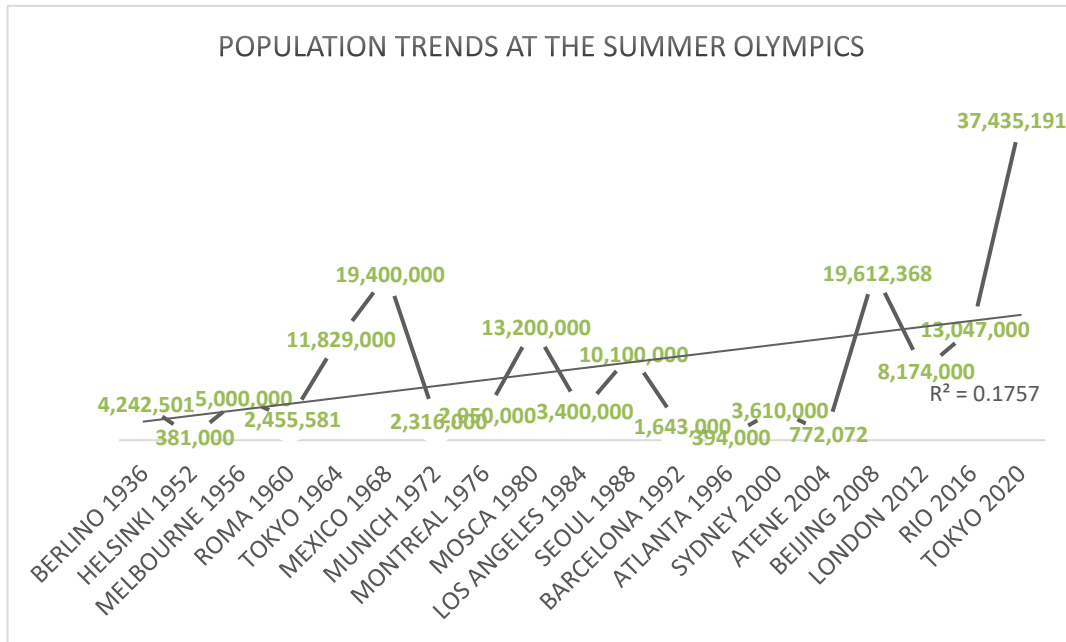


Figure 11 Evolution of the population in the summer Olympics (Own implementation)

Figure 11 allows us to observe the evolution of the population in the summer towns, which since 1936 and up to 2020 has evolved by 17.57%.

Table 5 Population and athletes of the editions of the Summer Olympics (Source: Own implementation)

<i>EDITION</i>	POPULATION OF THE CITY	ATHLETES	% POB/ATL
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	4.242.501	3963	2,20%
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	381.000	4955	4,24%
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	5.000.000	3155	0,19%
<i>ROME 1960</i>	2.455.581	5338	0,17%
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	11.829.000	5151	0,03%
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	19.400.000	5516	0,07%
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	2.316.000	7134	0,31%
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	2.950.000	6084	0,21%
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	13.200.000	5179	0,04%
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	3.400.000	6829	0,20%

<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	10.100.000	8391	0,08%
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	1.643.000	9356	0,57%
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	394.000	10318	2,62%
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	3.610.000	10651	0,30%
<i>ATHENS 2004</i>	772.072	10625	1,38%
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	19.612.368	10942	0,07%
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	8.174.000	10567	0,13%
<i>RIO 2016</i>	13.047.000	11238	0,09%
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	37.435.191	11000	0,03%
<i>MEDIA</i>	8.419.038	7705	0,68%
<i>MAX</i>	37.435.191	11238	4,24%
<i>MIN</i>	381.000	3155	0,03%

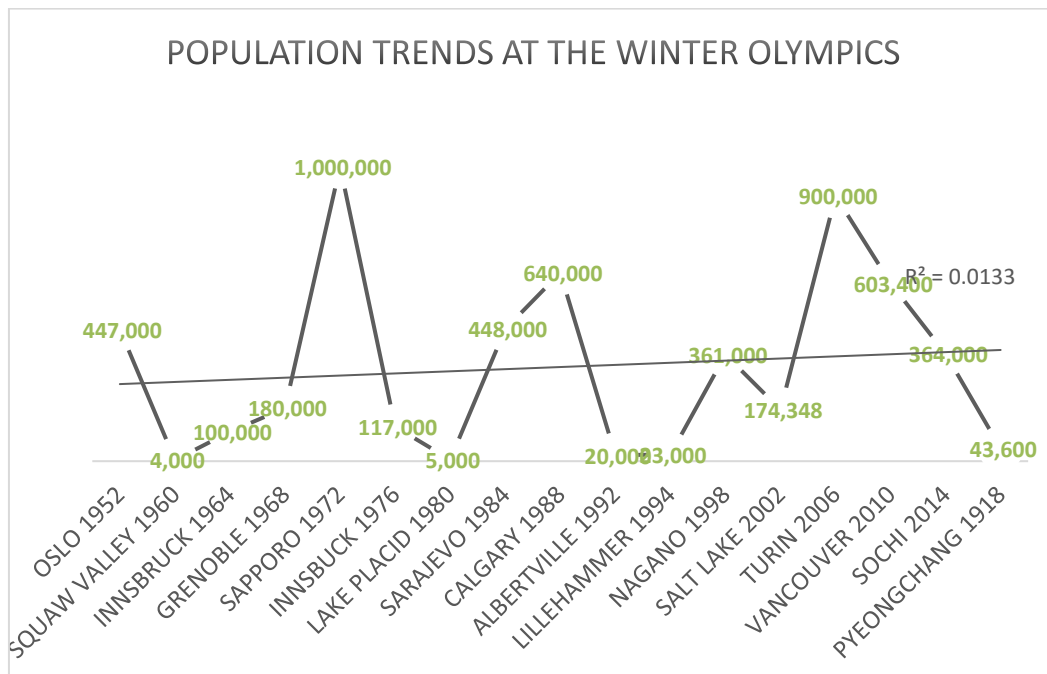


Figure 12 Evolution of the population at the Winter Olympic Games (Own implementation)

On the other hand, figure 12 shows how the evolution of the population in winter towns from 1952 to 2018 has evolved by 1.33%.

Subsequently and thanks to the contribution of Flyvbjerg (2012) we can observe the costs and the increase in organisational expenditure from 1960 to 2012.

Games	Country	Type	Final Actual cost, billion USD
London 2012*	UK	Summer	14.8
Vancouver 2010	Canada	Winter	2.3
Beijing 2008	China	Summer	5.5
Torino 2006	Italy	Winter	4.1
Athens 2004	Greece	Summer	3.0
Salt Lake City 2002	USA	Winter	2.3
Sydney 2000	Australia	Summer	4.2
Nagano 1998	Japan	Winter	2.3
Atlanta 1996	USA	Summer	3.8
Lillehammer 1994	Norway	Winter	1.9
Barcelona 1992	Spain	Summer	11.4
Albertville 1992	France	Winter	1.9
Calgary 1988	Canada	Winter	1.0
Sarajevo 1984^	Yugoslavia	Winter	0.01
Lake Placid 1980	USA	Winter	0.4
Montreal 1976	Canada	Summer	6.0
Grenoble 1968	France	Winter	1.0

Table 6 Final actual costs related to the Olympics 1960-2012, USD (Source: Flyvbjerg, 2012, p.13)

Continent	Summer Olympics	Winter Olympics	Total
North America	5	6	11
Central and South America	2		2
Asia	5	5	10
Australia	2		2
Africa			0
Europe	16	13	29
TOTAL	30	24	54

Table 7 Organisation of the Olympic Games in the world (Source: Own implementation) (The table does not include the assigned editions of Paris 2024, Milan-Cortina 2026, Los Angeles 1928, Brisbane 2032).

Finally, table 7 shows the world geography of the Olympic Games and how it does not respect the globality of the event and the philosophy of exporting the Olympic model around the five continents. For example, Africa never could host an Olympic event, and for the time being, it will continue to do so, as in recent years the Olympic event has been transferred eastwards to return in 2024 to Europe after London 2012. For the first time in Olympic history, five consecutive Olympic Games were held outside Europe. The growing number of disciplines, new sports and athletes has brought new uncertainties for the future of the Olympic event in Europe. The choice of Olympic cities in Europe follows the models of the consumer society, supported by the main Olympic sponsors. The mediatisation of the event and the growth of private funding have distorted the Olympic model around the world, transforming the immaterial symbols and meanings that were at the heart of Baron de Coubertin's Olympic philosophy. Having said this, in the next section we will analyse the role of local communities during the organisation and hosting of the mega-event.

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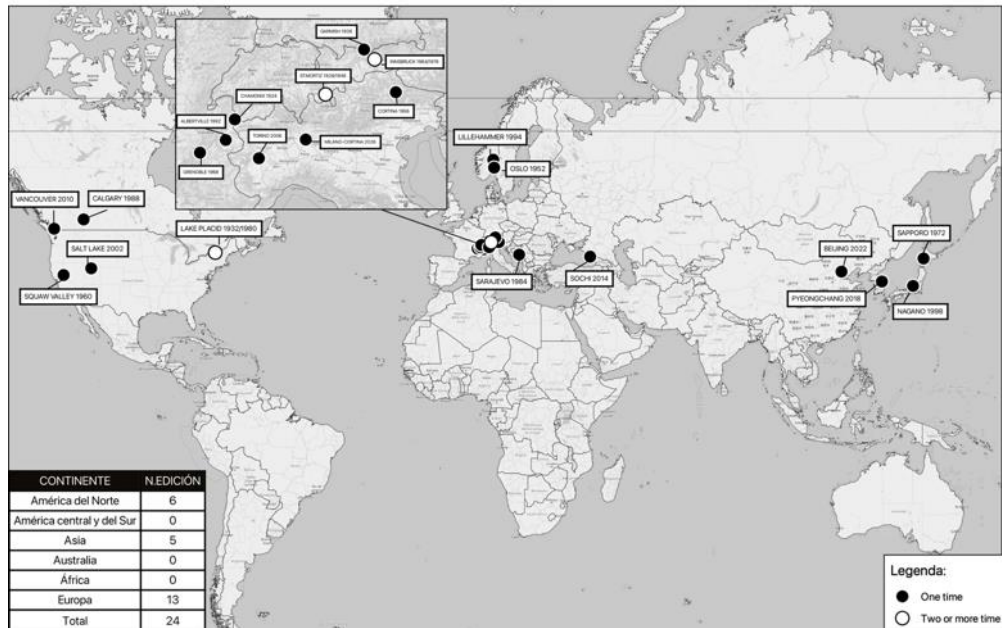


Figure 14 Map of the Winter Olympic Games (Source: Own implementation) (The map includes the assigned editions Milan-Cortina 2026)

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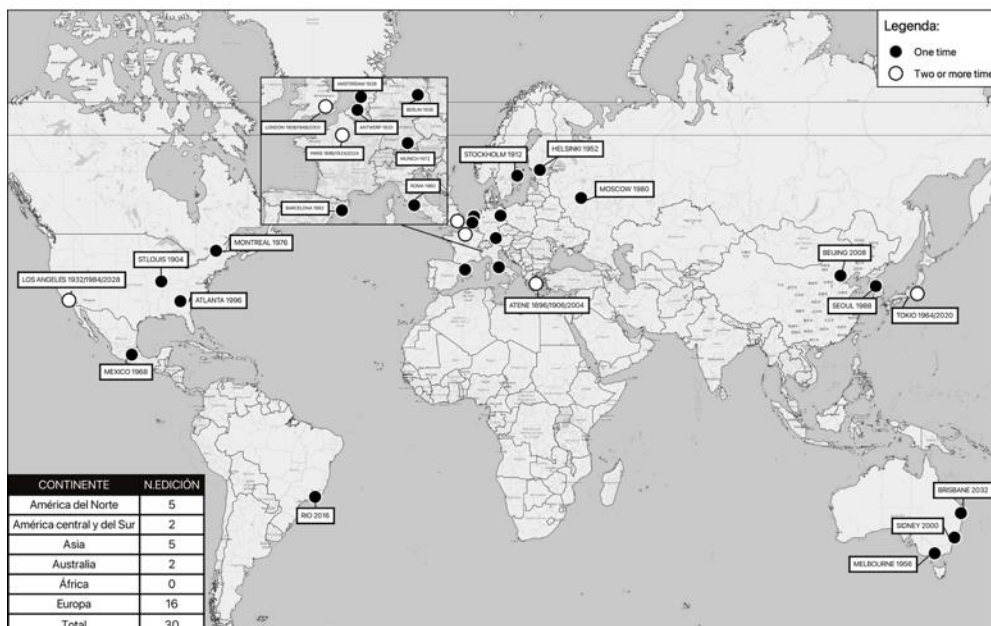


Figure 13 Map of the Summer Olympics (Source: Own implementation) (The map includes the assigned editions of Paris 2024, Los Angeles 1928, Brisbane 2032).

2.1.4. The role of local communities in mega-events

As we have analysed above, the Olympic Games can be seen as an exogenous phenomenon that takes advantage of the territory to manifest itself and develop new processes of local territorialization. The mega-event should be seen as a complex mechanism that involves the involvement of global elites and falls disproportionately on local elites. The general perception is that the mega-event turns a chosen place into a "commonplace" (Dansero, 2002, 2014) for the use and consumption of sponsors, the International Olympic Committee and the media.

However, each edition has its particularities and specificity. In addition, the event space keeps changing and expanding over the editions. The IOC tries to standardise the processes and phenomena of the event, but each venue has its own identity and morphology, making them incomparable over time.

The Olympic event can be understood as a global phenomenon that provokes different productions in each specific place, incorporating itself into a global homologation order.

Local strategies must find a meeting point for the reduction of land consumption and the production of new values and opportunities for the target territory. The local context, being the venue of the event, should be considered as the main actor for the possible relapse of the Olympic effects in the post-Olympic period. Analysing the territory and focusing on shared objectives seems to be the only accessible option for the implementation of local development processes that can rebuild and improve our cities through national pride. The Olympic Games, like the World's Fair, seek to promote developments in the field of technology through sports facilities, equipment, structures and infrastructures. The choice of the sites chosen to host the Olympic event must be widely shared by the local actors. In this context, the possibility of proposing surveys and conferences is introduced to encourage the information and involvement of citizens in the bidding process. The following activities presuppose the existence and validity of a local elite adequately equipped both to filter the homologating tendency of the event and to interpret the needs for change in the territory in the long term (Scamuzzi, 2002).

Local actors must consider and recognise the territory as a set of tangible and intangible resources that can be exploited thanks to the mega-event. Furthermore, the territory, in the post-Olympic period, will have to integrate and relate to global networks.

Spatial transformations on a global scale require additional financial resources to be provided by the central government in a project of new territorial connections and interconnections. The world's cities and major metropolises cannot implement works and infrastructures without strong and shared support from the central government.

In addition, the planning of the event must take into account real estate interests and speculation on the sale of the land chosen for the construction of the Olympic venues³.

Roche (2000) summarises some of the instrumental uses of the Olympic event for the world's elite:

- The mega-event can be interpreted as a "theatre of power" for the promotion of dominant ideologies.
- The mega-event can be used to define a change of strategy.
- The mega-event can serve as a continuation of a past heritage.

Therefore, the mega-event can be used for the reconstruction and redefinition of the territory.

The following instrumental use has allowed cities such as Rome, Tokyo, Barcelona and Turin to redefine their territory through the predisposition of Olympic works. Today, this model does not seem to be used due to its enormous complexity and the effort involved on the part of central governments. Moreover, the growth of the "no Olympic" movements has made the bidding process and the promotion of the major metropolises more complex.

The case of Barcelona 1992 is emblematic from the point of view of urban regeneration and the global repositioning of the city as a brand. The Barcelona project carried out some ambitious urban operations to open its doors and its coastline to the whole world. A change in the urban hierarchy has definitively transformed the territory and space of the Catalan capital. In addition, a series of events, such as the Forum of Culture in 2004, has made it possible to continue with a progressive urban renewal that continues to this day. However, the exploitation of the city at a global level has meant greater security for local actors in securing and acquiring new global events. The inclusion of the Olympic city in a global network can be an extraordinary opportunity for the city and its citizens. The definition and planning of a wider project can allow for a general improvement of services and facilities while respecting the real needs of the citizens.

The timing of the event leads to stratification and centralisation of endogenous forces over a period of 10 to 15 years around a single objective: to prepare all the works for the Olympic event. The centralisation of national forces to comply with the IOC rules will slow down the ordinary progress of the Olympic Games and will dispense a lot of resources for the execution of the Olympic works.

Mega-events indeed have a destabilising effect on the day-to-day management of the territory and the execution of infrastructure works. Moreover, the management of the event requires different plans for the organisation of the Olympic event:

³ The analysis of these dynamics can be deepened through the *growth machine* model.

- Application process.
- Pre-event planning.
- Organisation and execution of the event.
- Post-event planning and organisation.

The post-event planning and organisation phase is the stage where the permanent effects of the spatial and social transformations induced by the event on the local community will be observed.

2.1.5. Mega-events and the transformation of places

The organisation of a mega-event creates new expectations and concerns in the local territory. The Olympic event should be observed through two different visions: a local vision, as a useful opportunity to establish new local synergies and alignment of very ambitious territorial projects without Olympic funding; and a global vision, as an opportunity to create new infrastructures and sports facilities to achieve new opportunities about development and the improvement of citizens' well-being. In addition, the attraction of extraordinary financial resources can serve as a driving force for a new image of the city on a global stage, which would otherwise be impossible.

This double vision can be interpreted as a project scale that represents some critical nodes that are mainly linked to the territory and to the major territorial transformations, fundamental to hosting the mega-event. Moreover, over the years, the issue of environmental impact has been established as the third fundamental element for the development of the Olympic territories. The potential negative economic, social and image-related repercussions observed in Montreal, Sochi, and Rio, have led to these cities receiving much criticism from the international community and continue to be the subject of debate⁴. However, the overemphasis on the event can lead to increased costs and overestimation of the capacity of the venues. In addition, the lack of consideration of local priorities and social requirements has profoundly transformed the city selection process. The IOC is now, for the first time in its history, selecting cities that propose an average percentage of 90% of temporary or existing venues⁵. This new development model has changed the transformations of Olympic venues through the mega-event. The preference for cities already equipped or with possibilities to take advantage of temporary technology will be the dominant strategy for the next 20 years as far as the future of the Olympic event is concerned. Thus, the great territorial transformations of the 20th century were related to industries, whereas the territorial transformations of the 21st century have become a phenomenon closely linked to mega-events as it is considered an acceleration process for the host site.

⁴ In recent years, the IOC has received a lot of criticism regarding the costs and uses of Olympic facilities in the post-Olympic period.

⁵ The new IOC rules were published in 2018 and the first city chosen with the next update was Brisbane 2032.

The Olympic Games, like the Expo, contribute significantly to leaving symbols, monuments and heritage in the places hosting the event. The Palais de Cristal and the Eiffel Tower for the World's Fair, the ski jumping slope in Oslo, the Stadium in Beijing and the Olympic Villages in Munich are some of the symbols of the urban transformations linked to the mega-events. However, sometimes symbols can be temporary, as was the case with the *Medal Plaza*⁶ in Turin, which remains a fundamental piece in the memory of the citizens.

Therefore, the objectives of the organisers may be different, but urban change due to mega-events is certainly an effect that was observed from the beginning and that has manifested itself through different types of urban impacts on the host territory.

The contribution of the geographers Essex and Chalkey (Essex, Chalkley, 1998) allows us to observe the different transformation processes that have emerged over the years and in their different phases. Phases 7 and 8 were added to update the contribution of the geographers to new events observed over the years.

1. *Zero impact*→ The first editions of the Olympic Games being organised in a single sports facility did not generate significant urban transformations. Existing sports facilities were used.
2. *At the turn of the century*→, The Olympic Games of this period provided new sports facilities with limited impact and for the first time, in Los Angeles, the first accommodation structure for Olympic athletes was built.
3. *Olympic gigantism*→ After the Second World War the impact of the Olympic Games started to become more significant in terms of the number of sports facilities and Olympic districts with new transport systems attached. The increase in urban transformations achieved different results and the first failures such as Melbourne and Montreal began to be observed. On the other hand, cities such as Oslo, Rome, Tokyo, Mexico City and Munich took advantage of the facilities and infrastructure developed for the mega-event as an accelerator of processes that were included in their development plans.
4. *The way out of the Olympic crisis*→ The increase in the size of the Olympic works and the failure of Montreal opened a period of crisis that ended only with the success of the Los Angeles edition in 1984, an edition that will be remembered in history as the first to be developed through temporary financing and which used university facilities and accommodation. At that historic moment, the IOC introduced the top sponsor programme, to increase funding for the Olympic movement and not allow the event to disappear as it had done in the past. The success of the Los Angeles event opened the door to the commercialisation and globalisation of the Olympics.
5. *Expansion to new markets*→ The Seoul edition sought to accelerate cultural and economic processes through profound transformations to meet Western standards.

⁶ For the first time in Olympic history, Turin's Olympic Square was planned on a site outside the Olympic Village.

Seoul (1988) took advantage of the Olympic opportunities to adapt and improve its urban infrastructure.

6. *Urban metamorphosis* → The 1990s were inaugurated with the Barcelona Olympic Games, which to this day remain a model and an example of the use of mega-events as a catalyst for urban transformation and renewal. The experiences of Sydney and Turin follow the same principles of the Barcelona model with the addition of elements of environmental impact and sustainability.
7. *The Olympic Village as a central element of Olympic urban planning* → The editions of Turin, Beijing, London, Sochi and Rio have provided an opportunity to reflect on Olympic accommodation and the issue of housing in the 21st century. These years are represented by different housing projects with mixed functions through the support of new sporting and sustainable neighbourhoods. At the same time, they have allowed for a debate on the issue of housing and the construction of new sports neighbourhoods.
8. *The temporary event* → New criticism regarding the size of the Olympic project and housing has caused a new crisis for the IOC. The development of associations against the Olympic event and the decrease of free space in the candidate cities has led to an inflexion in the demand for bidding to host the Olympiad. In addition, the infrastructural costs observed in Sochi and Rio have been criticised for their uselessness in the post-Olympic period. The disuse and neglect of sports facilities and the Olympic Village that emerged in Rio undoubtedly changed the focus of the event over time. In 2017⁷ for the first time in Olympic history, the IOC allocated the Summer Olympics directly to cities that have hosted the Olympics in the past (Paris and Los Angeles), taking advantage of the reuse of existing sports facilities and relying on temporary structures. This organisational change has introduced new elements in the allocation phase of the Olympics that continue to transform the event into something ephemeral for the citizens. Therefore, the mega-event will take advantage of the urban space in a temporary way without leaving a material legacy in the city as was observed in winning editions such as Oslo, Rome, Tokyo, Barcelona, Sydney, Turin and London.

After having observed the different transformation processes that have emerged over the years, in the following section, we will look at the mega-events from the perspective of a tool for the promotion of territories and Olympic sites.



Figure 15 Medal Plaza in Turin 2006 (Source: CC)

⁷ The Lima session in 2017 was a pivotal moment for the organisation and planning of future Olympic editions.

2.2. Mega-events from the perspective of territorial promotion

Territorial promotion is a phenomenon that involves and has extensions in different economic and social activities carried out by individuals and organisations that manage places (Kearns, Philo, 1993). Places can be urban, peripheral, rural or regional areas.

The promotion of places is a phenomenon that first appeared in the western world and then developed at the end of the 20th century in many cities in underdeveloped and eastern countries. Territorial promotion makes it possible to adopt different strategies to promote different models of development in places. Size, economics, history, habits and morphology are some of the factors to be considered in the promotion of the territory.

The concept of "*territorial marketing*" in recent years has produced some references that we will take as a basis for our analysis: Logan and Molotch, *Urban Fortunes* (1987); Kotler, *Marketing place* (1993); Kear and Philo, *Selling place* (1993); Ward, *Selling place* (2000).

The strategy of promoting places involves different forms of organisation and participation of public and private subjects. Public and private bodies strive to sell the image of a specific geographically defined place, usually a city, to make it attractive to economic enterprises, tourists and even the inhabitants of that place (Harvey, 1991). One of the main objectives of territorial promotion is to stimulate companies to establish themselves in that place and to promote it in terms of tourism so that constant capital investment can be ensured to create jobs and new activation of the local economy. Thus, since Barcelona 1992, the Olympic Games have been transformed by an essentially economic logic for the sale of the sites as a global brand. The selling of places involves conscious and deliberate manipulation of culture to increase the attractiveness and interest of places (Kearns, Philo, 1993). On the other hand, the promotion and manipulation of places depend on the promotion of traditions, habits, lifestyles, architecture, art and supposedly the places themselves. In this sense, the selling of places is manipulated due to the implication of a series of values and objectives related to events, exhibitions and other cultural activities that have no necessary association with the specific place and could therefore be considered inauthentic and ephemeral (Larson, 2009). Considering the importance of the history of places in the process of citizens' self-identification, it is inevitable to consider the specific heritage to manipulate the event about the context territory.

Therefore, the promotion of places focuses on culture, history and capital, and the complicated way in which these elements are mixed in the phenomenon of selling places (Kearns, Philo, 1993).

2.2.1. The promotion of places

The promotion of places in the 21st century has become a fundamental element in the promotion of contemporary urban societies. This can be seen as a social and economic opportunity in the wild jungle of the capitalist market and consumer society. Thus, places become products or commodities. History, culture and economics make some places more attractive than others and can be marketed about the demand and supply of global tourism (Montanari, 2002). The promotion of places is embedded in a physical and cultural transformation of the host places. Most post-industrial cities have become products to be sold in different markets interested in that specific place. There is a direct sense of selling the postmodern city, which involves the deliberate creation of cultural-historical packages. More or less obvious combination of cultural and historical elements to produce marketable products, such as theme parks (Sorkin, 1992), the simulation of past rituals or events. The promotion of place in an indirect way involves subtle promotion with cultural and historical materials in the production of what are supposed to be attractive, pleasant and uplifting environments (Kearns, Philo, 1993). From this starting point, the modern city is an excessive decontextualization of the cultural, historical and social heritage of places, in a local context.

In the 21st century, it is crucial to consider all types of memory associated with the different local contexts that recall the history and culture-specific of each people. The manipulation of the culture and history of places will undoubtedly bring economic benefit to some of those concerned. The inclusion of local peculiarities and specificities in a planning strategy favours territorial promotion without undermining the history and culture of places.

2.2.2. Reconstructing the image of industrial cities

Since the 1980s, place promotion, first in the United States and then in Europe, has become a core activity in place redevelopment, making the redevelopment project more complex and involving more professionalised resources to compete with other places. Today, land marketing in the United States is a multi-million dollar industry, as a growing number of consultants and public relations firms specialise in tourism, advertising and selling cities, states, retirement communities and resorts (Holcomb, 1990). The main objective of place marketing is to build a strategy to develop a new image of places and to replace the old negative images left by *Fordism*.

Industrial cities mainly use this tool to build a new image that can replace the old negative images, seeking to create new ephemeral images preferred by the market. Industrial cities in the 21st century have restructured themselves to develop a new service economy in the post-industrial era.

Glasgow is recognised as the first major post-industrial project that allowed the city to build a new image within the world of events (Garcia, 2005). Barcelona, Turin, Milan and

London are some of the Olympic cities that have used mega-events to build a new post-industrial image of the city in the global perception. The packaged image of the promoted venues reflects the aesthetic tastes of postmodern society. As Harvey anticipated, aesthetics has triumphed over ethics as the main focus of social and intellectual concerns (Harvey, 1991).

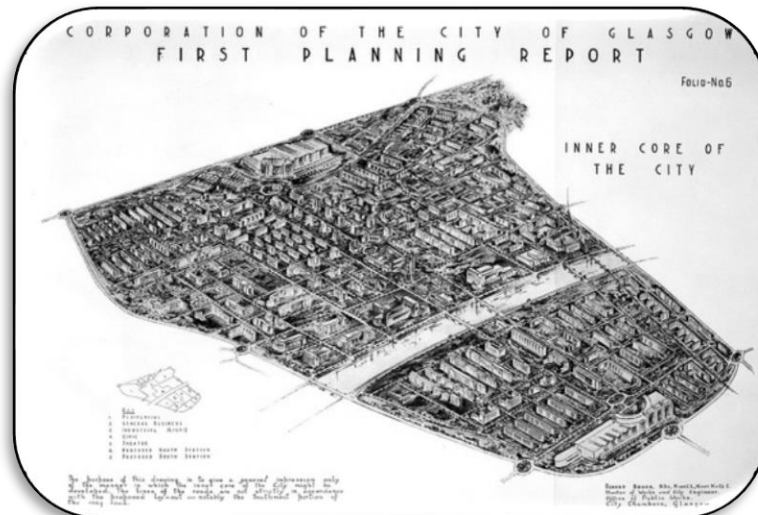


Figure 16 Bruce Plan of Glasgow (Source: Glasgow Corporation's First Planning Report, March 1945)

For many authors such as Sennett (1987), Sorkin (1992), Sassen (2018) Davis (2015), the city of Los Angeles is the paradigm of the myth of a city in constant change that has helped to fuel the material transformations of the landscape, the image of the city and has shaped its metropolitan transformations. Los Angeles is an excellent example of how real estate, cultural and economic speculation is inevitably embedded in large-scale urban development.

Therefore, it is considered that economic, cultural and political processes have been organised through different strategies for the promotion and commercialisation of urban space.

"A given built environment expresses specific patterns of production and reproduction, consumption and circulation, and as these patterns change, so does the geographical pattern of the built environment" (Smith, 1996). Therefore, the urban and social space of any city is constantly changing, introducing new forms and structures that abandon the historical forms of places (Gehl, 2006). Both physical and metaphysical processes of transformation are constantly changing, producing new modifications to a particular space for a new system of production and consumption of places. *Canary Wharf* in London is one of the first projects in the 1980s driven by the reconstruction of financial services through private funding and public subsidies. Today, *Canary Wharf* has regained its central role in the metropolitan city, promoting the project as an example of post-industrial

development, privileging private objectives and property speculation. In such a way, the architecture of places has once again become a new form of advertising the processes of redevelopment and promotion of places (Muñoz, 2015). In recent years, *archistar* mega-projects have become catalysts for other processes.

While the advertising of places indicates a specific geographical context, architectural forms are permanently inscribed in a precise place, feeding the desires of consumers.



Figure 17 Canary Wharf, 2022 (Source: CC)

Venturi (1966) advised architects to concentrate on decorating the surface of buildings, turning the environment into a huge advertising space displaying images and symbols selected by the architects. According to Venturi, architecture should be seen as the essence of symbolic manipulation rather than the production of forms.

Thus, in the modern era, architecture is seen as an effective instrument for social, cultural and economic change that satisfies citizens on a visual level (Charlesworth, 2005).

2.2.3. Towards an ephemeral city

The ephemeral city is identified in the lack of a global vision and collaborative strategies, characterising the postmodern city through a proliferation of different nodes and symbols (Soja, 2000). Cities have been transformed into a set of closed architectures that are designed as autonomous entities, each projecting different values and symbols within the city⁸. The consummated space produces a selectivity of functions and social uses. In such a way, areas are transformed into places of architectural spectacle where aesthetics are more important than function and integration into urban planning (Zukin, 1991). Modern cities become imaginary cities that are visually stimulating and reflect post-modern aesthetics by their power to re-urbanise entire areas, regardless of the landscape context.

⁸ Muñoz (2008) in his concept of "*Urbanisation*", advances some patterns for interpreting urban plans, describing them as: non-cities, banal cities, deprived of specific identity, submerged in individualism, based on speculation.



Figure 19 Louvre Abu Dhabi (Source: CC)



Figure 18 Poble Nou, Barcelona (Source: Personal archive)

2.2.4. Mega-events and city promotion

As we have observed in the preceding chapters, entertainment, culture and services are key components for the successful reconstruction of the image of post-industrial cities. The attraction of tourists and the free promotion of athletes and members involved⁹ in the organisation of mega-events have become central elements of the new urban economy founded on services. In addition, mega-events can be promoters of a change in the perception of places through global audience and media coverage. However, not all cities can profit from the promotion of venues. In some cases, the place promotion strategy can enhance national perceptions of the specific place, favouring other benefits related to place promotion. Thus, since the 21st century, cities have started to bid for mega-events to promote venues through Olympic bids. The promotion of Olympic cities that will not ultimately host the Olympic Games has become another possibility for cities to rebuild and promote a new image of places through the bid alone (Muñoz, 2011). Virtually all contemporary metropolises have important cultural attractions, such as museums, galleries, theatres, facilities, and sand stadiums, which are the legacy of the bidding process or the legacy of the hosted events.

Regarding the cultural promotion of places, the organisation of sporting events in large contemporary metropolises has enjoyed a much higher level of interest than traditional cultural promotion. However, sporting events with a popular dimension make it easier for administrations to justify interventions at the local level (Smith, 2012).

As has been observed in many cities, business investments and sports programmes can enhance the city's image in the global competition of venues. In addition, the global size of sporting events helps administrations and businesses to reinforce their commitment to the venues through key interventions to host the event. The media coverage and broad marketing of the event ensure that the city's name receives broad media exposure that could not be achieved through other types of events. In the United States, cities and sports teams are strongly linked to the promotion of symbolic places that are transformed by the franchise. Thus, teams were built where the name of the place was only part of the team's identification, but without losing the team's identity. On the other hand, in Europe, the teams have been incorporated into the tourist promotion of the city in a generalised image of the places. Despite these important differences between countries, the power of attraction of mega-events is very similar all over the world. Therefore, it is safe to say that, even if nominations rise and fall depending on the allocation process, sports and mega-events will maintain or increase their importance in selling and promoting the post-industrial city. As for the contents concerning the promotion of the city, we can only hope and wish for conscious exploitation by the organisers of the different dimensions that make up the city and the territories. The essence of reinvention consists of a process of change in

⁹ Sydney in 2000, to promote the Olympic sites, organised two weeks of free trips for the top 500 managers in the world, offering different activities and visits.

existing perceptions through other values and symbols that will be instilled in the collective image of places.



Figure 20 The temporary Champ de Mars will host beach volleyball competitions (Source: ©Paris 2024)

2.2.5. Local pride

One of the most important aspects of place promotion is local approval and enthusiasm in new host cities¹⁰. The concern to provide global projects that respect local scales is one of the most interesting issues in recent years about territorial marketing. Residents in the city and nearby local communities are those consumers who can ensure long-term exploitation and positive results (Chen, 2013). The organisation of a mega sporting event such as the Olympic Games bases its engagement with local communities on proposing a bid that is widely accepted and that engages with local associations to create common strategies for the organisation of the event. However, over time, we have observed different projects and different results, which sought local complicity and effort for the commitment to the post-industrial revaluation of the territories. The promotion of the new image of the post-industrial city must be approved by the general population for the creation of new strategies that can be implemented in the post-event period. However, the new territorial marketing model is in total contrast to the industrial model. The post-industrial city model observed in the United States is still seductive for local organisers. *“Post-industrial city marketing is essentially an American invention”* (Ward, 1998).

Nowadays, territorial marketing can only target specific social groups with an ethnic targeting approach. This type of ultra-segmentation strategy is leading to new changes in the organisation of mega sporting events.

¹⁰ For example, the participation of citizens in volunteering is a fundamental element for the acceptance of the event in the host community. In Barcelona there were 40,000 volunteers, never before in 1992 had there been such a high level of citizen participation and involvement in a mega sporting event.

2.2.6. Strategic management of the image of places

Strategic image management (SIM) is identified as a continuous process of researching the image of a specific location by analysing its audience. Segmenting and targeting your specific image through positioning an existing image or supporting the creation of a new image will communicate results to target audiences (Kotler, 1993).

How can the image of a place be measured? Kotler (1993) advises selecting a specific audience that has some characteristics in common.

Therefore, the first stage consists of audience segmentation and targeting:

- a) Resident.
- b) Visitors.
- c) Factories.
- d) Headquarters and corporate offices.
- e) Entrepreneurs.
- f) Investors.
- g) Foreign buyers.

Audience segmentation is most useful when it has six characteristics:

- a) Mutual exclusion.
- b) Comprehensive.
- c) Measurable.
- d) Accessible.
- e) Substantial.
- f) Differential response.

Subsequently, audience measurement should be developed by semantic differential:

- a) Develop a set of relevant dimensions.
- b) Reduce the set of relevant dimensions.
- c) Administer the instrument to a sample of respondents.
- d) Averaging the results.
- e) Checking the variance of the image.

Meanwhile, for an image to be effective, it should meet the following criteria:

- Validity.
- Credibility.
- Simplicity.
- Attractiveness.
- Distinctive.

Therefore, the tools to communicate the image will be provided through slogans, themes, symbols, events and campaigns specific to the segmentation of your audience¹¹. In such a way, the distribution of the image of places should provide the target audience and the tools to influence the public in choosing the city as a preferred place¹².

Kotler (1993) suggests some tools for direct communication of the promotional message:

1. Effectiveness of guidance.
2. Personalisation of the message.
3. Interactive quality.
4. Measuring the response.
5. Relationship building.

According to Kotler (1993), tourism market segmentation should be provided through the following elements:

- Attractions sought: Sport, sun, leisure, play, culture.
- Market area/location: foreign, national, regional, local.
- Client characteristics: age, income, single, professional, religious.
- Benefits: price, quality, food, service, facilities.

The choice of a target audience, the segmentation of the message, effective communication and the support of the tourism market can be considered elements that will help cities to define new strategies, position and effectively communicate their places in the global tourism market (Hall, 1992).

According to Kotler (1993), there are some fundamental elements for the improvement of the competitive position of cities:

Basic information for strategic companies:

- I. Local labour market.
- II. Access to customer and supplier markets.
- III. Availability of sites, facilities and infrastructure for development.
- IV. Transport.
- V. Education and training opportunities.
- VI. Quality of life.
- VII. Business climate.
- VIII. Access to R&D facilities.
- IX. Availability of capital.
- X. Taxes and regulations.

¹¹ At the Olympic Games, the message that the host city wants to promote to the world will be a key element in the exploitation of a new image. In Olympic history, Beijing's 2008 message "*One world, one family*" was one of the most powerful media slogans.

¹² Meanwhile, the process of eliminating a negative image is a long process of participation where all the main actors can recognise themselves in positive elements, eliminating the negative.

Characteristics of the location:

- I. Labour tax climate.
- II. Incentives.
- III. Services.
- IV. Higher education, schools, regulation.
- V. Energy.
- VI. Communication.
- VII. Business.

On the other hand, places should not only attract tourists, businesses and investors but should also be committed to developing policies and plans for residents as part of a comprehensive and viable community acceptance strategy.

The key challenges:

- I. Places are increasingly threatened by the rapid pace of change in the global economic, political and technological environment.
- II. Places are increasingly at risk as a result of the normal process of urban evolution and decay.
- III. Places face a growing number of competitors in their efforts to attract scarce resources.
- IV. Places increasingly have to rely on their local resources to cope with growing competition.
- V. Places need to establish a strategic vision to meet these challenges.
- VI. Places need to establish a market-oriented strategic planning process to meet these challenges.
- VII. The site must adopt a true market perspective toward its products and customers.
- VIII. The site needs to build quality into its programmes and services to complement another site.
- IX. Places must be able to effectively communicate and promote their competitive advantages.
- X. Places need to diversify their economic base and develop mechanisms to adapt flexibly to changing conditions.
- XI. Places should develop and foster entrepreneurial characteristics.
- XII. The place must rely more on the private sector to carry out its tasks.
- XIII. Each location must develop its change processes as a result of differences in local culture, politics and leadership processes.
- XIV. The site must develop an organisational and procedural mechanism to sustain the development of the site and maintain momentum once initiated (Kotler, 1993).

In conclusion, strategic place management is a fundamental tool for conveying and transferring the message(s) of host communities. However, extensive promotional practice

can undermine community acceptance by introducing new criticalities in a context of participation and support.

2.2.7. Event bid

The key factors of a successful event bidding process are based partners, sponsors, direct communication, excellent presentation and the development of each bid as a unique process (Westerbeek, 2002). Event success is an increasingly important element in the redefinition of cities and the competition for global destinations.

Events can also act as catalysts for infrastructure improvement and can be used to build local organisational and marketing capacities (Getz, 1997).

The task and project bidding are usually assigned to destination marketing organisations (DMOs). However, this type of structure has developed mainly in the United States and the United Kingdom. In other locations or cities, temporary bids are made and then a temporary organising committee is formed for the operation of the event and the bidding process.

According to the contribution of (Getz, 2004), the key attributes for destination promotion and event allocation are:

- Accessibility.
- Offer of spaces for events.
- Accommodation.
- Services.
- Image as a desirable place to visit.
- Reputation as a successful event venue, for tourism in general.
- Safety and comfort of visitors.
- Event support services.
- Number and type of local organisations and businesses able to host/provide many types of events.
- Cost.

On the other hand, Horte and Persson (2000), in their study of Olympic bidding, argue that event bidding involves communicators, messages, communication channels and receivers. Miscommunication can easily occur, possibly due to cultural differences between senders and receivers, inaccurate messages or ineffective channels (Getz, 2004).

For example, in the Olympic bidding process, the IOC wields enormous power in the allocation of Olympic cities, resulting in a constant competition sponsored by many public and private actors. Cities and organisers invest a large amount of capital in promoting the city and the structures. As such, the central government and the public expect that host cities can catalyse new processes of enhancing civic pride through mega sporting events.

Therefore, the three most important criteria for hosting a mega-event:

- Potential economic impact.
- Tourism.
- Facilities.

In the meantime, the key factors for successful bidding can be summarised as follows:

- Strong sponsors.
- Excellent presentation to the decision committee.
- Single candidacy.
- Promote the history and culture of the host communities.
- Collaboration and participation of local communities.

Large-scale investment in sports and cultural facilities can differentiate Olympic bids, setting new minimum barriers to bidding. However, the event's messaging and messengers can influence decisions to secure mega-event allocations. Organisers must pay close attention to the messaging and branding of the city they want to promote to the world (Feddersen, 2008). Community support can only be realised if residents identify with the event itself. Annual sporting and other scheduled events present a great opportunity for long-term, *co-branding* strategies that support the objective of place promotion.

In conclusion, having introduced the mega-events and the promotion of the venues, the following section will look at the urban transformations that have taken place throughout the history of the summer and winter Olympic Games.

2.3. Mega-events and territorial transformations

2.3.1. Urban transformation at the Summer Olympics

Over time, mega-events have induced important urban transformations in host cities. As we will observe in chapter 5, the summer Olympic Games have been developed through a model of sports promotion that over time has been transformed into a model of metropolitan development. To analyse the different main stages of urban transformations in the host cities, we will look at the evolution through five different phases.

Phase I: Minimal transformation (1896-1924)

The first phase of the Olympic Games starts with the first edition of the event until the construction of the first Olympic Village in Paris in 1924. The following editions are characterised by private funding, the interest in promoting the sport through the host cities and the economic organisation. Therefore, the Olympic cities in this first phase will make only minimal transformations, proposing a model of temporary accommodation in military areas or thanks to public availability¹³.

¹³ In St. Louis in 1904, the Games were held over several months as an adjunct to the World's Fair and the swimming events were held in an artificial pool at the fairgrounds (Gordon, 1983).

Phase II: Emerging spatial organisation (1932-1956)

Subsequently, in the second phase, the Olympic cities will focus on the construction of sports facilities from the point of view of founding a new sports quarter in the peripheral areas of the cities. The second phase started with Los Angeles in 1932 until Melbourne in 1956.



Figure 21 Aerial photograph of Melbourne in 1956 produced by the Australian News and Information Office and supplied to the British Central Office of Information (Source: CC).

The Olympic editions in the next phase resulted in the construction of new sports facilities and Olympic accommodations that will become new neighbourhoods for the host cities. Thus, the second phase sees an emerging spatial organisation and the creation of a basis for the infrastructural transformations that we will observe in phase three. The Berlin 1936 project will stimulate the future organising committees of Helsinki and Melbourne to build a new sports quarter in a peripheral area of the city.



Figure 22 Construction of the Olympic Stadium Berlin 1936 (Source: CC)

Phase III: Reconfiguration of cities (1960-1988)

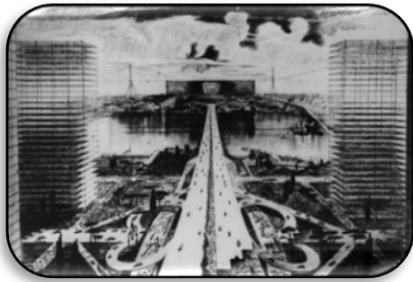


Figure 23 Project EUR 42, 1939 (Source: EUR Archive)

In the successive phase, the Olympic cities will be deeply inspired by the 1960 Rome Olympic Games project. The Rome edition is recognised as the first edition that will consider the Olympic event as a tool for urban development and as an opportunity for the reconfiguration of the city.

The city of Rome will concentrate the works in different areas of the city, developing a modern transport system, including the construction of the airport. The 1964 Tokyo edition followed the same philosophy as the previous edition, using the Olympic event as a tool for urban renewal. However, Tokyo took advantage of the event to promote a ten-year development plan that included the improvement of the infrastructure system, roads, the port, housing, water supply and the improvement of public health. The Tokyo edition was one of the most extensive urban development projects in Olympic history.



Figure 24 A new highway is shown against a background of modern buildings in Tokyo in February 1964 (Source: Associated press).

For the 1968 Mexico City edition, a spatial organisation was planned that included the development of new infrastructure and housing for the expansion of a peripheral area of the metropolis. Meanwhile, the Munich 1972 edition proposed the redevelopment of a brownfield site for the construction of a sports park including residences¹⁴. The Munich plan foresaw the construction of a new self-sufficient community and other road improvements in the city. Various improvements such as the restoration and pedestrianisation of the old town, the expansion of public transport lines, the creation of underground car parks, the development of a new shopping centre and the construction of three new motorways were carried out. Subsequently, the Montreal 1976 and Moscow 1980 editions will propose new housing and infrastructural works for the reconfiguration

¹⁴ To improve orientation, they were coloured to match the separate areas or residential places to which they led, and were also equipped with signs, notice boards or display boards (COJO, 1972, p.109).

of the cities. The Montreal edition is recognised as one of the moments of greatest concern for the increase of the size of the Olympic event. Therefore, the 1984 Los Angeles Games will be organised through private funding with existing or temporary structures¹⁵. On the other hand, the 1988 edition in Seoul allowed the Olympic Games to resume their role as a vehicle for urban transformation. The Seoul project was based on a twenty-year plan that introduced new programmes to ensure higher standards of health and hygiene throughout the city. In addition, the project included measures for air pollution, rubbish control, water quality and a major plan to decontaminate the Han River. Thanks to the Olympics, the city was able to develop three new underground lines to ease traffic congestion and 47 bus lines were extended. The airport was expanded and new projects were developed to emphasise the cultural aspects of the Olympic event. The city was able to have a programme of renovation and reconstruction of historical monuments, such as palaces and shrines.

Phase IV: Large-scale urban transformations (1992-2004)

The fourth stage will begin with Barcelona 1992, which is recognised as the best example of the role of the Olympic Games as a catalyst for change and urban renewal¹⁶. This fourth stage will end with Athens 2004 and will mean a new crisis for Olympism.

Barcelona 1992 proposed a new strategy for the reconstruction and redefinition of post-industrial cities. The transformation of a city in crisis will be the common element of all the Olympic cities included in the next phase. The city of Barcelona has become an example of post-industrial reconversion through the construction of a new image for the exploitation of tourism in the post-Olympic period. In this way, the Olympic Games became a means of ensuring a major change in urban infrastructures through a mixed economy. From 1992 onwards, tourism became a fundamental element of the economy of the host cities in the post-Olympic phase (Hughes, 1993). The city of Barcelona will present a new image to the world and a new development strategy for the candidate cities (Moragas, 1995).

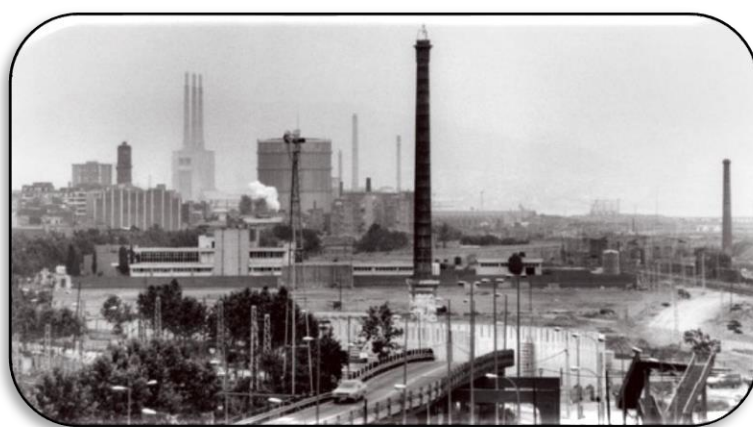


Figure 25 Reconstruction of the Poble Nou area in 1989 (Source: Municipal Archive)

¹⁵ To avoid large capital expenditures, the organisers used existing sports facilities and accommodation over a wide geographical area, including the Olympic Stadium used in 1932 and student residences at the Universities of California and Southern California (Essex, 1998).

¹⁶ By the end of the Olympic event, 330 urban interventions were counted (Holsa, 1992).

Following the same philosophy as Barcelona, Sydney in 2000, proposed an ambitious project for the reconfiguration of abandoned areas through the application of new sustainable practices. Sydney is recognised as the first Olympic city to introduce the theme of environmental sustainability into the development of the Olympic event. The stadium and Olympic Village were included in the *Homebush Bay* area¹⁷, located in a peripheral area of the city. The area was neglected for many years, only thanks to the Olympia bid the municipality strengthen and accelerate the renovation of the whole area, establishing a new structural plan for the reconfiguration of the area. Subsequently, the Athens project in 2004 was included in a programme of transformation of the primary infrastructure of the Greek city¹⁸. The reconfiguration of the port, the redevelopment of the central areas, the construction of a new airport and the provision of the metro were the major infrastructural works that were advanced for the modernisation of Athens (Georgiadis, 2016).



Figure 26 Interchange of the Attiki Odos toll road with the national road in Attica (Source: CC)

Phase V: Metropolitan development (2008-2028)

Finally, phase five is considered from Beijing 2008 to Los Angeles 2028.

In this phase, the cities are characterised by metropolitan development that uses the central empty spaces for the reconfiguration of the host cities. Thus, the Olympic Games will place greater emphasis on environmental protection and the sustainable development of the Olympic project. The establishment of an environmental park¹⁹ in Beijing (Jia, 2012), and the planning of a water recycling system in London, can be considered innovative measures for environmental protection in the candidate cities. Furthermore, since London 2012, the Olympic legacy, both tangible and intangible, has assumed great

¹⁷ The Olympic Stadium and Village will be in an area known as Homebush Bay, which is 14 km west of the city centre (Young, 1992; NSW Government, 1994; Brogan, 1996). The 760 hectare site has been marked for many decades by noxious land uses and areas of contaminated brownfield land used for dumping domestic and industrial waste, including State Brickworks, State Abattoir and Royal Australian Armaments Depot (Sanders, 1995; Essex, 2008).

¹⁸ The Games master plan was described by Beriators and Gospodini (2004, p. 197) as a dispersed model that suggests a strategy to promote regeneration and multi-core urban development.

¹⁹ Beijing at the end of 2008, had a total expenditure of \$12.2 billion for the protection and improvement of the ecological environment. The overall project foresees the construction of fourteen sewage treatment plants for the treatment of water from 42% to 905 (COJO,2008).

importance for post-Olympic planning (Imrie, 2008). As such, temporary facilities and innovative solutions will be used in the following editions.

The Beijing²⁰ and London projects in comparison to previous phases have favoured the emergence of one-off infrastructure works such as airport reconfiguration, rail and metro expansion.



Figure 27 Old Ford factory for wastewater recycling at London 2012 (Source: CC)

Subsequently, the 2016 edition of Rio de Janeiro will bring further changes in the allocation of host cities, which for the first time will be chosen without any competition. The allocation of the event through a proclamation process will involve the inclusion of temporary structures and the re-use of existing sports facilities in the candidate cities. Therefore, the IOC identified Paris and Los Angeles as cities that could represent the new evolution and organisation of the Olympic event. The following stages allow us to affirm that the Olympic Games throughout urban history were inspirational for the candidate cities and that the variables specific to each city have favoured the legitimisation of the Olympic city as a distinct urban genre. Urban planners over time have proposed different projects that have become development models for other cities. The following stages help us reflect on the history of the physical impact of the Games and how it has changed over two centuries.

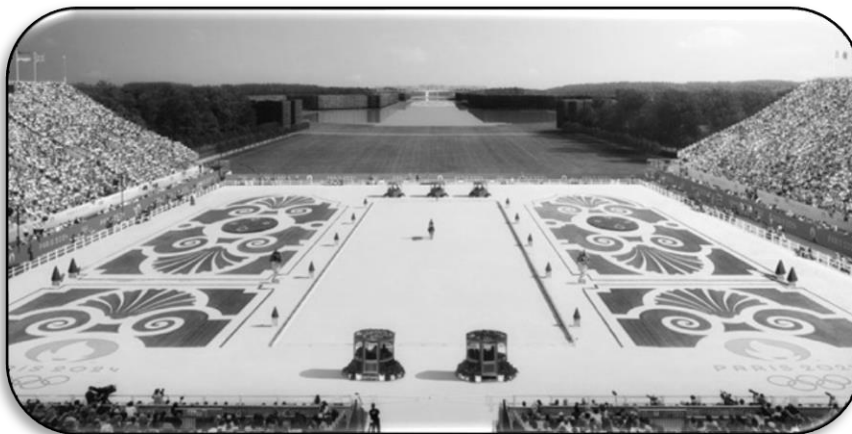


Figure 28 The temporary Palace of Versailles will host the equestrian competitions in Paris 2024 (Source: ©Paris 2024)

²⁰ Beijing is a city that has undergone a significant transformation in recent decades, rapidly metamorphosing into an internationalised metropolis (Cook, 2006).

Table 8 Summary of the main urban transformations of the Summer Olympics (Source: Own implementation on Essex, 1998)

Phase I	1896-1924	Minimal transformation. Sports cities.	Prospects for the development of sport. Temporary accommodation. Event initiated by private interests, but jointly funded by the public sector.
Phase II	1932-1956	Emerging spatial organisation Emerging cities	Creation of a sports quarter in the peripheral areas of the cities Sports facilities The foundations for infrastructure development are laid.
Phase III	1960-1988	Urban development tool, especially transport, Olympic Villages and economic development opportunities Reconfiguration of cities	Infrastructure investment as part of modernisation Public sector financing Concern arises over the increasing size of the event
Phase IV	1992-2004	Large-scale urban transformations. Post-industrial development tool Cities in crisis	The role of the Olympic Games as a means of securing a major change in urban infrastructures Mixed economy due to new marketing revenues from the event The Olympic Games as a tool for promoting a new image of the candidate cities Tourism asserts itself as a key element of the Olympic cities' economy
Phase V ²¹	2008-2028	Metropolitan development and legacy planning Global cities	Metropolitan development in empty spaces. Tool for the redefinition and reorganisation of the urban fabric. Greater emphasis on environmental protection and sustainable development. The Olympic legacy assumes great importance in the planning of the post-Olympic phase. Temporary installations and demountable solutions

²¹ The next phase was implemented by researching the Olympic events held up to the date of the study.

2.3.2. Urban transformations at the Winter Olympics

The first edition of the Winter Olympics was held only 30 years after the re-establishment of the modern Olympic Games. Therefore, winter sports were not excluded from the original conception of the Olympics. However, the popularity of winter sports and the creation of tourist sites in mountain areas favoured the constitution of a winter edition. Therefore, the IOC allowed a week of winter competitions to be held six months before the 1924 Paris Olympics.

Phase I: Promotion of sports tourism (1924-1932)



Figure 29 Chamonix 1924 (Source: COJO, 1924)

The first edition of the event was held in 1924 in Chamonix and until 1948 the Olympic cities had the opportunity to organise the Winter Olympic Games. Therefore, the first phase²² starts with Chamonix in 1924 and lasts until the 1932 edition in Lake Placid²³. The first editions are characterised by the limited size of the event site

and a predisposition to the development of sports tourism through new sports infrastructures. In the next phase, the projects were financed by private interests or were included in regional development for the constitution of tourist sites. Meanwhile, the accommodation of the athletes was based on the availability of hotels in each mountain location.

The construction or refurbishment of sports facilities has been a requirement of host venues throughout Olympic history. Therefore, the first period is characterised by mountain venues interested in winter sports tourism.

Phase II: Development of sports facilities (1936-1960)

The second phase has the characteristics of the first: small mountain sites, minimal infrastructural investment and public participation in a winter sports tourism development project. The exception in this phase is Oslo, which in 1952 proposed a major urban renewal and reconfiguration project, building for the first time three Olympic Villages in the city²⁴. Oslo is the only city with a resident population of almost half a million people. However, the increase in the size of the event and the number of participants started to

²² During this phase, the participating athletes ranged from 250 to 500.

²³ The 1932 Winter Olympic Games were held in Lake Placid and involved three new constructions and two substantial renovations of existing facilities (Essex, 2007).

²⁴ The infrastructure investment plan for the Oslo Games was controversial for a city still emerging from severe post-war austerity.

generate new infrastructure needs. Therefore, infrastructure investment from Oslo starts to constitute a form of infrastructure development in the post-Olympic period.



Figure 30 Holmenkollen, Oslo trampoline 1952 (Source: CC)

Phase III: Tool for regional development (1964-1980)

The third phase is characterised by a series of definitive changes:

- An increase in the number of athletes.
- Larger Olympic cities.
- Regional development.

The next stage begins with the 1964 Innsbruck edition and extends temporarily until the 1980 Lake Placid edition. The projects of the winter edition, therefore, start to become a tool for the transformation of the regional transport system of the host countries. In the next phase, the governments start to become the fundamental subject for the financing of the Olympic event. The 1964 Innsbruck edition²⁵ facilitated the construction of a new neighbourhood to host the Olympic athletes and new sports facilities, for the promotion of winter sports and equipment. The 1968 Grenoble project was one of the largest infrastructure projects realised in the winter edition. The process of modernisation of the entire region was accelerated by the Grenoble edition, which ensured major infrastructural investment and improved connections to the French capital using new railway lines, two airports and motorways. Road reconstruction accounted for 20% of the total investment for Grenoble (COJO, 1968, p.46). In addition, the investment included a link between Grenoble and Geneva which was a catalyst for the regional economy, transforming the city into a major university and conference centre²⁶.

²⁵ It was also during this phase that television revenues became an important source of funding (see Essex, 2007).

²⁶ the Grenoble Olympic Village was built in a Priority Urbanisation Zone (ZUP).



Figure 31 Master plan of Grenoble in 1968 (Source: CC)

Subsequently, Sapporo 1972 proposed an infrastructure renewal project that followed the Japanese government's plan for the improvement of the country's infrastructure system. The infrastructural investment included the expansion of two airports, the upgrading of the main railway station, 213 km of roads and a 45 km rapid transit system²⁷.

The Sapporo event allowed the IOC to reflect on the increasing size of Olympic projects and the risk of accumulating debts for the provision of infrastructure. Meanwhile, the 1976 edition of Innsbruck had to build only a new Olympic Village, as the blocks built in 1964 were converted into residences and were no longer available. In the next stage, the Olympic Village became a central urban element in the transformation of an essential venue for the event.

Phase IV: Large-scale transformations (1984²⁸ -1998)

The next stage is therefore characterised by an increase in infrastructure works and a new role for the winter event in a context of regional transformation.

In addition, the fourth phase is defined by the construction of the athletes' accommodation, the tv right and the increase of spectators which implied an increase in infrastructural works for transport. Since 1988²⁹ Olympic accommodations required two or more Olympic Villages to house the athletes. In the next phase ending with the 1998 Nagano edition, the demands related to the size of the event meant that larger cities with larger populations had to be chosen. Therefore, the role of the winter edition intensified and became a means to ensure infrastructural transformation and modernisation in the host cities. The next phase, however, will see bidders such as Calgary and Lillehammer providing two projects for the revival of the local economy (Spilling, 1998). One of the major regional winter sports promotion projects is the 1992 Albertville edition, which renovated a small site with spas for the construction of the temporary Olympic Village³⁰. However, the Organising Committee proposed other locations with existing hotel

²⁷ The government of Japan saw the 1972 Sapporo Games as a unique economic opportunity to invigorate the island of Hokkaido. Only 5% of the initial capital was used for the construction of sports facilities. Ninety-five percent of the capital was used for infrastructural improvements.

²⁸ For the 1984 Sarajevo Games, the citizens of the region agreed to make a voluntary contribution from their monthly salary to an Olympic Development fund between 1982 and 1984 (for Bosnia and Herzegovina, 0.2% and for Sarajevo itself, 0.3%) (Essex, 2007).

²⁹ In Calgary, the hosting of the event led to an overestimation of some sports facilities such as the *Olympic Saddledome*.

³⁰ The dispersion of the Olympic site in Albertville led to some reflections on the Olympic Village as a place of experience and cultural exchange.

accommodation. The Lillehammer project promoted the construction of a temporary Olympic Village consisting of 200 wooden chalets which in the post-Olympic period could be easily dismantled. The city aimed to position itself as a venue for sporting events without following the trajectory observed in the previous stage. Lillehammer was the first edition to incorporate sustainable development objectives. The city of Nagano, meanwhile, proposed a project that included sustainable development principles and infrastructural works for the renewal of the regional fabric³¹ (Nakamura, 2017). The next phase saw an increase in infrastructural works and an intensification in the provision of Olympic accommodation.



Figure 32 Nagano Olympic Stadium in 1998 (Source: CC)

Phase V: Sustainable development and regional planning (2002-2014)

During the fifth phase, Olympic projects continued to require large infrastructural investment, but with a greater focus on environmental protection and sustainable development. In addition, the 2010 Vancouver Games³² included for the first time an Olympic legacy plan, marking the importance of strategic planning at the Winter Olympics. The next stage includes the Olympic editions until Sochi 2014. Olympic projects started to be organised by large metropolitan cities together with neighbouring or surrounding mountainous locations, becoming a multi-event within a larger space.

The 2006 edition in Turin is recognised as the first edition to reach an Olympic area including seven mountain locations and providing three Olympic Villages.

The award of the 2006 Olympics to Turin will mean an increase in the size of the winter event, which will be hosted by cities with more than one million inhabitants. The

³¹ After 1988, it became necessary to plan multiple Olympic Villages to accommodate athletes closer to the sports venues. From this point on, media accommodation was a mandatory challenge to meet Olympic requirements.

³² The Vancouver project was part of the transformation of a disused waterfront that needed urban planning and regeneration to fit into the fabric of the metropolis.

event was part of a strategy for the transformation and redefinition of metropolitan areas abandoned since the industrial crisis of the 1980s³³. Turin's 2006 project can therefore be compared to that of Barcelona 1992 as it included the event in a broader urban transformation strategy with a solid base supported by master plans and long-term strategic plans. The city of Turin, thanks to the inclusion of the Olympic event, had the opportunity to develop new areas, re-establish the old railway line, add new mixed-use facilities, re-establish pedestrian areas in the old town and other works including the revaluation of emblematic spaces and buildings. Turin 2006 will allow the IOC to promote a new event image and a new possibility for host cities³⁴.



Figure 33 Bench layout, factories Date 1958 (Source: Historical Archive of the City of Turin FT 12C02_056)

Meanwhile, Vancouver 2010 focused on the realisation of the sports facilities and on reducing the impact of the Olympic event through new measures for sustainable development³⁵.

Vancouver, including participation, volunteering and a foundation for Olympic legacy management, provided a new model for managing and organising the post-Olympic period over time (VanWynsberghe, 2012).

On the other hand, Sochi 2014³⁶ was an ambitious project to build a mountain tourism venue in a summer resort area of the former Soviet Union. The cost associated with the

³³ The city of Turin in 1995 thanks to the approval of the Gregotti-Cagnardi Master Plan started the transformation of its urban structures through the three guidelines of the "*Le Spine*" plan. The plan was intended to improve transport access and to reuse areas abandoned by the industrial past.

³⁴ The TOROC, for the implementation of the Olympic works, adopted an environmental assessment system for the evolution of the impacts on the territory. The environmental management system was awarded ISO14001 status.

³⁵ The Vancouver event strongly emphasised its planning tools through a philosophy of long-term sustainable development.

³⁶ The awarding of the 2014 Winter Olympics to Sochi in Russia may represent the beginning of a new phase or even a step backwards in the event's trajectory (Chappelet, 2008.).

event exceeded 50 billion euros, leading to concern throughout the Olympic community about the high costs of organising the event³⁷.

The Sochi edition was controversial in many respects, especially during the staging and the choice of the ground for the construction of the Olympic infrastructure.



Figure 34 Area of the Sochi Olympic Park in 2007 (Source: Google Earth)

Phase VI: "The Future" (2018-onwards)

Finally, the sixth phase or the future of the Winter Olympics seems to be developing thanks to a new model of Olympic regionalisation through the constitution of a metropolitan centre and other mountain sites which serve for the adjudication of the Olympic event and competitions.

Therefore, the winter edition continues to be transformed through a metropolitan and regional development model in different metropolises around the world. Beijing 2022 has provided a regional model that includes two mountain towns connected by a new infrastructure network developed to promote the new national sports strategy. The host city of Beijing and the town of Zhangjiakou are about 231 km apart. The following organisational model allows us to observe how the dimension of the winter edition continues to expand and be organised in one or more territories. Furthermore, in consideration of the nomination of the Milan-Cortina 2026 edition³⁸, the inclusion of a project comprising two Olympic cities and three regions of the host country will be observed for the first time. Therefore, future projects will be able to allow for a bid with

³⁷ Seven power plants (some thermal and hydro) were built or renovated to increase the capacity of the region's power grid, ensuring a stable power supply for the event (SOOC, 2009).

³⁸ The two Olympic cities are not directly connected by an infrastructural system to date.

two different states willing to collaborate for the expansion of trade, economy and new possibilities of synergy between the host states.

Figure 35 Beijing 2022 Olympic Village (Source: CC)



Table 9 Summary of the main urban transformations of the Olympic Winter Games (Source: Essex S., de Groot J., 2017)

Phase I	1924-1932	Minimal infrastructural transformation, apart from sports facilities Small host populations (around 3,000)	Development prospects for winter sport tourism Winterisation' of existing accommodation rather than over-provision of accommodation Event initiated by private interests, but funded jointly with public sector Environmental concerns raised
Phase II	1936-1960	Emerging infrastructural demands, especially transportation Small host populations (around 13,000)	Growing volumes of participants and spectators requiring investment in transportation Limited basis for other permanent infrastructure
Phase III	1964-1980	Tool of regional development, especially transportation, Olympic Villages and economic development opportunities Medium host populations (around 100,000 or more)	Infrastructure investment as part of regional modernization and development Substantial public sector funding, but emerging television revenues Concern emerges about the increasing size of the event with regard to camaraderie, transport problems, debt and environmental damage

Phase IV	1984-1998	<p>Large-scale urban transformations, including multiple Olympic Villages</p> <p>Large host populations (c. 300,000)</p>	<p>Role of Winter Olympics as a means to secure major urban infrastructural change</p> <p>Higher television revenues</p> <p>More formal recognition of environmental issues in planning and development</p>
Phase V	2002-2014	<p>Sustainable development and legacy planning</p> <p>Large populations/ metropolitan areas (c. 1 million)</p>	<p>Large-scale infrastructural investment and re-development reflecting global and political ambitions of host cities</p> <p>High television revenues</p> <p>Greater emphasis on environmental protection and sustainable development through environmental management systems</p> <p>Emergence of 'soft' legacies (social inclusion, human rights, integration of indigenous cultures), but also more international debate and controversy over adoption of international norms</p>
The 'Future'	2018—onwards	<p>Reluctance to host Olympic Games in developed economies related to scale, cost and demands of the event</p>	<p>More interest from emerging economies with centralised governments wishing to achieve political acceptance on a global stage</p> <p>Reform of IOC expectations for the event: hard and soft legacies determined by dialogue rather than pre-defined; relaxation of 'compact games' concept</p>

3. Olympic organisation and bidding process

Abstract

The following section will look at the International Olympic Committee through the history and evolution of the organisation over time. This chapter intended to reflect the IOC's international relations and its role in a bipolar international political system. The analysis of the IOC's structure will allow us to examine the IOC's economic system according to the evolution of Olympic marketing, which is recognised as the pillar of Olympic financing. This section will analyse the Olympic bidding process according to the new norms advanced by the IOC in 2018 through the different reports published over time.

Thanks to the study of the Knowledge Transfer Programme for Candidate Cities (OGKM), the chapter will help us with the identification of the different activities and programmes developed by Olympic cities from a perspective of strategic planning and collaboration of the different Olympic stakeholders. Its final goal will be to analyse the evolution of the financial trend of the event during the different Olympic periods established by Preuss in 2002.

3.1. The International Olympic Committee

3.1.1. The origins of the Olympic Movement

On 16 June 1894, thanks to the will of Baron de Coubertin¹, advanced by the Union of French Athletics Sports Societies, of which Coubertin himself² was the secretary, the "*International Congress for the re-establishment of the Olympic Games*³ " started at the Sorbonne University in Paris.

The Congress became the first Olympic Congress held in modern history⁴. The invitation letter of the Congress indicated the two objectives to be pursued:

"...to preserve in athletics the noble and gentlemanly character which distinguished it in the past, so that it may continue to play effectively in the education of modern youth the admirable role attributed to it by the Greek masters..."

"...the re-establishment of the Olympic Games, on a basis and under conditions suited to the needs of modern life, every four years, will bring into confrontation the representatives of the nations of the world, and it is conceivable to believe that these peaceful and courteous combats constitute the best of Internationalism..."

Thus, on 23 June of the same year, during the last session of the congress, with the participation of sixty-eight delegates from the different national bodies of twelve countries⁵, the "International Olympic Committee (IOC)⁶ " was constituted by unanimous vote, which will be remembered in history as the first International Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO⁷) of the modern era⁸.

Since its institution, the IOC is recognised as the subject in charge of putting into practice all the directives established by the Congress, supervising the execution, organisation and control of the Olympic Games.

¹ Pierre Fredi Baron de Coubertain (Paris 1/1/1863 - Geneva, 2/9/1937) was born into a probably Italian family, as Coubertain himself always tried to confirm. A military man by family tradition, he soon left the Saint-Cyr academy in Fontainebleau to attend university and study political science, law and philosophy. His vocation for physical education and pedagogy took him to England to study the English school system, of which he became an admirer, thanks also to the work of Thomas Arnold at the Rugby boarding school. He saw sport as a fundamental element in the growth and development of the individual. He left a considerable number of writings and volumes, including: "Olympic Memoirs"; "The Olympic Games 776 BC. - 1896"; "A Camp of Vingt et un ans 1887-1908"; "Mutual Respect"; "Sports Pedagogy"; "Essays in Sports Psychology"; "Utilitarian Gymnastics"; "Education in England, Colleges and Universities". I have chosen to select only the most important ones because of their extensive bibliography.

² A. Stelitano, "The profile of Pierre de Coubertain", fontecentrostudi, April 2009.

³ "International Congress of Paris for the Restoration of the Olympic Games" was the title on the official invitations, which were also changed only a few minutes after they were sent out. A copy is kept in the Olympic Museum in Lausanne (Pierre de Coubertain, "Memoires Olympiques", Lausanne, 1931, p.18).

⁴ Bulletin de Comité Internationale des Jeux Olympique, n1, 1 Luglio 1894

⁵ Initially, the International Olympic Committee consisted of thirteen members and, in 1985, the number was increased to sixteen.

⁶ The countries represented were France, the United States, Great Britain, Russia, Italy, Hungary, Spain, Uruguay, Bohemia, Sweden, Belgium and New Zealand. Hungary and Bohemia were not yet independent from the USSR. Germany was not present precisely because the Union of French Athletic Sports Societies, organiser of the Congress, had threatened to abdicate if a German delegation showed up. (The French had not yet digested the military defeat of Sedan in 1870 and decided to send only one observer).

⁷ D.B. Kanin "A political history of the Olympic Games", Westview Press, Boulder, Colorado 1981.

⁸ Along with the International Red Cross, the IOC is the oldest international organisation.

Senator Baron Alphonse de Courcel, President of the Congress and former member of the French government with a long career as Minister of Foreign Affairs, declared during the ceremony that "*sport is no longer a luxury but a necessity*", adding that sport "*is eminently social because it brings men together without distinction of class*"⁹ .



Figure 36 Bulletin n.1, 1896, IOC (Source: IOC)

Thus, sport, from being a leisure and hobby for the nobles, will eventually become a sporting event aimed at the consumerist policies imposed by capitalist corporations, acquiring new meanings and new symbols. The initial composition of the IOC consisted only of very high class, titled nobility, European and white men; this organisation would be the first to pursue cross-cultural interests that were not essential to the political and international system of the time. For the re-establishment of the modern Olympic Games, the Baron contacted all the great international politicians responsible for humanitarian and peace actions in the world (Olympique, 1894). To revive the Modern Olympic Games, de Coubertin needed the support of all the states, but also of the bourgeoisie and the church, which finally enabled him to give a second life to the Olympic Games.

It can be defined as a "second life", as there is little trace left of the Ancient Greek Olympic Games.

About this, we read in a letter that de Coubertin sent to Bonghi on 29 April 1894: "*All those who have peace at heart and are concerned with improving international relations cannot fail to be interested in the work we dream of*"¹⁰ .

De Coubertin had understood the importance of re-establishing the Olympic Games in a modern key. Since its foundation, the IOC never represented the singularities of nations, but placed itself above them through a transactional unifying educational and philosophical model, allowing the sport to assume its social function, recognised only in 1992 in the European Sports Charter¹¹.

⁹ IOC, Official Bulletin of the International Olympic Committee, No. 1, Paris, 1894.
¹⁰ T. De Julis, "Il Coni di Giulio Onesti-Da Montecitorio al Foro Italico", Società Stampa Sportiva, Roma, 2001, Chap 1, pp.5-35.
¹¹ The social function of sport can be understood by looking at Article 2 of the European Sports Charter: Art. 1" To give everyone the opportunity to participate in sport and, in particular: (a) Guarantee to all young people the opportunity to benefit from physical education programmes to develop their basic sporting skills; (b) Guarantee to all the opportunity to take part in sport and to participate in recreational physical activities in a safe and healthy environment; and, in cooperation with the competent sporting bodies, (c) Guarantee to all, when they so desire and possess the necessary skills, the opportunity to improve their level of performance and to realise their potential for personal development and/or to achieve publicly recognised standards of excellence" (European Charter of Sport 1992, Art. 2.1) (European Sports Charter 1992, Art. 2.1).

Physical activity and sport in our society are not measured only in terms of production, i.e., the cost-product-benefit ratio, but by the degree of satisfaction and well-being, constituted by human values, that the participants/practitioners derive from it¹² .

3.1.2. The evolution of Olympic thinking in globalisation

Since its creation, the IOC has always been a private expression of the cosmopolitanism of the European, especially French, bourgeoisie.

Born in the notes of the "Belle Epoque", and as a sign of world peace, it ended up being used and manipulated by different political actors.

From a theoretical point of view, the IOC can be defined as an international actor, founded on the concepts of recognition and control of a territory. The IOC, from the beginning, has tried to oppose the political system. Still, politics guarantees the transformation of cities and enables long-term economic agreements with business partners from other continents. The economic-political change came after the end of World War II, with the subsequent decolonisation, energy crises and military blockades. Given the severity of the problems, states were forced to relate to each other.

Today, the Olympic Games are nothing more than a protection tool used by states to mask their real interests and, at the same time, to mediate and homologate a group of individuals¹³. The media impact of the Olympic Games is evident; it is no coincidence that the event is worldwide in scope and that there is no other mega-event like the Olympics (Roche, 2000).

Over the years, these "big events" have become inexhaustible sources of revenue. The companies selling the TV rights have increased their revenues disproportionately. The TV companies are willing to do anything to get any national exclusivity for the broadcasting of the "Mega-events", and consequently, the companies are also willing to invest millions of euros to broadcast their 30-second message. The SMS triangle succeeds in comprehensively summarising the dynamics and consequences that this inter-systemic process can generate¹⁴. However, the sport has over time become too attractive an entertainment for all companies that want to expand their business and acquire commercial information quickly¹⁵. Since 1992, only ONU member states can apply to participate in the Olympic Games. In addition, each member state of the United Nations must establish a National Olympic Committee to ensure the preparation of its Olympic team.

¹² Isidori, E. "Education, sport and values". Rome, Aracne, 2008, pp. 13-41.

¹³ N. Sbeti, "Games of power: Olympics and politics from Athens to London, 1896-2012", pp.45-67;140-145.

¹⁴ The SMS triangle described by Professor Martelli defines the three elements that characterise the modern sport economy. Companies, television broadcasters and sports companies. The resulting relationship is one of interdependence of the sports companies on the television stations and, therefore, on the broadcasting rights they obtain from them; dependence of the companies on the television stations, since without advertising space they would be able to cover less of the planet. The other inter-systemic dependency relationship is between the sports companies and the sponsoring companies, which provide a very high percentage of the profits. Finally, he defines the spectators as the main protagonists of this triangle and without them this inter-systemic process would not exist.

¹⁵ CAPEL, Horacio. Los Juegos Olímpicos, entre el urbanismo, el marketing y los consensos sociales. Biblio 3W. Revista Bibliográfica de Geografía y Ciencias Sociales, Universitat de Barcelona, Vol. XV, no 895 (1), 5 novembre 2010. <<http://www.ub.es/geocrit/b3w-895/b3w-895-1.htm>>. [ISSN 1138- 9796], pp.35-87.

In addition, the division of the two Olympic editions, winter and summer, led to an increase in revenues and a segmentation of the Olympic offer, which will be held every two years in different host states.

3.1.3. The Olympic Charter and legal recognition

The Modern Olympic Games were built on solid foundations and unique principles. Baron de Coubertin in 1892, at the Sorbonne University in Paris, made a report on the modern sport, formulating the proposal to re-establish the Olympic Games, and adding:

"We have to internationalise sport by reorganising the Olympic Games", which "will ennoble and strengthen sport, guaranteeing its independence and durability, allowing it to play its educational role to the best of its ability in the modern world"¹⁶ (Muller, 2011).

Pierre de Coubertin can be defined as a great communicator and forerunner in international politics (Frasca, 2009). At the end of the 19th century, he foresaw models, behaviours and solutions that are still current today¹⁷. In July 1897, during the second Congress in Le Havre, Count Eugenio Brunetta d'Usseux¹⁸, founder of the Olympic movement in Italy¹⁹, was invited to participate, and in 1908 he became secretary of the IOC (Colasante, 1996). In the same year that Count d'Usseux became secretary, the first "Olympic rules"²⁰ (Olympique C. I., 1908) were drafted. In 1924, the first Olympic Winter Games were held in France, in Chamonix. In 1975, the Olympic Charter²¹ was updated, defining the IOC as an association under international law with legal personality (Rule 11) (IOC, 1975). This rule, which was controversial due to legal uncertainties, was amended in 1981 in the Olympic Charter about its legal status. Rule 19²² was established, which recognises the International Olympic Committee as "an international non-governmental non-profit organisation of unlimited duration, constituted in the form of an association with legal personality, recognised by the Decree of the Swiss Federal Council of 17 September 1981²³". In the year 2000²⁴, the Federal Council had to intervene again because of inconsistencies in the statutes of the IOC, replacing rule 19 with rule 15 (C. F., 2000). An

¹⁶ N. Muller, Pierre de Coubertin 1863-1937, Olympism, Selected Writings, editor's edition by Norbert Muller, Lausanne, International Olympic Committee, pp.12-13.

¹⁷ R. Frasca, "Olympism and the paradigm of Pierre de Coubertin", source centrostudiconi, April 2009.

¹⁸ Brunetta d'Usseux (1857-1919), a Piedmontese noblewoman from Vercelli, played a leading role in the Olympic movement under Coubertin and was the founder of the Olympic Committee, as well as leading the negotiations for the 1908 Rome Games.

¹⁹ Gianfranco Colasante carried out an in-depth research on Count Eugenio Brunetta d'Usseux, which was published in the volume edited by CONI on the occasion of the Olympic centenary: Gianfranco Colasante, "La nascita del Movimento Olimpico in Italia", CONI, 1996.

²⁰ Yearbook of the International Olympic Committee, 1908, www.olympic.org

²¹ The Olympic Charter is available on the International Olympic Committee (IOC) website www.olympic.org.

²² International Olympic Committee I.O.C., "Olympic Charter", 2013, Art. 19.

The OIC is an international non-governmental, non-profit organisation, constituted as an association with legal personality, recognised by the Swiss Federal Council and of unlimited duration. The OIC has its headquarters in Lausanne (Switzerland). The mission of the OIC is to lead the Olympic Movement in accordance with the Olympic Charter. The decisions of the I.O.C., taken on the basis of the provisions of the Olympic Charter, are final. Disputes arising from their application or interpretation may only be settled by the OIC Executive Committee and, in certain cases, by arbitration before the Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS).

²³ Swiss Federal Council, Ogi, 1981

²⁴ Agreement between the Swiss Federal Council and the International Olympic Committee on the Statute of the IOC, Agreement, 0.192.122.415.1

international organisation²⁵, being subject to the rules of international law, exercises the same rights and powers as a state, of course, the legal scope of application is very restricted and, above all, unlike a state, it is a subject of international law without territorial assets²⁶. From a legal point of view, the sports structure at the national and transnational level enjoys a certain autonomy, considering its legal autonomy, which is very "variegated". This legal autonomy can be summarised under the name of "sporting exception²⁷", recognising an autonomous legal dimension about the elaboration of rules and regulations of world sporting activity, and its internal order, trying to respect national legislation. The IOC, defined and recognised by the Swiss government as an international non-governmental organisation, has the power to revoke individual NOCs if they do not comply with national law. Autonomy and independence characterise the Olympic movement, as without these requirements states cannot belong to the Olympic family (IOC, 1975). The Statutes provide that the IOC is governed by the Olympic Charter, which is also the legal basis to which all athletes and National Olympic Committees must adhere.

The basic characteristics that an international non-governmental organisation should possess are (ONU, 1945):

1. It should not be constituted by an agreement between states.
2. The structure of the organisation should be transnational and national in character.
3. The structure is made up of individuals, not states, without conditioning activity.
4. It is not for profit.
5. It must pursue an international interest.
6. It must be democratically structured.
7. It must be constituted by the domestic law of a State (C. F. Switzerland, 1981).

3.1.4. Structure of the International Olympic Committee

Initially, the International Olympic Committee's organisational structure consisted of 15 members, whereas today it consists of 101 active members and 45 honorary members²⁸.

The structure of the IOC can be seen as pyramidal, with the "*Session*²⁹" at the bottom and the president at the apex. The *Session* is the general assembly of the associate members of the IOC and is held once a year and voting are by roll call. The Session is the supreme decision-making body for the sport at both the national and international levels. The

²⁵ According to the 1993 Montevideo Agreement, legal status is acquired through the simultaneous presence of: a permanent population, a defined territory, an exclusive governing power and, finally, the capacity to maintain relations with other states, www.cfr.org.

²⁶ F.X. Rafols, "El comité Olímpico Internacional y los juegos Olímpicos, algunas cuestiones de relevancia jurídico-internacional, in *Revista Española de Derecho Internacional*, 1993, pp.283-313.

²⁷ B.Fidanoglu, "Sporting exception in the european union's sport policy", 2011, Peer Reviewed Article Robert Siekmann, Is Sport 'Special' in EU Law and Policy? in: Roger Blanpain (Ed.), "The Future of Sports law in the European Union - Beyond the EU Reform Treaty and the White Paper", Alphen aan den Rijn 2008, pp. 37-49; Richard Parrish and Samuli Miettinen, *The Sporting Exception in European Union Law*, The Hague 2008; Robert Siekmann and Janwillem Soek (Eds), "The European Union and Sport: Legal and Policy Documents", The Hague 2005.

²⁸ To view the full list of members please visit: <https://olympics.com/ioc/members> (January 2021)

²⁹ An executive committee is present to support the session.

Statute specifies that an extraordinary session may be requested by the President or by one-third of the members.

The executive power of the assembly allows it:

- Adopt or amend the Olympic Charter.
- To elect the IOC members, the honorary president and the honorary members.
- To elect the President, Vice-Presidents and all other members of the Executive Committee.
- Executive Committee.
- Choose the city that will host the Olympic Games³⁰.

The absence of a supervisory body not provided for in the Statute leaves room for serious doubts, as it is the executive committee itself that assumes the administrative and operational responsibilities³¹. Subject to the provisions of Article 16.3, each IOC member is elected for a term of eight years and may be re-elected for one or more further terms. The procedure for re-election is established by the IOC Executive Board³². The IOC President, being the highest authority of the IOC, presides over all IOC activities and represents the IOC permanently. He is elected by secret ballot and holds office for eight years, renewable for a maximum of four more³³. In addition, the Olympic Committee has provided for the creation of Commissions³⁴ and working groups, which should contribute to preserving Olympic thinking and promoting Olympism throughout the world. Given the complexity of the organisation and management of the Olympic Games, the IOC has appointed commissions consisting solely of experts in specific fields to guide the IOC's day-to-day activities.

In addition to organising the Olympic Games, the IOC has provided cultural and educational programmes that promote the Olympic ideals³⁵ around the world. To date, the commissions are athletes, Olympic culture and education, Olympic coordination, ethics³⁶, finance and international relations, legal, marketing, medical, candidatures, philately and numismatics, Olympic programme, Olympic solidarity, press, radio and television, sport and development, sport and law, sport for all, television rights and new media, women and sport, congress commission (Theodoraki, 2007).

The most significant Commissions are listed here:

- Olympic Programme Commission → It is responsible for analysing and reviewing the sports programme and also the number of athletes participating in the summer and winter Olympic Games.

³⁰ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art. 14

³¹ Chappelet, J. L., and Kübler-Mabbott, B. 2008. *The International Olympic Committee and the Olympic System: The Governance of World Sport*. London: Routledge.

³² IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.16

³³ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.20

³⁴ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.21

³⁵ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.2

³⁶ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.22

- Olympic Games Study Commission → Has a mandate to study past, present and future summer and winter Olympic Games; it also reports and makes recommendations on the means, costs and complexities of hosting such events, examines buildings, utilities, venues, services, technology, media, security, hospitality, all to reduce costs to host nations.
- Medical Commission → was Created in 1967 to fight against the ever-changing phenomenon of "doping". It ensures that fundamental principles such as the protection of athletes' health and respect for sporting ethics are respected.
- Marketing Commission → The main responsibility is due to the search for new sources of funding in the market, always in the interests of the IOC and the Olympic movement as a whole.
- Ethics Commission → was Created in 1999 following the IOC Executive's decision to undertake a series of reforms that changed the internal organisation of the Committee. Its main function is to oversee compliance with the ethical principles enshrined in the Olympic Charter and the Code of Ethics. Founded by "Juan Antonio Samaranch", it envisaged protecting the integrity of the Olympic movement by making recommendations to be submitted to the IOC Executive Board (IOC, 2009).
- The Athletes' Commission → Established in 1981, the Athletes' Commission is the representative body for Olympic athletes and functions as an athletes' union. The commission meets once a year with the executive to propose changes to the general rules and, if necessary, create working groups to ease conflicts (IOC, 2015).
- The Sports and Environment Commission → was Created in 1995, the functions of this body are purely regulatory and supervisory. The commission must assess the viability of events, without compromising the natural environment.

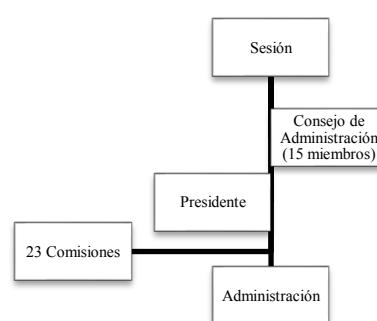


Figure 37 IOC Structure (Source: Own Implementation)

3.1.5. The transactional structure of the IOC

As specified above, the main characteristic that distinguishes international governmental organisations from non-governmental organisations is the presence of states in the organisation³⁷. However, as seen above, only states can recognise³⁸ of this capacity

³⁷ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.15

³⁸ M. Pérez Gonzales, "Las Organizaciones no gubernamentales en el ámbito de la Organización internacional, in Revista Española de Derecho Internacional", 1976, p.322.

in the organisation. The lack of an international treaty regulating international non-governmental organisations, on the part of states, leads to a purely private approach to the association itself. This was the case with the Olympic Charter, which disciplines the organisation and functioning of the Olympic movement; born of a private initiative, it can in no way be considered valid as a treaty, a convention or, better still, as an international agreement. To be considered international, non-governmental organisations must necessarily have physical or legal members of different nationalities. Thus, the fundamental requirement is the diversity of their membership, irrespective of their legal nature. The transnational structure of the IOC is defined in Article 1 of the Olympic Charter, stating that "the Olympic movement" consists, in addition to the IOC, of the international federations³⁹, the NOCs, the Organising Committees of the Olympic Games and all national sports associations; in addition, the IOC may recognise the associations of national committees and international federations at world level⁴⁰. All this is to centralise Olympism and with it the maximum sporting dissemination around the world (IOC, 2021).

The IOC exercises all powers, legislative, executive and jurisdictional, with binding effect⁴¹ for all entities that are part of the Olympic movement.

Based on this analysis, it can be affirmed that they can be qualified as international non-governmental organisations, even those that have members appointed by governmental authorities, participating as a representative of the State, provided that the existence of such members does not condition the organisation's freedom of action or freedom of expression (ONU, 1968).

Another distinctive feature of non-governmental organisations is the absence of a "profit motive" in their activities, specified in Art. 15 of the Olympic Charter, this rule does not apply to policies of exploitation for commercial and advertising purposes of their Olympic symbols⁴². In addition, the IOC may grant a share of the revenues derived from the exploitation of television rights to international federations, Olympic committees (including Olympic solidarity) and Olympic Games organising committees⁴³. The increase in revenue from the sale of audio-visual rights, which disproportionately increases the IOC's income, still raises many questions today⁴⁴ about the non-profit nature of the IOC. The international vocation of a non-governmental organisation is not only reflected in its organisational composition but also the objectives, it pursues: in fact, all organisations claiming consultative "status" must be concerned with economic, social, cultural, educational, health, scientific, technological and other issues of an international character⁴⁵, as defined in the fundamental principles of the Olympic Charter (ONU, 1968).

³⁹ MacDonald, G. H. 1998. Regime Creation, Maintenance, and Change: A History of Relations between the International Olympic Committee and International Sports Federations, 1894-1968. PhD thesis, University of Western Ontario.

⁴⁰ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.3

⁴¹ Cavender, "The International Olympic Committee: an advanced non-governmental organisation and the international law", in German yearbook of international law, 1984, p.242.

⁴² IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.7

⁴³ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.27

⁴⁴ Helen Jefferson Lenskyj, Inside the Olympic Industry, 2000, chapter 1-3.

⁴⁵ Economic and Social Council Resolution 1296 (XLIV), Part I, para. 8

A non-governmental organisation is of international interest if it contributes effectively to the objectives and principles of the ONU Charter and the Statute of the Council of Europe by carrying out a social, cultural, scientific, health or, as in this case, sporting activity.

Yet, over time, the IOC has made a profound contribution to the internationalisation of Olympic sports and the modern stereotypes that have changed over time about the consumer and welfare society of the 21st century.

IOC relations with national federations and National Olympic Committees

The IOC plays a fundamental role in the regulation, planning and coordination of the National Olympic Committees by defining guidelines⁴⁶. This activity recognises a role of constant control and evaluation of the various projects implemented by the different National Committees⁴⁷. The IOC has always left the regulation of sports disciplines to the sports federations. While, the Olympic Committees are placed in the complex system of geographical classification, where the main function is oriented towards the maximum dissemination and promotion of the Olympic spirit⁴⁸. Of course, one of the main functions of these committees is to prepare the Olympic team and to participate in IOC activities; in addition, National Committees can submit applications for amendments to the Olympic Charter. The National Committees coordinate territorial sporting activities, they must also intervene in the construction of infrastructures and organise different social inclusion projects to eliminate any form of social deviance, previously recognised by the IOC. Meanwhile, the International Sports Federations (ISF) are the only representatives recognised by the International Committee to control, regulate and organise the different sports disciplines in the world⁴⁹.

The organisational structure of the ISF mirrors that of the International Committee, which is pyramid-shaped. There is an international body operating at the world level, the so-called confederation, which includes the individual national federations. The IFS is responsible for promoting and developing the practice, at all levels, of each of the sports within its jurisdiction, for establishing and codifying the organisational and regulatory rules in the technical-sports field and for incorporating them into the statutes of each national federation. They are also responsible for the organisation of the World Championships in each sport, the technical control and the management of competitions during the Olympic Games⁵⁰.

The Olympic Games represent a real opportunity for these organisations which, thanks to the visibility and economic return of the event, can plan and finance national activities in the various disciplines.

⁴⁶ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.25

⁴⁷ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.26

⁴⁸ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.27

⁴⁹ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.29

⁵⁰ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.46

3.1.6. The IOC in the international bipolar system

The social change brought about by the Second World War was conducive to the institution of a bipolar system and the emergence of independent third-world states. These events only increased the power and importance of the IOC. The main structure of the Committee changed as the IOC's fundamental characteristics and objectives changed until the 1990s. The overall development of the Olympic Movement can be attributed to the growth of IOC activities which, by changing its funding system and universalisation, ensured a sound economy⁵¹ for the Olympic Movement (Guttman, 1984).

The main elements that have contributed to the IOC's rise to international power and importance are outlined below.

Development of the Olympic Movement:

- a. An increase in the number of IOC members;
- b. An increase in the number of National Olympic Committees;
- c. Increasing women's participation in the Olympic Games;
- d. The increase in the number of Olympic athletes.

2. *Increased activities:* The IOC, to increase its influence, will develop other similar competitions around the world, such as the Mediterranean Games, the European Games, the Youth Games and the Special Olympic Games. To ensure cooperation, the IOC established an "Olympic Solidarity" programme by signing investment plans in the third world, in cooperation with UNESCO. This cooperation allowed the IOC to be recognised as an integral part of the international world community and as the world government of sport. The structure of the Olympic Committees has ensured that the IOC has become a hub for private and public investment, an essential element for its functioning within the sports market.

3. *Change in the financial circuit:* Until 1948, financial contributions to the IOC came solely from the Member States; after the advent of television, the Olympic Committee also began to receive income from the marketing of television rights. Today, income from the sale of audio-visual rights represents the largest financial contribution to the balance sheet. However, this change allows the IOC's financial autonomy to be strengthened. In addition, the new power may represent dangers⁵², given the possibility of commercialising with companies and, therefore, being able to sell advertising space to mediatise individuals within a system based on capitalism and consumerism (Simson, 1992).

4. *Universalisation of the Olympic movement:* In 1951, the Olympic Committee accepted the former USSR as an Olympic member by recognising the Soviet Olympic

⁵¹ Guttman, Allen (1984), *The Games Must Go on. Avery Brundage and the Olympic Movement*. New York, Columbia University Press.

⁵² Simson, V. and Jennings, A. (1992), *I signori degli anelli, Barcellona, El Triangle, Barcellona*.

Committee. The participation of the Soviets in the 1952 Helsinki Olympic Games was seen as the entry of politics into Olympism (Graharn, 1976). The Olympic movement encourages contact between different cultures and acceptance of a norm through sport and also allows for cultural homogenisation (McIntosh, 1984).

Indeed, none of these hypotheses on the positive and negative elements of sport has been able to contribute to the analysis in the field of international relations. There are different views on sport and its added value in the development of the individual, given that the fundamental characteristics are polyvalence and neutrality. Sport is always sport, neither good nor bad, but it can be used for different purposes (Gueldenpfenning, 1985). According to Stolyarov (1984), sport can only transmit positive values if the athlete and spectators have stored a value system that enables them to appreciate it. Meanwhile, a study by Vayrien (1982) and Kropke (1974) defines Olympism as a feeling that reinforces group values.

Today, the Olympic Committee has 205 national presences, 12 more than the ONU, asserting itself as a non-profit organisation dedicated to making the world a better and more peaceful place. Whether or not the IOC has pursued its interests, the creation of the Modern Olympics has ensured that sport has grown in global relevance to become a catalyst for the regeneration of cities and citizens' lifestyles.

3.1.7. Olympic Games and politics

The great importance of sport on the international stage, supported by the huge media exposure, has inevitably allowed the IOC to merge with the political universes. The Olympic Games are "*absorbed by politics*"⁵³, here are some of the key events that can help to understand some of the events that have manifested themselves over time. Propaganda, apartheid, terrorism, boycotts, social rights, and indigenous and LGBT rights are just some of the social movements that have occurred throughout Olympic history.

- *Berlin 1936*⁵⁴: The Olympic Games were used by the Nazi government as an instrument of political propaganda. The Swiss Workers' Federation of Gymnastics and Sport called for a boycott of the Games: its members were informed of the events in Germany. In June 1935, a diplomatic crisis arose: Germany demanded that the IOC sponsor 36,000 francs for the Games, as the Nazi government did not believe that it was up to the States to invest in the organisation of the Games. Thanks to protests from socialist and communist groups, the subsidy for the Olympics was withdrawn. A few days later, Parliament, supported by Defence Minister Rudolf Minger, decided to reinstate the appropriation.

⁵³ Senn, A., 1999, " Power, politics and the olympic games: a history of the power brokers, events, and controversies that shaped the games, human kinetics/IOC; Shaw, C., 2008, " Five rings circus: Myths and realities of olympic games".

⁵⁴ Byrne, M. (1987) "Nazi Festival: The 1936 Berlin Olympics", in Falassi, A. (ed.) (1987) Time Out of Time: Essays on the Festival, Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press.

- *Mexico City 1968*: In one of the most poignant images of all time, John Carlos and Tommie Smith, two black athletes, during the awards ceremony, raised their fists as a gesture of protest and "resistance", covered by a black glove, the symbol of the "Black Panthers", an organisation that pursued the rights of African-American citizens. However, this is not the only event to remember, as ten days before the start of the Olympics, on 2 October, university students protesting against the Dominican and Mexican governments were shot dead by police inside the university campus. Some 300 people were reported killed, all of them very young, and following the massacre, the government arrested 2,000 students⁵⁵. The government justified itself by calling the student movement a "communist conspiracy"⁵⁶. The international accusation was a violation of human rights.
- *Munich 1972*: One of the saddest stories of the Modern Olympic Games. During the Olympics a commando of Arab guerrillas from the Palestinian organisation "Black September" broke into the Israeli athletes' quarters in the Olympic Village, brutally murdering the athletes, who had previously been taken, hostage. The group "Black September"⁵⁷ " demanded the release of 234 Arab and German hostages held in Israel and West Germany. After the tragedy, the memorial was installed in the stadium, I.O.C. President Avery Brundage commented: "*The games must go on*"⁵⁸ ". In the face of such events, sport cannot and must not stop, the power it manages to convey through the exploits of champions is unparalleled. At the next Olympics in Canada, security was expanded, to the extent that a budget of 100 million dollars was allocated.
- *Montreal 1976*: Thirty-three countries and their Olympic athletes defected from the Olympics in protest at the International Olympic Committee's failure to sanction New Zealand while the rugby team toured South Africa, a country excluded from the Olympic movement because of its inhumane policy of racial segregation.
- *Moscow 1980*⁵⁹ → Acting US President "Jimmy Carter" decided that the US Olympic team should boycott the Olympic Games in protest against the USSR's invasion of Afghanistan. The US asked the Atlantic alliance for support. The result? Sixty-five countries defected from the Olympic event.
- *Los Angeles 1984* → In this edition, history was reversed, with the Soviet Union refusing to participate, given the lack of certainty about the safety of athletes participating in Olympic competitions.
- *Seoul 1988*⁶⁰ → Thanks to the allocation of the Olympic Games Korea became a major centre of technological production, many scholars have identified the Seoul Olympics as a springboard for the export of technology to Europe and the rest of the world.

⁵⁵ Archive of historical texts of the Mexican Student Movement of 1968

⁵⁶ Reflection on the tragic massacre of Salvador Zarco

⁵⁷ The Israeli Response to the 1972 Munich Massacre Alexandre B. Calaham, 1995. Calaham, 1995, Marine Corps College

⁵⁸ Guttman, A. 1984. *The Games must go on: Avery Brundage and the Olympic Movement*. New York: Columbia University Press.

⁵⁹ Riordan, J. (1979), *Sport in the USSR and the 1980 Olympic Games*, London and Wellingborough: Collet's.

⁶⁰ Larson, J. and Park, H. 1993 *Global Television and the Politics of the Seoul Olympics*, Westview Press.

- *Atlanta 1996*⁶¹ → Eric Rudolph decides to plant a bomb inside the Centennial Olympic Park, killing two people and injuring one hundred and ten.
- *Sydney 2000*⁶² → Before the Olympic Games took place, intelligence services had uncovered an attempted terrorist attack, during the event volunteers were increased and given special powers to prevent the terrorist threat. After a thorough investigation, it was discovered that the perpetrators were linked to Al Qaeda and were also accused of the 2002 Bali massacre.

Parallel to the resolution of international relations, the then president of the IOC, Juan Antonio Samaranch, encouraged the Committee to acquire a preponderant economic dimension, thanks to the new financing circuits: the sale and commercialisation of television rights and the enormous financial transactions surrounding the Olympic Games. Thus, the Olympic Games have become an excellent opportunity to increase the economic income of the multinationals and power groups interested in the games. The IOC, in the Olympic Charter, states that "no distinction shall be made based on the political, legal or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether such territory is independent, trusteeship or non-self-governing, or subject to any other limitation of sovereignty".

3.1.8. Olympic marketing

The value of the Olympic mark was born in 1913 from the idea of Baron de Coubertin. The Baron thought of 5 rings of different colours symbolising the 5 continents of the world, all united by sport. Coubertin's Olympic ideals recognise the identity, equality of opportunity, competition, determination and international understanding. During the period 1896-1927, the sale of Olympic branded products was only allowed during the Olympic Games and was limited to the services offered, the activities were not organised by the Organising Committee. With the introduction of the 5 rings as the emblem of the Olympic Games in 1928, the first Olympic *merchandising* was born. From Los Angeles in 1932, many companies began to associate their name with the term Olympic. It was President Avery Brundage who thought it best to intervene and make it clear that the rights were the property of the IOC and that any association with it was a violation of Olympic rights and spirit⁶³. In 1980, the successful era of Olympic commercialisation began and, in 1982, sports sponsorship became a new source of funding, to the point where it is now the main economic source of the Committee⁶⁴. The idea of the Committee's exclusivity is due to Ueberroth who, looking for private funding sources for the realisation of the 1984 Olympic Games in Los Angeles⁶⁵, created 1983 the programme (TOP), a package of shares managed by the ISL agency, of which Adidas owns 51%. Thanks to the TOP programme,

⁶¹ Hill, C.R., 1996. *Olympic Politics. Athens to Atlanta 1896-1996*, 2nd edition (Manchester University Press, Manchester).

⁶² OWEN, K.A. 2001. *Sydney 2000 Olympic Games: Processes and Politics of Venue Preparation*, Monograph Series (3), Centre of Olympic Studies - The University of New South Wales; Darcy, S., and A.J. Veal, 1994, *The Sydney 2000 Olympic Games: The Story so far*, Australian Journal of Leisure and Recreation 4 (1), 5-14.

⁶³ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.48/49/50

⁶⁴ IOC, Olympic marketing fact file, 2001, Lausanne: International Olympic Committee.

⁶⁵ ERA (1981): Report on the costs, revenues and economic activity to be generated by the 1984 Summer Olympic Games in the city of Los Angeles. Los Angeles: Economics Research Associates.

the Olympic Committees and the International Committee began to establish excellent relationships with their new "partners" and "sponsors". The IOC heavily promoted *merchandising*, as it was the only economic activity that had not been registered before (Preuss, 2004). The economic contribution generated by merchandising can be seen in Tables 10 and 11 by showing the evolution of revenues in the summer and winter editions⁶⁶.

Olympic Games	Broadcast Revenue (in USD millions)
Rome 1960	1,2
Tokyo 1964	1,6
Mexico City 1968	9,8
Munich 1972	18
Montreal 1976	35
Moscow 1980	88
Los Angeles 1984	287
Seoul 1988	403
Barcelona 1992	636
Atlanta 1996	898
Sydney 2000	1,332
Athens 2004	1,494
Beijing 2008	1,739
London 2012	2,569
Rio 2016	2,868

Table 10 Revenues for the sale and marketing of audiovisual rights for the Summer Olympics, 1960-2018 (Source: IOC, 2021)

Olympic Winter Games	Broadcast Revenue (in USD millions)
Squaw Valley 1960	0,05
Innsbruck 1964	0,9
Grenoble 1968	2,6
Sapporo 1972	8,5
Innsbruck 1976	12
Lake Placid 1980	21
Sanjeyo 1984	103
Calgary 1988	325
Albertville 1992	292
Lillehammer 1994	353
Nagano 1998	514
Salt Lake City 2002	738
Turin 2006	831
Vancouver 2010	1,280
Sochi 2014	1,289
Pyongyang 2018	1,436

Table 11 Revenues for the sale and marketing of audiovisual rights for the Winter Olympics, 1960-2018 (Source: IOC, 2021)

Marketing within the Olympic dimension (bigger games=more spectators=more sponsorship income), makes its contribution essential for the effective realisation and achievement of the Olympic brotherhood.

The accusations levelled at the IOC over the choice of partners are purely cultural and social in nature, as the main sponsors are multinationals that manufacture products or sell services not associated with sport, many of which pursue commercial objectives that run counter to Olympic values. Of course, the IOC has also allowed developing countries to host editions of the Olympics in pursuit of its global branding objectives⁶⁷.

⁶⁶ IOC, Marketing Fact File, 2021

⁶⁷ Ruffenach, G. (1996): "Sell, sell, sell", The Wall Street Journal (19 July).

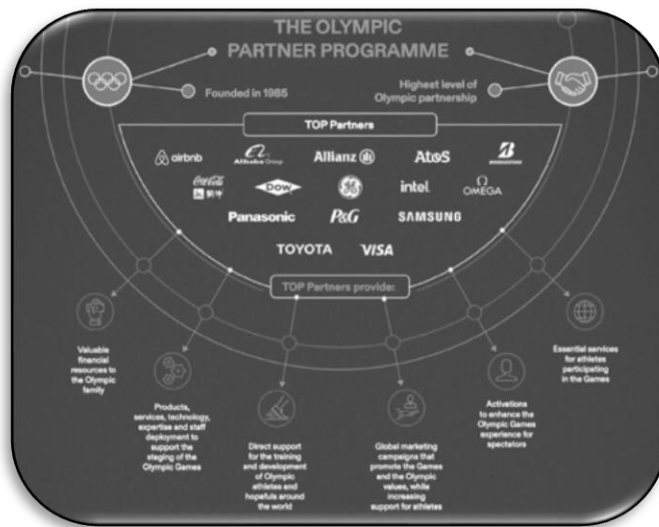


Figure 38 Sponsors of the TOP programme (Source: IOC, 2021)

Preuss (2010) argues that all this proliferation of sponsors can dilute the Olympic brand over time. The Salt Lake City, Nagano, Sydney, Sochi, and Rio scandals have shown that the exponential growth of commercialisation has allowed opportunities for corruption to emerge.

Therefore, the objectives of Olympic marketing can be defined in the following points:

- I. Design long-term marketing programmes and help publicise and support the Olympic Committee;
- II. Organisers guaranteeing stability in sponsorship;
- III. Funding for the entire Olympic movement, ensuring that it is distributed equitably throughout the movement.

The IOC manages and coordinates all marketing activities, ensuring ethical sponsorship. During the Games, no form of advertising is allowed without IOC acceptance and, as specified above, the presence of pre-selected television broadcasters not only narrows the media circuit but also allows for greater control of inadmissible advertising⁶⁸. During the Olympic Games, the IOC manages global sponsorship and broadcasting, while territorial sponsorship, ticket sales and licensing are managed by the Organising Committee, which is coordinated and controlled directly by the IOC. The IOC distributes 90% of the revenues from marketing to all Olympic Committees, supporting the fundamental principles of the dissemination and practise of sport as enumerated in the Olympic Charter. The remaining 10% is used to cover the administrative costs associated with the management of the Olympic movement (IOC, 2021). Considering sponsorship is nowadays essential for the promotion and funding of sport. The IOC should only preserve the Olympic brand by applying control and sustainability policies for the care of Olympic values, not losing the

⁶⁸ CIO, "IOC Marketing Media Guide", www.olympic.org

commercial attractiveness achieved so far. Without the support of Olympic values, the Olympic movement will tend to fade over time and spectators will tend not to be attracted to the Olympic event. A decrease in sponsorship and sponsorships could lead to a decrease in marketing flows, destabilising the entire global sports economy. Having looked at the IOC system, in the following sections we will analyse the bidding process and finally the process of planning and financing the Olympic event.

Source (in USD millions)	1993-1996	1997-2000	2001-2004	2005-2008	2009-2012	2013-2016
Broadcast	1,251	1,845	2,232	2,570	3,850	4,157
TOP Programme	279	579	663	866	950	1,003
Total	1,530	2,424	2,895	3,436	4,800	5,160

Table 12 IOC revenue by broadcast and major programme: last seven Olympics (Source: IOC, 2021)

3.2. Bid process

3.2.1. The bidding process and its evolution

The host city for the Olympic Games is chosen seven (7) years before the Olympic event⁶⁹. The bidding process is a lengthy process that starts three (3) years before the submission of the final dossier. The new bidding rules for the hosting of the Olympic Games were updated in 2018 by the IOC, introducing a new collaborative process that starts 10 years before the hosting of the Olympic event⁷⁰. This new process will allow cities to establish an ongoing dialogue with the IOC that should not necessarily transform into a full bid. The IOC, through this new reform, will be able to choose Olympic cities at any time⁷¹. The modifications were established following a series of withdrawals and a few bids for the last summer and winter editions. These new rules can be used from the 2030 Games onwards. This flexible timetable model will allow for a dynamic choice of candidate cities over time. In addition, the IOC evaluation commission will be divided into two separate commissions, one for the winter Olympics and one for the summer Olympics. The new commissions will consist of 10 and 8 members and will be responsible for selecting and recommending cities or joint bid concepts to the executive board before submitting them to the session. Through this new process, the Executive Committee will submit only one bid to host the Games, based on the recommendations of the commissions. The commissions will be composed of members who are not part of the executive board. The IOC Executive Board will elect the members of each commission and members will be removed from their role if their city and country are among the cities that have expressed an interest in hosting the Olympic event. In addition, at the IOC session in 2018, it was proposed that Olympic cities will be required to request a public referendum before

⁶⁹ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.32

⁷⁰ IOC, Olympic games:the new norm, 2018, p.12

⁷¹ The first city chosen through this new reform was Brisbane in 2021 for the 2032 Summer Games.

they can be considered as candidates. A change to the Olympic Charter was also approved to indicate that bids can come from several cities, regions or countries. The "*Host city contract*" will be renamed simply the "*host city contract*".

Shortly it is possible that it will be directly the session that approves a candidate to host the Olympic Games and there will be no formal election. This new model and these new rules offer more flexibility to the cities and the IOC, which is at a very critical historical moment. On the other hand, the reporting process remains the same. Cities and the proposing committee must submit three different reports at three different stages of evaluation:

- I. Vision, game concept and strategy (\$50,000).
- II. Governance, legal and headquarters funding (\$50,000).
- III. Delivery, expertise and legacy of the Games (\$150,000).

The reports must be submitted in digital format, in English, in French and printed for submission to the valuation commissions⁷².

Regarding the total cost of the Olympic project and the potential benefits, the investment of \$250,000 can be considered insignificant for promoting cities.

The IOC's new policies have introduced a reconsideration of the existing sports facilities on the territory of the candidate cities. The candidatures for the Olympic Games in Paris 2024, Los Angeles 2028, Milan-Cortina 2026 and Brisbane 2032 show an average of 90% of temporary or existing sports facilities on the territory. This data allows us to affirm that the IOC does not want to receive any kind of future criticism, preferring cities which have held previous editions and which add the Olympic Games to other processes of urban transformation in an advanced state.

During the analysis process, the commission conducts direct or indirect feasibility studies on the economic possibilities related to the hosting of the Olympic Games, the IOC also evaluates the benefits and services related to the organisation of the Olympic Games⁷³. However, the IOC also evaluates the possibility that corruption and scandals may compromise and damage the Olympic image⁷⁴, aspects that have always been underestimated in the past. The relationship between the IOC and the State decreed to host the Olympic Games is regulated by the requirements of the Olympic Charter. The requirements to be met are political, cultural, regulatory and economic. The Olympic Charter recognises the IOC as the sole organiser and supreme authority⁷⁵.

The Olympic Charter establishes that the IOC, in synergy with the host city, is responsible for the organisation "jointly and severally". This ideological component

⁷² IOC, Candidature process, 2015, p.6

⁷³ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.7

⁷⁴ IOC Code of Ethics: IOC Ethics Commission

⁷⁵ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.32

defines the "Olympic spirit" as the vector of ideals of concord and participation inherent in the Olympic movement, guaranteeing the commitment to contribute to and disseminate the social, educational and moral values present in Olympism⁷⁶. Within the Olympic Charter, it is specified that the government must provide assurances to the IOC regarding the Olympic Charter and its implementing rules. Acceptance of the rules is done politically and not legally, as the IOC cannot make international legal rules, being a non-governmental organisation focused on the regulation of the Olympic movement and the hosting of the Olympic Games (Calenda, 1998). Host states must take temporary measures to comply with the requirements of the Olympic Charter about the regulation of international athletes and their entry permits. The Olympic identity card grants, during the Olympic event, some exceptions⁷⁷ about the common regime of entry, movement and exit of foreigners in the countries where the Olympic Games are held (Chappelet, 2016). In normative terms, the IOC does not only ask for governmental and economic guarantees. The IOC regulations impose commercial agreements and oblige the Olympic city to sign an agreement that regulates the obligations between the parties.⁷⁸

Looking at the Olympic Charter and the contractual proposal, it can be seen that there is no equality between the two parties in question:

- The planning, management and organisation of the Olympic Games is the responsibility of the National Committee, which must carry out the activities by the Olympic Charter, the contract and the instructions of the IOC Executive Board⁷⁹ ;
- The Olympic Charter also establishes the type of legal entity and the composition of the organising committee;
- The International Olympic Committee reserves the right to withdraw the organisation of the Games from the host city at any time and with immediate effect, reinforcing the enforceability of the instructions and conditions contained in the Olympic Charter for the staging of the Games; it also reserves the right to claim damages from the IOC⁸⁰ ;
- The National Olympic Committee and the Organising Committee of the Games assume full financial and legal responsibility for the Olympic Games, undertaking to exclude the IOC "from payment of any damages resulting from or caused by any breach of this agreement, even if due to force majeure" (IOC, 2021).

The terms of the contract, therefore, do not reflect any equality between the parties, furthermore, for any inconsistencies, the applicable law is Swiss law and any interpretation or enforcement will be resolved by arbitration at the Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS).

⁷⁶ Dossier di candidatura, "Solicitud de candidature al C.O.I. para la celebraci3n en Barcelona de la XXV Olimpiada", Barcelona: Oficina Olimpica, Memoria, 1986, p. 121.

⁷⁷ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.44

⁷⁸ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.36

⁷⁹ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.32

⁸⁰ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.36

The candidature process is a very complex negotiation between different *stakeholders* at various levels (Larson, 2015). The dossier must include different conditions that need the support and implementation of governments. In addition, the financing and construction of the minimum infrastructures for transport, accommodation and more require joint operations between different public subjects that are not normally used to working using these external links. Over time, the financing of the Olympic Games has been and continues to be transformed through different exploitation models that have become for multinationals an intangible resource for short-term exploitation.

There are eleven criteria for the analysis of the Olympic Commissions:

- Public support.
- Public opinion.
- General infrastructure.
- Sports facilities.
- Olympic Village.
- Environmental impact.
- Development of transport systems.
- Presence of hospitality areas and hotels.
- Security.
- Experience.
- Financing.
- Global project and legacy to the city.

The candidature files are analysed in detail by the Evaluation Commission of the International Committee. In addition, the Committee visits all candidate cities and publishes a report listing all the technical aspects necessary to host the Games. The final vote is secret so as not to influence the members, and members from candidate countries do not participate in the vote, as they could otherwise influence the final choice. Blank, spoiled or abstention votes are not counted for the calculation of the required quorum⁸¹.

With the entry of TV rights and sponsorship, the bid has changed form over time from a "bid brief" to a "marketing dossier", with a real operational marketing plan that, through the qualities of the city, tends to capture the market and, therefore, interested entities. Rio's bid for the 2016 Olympic Games has been described as one of the best technical bids of all time⁸².

⁸¹ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.33/34

⁸² The World Bank (1999). Brazil. Rio de Janeiro: a City Study. Retrieved 1 August 2011 from the World Bank website: http://siteresources.worldbank.org/BRAZILIN-POREXTN/Resources/3817166-1185895645304/4044168-1186331278301/37pub_br238.pdf

The same cannot be said for the works and the legacy that the event has left in the city of Brazil⁸³. The new rules aim to reduce such failures by only choosing projects that apply the new criteria imposed by the IOC.

Two different typologies of development can be distinguished in the Olympic project:

- Development linked to the Olympic Games: sports facilities, hospitality infrastructure (Olympic Village, press room, radio, television, transport).
- Collateral development: expansion of roads and communication networks.

In recent years, sustainable development has become one of the key issues in guiding Olympic development strategies while preserving the environment and landscapes of the host territory. In this way, the IOC, in 2001, seeking to reduce the costs and possibilities of the *White elephant*, has introduced the OGI study⁸⁴ which allows to evaluate the impact of the Olympic Games through different parameters. The OGI study should be carried out before, during and after the Olympic event. This study aims to benefit the candidate cities through the transfer of strategic information, maximising the benefits.

The study sets out 117 indicators grouped into three application approaches:

- Social domain.
- Economic dominance.
- Ecological domain.

Candidatures are not yet obliged to respect this study to organise the event. The study aims to provide practical support for the candidate cities. Since 2001, only London in 2012 included all 117 indicators and has subsequently established its specific plans.

The main indicators of the OGI study are related to the direct and indirect impact of the development of the structure and infrastructure planned for the Olympic event. Other indicators cannot be ignored and analyse future issues that communities may face, such as increased crime rates, sports participation or water quality. Following the completion of the first OGI study for Sydney 2000, the IOC has advised all national committees to apply the indicators to the implementation of the Olympic bid.

In order not to increase their expenses, many committees have tried to reuse and revalue existing structures, foreseeing their versatility and reconversion⁸⁵ (LDA, 2009).

The Organising Committee shall maintain relations with the National Olympic Committees (NOC) and the International Federations (FIS).

⁸³ For example, the Olympic Village and sports facilities remain unused and abandoned.

⁸⁴ The indicators for the OGI study were provided by the University of Victoria.

⁸⁵ London 2012 games: the next lap", Sixth Report of Session 2007-08, Volume I, House of Commons, Culture, Media and Sport Committee, p. 23.

The relationship with the NOCs is strictly limited to the participants in the event, however, it is together with the FIS that they analyse the venues of the Games, the results and the competition programme of the Olympic Games.

In addition, the Organising Committee is responsible for the protection of all Olympic marks and for complying with all publications and communications requested by the IOC for the Olympic Games. Last but not least, the Organising Committee is responsible for defining the route of the "Olympic Flame" from Olympia to the host city's Games stadium⁸⁶.

The Organising Committee's responsibilities⁸⁷ include:

- Preparation and control of the competition fields and all the necessary accessories for the good development of the competition.
- Control and verification of the safety of the participants in the competitions and the public present at the event and the public attending the event.
- Preparation and reception: accommodation of athletes and accreditation check.
- Organisation and coordination of scheduled transport.
- Recruitment of support staff (interpreters and/or escorts), secretarial staff, design and promotion of the cultural entertainment programme for the authorities present (sponsoring companies, VIPs).
- Coordination of the working group in charge of collecting statistical data and compiling and publishing all official bulletins with the results of the competitions.
- Coordination of the medical sector. It is mandatory to set up a first aid station with appropriate staff, to request the service of an ambulance and to check that all athletes have a certificate of fitness for competitive activity. It is also necessary to follow the WADA regulations⁸⁸ to provide all facilities for doping controls.
- Marketing and advertising.
- Press centre to ensure telephone and television services.
- Press and media relations management.
- Coordination of the arbitration sector.

The coordination and execution of all these responsibilities involve and require excellent communication between all members of the Organising Committee in each country (Frawley, 2013). In addition, the Organising Committees are supported by other external structures, entities or foundations that fulfil the legal requirements for the realisation of the Olympic works. The planning, organisation and execution of the Olympic works financed in the territory must respect different criteria and must comply with the existing rules and regulations of each country. In order to coordinate a mega-event, it is necessary that the members of the Organising Committee and the different entities meet regularly. The progress of the project makes it possible to verify the fulfilment of the

⁸⁶ Fonte C.I.O., "Roles and responsibilities during the Olympic Games", February 2008, www.olympic.org.

⁸⁷ IOC, Olympic Charter 2021, art.37

⁸⁸ World Anti-Doping Agency, (WADA): The World Anti-Doping Agency leads the global collaborative movement for doping-free sport.

economic and financial plan drawn up previously. Organisational and bureaucratic problems can compromise and jeopardise the success of the Olympic Games. Therefore, the organisation of the Olympic event is a long and highly complex process, which cannot be accomplished by all cities and states in the world. Different cities throughout Olympic history have had and continue to have problems with the structures and infrastructures developed for the hosting of the Olympic event. The organisation of a specific collaborative structure for the organisation of sports events, supported by the availability of specialised human resources, is not an element within the reach of all cities. The new rules should help cities to develop new partnership structures and predispose long-term interventions and resources for the hosting of the Olympic event. It should be noted that the results of these new rules will only be seen after the completion of the Brisbane event scheduled for 2032. Inevitably, since the implementation of the new rules, cities will have to predispose sports facilities before the Olympic bid. The construction of the *Sofi Stadium*, the current stadium of the *NFL Chargers* in Los Angeles, for the 2028 edition shows how the new Olympic cities continue to present their mega projects for the allocation of the Olympic event.



Figure 39 Sofi Stadium in Los Angeles (Source: CC)

3.2.2. The IOC's knowledge transfer programme: OGKM

The organisation of the Olympic Games is considered one of the most complex operations in the world, involving at least two years of bidding, seven years of preparations, 16 days of competition and approximately one year of dissolution (IOC, 2014). Throughout this period, the Organising Committee (OCOG) of the Olympic Games must learn and improve Olympic operations for the development of the entire Olympic movement. The IOC, to preserve knowledge and help future Organising Committees, developed the *Olympic Games Knowledge Programme (OGKM)* back in 2000. This innovative new programme was created to ensure that future organisers could make the most of previous projects and the vast amount of knowledge available about the organisation of the Games. In this way, the platform became a knowledge tool for organising future events more effectively and efficiently. The OGKM programme aims to

help the bidding cities and the Organising Committee to develop a unique vision through the observation of past experiences.

The IOC's Transfer of Knowledge (TOK) programme was launched during the preparations for Sydney 2000, in partnership with the Sydney Organising Committee (SOCOG). Subsequently, for the implementation of the TOK programme and the launch of the platform two years later, the IOC created a separate company called *Olympic Games Knowledge Services* (OGKS). In 2005, the IOC decided to incorporate all knowledge tools through the definition of the *Olympic Games Knowledge Management* (OGKM) programme.

From its initial phases, the OGKM programme grew through the collaboration of various OCOGs and candidate cities for the transfer of knowledge towards the Olympic organisation and bidding.

What is the knowledge transfer programme (OGKM)?

The IOC's OGKM programme is a platform that integrates services and documentation to support organisers during all phases of Olympic event preparation. In addition, the platform allows for the evaluation of the progress and successes of the works, defining new ways of collaboration for the future of the Games. The vision of the programme seeks to contribute to maintaining the unique value, product success and experience of the Games through knowledge transfer (IOC, 2014). The programme is designed to improve the performance of Organising Committees and bid cities, enabling new solutions to be proposed and contributing to the evolution of the Olympic movement worldwide.

I would like to highlight in these lines how, for the drafting of my project, I was able to take advantage of and consult the IOC's knowledge transfer platform (OGKM) about the documentation of the Olympic Villages and their past experiences.

3.2.3. The activities of the knowledge programme

The programme offers other specific activities for the transfer of knowledge to the future host cities.

1. Observation programme: The observation programme allows future Game organisers to observe the operation of an Olympic event in action. The observer programme examines a range of areas related to the Games through site visits, round table discussions and other activities to observe the running of the event. For example, the London 2012 observer programme⁸⁹ included 50 site visits to some 15 competition venues and 37 non-competition venues, plus 5 roundtables over 21 days⁹⁰.

⁸⁹ For more information: The London 2012 Olympic observer programme.

⁹⁰ IOC, Olympic games knowledge management (OGKM), 2014, <https://olympics.com/ioc/documents>

2. *Games Evaluation*: The Games evaluation process seeks to capture learning from a Games edition for the implementation of opportunities and improvement of the experience of future events. The following information is then integrated into the other documents and knowledge transfer activities.

3. *IOC Debriefing*: This is one of the key elements of the IOC's evaluation of the Games. The *debriefing* consists of a seven-day seminar in the next host city of the Games, allowing participants to actively exchange ideas and transfer knowledge to future cities.

4. *Technical manuals*: Technical manuals are the fundamental documents containing key educational information and contractual requirements. The manuals are used to support the Organising Committee in the planning and implementation of the Olympic event. The technical manuals are updated after each edition. There are currently 33 technical manuals and eight guides totalling more than 7,000 pages of information for the preparation of the Olympic event⁹¹.

5. *Workshops*: The organisation of interactive workshops throughout the life cycle of the OC is seen as a necessary activity to transfer knowledge and tools to the OC. The workshops are led by external experts, sometimes veterans of previous OCs. For example, in 2011, 23 workshops were held for the OCOGs (IOC, 2014).

6. *Knowledge capacity building*: The following programme runs throughout the life cycle of the Olympic event and the Organising Committee, aiming to produce a continuous cycle of knowledge transfer, enabling OCOGs to tangibly contribute to the OGKM programme even before hosting the Games.

7. *OGKM Extranet*: The OGKM Extranet is the main platform and tool for using all the knowledge of the IOC knowledge transfer programme. The platform is accessible to all OCOGs and candidate cities. Thousands of documents, videos and reference content that can be used for the construction of the new Olympic bid can be accessed.

8. *Intercultural awareness*: To bridge the gap between different cultures, the IOC and the Organising Committees, organisers can take advantage of a specific platform to raise intercultural awareness. The platform includes specialised sessions for IOC staff on the cultures of different countries and organisations as part of the IOC training process.

9. *The secondary programme*: The IOC supports a knowledge programme for the temporary staff of the OCOGs of the Candidate Cities. In this way, the programme enables them to gain operational experience and can improve the organisation of the Olympic event.

⁹¹ IOC, 2020 Candidature acceptance procedure, 2020, https://stillmed.olympic.org/Documents/Host_city_elections/2020_CAP.pdf

3.3. Planning, organisation and financing of the Olympic Games

3.3.1. Financial trends at the Olympic Games

Over the last 100 years, the planning, organisation and financing of the Olympic Games have been and continue to be dynamically transformed in a way that is specific to each host country. As we noted in chapter 1, after the two world wars, administrations have had to rethink the structure and functions of their cities and it was from the 1960s onwards that the Olympic Games began to become an instrument of urban transformation.

Rome in 1960 was the first Olympic city to justify and rethink the city through the event, thanks to specific interventions for the Olympic event. From this historic moment, the States began to look at the Olympic Games from a strategic point of view, aware of the importance for the future of the host cities and the host territory. The opportunities taken advantage of by Olympic cities have enabled them to invest in new infrastructures and sports facilities. In this way, it has been shown that in some cases it has been fundamental in attracting tourists from all over the world.

On the other hand, we know that the States, with the passing of the different editions, have provided different projects; these will be observed through the different Olympic periods established by Preuss in 2000⁹².

First period (1896-1968)

In the past, given the restrictions on participation in the Olympic Games, the event was smaller in scale and therefore relatively small in several participants and terms of financial investment. Considering the cost of travel and accommodation, participation in the event was very limited. Therefore, most of the funding came from private donations and public funding. At the London Olympics in 1948, the broadcasting rights for the event were sold for the first time by BBC⁹³. Meanwhile, in 1960, the Rome Olympics was the first edition to be broadcast worldwide. The income from the audio-visual rights of the Olympic Games was the first element that caused a change in the financing model of the Olympic event. Subsequently, in Mexico 68, the rise of the media weight of the event and the students' misfortune in the Olympic Square allowed the world to reflect on that massacre, influencing the social and economic dimension of the Olympic event. Based on these historic events, the Olympic Commissions would evaluate the candidate cities and states in terms of the opportunities for the evolution of Olympism on the five continents.

⁹² H.Preuss: Economics of The Olympic Games(Hosting the games 1972-2000)- Walla Walla Press 2000

⁹³ IOC, "100 Years of Olympic Marketing", 2012

Second period (1969-1980)

This period is characterised by the growth of the global media coverage of the Olympic Games. Thanks to the media's interest in the Games and everything that goes with them, the IOC was able to expand its business. This new media dimension of the event will change the measurement of the event, transforming it into a means of justification for the host states. The economic dimension will change the spatial dimension of the Olympic Games, becoming an important source of funding for the construction of new infrastructures. Moreover, in this period, as analysed in the first chapter, cities needed new housing to accommodate the increase in population and to respond to the new social criteria that were transforming our society. The Munich and Montreal Olympic Games were entirely financed by the public administration, which justified the investments by relying on the realisation of infrastructural works and housing. From this point on, the Olympic Village will begin to transform and be seen as a catalyst for the forms of accommodation in each host country. The feeling is that the Olympic Games during this period were not an exclusive event for states with a strong domestic economy, but could be a real development opportunity for states with a less prosperous economy.

It can be said that it was from this moment onwards that the states began to understand the importance of hosting the Olympic Games, as it favoured the acceleration of priority works that were related to the demands of the citizens. The Olympic event does not seem to be exclusive to states with a buoyant economy; indeed, it could be said that the Olympic Games have become catalysts and precursors of future economic changes. During this period, the Olympics will become an economic investment in the economies of each host state. Montreal 1976 is considered an example of Olympic-related indebtedness, which allowed the IOC to rethink the event and the financing of the event.

Third period (1981-2002)

The organisation of the Montreal Olympics was a complete disaster. Over time, the Montreal event will be recognised as one of the worst examples of management in Olympic history. The total cost of the event was as high as \$20 billion, creating a public debt that expired only in 2000. From 1981, IOC President Samaranch⁹⁴ provided a new system of financing the event through the collaboration of Ueberroth⁹⁵ who at the time was the head of the Organising Committee of the 1984 Los Angeles Games. After Montreal, the IOC began to be criticised by the citizens of the candidate cities. The Olympic Commission was forced to review the entire financing plan and the organisational model of the Olympic Games in order not to compromise Olympism in the world. The reform carried out by Samaranch and the IOC was designed to promote a new mixed management model, which could include fixed sponsors, which over time would contribute to the evolution of the Olympic movement around the world. The realisation of this

⁹⁴ Juan Antonio Samaranch, President of the International Olympic Committee from 1980 to 2001

⁹⁵ Peter Ueberroth, President of the Organising Committee for the 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games. He subsequently served as President of the United States Olympic Committee from 2004 to 2008.

transformation was achieved with the founding of *ISL management*, which was responsible for the commercialisation of audio-visual rights and the inclusion of a "TOP" sponsorship plan that included only 10 companies in the world. At the Los Angeles Olympic Games in 1984, to attract new funds, the Organising Committee, led by Mr Ueberroth, initiated an aggressive policy of selling television rights and sponsorship. The success of the sales strategies crystallised in the acquisition of sponsorship by the world's electronics giants. The Committee succeeded in attracting companies such as *IBM, NEC, KODAC, and FUJI*, which proved to be instrumental in the technological evolution of the entire Olympic movement. In addition, the Committee secured a \$225,000,000 contribution to sell the television rights. The 1984 Los Angeles event marks the turning point in Olympic financing, advancing a new form of entirely private partnership for the operation and organisation of the Olympic event.

At the end of the edition, the IOC declared the event over-sponsored and provided a redefinition of the Olympic principles (Preuss, 2000). Thus, the '84 edition stood as a new model of mega-event management, promoting a new socio-economic impact on the host states. Moreover, the entirely private funding model is a model that was observed only in the American editions of the games. Since the 1992 Barcelona Olympics, in Europe and on other continents, the management model that became established was the mixed management model, which is still the one most used by Olympic cities to this day. Meanwhile, the Australian edition in 2000 is recognised as the first edition to include public funding for environmental conservation and carbon footprint reduction during the Olympic event.

Fourth period (2004-2016)

The inclusion of a new theme such as sustainability in the organisation of events and the future development of our cities will again change Olympic projects back to largely public funding. In this period, Olympic projects will increase their capacity and size exponentially. Moreover, in this period, the spatial dimension of the event requires increasingly complex territorial planning, which in turn requires specialised human resources to implement all the Olympic works. It is at this time that the Olympic Games will reach their maximum media coverage, which will provoke new criticism related to the mega-projects proposed by Beijing 2008, Sochi 2014 and Rio de Janeiro 2016. The Sochi and Rio de Janeiro projects exceeded 30 billion in investment, causing a rebound effect for the entire Olympic movement. This situation obliged the Olympics in 2017 to directly nominate two past Olympic cities where existing structures, to reduce the costs incurred during that period. These years were the most delicate for the entire Olympic movement, with a drastic decrease in the number of bids. In addition, the IOC was involved in some scandals related to the buying of votes by the elected members of the IOC.

Fifth period (2020-2036)

This last phase is the result of the new measures proposed by the IOC and continues to be dynamically updated about each specific bid. We can affirm that the IOC has modified the processes for the candidate cities and the characteristics of the Olympic project. The Olympic project, in the following stages, will be a project that builds on the structural and infrastructural availability of the candidate cities. All chosen cities have long-term plans that include the event within a reduced spatial dimension. Reducing the size of the event will help to reduce the costs for each state and will again transform the mega-event of the future, focusing more on the issues of sustainability, re-use and re-evaluation of spaces and structures.

By implementing these new rules, the IOC intends to implement new measures to reduce the impact of the event on the candidate cities, without compromising its economic dimension. Tokyo 2020 was affected by the global pandemic and, unusually, this led to an increase in the cost of the event, which for the first time in history was borne by the IOC. This was the first time in Olympic history that the IOC added new funds to the Organising Committee of a host country.

3.3.2. Strategic planning of Olympic stakeholders

Strategic planning is at the heart of the Olympic bid process. The definition of the objectives to be pursued and the means used to achieve them are the key elements of an Olympic bid. However, the success of the bid and the event depends primarily on the strategic planning of each city and each promoting country. The benefits associated with planning are manifold, and it is, therefore, essential to investigate and study the phenomena that may manifest themselves during the process of realising the Olympic event. Over time, the reuse and legacy of the event have become fundamental elements in the predisposition of structures that can benefit the citizens and the host city. Furthermore, planning must be transparent, seeking to reduce the uncertainty of citizens and minimising the forms of protest that have developed over the course of the Olympic period, as discussed above (Zervas, 2012).

The planning of a mega-event requires the design of philosophy or "vision", which identifies the different entities and the different levels of participation in the organisation of the event. As analysed by De Carlo (2003), the Olympic Games in comparison to other smaller events, such as the World Cup⁹⁶, in terms of size and media interest, can get out of hand and lead to a socio-economic crisis as happened in Greece after the 2004 Olympic Games. Precisely for this reason, it is of vital importance to investigate before proposing a bid, which could jeopardise the socio-economic development of the host cities. The predisposition of a well-articulated long-term investment plan will allow all beneficiaries to take advantage of new territorial synergies that can be transformed over time into new

⁹⁶ De Carlo M., Sainaghi R., Forum: "Destination management and major sporting events", *Economia & management*, n.6 2003

territorial development models (Masterman, 2009). Today, it is essential to develop a marketing plan that foresees different levels of participation and importance, in terms of economic revenue and media visibility. Once the different levels of sponsorship and therefore the importance of the stakeholders have been identified, it would be useful to recognise the following characteristics of each stakeholder: interests, resources, powers, connections and problems. The next step concerns the segmentation of the different categories of stakeholders, associating them into homogeneous groups (*clusters*) and creating a map of all stakeholders. The *stakeholder* map should be represented with the help of a star chart in which each axis highlights the issues and objectives. In this way, the groups closest to the centre are defined as having the greatest interest in the identified issues and objectives. Axes with a high number of stakeholders highlight the concentration of interests in certain areas of implementation and therefore need to monitor associated conflicts or resistance. Stakeholders should be involved in the planning phase so that they can personally assess the risks and chances of success of the event. However, the success of the event does not depend on these factors alone. The Olympic Games can be defined as a mix of products and services that must be coordinated to achieve their primary objectives. The organisation of priorities and the creation of a permanent collaboration structure are considered essential to achieve most of the tangible and intangible factors associated with this type of event. The inclusion and collaboration of different public and private operators, involving different levels of organisation and coordination, can contribute to the constitution of a network of temporary interest for the target territory. Human resources and teamwork are crucial for the identification of the necessary contributions and the distribution of the experience in the territory. Today, private fundings have become fundamental resources for the development and success of the Olympic event. In addition, the new participatory marketing model⁹⁷ allows cities to build and establish new territorial networks and partnerships that can become an intangible asset for the territory in the post-Olympic period. The responsibilities of the event organisers⁹⁸, must be to ensure that the aims and objectives of the public and private representatives involved in the Olympic project are met⁹⁹. The Olympic Games in a multidisciplinary and multidimensional observation comprise different aspects that should be considered in the strategic planning of the *stakeholders*, in this section only the most important ones will be listed: the social aspect and the economic aspect. Inevitably, these two fields of application must achieve the same objectives. The social side should direct the changes to be made, while the economic side should try to recover as many resources as possible to be able to carry out all the planned actions.

Social aspect: This is essentially the most important area. The Olympic Games can permanently change the skeleton of the city. The creation of new urban centres and the conversion of disused areas are only two of the phenomena that inevitably lead to long-

⁹⁷ Erickson G.S., Kushner R.J., "Public event networks: an application of marketing theory to sporting events"; in *European Journal of Marketing* n.3/4 (1999).

⁹⁸ Freeman R., "Strategic management: a stakeholder approach", Pitman, 1984, p. 189 ff.

⁹⁹ Reid S., Arcodia C., "Understanding the role of the stakeholder in event management", in Jago L., Deery R., Allen J., Hede A., *Events and Place Making*, UTS, 2002, p.492.

term structural changes. The change in the fabric of the city entails a change in society, which inevitably leads to the formation of new places. The image of the post-Olympic city can contribute to changing the perception of the city in the world. Barcelona, Turin, Sydney, and Beijing, are considered the cities that through the Olympic event have changed their image and developed a new city brand.

Economic aspects: Economic investments should always consider the social impact they will have. However, over time, financial investments have unfortunately not always taken into account the social implications of Olympic interventions. As has been pointed out, the Olympic Games involve a multiplicity of actors integrated into a system managed by a temporary and qualified team. The analysis of the Olympic Games as a "multi-purpose" system leads to different indications for the different actors of the event. However, the inclusion of private funding will inevitably lead to a reconsideration of the economic outcomes of the event, without compromising the associated social value (Maenning, 2012).

The division of *stakeholders* can be made according to the tasks assigned and the contributions of each subject to the Olympic project. In addition, the relationship with the event's stakeholders should not be neglected and, of course, should be managed in the best possible way. Primary *stakeholders* are defined as the main protagonists of the event as their contribution and involvement are considered essential for the realisation of the event. Secondary *stakeholders*, although not directly involved in the organisation of the event, can influence and therefore compromise the success of the event.

The primary *stakeholders* identified in the delivery of the OG can be divided into:

- *Protagonists*→ Individuals with active roles in the event who contribute to the production of the event.
- *Workers*→ The human resources involved in the different tasks of the temporary work group are responsible for the realisation of the event, it is design and its execution (paid activity).
- *Volunteers*→ Without the recruitment of volunteers the event would not be able to function, even if they do not receive any remuneration they can have relevant functions within the organisation.
- *Partners/Sponsor*→ Organisations, media and other companies that collaborate in the realisation of the event, providing tangible and intangible resources.
- *Participants*→ Defined as participants, they take an active role in the event when they participate in it.

In addition to these main *stakeholders*, secondary *stakeholders* are identified who may nevertheless have an impact on the realisation of the event:

- *Local and/or central institutions*→ They are involved from the beginning in the design phase and, depending on their involvement, their influence on

implementation can be defined. In addition, the institutions must define policies and procedures to be respected.

- *Host community*→ Knowing the socio-demographic and socio-psychological characteristics at an early stage can help organisers to avoid negative effects after such events. The problems that can be caused are innumerable, from increased urban traffic to an increase in the number of tourists in the city.
- *Public services*→ Parking, transport, airport, and the environment are just some of the elements included in the public services. They can be summarised as all services reserved and made available to spectators, tourists and guests.
- *Emergency services*→ These include medical services, the police, accident and fire prevention, etc. These services are invaluable in certain situations that may arise during the event, and the associated costs are many, so it is advisable to draw up an emergency plan in advance to deal with all the problems that may arise.
- *Economic and productive system of the host territory*→ These are the interests of the local institutions involved in the organisation of the events. Territories that try to invest in territorial marketing, seeking to attract new tourists in the post-Olympic period. This system is very important because the post-Olympic business generated by the city only concerns the local institutions, and naturally, the responsibility also falls on them.
- *Media*→ Broadcasting and participation are the key elements that characterise the event in an "entertainment" context. Today, thanks to global broadcasting, the media tend to promote the image of the event and the host city around the five continents. At the last Olympic Games, the media were also an integral part of the organisation of the event, as communication is essential to promote the Olympic venues.
- *Tourist organisations*→ It is only in the last twenty years that tourism companies have started to realise the importance of tourism flows and have therefore increased their offers related to the Olympic Games. Moreover, it can also be used to develop adaptive behaviour after the occurrence of environmental contingencies¹⁰⁰.

Stakeholder relations have become crucial to the development of the event and its success.

The organisation of the event must adopt a life-system approach, situating within it all the relationships and interactions associated with the development and survival of the OG (IOC, Olympic Legacy, 2012). Once the various contributions associated with the hosting of the Olympic Games have been verified, *"the evaluation of the event is a process of observing, monitoring and measuring the realisation of the event, which ensures that the planned objectives have been achieved"*¹⁰¹.

¹⁰⁰ R. Cafferata, "Sistemi ambiente e innovazione", Giappichelli, 1995, p. 56 ff.

¹⁰¹ Golinelli G.M. "L'impresa sistema vitale", Cedam, 2000, p. 111-112.

Direct observation and data recording during the OG allow for data collection and subsequent analysis to provide theses and solutions to the problems encountered. The evaluation process has become a fundamental part of the process to receive the returns of interest from the operators and the parties involved, both for material and immaterial resources. The characteristics of evaluation are systematicity, dynamism and sequentially¹⁰². Most of the studies on the subject are directed towards the analysis of the economic aspect associated with the Olympic Games, as the *stakeholders* have interests related to the economic flow. It is necessary to create an information system that, thanks to numerous sources and studies, can help organisers to make decisions and evaluate operational marketing strategies¹⁰³. Once the objectives have been defined, management should focus on monitoring and then develop a monitoring system for each level of objectives. The monitoring system should be applied to each of the aspects listed above, as this is the only way to evaluate the success of the event and thus enable corrections to be made during the planning and implementation phases. Those responsible for monitoring must take into account the importance of the objectives and the Olympic values to adjust the intensity and depth of the monitoring to be carried out.

For each area they can be used as indicators:

- *Customer based*→ They mainly refer to the cognitive nature and therefore estimate the knowledge, attitude, associations involved and the level of customer satisfaction¹⁰⁴. These types of indicators are used to define "*event equity*" and can be used to calculate selling prices to sponsors. The only problem is that to carry out this type of research, a lot of resources have to be spent on specific market research.
- *Service indicators*→ This type of indicator defines and determines the assessment of the required processes of the individual activities and their associated performance. A ranking is then established to determine the level of service or lack of service. The main advantage is that, based on this type of analysis, stakeholders' inputs can be detailed to assess their actual activity.
- *Economic-financial indicators*→ The Olympic Games are about creating an experience that is inevitably defined as a "*commercial experience*". Stakeholders want to know how much they will gain from the initial investment, so the costs and revenues generated by the Olympic project are evaluated, as well as the results of the event's value (*brand equity*).
- *Relational indicators*→ In the resource theory, the network is defined as one of the most important parts, as it enables the organisers to increase the Olympic values and therefore also to increase future sponsorship contributions. The network

¹⁰² Reid S., Arcodia C., "Understanding the role of the stakeholder in event management", in Jago L., Deery R., Allen J. Hede A. (a cura di), *Events and Place Making*, UTS. 2002, p. 305 ff.

¹⁰³ Wood E., "Marketing information for the events industry", in Yeoman I., Robertson M., All-Knight J. (a cura di), *Festival and events management*, Butterworth Heinemann, 2004.

¹⁰⁴ Iasevoli G., "Il valore del cliente: misurare gli effetti della soddisfazione e della fedeltà sul valore dell'impresa", ed. F. Angeli, Milano, 2000.

created around the event has become essential to know and understand the competencies needed to define and implement the processes foreseen in the strategic plan.

The strategic planning process, the inclusion of *stakeholders*, the communication plan, the organisation of human resources, control and execution are the fundamental elements for the organisation of a mega-event. However, the creation of a territorial event implies the definition of specific roles for each of the subjects involved, as well as reference indicators for the observation of the expected results. In the next chapter, we will see how post-Olympic strategic planning should be provided in host cities by including the new elements of legacy and sustainability.

III. OLYMPIC URBANISM

Previous studies on Olympic urbanism

The specific subject of my work, the Olympic Villages, has not been fully analysed in all the fields related to urban transformation and its future implications in the territory. A few types of research can be mentioned that have addressed the issue of Olympic urbanism.

The first classification of the history of the Olympic Villages, carried out by Francesc Muñoz (1996), has made it possible to identify the development models used over time and their implications for urban planning. From this study, we can observe a classification and urban analysis of the Olympic Villages developed for the Summer Games and how these Olympic Villages can be defined as a specific urban instrument in the territory (Muñoz 1996).

Thanks to this contribution we can affirm the importance of Olympic urbanism as a catalyst for the future urban growth and development of the candidate cities. At the same time, the Olympic Village can generate new specific strategies for the development of the territory and the use of space. According to Liao and Pittas in 2006, modern Olympic cities are not a true geographical concept and Olympic cities are not diverse, but open phenomena that are reinterpreted about each new Olympiad.

Therefore, each Olympic urban scheme must balance ritual, social, economic, environmental and symbolic considerations, and appreciate long-term realities (Liao 2006).

While in 1998, Chalky and Essex have conducted an innovative analysis to look at the temporal level of the history of the Olympic Games:

1. 1896-1904 Small and Temporary
2. 1908-1932 Early construction of sports facilities
3. 1936-1965 Olympic Village and Sports Facilities
4. 1960-1996 Infrastructures and urban reorganisation (satellite structures)
5. 2000-present Sport district

Their research analyses how games affect cities through the scale of investment and the direction of projects (Chalky and Essex, 2010).

Hiller in 2014 states that urban impact, a largely neglected aspect of mega-event analysis, is defined as a parallel or collateral linkage. According to Hiller, upstream linkages such as parallel linkages will have a direct effect on the post-event stage. (Hiller, 2003).

On the other hand, about the Olympic event, Preuss' (2010) contribution has opened a fundamental stage about the impact and legacy related to the Olympic Games. This contribution allows us to consider the Olympic Games as a long-term element that should be involved in the overall development of the city to positively stimulate the economy of the candidate cities. Furthermore, its differentiation on the impact and legacy of the Olympic Games provides a solid basis for analysis for my project.

Another fundamental contribution to carry out the research is by Angelo Turco (Turco, 1984,188) on "Region and Regionalisation". The following text analyses how territorialization events relate to territory and how contemporary deterritorialization is the first in history to tend structurally, without regressing.

Thanks to these starting points, I will analyse how Olympic projects can influence the development of cities in the future, diminishing the possibilities of transformation. These documents show the importance of the territorial impact of the Olympic Village on the city, allowing us to consider Olympic urbanism as an asset that cannot be destroyed in the post-Olympic phase.

The processes of territorialization and regionalisation are fundamental to understanding the impact of the Olympic Village on the territory. The creation of new structures will always entail some territorial changes and new incidences in the internal connections of the city and the territory. The importance of the infrastructural network in the Olympic Games is underlined by Kassen-Noor who, in his study, analyses how the connections in the Olympic cities have increased and how the Games have promoted new infrastructural connections on the territory (Kassen-Noor, 2013).

To fully explain the Olympic Village, the division of territorialization processes carried out by (Raffestin, 1984; Turco, 1984,1988,1993), applied to the local project by Magnaghi (2000), and taken up in depth by (Dansero, Mela, 2006) for a new interpretation of the different territorial effects that can arise through the organisation of a mega-event. Furthermore, his concerns regarding the processes of deterritorialization allow us to consider the Olympic Village as a link on the territory that will be complex to modify. Equally important is the contribution of Dematteis (2005) to the territory and the infrastructural networks related to local communities, which allows us to consider geography as a globalising instrument for the territory of candidate cities. Moreover, about the geographical territory, his contribution, "Territoriality, local development, sustainability: the SLOT model" of 2005, recognises the importance of the issue of sustainable development of local communities through the application of the SLOT model.

While, in parallel, the reports provided by the ONU for the sustainable development of cities and mega sports events will be considered. The analysis will look at all documentation produced since the Agenda 2020 of Rio de Janeiro in 1992 up to the new guidelines for sustainable development in 2030. In addition, the research will also consider the International Olympic Committee's publications and reports for the candidate cities.

The proposed reports for the candidate cities and the dossiers of the Olympic Games in Turin, Vancouver, Sydney and London will allow us to observe concretely how the Olympic indicators (OGGI) for the sustainable development of the event were applied. Thanks to these documents, it will be possible to observe the different development dynamics implemented by the host communities about the model provided by the organising committee. Meanwhile, about the Winter Olympic Games, Chappelet's contributions to the history, evolution and specific territorial legacy of the winter event are of fundamental importance (Chappelet, 2002, 2008, 2010).

Despite all the above-mentioned references related to my research topic, I would like to point out the lack of previous comparative studies on the analysis of Winter and Summer Olympic Villages until today.

Therefore, the project will be advanced with a theoretical framework that can explain the tangible and intangible phenomena related to the Olympic Village. At the same time, the implication of the Olympic Village on the territory will be analysed in consideration of the elements of sustainability, heritage and impact.

The importance of studying this issue through a new concept of observation about the different phases of the project and how it will change over time is affirmed. In addition, it will be essential to consider other contributions from other disciplines such as sociology, economics, management, sustainability, architecture, culture, politics, socio-politics and engineering.

I would like to underline the importance of my analytical study on the planning of the Olympic Village and its territorial impact. By proposing and defining a new development model for the candidate cities, it will be possible to rethink the Olympic Village as a temporary catalytic instrument.

The research proposes an innovative analysis of Olympic urban planning in general, and of Olympic Villages in particular, which will both consolidate the field of study that Olympic urban planning represents and offer a useful document about the future construction of new Olympic Villages in the coming decades.

The research proposal aims to disseminate knowledge and propose new models of Olympic Village management in the post-Olympic period.

4. Olympic Games and cities

Abstract

After having introduced the key concepts, the next chapter will allow us to look at the relationship between the Olympic event and the Olympic cities. In next chapter will allow us to look at the relationship between the Olympic event and the Olympic cities, at the consideration of the contributions of Essex, Chalkley (1998) and Liao (2006) taking into account the urban impact of the event in a context of physical transformations in Olympic cities. Meanwhile, the contribution of Kassen-Noor (2013) established concepts related to the transformation of the transport system in candidate cities in the context of territorial development. By considering the transformation of places, the different spatial representations of the Olympic territory will be analysed, using the scheme created by Harvey (2002) and re-adapted by Dansero and Mela (2006) about the Olympic event. The next element will be to apply the concept of territorialization advanced by Turco in 1988 for the analysis of the production of the Olympic territory. By considering the local project and thanks to the contributions of Magnaghi (2000) and Dematteis (2005), it will be possible to observe the different local development policies for host territories. The chapter will analyse the consideration of impact through the contributions of the COI and the OGI study. We will observe how the model constituted the assessment of the Olympic legacy for candidate cities over time. Finally, the chapter will analyse the new concepts of Olympic legacy and sustainable development. The new criteria for the evaluation of Olympic cities have been established as fundamental tools in terms of assessment for Olympic cities.

4.1. Olympic cities

4.1.1. Introduction to Olympic cities

The August 2008 Beijing Olympics, however, signed a shift in the global audience for mega-events, establishing record revenues from the sale and marketing of audio-visual rights¹. For this reason, since 2008 the revenues and viewership of the event continue to evolve through new digital platforms that contribute significantly to the global audience of the event. According to the IOC's 2021 report, it can be seen that London 2012 and Rio 2016 had an audience of almost 5 billion people globally. Meanwhile, the Sochi 2014 and PyeongChang 2018 Winter Olympics reached an audience of 2.5 billion total viewers². This data allows us to make a big distinction between the summer and winter editions³. For this reason, the difference between audience and funding, by the IOC and the Olympic sponsors, allows us to hypothesise that the winter Olympics are disadvantaged and therefore the Organising Committees have to provide very complex projects with weak economic flexibility. Consequently, we can affirm that the relationship of dependence between the city and the Olympic Games is an element that continues to be preserved only in the summer edition. As we will observe in chapter 5, the winter edition since 2006 has seen a profound change in terms of size, dimension and exploitation model of the Olympic event. Earlier, in October 2009, two economists, Mark Spiegel of the Federal Reserve Bank of San Francisco and Andrew Rose of the University of Berkley, conducted a study on the Olympic legacy of the host cities⁴. The study focuses on the facilities and infrastructure created to host the Olympic Games. They, like many other researchers, focus on the problem of strategic planning, highlighting its centrality in all aspects of the success of the Olympics. Therefore, in consideration of the large investment in infrastructure, it is crucial to highlight the importance of developing a strategic plan, in collaboration with all stakeholders, regional, national and international. The strategic plan allows leaving a legacy to the community⁵ in terms of venues, facilities, parks and everything that has been designed for the Olympic Games (Rose and Spiegel, 2009). To develop an excellent strategic plan, it is undoubtedly necessary to maintain a long communication with all the parties involved and also to plan 10-20 years as an essential factor that advances the mixed management between public and private companies⁶. For example, the case of Barcelona, which in 1976 drew up the General Metropolitan Plan⁷ for the city in an agreement with the public administration to host the 1992 Olympic Games⁸. The case of Barcelona has

¹ Lee M. Sands, "The 2008 Olympics' Impact on China", The China Business Review, July August 2008.

² CIO, Marketing Fact, 2021, p.8-21

³ In addition, there is a 100% difference in the marketing of audiovisual rights between the two editions.

⁴ Andrew K. Rose and Mark M. Spiegel, The Olympic Effect. National Bureau of Economic Research, October 2009.

⁵ However, citizens being the central part of the strategic planning, the Organising Committee without the support and involvement of the host community will not be able to take advantage of all the intangible benefits associated with this type of "Mega-event".

⁶ PwC, Public-Private Partnerships: The US Perspective, June 2010

⁷ Plan general metropolitano de ordenación urbana, de la entidad municipal metropolitana de Barcelona, Economic Study (February 1976), Corporacio Metropolitana de Barcelona (CMB), Barcelona, January 1976.

⁸ The urban project of the new Barcelona began in 1976 with the approval of the Metropolitan Plan which included 26 municipalities considering them as part of a total urban planning, using the communication and service roads as integration tools.

become a model⁹ to follow in the management and organisation of these "Mega-Events", but unfortunately, not all states have the same capacities and human resources¹⁰. However, political, social and cultural conditions affect and condition the success of the Olympic event. In this sense, the theory that not all cities in the world can host these events and achieve the same results is proven¹¹. Each event must be analysed according to its historical moment in time. Only through the post-Olympic planning can a consistent emphasis on the city's image and marketing be established. Cities such as Sydney¹², New York, Barcelona, Atlanta, and Sochi, have invested heavily in marketing before, during and after the event. There is no doubt that the greatest tangible value we can associate with the city's image is tourism (Preuss, 2000).

Barcelona has become one of the leading European cities in terms of the number of tourists, the number of sporting events and the number of international congresses. Today, its main sources of funding are managed through joint ventures specialised in the different operations to be carried out. Moreover, Michael Pane, who has worked with the International Olympic Committee for more than 20 years, agrees that the optimal management of this type of "Mega-Event" should be entrusted to a joint venture with specialists in the economic sector¹³. Therefore, the bid for the Games can represent an opportunity for development, for a change in the philosophy of operations in the host city¹⁴. The Organising Committees must take into account all possible risks, present and future, always bearing in mind the importance of citizens and sustainable practices for the territory¹⁵. Furthermore, the planning of the facilities should integrate urban social policies, favouring the development of the city over time. The integration of the event into a strategic plan for the whole region or nation can transform the event into a long-term dynamic process. As stated by Gold (2008, 2016) and Roche (1992, 2002, 2003, 2006), mega-events, if successful in terms of organisation and promotion of the city's image, can contribute to the international projection of a new image and identity of the city (Viehoff, 2018).

Table 13 Candidate Cities for the Summer Olympic Games, 1896-2032 (Source: Compiled by author from IOC, 2022)

Year	Year of adjudication.	Host city	Host country	Other candidates
1896	1894	Athens	Greece	London

⁹ For example, Turin in 2006 and Rio in 2016 were two of the cities that were inspired by the Barcelona model for the exploitation of the Olympic event and have obtained completely different results.

¹⁰ World Economic Forum, Global Risks 2020: A Global Risk Network Report, January 2010.

¹¹ Brazil, to host the two events (World Cup and Olympic Games) has received 83 billion in public and private funds, for the development of new infrastructures, connections, communication, technology and other works that had to help the State to solve some problems.

¹² NSW Treasury: Office of Financial Management, The Economic Impact of the Sydney Olympic Games, November 1997. PwC, Business and Economic Benefits of the Sydney 2000 Games: A Collation of Evidence, 2001.

¹³ Michael Payne, "A Gold-Medal Partnership", Strategy+Business, Spring 2007.

¹⁴ PwC, Cities of Opportunity, 2010

¹⁵ Reassessing existing structures over time has become essential.

1900	1894	Paris	France	
1904	1901	St. Louis*	United States	Chicago
1908	1904	London**	Great Britain	Berlin, Milan, Rome
1912	1909	Stockholm	Sweden	
1916	1912	Berlin	Germany	Berlin, Alexandria (Egypt), Budapest, Cleveland, Brussels
1920	1914	Antwerp	Belgium	Amsterdam, Atlanta, Brussels, Budapest, Budapest, Cleveland, Lyon, Havana, Philadelphia
1924	1921	Paris	France	Los Angeles, Atlantic City, Chicago, Pasadena, Rome, Barcelona, Amsterdam, Lyon
1928	1921	Amsterdam	The Netherlands	Los Angeles
1932	1923	Los Angeles	United States	
1936	1931	Berlin	Germany	Barcelona, Buenos Aires, Rome,
1940	1936	Tokyo	Japan	Tokyo, Helsinki, Rome
1944	1939	London	Great Britain	London, Athens, Budapest, Lausanne, Helsinki, Rome, Detroit
1948	1946	London	Great Britain	Baltimore, Lausanne, Los Angeles, Minneapolis, Philadelphia
1952	1947	Helsinki	Finland	Amsterdam, Chicago, Detroit, Detroit, Los Angeles, Minneapolis, Philadelphia
1956	1949	Melbourne	Australia	Buenos Aires, Chicago, Detroit, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, Mexico City, Minneapolis, Montreal, Philadelphia
1960	1955	Roma	Italy	Budapest, Brussels, Detroit, Lausanne, Lausanne, Mexico City, Tokyo
1964	1959	Tokyo	Japan	Brussels, Detroit, Vienna

1968	1963	Mexico City	Mexico	Buenos Aires, Lyon, Detroit
1972	1966	Munich	Germany	Detroit, Madrid, Montreal
1976	1970	Montreal	Canada	Los Angeles, Moscow
1980	1974	Moscow	Soviet Union	Los Angeles
1984	1978	Los Angeles	United States	Tehran
1988	1981	Seoul	South Korea	Nagoya (Japan)
1992	1986	Barcelona	Spain	Amsterdam, Belgrade, Birmingham, Brisbane, Paris
1996	1990	Atlanta	USA	Athens, Belgrade, Manchester, Melbourne, Toronto
2000	1993	Sydney	Australia	Brasilia, Beijing, Berlin, Istanbul, Manchester, Milan, Tashkent
2004	1997	Athens	Greece	Buenos Aires, Cape Town, Istanbul, Lille, Rio de Janeiro, Rome, San Juan, St. Petersburg, Seville, Stockholm
2008	2001	Beijing	China	Bangkok, Cairo, Havana, Istanbul, Kuala Lumpur, Osaka SL, Paris SL, Seville, Toronto SL
2012	2005	London	United Kingdom	Istanbul, Havana, Leipzig, Paris SL, Madrid SL, Moscow SL, New York SL, Rio de Janeiro
2016	2009	Rio de Janeiro	Brazil	Baku, Chicago SL, Doha, Madrid SL, Prague, Tokyo
2020	2013	Tokyo	Japan	Baku, Doha, Istanbul SL, Madrid SL
2024	2017	Paris	France	Unanimous
2028	2017	Los Angeles	United States	Unanimous
2032	2021	Brisbane	Australia	72 Yes, 5 No, 3 abstention (93,5% of valid votes)

Table 14 Candidate cities for the Olympic Winter Games, 1924-2026 (Source: Compiled by author from IOC, 2022)

<i>Year</i>	<i>Year of adjudication.</i>	<i>Host city</i>	<i>Host country</i>
1924	Chamonix	Francia	
1928	St. Moritz	Swiss	Davos, Engelberg (Switzerland)
1932	Lake Placid	United States	Montreal (Canada), Bear Mountain, Yosemite Valley, Lake Tahoe, Duluth, Minneapolis, Denver (USA)
1936	Garmisch-Partenkirchen	Germany	St Moritz (Switzerland)
1948	St Moritz	Swiss	Lake Placid (USA)
1952	Oslo	Norway	Cortina (Italy), Lake Placid (USA)
1956	Cortina	Italia	Colorado Springs, Lake Placid (USA), Montreal (Canada)
1960	Squaw Valley	EE.UU.	Innsbruck (Austria), St Moritz (Switzerland), Garmisch-Partenkirchen (Germany)
1964	Innsbruck	Austria	Calgary (Canada), Lahti/Are, (Sweden)
1968	Grenoble	Francia	Calgary (Canada), Lahti/Are (Sweden), Sapporo (Japan), Oslo (Norway), Lake Placid (USA)
1972	Sapporo	Japan	Banff (Canada), Lahti/Are (Sweden), Salt Lake City (USA),
1976	Innsbruck	Austria	Denver (USA), Sion (Switzerland), Tampere/Are (Finland), Vancouver (Canada)
1980	Lake Placid	EE.UU.	Vancouver-Garibaldi (Canada): withdrew before final vote
1984	Sarajevo	Yugoslavia	Sapporo (Japan), Falun/Goteborg (Sweden)
1988	Calgary	Canada	Falun (Sweden), Cortina (Italy)
1992	Albertville	Francia	Anchorage (USA), Berchtesgaden (Germany), Cortina (Italy), Lillehammer (Norway), Falun (Sweden), Sofia (Bulgaria)
1994	Lillehammer	Norway	Anchorage (USA), Oestersund/Are (Sweden), Sofia (Bulgaria)

1998	Nagano	Japan	Aoste (Italy), Jaca (Spain), Oestersund (Sweden), Salt Lake City (USA)
2002	Salt Lake City	EE.UU.	Oestersund (Sweden), Quebec City (Canada), Sion (Switzerland)
2006	Turin	Italia	Helsinki (Finland), Klagenfurt (Austria), Poprad-Tatry (Slovakia), Sion (Switzerland), Zakopane (Poland)
2010	Vancouver	Canada	PyeongChang (South Korea), Salzburg (Austria)
2014	Sochi	Russia	PyeongChang (South Korea), Salzburg (Austria)
2018	PyeongChang	Korea del Sur	Annecy (France), Munich (Germany)
2022	Beijing	China	Almaty (Kazakhstan)
2026	Milan-Cortina	Italia	Stockholm

4.1.2. The impact of the Olympic Games

As we have noted in chapter 2, from the first edition of the modern Olympic Games in Athens in 1896, until Tokyo in 2020, 29 summer editions have been held and 24 were organised in different cities in 17 nations. Meanwhile, the first edition of the Winter Games was held in Chamonix in 1924 and until Beijing 2022, 24 editions were organised in 21 different cities in 12 nations. For this reason, the observation of different projects in different socio-economic contexts allows us to observe the impact of the Olympic Games across multiple areas. Authors such as Andranovich and Burbank (2001), analysing urban impacts, identify spatial transformations as the most visible impact and as one of the most important legacies in the post-event phase¹⁶. Subsequently, authors such as Kasimati (2003, 2006), and Kassen-Noor (2013), identify infrastructure as the most perceptible and dangerous legacy for the future of candidate cities. In addition, editions such as Rome, Tokyo, Mexico, Munich, Barcelona, Sydney, Turin, Vancouver, and London, allow us to observe how these mega-events today remain an active and dynamic heritage of the host cities. For this reason, the metamorphosis of urban space, and the transformation of roads and infrastructures, imply new strategies to establish synergies with pre-existing urban forms without compromising the future of citizens¹⁷. Therefore, in consideration of the visibility of the urban impact and physical transformations in Olympic cities, through the

¹⁶ Andranovich, G., Burbank, M. J., & Heying, C. H. (2001). Olympic cities: Lessons learned from the politics of mega-events. *Journal of Urban Affairs*, 23 (2), 113-131. Arsen, D. (1997). Is there really a link between infrastructure and economic development? In R. D. Birmingham, & R. Mier, *Dilemmas of Urban Economic Development: issues in theory and practice* (pp. 82-98). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publishing. Auraskeviciene, V., Pundziene, A., Skudiene, V., Gripsud, G., Nes, E. B., & Olsson, U. H. (2010). Change of Attitudes and Country Image after Hosting Major Sport Events. *Inzinerine Ekonomika- Engineering Economics*, 21 (1), 53-59.

¹⁷ Bale, J., and Christensen, M. K. (2004). *Post-Olympic? Questioning sport in the Twenty-rst Century*. Oxford: BERG

contribution of Essex and Chalkley (1998) we observe the first classification concerning urban intensity:

- Low impact: Athens, 1896, Paris (1900); St. Louis (1904), London (1948), Mexico (1968), Los Angeles (1984).
- Games that have focused on the development of sports facilities: London 1908, Stockholm (1912), Los Angeles (1932), Berlin (1936), Helsinki (1952), Melbourne 1956, Atlanta 1996.
- Games that have transformed the city's urban identity → Rome 1960, Tokyo 1964, Munich 1972, Montreal 1976, Moscow 1980, Seoul 1988, Barcelona 1992, Sydney 2000

However, the following groups refer only to the summer edition up to the year 2000. In the following table, the Olympic Games that have taken place up to the present day and which could not be observed at that time are added. Subsequently, table 11 shows a classification of the urban impact of the winter edition.

Table 15 Urban impact of the 2004-2028 Summer Olympics (Source: The following elaboration was provided from the groups provided by Essex and Chalkley in 1998.)

<i>Low impact</i>	Sports facilities	Urban transformation
<i>Paris 2024 *</i>	Beijing 2008	London 2012
<i>Los Angeles 2028**</i>	Rio 2016	Athens 2004
		Tokyo 2020

* The Paris 2024 edition will have 95% temporary or existing structures.

** The 2028 edition of Los Angeles will be an event with 100% temporary or existing structures.

On the other hand, the winter editions require transformations of the mountain sites, specific facilities and finally the revolution of the transport system, which shows that over time they have developed differently from the summer editions.

In the following table, we can see the different editions in three different groups based on the impact generated.

Table 16 Urban impact of the Winter Olympics 1924-2026 (Source: Own implementation)

<i>Low impact</i>	Sports facilities	Urban transformation
<i>Chamonix 1924</i>	Cortina 1956	Oslo 1952

<i>Saint Moritz 1928</i>	Squaw Valley 1960	Innsbruck 1964
<i>Lake placid 1932</i>	Lake Placid 1980	Grenoble 1968
<i>Garmish 1936</i>	Sarajevo 1984	Sapporo 1972
<i>Saint Moritz 1948</i>	Lillehammer 1994	Innsbruck 1976
<i>Calgary 1988</i>	PyeongChang 2018	Albertville 1992
<i>Salt Lake 2002</i>		Nagano 1998
<i>Milano-Cortina 2026</i>		Turin 2006
		Vancouver 2010
		Sochi 2014
		Beijing 2022

Therefore, urban transformation and the design of spaces acquire enormous importance in the social and economic aspects of the city. The planning and construction of new sports structures in mountain areas is a sensitive issue considering the natural context. In addition, the ski jumping structures and the bobsleigh track are two of the most problematic facilities, which today continue to raise doubts and criticisms of the IOC. However, the transformation of the space should be integrated into a dynamic structure that is rooted in a long-term plan.

The authors Chalkley & Essex, in agreement with Preuss (Preuss, 2004), underline the importance of effective design for facilities in the post-Olympic period¹⁸, which tend to favour the evolution of sporting practice and ensure accommodation for the poorest citizens (Chalkley, 1999).

¹⁸ Chalkley, B., and Essex, S. (1999). Urban Development through Hosting International Events: a History of Olympic Games. *Planning Perspectives*, 14, 369-394.

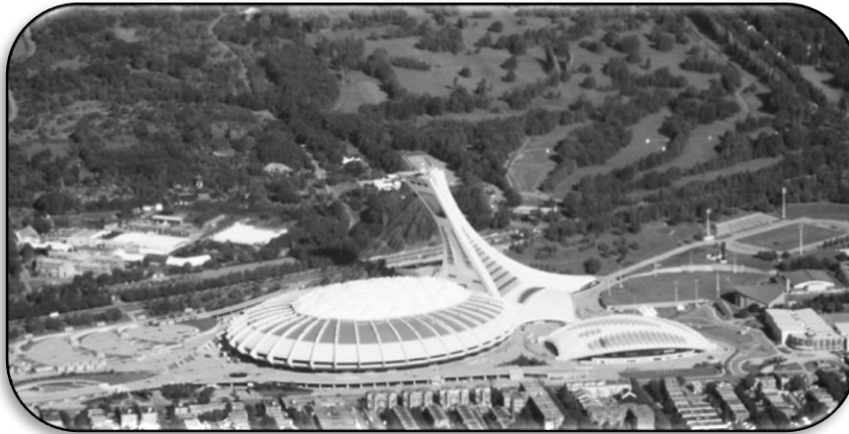


Figure 40 The Olympic Stadium in Montreal 1976 (Source: CC)

Subsequently, Hiller 2014, looking at mega-events in the urban process, has identified the following phenomena that can be realised in candidate cities:

- The catalyst for urban change.
- Land-use change in urban space.
- Stimulation of creativity in spatial planning.
- They mobilise funding (private and public).
- Support in projects is considered to be very ambitious or costly.
- Requires completion by the date of the event.
- Structural improvements in specific sectors (e.g. transport).
- It produces specific structures that redefine urban space and territory.

However, urban transformations can have different impacts in different areas: socio-cultural, political and economic. Moreover, since the Turin 2006 edition, the environmental impact has become a fundamental element in the choice of candidate cities. Subsequently, the transformation of the city's image through the promotion of the lifestyle can help to increase national pride and have a socio-cultural impact on the host community. Meanwhile, Preuss, in his 2000 study, identifies tourism as the most relevant socio-economic impact on Olympic cities in the post-Olympic period. Furthermore, the international promotion of the Olympic city should motivate businesses and investors to visit the city, taking advantage of the new services developed for the post-Olympic future (Billings, 2012). For example, Barcelona's post-Olympic planning was based on the organisation of new areas specifically for technological development and therefore investments in telecommunications were included in the budget to offer companies new services of high technological value (Brunet, 2005). While in Sydney, pre-Olympic planning was an example of a promotional campaign for international companies. City and State conducted targeted campaigns to encourage international companies to hold conferences and events in the city that hosted the 2000 Olympics. The promotional activities enabled the city of Sydney to host continuous events over four years. The next

major result was the inclusion of Sydney in the international conference, congress and events market, which can be described as surprising or unprecedented¹⁹.

Thus, it can be stated that the Olympic Games can guarantee a unique development only if the quality of management and planning borders on perfection (Chalkley, 1999) (Essex, 1998) (Gratton, 2002) (Preuss, 2000,2004).

Why do cities want to host the Olympics? Over time, we have observed different political motivations that remain of vital importance to host states. In addition, in recent years we have seen the bidding process completely transformed to being presented by the prime minister of each country²⁰. At the political level²¹, the Olympic event was often presented as a way to favour the creation of new jobs and to improve the gross domestic product of each country²².

Roughly since 2000, the protest groups²³ against the organisation of the Olympic event have increased drastically to become active movements²⁴ forcing public administrations to withdraw their political candidacies (Heine, 2018). However, the referendum phenomenon remains a fundamental element for the recognition and affirmation of a shared development model among all *stakeholders* of the event.



Figure 41 Protests for Vancouver 2030 (Source: CC)

On the other hand, the economic impact associated with the Olympic Games is highly controversial. Some authors have carried out in-depth studies on the financing structures, others on public capital investment, others on marketing and others on the organisation of *stakeholders* in a strategic way for the future of the candidate cities.

¹⁹ To achieve the following result, the Sydney Organising Committee involved the top experts in Olympic planning, ensuring a unique development for the entire community.

²⁰ In 2021, for the first time, Australia's Prime Minister presented the official Melbourne 2032 bid 11 years before the Olympic event, something that had never happened before.

²¹ Political interest focuses on the possibility of attracting new foreign investors, increasing the capital available to meet or attempt to meet the real needs of citizens.

²² Matheson, V. A. (2006). Mega-events: The effect of the world's biggest sporting events on local, regional, and national economies. College of the Holy Cross, Department of Economics, Worcester. Matheson, V. A., and Baade, R. A. (2004). Mega-Sporting Events in Developing Nations: Playing the way to Prosperity? *South African Journal of Economics* , 72 (5), 1084-1095. McDonogh, G. (1991). Discourses of the City: Policy and Response in Post- Transitional Barcelona. *City and Society*, 5 (1), 40-63.

²³ For example, Munich in 2018 was forced to withdraw its bid because citizens through a popular referendum did not want any events in those locations chosen by third parties.

²⁴ Nolympics is recognised as one of the most active movements internationally.

This is why it is still quite difficult to quantify the real economic benefits for candidate cities. For example, Preuss, in his 2004 study, identifies tourism as the maximum economic benefit that Olympic cities can derive over time²⁵.

In addition, Preuss in 2000²⁶ identifies two key points in the consideration of economic aspects:

- *Increased demand* → Increased number of employees, increased domestic economy, increased employees and profits. As a possible downside, Preuss foresees rapid inflation after the Olympics if the economic restructuring plan is not planned or does not work.
- *International attractiveness* → Increased numbers of tourists who, if they leave positive feedback, can contribute to incalculable long-term benefits. In addition, the increase in tourists and travellers will enable the city to acquire a new image in the global community.

Certainly, agreeing with Preuss, the economic analysis of the event should be divided into spectator expenditure associated with the event and non-Olympic expenditure. Moreover, other values, such as the level of unemployment in Olympic cities, should not be compared with the period of Olympic construction. Logically, during the construction of the Olympic works, the level of unemployment decreases due to practical needs, which in the post-Olympic period will be different. Subsequently, Preuss (2000) identifies the increase in prices²⁷ as the most relevant negative impact associated with the increase in tourism in the candidate cities. However, rising prices can quickly lead to temporary inflation in the host community, which will inevitably lead to social inequality. Finally, the transformation of the city's image and the building of a city brand can help attract millions of tourists and businesses willing to invest in the host city over time. However, the increase in tourist flow and business pressure on the city may compromise the development of the host society, implying new inequalities over time (Smith, 2009).

In conclusion, the physical transformation of the city and its image is a delicate issue that should be programmed dynamically between the city and its citizens. In cities such as Barcelona, for example, tourism has become a fundamental element of the economy of the whole region and over the years it has always evolved to the detriment of the citizens. In Barcelona, the loss of symbolic places, the transformation of new areas, the predisposition of new offices, the rise in prices and the planning of new hotels, have caused the expulsion of citizens from the central area to the periphery. In addition, rising prices and job insecurity are considered to be the main consequences of the gentrification of the city of Barcelona. London in 2012, through its Olympic bid, caused gentrification of the Olympic area due to rising prices and changes in the labour market. In recent years, studies on the

²⁵ Preuss, H. (2004). *The economics of staging the Olympics: a comparison of the Games, 1972-2008*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

²⁶ Preuss, H. (2000). *Economics of the Olympic Games*. Sydney: Walla Walla Press.

²⁷ For example, in Barcelona in 1993, one year after the event, prices increased by 240% compared to the pre-Olympic period.

impact of the Olympic Games are increasingly focusing on the exploitation of new mixed models for post-Olympic management and organisation.

4.2. The temporary transformation of the transport system

4.2.1. The Olympic transport system

Throughout the history of the modern Olympic Games, the management of the transport system has evolved to be considered an essential element of the overall success of the event. The ability to effectively leverage the extraordinary investments in transport has become a key element, not only in the creation of permanent infrastructure but also in changing the transport system of Olympic cities. Until the end of the 20th century, the transport was seen as a service necessity connecting the main Olympic venues. However, the increase in the spatial dimension of the event, and the number of participants and visitors has led to a redefinition of transport in Olympic cities. Therefore, Olympic cities have started to use the event as an opportunity to change the ways of travelling in the most congested metropolises (Kassen-Noor, 2017). The transport system is one of the main elements of Olympic funding. Indeed, the transport system is extremely complex to plan. Although little research has been done on Olympic transport, it is fair to say that there are enormous benefits related to the reorganisation of viability that can become a catalyst for host cities in the post-Olympic period. As we will see in chapter 5, the spatial dimension of the Winter Games implies a huge infrastructural link for connecting Olympic venues. The summer edition, on the other hand, implies a decrease in distances and an increase in the flow of people during the weeks of the event. Both editions allow the realisation of different projects that can bring enormous long-term benefits for both the territory and the host community. For this reason, the planning for the summer edition is more complex and requires more temporal resources in a limited time. However, the proximity of the Olympic venues reduces travel time, encouraging the use of other types of mobility. On the other extreme, the Winter Games are located in mountainous areas and tend to require more vehicles and travel time, implying a redefinition of the infrastructural system of the area. This difference between the two events increases the probability of uselessness and failure of the infrastructure system provided for the winter event. We cannot overlook the development of the event for Paralympic athletes, however, research on adapted and appropriate transport for them and volunteers with disabilities and spectators with special requirements is still at an embryonic stage and focuses on accessibility to venues, including vehicles such as buses and minibuses, and transport stations. The key moment when the operation of Olympic transport was reorganised was in Atlanta 1996 (Kassen-Noor, 2017). The congestion of the city during the event led to an IOC review of the transport system to ensure that no athlete could arrive late for any competition. From this point on, future Olympic venues will need specific and prioritised routes within the host cities (Batuhan,

1996). Secondly, during the Olympic event, the Olympic Transport System (OTS) will be run exclusively by a specific and sophisticated system. Thirdly, the media should be accredited to receive an exclusive public service, ensuring timely and reliable broadcasting of the competitions (Kassens-Noor, 2013). Thus, in Nagano 1998, Japan proposed a new traffic management system (UTMS) to reduce temporary congestion (Tanaka, 1997). In addition, the city of Nagano upgraded and expanded its local road and highway network. Meanwhile, Sydney 2000 provided a new train line and new special buses for Olympic visitors. The Salt Lake 2002 Organising Committee included Olympic transport in the long-term goals of the city and the region. In this way, transport started to be considered a tool for improvement and a benefit for the regional territory. Athens in 2004 demonstrated a great capacity to rethink the transport system for the Olympic event in consideration of the metropolitan development plans. The extension of the metro, the train and the airport were some of the projects realised for the Olympic event and which have become tangible elements in the post-Olympic period. Moreover, the 2006 edition of Torino included 800 million in specific funds for the improvement of infrastructures. The construction of new roads, motorways, the metro and other sections near the metropolitan city allowed the city of Turin to improve transport in the post-Olympic period. Meanwhile, the Vancouver 2010 Games ensured the construction of a new train line connecting the airport and downtown Vancouver (Bracewell, 2009). Subsequently, the London 2012 Games allowed the city to build a new train station in an area that was previously connected only by the underground. Meanwhile, in Sochi 2014, the need to connect three Olympic venues in an area that had not been previously exploited led to an enormous effort to build Olympic infrastructures. On the other hand, in Rio 2016 the transport system was the most important legacy for the territory. The idea of connecting the Olympic area with four other areas of the city through the Bus Rapid Transit (BTR) service was inspiring for other Olympic cities. Finally, Tokyo 2020 has again upgraded its high-speed rail lines, enhancing its reputation as a world leader in this technology. The intelligent transport system (ITS) was the cornerstone of Tokyo's bid (Kassens-Noor, 2017).

4.2.2. Planning the Olympic transport system

The main rule for providing the Olympic transport system is to integrate it into the strategic planning of each country's transport system. However, the peak demand for transport during the Olympic event will lead to some temporary modifications. The modifications can be used to analyse the peak flow of the transport system. After the results of Atlanta in 1996, Olympic transport planning has become an increasingly complex challenge for host cities. The IOC over the years has set minimum criteria, requiring smooth traffic conditions through a primary transport system. Therefore, the provision of preferential lines will allow specific configurations to be proposed for each of the Olympic venues. However, the IOC's general recommendation concerns only the minimisation of travel times between venues and between Olympic Villages. Since the 2018 reforms, the IOC offers its support to the Organising Committee in seeking or implementing new solutions for the Olympic transport system. For example, for the 2022

Games, Olympic bidders had to report on the following (IOC, 2013): existing transport infrastructures (roads and public transport only); planned transport infrastructures independent of the hosting of the Olympic Games; additional infrastructures independent of the hosting of the Olympic Games; additional infrastructures necessary for the hosting of the Olympic Games (Kassen-Noor, 2017). In addition, time distances between venues, between Olympic Villages, and between the airport and the main training centres, are considering other key data to ensure an Olympic bid²⁸. However, there are often significant alterations in the bid documents which will be replaced during the Olympic process without respecting the original bid²⁹. As such, bids will always be shaped by the intentions of the Organising Committee and the central government of each host state. The host city contract has several annexes, including the Technical Transport Manual, which is part of the city's contract with the IOC for compliance with Olympic rules.

The documents distinguish between nine transport planning and operations topics:

- Infrastructure and facilities.
- Customer services.
- Fleet operation.
- Bus operation.
- Public transport.
- Transport at the venues.
- Traffic management.
- Transport information.
- Planning and support services.

The transportation of athletes and essential personnel, such as judges (AT and TF), is extremely time-sensitive and consequently very vulnerable. The IOC aims to provide them with safe and reliable systems that minimise their discomfort (Kassen-Noor, 2017).

In addition, the prerogative is that Olympic athletes must always have a free traffic condition between the Olympic Villages and the competition and training venues. Therefore, the main Olympic bus network has become a standard feature for the allocation of a bid.

Athens 2004, for example, developed an Airport Express Facility, which was essentially a terminal used exclusively by members of the Olympic family (Odoni et al., 2009).

²⁸ One of the evaluation criteria of the Olympic bid considers the distance between Olympic venues.

²⁹ For example, Rio, after being announced as an Olympic city, expanded its proposed rapid transit system (BRT) from two to four lines.

<i>Transport Code</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Transport Privileges</i>
T1	Allocated Vehicle and Driver	Allocated Vehicle and Driver, Games Client Transport System, Free Public Transport Systems
T2	Allocated Vehicles and Drivers	Allocated Vehicle and Driver, Games Client Transport System, Free Public Transport Systems
T3	Games Client Transport System	Games Client Transport System Free Public Transport Systems
TA	Athletes / NOC Transport System	Athletes / NOC Transport System Free Public Transport Systems
TF	Technical Officials / International Federations Transport system	Technical Officials / International Federations Transport System Free Public Transport Systems
TM	Media Transport system	Media Transport System Free Public Transport Systems
TP	Public Transport Systems	Free Public Transport Systems

Table 17 Olympic transport codes, (Kassen-Noor, 2017)

4.2.3. Olympic transport management

As noted above, the management of Olympic transport is an essential element for the success of the event. Hensher and Brewer (2002) identified five transport pressure points: trains, buses, taxis, airports, roads and parking. Based on these pressure points, Curries and Shalaby (2012) suggested several transport demand management measures grouped into six categories: travel capacity-building measures, travel behaviour change measures, traffic bans and emphasis on public transport (Kassen-Noor, 2017). Intelligent transport systems through constant real-time traffic and transport monitoring have become the key to responding to temporary disruptions during the Olympic event. Since Sydney 2000, each Olympic city has provided two different transport systems. A primary network for athletes, members, journalists, and a secondary network for visitors and participants in the management of the Olympic event. The primary network is exclusively for groups using priority lanes in the Olympic area. The secondary network ensures the connection between venues for Olympic ticket holders.

New or heavily revised traffic management centres, new intelligent transport systems, surveillance cameras and variable message signs are routinely implemented to redirect routine traffic, imposing new driving and parking restrictions around venues, in the city centre and the Olympic ring (Kassen-Noor, 2013). However, the following measures have improved traffic flow, reducing delays for Olympic members and athletes. For this reason, the planning of an exceptional and priority transport service in the host city may compromise the viability of citizens in Olympic venues.

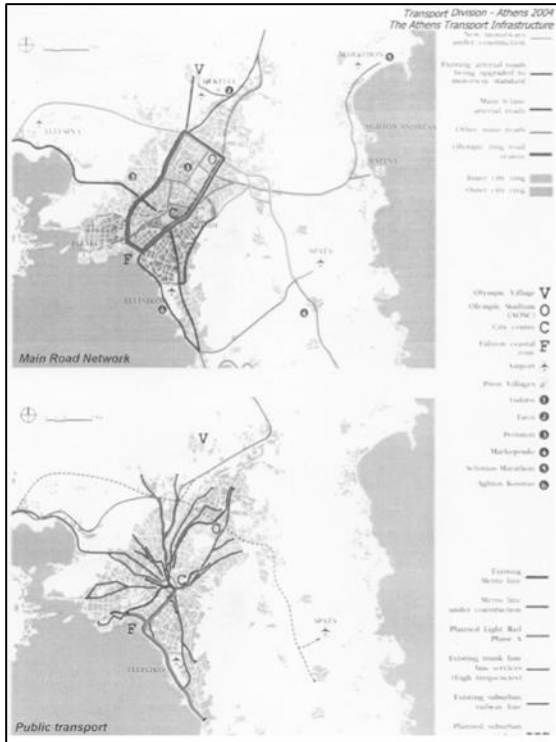


Figure 43 Athens Olympic transport (Source:ATHOC, 2004)

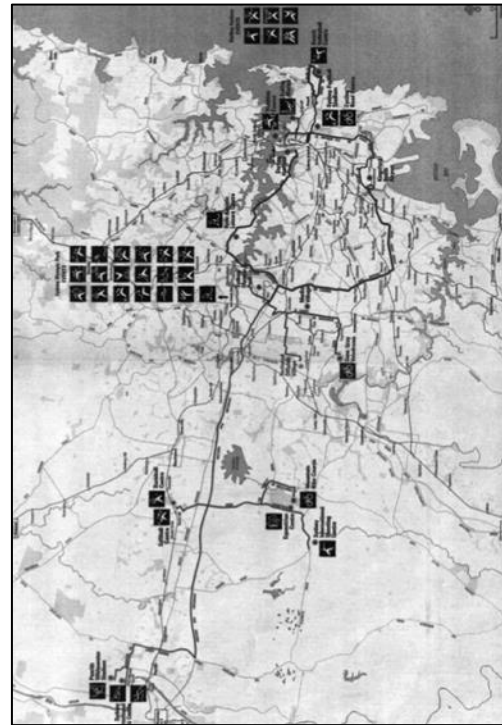


Figure 42 Sydney Olympic Transport (Source: ORTA, 2001)

4.2.4. The legacy of Olympic transport

Olympic transport legacy involve physical transport infrastructures such as new or upgraded airports, roads (motorways, motorways, arterial roads, BRT routes), railways (metro, suburban, national, regional and suburban rail, tramway, light rail), marine (ferries), cable transport systems, new or upgraded off-site transport areas (car parks, loading zones, waiting and staging areas) and access to roads and loading zones, as well as transport facilities such as transport hubs, terminals and depots (Kassen-Noor, 2013). However, the legacy should be evaluated through the use of public transport in the post-Olympic period.

Although many transport legacies are site-specific, Kassen-Noor 2013 identified six common legacies observed across the Olympic edition, despite the different transport systems in place:

- New or improved connections between the airport and the city centre.
- Airport improvements.
- Creation and revitalisation of parks with high-capacity transport access.
- New high-capacity transport modes.
- Additional road capacity.
- Advanced intelligent transport system.

Therefore, the legacy of transport must be observed over the long term to assess the degree of acceptance by the population. It is known that one of the tools that host countries have frequently used as an infrastructural strategy is the provision of an intelligent transport system.



Figure 44 BRT networks in Rio 2016 (Source: CC)

Today, it is mandatory for candidate cities to strategically integrate the planning, management and use of Olympic transport systems into their projects. Tokyo, Grenoble, Sapporo, Seoul, Barcelona, Nagano, Sydney, Turin, London, and Rio, were some of the editions that included transport in the infrastructural development of their territories. Since London 2012, new global benchmarks have been set for the inclusion of transport planning in the strategic planning of Olympic cities. However, other editions such as Sochi, Rio, and PyeongChang, are in a very different condition and require a rethinking of transport strategies for the event and the post-event phase. New regulations, the 2020 agenda and new Olympic bidding measures force host countries to come up with new ways and cost-effective transport solutions to meet sustainable development goals. The provision of a smart and dynamic transport system will be one of the new challenges for the candidate cities.

4.3. The size of Mega-events

4.3.1. The territorial impact of the Olympic Games on the host city

As we have observed in the third chapter, the mega-event manifests itself through an extraordinary experience that implies a reconsideration of the ordinary politics of the host sites. The society of spectacle and consumption in which we live is strongly linked to the different mechanisms of production of spaces in Lefebvre's theories (2001). However, the spectacularism of the mega-event influences everyday life, the socio-cultural system, and the planning and architecture of places. The Olympics have developed through a capitalist

culture that continues to be exploited by the world's largest metropolises to hide other problems that have arisen in the capitalist system of production. Furthermore, capitalist influence allows the identities and qualities of places around the world to become a homogenised and standardised space (Debord, 1994).

In such a way, places try to become a model of urban development founded on spectacle and ephemerality. Undoubtedly, cities risk becoming theme parks leaving aside the local context and the problems of everyday life.

Theoretical debates about time and space within the social sciences are linked to Lefebvre's thinking, asserting that space is socially produced. Lefebvre, like Foucault, links power and knowledge, asserting that the ruling class uses knowledge as a means to assert its temporal hegemony (Lefebvre, 1991).

The Olympic event is the occasion for a community to reflect on itself, introducing some permanent changes (Haugen, 2005).

The construction of a new society founded on spectacle is a fragile and uncertain instrument of unification (Harvey, 2002). Therefore, the rediscovery of a national or local identity should be seen as a feeling of rupture of social hierarchies. To conclude, the impact of the mega-event on the host community should plan for the best future scenarios to find new programmes in consideration of the latest social phenomena such as gentrification and segregation.

4.3.2. Analysis of mega-events

The analysis of the mega-event through the geographical discipline involves the consideration of two different approaches. A rationalist school and a humanist school. The rationalist school considers space as the main place to analyse the impact of the mega-event on the territory. The humanistic approach places the individual, amid the place, as the subject at the centre of the interests of the humanistic sphere, thus the concept of place refers to concepts related to the type of place and non-place (Auge, 1993), exploited by individuals³⁰. For this reason, we can affirm that the rationalist vision considers space as a rational interpretation of the subject, while in the humanist vision it is the emotions and symbols that relate the place to the subject, consequently influencing the result and the representation of space.

Over time, the two approaches have had a different level of application. An example would be *zoning* and spatial planning, which are instruments that respect the rationalist vision. Meanwhile, participatory planning is a humanistic practice that has been little used over time. The consideration of modern society as a liquid element is a metaphor to understand how today's society suffers and is in continuous and irrecoverable changes

³⁰ Auge, M. (1992). *THE "NON-PLACES" SPACES OF ANONYMITY An anthropology of Overmodernity*. Edition de Seuil.

(Bauman Z., 1998). The liquid adapts and changes shape about its space, changing its form with ease and making it impossible to stop it easily.

For this reason, the research proposes to analyse the mega-event through two different approaches to the study of territorial transformations linked to Olympic urbanism in general and specifically to the Olympic Villages.

On the one hand, we will take the territorialization model proposed at the geographical level by Raffestin (1984) and Turco (1988), updated by Magnaghi (2000), while on the other hand, we will use the territorial systems model proposed by Dematteis and Guarrasi (1995).

The first approach tries to achieve consideration of the production of the territory at different levels, while the second is oriented towards the representation of local development processes from a territorial perspective.

The study aims to achieve a geographical reading of the Olympic event through an analysis of Olympic urbanism and its spatial dimensions over time. In this sense, it is a question of considering the event as an extraordinary production of the project territory and an ordinary production of the context territory.

4.3.3. The social role of local transformation

As we have observed in the previous chapters, the mega-event is a set of material and immaterial transformations and processes concentrated in a specific time and space. The mega-event affects the system of relations in each specific place, producing new values and symbols that allow us to reinterpret the reality that evolves. The theoretical consideration of the community allows us to observe society through its everyday actions, the social actors and the ideologies that direct the behaviour and habits of today's society.

Through the contribution of Dematteis (1995), we can consider two means of intervention in local communities, directly through inputs or indirectly stimulate local self-organisation processes.

Thus, the processes manifest themselves in two different spatial dynamics (of places, cities or regions):

- I. As a simple valorisation of space: a mechanism by which certain given local conditions and resources are transformed into advantages compared to changes in global economic and political relations (variations in demand, prices, alliance, wars).
- II. As local development: a process in which certain comparative advantages are more or less the consequences of local actors' self-organisation.

In the first case, places and territories are seen as passive support for global processes. This can have consequences in terms of devaluing the local community. In contrast, the

development of local territorial systems plays an active role in the production and creation of local synergies³¹. Moreover, synergies can initiate new self-cumulative local processes based on cooperation and competition. Thus, local actions should respect the requirements of the community and represent the possibilities of each specific place regarding its natural resources. The consideration of Olympic sites as nodes entering a global network makes it possible to observe the connections and interconnections that can put the host community at risk. A global project will have no condition for the existence and validity of local practices. Moreover, as observed in Barcelona, Sydney, and London, the existence of a global scale will permanently transform the local scale. Participation and exchange of information between the community and the organisers can help to improve post-Olympic proposals and expectations, without compromising the organisation of a global event. Establishing dynamic and interactive connections between the community and all *stakeholders* will allow for the development of new participatory practices that consider the local scale as a measure for organising a global event.

4.3.4. The spatial representation of the territory

The production and organisation of the Olympic space are strongly conditioned by the spatial representation; therefore, the following elements are constituted as results of the interventions. The representation of the Olympic territory is the reality that the organisers want to transmit to the world and represent the whole world. The Olympic event can serve to introduce new areas and new elements of territorial representation of different scales.

For example, spatial representations of the Olympic territory sometimes hide information and reduce the distance between Olympic venues³². On some maps, distances between competition venues are not specified or do not include places of cultural interest in the territory. The following lack of information allows tourists and participants to observe a temporary territorial space without consideration of the elements represented in the permanent territory, disadvantaging the experience of the local community.

Lefebvre (1991) identifies three dimensions for the observation of spatial production:

- Material spatial practices: defined as the experiential dimension of space;
- Representations of space: symbols, meanings and codes make it possible to understand, through the perceptual sphere, the practices of spatial production;
- The spaces of representation: the reproduction of more complex symbols, discourses and utopian programmes that belong to the sphere of the collective imagination.

Subsequently, Harvey (2002) argues that Lefebvre's three dimensions must be linked to four fundamental attributes:

³¹ In this way, the spatial project does not represent objects, but subjects, placing itself at the centre of the territorial development project (Dematteis, 1995).

³² On the website of the Milan-Cortina 2026 Organising Committee, the Olympic map omits the city of Turin. The exclusion of Turin can be seen through a hypothesis of competition between the two cities.

- Accessibility and distance.
- The appropriation of space.
- The naming of the space.
- The production of space.

Illustrations 45,46,47,48, therefore, allow us to observe how the Olympic space and the representation of space through maps continue to change and expand over the years.

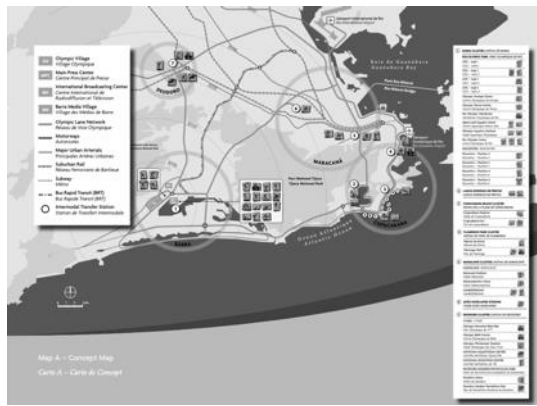


Figure 48 Rio 2016 Olympic space (Source: ROOC, 2016)

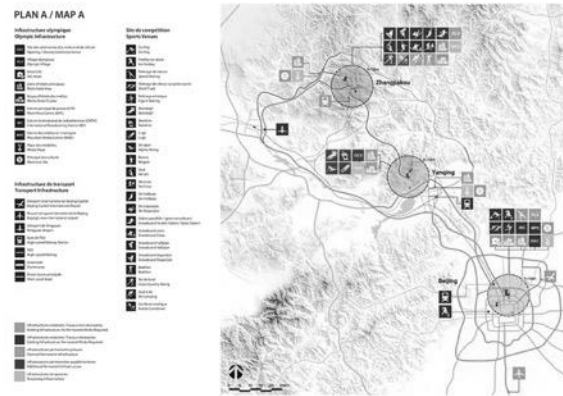


Figure 47 The Beijing 2022 Olympic Area (Source: BOCWOG, 2022)

Figure 46 The Sochi 2014 Olympic site (Source: SOOC, 2014)

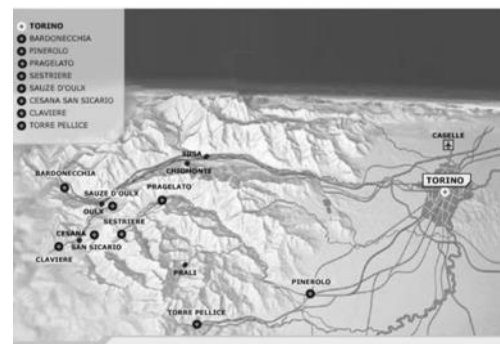


Figure 45 The Turin 2006 Olympic area (Source: TOROC, www.torino2006.org)

Therefore, the scheme advanced by Harvey (2002) and readapted by Dansero and Mela (Dansero, Mela, 2006) about the Olympic event, lends itself effectively to the categorisation of the different spatial dimensions driven by a mega-event.

The column relating to the material space is essentially composed of the transformations that are permanently established in the territory through the physical and socio-economic components.

In the column on the representation of space, an attempt is made to look at the different elements included in Harvey's three dimensions. It has been shown that the next dimension is always represented in all documentation and evaluations of the Olympic programme.

Finally, the column relating to spaces of representation indicates the various forms of subjectivity linked to the Olympics, concerning possible destinations and models of development. However, the main aspect is represented by the effects that are imprinted on the collective imaginary and that guide the actions of individual and collective subjects (Dansero, Mela, 2006).

Table 18 An application of Harvey's scheme to an Olympic event (Source: Translation from Dansero and Mela, 2006, p.12)

	Material space	Representation of space	Spaces of representation
Absolute space	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The Olympic territory "project" (venues, sports and host facilities, infrastructures) - The "context" of the Olympic territory, with its physical, geographical, demographic, etc. characteristics. - The territorial jurisdiction of the bodies and persons involved (IOC, national committees, local authorities, etc.). - Territorial scope of the various heritage enhancement projects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Cartographic depictions of the Olympic territory - Maps of places, tourism opportunities, etc. - Thematic maps depicting the distribution of specific phenomena in the Olympic territory -Objective" descriptions of the landscape - Maps intended to control the territory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Feelings of inclusion/exclusion with respect to the project territory and the context territory. -Role feelings related to the territory of the project and to the territory of the context. -Sense of security/insecurity in space - Feelings of control, of power

<p>Relative space</p>	<p>Friction role of distance (in terms of cost, time, etc.) in relation to the presence of flows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - financial, - of people (tourists, sportsmen and women, accompanying persons, economic operators), - information (to organise the event, evaluate its effects, plan new initiatives). -of the images transmitted by the media to and from the Olympic territory - flows of matter and energy that define the balances of the ecosystem in the Olympic territory 	<p>non-Euclidean metric representations of the project and context spaces</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Representations related to various forms of flow: e.g. mobility of Olympic players, spectators; energy and water consumption, etc. -Functional representations for flow control 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - feelings related to the nodal role of spaces with respect to international flows -feelings of inclusion/exclusion with regard to the flows generated by the event -feelings of familiarity/restriction with respect to a condition of high flow intensity
<p>Relational space</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Relationships with the social, territorial and environmental resources of the area. -Internal social relations (system of complementarity and/or competitive and conflicting relations between the parties in the area) - The relationship between the Olympic Area and the wider regional, national and European context. Socio-economic and cultural sedimentation processes (social capital, institutional capital, etc.). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Representations of value, referring to facts and subjects in space, of different nature (economic, cultural, social, etc.). -Representation of the landscape as a set of values attributed to the territory. - Representations and icons of Olympic values (logos, uniforms, mascots, etc.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -feelings of cultural proximity/distance to the Olympic spirit and the atmosphere of the Games - feelings associated with the new symbolism of places, brought about by the Olympic experience (before, during and after the games) - visions of a possible future project linked to the enhancement of the Olympic heritage

Table 19 Spatial practices and mega-events (Source: Translation from De Leonardis, 2006, p.51)

	Accessibility and distance	Appropriation and use of space	Dominance and control of space	Spatial production
Material spatial practices (experience)	<p>Increased flows of money and people.</p> <p>Increase in immigrant labour for the production of new spaces.</p> <p>Improving information technology facilities to achieve excellence.</p> <p>Changes in transport infrastructure (roads, trains, metro).</p>	<p>Increased construction.</p> <p>New tendering facilities.</p> <p>Privileged transport and communication networks.</p> <p>Increasing polarisation and gentrification phenomena.</p> <p>Rarticulation of productive, recreational and residential spaces within the urban territory.</p> <p>Use of space by new social actors (volunteers).</p>	<p>Exclusive control of public areas by the organisers.</p> <p>Private management of public spaces.</p> <p>Controlled and protected spaces against antagonistic movements and communities considered socially dangerous.</p> <p>Exclusive spaces reserved for the protagonists of the event (villages).</p>	<p>Production of new urban and intra-regional connections.</p> <p>Redistribution of urban centres and passenger flows.</p> <p>New architecture and urban symbols with international appeal.</p>
Representation of space (perception)	<p>Increasing accessibility in spatial terms.</p> <p>Development of new spatial maps.</p>	<p>Change of mental maps in terms of distance and perceived space.</p> <p>New centralities and hierarchies at regional level.</p>	<p>Production of spaces to enhance the strategies of regional communities in a more open and competitive economic and social scenario.</p> <p>Local pride.</p>	<p>New urban and tourism marketing strategies.</p> <p>Re-imagining the image of places through guides, photos and</p>

	New spatial communication through signage.	New meanings and uses attributed to places already steeped in history and identity.	Building consensus and monitoring potential threats.	locations.
Spaces of representation (imagination)	Instrumental use of the media. Appropriation of spaces for commercial and artistic purposes.	Global popular participation. Familiarity of places experienced in the media. Popular appropriation of public spaces.	Rediscovery for the new tourism market of new routes and new products. Invention of social geographies. Mutual enrichment and contamination.	New meanings of territorial identity.

In the previous sections, we have analysed the territorial space up to the definition of a local territorial system. Before analysing the concept of local communities and territorial organisation systems, it is necessary to go deeper into the concept of territory. To analyse territory, we will use the territorialization model given by Raffestin (1981) and Turco (1988) and applied to mega-events by (Dansero, and Mela, 2006). We will observe how the production of territory through acts of territorialization can determine different outcomes and different strategies in the post-event phase.

4.4. Olympic territorialization

"An urban structure entirely generated by the laws of economic growth; with a strongly dissipative and entropic character; without boundaries or limits to growth; unbalancing and strongly hierarchical; homogenising the territory it occupies; ecocatastrophic; devaluing the individual qualities of places; lacking in aesthetic quality" (Magnaghi, 2001).

The territory is defined as a historical product and artefact, the result of a long-term evolution between human settlement and the environment. Therefore, the territory is considered a living and highly complex organism. An ecosystem in continuous transformation product of the encounters between culture, and nature and is formed by places endowed with identity, history, and character, which form the territorial and urban "typologies" (Magnaghi, 2001).

The first decade of the 20th century, dominated by Fordism and mass production, made the organisation of the territory more complex about the economic growth of places. Therefore, major events such as the Olympics or Universal Expositions imply the use of different territories that must coincide with the economic growth of the places³³. As we have noted above, in order to analyse Mega-events through a territorial analysis, we must look at the territory through two different geographical representations in terms of form, control, governance, symbols and values. The first representation refers to the "*project territory*", represented by the Olympic territory where the structures and functions necessary for the organisation of the event will be built. While the second representation refers to the "*context territory*", considered as the existing part of the territory observed through different scales (regional, national, local)³⁴. At both levels, we can observe a potentially conflictive local-global relationship at work (Dansero, 2002). However, the conflict will remain until the closing ceremony of the Paralympic edition. Therefore, the definition and construction of the Olympic territory, being a spatial-temporal system, implies a territorial organisation and a local effort that can be considered a *stress test* for the whole community. As we will observe in chapter five, the spatial structure of the Olympic Games continues to mutate into a multipolar system, becoming more complex and more extensive every day. During the Olympic event, the territory will have to provide new special lines of communication for the transfer of the plurality of actors (athletes, technicians, media, public, organisers, volunteers, sponsors)³⁵. Throughout the editions of the modern Olympic Games, as noted in the previous section, transport management has become an essential element for the success of the event. Moreover, the organisation of a temporary transport system modifies the shape of local systems, causing new journeys and congestion of the traditional transport system.

As we have observed in section 4.4, the maps of Olympic events draw a territory that is different from the geographical representations of the host territory. The Olympic territory during the event is governed and controlled by temporary operators and actors. Moreover, some areas of the Olympic territory will be inaccessible to most citizens³⁶. The next complex and temporary spatial structure are contained in the territory of the host community, a territory that has its logic and its operating regulations.

Analysing the host territory during the planning of the mega-event, it can be observed how the Olympic event implies the construction of a spatial structure promoted at an international level, which highlights or excludes some localities rather than others. Consequently, the Olympic spatial structure implies a transformation of the local scale to adapt the territory to its temporal needs. However, the construction of an Olympic space

³³ The identification of the Olympic territories imposes the analysis of different territories in a geographical space, which in the Beijing 2022 edition will reach up to 200 km from the Olympic city.

³⁴ The boundaries of the project territory should be considered temporarily only for the exploitation of the event, while the boundaries of the context territory, during the Olympic event, may compromise territorial control and governance.

³⁵ About Olympic transport systems, the contribution of Professor Eva Kassens-Noor (Kassens-Noor, 2017) is recommended.

³⁶ For example, the Olympic Village and the International Venue are areas with very strict and limited access for most Olympic operators.

presents a homologate and standardised theory that has its own rules for the production of the Olympic territory, shaped by the experience based on previous editions.

The big event simultaneously seeks and consumes spatial differences, but may end up producing them (Dansero, 2007). The outcome depends exclusively on local and national administrations, which must negotiate and mediate between the homologate tendencies of the IOC and supra-local actors. As we will observe in the case of Turin 2006, in chapter 6, it is difficult for local communities and organisers to implement strategies that are not the result of conflicting national and global visions. Thus, the possibilities of transforming the territory during the mega-event imply complex management during and after the event. However, the results will only be observed in the post-Olympic period.

Parallel to the Olympic territory, there is the "*context territory*", made up of the Olympic city, the peripheral localities and all the territories "*crossed*" marginally by the big event. The context territory undergoes changes that permanently affect the territory, redefining the local scenario and the hierarchies of the localities in the regional framework.

Contrary to the Olympic territory, the context territory is controlled, organised and governed by fully public management composed of all the local authorities and the private capital of the target territory. The relationship between the two territories demands and requires in-depth work, in the realisation of the different structures that will be added to the urban and territorial images of the Olympic sites. In this context, participatory planning can help to define strategies for the construction of a new collective image. Thanks to the coordination and contribution of all local actors, the local scale benefits without compromising the promotion of the territory on a global scale.

4.4.1. Territorialization

"We can imagine territorialization in a strictly chronological perspective, as sequences of acts that begin in a distant prehistory" (Turco, 1988).

As we observed in the first chapter, the agrarian revolution and the industrial revolution represent the fundamental points of the elimination of the limits of action and, in short, of the stages of the process of construction of an anthropogenic environment. Furthermore, in observation of the preceding paragraph, the territory is considered as the result of the application of work to a defined space. The territory can therefore be seen as an extension endowed with certain properties on which human action is exerted.

The acts of territorialization³⁷ represent the whole of a territorial mass in space. The morphology of the territory, of a given section of the earth's surface, is subject to various exogenous and endogenous transformations depending on various natural factors.

³⁷ Considering the contributions of Raffestin (1981) and Turco (1988), territorialisation is considered as the production of territory in a space produced by the actions of territorial actors.

Earthquakes, wars, etc., territorialization is thus a major process, by which space incorporates anthropological value (Turco, 1988).

In this way, the process of territorialization must be seen as continuous growth in a territory that continues to reconfigure and readapt itself to the demands and habits of the communities.

The analysis of territorial acts must start from three fundamental categories (Turco, 1988): naming, reification and structuring. Consequently, Olympic territorialization, conceived as the production of new temporal territory, is intertwined with ordinary transformative dynamics through a T-R-D cycle that can be read as the encounter-contrast between different territorialising acts at work and can be traced in three categories (Turco, 1988):

- Designation
- Reification
- Structuring

The application of the territorialization process in a major event starts from the bidding and site selection phase, passing through the deterritorialization phase that follows the event and coincides with the dismantling of the Olympic territory. The re-territorialization phase is strongly linked to the abandonment and to the Olympic infrastructures that need to be reconfigured to be used over time. The last phase manifests itself only in the post-Olympic phase and continues to transform the heritage and territorial capital permanently.

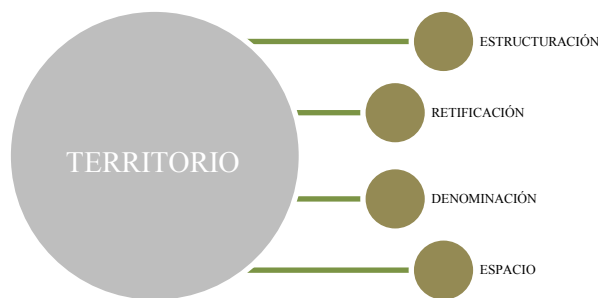


Figure 49 Space and territory: Acts of territorialization (Source: Turco, 1988, p. 78)

For this reason, one can hypothesise an Olympic territorialization - deterritorialization - de-territorialization (T-D-R) cycle that generates conflicts with the T-D-R processes of the contextual territory. According to Turco (1988), the act of naming places is a social work that is accomplished through cognitive and communicative strategies. The attribution of a specific name to a temporary place allows it to enter the global and spiritual sphere of communities.

Meanwhile, the second form of control manifests itself through reification, which consists of the occupation of space through the use of its resources. Symbolisation is

followed by the material control of acts of territorialization. Successively, the last form of control is structural. Thus, structuration is regulated and organised through a process of control by authorities who, through the use of norms and rules, organise the territory about the objectives of the specific territorial context.

Production in the territory: the denomination

In the preceding section, it was established that the territorialization of mega-events is strongly related to the territorial symbols associated with the event.

For example, in the Olympic Games, we can find the Olympic ring, the Olympic Village, the Olympic stadium, the Olympic square, the Olympic trampoline, etc...).

Therefore, the denomination can be transitory, existing only during the games, or it can survive with the territory, becoming a pretext for the construction of new strategies for different material and immaterial purposes³⁸. For this reason, in chapter 2 it is established that the promotion of places is directly related to the exploitation of the event, in a medium and long-term

For example, in Barcelona (1992), the Olympic Village and the Olympic port were part of a territorial marketing strategy that continues to this day to mark the importance of the Olympic heritage in the territory. The naming of places is thus the first act of territorial production.

Consequently, we can affirm that the naming of the Olympic Games begins with the bidding process, defining the territory of the event and associating the date of the event with the host city (Barcelona 92, Sydney 2000, Torino 2006, London 2012, Rio 2016, etc.). A temporary and symbolic designation that becomes a permanent fact over time through a process of legitimisation, which tries to attract new global images of the Olympic territory. The permanent legitimisation of a designation involves the construction of an identity, which is transmitted globally over a long-term period. In the same way, a symbolic control of the territory complexifies the results and the legacy of the meme mega-events of the territory³⁹. About the Olympic Games, it is essential to bear in mind that only the host cities can use Olympic symbols to promote the territory during the bidding phase and the organisation of the event. However, the naming of Olympic sites involves a renewal of the images of the territory or the landscape, through technological tools such as television, the internet, and ss, and photographs, allowing the city to be promoted on a global level. Therefore, the danger is that only some Olympic territories and Olympic works will be affected by the permanent naming of the sites. For example, the territories crossed by the temporary transformations of the Olympic space will disappear after the closing ceremony

³⁸ Throughout Olympic history, we have observed different models of preserving the Olympic name. For example, Barcelona has created an Olympic quarter, a port and a metro line. London and Beijing have turned the Olympic space into a large sports park which changed its name after the Olympic event.

³⁹ The temporary production of information can lead to the disappearance of the Olympic effects in the post-Olympic period.

of the Paralympic event. For this reason, the naming feeds new communication strategies for the exploitation of the tourism market as a consequence of mega-event⁴⁰.

Many criticisms have been raised over time regarding the temporary laws that venues must adopt for the sale and marketing of advertising space on Olympic territory.

"È significativo ricordare come il Comune e il CIO abbiano sollecitato i media internazionali a utilizzare il nome "Torino" al posto dell'internazionale "Turin" (Dansero, De Leonardis, 2006).

Production in the territory: reification

The second process, reification, is considered the material transformation of the territory and is the most evident and long-lasting aspect of territorialization. The construction of the Olympic works, the infrastructures, the sports facilities directly linked to the event and all the works related to the organisation of the event, constitute the material transformations in the contextual territory. It is essential to note that reification can be a catalyst for other artefacts over time. Structures and infrastructures are constituted as the material heritage of places, implying new future transformations for the use of spaces. For this reason, Olympic reification is composed of an extraordinary material transformation through major international architectural firms that can be promoted through the realisation of an Olympic work. On the other hand, the material transformations can be accompanied by some technological innovations which in the future will achieve the status of catalysts for new processes in the construction and organisation of infrastructures.

For example, Sydney 2000 proposed the construction of a sustainable Olympic Village through the use of renewable energy sources, which today continues to help reduce the production of electricity from other non-renewable sources. Meanwhile, Turin 2006 proposed the construction of the Olympic Village through the use of recycled materials that could be reused in the future. Thus, Olympic reification can be seen as a very complex phase that can generate different outcomes in the post-Olympic period.

Production in the territory: structuring

Structuring, as we have seen, represents the last phase of the territorialization cycle, a process that introduces sensory or structural control, selecting areas and encouraging the construction of territorial structures that can guarantee the implementation of programmes and strategies (Turco, 1988).

This phase can manifest itself in mega-events in the post-Olympic period. Two possible levels can be identified in this regard:

⁴⁰ It is essential to affirm that, during the Olympic event, the Olympic territory is protected under the control of the IOC for the respect of the space for the use of billboards in the whole Olympic area.

- Sub-regional level (Olympic map)
- Local-level (Olympic venues)

However, the places included in the Olympic spatial system will be affected over time, becoming *glocal* places.

For this reason, the Olympic territory, during the event, may be affected by the integration of multiple institutional bodies acting with different strategies and pursuing different objectives. In this sense, regional plans and strategic planning are considered fundamental elements to organise and define common objectives representing all the actors involved in the Olympic project. Through strategic territorial planning, the risks of conflicts in spatial systems are reduced and a functioning system can be imposed for the post-event phase. On the other hand, the structuring of the territory may be able to reactivate new economic, social and urban processes that will last over time. The territorial structure promoted by the big event can take on different forms and impacts depending on the objectives and activities indicated by the territorial actors about the post-Olympic legacy (Dansero, 2010).

The territorialization phase is followed by the deterritorialization phase of the spatial-temporal system developed for the Olympic event. The deterritorialization phase may involve a reterritorialization phase where the transformations of the context territory are resolved or increased. Over time, we have observed different options for the post-event transformation of Olympic sites at the Olympic Games:

- Dismantling.
- Re-use.
- Reconversion.
- Abandonment⁴¹.

Throughout the Olympic history, we have observed different projects that were often overestimated and, therefore, have produced an excess of territorialization in the context of territory, remaining as artefacts without identity. For this reason, the potential estimation risk may affect many communities. Lack of experience and resources may introduce a conflict between the city and the Olympic sites (Jennings, 2012). For example, in Turin 2006, as we will see in the results of the qualitative interview, the ski jumping facilities and the bobsleigh track have left a fracture in the Piedmont territory that can never be rebuilt.

Moreover, these works can be a source of conflict between the regional territory and the central government. Consequently, the construction of overestimated facilities, structures and infrastructures to host mega-events is the expression of the objectives and the will of central governments that want to take advantage of mega-events to promote other symbols, monuments or images (Poynter, 2015). It also needs to be said that the IOC has different interests from the host states. The form of Olympic territorialization is often

⁴¹ Abandonment is seen as a defeat of the territorial project and therefore destruction of the contextual territory.

totally different from the initial plans of the Organising Committees. Only through a reconfiguration of the rules and the Olympic contracts for the bidding cities, it will be possible to reduce the territorialization processes that are not necessary for the host communities in the post-Olympic period.

Table 20 The cycle of territorialization in Mega-events (Source: own elaboration on Turco (1988))

	Territorialization	De-territorialization	Re-territorialization
Designation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Venue of the event ▪ Territory of the event ▪ Facilities ▪ Structures ▪ Infrastructure ▪ Squares, Monuments 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Places, structures, artefacts that still retain the adjective "Olympic". ▪ Creation of a territorial brand ▪ International events market
Reification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Sports facilities ▪ Accommodation/Hotels ▪ Olympic Village ▪ Olympic structures ▪ Infrastructure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Dismantling ▪ Abandonment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Public facilities ▪ Multifunctional facilities ▪ University campus ▪ Popular residences ▪ Hotels ▪ Infrastructure ▪ Urban spaces, theme parks ▪ Tourist accommodation
Structuring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Regional territory ▪ National territory ▪ Local territory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Re-use ▪ Reconversion ▪ Liquidation of the organising 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Reorganisation of territorial promotion bodies ▪ New spaces for

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Glocal territory 	committee	international audiences <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ New post-event organisational structure ▪ Setting up of a volunteer event organiser ▪ Creation of a specific structure for mega-events
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As we have observed in the preceding sections, illustrating some theories and possibilities induced through mega-events, new possibilities have been identified for the creation of new territorial systems that can be transformed into tangible resources for the exploitation of the big event at the territorial level. To investigate the development of local systems it is useful to introduce Magnaghi's contribution (Magnaghi, 2000) to the local project and its development perspectives. Subsequently, a brief introduction to the SloT theoretical model (Dematteis, 2005) will be made, trying to identify the different development perspectives that can be manifested through the mega-event. Finally, some considerations will be advanced on the possibilities for local communities to take advantage of the heritage of mega-events.

4.4.2. The local Project: local development policies

"The local project is the political manifestation of a demand, a need, an idea to respond to the challenge of globalisation" (Magnaghi, 2000).

In the 21st century, the local project is seen as the possibility for local communities to resist the exclusivity of the metropolis, defending their identities, traditions, cultures and landscapes without compromising social relations and sense of community. On the other hand, the local systems of Olympic cities in the post-Olympic period will conflict with the objectives of the main city and will be subject to the different rules of the global mega-event market.

After the Second World War and the end of post-Fordism, the territory has become a place of value production. The value is not only to be considered economically. Therefore, awareness, symbols, and, allow recognition of the community and increase the value of the territorial heritage in the creation of lasting and long-term wealth.

The construction of the local project is based on the pact of a plurality of actors (Magnaghi, 2000). The definition of the local project is a complex process of clarifying

conflicts, defining objectives and redefining projects to implement a shared project that can generate heritage value for the community.

However, the construction of the local project should be funded and supported by a statute of places, seeking to overcome the collective individualities of places and to propose a common goal through new forms of participation and direct democracy. Local communities, through the constitution of a shared statute, will support territorial transformations through rules, norms and pacts, supported by the community.

In this way, the local project can foster and promote self-employment, crafts, cultural districts and micro-enterprises.

"The local project presupposes the growth of the powers and competencies of municipalities and supra-municipal territorial entities, expressions of the municipality as a higher local authority" (Magnaghi, 2000). The construction and promotion of internal democratic institutions (local development agencies, pacts, dialogue tables, participation workshops, living labs) can provide a solid basis for the promotion of local policies and networks at the regional level. For this reason, governance and the different levels of control of internal democratic institutions are a current and crucial issue for the sustainable development of our local communities.

"In the glocalist hypothesis, local development takes shape to the extent that the local community is contaminated by the global, bringing to the local the innovations coming from the opening of relations between long and short networks; local development occurs when local society is able to build horizontal networks in the global system" (Magnaghi, 2000). Network forms are combined in-depth in existing local areas, without the locals being able to exit the global project. The intersection of new global networks, for local communities, and hosting mega-events is one of the greatest risks to the preservation of the authenticity and autonomy of local communities. Consequently, the local territories of mega-events are embedded in a global network of local societies, strengthening themselves through new relationships and networks that contrast with current centralist forms of economic globalisation.

Local communities can establish:

- I. Inter-local information relations, solidarity networks that interconnect with global networks.
- II. The proliferation of cities capable of building non-hierarchical global relationships through the diffusion of services in peripheral regional networks, in response to concentration processes.
- III. Eco-solidarity business and financial relationships that develop local networks and transfer to the global market.
- IV. Self-sustainable local production systems based on the valorisation of heritage.

- V. Networks of local development agencies that interconnect top-down projects with bottom-up projects.
- VI. South-south, south-north cultural relations that densify the overlapping wefts of north-south networks: self-representations versus representations of the centre (Magnaghi, 2000).

Therefore, in the presence of a mega-event, the global effect being overflowing, it should try to preserve local communities, activating different policies, actions, processes and projects that allow for:

- Strengthen the internal relations of each territorial system through the construction of new social fabrics, to be able to express the peculiarities and capacities of each territory, within a framework of sustainable development.
- Develop and build networks between the local and the supra-local in the medium and long term. The new intra-local networks should modify the hierarchical system of metropolises and global cities towards a complexification and multiplication of regional systems.

Consequently, by strengthening relations and developing new intra-local networks, the creation of a new intra-local system will be advanced. A system that will favour the construction of new relationships in a way that catalyses new processes of solidarity exchange and participation. Through mutual respect for global economic networks, new eco-flows will be established in the Olympic cities in the post-Olympic period.

4.4.3. Local territorial system

The model of local territorial systems (SLoT) advanced by Dematteis (2005), allows us to use the model for the description of possible social interaction relations for territory, governance and sustainable development. By introducing the SLoT theoretical model, we will look at the different perspectives of local development that can emerge in Olympic territories during the post-Olympic period. The hope is that it offers a contribution that allows us to reflect on the construction of a local territorial system that is not affected by the global context of the mega-event perceptual model of territorial systems advanced by Dematteis (2005) is composed of the following elements:

1. *The local network*: it is constituted by all the relationships and interactions between all the existing subjects that can be developed in a local area for the construction of common objectives of local development. The term local identifies the geographical scale of the project that allows interactions about the physical proximity of the places and communities that make up the local territory. Communication, exchange, knowledge, history, heritage and common practices of the local territories allow the development of a system of medium and long-term relationships on the target territory. The SLoT model can be identified and developed through local subjects who advance a collective development project without compromising the autonomous development of local particularities. The

transformation, reorganisation, requalification and development of the territory should be based on a shared vision of the local territory to exploit the synergies of the places.

2. *The local milieu*: identifies a set of permanent places through socio-cultural and morphological characteristics that are identified in a given geographical area through the heritage and history of each place. The territorial capital of each place is constituted through a set of processes, objectives and resources that favour the subjective possibilities of each place. The representations of the territorial space will be the manifestation of each local particularity which, thanks to all its activities, can improve the environment of the communities and transform the territory based on the demands of the local communities.

3. *Local network relations*: it constitutes the whole system of local ecosystems in a local network through the common values and objectives provided by the main actors of the territory. The process of transformation and redefinition of local networks is considered an intangible element for the exploitation of common values over time.

4. *Interactive relations between local and regional networks*: these are identified in the communication processes between the local and supra-local levels (regional, national, European, and global). Relations between different levels of intervention constitute a dialogue table, where relations with the local environment must attract new exogenous values from mega-events without compromising local interactions and the evolution of a sustainable territorial development network over time.

The SLoT model, as we have observed, is constituted by the identity of the local communities and by the organisation and hierarchy of the system in the medium and long term (Governa, 1999). For this reason, the organisation of the local system in mega-events must inevitably consider the different particularities of the territory and the different local development policies that the supra-local level must know and build at the national level (Poynter, 2010). As we will observe in the case of Turin 2006, the organisation of governance at the regional level was a fundamental element for the exploitation of the Olympic project throughout the context territory. However, local development strategies should be implemented in the post-Olympic period through shared planning and organisation over time. In this sense, the mega-event should be seen as a stimulus for the implementation and creation of new strategies, which can constitute a model of local development for the future of the Olympic territories in the post-Olympic period. Only through a project shared by the local community, positive results can be obtained in the image and perception of the communities involved in the Olympic territory. The SLoT model can offer a series of processes and objectives, which must be continuously stimulated for the establishment of a territorial system that bases its development on the principles of sustainability, participation and social cohesion.

The concepts of heritage and Olympic legacy are strongly linked to the activity of strategic planning of the territory in consideration of the singularities of the host communities. However, the dismantling, redefinition, reuse and abandonment of the

Olympic sites can permanently compromise the territory and the perception of the citizens as far as the organisers and the local governance system is concerned. The liquidation of the Organising Committee and the temporary structures necessary for the operation of the tasks related to the execution of the works and the mega-event activities pose a great risk to the local public agenda as they can lead to a vacuum and a decrease in popular support. The construction of one or more specific structures for the implementation of the new post-Olympic objectives is considered to be the only way to reduce the chances of abandonment and failure of sustainable territorial development over time.

Therefore, by analysing the results of the qualitative survey on the Turin 2006 case study, we will observe the different responses of the interviewees about the post-Olympic legacy and the exploitation of the Olympic heritage over time. The Turin case study will allow us to analyse in-depth the different dynamics that have emerged in the post-Olympic period for the organisation and implementation of a long-term plan. The choice of Turin 2006 as a case study is due to the size and spatial dimension achieved by the event. In recent years, follow-up activities and monitoring of the post-event results have been giving more and more importance to the observation of the Sustainable Development Goals of the United Nations 2030 Agenda. Thus, in the following sections, we will look at the assessment of the Olympic impact through the technical documentation of the IOC, which is recognised as the responsible body for the management of Olympic works in Olympic cities.

4.5. Impact assessment at the Olympic Games

4.5.1. Definition of impact

As noted above, the impact of the event on host cities can take on different meanings and different forms (Smith, 2008). However, the study of the impact of the Olympics at the academic level has mainly focused on the economic system, identifying the direct and indirect benefits for the host cities. The above consideration allows us to observe how employment, gross domestic product, investment and tourism are the elements that help us to evaluate the economic impact on Olympic cities (Preuss, 2000). However, the impact of a mega-event cannot be observed only through these tangible values. For this reason, the impact can be defined as point-in-time time observation of a specific parameter that in the post-Olympic period changes out a specific context (Cashman, 2010). Thus, the impact can be temporary or permanent, direct or indirect, reversible or irreversible, certain or uncertain, short or long term. Subsequently, through Illustration 50, we can observe the main factors identified by Preuss (2010) as those elements that can be modified in the post-event phase, leading to an increase in local demand.

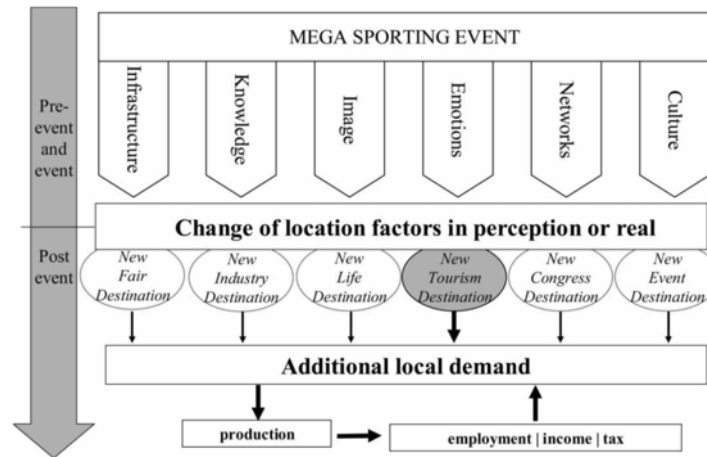


Figure 50 Economic impact of the event on local stakeholders (Source: Preuss H., 2010)

Only in 2010, did the IOC provide some advice for the consideration of impact as a multifactorial and multidisciplinary element, being a fundamental component for the analysis of the mega-event in the host cities. Thus, the following impact characteristics are advanced: cultural, social, political, environmental, economic, urban and sporting.

4.5.2. The OGI study

The results of the impact and management of the post-Olympic phenomena allow us to observe that there is no specific model for obtaining a concrete result. However, the social, economic and morphological structure of each Olympic city has its particularities, generating different results. In this paragraph, some tips on how to reduce the development of negative results in the post-event period are given:

- Strategic choice of venues: Negative impacts can be reduced through a strategic choice and assessment of competition venues. Preliminary studies help to reduce costs and avoid significant and irreversible impacts.
- Cost buffer: Remedial measures through a special fund can contribute to reducing the negative impact. The cost of the Olympic project, as outlined in the study by Flyberg (2012) and Preuss (2019), tends to increase.
- Compensation: Applying compensatory measures can balance unavoidable impacts in time and space.
- Maximisation: Strategic planning can reduce the difference between positive and negative impacts, achieving the specific objectives of each organisation. The size of the facilities, the transport system, and the capacity of the facilities or temporary works are some of the aspects that can contribute to the maximisation of results.

Subsequently, the OGI study advanced by the IOC in 2001 proposes a set of indicators to measure the potential impacts of the Games. The scope of the study considers the three areas recognised for sustainable development: economic, socio-cultural and environmental (Table 21).

Sphere	Mandatory/optional	Context indicator	Event indicator	Both (context and event)	Total
Economic	Mandatory	13	13	3	29
	Optional	12	3	0	15
Environmental	Mandatory	5	11	4	20
	Optional	13	1	0	14
Socio-cultural	Mandatory	16	11	1	28
	Optional	12	7	1	20
Total		28	18	2	48

Table 21 OGI indicators (Source: IOC, 2001)

The study proposes three categories of territory - country, region and city - as a geographical framework to analyse the different impacts of the event on the Olympic space. In addition, the study proposes some mandatory and some optional indicators. However, over time, only London 2012 applied all the indicators to develop the Games' impact and legacy evaluation plan. Subsequently, through the contribution of Pentifallo (2013), we can observe a comparison between the 2007 indicators and the new indicators provided in 2011 (table 22, 23,24).

SOCIO-CULTURAL		2011 INDICATOR	
2007 INDICATOR			
So3	Pressure Groups	So1	Political, Social, and Legal Apparatus
So6	Poverty and Social Exclusion	So5	Human Development
So7	Educational level	So5	Human Development
So8	Crime Rates	So5	Human Development
So9	Health	So5	Human Development
So10	Nutrition	So5	Human Development
So11	Cultural activities	So06	Culture
So12	Sport and Physical Activities	So7	Sport for All and Elite Sport
So13	School Sports	So7	Sport for All and Elite Sport
So14	Available Sports Facilities	So7	Sport for All and Elite Sport
So16	Top-level Sportmen and Women	So7	Sport for All and Elite Sport
So18	World and Continental Championships	So7	Sport for All and Elite Sport
So19	Results at the Olympic and Paralympic Games and World Championships	So07	Sport for All and Elite Sport
So20	National Anti-doping Controls	So08	Anti-doping Controls
So28	Deferral and Abandonment of Public Policies	So01	Political, Social and Legal Apparatus
So27	Votes connected with the Olympic Games and Paralympic Games	So01	Political, Social and Legal Apparatus
So28	Consultation with Specific Groups	So3	Public opinion and consultation
So29	Opinion Polls	So3	Public opinion and consultation
So30	Participation of Minorities in Olympic and Paralympic Games	So4	Promotion and participation of minority groups
So32	Olympic and Paralympic Educational Activities	So06	Culture
So34	Cultural Programme	So06	Culture
So41	Promotion of Minorities and Indigenous Population	So4	Promotion and participation of minority groups
So42	Non-accredited People Working in Context Activities	Ec1	Employment and business
So43	Host City's Media Image	So10	Media and the Host City Image
So44	Perceptions about People with Disabilities in Society	So4	Promotion and participation of minority groups
So46	Professional Sport Education for People with Disabilities	So11	Professional Sport Education for People with Disabilities
So47	Sustainability of Accessibility Provisions in Olympic and Paralympic Venues	So2	Accessibility of Public Buildings and Venues
So48	Accessibility of Public Services	So2	Accessibility of Public Buildings and Venues

Table 22 Evolution of OGI Socio-cultural Indicators 2007-2011 (Source: Pentifallo, 2013)

ENVIRONMENTAL		2011 INDICATOR	
2007 INDICATOR			
En1	Renewable Fresh Water Use	En1	Water Quality
En2	Public Water Supply	En1	Water Quality
En3	Water Quality	En1	Water Quality
En4	Greenhouse Gas Emissions	En2	Air quality and greenhouse gas emissions
En5	Air Quality	En2	Air quality and greenhouse gas emissions
En6	Land Use Changes	En3	Land use changes, protected sites and biodiversity
En7	Protected Sites	En3	Land use changes, protected sites and biodiversity
En8	Threatened Species	En3	Land use changes, protected sites and biodiversity
En9	Housing Areas	So9	Olympic induced housing
En11	Transport Networks	En5	Transport
En12	Daily Travelling Distance	En5	Transport
En14	Energy Consumption by Source	En6	Energy Consumption
En15	Energy Consumption by Use	En6	Energy Consumption
En18	Solid Waste Treatment	En7	Waste and Wastewater
En19	Wastewater Treatment	En7	Waste and Wastewater
En20	Greenhouse Gas Emissions of Olympic Games and Paralympic Games	En2	Air quality and greenhouse gas emissions
En21	Olympic-induced Land-Use Changes	En3	Land use changes, protected sites and biodiversity
En22	Olympic and Paralympic Venues in protected sites	En3	Land use changes, protected sites and biodiversity
En24	Olympic induced Housing	So9	Olympic induced housing
En25	Indoor Air Quality	En2	Air quality and greenhouse gas emissions
En27	Life-cycle Inventory of Olympic and Paralympic Venues	En8	Life Cycle Inventory
En29	Olympic induced Transport Infrastructure	En5	Transport
En30	Olympic Transport Impacts	En5	Transport
En31	Olympic Energy Consumption	En6	Energy Consumption
En32	Solid Waste Production of Olympic and Paralympic Games	En7	Waste and wastewater
En33	New Waste and Wastewater Treatment Facilities	En7	Waste and wastewater
En34	Life-cycle Inventory of Olympic and Paralympic Games	En8	Life Cycle Inventory

Table 23 Evolution of OGI Environmental Indicators 2007-2011 (Source: Pentifallo, 2013)

ECONOMIC			
2007	INDICATOR	2011	INDICATOR
Ec2	Employment Indicators	Ec1	Employment and business
Ec7	Accommodation Infrastructure	Ec2	Tourism
Ec8	Accommodation Occupancy Rate	Ec2	Tourism
Ec9	Tourist Nights	Ec2	Tourism
Ec12	Hosting of International Events	So7	Sport for All and Elite Sport
Ec13	Wages	Ec1	Employment and business
Ec15	Consumer Price Index	Ec3	Prices
Ec17	Hotel Price Index	Ec3	Prices
Ec18	Real Estate Market	Ec3	Prices
Ec27	Jobs created in Olympic and Context Activities	Ec1	Employment and business
Ec29	New Olympic/Paralympic-related Businesses	Ec1	Employment and business
Ec33	Structure of OCOG Revenues	Ec4	Structure of OCOG budget
Ec34	Structure of OCOG Expenditure	Ec4	Structure of OCOG budget
Ec35	Total Operating Expenditure (Olympic Activities)	Ec5	Operating and capital expenditures and catalyst effect
Ec36	Total Capital Expenditure (Olympic Activities)	Ec5	Operating and capital expenditures and catalyst effect
Ec37	Total Capital Expenditure (context activities)	Ec5	Operating and capital expenditures and catalyst effect
Ec38	Total Wages Paid (Olympic Activities)	Ec1	Employment and business
Ec39	Catalyst Effects of the Game	Ec5	Operating and capital expenditures and catalyst effect
Ec40	Ratios specific to Olympic Activities	Ec6	Ratios specific to Olympic Activities
Ec44	Employability of People with Disabilities	Ec1	Employment and business

Table 24 Evolution of OGI Economic Indicators 2007-2011 (Source: Pentifallo, 2013)

The following indicators were updated about new phenomena that have emerged in previous experiences. In addition, the following indicators as seen in the London project in 2012⁴², should be analysed considering the three phases of the event: pre, during, and post. Only by observing the values during the three different periods will it be possible to study the positive and negative data related to the analysis of impacts⁴³.

The indicators are presented as a suggestion for the implementation of studies regarding the impact of the event on the host communities. For this reason, cities may provide their studies⁴⁴, carried out in collaboration with universities or research centres on the economic, environmental, strategic, social and cost-benefit impact⁴⁵. However, studies should be carried out during all phases of the Olympic project lifecycle to be able to analyse the results in depth.

Performance indicators are a form of communication that organisers and public administrations should consider to disseminate knowledge and respect the transparency of investments. In addition, easy visibility of results will allow the Organising Committee to attract media attention, gaining free publicity for the event and the Olympic processes.

Therefore, over the years we have observed different organisational models for impact assessment:

- **Sydney 2000:** The first edition to introduce a specific department for impact analysis. The Olympic Co-ordination Authority (OCA) was the body responsible for the development and construction of new venues and infrastructure for the event. The public agency incorporated environmental management processes, regularly, carried out by international experts.

⁴² In this post-Games report, the fourth and final report of the OGI study⁴² on the London 2012 Games, conducted by the University of East London and the Economic and Social Research Council, it analysed and updated previous data across 67 indicators.

⁴³ However, the following recommendations do not represent an obligation for future organisers.

⁴⁴ The inclusion of indicators from the IOC Technical Manual is decided by the host city in discussion with the IOC. The choice of IGO indicators depends on what is considered relevant to the particular host city.

⁴⁵ Calgary, Barcelona, Sydney, Turin, Beijing, Vancouver, London, Tokyo have developed the Olympic project or a part of the project through the collaboration of research centres of local universities.

- **Turin 2006:** The Turin Organising Committee introduced a new concept of environmental process management through ISO 14000 and EMAS certification.
- **Vancouver 2010:** The Organising Committee introduced a Sustainability Management and Reporting System (SMRS) for all departments to provide an integrated framework for monitoring the commitments and targets set in the initial phase of the project.
- **London 2012⁴⁶:** The London Organising Committee and the digital, culture, media and sports departments worked together to analyse the complexity of the event, defining sustainability and environmental issues as priorities to ensure a long-term outcome.

The following examples should be considered as a useful tool for the future Organising Committee and for implementing the strategies given in other contexts. However, a mandatory impact assessment process and continuous studies will ensure that the chances of failure are reduced by intervening before the Olympic territorialization process. In recent years, we have observed different indications to provide a sustainable impact on the territories affected by the organisation of a mega-event (Pentifallo, 2015). The hope is that an Olympic symposium can be organised to discuss the new definition of impact and not only focus on the environmental, economic or social context.

The DCMS⁴⁷ (2009), which is responsible for the London 2012 process, suggests three different techniques for determining the impact of the event on host cities:

- Conduct a specific research study on the effects of additionality using primary and secondary resources.
- Conduct a beneficiary survey and ask beneficiaries specific questions, asking them to rate the impacts on the community.

Therefore, the analysis through the use of a logical structure includes:

- The starting situation sets the political, economic and social context.
- Project objectives during policy development.
- Inputs: any resource or material used by the programme to carry out its activities.
- Activities: any service or treatment provided by the programme.
- Results: the amount of activity provided, described in quantifiable terms.
- Outcomes: Outcomes can be classified into short-term outcomes, intermediate outcomes and long-term outcomes.

Logical structures prove to be an important tool for the planning and evaluation of interventions and programmes. The structure allows us to look at impact over time, providing a suitable instrument throughout the planning process. Naturally, each impact is

⁴⁶The OGI London study looks at 67 indicators (15 environmental, 27 socio-cultural and 25 economic).

⁴⁷ The Department for Digital, Culture, Media and Sport is the UK Government's executive department responsible for culture and sport and aspects of the media, such as broadcasting and the internet, as well as tourism and the digital economy.

influenced by different outcomes and therefore the logical structure should be developed to provide an overview of the impacts that could occur.

4.5.3. London 2012 Olympic Impact and Legacy Evaluation Model

The following report was produced by PWC and DCMS⁴⁸ in 2012 for the final evaluation of the London Olympic event in the host community.

The aim of the report is:

- Develop an evaluation framework to assess and measure the impact of the 2012 Games.
- Establish which legacy impacts should be tracked and measured;
- Develop an appropriate research strategy to identify the main expected impacts;
- Establish recommendations for the evaluation process of the 2012 Games.



Figure 51 Logical chain (Source: DCMS, 2009)

In the framework of the post-Olympic evaluation⁴⁹ all initiatives were taken into consideration:

- They were directly related to the hosting of the 2012 Games: this includes programmes and projects that were paid for from the budget allocated for 2012;
- They were directly related to the implementation of the main commitments made by the government, especially those related to the Legacy Action Plan;
- They represent other significant initiatives that have been influenced by the 2012 Games.

The evaluation framework covered the period from 2003, when the government committed to supporting London's bid, to at least 2020 and possibly beyond, allowing key legacy impacts to materialise.

⁴⁸ DCMS, London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games Impact and Legacy Evaluation Framework, Final report, 2012

⁴⁹ University of East London, Olympic Games Impact study - London 2012, Post- Games Report, December 2015

The above-mentioned report on the London Olympics was the first example of longitudinal observation of the impact of a mega-event.

The evaluation model has four specific objectives:

- Help identify gaps in planned and proposed evaluation work across the range of activities and investments associated with the 2012 Games.
- Provide a common platform for monitoring progress and results related to the 2012 Games so that this data can be fed into the evaluation process more broadly.
- Guide individual evaluators to help ensure coherence and allow for comparison and, where appropriate, linking of different evaluations.
- Enable evaluations to be organised effectively once completed so that they can inform each other and, where appropriate, be brought together in meta-analyses that can report on results from multiple perspectives.

The areas to analyse the results were:

- Sport and physical activity;
- Economy;
- Environment;
- Social.

For the impact analysis, some specific questions were asked:

1. Who is affected?
2. Where are the impacts felt?
3. When are impacts expected to occur and how long will they last?
4. How have the projects been designed and implemented?

The Olympic Authority (ODA) was responsible for the infrastructure and facilities for the 2012 Games. Meanwhile, the Organising Committee (LOCOG) provided and organised the staging of the 2012 Games. Likewise, the Government Olympic Executive (GOE) and the Greater London Authority (GLA) led the delivery strategy for the 2012 Games and its legacy on behalf of the national government and the Mayor of London, respectively.

This legacy included the regeneration of one of the most deprived areas of the UK - East London - and the creation of one of the largest urban parks in Europe⁵⁰.

The vision of the 2012 Olympic Games is to be found in the strategic objectives for the achievement of the above-mentioned goals:

- Organise an inspirational Olympic and Paralympic Games for athletes, the Olympic family and the spectator public (LOCOG and stakeholders).

⁵⁰ The Olympic Park after the event will become Queen Elizabeth Park.

- Deliver the Olympic part and all venues on time, within the agreed budget and according to specifications, minimising the use of public funds and providing a sustainable legacy.
- Maximise the economic, social, health and environmental benefits of the Games for the UK, particularly through the regeneration and sustainable development of East London.
- To achieve sustained improvement in British sport before, during and after the Games, both in elite performance - especially in Olympic and Paralympic sports - and in grassroots participation.

In conclusion, the following report proves to be a useful tool for the understanding and implementation of measures reflecting the initial objectives and expectations of the Olympic project.

In the following section, we will consider the impact of the Olympic event before introducing the elements of legacy and sustainability that have now become of fundamental importance to the Olympic bid.

4.5.4. Impact considerations

The impact assessment of mega-events, as noted above, is a complex research process that needs a multidisciplinary and longitudinal approach to the analysis of specific parameters. The problem with impact assessment is that the terminology in its origin tends to have a positive emotional bias, partially considering the outcomes of mega-events. Thus, mega sports events are presented with the assumption of risks by the host communities. The concepts of effectiveness and efficiency are mainly used for impact assessment at the organisational level. Sustainability is another concept that emerged after Turin 2006 and has become a key element in the debate on the impact of mega-events. Therefore, the Organising Committee should be obliged to provide reports, analyses and other key documentation for the observation of impact at the longitudinal level.

The haphazardly of projects should no longer affect communities and territories⁵¹. Generally, candidate cities focus on obtaining the bid and planning the event, complying only with the standards imposed by the IOC. Standards that will allow the host city and the Organising Committee to successfully organise the event while neglecting the post-Olympic period. Post-Olympic planning is essential to look specifically at the potential of Olympic facilities and infrastructure to benefit the host community in the post-Olympic period. If facilities and infrastructures do not have a significant use after the Olympic Games, they must be converted and their objectives reformulated about the specific context. Of course, not all structures can be reformulated and redefined without prior planning.

⁵¹ Insufficient attention has been paid over time to planning for the post-Olympic period.

Researchers such as Bruce Kidd have argued that each candidate city should "*undertake a social impact assessment and public consultation before submitting its bid*" (Kidd, 1996).



Figure 52 Queen Elizabeth Park in London (Source: CC)

4.6. The Olympic Legacy

4.6.1. Introduction to the Olympic legacy

In the previous sections, the relationship between mega-events and the tangible and intangible values of the event is complex and needs to be analysed over a medium to long-term period. For this reason, the development prospects for host cities are a topic of growing interest that can be defined as the "*Olympic legacy*". The term "*legacy*" can be defined as the totality of Olympic works, infrastructure, accommodation, projects and the Olympic experience. Meanwhile, the concept of *legacy* is a new wedge concept rooted in the philosophy of transforming host cities to encourage sport. The international debate over time has focused on the difference between the terms impact and heritage⁵². The principles and philosophies of the Olympic movement, founded by Baron de Coubertin, sought to provide the territory with sports facilities for the promotion of sport in the post-Olympic period. Sports practice is understood as a means of training with a catalysing power⁵³ of values and principles of respect, fraternity and overcoming limits. For this reason, the effects of the Olympic legacy must be observed from a certain perspective and its effects can be: change in image, economy, tourism, and sports practice. Moreover, the legacy can

⁵² Definition of Olympic legacy: Cashman (2005): 1. sport; 2. economy; 3. infrastructure; 4. information and education; 5. public life, politics and culture; 6. symbols, memory and history; Chappelet (2006): 1. sport legacy; 2. economic legacy; 3. infrastructure legacy; 4. urban legacy; 5. social legacy.

⁵³ In Olympic history, Berlin, Oslo, Rome, Tokyo, Mexico City, Barcelona, Sydney, Turin, Beijing, London are considered to be the biggest cities that have used the Olympic Games as a catalyst for sport in their territory.

be found in different multidisciplinary areas such as culture, economy, environment, and territory⁵⁴.

"In addition to being determined by Olympic history, the legacy must be contextualised in different local contexts" (Dansero, Mela, 2004).

Other authors such as Hiller, for example, propose replacing the term "*legacy*" with "*outcomes*" (Hiller, 2002). Hiller's concept introduces a reading of outcomes in terms of sporting/non-sporting and programmable/non-programmable.

On the other hand, Cashman (Cashman, 2002), about the Olympic legacy, identifies some fundamental characteristics to understand the term *legacy*.

- Legacy can be tangible (hard) or intangible (soft).
- Legacy is not a monopoly
- There are different legacies for each actor involved in the event
- Other legacies are not linked to the celebration of the event

Cashman (2002) allows us to state that legacy includes both expected and unexpected aspects, which should not essentially be linked to the celebration of the Olympic event.

The issue of the Olympic legacy grew from Atlanta 1996, where it was introduced in the post-Olympic reports. Subsequently, Sydney 2000 was the first edition to introduce some key points about legacy and post-Olympic planning in a cross-cutting manner. The Sydney project introduced specific sections on Olympic legacy, tourism, economy, technology, sports facilities and social identity (Chalip, 2010). Since Sydney, the concept of legacy has been introduced into official IOC documents and over time has been incorporated into the *host city contract* and post-Olympic documentation. Today, post-Olympic legacy planning is essential for hosting the Olympic Games.

Cashman (2002,2005), introduced six categories to classify Olympic legacy:

- Economic legacy.
- Legacy of the physical and built environment.
- Informative and educational legacy.
- Legacy of public life, politics and culture.
- Sporting legacy.
- Legacy of symbols, memory and history.

According to Cashman (2002), legacy should:

⁵⁴ Measuring event legacies: Event tourism: Getz, 1989, 1991; Hall, 1992; Kang & Perdue, 1994; Carvalhedo, 2003; Dwyer et al., 2004; Chalip & McGuirly, 2004; Solberg & Preuss, 2006.

Employment impact: Ritchie, 1984, 1996; Burns et al., 1986; Mules & Faulkner, 1996; Hotchkiss et al., 2001; Hagn & Maennig, 2007; Urban development: Evans, 1995; Hughes, 1993; Meyer-Künzel, 2001; Environment: May, 1995

Social impacts: Shultis et al., 1994; Hodges & Hall, 1996; Lenskyj, 2002; Fredline et al., 2003; Misener & Mason, 2006; Smith & Fox, 2007.

- Guaranteeing a city's return on investment.
- Fulfilment of tender promises.
- How to resolve outstanding issues.
- A return for the community.
- Avoid negative publicity and urban decay.

In addition, we find other equally important reasons why legacy is key:

- The adoption of a professional attitude to be replicated in the post-Games period.
- Legacy is linked to the third pillar of Olympism, the environment.
- The legacy is linked to the balance of financing.
- The Olympic movement gains cultural capital through the places and symbols associated with the Olympic Games.
- Legacy can be perceived as a burden and can compromise planning outcomes over the years of preparation.

The international debate since Turin (2006) has evolved to make legacy the sponsorship element for Olympic bids. Moreover, post-event legacy planning is a sensitive moment for the future of the host city.

The definition of the uses and the allocation of the managing bodies of the Olympic structures is a fundamental process for the long-term exploitation of the territory. However, a lack of foresight can become a misleading advertisement for citizens. Unfortunately, in Sochi, Rio, and PyeongChang we have seen overestimated constructions, which today are abandoned. The preparation, management and planning of the event must be clear from the very beginning in order not to have criticisms in the post-Olympic period. The solution does not exist. It is advisable to set up a specific body for the management of the post-Olympic legacy. The Organising Committee is constituted only for the organisation of the Olympic event and is dismissed one month after the closing ceremony. Montreal, Athens, Turin, Sochi, Rio, and PyeongChang are some of the experiences that produced a significant post-Olympic management deficit, which was transferred to the public so as not to compromise the works. One of the risks for local communities hosting winter editions is that of creating *White Elephants* (Cashman, 2002).

However, one aspect that remains under-researched concerns the temporal dimension of the Olympic legacy. International references do not refer to a specific period to be taken into account for longitudinal studies. Moreover, being different scales, the spatial and temporal dimensions must be analysed specifically for each project scale. Therefore, we can introduce a global, a national, a regional and a local scale. However, each of these scales needs continuous investments to achieve the stated objectives for post-Olympic planning.

The IOC in 2010 suggests five dimensions for legacy research⁵⁵ :

1. The degree of planned/unplanned structure.
2. The degree of positive/negative structure.
3. The degree of tangible/intangible structure.
4. The duration and timing of a change of structure.
5. The space is affected by the change of structure.

Therefore, structure, space and time are the factors to be considered in investigating the temporal dimension of the Olympic legacy⁵⁶. The continuous investment and implementation of the plan allow cities to dynamize the objectives about the real demands of the citizens⁵⁷. However, the objectives of each specific context must respect the promises made during the bidding process. Moreover, it would be interesting to introduce a contract between the city and the citizens, as they are the main actors of the Olympic legacy. Bid reports often contain high expectations, but they are often left as unfulfilled major projects by the organising countries. The non-fulfilment of certain expectations in Olympic cities feeds a collective feeling of dissatisfaction, facilitating the creation of new movements against the organisation of mega-events.

The only solution is often the adoption of a long-term vision that includes the local community in the post-Olympic project. An extended timeframe can reduce criticism from citizens. However, the Olympics can accelerate ordinary transformation processes, while on the other hand, it can destroy the image of the city and the public administration around the world. Finally, it is suggested that the post-Olympic legacy be planned so that the objectives are achieved and the processes can be applied on a day-to-day basis, as an example of good practice in local government⁵⁸.

4.6.2. The Olympic Legacy: Defining Olympic legacies

Next, the analysis focuses on the management of Olympic heritage, defined by the IOC through the term Olympic *legacy*.

In 2010 the IOC defines the difference between impact and Olympic *legacy*.

The impact is identified as the result of the economic system in the city, while *legacy is identified* as a positive and long-term element.

These two concepts are related and intersect in different areas:

⁵⁵ IOC, Legacy and Impact, 2010

⁵⁶ The London 2012 post-Olympic plan is considered to be the best plan in terms of legacy management and organisation.

⁵⁷ Post-Olympic investments should guarantee a return to the community.

⁵⁸ For progress on the Olympic legacy see annexes.

- Cultural, social and political.
- Environmental.
- Economic.
- Urban.
- Sports.

In this sense, we can say that the impact is a concrete element that can be direct, indirect, temporary or permanent, short or long term. On the other hand, Olympic heritage is used to describe the positive elements and long-term post-Olympic effects on the candidate cities. For this reason, the term *legacy* is used to define the tangible and intangible benefits of the Olympic Games. The following emphasis on benefits over time has created a lot of confusion among Olympic organisers and researchers.

In addition, the heritage should be able to be considered a negative legacy in case the facilities are abandoned or overestimated. So, as stated by the IOC, it is essential to have a holistic long-term vision that each year can compare and monitor the positive and negative legacy of the Olympic project.

4.6.3. Tangible and intangible. Two different ways of looking at the Olympic Legacy

Before analysing the different legacies, it is essential to distinguish between two forms of Olympic heritage: tangible *legacy*, and intangible *legacy* (Preuss, 2000, 2007, 2021).

As we have noted, the Olympic legacy can be divided into tangible and intangible *legacies*.

These are some examples of the tangible legacy related to mega-events:

- Sports and non-sports facilities (new construction, reuse, conversion).
- Infrastructures (transport, mobility, etc.).
- Urban fabric and beautification (improvement of the urban areas of the city and works of revaluation of spaces).
- Urban regeneration and rehabilitation.
- Telecommunications.
- Services.

Meanwhile, about intangible legacy, the elements are not so easy for cities to identify and standardise, but can sometimes have a direct and indirect effect that is even more important than tangible factors:

- National or regional pride.
- Improved policies and practices.
- New and improved skills and knowledge of the works.
- Changes in attitude.

- Local governance.
- New application methodologies in construction, event management and negotiations.
- Worldwide recognition of the city/country.
- Olympic education.
- Rediscovery of national culture.
- Environmental awareness and sensitisation.

For this reason, a short-term, temporary or transitory legacy may manifest itself before, during or after the Games. The legacy, therefore, can quickly disappear after the event if efforts are not made to keep it alive through, for example, cultural programming, new environmental legislation, public awareness programming or new applications.

4.6.4. Cultural, social and political legacy

Expectations related to the organisation of the event generate different outcomes in the community that are complex to measure. The promotion of Olympic values, the involvement of volunteers, social integration and the construction of new public policies are the most important topics of discussion to define the success or failure of the event in the local community (Lenskyj, 2006). On the other hand, territorial governance and territorial organisation are key issues for the evaluation of future effects related to the Olympic event (Raco, 2013). Major events generate new conflicts in the community, conflicts that do not manifest themselves during the development phase of the Olympic project (Segre, Scamuzzi, 2004).

Cultural, social and political legacies can be identified through the following indicators:

- Individual freedoms.
- Dialogue between different religions and ethnic groups.
- Integration of the disabled.
- Fight against exclusion.
- Security and political dialogue²²⁵.
- Education.
- Rights.

The Olympic Games can also bring about a change in behaviour and attitude that can be brought about by the inspiration of the Olympic event.

- Volunteering.
- Cultural pride.
- Increased self-esteem.
- Awareness raising and empowerment.
- Community empowerment and civic awareness.
- Inclusion.

- Interest in and knowledge of the country's history and culture.
- Interest in and knowledge of art and gastronomy.

In this sense, new forms of governance and attitudes during the different phases of bidding and post-Olympic planning can become catalytic elements for the implementation of new actions attractive to the local community and the host city. Therefore, a change in the attitude of local authorities can allow for the development of a new form of governance, participation and territorial cooperation.

Moreover, the use of the Olympic brand temporarily projects an image of excellence and inspiration to the world. However, the promotion of the city is fundamental, especially in the period leading up to the event, seeking the association between the city and the collective imagination. Thanks to this new temporary image, host cities can acquire new values and new forms of inspiration for the implementation of new social projects and other local initiatives. For this reason, the local community is seen as the subject of heritage protection.

4.6.5. The environmental legacy

The environmental legacies of the Olympics can be broadly seen in the following categories:

- Improvement, implementation and preservation of the environment.
- Design and construction of environmentally friendly Olympic facilities.
- Promotion of new environmental management practices and standards.
- Demonstration of new environmentally friendly techniques and technologies.
- New approaches to the procurement of sustainable processes and contractual sponsorship requirements.

The first two categories constitute tangible legacies that largely benefit local communities. While the others may also include tangible legacies adopted and applied further afield, although their specific impact is often more difficult to calculate. It should be noted that consideration of the environment entered the agenda of the Olympic movement only in 1999, during the IOC's world conference on sport and the environment (Furrer, 2002). The Olympic movement in Seoul adopted Agenda 21 which included the points identified at the 1992 Rio conference. Therefore, Agenda 21 set out a series of actions for the promotion of the concept of sustainable development and respect for the environment in the organisation of the Olympic event. This document is not sufficient and proposes challenges for the preparation and organisation of the Olympics; it will be up to the Olympic cities to interpret the guidelines autonomously. For example, Lillehammer (1994) is recognised as the most sustainable Winter Olympics in history, as of today⁵⁹. Subsequently, Sydney was the first Olympic city to include specific environmental guidelines in its initial bid. Another example of good practice is the approach adopted by

⁵⁹ The planning of temporary facilities and structures through the use of wood has meant a reduction in land consumption and a sustainable promotion of the Olympic event around the world.

the Turin Organising Committee (2006) for the evaluation of the Olympic plan. The use of the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA), through continuous monitoring in the different phases: before, during and after the Olympic event, has allowed the organisers to be promoters of a practice that is nowadays mandatory to host the Olympic event.

From the list of sustainability indicators and processes observed in Olympic history, we have been able to highlight the following activities:

- Sydney 2000 → Specific audits for environmental management.
- Turin 2006 → ISO14000, EMAS and EIA.
- Vancouver 2010 → SMRS (Sustainability Management and Reporting System).
- London 2012 → Specific audits for environmental management.

4.6.6. The economic legacy

The economic legacy is the most attractive for the organisation and the evaluation of the impact of the Olympic event by public administrations. The economic success of the event is the legacy that is of most interest to the Olympic movement for the redistribution of benefits and the promotion of an economically sustainable event. In addition, the economic success of the event implies an increase in interest from sponsors and the media. However, proper economic planning can benefit the host city in reviving the service economy and repositioning itself in the framework of international financial flows. For this reason, the economic and other legacies must be planned, supported and implemented in the post-Olympic period. In such a way, their effects continue over time.

In chapter 3, we saw how the Olympic brand, since Los Angeles 1984, has been included in a territorial marketing strategy aimed at attracting tourists, companies and new events to the territory. The Los Angeles (1984) and Atlanta (1996) Olympics are defined as the best events in terms of economic performance, and performance obtained through the repositioning of the contemporary metropolis in a framework of global cities. However, the Barcelona edition (1992), developed through a mixed economy, was a great economic success that transformed the city into a contemporary metropolis and a popular destination for tourists and international companies⁶⁰.

On the other hand, Sydney (2000) is considered a success story of territorial marketing, having a tangible impact on the perception of the city as a tourist venue for cultural and sporting events. The Sydney Organising Committee aimed to re-launch Sydney's tourism, as there were severe accessibility constraints to the mainland (Cashman, Hughes, 1998). Sydney's bid was developed through the collaboration of the National Tourism Agency, which for the first time developed a territorial marketing strategy, involving foreign journalists, companies and international tour operators. The synergy of

⁶⁰ Today, the city of Barcelona continues to invest and implement financial resources for the exploration of the service economy in order to be an inclusive, participatory and communicative city.

different *stakeholders* allowed the whole world to get to know a continent that until then had not been a major tourist destination.

Preuss (2000), looking at the macroeconomic level of the Olympics, argues that the event can lead to an increase in the demand for consumer goods and the establishment of new businesses. He also analyses how the demand for employment is a temporary element of the bidding phases due to the construction of the Olympic works.

Therefore, the same author proposes some indicators for the evaluation of the economic legacy of the Olympic project:

- Consumption.
- Unemployment/employment rates.
- Permanent employment.
- The arrival of new companies.
- Several tourists.
- Several nights in hotels
- Several events attracted.

Preuss (2000) in his study states that Olympic cities can suffer from a temporary displacement effect. The effect occurs when in a short space of time there is a shift of economic resources from one sector to another. This tends to happen in industrial cities that have shifted resources towards tourism services. For this reason, the increase in demand requires an increase in the productivity of goods and services and long-term investments. During the Olympic event, rental prices tend to rise, which can lead to real estate speculation over time⁶¹.

On the other hand, the temporary increase in prices can lead to a rise in the cost of Olympic construction work, which can lead to an overestimation and future abandonment of Olympic facilities⁶². Therefore, in 2018, the IOC introduced new selection criteria for candidate cities to reduce the size of Olympic projects in future cities (see chapter 3).

4.6.7. The urban legacy

Meanwhile, the analysis of the urban *legacy* of the Olympics can be identified in three main categories:

- Urban renewal.
- Construction of new urban areas.
- Improvement of infrastructural networks.

Urban renewal represents a unique opportunity for the renovation of candidate cities and the beautification of urban areas that will be part of the Olympic project. The IOC's

⁶¹ For example, in Barcelona, after the Olympic Games, the value of real estate in 1993 was 300% higher than in 1992.

⁶² The risk of failure is quite high if we look at the experiences of Sochi (2014), Rio de Janeiro (2016) and PyeongChang (2018).

objective is to encourage the creation of a more attractive place to live in the city with a higher quality of life through better spatial conditions, setting long-term goals. In this sense, the renovation and beautification of spaces is a fundamental factor in the construction of a tourist city that is accessible to all (at a global level).

On the other hand, the construction of new urban areas, the evolution of transport lines and the expansion of the service sector are the main elements that explain the appearance of large areas of abandoned unproductive industrial land in strategic areas for the new future of cities. The connection between the new areas will be fundamental for the implementation of the infrastructure project and the improvement of viability in the host city. The need for infrastructure to host the Olympic Games meets the opportunity to mobilise the necessary forces for the development of new neighbourhoods and new suburbs.

Moreover, as explained in the specific section, the improvement of infrastructure networks can determine the success of Olympic Games organisations and requires reliable, fast and safe transport⁶³.

The process of urban transformation and consequently the urban legacy of the Olympic Games can be seen as a catalyst for urban change in the post-Olympic phase, capable of stimulating the creativity of territorial planning and becoming a sort for future projects. However, urban transformations mobilise public and private funding in the post-event period. The city will be able to improve its decision-making positions, determining new land changes for the post-Olympic requirements. For this reason, consideration of the urban legacy should be added to the ongoing planning of host cities, reducing the risk of ephemeral projects and the production of obsolete structures in a post-Olympic phase.

However, having observed the experiences of Turin, Vancouver, and London, the post-Olympic phase requires organisational planning to achieve the objectives set in the bidding phase. On the other hand, the urban legacy is one of the most complex elements to realise and shape the overall project of the host cities. Regarding culture and political time, over time, some Olympic projects have resulted in a negative urban legacy that remains a problem for Olympic cities today⁶⁴. Thus, urban legacy is strongly linked to each specific urban context and, for this reason, the Olympic Games have in some editions underestimated the urban results achieved⁶⁵.

⁶³ For example, in 2008 Beijing invested 20 billion in the transport and road infrastructure sectors alone. Over time, we have observed different infrastructure projects that underline the importance of the urban legacy over time.

⁶⁴ Turin's Olympic Village in the Lingotto area is one of the works that to this day has not left any kind of positive urban legacy for the neighbourhood and the entire southern area of the city.

⁶⁵ The editions of Rome, Tokyo, Seoul, Barcelona, Turin, were supported by ten-year development plans where the event was only a pretext for the implementation of the urban transformations envisaged above.

4.6.8. The sporting legacy

The sporting legacy in the candidate cities can be observed through sport infrastructures, new permanent venues, the improvement of existing facilities, the construction and rehabilitation of new sports venues and the promotion of sports equipment. On the other hand, the sports legacy for the population can be observed through citizen participation in sports events and sports practice. Regarding sporting legacy, organisers should ensure that the use and configuration of a facility take stake into account the experience and form of each city, in consideration of its incorporation into a circuit of sporting facilities. In addition, consultation with residents and potential future users will provide insight into the demands and needs of each user in the post-Olympic period. Finally, reducing the size⁶⁶ of a facility after the Olympic period by building a mix of structures is only an introduction to the temporary facilities we will see in the future.

4.6.9. Consideration of the Olympic Legacy

The IOC, during the evaluation phase of the Olympic cities, does not fully consider the city typology, citizen participation, territorial acceptance and the implementation of new strategies for the change of the city image⁶⁷. However, the IOC should implement the bidding process, supporting candidate cities throughout their entire time cycle. Thus, the Olympic legacy has a dual purpose: one for the city and its citizens; one for the Olympic movement. This division of objectives requires guidelines for the planning and implementation of detailed programmes that can assist the citizens and the city in the choice of the Olympic project. Local authorities and the population cannot be excluded from the bidding process and the planning of the Olympic Games. Undoubtedly, the success of the Olympic project provides an intangible image return for the entire Olympic movement. Inevitably, the image of the city will be projected on the international event circuits, introducing a new model to be pursued. Over time, many Olympic cities have served as a model for future candidate cities⁶⁸. Therefore, the success of these cities was not only manifested in their Olympic plan but also the transformation of the city's image and the economic and financial development of the territory in the post-Olympic phase. For this reason, the editions that have been successful and will be successful in the future are destined to serve as an Olympic model, influencing the future projects of the new Olympic cities. On the other hand, equally important are the negative editions in terms of urban transformation⁶⁹. On the occasion of negative editions, the IOC has had to modify the process of city allocation so that the Olympic Games can always represent a clean and dynamic product for sponsors and the media. For this reason, the promotion of an Olympic city and an urban model to be pursued can catalyse supra-local transformations that

⁶⁶ The new Olympic projects imply a post-Olympic redefinition in search of a decrease in the number of seats. However, post-Olympic redefinition will entail new funding.

⁶⁷ Participatory planning between citizens and local authorities should be integrated into the Olympic project at all stages.

⁶⁸ Rome, Mexico, Munich, Los Angeles, Barcelona, Sydney, Turin, London, Tokyo, are just some of the projects that have been developed through a reference model or through the creation of a new spatial development model for the city.

⁶⁹ Editions such as Montreal, Athens, Sochi, Rio, have promoted and publicised instability, causing a lack of credibility for the entire Olympic movement.

support the intangible knowledge of the citizenry. The social transformations through the promotion of the city and its image can remain a "*Know-How*" of the Organising Committee which in the post-Olympic phase will support the future strategies of the city regarding the organisation and planning modalities of the mega-events mega-events.

The Olympic *legacy* is very imprecise about its dynamism over time. The Olympic *legacy*, tangible or intangible, direct or indirect, modifies its space and its temporal performance. Therefore, the change of scale of the post-Olympic project allows for the introduction of impact or outcome terms. Some researchers such as Cashman (2002) prefer to define *legacy* as *hardware* (facilities and infrastructure) and *software* (culture, image and identity). The above division of tangible and intangible resources allows us to reflect on the importance of defining the Olympic project in its entirety so that socio-economic and morphological problems do not arise in the Olympic territory. In line with the contributions of Raffestin (1981) and Turco (1988), territorialization can be defined as the production of territory, a territory considered as a space produced by the action of all the actors who carry out projects on the territory. This territorial space can be defined as a space where energy and human capital are applied (Raffestin, 1981). Moreover, territorialization in the Olympic Games starts from the bidding phase, transforming itself during the organisational phases of the event until it becomes a process of deterritorialization in the post-Olympic period. In this last phase, a large number of works have been dismantled or abandoned. Meanwhile, the next phase of territorialization is defined through the city's legacy plan, which allows the heritage to be transformed into a tangible heritage for the city and its citizens. According to Turco, territorialization, observed as the production of new spatial territory, fits into the ordinary transformation dynamics of cities through a T-R-D cycle that can be analysed as different acts of territorialization that can be defined through the definition of three categories: Naming, Reification and Structuring (Turco, 1988). The naming of the Olympic territory is related to the control of the symbols of the territory: Olympic stadium, Olympic Plaza, Olympic Village, Olympic track, etc. These symbols, over the years, will inevitably change in form and specific weight about their involvement and application time. Throughout Olympic history, they were sometimes renamed in the aftermath of the event to exploit the brand of the sponsor offering the most long-term funding. In this sense, Olympic facilities and works in the post-Olympic period will inevitably change their value and significance in the city. Therefore, the construction of defined Olympic strategies ensures the development of a city brand that will inevitably be promoted to the world. For this reason, the transformation of temporary sites during the Olympic event can be identified as the first phase of territorial production.

After London 2012, the issue of *legacy* became a key element and should be seen as the last phase of the Olympic cycle, but the de-territorialization phase should not include a new phase of re-territorialization.

The deterritorialization phase can lead to the following transformations in the territory:

- Dismantling.
- Re-use.
- Abandonment.

Therefore, the greatest risks on the part of the IOC and the candidate cities are those that may lead to excessive Olympic territorialization, as in the post-Olympic period they may be transformed into abandoned structures.

It is argued that over-production and a dispersive project can lead to a territorial deficit, housing occupation, reuse of spaces and transformations in mountain areas.

4.7. Sustainable development

4.7.1. Introduction to sustainable development at mega-events

Sport is followed and practised by millions of citizens around the world. Thanks to its media capacity, it can influence spectators and convey key messages for the development of a more sustainable world⁷⁰. The OUN 1992, through the Rio de Janeiro conference, first introduced the topic of sustainability into a global development framework. Later, with the inclusion of sustainability in the Olympic Charter in 1996, sport became a means for the promotion of sustainable practices and activities around the world. For this reason, all sports organisations and sports promotion bodies around the world should promote and implement environmental sustainability programmes in their projects and day-to-day operations.

In 2005, the OUN introduced the Sustainable Development Agenda for Sport and, naturally, the IOC became a key sponsor in monitoring and promoting sustainable development worldwide (UNEP, 2005).

The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) was created to reduce the environmental impact during the production of sports and the place where the sport is played⁷¹. The programme focuses primarily on sports venues and facilities.

The programme strategy sets out three key objectives:

- Promote environmental awareness.
- Promote environmental initiatives in the field of sport (sport and nature).
- Promote sports-ecological services and equipment.

Following the publication of the next programme in 2005, the IOC adopted the three objectives within the Olympic Charter, marking a commitment to the promotion and

⁷⁰ Melnick, D., McNeely, J., & Kakabadse Navarro, Environment and human well-Being: A practical strategy. United Nations Millennium Project: Task Force on Environmental Sustainability, Earthscan, London, Sterling, 2005, pp.2-9.

⁷¹ UNEP, United Nations Environment Programmes, 2005.

adaptation of environmental and sustainable development policies. The IOC's adoption indicated that the IOC was committed to promoting and adopting sustainable environmental development policies.

4.7.2. The introduction of the environment into the Olympic Charter

As global mega-events, the Olympic Games represent an expression of a specific historical moment that reflects the visions of the globalised world. For this reason, the universal dimension of the Olympic event and the increasing size of the event has, over the years, introduced new concerns for the protection of the environment. However, the IOC during the 1970s and 1980s was very concerned about the negative image of the event worldwide, and even seriously considered that the Olympic event was in danger of disappearing⁷². The Montreal 1976 edition can be considered one of the most critical moments for the future of the modern Olympic Games. The overestimation of Olympic works and mega projects had introduced new concerns and criticisms regarding the respect for the environment. Therefore, IOC president Samaranch, in 1986, declared that the environment should be introduced shortly as the third pillar of Olympism, along with sport and culture. However, the Rio de Janeiro Charter of 1992, the introduction of Agenda 21, and the collaboration with UNEP in 1994 made it possible to set up a specific commission on sport and the environment in 1995. Thus, in 1996, the environment was finally added to the Olympic Charter as a third pillar (Kaspar, 1998). Indeed, the Lillehammer 1994 edition and the presidency of the Norwegian prime minister as a president of the ONU were intangible elements in raising awareness of the environmental risks identified in the 1970s and 1980s by the scientific community.

"To encourage and support a responsible concern for environmental issues, to promote sustainable development in sport and to require that the Olympic Games be conducted accordingly" (Olympic Charter, Art. 2, IOC mission and role).

Norway is recognised as one of the driving forces behind the creation of the European Commission's project *"Our Common Future"*. As such, the planning and organisation of the Lillehammer Olympics introduced four key points for the protection of the environment:

1. Companies were instructed to use natural materials wherever possible.
2. Emphasis was placed on energy savings in the heating and cooling system.
3. A recycling programme was developed for the entire Winter Games region.
4. It was stipulated that the stadiums should harmonise with the surrounding landscape.

⁷² The city of Denver in 1976 provided for a referendum to observe the public's intention to host a mega-event. The Denver referendum highlighted citizens' concerns about environmentally destructive landscape practices. Thus, the winter edition was assigned to Innsbruck, which was Olympic city for the second time (1964-1976).

Therefore, the Lillehammer edition served as a reference and case study for future editions and the implementation of environmentally friendly strategies⁷³.

After having looked at the origins of Olympic environmental sustainability, in the following sections, the obligations set by the IOC for host cities. Finally, the research will advance some elements for planning a sustainable legacy in the post-event phase.

4.7.3. Consideration of the environment in the bid process

“THE IOC EXECUTIVE BOARD SHALL STUDY THE REPORTS AND ANY RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE FUTURE HOST COMMISSIONS AND, IF ENDORSED, SUBMIT A REPORT AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF ANY INTERESTED HOST OR HOSTS TO BE SUBMITTED TO THE VOTE BY THE SESSION FOR ELECTION, NOT LATER THAN ONE MONTH BEFORE THE OPENING DATE OF THE SESSION TO ELECT THE HOST OF THE PARTICULAR EDITION OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES. IN ITS RECOMMENDATIONS, THE IOC EXECUTIVE BOARD SHALL INCLUDE ITS ASSESSMENT OF THE OPPORTUNITIES AND RISKS OF EACH INTERESTED HOST, AS WELL AS OF SUSTAINABILITY AND LEGACY”.

(OLYMPIC CHARTER, ART.33, CHOICE OF OLYMPIC CITY).

The IOC through its handbook for candidate cities includes a specific section on the compliance of host cities with environmental measures. The handbook is seen as the cities' commitment to the environment. In addition, the IOC guides future cities through policies that should be implemented for a positive assessment of the Olympic bid.⁷⁴ Over time, the meanings and terms of sustainable development have evolved into different practices and applications within each specific context. The only hope is that in the future the IOC can update the criteria for the consideration of sustainable practices in all specific contexts.

To date, the IOC, in its report for candidate cities, includes the following obligations regarding environment:

1. Provide a map and graphic description of the local environmental situation regarding natural resources used by the relevant authorities, with emphasis on their interaction with OCOG;
2. Provide an official guarantee from the competent authorities, stating that all works necessary for the organisation of the Games will comply with local, regional and national standards, as well as international agreements and protocols on planning, construction and environmental protection;
3. Conduct environmental impact assessment of all sites;
4. Describe the environmental management system envisaged by the OCOG (including possible collaboration with NGOs and/or their feedback on the Games;

⁷³ In Olympic history, the city of Sydney has a reputation for delivering the first sustainable and environmentally friendly mega-event.

⁷⁴ However, the assessment of environmental practices is subjective, especially when looking at Sydney, Athens, Turin, Beijing, Vancouver, London, Sochi, Rio, PyeongChang and Beijing.

5. Describe environmentally friendly technology about the Games;
6. Describe plans to minimise the environmental impact of game-related infrastructure projects (road widening);
7. Outline how waste management (wastewater treatment) plans are expected to influence the city and the region in the future;
8. Explain how the OCOG will integrate its environmental approach into contracts with suppliers and sponsors, e.g. about the procurement of recyclable or compostable products in recyclable or compostable packaging;
9. Outline plans to raise environmental awareness (IOC, 2018).

We observe that the IOC emphasises the impact and legacy of environmental sustainability (ES) in the Games, which adheres to the principles outlined by the ecological modernisation (EM) perspective (Karamichas, 2012).

4.7.4. The International Olympic Committee's obligations regarding environmental sustainability

The protection of the environment after Mega-Events defines a multiplicity of factors that the Organising Committee (OCOG) must take into account when planning the Olympic Games⁷⁵. Kaspar, in 1998 suggested that the OCOG should ensure a careful selection of the land to be used for the construction of buildings, infrastructure, roads, car parks and railway networks⁷⁶. For this reason, land selection should take into account the environmental sensitivity of the selected land and also the impact of infrastructure on the environment. Furthermore, Kaspar (1998) indicated that the OCOG should structure a strategic plan that includes the use of urban transport, minimising the use of private transport by committee members and country delegations⁷⁷. According to Kaspar, the planning and construction of Olympic facilities should be executed to strongly reduce private transport, realising projects in a limited space. However, as we will see in chapter five, the spatial dimension of the Olympic Games over time has been increasing to almost 200 km in the winter edition in Beijing in 2022. Kaspar (1998) also indicated that the implementation of waste management programmes should be the responsibility of the organisers, including recycling systems, selective collection and the use of biodegradable material, to reduce the environmental impact during the execution of the Olympic Games⁷⁸. Following the inclusion of sustainability in the Olympic Charter, the OCOG is obliged to continuously monitor all environmental initiatives carried out⁷⁹ (Kaspar, 1998). Through the creation of an environmental commission, the IOC imposes that OCOGs and environmental dossiers will be monitored and ensured through a rigorous evaluation process by the IOC. However, the IOC relies on the evaluation of the *OCOGs regarding*

⁷⁵ Nowadays, environmental protection has become an essential tool for hosting the Olympic event.

⁷⁶ Kaspar, R. (1998). Sport, environment and culture. From the database of the LA84 Foundation.

⁷⁷ Gold, J.R. and Gold M.M. (2011). Introduction. In J.R. Gold and M.M. Gold (Eds.) *Olympic cities: city agendas, planning and the world's games, 1896-2016*. (pp. 1-17)

⁷⁸ The International Olympic Committee (1999). Agenda 21 of the Olympic Movement. Retrieved from http://www.olympic.org/Documents/Reports/EN/en_report_300.pdf

⁷⁹ The importance of the IOC's oversight is also highlighted, as it is the supervisory body for the environmental sustainability of such "Mega-Events".

their environmental performance (Huet, 2007). Furthermore, Huet (2007), pointed out that the IOC is exempt from responsibility for the environmental actions taken by the Organising Committees⁸⁰. For this reason, the host city and the government are considered the responsible parties for the results of environmental sustainability⁸¹. However, in 2001, the IOC, through the introduction of the OGI programme, launched a new dynamic for the study of the impact of the event on host cities⁸². The study provided a methodological framework to raise awareness of the perception of environmental sustainability rather than planning Olympic works without compromising the development of the cities. The OGI programme is based on 117 actions to be taken to facilitate the success of the event without permanently affecting the environment. Some of the recommendations were implemented at the Beijing 2008 and Vancouver 2010 Games, while at London 2012 all 117⁸³ recommendations of the study were implemented entirely. The topics of the study cover many sensitive issues, from air pollution to the composition of sports teams. To ensure the proper implementation of this study, an in-depth analysis lasting 10 to 15 years is recommended to take all necessary changes before the Olympic bid is submitted. In addition, during the planning of the Olympic event, the OCOG reports to the IOC on the sustainable development criteria adopted in consideration of the multi-dimensionality of the impact: social impact, economic impact and environmental impact.

According to Holden, Mackenzie (2008) and VanWynsberghe (2007,2015): the coherent set of deadlines that the requirement represents (OGI), provides National Committees with a clear message from the IOC, which reflects the needs of the host communities. This is a major step toward the sustainability of sports events. The OGI study allows for long-term planning and a more realistic assessment of the impact of these mega-events on host cities.

However, as much as the IOC can do, OCOG and OGOS oversight should result in sanctions for committees that do not respect the criteria and may damage the environment permanently.

Today, the Olympic Charter does not foresee sanctions for environmental respect. The only sanctions are linked to doping, financing and image damage.

In contrast to this study (OGI), Frey, Iraldo and Melis (2008) argue that the Olympic Movement thus continues its contradictory policy of sustainable development to the detriment of host cities.

⁸⁰ Huet, J. (2007). United Nations National Environment Programme: Beijing Report 2008. Retrieved 12 March 2008 from http://www.unep.org/sport_env/Documents?BeijingReport07?Chapter3. Pdf

⁸¹ As stated above, the owners of the venues or infrastructures are responsible for the management of the waste generated by the Olympic Games.

⁸² The aim of the OGI study is to reduce the size, cost and complexity of the Olympic Games by promoting sustainable development in candidate cities (Holden, 2009).

⁸³ IOC, OGI (Olympic Game Impact) study, 2005

4.7.5. The IOC's vision of environmental sustainability

According to a study conducted by Paquette in 2011, the IOC considers environmental sustainability as its responsibility and commitment to host cities⁸⁴. However, the implementation of sustainable actions and processes reduces the environmental impacts that can manifest themselves in Olympic cities⁸⁵.

Thanks to its commitment, the IOC changed its approach in 2005 and, in collaboration with Raufflet⁸⁶, developed the Model 55 (EMF) which implies a rethinking of the policies to be adopted to preserve the environment (Paquette, 2011). Therefore, by disseminating sustainability values among international sports clubs and federations, the IOC disseminates and pursues its interests in the hosting of the Olympic event.

Meanwhile, according to Holden (2008), for the IOC, sustainability is a brand that responds to society's expectations. Therefore, environmental sustainability at the Olympics brings greater reputation and long-term profitability for the event⁸⁷. For this reason, the implementation of sustainable practices will help⁸⁸ the IOC in reducing the holistic impact of the Olympics on the candidate cities (Holden, 2008). However, the IOC should monitor the size and cost of the Olympics, encouraging the OCOG and the public authorities concerned to take measures focused on reducing the impact and cost of the event. IOC representatives regularly monitor the preparation process, ensuring that the organisers meet their initial commitments. In addition, it should be noted that the Games have reached a critical size beyond which their sustainability is in serious jeopardy. However, the IOC, through the Olympic Games Study Commission, provides recommendations on the control of the Games, the costs and the complexity of these events. For example, the IOC, through the design of the programme (TOK⁸⁹), supports cooperation and knowledge sharing among the national committee to realise best practices in the implementation of the Olympic Games. Through the TOK programme, the IOC invites city authorities to avoid mistakes by carrying out strategic planning geared toward environmental sustainability. In addition, the National Committees, thanks to the OGKM platform, will be able to benefit from activities, content and training programmes that will enable them to acquire new information to comply with IOC guidelines.

Holden (2008) believes that the IOC can promote urban sustainability, not only by learning to cooperate but also by encouraging healthy competition between Olympic

⁸⁴ Paquette, J., Stevens, J., Mallen, C. (2011). The interpretation of environmental sustainability by the International Olympic Committee and the Organising Committees of the 1994-2008 Olympic Games. *Sport in Society*, Vol. 14(3), pp. 355-369.

⁸⁵ IOC (nd). Environmental protection and sustainable development IOC:2 124 IOC (2007)

⁸⁶ Raufflet, E. (2006). Re-Mapping corporate environmental management paradigms. *International Studies of Management*, 36(2), 54-72.

⁸⁷ Furrer, P., Sustainable Olympic Games: a dream or a reality?, *Bollettino della Società Geografica Italiana*, VII/4, 2002, Serie XII, [http://www.omero.unito.it/web/Furrer%20\(eng.\).PDF](http://www.omero.unito.it/web/Furrer%20(eng.).PDF), p.2-15

⁸⁸ The Olympic Charter states that the IOC's primary mission is to promote a positive legacy of the Olympic Games for host cities and host states.

⁸⁹ IOC, TOK (Transfer of Knowledge program), 2002

bidding cities⁹⁰. For this reason, when choosing the host city, the IOC seeks to ensure that winning cities can meet global sustainability standards as well as achieve continuous improvement of Olympic events (Holden, 2008). The literature suggests that the IOC's proposed environmental sustainability policies have little traction. Furrer (2002) and Paquette (2011), point out that the Olympic Committee's approach is too general. The large number of policies to be implemented, without providing a required standard for the presentation of the Olympic bid, results in only non-mandatory recommendations.

4.7.6. COJO's vision of environmental sustainability

The IOC, together with the OCOG, is a franchise. Therefore, the Organising Committee must respect and ensure the implementation of sustainability policies in the national territory. The IOC's approach to environmental sustainability reflects an adaptive paradigm (EMF). The OCOG reflects and shows an adaptive approach in the bidding phase, neglecting sustainability aspects during the strategic planning of the event. The OCOGs in the bidding phase respect the guidelines and all documents⁹¹ elaborated by the Olympic Committee. However, during the implementation phase, as the IOC does not foresee any sanction against the OCOG, the projects do not respect the principles declared during the candidature phase. For example, throughout Olympic history, the Vancouver Organising Committee (VANOC) was the only one to officially adopt environmental sustainability as the overarching principle for all operations in the planning of the Olympic Winter Games⁹².

VANOC also included in its project a broader vision of the social and economic development generated by the Olympics. In addition, VANOC also established measurable performance indicators (KPIs) to monitor progress on environmental sustainability (Bischel, 2011). The introduction of KPIs has enabled the IOC to publish regular reports on sustainability and the measures that should be met. However, these reports allow citizens to be directly informed about the progress of the project and the targets set by the city. Over time, sustainability principles have been integrated into strategic planning operations, procurement, contractual relationships and sponsorship agreements (Coady 2012, Wilson 2012). However, VANOC defined sustainability as the management of social, economic and environmental impacts to produce local and global benefits for all citizens. VANOC's primary mission was to deliver Olympism to the whole nation through the creation of a fantastic Olympic and Paralympic experience. VANOC's sustainability goals include accountability, environmental protection and impact reduction, social inclusion, Aboriginal participation and collaboration, economic benefits and sustainable sport. After the end of the Games, VANOC created a new sustainability governance model, defining sustainability reporting and standards for sporting events for all entities organising

⁹⁰ Urban Entrepreneurship, Corporate Interests and Sports Mega- events: the Thin Policies of Competitiveness Within the Hard Outcomes of Neoliberalism. In J. Horne and W. Manzenreiter (Eds). Sports Mega-Events: Social Scientific Analyses of a Global Phenomenon. Blackwell Publishing/The Sociological Review. pp. 59-70.

⁹¹ The International Olympic Committee (1999). Agenda 21 of the Olympic Movement. Retrieved from http://www.olympic.org/Documents/Reports/EN/en_report_300.pdf

⁹² City of Vancouver. Sustainability Group. Retrieved from <http://vancouver.ca/sustainability/>. The City of Vancouver (2003)

major sporting events in Canada (VANOC, 2010). For this reason, the model developed and proposed by VANOC is the result of a compromise between the organisers and the citizens themselves. The IOC, to ensure compliance with sustainability actions and processes, should oblige National Committees to establish a commitment with citizens through a contract that includes sanctions in case of non-compliance with sustainability standards. The IOC alone is responsible for monitoring compliance with sustainability standards during the organisation of the event, or at least that is how it is seen by a large group of scholars in the field.

However, the editions of Sydney, Turin⁹³, Vancouver, and London, allow us to recognise that considerable improvements have been made in the planning of Olympic infrastructures⁹⁴. Consequently, after having analysed sustainable development and environmental sustainability in mega-events, the following section will help us to identify some measures for the realisation of sustainable post-Olympic planning.

4.7.7. Sustainable planning for the Olympic Legacy

According to Ritchie (2000), the Olympiad must be imagined and designed as a global event, in which all stakeholders are equally involved, and in which only relevant and, above all, reliable information is taken into account. For this reason, the Olympic legacy to be conveyed must be understood and aligned with the value system of the citizens, as only they can guarantee a broad base of support for "welcoming the world". Furthermore, the Olympic event will leave its roots in the host cities and should therefore be seen as a broader and long-term process (Ritchie, 2000). Olympic sustainability has become a key element at all organisational levels, and as such, is also central to the Olympic legacy in host cities. The Olympic sustainability plan has over the years become a cornerstone of the Olympic bid. Since the Games in Lillehammer 94, Atlanta 96 and Sydney 2000, a trend started that has continued with all subsequent Olympic Games. Cities step by step started to include in their bidding process a specific part on the sustainability of the event and the structures. The Olympic heritage with a focus on sustainability, given the historical moment, can be a promoter of a new philosophy of site development and sustainable practices in the community. However, we cannot overlook the inclusion of community groups, associations, and entities, as it will allow the inclusion of all subjects in the sustainability planning processes in the post-Olympic period. Agenda 21, as already mentioned, offers some general indications on the means to be adopted to achieve greater Olympic sustainability. Meanwhile, in environmental terms, the United Nations (ONU) calls for minimising negative impacts on the biosphere; conserving natural and rural spaces; saving energy, water and materials; using environmentally friendly technologies and green building design techniques; using local resources; promoting public transport;

⁹³ The 2006 edition of Turin, through the inclusion of a model of continuous assessment of the sustainability of the processes, has allowed a general awareness raising for all future Organising Committees, rather than implementing new practices for the reduction of the impact of the event on the host cities.

⁹⁴ As discussed above, the intangible aspect is the most important if sustainable transformations for citizens are to take place, especially once the economic benefits induced by the Olympic Games are over (Furrer, 2002).

minimising waste; and so on. Agenda 21 refers to the importance of carrying out comprehensive environmental impact assessments before Olympic construction projects. In the socio-economic field, Agenda 21 focuses on social sustainability, combating exclusion and improving the human habitat. It stresses the importance of involving the whole city and the whole region to ensure that the long-term socio-economic and health benefits accrue to them. According to the IOC programme⁹⁵, the Olympics should reduce poverty and include disadvantaged groups in sporting and cultural activities⁹⁶. Subsequently, with the introduction of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals⁹⁷ by 2030, the OUN will mark the importance of achieving a common outcome with the respect of the environment and the development of a sustainable world.

On the other hand, it is argued that the winter edition will always have a greater environmental impact than the summer edition. Consequently, winter Olympic venues should carefully consider the natural context to achieve landscape conservation. The use of environmental assessment systems for Olympic projects, as was done in Turin in 2006, remains a fundamental tool for an optimal evaluation of development plans. Furthermore, the realisation, design and construction of sports facilities must be carried out in a way that "ensures their harmonious integration into the local context". Thus, the project must not neglect the real needs of the citizens.

Agenda 21, like the SDGs, refers to the importance of including all affected groups, especially indigenous peoples, women and youth, to ensure a democratic Olympic decision-making process.

The analysis produced by Furrer⁹⁸ on Olympic sustainability suggests six main objectives:

- *Equality*→ Implication of the sharing of Olympic risks and responsibilities, benefits and opportunities for the greatest number of tourists, regardless of their social status and geographical location.
- *Strategic planning*→ means that the Olympics should be used as an opportunity to address serious urban and regional challenges, improving the lives of all citizens. The Games should be integrated into the long-term urban development strategy and catalyse activities and improvements in social policies.
- *Responsible resource management*→ Financial, social and environmental resources must be invested in a way that safeguards and possibly enhances the socio-economic integrity, health systems and ecosystems that are vital to the host city and region.

⁹⁵ IOC, Agenda 21 of the Olympic Movement, 1999

⁹⁶ IOC (nd). Environmental protection and sustainable development IOC:2 124 IOC (2007)

⁹⁷ The SDGs are 17 goals introduced by the ONU to raise awareness of sustainable development, inclusion, integration and respect for the environment through a few key points.

⁹⁸ Furrer, P. (2002). Sustainable Olympic Games: A dream or a reality? Bollettino della Società Geografica Italiana, Series XII, Volume VII/4. Retrieved from [http://www.omerio.unito.it/web/Furrer%20\(eng.\).PDF](http://www.omerio.unito.it/web/Furrer%20(eng.).PDF)

- *A new form of governance for urban sustainability* → It is characterised by integrity and transparency in decision-making, accountability in the management of public resources, genuine public consultation throughout the planning process and constructive management of opposition.
- *Sustainability monitoring and reporting* → This is an important aspect of accountability and transparency, helping to maintain dialogue with the Games' diverse audiences, including investors, residents, the nation, etc.
- *Sustainable local design* → When planning Olympic venues for multi-purpose and long-term use, special attention needs to be paid to the use of temporary infrastructure.

Furthermore, Furrer (2002) and Frey (2008), argue that partnerships and social networks are indispensable for developing the long-term sustainability of host cities. Being a broad network of actors, a strong synergy between institutions is needed. Therefore, the economy and society constitute a social network that will provide the necessary activities and processes to expand sustainability in the Olympic areas. Sustainability has to be seen as a collective effort and constituted as such. Sustainable planning aims to facilitate communications between the public and private sectors, mediating the different interests of stakeholders.⁹⁹ Only through shared sustainable planning will sustainable practices or processes be ensured in host communities. However, to ensure community sustainability, citizens need to be actively involved in the planning process, informing them of the opportunities, challenges and risks involved in hosting the Olympics. Public-private partnerships represent a unique opportunity to resolve long-standing problems and unfinished major projects. It is therefore essential to streamline decision-making by reducing bureaucracy, breaking down administrative barriers, helping to streamline government procedures, etc. (Furrer, 2002). On the contrary, bureaucracy can lead to the centralisation of power and unfavourable decision-making. Decentralisation can prevent local authorities from being able to participate in the project.¹⁰⁰ Declining previously acquired responsibilities will inevitably lead to total public dissatisfaction with successive criticism and mistrust of public administrations. The media attention to the event can be a huge boomerang for the central and local governments. Hasty preparation of the Olympic Games can only satisfy a part of the private sector that is only trying to satisfy its own private interests.¹⁰¹ In addition, the centralisation of the organisation of the Olympic Games means that the needs of the event may have different priorities between the central state and local administrations. The permanent and long-term needs of each city are different and therefore require specific measures and actions for respectively socio-economic context. We can conclude that, if the organisers properly consider the risks

⁹⁹ Frey, M., Iraldo, F., Melis, M. (2008). The impact of large-scale sport events on local development: An Assessment of the XXth Torino Olympics Through the Sustainability Report. Working Paper No. 10. Università Commerciale Luigi Bocconi.

¹⁰⁰ Owen, K., The Local Impacts of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games: Politics and Process of Venue Preparation, The Center for Olympic Studies, Wales, The University of New South, 2001, pp.2-17, <http://www.la84foundation.org/SportsLibrary/UNSW/UNSW008.pdf>

¹⁰¹ Hall, M. C., Urban Entrepreneurship, Corporate Interests and Sports Mega- events: the Thin Policies of Competitiveness Within the Hard Outcomes of Neoliberalism, Blackwell Publishing/The Sociological Review, Manzenreiter, J. Home and W. Sports Mega-Events: Social Scientific Analyses of a Global Phenomenon, 2006, 59-70

associated with Olympic planning, the Olympic opportunity, and therefore the Olympics, can be "*harnessed for positive change, reaping some concrete benefits for the majority of residents*"¹⁰² .

*"Only careful and realistic strategic planning is essential to achieve positive, rather than negative, legacies".*¹⁰³

¹⁰² Furrer, P. (2002). Sustainable Olympic Games: A dream or a reality? Bollettino della Società Geografica Italiana, Series XII, Volume VII/4. Retrieved from [http://www.omero.unito.it/web/Furrer%20\(eng.\).PDF](http://www.omero.unito.it/web/Furrer%20(eng.).PDF)

¹⁰³ Ritchie, J.R., "Turning 16 Days Into 16 Years Through Olympic Legacies", Event Management, Vol. 6 (3), 2000, pp.155-

IV. THE OLYMPIC VILLAGES

5. Olympic accommodation

Abstract

At this point, Olympic urban planning enables us to analyse Olympic accommodation and to consider the different obligations and requirements, which the candidate cities have to fulfil according to the IOC reports. Then, through the conclusions established by the 1996 Olympic Symposium, the chapter observes the different spatial patterns of summer and winter Olympic Villages, which will be advanced over time. Therefore, Olympic urbanism in general and the Olympic Village, in particular, will be analysed through the processes of construction and re-use of the accommodation over time. In line with the contribution of Muñoz (1996), the different solutions adopted by host cities will be analysed. In addition, the analysis of the Olympic accommodation through cartographic representations will allow us to analyse the different forms and models of organization that host cities have adopted over time. Finally, the chapter will allow us to see the different formal languages that have been used over time in the two Olympic editions. The different spatial models, the evolution of the location of the Olympic Village and the formal language, will help us to observe the different urban strategies provided by each host country throughout history.

5.1. Planning the Olympic Village

5.1.1. Introduction to the Olympic Villages

"The Olympic Games through the candidate cities represent the image of the strategy for the promotion of the space with the achievement of a competitive advantage over other cities" (Whitson and Macintosh, 1996).

In the modern era, candidate cities, discovering mega sporting events and their potential. The host cities have used the event to promote their image in the world, accelerating the process of globalisation. According to Hiller (2000;2003), from an urban perspective, any large-scale event can be considered a mega-event if it has a significant and permanent urbanistic effect on the urban fabric. Furthermore, if the event is considered a new priority for the City Council, inevitably, the urban agenda will be prioritised to include the Olympic project in an overall transformation plan. Future works involving a modification or alteration of space will be promoters of the urban heritage of the Olympic Games (Hiller, 2014). One of the key elements of post-industrial cities according to Harvey, is the revitalisation of the city through gentrification, leisure and entertainment (Harvey, 1991). In addition, new urban entertainment structures will be created in the central space of the post-industrial city, developing new specific urban districts (UEDs) (Sorkin, 1992). As observed in the previous chapter, it can be advanced that mega-events take priority in the intervention of regular urban processes, requiring long-term and large-scale preparation to facilitate the common resources of realisation and expectation. Therefore, Olympic urbanism in general and the Olympic Villages in particular, in consideration of the construction processes and the re-use of the Olympic Village, represent a specific case of urban transformation (Muñoz, 1996). The Olympic Village is considered the centre of the Olympic project both for its functionality during the event and, above all, for its use afterwards (Muñoz, 1996). In such a way, the Olympic event helps us in observing the urban evolution of the host cities through the renovation of spaces and the creation of new urban areas in the urban fabric. However, the research of Olympic Villages involves the study of cities, planning and processes of specific interventions for the temporary accommodation of athletes. About the concept of the Olympic Village, it is fundamental to introduce the origin of the original thinking provided through the ideas of Baron Pierre de Coubertin. The idea of creating a new "Modern Olympia" was openly put forward to groups of architects as early as 1910 by the Baron (Muñoz, 1996). The Olympic Village was defined as a complex organised in different locations for the celebration of the Olympic event, inspired by internationalism and the aspirations for world peace, characteristic of the thinking of the European intelligentsia during the first half of the 20th century (Gresleri, 1994). The Baron's idea was that of creating a territorial space through sport and education as a means to achieve other goals, reflecting Thomas Arnold's philosophy of 1830. From this point of view, Coubertin's proposal had much in common with contemporary ones such as the "international city" conceived by the architect Ernest

Hébrard as early as 1910¹. If the international city was defined as the new capital of peace and thought, Coubertin's Olympic city could be defined as the capital of peace and sport (Muñoz, 1996). Therefore, the concentration of athletes, officials and visitors was beginning to force the IOC to consider the issue of accommodation as a priority, taking into account the host cities and their availability. However, at that time, the IOC was undefined (Muñoz, 1996), especially regarding the budgets of the different countries, so it was not easy to manage accommodation independently. The first solutions adopted were to allocate the event to cities that had hotel availability and to negotiate the price for all participants. The accommodation situation was characterised by total improvisation, to the extent that some countries used boats as a means of transport and accommodation for their delegations². Over time, the Organising Committee, had to get involved in the search for other places that could be temporarily transformed into accommodation, such as hospitals, schools, military camps or renting boats. The first decade was characterised by the emergency of finding accommodation for participants. However, the regulation of the event and the predisposition of the first Olympic Village in Paris 1924 provided an obvious signal for the debate about the situation regarding Olympic accommodation for future editions. Therefore, the first phenomenon to be observed in the first Olympic Village in Paris in 1924 is undoubtedly the emergency (Muñoz, 2006). The temporary requirement to house the Olympic athletes meant that decisions had to be made in time to guarantee accommodation structures for the duration of the event. It is important to point out that the Paris Olympic Village, proposed in the form of barracks in an unoccupied area near the Olympic Stadium and with the provision of some basic services, had few elements in common with the first Olympic Village built for the Los Angeles 1932 event.

During the Berlin Congress in 1930, the IOC members initiated a debate for the promotion of a new accommodation solution, which Zack Farmer promised as a new way to solve the accommodation problem, providing a solution that included food for a cost of two dollars a day³. Subsequently, Berlin 1936 moved forward with the construction of a permanent Villa, which began to take shape as a construction site with a great physical impact on the territory. As can be seen in the Official Report of the 1936 OCOG, the wish of the Berlin Organising Committee was to replicate the Olympic Village of Los Angeles for the emphasis and replication of the modern city of Elis (OCOG, 1936). Therefore, the Organising Committee proposed a permanent solution through the use of the Döberitz military camp, some 21 km away from the Olympic site. The women, however, as in Los Angeles in 1932, were accommodated separately. The Villas of Los Angeles and Berlin were the typologies that promoted and inspired a housing model that was to lay the foundations for the Villas throughout the century. From that moment, the housing defined a new image of the "Olympic city" by including sport facilities in its architectural ensemble. Thus, the conception of the Olympic residence as more than just a temporary

¹ Muñoz F., *Historic evolution and urban planning typology of Olympic Villages*, 1996, p. 28.

² The issue of travel and accommodation costs for delegations will be one of the main topics of discussion in connection with the increase in the number of participants.

³ The American offer of accommodation, meals and use of local transport was hard to refuse and therefore the Village of Los Angeles will become an inspirational model for future candidate cities.

place for Olympic accommodation. The Olympic Village began to evolve through the definition of new proposals for the realisation and redefinition of spaces, beyond the specifically sporting ones. Over time, the Olympic Village will become the fundamental element in sponsoring a structural modernisation of the city, which in some cases has become a model of future development for the host cities. The observation of successful models such as Rome (1960), Munich (1972), Barcelona (1992), Sydney (2000), Vancouver (2010), and London (2012), forces future cities to shape themselves to acquire new roles in global city networks. Olympic urban planning, consisting of the Village, the Olympic stadium and the Olympic swimming pool in the summer edition. Undoubtedly, the following structures form the structural heritage of the Olympics in the host city. An urban heritage that, taking into account the cultural, social, political, economic and sporting history of each host country, can become a key element in the creation of new socio-economic dynamics. However, the Olympic Games and the Olympic Village since Rome in 1960 will play a fundamental role in the restructuring of urban space, favouring a rethinking of the scale of the project for future interventions⁴. In Oslo, Rome, Mexico, Grenoble, Munich, Barcelona, Sydney, Turin, Vancouver, and London, we have seen how the Olympic Villages remain an active and dynamic heritage that continues to be transformed by the structures of the cities and the morphology of the territory.

Therefore, the potential of the Olympic Village should not only be considered at the time of the creation of new accommodation and new projects in the cities but all the possibilities for the future of the city should be thoroughly evaluated. Therefore, the Olympic Village can be considered the cornerstone of the city renewal project through the Olympic Games. The urban style, the choice of materials, and the application of new building technologies, supported by infrastructural change, represent a unique possibility for the candidate cities. However, the possibilities should be considered regarding existing plans and the city's future projects. As we will see in the following sections, in Olympic history, the typologies of Olympic Village adopted by candidate cities can be analysed through different permanent and temporary models. The construction of the Olympic Village cannot be considered useful only to carry out the obligations of the Olympic Committee. Cities should consider the Olympic Village as an integrating element of a new philosophy of urban development which, through sport, can promote a healthy lifestyle. Only in consideration of the real needs of the citizens can the permanent project meet the expectations of the host community. Otherwise, temporary solutions represent the best measures to avoid compromising the long-term future of the candidate cities. For example, the Olympic Villages in Athens, Turin, Sochi, Rio and Pyeongchang, to this day continue to compromise the future of the host cities. The state of abandonment is the result of the choice of a permanent model that was not included in the post-Olympic planning of the accommodation. These examples of abandoned structures allow us to reflect on the importance of the role of Olympic urban planning in not compromising land in host cities permanently. Over time, different projects involving the reuse or renovation of urban

⁴ Rome in 1960 will be the first Olympic city to use the Olympic event as a catalyst for other urban and infrastructural transformations proposed by the post-war reconstruction of the city.

spaces have been observed. Awareness of the impact of the Olympic Village has introduced new mixed models for the realisation of accommodation. The construction of the Olympic Village in the central fabric of the cities will lead to changes in the services available and a rise in prices, accelerating the processes of gentrification in the new neighbourhood. Moreover, in some editions such as Sydney, Athens, Beijing, and Rio, the identification of land has led to a displacement of people for the construction of the Olympic Village. At the same time, the transformation of the areas in Beijing will cause a change in land value with the subsequent change of use in the post-Olympic phase (Zou, 2015). In a long-term scheme, the Olympic Village will take a central role in the physical modifications of the spaces. A change of land use should be contemplated and included in an overall master plan for the renewal of the socio-urban and economic fabric of the cities. On the one hand, changes in the value of land use can lead to real estate speculation and gentrification. On the other hand, the organisation of the Olympic Games with multiple Olympic Villages will contribute to spatial changes in different areas of the territory.

About the Olympic Village, it is necessary to introduce Millet's 1996 contribution to the relationship between the Olympic Village and the city. According to Millet (1996), in some cities, it is complex to develop the Olympic Village through mixed financing, so cities will have to justify the construction of accommodation in another way. However, the choice of different venues can improve the distribution of facilities throughout the territory, without harming the host city. Millet (1996) and Muñoz (1996) argue that no common development model can be identified in the history of the Olympic Village. Therefore, the model of the Olympic Village will depend mainly on the urban context and the master plan in place in each host city.

Millet (1996) in his analysis identifies four generic cases that represent the planning of the Olympic Village:

- *Zero impact*→ Where the Olympic effect does not cause much structural change. Los Angeles, Calgary, Atlanta, and Salt Lake are examples (Use of student accommodation).
- *Urban spread*→ The Munich Olympic Village of 1972 respected the general strategy of the city's master plan, developing new neighbourhoods with access to infrastructure, and parks and using the Olympic Village as a model.
- *Urban renewal*→ Rome, Tokyo, Barcelona, and Turin are the most important examples. The Olympic Village was developed taking into account more qualitative than quantitative aspects, allowing a temporal revaluation of the area.
- *Mixed option*→ In Seoul 88 we can see how the Olympic Village was in the middle of the process of relocation of factories on its territory (Millet, 1996).

After having introduced the Olympic Villages, in the following sections, we will look at the IOC standards for the construction of the Olympic Village, the typology, the spatial

model and the formal language of Olympic accommodation in the summer and winter editions. By analysing the different evolutionary stages of Olympic accommodation, we will provide some food for thought about future new projects to be planned by the candidate cities.

5.1.2. The Olympic Village Symposium

The symposium on the Olympic Villages in Lausanne in 1996 is considered to be the first Olympic symposium organised on the initiative of the *Centre d'Etudis Olimpics*, the International Olympic Committee and the Olympic Museum of Lausanne.

To date, the symposium is seen as the only moment of reflection on the projects carried out and on the future development of the subject at the academic level.

The contribution of the experts at this symposium has shown that the Olympic Villages raise many important questions about the relationship between the Olympic Villages and the Olympic Games:

- Planning/market.
- Redevelopment / extension.
- Public sector / private initiative.
- Social policies / private profit.
- Integration / segregation.
- Innovation / tradition.
- Environmental concerns / economic growth.
- Utopia / reality.

Through the following relationships, we can state that the planning and location of the Olympic Village may be determinant rather than compromising the housing market and may introduce uncertainty about the future of accommodation in the host cities. The architectural design, the redevelopment of the area, and the intensification of services will be some of the most influential elements in determining how the Village will function in the post-Olympic period. Furthermore, the symposium underlines the importance of the Olympic Village as a central place for the transfer of the Olympic experience between all the cultures of the world. During the symposium, the importance of considering the Olympic Village as the central place where athletes from all over the world live together before and during the event, contributing to promoting the noble ideals of understanding and friendship among participants from all countries and Olympic sports.

Nowadays, Olympic Villages are obliged to host the following number of participants depending on the edition:

- Summer: approximately 20,000 people
- Winter: approximately 5,000 people

In addition, the housing proposal, to comply with the requirements of the IOC, must be planned through the following housing typologies:

- New housing development in the host city
- Use of existing housing, such as hotels, student dormitories, resorts, barracks, etc.
- Temporary facilities such as *bungalows* or demountable trailers

Therefore, the symposium attempts to offer a review of the different phenomena observed up to 1996, advancing a reflection for the future debate on Olympic accommodation (Moragas, 1996). During the symposium, for the first time Muñoz (1996), introduces a new observation of the different solutions adopted by the host cities, analysing the different urban models and formal language that have permanently marked the history of the summer edition. Throughout the history of the Olympic Villages, we have been able to observe different solutions in the typology and integration of the permanent facilities into the urban fabric of the host cities. As we will see in the following paragraph, the different solutions adopted by the host cities will allow us to reflect on the evolutionary stages of Olympic housing. Subsequently, during the symposium, we will reflect on the importance of the transport system during the Olympic event. From this moment on, the planning and the temporary redefinition of the feasibility system are considered an element of fundamental importance for the transportation of the Olympic participants. In 1996, for the first time, the IOC introduces the following exclusive feasibility typologies for the athletes' routes during the event:

- Within the village (carbon-neutral)
- From the Village to the competition sites
- From the village to the city centre
- Between the airport and the village

The introduction of the new exclusive routes will undoubtedly imply a rethink in the planning of the design of the Olympic Village and the operational planning of its functioning from an urban planning perspective (Kassen-Noor, 2016). The IOC after the viability problems observed during Atlanta 1996 did not want to jeopardise the execution of the Olympic event because of delays in the sports competitions. Therefore, regarding the management of the Olympic Village, the IOC obliges the organising committee to set up a

steering committee 4 years before the event for the planning and management of the Olympic Village operations (IOC, 1996). The management of the Village should be implemented in the conception, strategic planning and operation during the hosting of the event. The IOC 1996 identifies the following phases for planning the design of Olympic accommodation:

- Planning assumptions
- Identify and acquire
- Block planning
- Permanent design and construction
- Design, construction and temporary fitting-out

In addition, factors to consider when determining the permanent design should be:

- Physical constraints of the Olympic Village site
- Requirements defined in the Olympic Village technical manual
- Requirements defined during block planning
- Use of permanent buildings after the games
- Infrastructure requirements (sewerage, waste, water, energy)

Subsequently, the IOC, recognising that funding for the permanent construction of the Olympic Village generally comes from government sources, identifies some possibilities for future host cities:

- Private investors
- Public companies
- The future owners of the site
- The construction company itself

In conclusion, during the academic reflection, it is noted that the Olympic Village must compulsorily include the training and service facilities in the international areas. Furthermore, as we will see in section 5.2, the Olympic Village must be realised according to the guidelines and technical manuals of the IOC, following the indications for the construction and operation of the entire Olympic Village area. For the construction of the sports facilities, the host cities shall observe the indications included in the specific

technical manuals. Therefore, regarding the sports facilities to be included in the Olympic Village, the IOC makes the following differentiation:

- Winter→ Gymnasium, men's and women's changing rooms
- Summer→ Gymnasium, jogging route inside the Olympic Village (1km. Min.), Saunas, male and female changing rooms.

Based on the following elements, the 1996 Olympic symposium should be seen as a starting point for reflection and study on the evolution of summer and winter Olympic Villages. In addition, the following sections look at the fundamental requirements and characteristics that cities must fulfil for the planning and organisation of Olympic Villages. However, as we will observe in the results of the research, the holding of a new symposium is of fundamental importance for the understanding of the new urban phenomena that have manifested themselves throughout the new Olympic stage in the 21st century.

5.1.3. Main requirements

In the following section, we will look at the obligations required by the IOC regarding the construction of the Olympic Village in the host city.

- The predisposition of the Areas: Residential Area (athletes' accommodation), International Area (services, shops and cultural facilities). The Olympic Village must remain open 24 hours a day for authorised persons.
- Dimension: Summer (20,000 athletes), Winter (5,000 athletes)
- Typology: New development, existing dwellings, temporary dwellings
- Additional staff 1,550 (1,000 rooms) and 800 for Winter Games (300 rooms)
- Dimension of accommodation: for two (2) athletes a minimum size of 15mq² and a private bathroom must be respected. Meanwhile, for officials, 8-person flats can be provided with a minimum of three (3) toilets and three (3) showers.

The organisation of the area international

- Administrative headquarters of the delegations: Summer Olympic Games: 10,000 sq.; Winter Olympic Games: 2,200 sq.
- Restaurants: Summer Olympic Games 5,000-6,000 seats + kitchens, shops = 12,000 sq.; Winter Olympic Games 1,200 - 1,400 seats + kitchens, shops = 2,800 sq.
- Delegation offices: Summer Olympics: 10,000 sqm; Winter Olympics: 2,500 sqm

- Changing rooms: Summer Olympic Games 6,000 sq. (for 9,000 people); Winter Olympic Games 1,500 sq. (for 2,100 people)
- Training areas: Summer Olympics 30,000 sq.; Winter Olympics 5,000 sq.
- Leisure centre: Summer Olympic Games 2,000 sqm; Winter Olympic Games 700 sqm
- Shopping centre: Summer YOG 2,000 sqm; Winter YOG 500 sqm
- Logistics centre: Summer Olympics 10,000 sq.; Winter Olympics: 2,200 sq.

Services inside the Olympic Village

- NOC Service Centre
- NOC Sports Information Centre
- Shopping centre
- Laundry service, dry cleaning
- Office service centre with language and secretarial services on request, photocopiers, - Service station and/or sports equipment repair shop
- TV room with capacity for live or delayed coverage of Olympic events on request
- Games rooms, discotheques and other leisure facilities
- Relaxation facilities such as sauna, swimming pool, etc.
- Cafés and bars
- Photographic laboratories, flower shops, hairdressing salons, beauty salons
- Post Office
- Bank, travel agency and tourist office
- Various religious centres and meditation halls
- Meeting and conference rooms for team use

Key features of the Paralympic Village

- The geographical location of the largest village
- Topography
- Relationship to the nearest city
- Nature of buildings
- Rooms
- Toilet/bathrooms
- Food service - 24 h
- Security
- Internal services
- Support services
- Information system
- Circulation in the village/space
- Climatic factors
- Specialised medicine

Annex : Relational Plan of Surface Areas

(Scale 1:10,000)

Games of the Olympiad

(The surface areas indicated give the approximate number of m² of raw floor space developed).

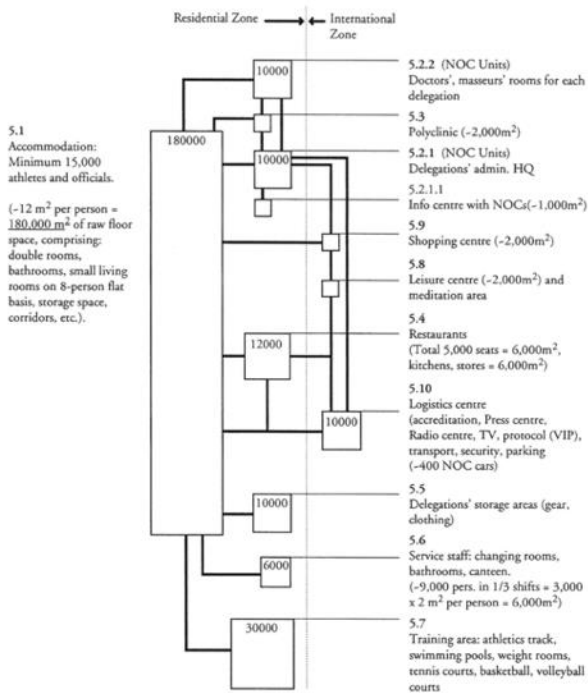


Figure 53 Dimension of the area of the Summer Olympic Village
(Source: IOC, 1996)

Annex : Relational Plan of Surface Areas

(Scale 1:10,000)

Olympic Winter Games

(The surface areas indicated give the approximate number of m² of raw floor space developed).

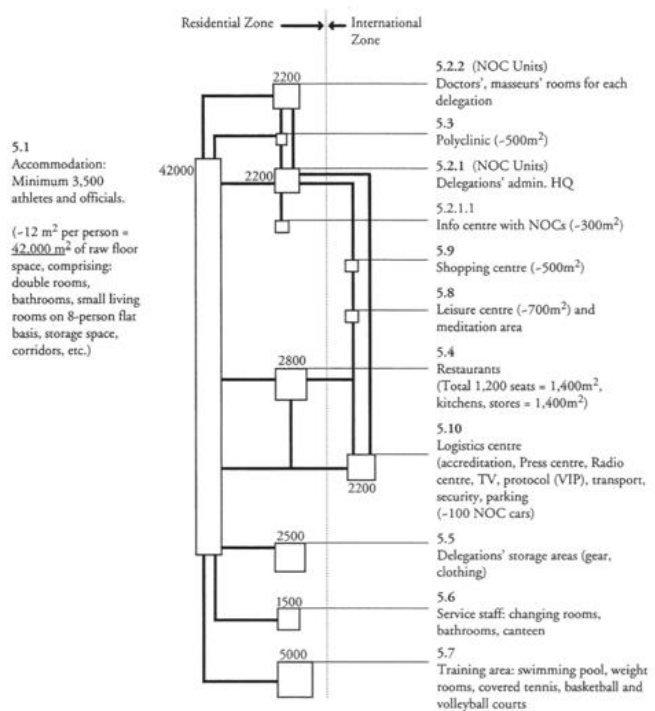


Figure 54 Dimension of the area of the Winter Olympic Village
(Source: IOC, 1996)

5.1.4. Olympic Village Technical Manual

The Olympic Village Technical Manual⁵ is one of the mandatory documents that host cities must comply with for the planning and management of the Olympic event. The organisers, as specified in Rule 39 of the Olympic Charter, are obliged to establish an Olympic Village as a temporary accommodation solution for athletes and Olympic officials. The Olympic Village is considered the strategic place for the transfer of knowledge that favours the cultural exchange of the participants. However, some obligations must be fulfilled to favour the participants' experience.

The Olympic Village must:

- Operate 24 hours a day
- To be protected from the general public and the media.
- Provide the necessary facilities for athletes and officials.

The objectives of the technical manual on the Olympic Village are:

- Provide applicant and candidate cities with information to develop their Olympic Village plans.
- Provide the OCOGs with the structural information to plan and build the Olympic Village.
- Provide information on the planning and operational requirements of the Paralympic Village.
- Guide an OCOG to design, plan, construct and operate an Olympic Village for the Olympic Games, Olympic Winter Games and Paralympic Games.

Therefore, the Olympic Village requirements will have to be tailored to the host city and the site in question. However, the requirements of the technical manual on the Olympic Village are standard requirements that can be modified after reviewing with the IOC and its stakeholders (IOC, 2005).

While the event planning is being refined, the design and construction of the permanent buildings can begin. The design and construction phase of the athlete accommodation is usually led by the permanent building authority, requiring frequent input from the Olympic Village management.

⁵ The Olympic Village technical manual is a document that was updated in 2015 and is one of the 33 technical manuals that host cities are obliged to consider for the planning and organisation of the event.

Factors to consider when determining the permanent design are (IOC, 2015):

- The physical limitations of the Olympic Village;
- The requirements are defined in the IOC Technical Manual on Olympic Village (IOC, IOC, 2005);
- The requirements defined during the planning of the block;
- Use of permanent buildings after the Games;
- Infrastructure requirements (sewerage, waste, water, energy).

Constant communication between the permanent construction authority and the Olympic Village administration is an essential requirement to ensure the successful design of the Olympic Village. The IOC advises that the experiences of previous editions should be taken into account when determining the use of water, electricity, waste and other utilities for the conversion of the Village in the post-Olympic period. Therefore, it should be considered that the Olympic Village requires much more utility resources than a normal residential complex. It would be beneficial to study the technological requirements of the Olympic Village, so that they can be incorporated for the reduction of temporary costs, providing an intangible benefit for Olympic cities. In addition, it would be prudent to consider the need for temporary structures (e.g. power and water) to ensure that the Olympic Village can cope with the additional demand during the event.

5.1.5. Olympic Village obligations

The Olympic Village Technical Manual outlines the following obligations for host cities:

- In the case of several Olympic Villages, the proposal must be submitted to the IOC for approval;
- The OCOG only has to submit the general layout of the Olympic Village to the IOC for approval;
- Specific visits should be allowed throughout the construction phases of the Olympic Village;
- At the start of the exclusive use, the management of the Olympic Village must carry out a walk-through of the site with the owners;
- Area control points, access control points and vehicle checkpoints must be operational;
- The accommodation must not have more than 2 persons per room.

- No more than 4 persons per bathroom;
- All NOCs must have adequate accommodation, office space, medical space and storage space;
- The OCOG should provide a media centre in the Village to allow the media a working area in the Olympic Village;
- The OCOG must complete and establish block planning, policies and procedures in the Olympic Village;
- The pre-opening period of the Olympic Games starts 7 days before the official opening of the Olympic Village;
- It officially opens 14 days before the opening ceremony for summer and 10 days before for winter;
- The Olympic Village closes 3 days after the closing ceremony;
- The OCOG must complete a housing allocation process in the Olympic Village;
- Transport must be operated by the OCOG (IOC, 2005).

5.1.6. Olympic Village managements

Within the Olympic Village technical manual, the IOC sets out the following basic organisational structure of the Olympic Village:

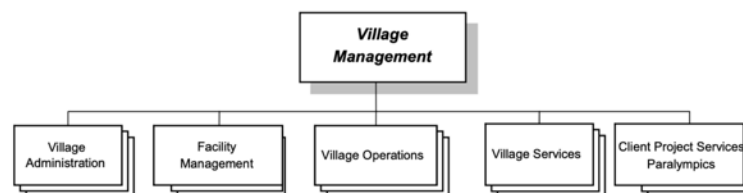


Figure 55 Organisation of the Olympic Village (Source: IOC, 2015)

Meanwhile, regarding the operational management of the Village, the Committee should direct the:

- The design of the Olympic Village;
- The strategic planning of the Olympic Village;
- The functioning of the Olympic Village;
- In addition, the Village management must cooperate with;
- THE IOC;
- THE CIP;
- The owners of the Villa;
- Public security;
- Several municipalities/local governments;
- Construction companies/architects;
- Contractors;
- Government agencies, health and safety, and environmental organisations.

In addition, specific visits should be allowed throughout the construction phases of the Olympic Village.

Olympic Square

The Olympic Village Plaza⁶ (OVP) shall host the following activities and venues:

- Welcome ceremonies for the teams;
- Retail services;
- Recreational services;
- Meeting rooms;
- Village management offices (optional).

⁶ The Olympic Plaza was first introduced in Los Angeles in 1932 and since then it has become the central venue for the medal celebrations of Olympic athletes.

4.1 Olympic Village Diagrams, Continued

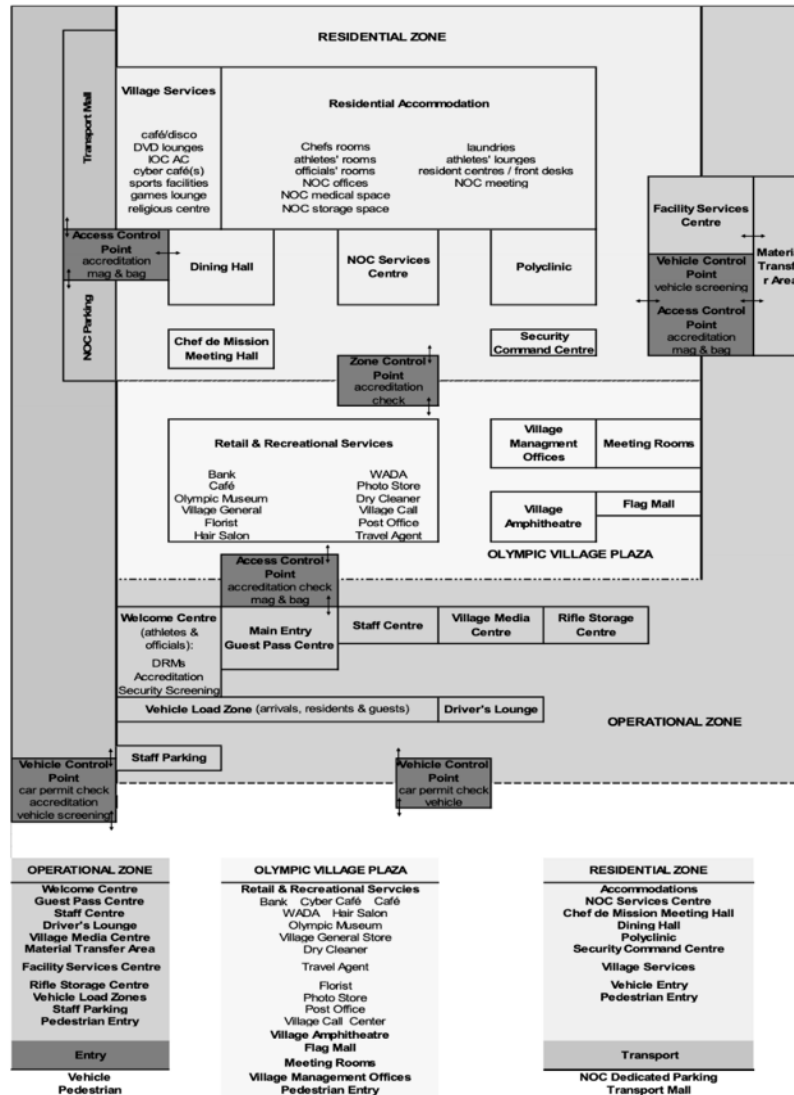


Figure 56 Layout of the Olympic Village area (Source: IOC,2005)

5.1.7. Olympic Village planning

Operational planning is considered the basis for the functioning of the Olympic Village as it must be organised through four fundamental phases:

- Strategic planning;
- Concept planning;
- Operational planning;
- Operational readiness.

During this phase, the Olympic Village Department shall complete:

- Strategic scenarios;
- Working meetings;
- Contingency plans and crisis scenarios;
- Actual testing of functions and services;
- Identify the specific roles and responsibilities of all staff, volunteers and contractors.

The Olympic Village is usually the largest construction project of the Olympic Games and usually involves a considerable investment (IOC, 2005). Agencies external to the Organising Committee are involved in the construction phase. However, the ongoing planning of the Olympic Village should be the responsibility of suitable construction companies that bid through an open and transparent bidding process. If the Olympic Games are held in the European Union, this process must respect both EU and national legislation. It is important for the OCOG that the bidding decision is based on what is best for the Olympic Village and post-Games use and not necessarily on the cheapest bid. External design often involves architects being part of the construction group or public authority bodies that may be responsible for the construction. In this case, the OCOG has less control over the design, but the post-Games use is more detailed. It is essential that there is constant communication between the permanent construction authorities and the Olympic Village Management, and that the OCOG constantly monitors the construction to ensure that what has been planned is built.

The OCOG shall define the construction requirements for:

- Utilities (e.g. water, electricity, sewerage);
- Technology (e.g. computer network and information system);
- Telecommunications;
- CATV;
- Foundation and soil requirements;
- Heating/cooling requirements; - Safety considerations;
- Main service buildings of the village; - Access roads and internal roads; - Fences;
- Lifts;
- Lighting;
- Parking;

- Ensuring accuracy and quality of construction;
- Liaison with builders/architects (design team).

The design and temporary construction will be determined by the design of the permanent construction and the layout of the existing buildings on the site. The Olympic Village services must be appropriately located within the permanent structures and function effectively to be more economically efficient than the temporary construction for the OCOG. The temporary construction must be used to provide the Olympic Village services that cannot be accommodated in the permanent buildings but are mandatory for the IOC.

In addition, the COJO must define:

- Temporary structures depending on the operational needs of each area;
- Procurement policy and needs;
- Design of temporary structures;
- Terrain, type and size;
- Construction and installation methods;
- Technological and installation requirements;
- Power supply and temperature control requirements;
- Portable toilets;
- Temporary modular constructions;
- Structural tents.

However, the Winter Olympic Games require a considerable amount of temporary buildings and tents for the Olympic Village. Therefore, the temporary buildings and structures will need to be heated for the Winter Olympics.

At the same time, the COJO must:

- Define the perimeter of the site;
- Secure financing before construction;
- Define in more detail the actual perimeter of the Olympic Village site, including security needs and access points.

Meanwhile, regarding the Olympic Village perimeter facilities, the location of the transport pick-up/drop-off entrances and the Olympic Village car parks, the OCOG should take into account the main service locations within the Village (e.g. OVP, canteen, shopping centre, etc.). In addition, the IOC advises a preliminary study to assess the environmental impact on the site area.

The site assessment should take into account the following elements:

- Toxic waste;
- Contamination at the site;
- Hazardous materials (e.g. asbestos);
- Land quality;
- Soil composition;
- Vegetation and woodland;
- Water drainage and waterways;
- Soil erosion;
- Wildlife habitat;
- The potential impact of construction on the site;
- Emissions / pollution (roads, factories);
- Noise pollution.

Possible environmentally friendly projects for the Olympic Village may include:

- Recycling of materials (e.g. food, waste);
- Reusable energy sources;
- Solar energy (e.g. for heating),
- Minimise wrapping/packaging of deliveries/construction material;
- Recycling of water from the Olympic Village;
- Environmentally friendly Olympic Village vehicles (e.g. natural gas, electric);
- Protection or integration of fauna and vegetation on the site.

Athletes and officials are provided with a special shuttle service to and from the Village:

- All competition venues;
- All training venues;
- Airport;
- City centre;
- Additional accommodation for officers.

To date, the following obligations must be fulfilled by the candidate cities to host the Olympic event. However, there are no sanctions or fines for non-implementation of the following obligations. In the following section, we will look at the evaluation criteria of the IOC evaluation commission for the construction of the Olympic Villages.

5.1.8. Evaluation criteria for the Olympic Villages

Observing the evaluation criteria of the Olympic Commissions of the IOC working group, the accommodation structures are evaluated through the following three (3) criteria and weightings:

a) Location 40%.

- Travel distance to competition venues, excluding football and sailing preliminary venues when outside of the host city.

(b) Concept 40%.

- Number of villages;
- Type of accommodation;
- Available land area;
- Surrounding environment;
- Temporary or permanent;
- Additional accommodation for athletes.

The Village concept will be assigned a feasibility factor, based on the likelihood that the proposed projects will be realised.

(c) Bequest 20% of which

- Post-Games use;
- Funding.

As noted above, the Olympic Village is one of the most important sites and, as the heart of the Games for the athletes. The Village location in relation to the competition venues is the primary importance. In the bidding process phase, the IOC requests general information. Meanwhile, in the second phase, bid cities will have to demonstrate how they will address the very complex issues related to the scope and size of such a project, both from an operational and legacy perspective.

According to the IOC, most cities have demonstrated a good understanding of the requirements of the Olympic Village, including the legacy of the projects (IOC, 2008).

5.2. Spatial models of the Olympic Villages

5.2.1. Urban analysis of the Olympic Villages

"A miniature city, replete with modern conveniences and facilities, had magically emerged high in the hills, within sight of the great Olympic Stadium, on top of the modern Mount Olympus, below which lay the modern plains of Elis" (COJO, 1932:235).

Although similar actions have been carried out in Olympic interventions, Olympic projects cannot be analysed without taking into account the urban history of our cities. The evolution of the idea of architecture and the different formal languages use to allow us to reflect on the evolution of the Olympic Villages in the territories.

The analysis according to the different levels of urban dimension, advanced by Muñoz (1996), about the Olympic Villages, pays specific attention to four fundamental aspects:

- i. Aspects related to the evolution of the architectural idea, the different types of housing and the different formal languages used.
- ii. Aspects related to the evolution of city plans, from the idea of the choice of the urban concept model to the basis of the operations adopted.
- iii. Aspects related to the conception of the Olympic Village as an urban instrument, from the production of the city's projects to the insertion of the urban context in the post-Olympic period.
- iv. Moreover, the change in the economic circuit and the different types of management require a specific section (Muñoz, 1996).

Therefore, the study by Muñoz (1996), allows us to observe the first classification of the different urban models adopted by the candidate cities for the construction of the Summer Olympic Village, which is: "the garden city, the satellite city, the urban centre and

the metropolitan city" (Muñoz, 1996). The following classification helps us to identify some common patterns among the summer editions that had been held up to that time. As reflected in the introduction to the research, one of the objectives of the study is to update the contribution of Muñoz (1996) and analyse the summer editions held in the 21st century advancing a classification of the urban models adopted for the winter edition to date. Therefore, as we will observe in section 5.4, the Winter Olympic Villages can be classified through four urban models: the satellite city, the mountain centre, the metropolitan city and the *cluster*. By analysing the different spatial models advanced by the candidate cities, the research allows us to reflect deeply on the evolution of the concept of Olympic accommodation over time and how the Olympic Village has evolved differently between the two editions of the event. Initially, the idea of the Olympic Village was introduced by Coubertin in 1924, who wanted to promote the creation of a sports city capable of fostering cultural exchange between its inhabitants. Since this historical moment, different models of Olympic Villages have been observed for the summer edition which respected the forms and typologies of the typical dwellings of each historical moment.

Furthermore, through the classification advanced by Wimmer (1976), three different stages can be observed according to the solutions adopted for the construction of the Olympic Village:

1. The first corresponds to single-family houses or *bungalows* arranged in a similar way to the housing estates or colonial houses seen in Europe or the United States.
2. The second corresponds to the creation of the community except Melbourne 56 and also the integration of wooden modules.
3. The third corresponds to the construction of large complexes on a single module developed in height and identical, in some cases even with different designs.

Subsequently, Muñoz (1996), analysing the evolution of the form and context of the Olympic Village, will advance the following models and phases that were observed in the summer editions:

1. Olympic Village and urban planning. The utopian content of Olympic urban planning.
2. The garden city and the suburban world. The "inaugural" villages.
3. The satellite city and the city machine. The people of the 1960s.
4. The central city and the accumulation of leisure. The people of the 1970s.
5. The metropolitan city and the central "non-place". The people of the last two decades.

Therefore, as we will observe in the following section, the Olympic Villages, in their history, have had to adapt to different transformations and modifications to be included in a long-term urban development framework. However, some structural changes were obligatory to respond to the new leisure and housing needs of recent years. The city-village model was completely replaced by the region-metropolis model which continues to define the different types of spatial models, complicating the definition of services and the responsibility of the public administrations involved in the Olympic project. The evolution of the Olympic Villages over time reflects the evolution of the lifestyle of the citizens and the demands of the athletes over time. The Olympic Village should be seen as a result of Olympic time in a contextual territory that will need to fit into a permanent physical structure, responding to the specific housing requirements of each host site. In the following paragraph, we will analyse the different spatial models that have been adopted so far for the construction of the Olympic Village in the host territory. Meanwhile, in sections 5.2.5 and 5.2.7 we will analyse the different urban stages of the proposed Olympic Villages up to the Beijing 2022 edition.



Figure 57 The Olympic City of Los Angeles 1932 (Source: COJO, 1932)

5.2.2. Spatial models of the Olympic Villages

Over time, different spatial models for the location of Olympic Villages in the host city have been observed. Moreover, since 1924, with the institution of the winter edition, the organisation of the Olympic Villages will be transformed, acquiring other values and other functions over time.

However, the evolution of the Olympic event since 1924 led to a rethinking of the event model and the athletes' accommodation.

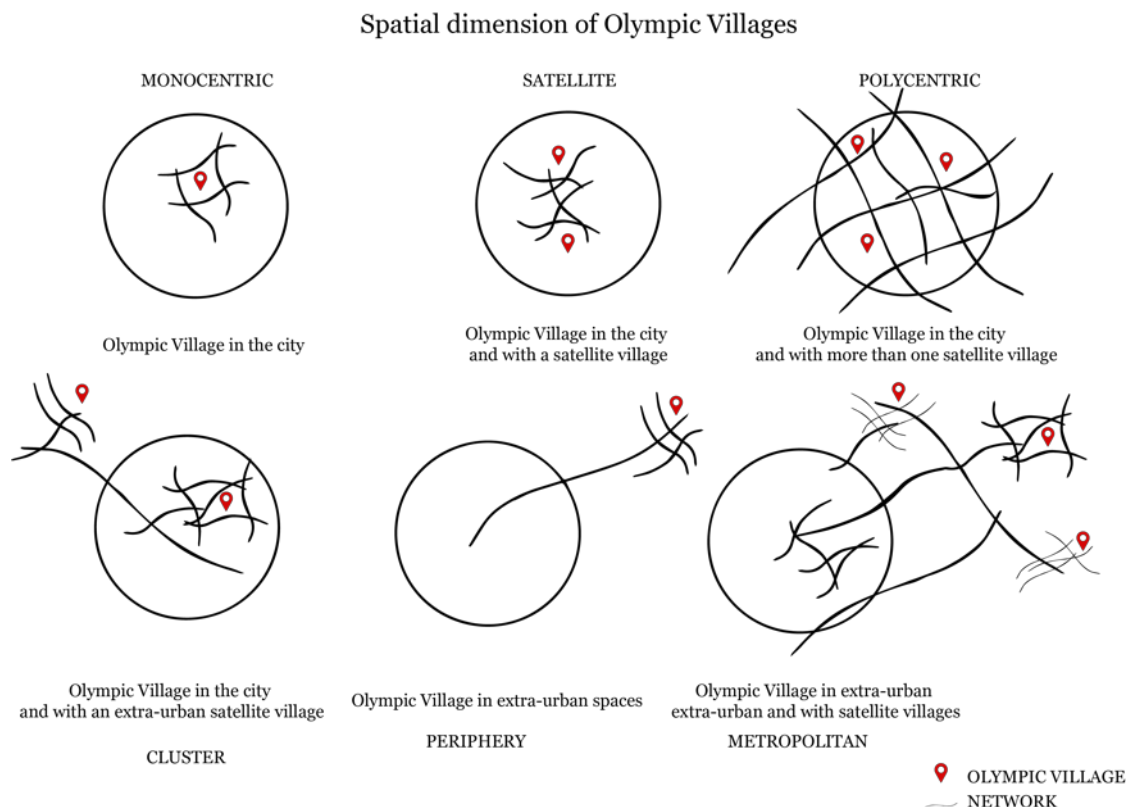


Figure 58 Spatial dimension of the Olympic Villages (Source: Own implementation)

The first editions of the Olympic Games were organised based on a spatial model that placed the main stadium at its centre. From the 1932 edition in Los Angeles, the event took on a new peripheral spatial form and the Olympic Villages became the main element of Olympic urban planning in the host territory. The 1932 project is considered to be the first temporary sports quarter to be built and is still in use today. The Los Angeles project was an inspiration for the construction of future accommodation structures. Thus, in the report of the 1936 Berlin Games, the Organising Committee underlined the importance of developing an Olympic Village with the same philosophy and form as the model observed in the previous Games. The Berlin 1936 edition can be examined as the first edition that drew inspiration from past editions for the development of a model that could be replicated

over time. However, the Berlin Olympic Village is recognised as the first permanent accommodation structure. From this historic moment onwards, Olympic cities will start to propose and develop urban planning projects that include the sports facilities and services around them.



Figure 59 Location of the Berlin Olympic Village 1932 (Source: Own implementation)

On the other hand, the first Olympic Villages of the winter edition were based on the use of hotels in mountain resorts. The first permanent model in the winter edition will only be observed in the 1952 Oslo edition. In the 1952 edition, the organising

committee developed three new Olympic quarters in central areas that could be reused as permanent accommodation for the community. As we have noted in chapter 1, the requirement to provide accommodation by the central states after the Second World War meant that the host states had to develop large projects that could respond to the demands of the citizens. In addition, the provision of three Olympic Villages on the territory will transform the spatial dimension of the Olympic Games over time. From the Rome Games onwards, the Olympic Games will begin to play a major role in the reconfiguration and reconstruction of the largest European cities. The needs of urban expansion in the 60s and 70s, the infrastructural transformations, the regeneration of the urban centres of the cities, will be the determining factors for the construction of the future Olympic Villages.



Figure 60 Location of the Rome 1960 Olympic Village (Source: Own implementation)

Furthermore, it is fundamental to underline how the 1960 edition of Rome will catalyse spatial transformations through the Olympic event, becoming a model of urban transformation for all future candidate cities. In 1960, for the first time, it was observed how a mega sporting event can be included in a long-term strategy of the host city. From this historic moment, the Olympics would become a catalyst for more complex processes that continue to envelop and transform with the demands of cities over time.

EDICION	POBLACION DE LA CIUDAD
BERLINO 1936	4.242.501
HELSINKI 1952	381.000
MELBOURNE 1956	5.000.000
ROMA 1960	2.455.581
TOKYO 1964	11.829.000
MEXICO 1968	19.400.000
MUNICH 1972	2.316.000
MONTREAL 1976	2.950.000
MOSCA 1980	13.200.000
LOS ANGELES 1984	3.400.000
SEOUL 1988	10.100.000
BARCELONA 1992	1.643.000
ATLANTA 1996	394.000
SYDNEY 2000	3.610.000
ATENE 2004	772.072
BEIJING 2008	19.612.368
LONDON 2012	8.174.000
RIO 2016	13.047.000
TOKYO 2020	37.435.191
MEDIA	8.419.038
MAX	37.435.191
MIN	381.000

Table 25 Population of the editions of the Summer Olympics (Source: Own implementation)

The interdependence between the Olympic event and the city is now developing through new forms and new elements that will be secondary to the Olympic event. In addition, since 1991, the IOC has introduced a specific modification for the Winter Olympic Games in case countries cannot provide all the Olympic structures on their territory due to geographical limitations. In this way, the spatial dimension of the Winter Olympics will grow enormously, developing into a form of a *cluster of* different locations connected by a transnational infrastructural system. Although the IOC does not set physical, economic, social and environmental criteria for the allocation of the host city, Table 25 indicates that the summer event remains an event of the world's major metropolises. While the winter edition, historically, was an edition developed in mountain communities that benefited from the Olympic event for the exploitation of winter sports tourism. Since Turin 2006, the winter edition has been transformed into a metropolitan edition involving a regional dimension of the Olympic territory. Thus, nowadays, the winter edition is allocated to metropolitan cities that want to benefit from the Olympic event to promote their territories. Table 26 shows that the

cities of the winter edition have an average population of no less than 1.4 million people. While the summer cities are mega cities with an average of 8.5 million inhabitants. The different dimensions of the Olympic cities, depending on the edition they host, will entail the execution of completely different workouts to the specific site.



Figure 61 Olympic space in Turin 2006 (Source: Own implementation)

Therefore, the Olympic Games involve a great effort and a large concentration of resources in a limited timeframe, which places high demands on the availability of service infrastructures and temporary accommodation. Thus, as shown in Tables 25 and 26, most Olympic venues are located in the world's most influential mega-cities.

Analysing the evolution of Olympic cities through the urban forms of accommodation is seen as a moment to reflect on the possible evolutions of modern cities over the course of the century. As we will observe in the following sections, the Olympic Villages have endured different changes and restructurings of the urban landscape, imposing themselves as a tangible heritage of Olympic heritage in the host cities.

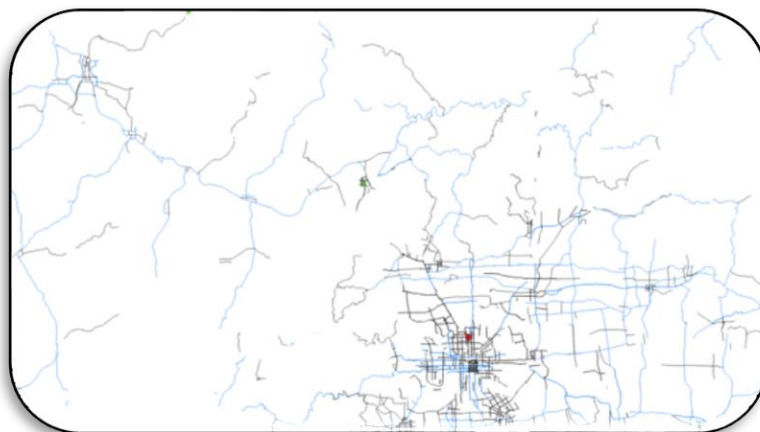


Figure 62 Olympic space in Beijing 2022 (Source: Own implementation)

<i>EDITION</i>	POPULATION OF THE CITY
<i>OSLO 1952</i>	447.000
<i>SQUAW VALLEY 1960</i>	4.000
<i>INNSBRUCK 1964</i>	100.000
<i>GRENOBLE 1968</i>	180.000
<i>SAPPORO 1972</i>	1.000.000
<i>INNSBUCK 1976</i>	117.000
<i>LAKE PLACID 1980</i>	5.000
<i>SARAJEVO 1984</i>	448.000
<i>CALGARY 1988</i>	640.000
<i>ALBERTVILLE 1992</i>	20.000
<i>LILLEHAMMER 1994</i>	23.000
<i>NAGANO 1998</i>	361.000
<i>SALT LAKE 2002</i>	174.348
<i>TURIN 2006</i>	900.000
<i>VANCOUVER 2010</i>	603.400
<i>SOCHI 2014</i>	364.000
<i>PYEONGCHANG 1918</i>	43.600
<i>BEIJING 2022</i>	19.638.000
MEDIA	1.392.686
MAX	19.638.000
MIN	4.000

Table 26 Population of the editions of the Winter Olympic Games (Source: Own implementation)

5.2.3. Evolution of the location of the Olympic Villages

Before analysing the different evolutionary stages and spatial patterns of the Olympic Villages, the study proposes an observation of the evolution of the distances between the two main structures in the summer and winter editions: the Olympic Village and the Olympic Stadium. In addition, for the observation of the evolution of the spatial patterns outlined above, the distances between the Olympic Village and the administrative centre of the summer and winter host cities were analysed in Tables 27 and 28. The following parameters allow us to reflect on the evolution of the location of the Olympic Villages in the two editions held over time. Consideration of the location of the Olympic Villages will allow us to analyse the spatial patterns observed over time and to advance new hypotheses on the evolution of the Olympic Village as an urban piece and central urban element of the Olympic event.

Table 27 Distance of the Olympic Village from the stadium and the Summer Olympics administrative centre (Source: Own implementation)

<i>EDITION</i>	Distance from the main stadium	Distance from the administrative centre of the city
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	950 m	17.2 km
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	8.2 km	17.5 km
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	21.1 km	31 km
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	2.4 km	6.9 km
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	14.0 km	15.3 km
<i>ROME 1960</i>	3.1 km	6.0 km
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	3.1 km	3.4 km
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	4.2 km	21.5 km
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	850 m	8.2 km
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	1.1 km	5.5 km
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	17.85 km (average)	18.5 km (average)
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	1.7 km	8.2 km

<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	6.5 km	18.5 km
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	7.1 km	3.0 km
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	7.8 km	5.6 km
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	2.6 km	18.9 km
<i>ATHENS 2004</i>	15.6 km	21.0 km
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	900 m	16.0 km
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	2.5 km	10.1 km
<i>RIO 2016</i>	28.6 km	28.2 km
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	9.9 km	16.3 km
<i>MEDIA</i>	7.63 km	14.13 km
<i>MAX</i>	28.6 km	31 km
<i>MIN</i>	0.85 km	3 km

Looking at the summer editions through the distance between the Olympic Village and the sports venues, we can state that the Olympic Stadium was located at an average distance of 7.63 km. Meanwhile, the distance between the administrative centre of the host cities and the Olympic Village has reached an average of 14.13 km.

On the other hand, in the winter edition, we can observe an average distance of 16.74 km between the Olympic Village and the Olympic Stadium. Meanwhile, the distance between the Olympic Village and the administrative centre has reached an average of 22.31 km.



Figure 63 Location of the Tokyo 2020 Olympic Village (Source: Own implementation)

Analysing the location of the Olympic Village, it can be observed that, in the summer edition over time, the location of the Olympic Village has evolved through a spatial model that continues to move closer to the central fabric of the host cities. The only exceptions in recent editions are Athens in 2004 and Rio in 2016 which, as we will see in the following sections, have developed a peripheral model for the organisation of the event.

Moreover, the distance between the Olympic Village and the administrative centre continues to evolve and, for the Beijing 2022 winter edition, the maximum average distance between the administrative centre of the cities and the Olympic Villages in the mountain venues has been raised to 115.63 km.

Table 28 Distance of the Olympic Village from the stadium and the Winter Olympics administrative centre (Source: Own implementation)

<i>EDITION</i>	Distance from the main stadium	Distance from the administrative centre of the city
<i>OSLO 1952</i>	2.77 km (average)	4.87 km (average)
<i>SQUAW VALLEY 1960</i>	0.8 km	13 km
<i>INNSBRUCK 1964</i>	5.8 km	5.0 km
<i>GRENOBLE 1968</i>	600 m	4.0 km
<i>SAPPORO 1972</i>	1.7 km	9.1 km
<i>INNSBUCK 1976</i>	5.6 km	6.4 km
<i>LAKE PLACID 1980</i>	10.1 km	10.4 km
<i>SARAJEVO 1984</i>	8.6 km	8.2 km
<i>CALGARY 1988</i>	1.3 km	8.6 km
<i>ALBERTVILLE 1992</i>	36.3 km	35.1 km
<i>LILLEHAMMER 1994</i>	4.3 km	3.4 km
<i>NAGANO 1998</i>	3.8 km	9.3 km
<i>SALT LAKE 2002</i>	1.6 km.	9.6 km
<i>TURIN 2006</i>	62.17 km (average)	65.43 km (average)

<i>VANCOUVER 2010</i>	1.2 km	1.5 km
<i>SOCHI 2014</i>	40.13 km (average)	64.33 km (average)
<i>PYEONGCHANG 1918</i>	13.4 km (average)	27.8 km (average)
<i>BEIJING 2022</i>	101.17 km (average)	115.63 km (average)
MEDIA	16.74 km	22.31 km
MAX	101.17 km	115.63 km
MIN	0.6 km	1.5 km

In addition, some winter editions such as Oslo, Turin, Sochi, PyeongChang and Beijing have established different Olympic Villages about Olympic competition venues. In table 29 we can see the specific distances of each Olympic Village across an organisation with multiple permanent accommodations.

Table 29 Distance of Olympic Village sub-venues from the stadium and the Winter Olympic Games administrative centre (Source: Own implementation)

	Distance from the main stadium	Distance from the administrative centre of the city
OSLO 1952		
<i>ULLEVAL</i>	2.2 km	4.3 km
<i>SOGN</i>	4.3 km	6.6 km
<i>ILLA</i>	1.8 km	3.7 km
TURIN 2006		
<i>MAIN VILLAGE</i>	2.2 km	5.9 km
<i>BARDONECCHIA</i>	94.1 km	89.4 km
<i>SESTRIERE</i>	90.2 km	101 km
SOCHI 2014		

<i>ROSA KHUTOR</i>	58.1 km	76.6 km
<i>MAIN VILLAGE</i>	1.4 km	34.2 km
<i>SLOBODA</i>	60.9 km	82.2 km
	PYEONGCHANG 2018	
<i>Village 1</i>	7.2 km	23.1 km
<i>Gangneung</i>	19.6 km	32.5 km
	BEIJING 2022	
<i>Main Village</i>	2.0 km	17.1 km
<i>Yanqing</i>	72.5 km	90.8 km
<i>Zhangjiakou</i>	229 km	239 km

The last winter edition of Beijing 2022 allows us to observe a new spatial dimension of the event, which in some cases reaches a distance of 239 km from the administrative centre of the city to the Olympic Village in the mountainous areas. In conclusion, we can state that the dimension of the winter edition has been transformed into a regional organisation which implies new resources in infrastructural works to temporarily connect the Olympic sub-venues. In this way, the host city has become the main for the promotion of a larger and more complex territory. The next dimension of the Winter Olympics will be in a transnational space that will involve new resources and new models of territorial organisation to comply with IOC standards.

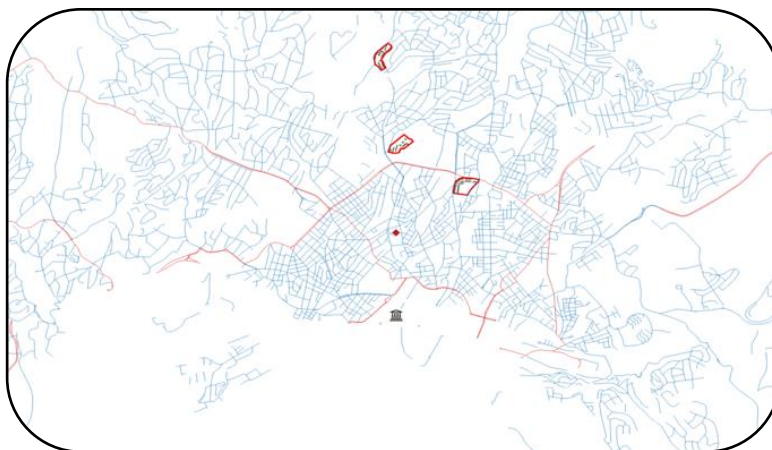


Figure 64 Spatial organisation in Oslo 1952 (Source: Own implementation)

5.2.4. Use and development of the Olympic Village area

As we have observed in the previous sections, the Olympic Village area does not only involve the provision of accommodation, but also sports facilities, public parks, amphitheatres, services, and other fundamental elements for the exploitation of the area in the post-event period. Therefore, the choice of the area is a fundamental element for the allocation of the area and the exploitation of the Village in the post-Olympic period. Looking at tables 30 and 31, we can identify different uses of the area in the post-Olympic phase that help us to reflect on the transformation of urban, mountainous or metropolitan spaces. If we take into account the use before the Olympic event, between the two editions a common language can be observed in the choice of the available areas, which will be public property. Meanwhile, regarding the use of the area in the post-event phase, in the summer edition, there is the possibility that the Olympic Village could be converted into a public park, integrating offices and becoming a mixed space. On the other hand, in the winter edition, the sports facilities and the Olympic Village are the only elements shared by the different experiences. After having observed the different uses of the area, in the following section, we will see the different evolutionary stages of the model, the dimension and the location of the Olympic Village in both editions.

Table 30 Use of the area of the Summer Olympic Village before and after the Olympic Games (Source: Own implementation)

<i>City</i>	Previous use of selected areas	Use of selected areas after the Games
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	Lands	
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	Lands	
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	Land. Forests	Olympic Village, Olympic Park, sports facilities
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	Lands	Olympic Village, sports facilities
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	Lands	Olympic Village, sports facilities
<i>ROME 1960</i>	Stadium, land, barracks	Olympic Village, sports facilities
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	Military area	Public park
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	Lands	Olympic Village, sports facilities
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	Land, forest	Olympic Park, Olympic Village, transport, sports facilities
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	Lands	Olympic Park, Olympic Village

<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	Lands	Olympic Villages
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	University area	New student accommodation
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	Contaminated, unhealthy sites	Olympic Park, sports facilities, Olympic Village, healthy spaces
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	Brownfields, land	Olympic Village, residential area, services, sports facilities, harbour
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	Residential area in the city centre	Office space, new student accommodation, sports facilities
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	Land, abandoned spaces	Olympic Park, residential area, park, Olympic Village
<i>ATHENS 2004</i>	Military and Industrial Area	Sports facilities, port, Olympic Village
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	Underdeveloped area	Olympic Village, park, sports facilities
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	Industrial area	Olympic Village, offices, Olympic Park
<i>RIO 2016</i>	Land, barracks	Olympic Park, Olympic Villages
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	Land, residential space in the city centre	Olympic Villages



Figure 65 Area of the Olympic Village in Rome 1960 (Source: Archivio Luce)

Table 31 Use of the area of the Winter Olympic Village before and after the Olympic Games (Source: Own implementation)

<i>City</i>	Previous use of selected areas	Use of selected areas after the Games
<i>OSLO 1952</i>	Earth	Olympic Village, sports facilities
<i>SQUAW VALLEY 1960</i>	Land, hotels	Sports facilities, hotels
<i>INNSBRUCK 1964</i>	Earth	Olympic Village, sports facilities
<i>GRENOBLE 1968</i>	Earth	Olympic Village, sports facilities
<i>SAPPORO 1972</i>	Land	Olympic Village, sports facilities
<i>INNSBUCK 1976</i>	Land	Olympic Village
<i>LAKE PLACID 1980</i>	Military area	Prison
<i>SARAJEVO 1984</i>	Lands	Sports facilities, hotels
<i>CALGARY 1988</i>	University area	New student accommodation
<i>ALBERTVILLE 1992</i>	Hotels	New tourist accommodation, sports facilities
<i>LILLEHAMMER 1994</i>	Land, forest	Sports facilities
<i>NAGANO 1998</i>	Lands	Olympic Village, sports facilities
<i>SALT LAKE 2002</i>	Military area	New student accommodation
<i>TURIN 2006</i>	Brownfields	Tourist accommodation, Olympic Village, sports facilities
<i>VANCOUVER 2010</i>	University area	Olympic Village
<i>SOCHI 2014</i>	Land, forest	Olympic Village
<i>PYEONGCHANG 1918</i>	Lands	Sports facilities, Olympic Villages
<i>BEIJING 2022</i>	Lands	Olympic villages, sports facilities

5.2.5. The different stages in the evolution of the Summer Olympic Village in the urban fabric of the metropolis

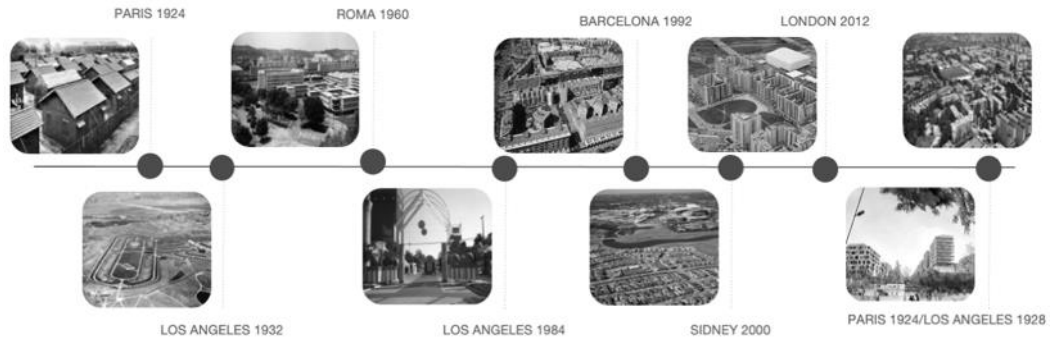


Figure 66 Evolution of the Summer Olympic Village (Source: OCOG,1924,1932,1960,1984,1992,2000,2012,2024,2028)

Phase 1: Temporary accommodation in military sites (1896-1920)

From the first edition of the Olympic event in Athens 1896 until Paris 1924, the event was organised in venues that hosted the Universal Exhibitions and had high international visibility. In the next stage, the number of athletes was limited and they were accommodated in hotels, military venues, ships and other places that had temporary beds.

Phase 2: Demountable housing in peripheral areas (1924-1932)

It was only after the Paris 1924 edition that the Olympic Village began to become a fundamental element in the development of the Olympic event. The Olympic accommodation in the second stage was provided through temporary solutions that foresaw the use of removable materials. The Paris Olympic Village was planned close to the main stadium through the realisation of temporary wooden huts including communal services. The Paris edition was the first edition to enjoy some basic services such as the post office, a leisure area and primary services, which would later be the elements that would form the international area of the Village. Subsequently, the Los Angeles Olympic Village will become the development model for subsequent Olympic cities. The repositioning of the Village in a peripheral area will provide a stimulus for the transformation of sports venues in other locations. In addition, the location of the Olympic Village will promote temporary urbanism through the use of inexpensive, demountable materials. The Los Angeles Village was the first to include the amphitheatre, hospital, church and other major facilities for Olympic athletes. In this way, the practice of the old Olympic Games was re-established, in which the athletes were temporarily housed in the community of *Elis* (OCOG, 1932). The 1932 Village is based on the repetition of a prefabricated model around a morphology

similar to the circus of ancient Rome. The 550 wooden huts will be the promoters of the Olympic accommodation throughout the centuries⁷.



Figure 67 Spatial organisation in Los Angeles 1932 (Source: Own implementation)

Phase 3: Construction of a sports district in peripheral areas (1936-1956)

The stimulating project of Los Angeles in 1932 served as an inspirational model for the Berlin Organising Committee, which in 1936 realised the construction of a new sports quarter in a peripheral area of the city. The Berlin edition will become the first edition to offer a permanent solution for the Olympic event, which can be used as residential accommodation in the post-Olympic phase. The entire area includes the sports facilities, reception, restaurants, conference rooms and services included in the previous editions. The Berlin project will introduce a new concept of Olympic accommodation. From now on, the accommodation site will be promoted as a multifunctional venue for future host cities. The Berlin model establishes the application of the satellite city or garden city model in a peripheral space, which introduces a model of Olympic urbanism characterised by the complex of sports facilities and Olympic Villages. However, during the post-Olympic period, the space was used only as a military school and, to this day, the complex

⁷ In the Los Angeles 1932 edition, the candidate cities will be obliged to propose an Olympic site for the celebration of the Olympic medals.

is abandoned and without a certain destination. The Berlin event was to inspire future projects in Helsinki in 1952 and Melbourne in 1956. In the next phase, the Olympic cities planned the construction of a new sports neighbourhood in peripheral areas, focusing on the construction of sports facilities close to the Olympic accommodation. In addition, the Helsinki project will be the first model for residential reuse in the post-Olympic phase. Subsequently, Melbourne will propose the construction of a new neighbourhood in a derelict area. Helsinki in 1952 became the first post-war Olympic Village to introduce a transformation in the hospitality of the athletes. The Organising Committee proposed different housing for the participants of the rowing competitions, bringing forward multiple Olympic Villages for the athletes. From this historic moment on, participants in the sailing and rowing competitions will be housed in temporary structures close to the competition venue. The Helsinki Village housed some 4,800 people in thirteen buildings, four storeys high (COJO, 1952). The neighbourhood included a restaurant, a cinema, saunas and toilets. Meanwhile, for the 1956 Melbourne edition, the model adopted by the Organising Committee was centred on a suburb (Heidelberg) 15.3 km from the administrative centre of Melbourne. The suburb was built at a distance of 14 km from the Olympic Stadium and, for the first time, men and women were housed in the same Olympic Village. The project involved the construction of 365 dwellings which in the post-event phase were sold to the residents (COJO, 1956).

Berlín 1936



Figure 68 Spatial organisation in Berlin 1936 (Source: Own implementation)

Phase 4: Modern housing, Rationalism and functionalism (1960-1988)

Continuing the evolution of the Olympic accommodation, the next stage, the Rome 1960 edition will be the promoter of a new scale of Olympic projects that will influence the size of the new projects. The Rome project is recognised as one of the most ambitious projects of all time. The legacy of the *Foro Italico* park, one of the first sports city models developed by Italy's leading rationalist architects of the 1930s, allowed the Olympic Village and most of the Olympic facilities to be encompassed in an area of 0.30 km². The Olympic Village was designed under the guidelines of the rationalist style and in the post-event period, it will be converted into a neighbourhood for state employees (COJO, 1960). Undoubtedly, the Rome edition was inspiring for the promotion of the modernist style in future candidate cities. Tokyo in 1964 provided a major transformation project that included infrastructural development as the main objective for the post-event phase (OCOG, 1964). Therefore, the Olympic Village was planned in a peripheral area of the city through temporary accommodation made of inexpensive and demountable materials⁸. Subsequently, the Olympic Village area will be transformed into one of the most famous parks in Japan, the *Yoyogi Park*⁹. The Olympic Village, dismantled after the event, will be the only exception in this phase dominated by large investments in social housing due to population growth in the world's largest metropolises. Meanwhile, the Mexico 1968 edition will follow a planning philosophy through the construction of a satellite city in a peripheral space of the metropolis, proposing solutions based on residential accommodation for the post-event phase. The construction of a new sports quarter using blocks of flats introduced a new philosophy of high-rise development that had never been seen before. The Olympic Village area comprised the realisation of two different Villas, one for the athletes and journalists called "Miguel Hidalgo" and one for the judges and Olympic volunteers are known as "Narciso Mendoza". The main Village was built near the main stadium and had 29 buildings of between six and ten floors (COJO, 1968). The Mexico Olympic Village can be defined as a self-sufficient residential city that will house almost 10,000 people in the post-Olympic period. Meanwhile, the Judges' and Volunteers' Village consisted of 686 two-storey buildings and 90 four-storey buildings (OCOG, 1968). Both Olympic Villages were intended to be sold to middle-class families in the post-Olympic period. In the Mexico edition, the IOC for the first-time published guidelines for the design and planning of the Olympic Village. The consideration of the access, the main requirements, the average facilities and the instructions for the construction of the accommodation will promote a new type of centralised development of the Olympic Village. Subsequently, Munich 1972 developed a large sports park of 473,000 m² in a central area which included the realisation of a new neighbourhood in a green environment. The area was planned to become one of the largest sports parks in the world (COJO, 1972). The large accommodation complex in the post-event phase was converted into residences for young couples and other buildings were added for university accommodation. In contrast to the

⁸ Prior to the event the area was owned by the US military. The area was expropriated and ownership was transferred to the Japanese state.

⁹ After the Olympic event, the park has become one of the symbolic spaces of the transformation of the city of Tokyo. Today, only one of the houses built for the Olympic event can be found in the park.

previous complexes, the Olympic Villages from Munich will be used as an integrated element in the central spaces of the host city, setting out a new philosophy of urban growth. Munich in 1972 and Montreal in 1976 will undoubtedly be two initiatives that will reinforce the city centres through *Brutalist* architecture. Both represent an urban phenomenon in which the Olympic Village and the sports facilities are inserted to constitute a sports area, without the need to expand and extend the territory of the city. The Munich complex and the future Olympic Park were located 8.2 km from the city centre. The large complex included the realisation of a complex of buildings with a capacity of more than 12,000 people. For the first time in Munich, the concept of a residential and an international area was introduced. Therefore, the planning of the Olympic accommodation in these years aimed at the functionality of the interventions in consideration of leisure time and green spaces.

Munich 1972



Figure 69 Spatial organisation in Munich 1972 (Source: Own implementation)

Subsequently, the Montreal edition will follow the same philosophy as Munich by building a large accommodation complex near the sports venues, turning the neighbourhood into a huge sports centre for future events. However, the plan to build the Olympic Village in a huge green area provoked some protests from local citizens. The Montreal edition will mean a major crisis for the Olympic movement as it will be forced to rethink future editions, so as not to compromise the development of the sport throughout the world. The Montreal Olympic Village consists of four 19-storey blocks integrating services and offices. After the event, the housing was sold to families (COJO, 1976). The 1980 edition of Moscow was included in a twenty-year (1971-1990) project of reconstruction and metropolitan development of the city of Moscow itself. The plan foresaw the reorganisation of the urban fabric and the installation of new sports infrastructures in the city (OCOG, 1980). In addition, the plan integrated a development strategy in eight different areas which were equipped with their centre, constituting satellite areas in the metropolitan dimension. The administration proposed the realisation of the Olympic Villages in two areas that were included in the infrastructural reform of the Russian capital. Therefore, the realisation of two different Olympic Villages will be the cause of an expansion of Olympic buildings on the territory. The Olympic Villages were provided by 34 residential blocks between 16 and 18 storeys high in Soviet *Brutalist* style. In the post-event phase, all the housing was intended for young families (OCOG, 1980). The Los Angeles edition is recognised as the first private edition of the event and the first edition to use university accommodation to house Olympic athletes. It also inspired the use of existing structures and university residences to promote knowledge through university services. The University of Southern California, the University of California at Los Angeles and the University of California at Santa Barbara were able to accommodate more than 12,000 participants, offering all the services necessary to comply with Olympic regulations (COJO, 1984). Four years later, the 1988 edition in Seoul followed the same philosophy as the other editions of this stage. The planning of a comprehensive reconstruction project and the inclusion of accommodation as a catalyst for residential housing. The Village was built close to the sports facilities and the central stadium in a peripheral area of the city. The block structures that were provided in Seoul will be converted into permanent accommodation and will be available to citizens in the post-event phase. The Seoul Olympic Village was a large housing project consisting of 86 blocks, in 26-storey buildings occupying a total area of 1.19 km² (COJO, 1988). The housing project was included in the metropolitan city's strategic plan for the improvement of services and health conditions for its citizens. The whole area accommodated more than 14,000 people which in the post-event phase was transformed into youth housing.

Phase 5: The promotion of housing as a tool for a new lifestyle (1992-2004)

The industrial crisis at the end of the 1980s, as we noted in chapter 1, strongly conditioned the development of the world's major industrial cities. It was Barcelona's candidature in 1992 that started a new phase in the evolution of the Olympic Villages. The regeneration and transformation of huge abandoned and disused land in central areas of the

city of Barcelona will greatly condition the conception of Olympic accommodation. The transformation of the post-industrial city through mixed financing opens the door to new economic flows related to tourism and services (Venturi, 1994). The Olympic Village is at the heart of one of the city's main objectives: to destroy the boundaries and open the city to the sea. The Villa is in a privileged location, close to the promenade and the Olympic port. Barcelona's housing project will allow the Olympic Village to be seen as a catalyst for the transformation of the entire industrial area.

Barcelona 1992



Figure 70 Spatial organisation in Barcelona 1992 (Source: Own implementation)

In addition, the central location of the Village will allow us to observe how the housing will be used as a tool for the promotion of a new lifestyle in the host cities.

The Olympic Village in the *Poble Nou* neighbourhood, a former industrial area, is seen as the starting point for the development of the organising committee's objectives: to re-establish the connection between city and sea, to continue with the urban pattern of Cerdà and to introduce new uses for the spaces (COJO, 1992). The Olympic Village consists of 18 blocks of flats between two and nine storeys high. The project included the creation of large specific spaces for commercial services, hotels and offices. The Barcelona Olympic Village can be seen as an inspirational project for the construction of accommodation through mixed financing in an area with a risk of speculation in the post-event phase. The implementation of the Barcelona strategies will ensure a new promotion of Olympic accommodation and promote a new international image of the host cities. One Olympic cycle later, the Atlanta 96 edition proposed a temporary solution through the use of university residences and temporary structures for the pre-arrangement of services.

The organisational model for Atlanta was inspired by Los Angeles 1984, the Olympic Village was located on the campus of the Georgia Institute of Technology based on its proximity to the sports facilities. The use of the existing infrastructure was complemented through the construction of two new buildings which after the games increased the availability of university accommodation in the city (COJO, 1996). Meanwhile, Sydney 2000 is recognised as the first project to include sustainable solutions for the construction and maintenance of the Olympic Village. The Sydney plan envisaged the construction of a new sports quarter in a derelict area near the Olympic Park, developed to promote the sport through a large sports area (Davidson, 2012). The Sydney Olympic Village was planned through the construction of 870 flats that in the post-event phase were converted into residences, constituting a new neighbourhood and, favouring the expansion of the Australian metropolis (Blunden, 2012). The neighbourhood extends over an area of 510,861 m². Furthermore, the use of sustainable materials, the provision of solar panels and water recycling paved the way for a new model of sustainable housing that will be adopted by other future cities (Spooner, 2000). However, the Sydney Olympic Village project reached its peak in terms of the number of new buildings for Olympic accommodation. In the following edition, Athens 2004, the Olympic Village was realised in a peripheral area of 1.09 km², included in a huge area where most of the sports facilities were located. By similarity, the Athens Olympic Village can be identified as a satellite city project 21 km away from the administrative centre of the city. The next project was intended to provide new residential housing in the post-Olympic phase. The Olympic Village consists of 366 4-storey blocks (COJO, 2004). In the post-Olympic period and affected by the economic crises, the project was abandoned and was occupied by different immigrants who still live in the area today. This work will mark a new moment of crisis for the Olympic housing, leading once again to a rethinking of the Olympic editions and the size of the projects. The Athens project has thus become one of the worst results observables in the history of the Olympic Villages.

Phase 6: Sustainability and Heritage as a stimulus for Metropolitan Development (2008-2028)

In the next stage, the Beijing edition will mean another change for the future of Olympic accommodation. The choice of a green area, the use of sustainable materials and environmentally friendly solutions will give greater emphasis to environmental protection and sustainable development (Smith, 2007). The Beijing project was included in an area in the north of the city promoted by the 1990 Asian Games and which the city wanted to turn into a huge sports park (COJO, 2008). Therefore, the construction of the Olympic housing was planned to be used as public residences in the post-Olympic period. The Beijing project will be the promoter of a new model of housing construction in global cities. Subsequently, the London project in 2012 will be seen as another fundamental stage in the evolution of a new metropolitan building model in vacant areas with high development potential (Poynter, 2012). The East London area was included in a project of infrastructural

reorganisation and a vision for the expansion¹⁰ of the city (Smith, 2014). The London 2012 project, however, will be a pivotal moment for privately financed housing development in an area, that in the post-Olympic period could be at high risk of property speculation. The London Olympic Village will be a watershed moment for post-Olympic planning and the importance of its legacy for the city and its citizens. The redefinition of abandoned spaces and the provision of new environmental protection measures will allow the city to have a sports park in a central area of the English metropolis. In addition, the inclusion of services and offices in the Olympic Village will promote a new typology of mixed housing that will encourage the diversification of housing for greater profitability in the post-Olympic phase.

Londres 2012

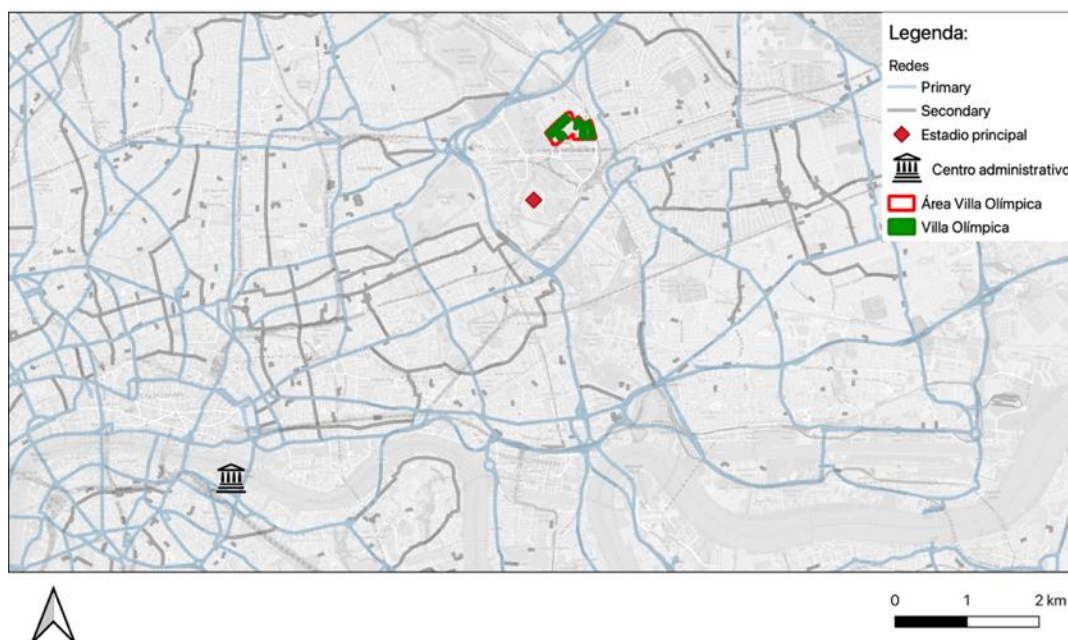


Figure 71 Spatial organisation in London 2012 (Source: Own implementation)

The 2016 edition of Rio de Janeiro will mark another crisis in the history of Olympic housing. The housing project was organised through the definition of a new peripheral area that could be constituted as a satellite city. The entire area before becoming a new sports district was occupied by shanties and unconventional structures, leading to a displacement of citizens inland. The Rio Olympic Village was planned in an area 28.2 km away from the city centre. The project was included in an infrastructure reform and in the organisation of the new rapid transit service that will promote new conclusions for the connection of the Olympic areas. The Olympic Village consists of 31 blocks of flats arranged over 17 floors (COJO,2016). An urbanisation project that should be converted into housing for the

¹⁰ Like the Olympic Park, the site required the removal of toxic waste and poisoned soils prior to construction and was part of the regeneration of the Greenwich Peninsula (Evans, 2017).

citizens. However, the Rio Olympic Village, like the Athens Olympic Village, can be seen as two satellite city models that in the post-Olympic period were abandoned and sometimes occupied by citizens. Subsequently, Tokyo 2020 proposed a development model similar to the London 2012 project. The choice of the area was due to its strategic importance for the integration of an area used as a venue for international events. The construction of new housing, through a private agreement in a central area of the city, has guaranteed the use of the accommodation in the post-event phase. The Olympic Village project foresaw the subsequent construction of two skyscrapers for the inclusion of offices and housing (COJO,2020). The following project will confirm the importance of the Olympic Village as a tool for the redevelopment of empty spaces in metropolitan cities and as a catalyst for a new economy in a central area. The allocation of Paris 2024 and Los Angeles 2028 will allow us to observe new models and a new formal language of the Olympic Village, constituted by temporality and the existence of sports facilities. The Olympic Village has become an opportunity for the development of new housing in central areas of the world's largest metropolises. Moreover, looking at future projects, the Olympic Village in the Paris and Los Angeles edition will be the only work of Olympic urbanism that will exist. The use of existing and temporary facilities will lead to a rethinking of Olympic urban planning and housing in the host cities. In conclusion, the Olympic Villages of the next decade of the 21st century clearly show the main orientations of post-modern urbanism that include the aspects of sustainability, security, experiences, heritage and landscape. Similarly, the experiences of the Olympic Villages at this stage reflect the reality of the most successful urbanism in terms of cost-effectiveness.

Tokio 2020



Figure 72 Spatial organisation in Tokyo 2020 (Source: Own implementation)

Phase I	1896-1920	Temporary accommodation	Prospects for the development of an Olympic Village Use of hotels and military spaces
Phase II	1924-1932	Peripheral areas Removable housings	Prospects for the development of a permanent Olympic Village Specific area for holding the event Development of a temporary area for Olympic accommodation
Phase III	1936-1956	Establishment of a sports district Permanent housing	Creation of a sports quarter in the peripheral areas of the cities Sports facilities and services The foundations are laid for the development of residential accommodation in the post-Olympic phase.
Phase IV	1960-1988	Expansion of the Olympic Village Residential development tool	Increase in the number of Olympic athletes Public sector funding for the construction of new accommodations Increasing the size of the Olympic Village area
Phase V	1992-2004	Olympic Village in the city Stimulus for the transformation of abandoned areas	Olympic Village as part of the revaluation of industrial areas Mixed economy for the construction of the residences The Olympic Village as a tool for the promotion of a new lifestyle
Phase VI	2008-2028	Transformation of the Olympic Village Global cities	Metropolitan development in empty spaces. Tool for the re-definition and reorganisation of the economy of the Olympic area. Greater emphasis on the protection of the environment and the sustainable development Olympic legacy assumes great importance in planning for post-Olympic phase Inclusion of services and offices Mixed housing solutions for social inclusion in cities

Table 32 Stages of the Olympic Villages at the Summer Olympics (Source: Own implementation)

5.2.6. Spatial models of the Olympic Summer Villages

The following projects reflect the major urban transformations of the main Summer Olympic cities in the urban fabric of the host cities. Historically, the Summer Olympic Villages have been integrated into the interventionist policies of cities through different urban models about the requirements of each host city. Each of the Olympic Villages has different configurations and constraints that reflect the housing philosophies of every city. In general, we can state that the rationalist model through block housing represents one of the most used models for the strategic development of the Olympic Village. Meanwhile, the decentralised model is a model observed in cities that had or needed a great infrastructural transformation to connect different areas in the metropolitan territory. Finally, urban planning models in central locations have, since London 2012, established themselves as the most used by those large metropolises that want to reconvert central areas. Areas that are in strategic locations for the operation of new services and infrastructures. Finally, the peripheral cluster development model in the summer edition was only used to respond to the accommodation requirements observed in section (1).



Figure 73 Spatial models of Olympic Village at the Summer Olympics (Source: Own implementation)

The analysis of the Olympic Villages within the transformations of Olympic cities can help in observing the evolution and sensitivity of the housing issue in large contemporary metropolises. Today, the Olympic city has become a more complex geographical concept, which must meet new requirements in terms of air quality, water reuse, waste collection, public spaces and well-being. Olympic cities must therefore be seen as an open and dynamic space in which to reinterpret and implement new theories of sustainable development for the future of our communities. As we have observed, the Olympic Village does not have a blueprint or a reference model. However, some models will become a reference for the Olympic urbanisation of future candidates and host cities. Illustration 74 shows the spatial models observed in the summer edition. Thus, in the following section, we will see which models were used for the implementation of the Olympic Village in the host cities of the winter edition.

5.2.7. The different stages of the development of the Winter Village on the regional territory

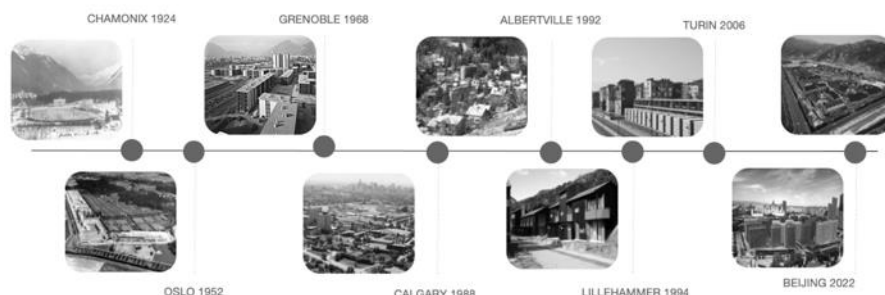


Figure 74 Evolution of the Winter Olympic Village (Source: COJO,1924,1952,1968,1988,1992,1994,1994,2006,2022)

From the first Winter Olympics in Chamonix in 1924, the event was organised in mountain areas with ski resorts, a sports pavilion and accommodation facilities. As we have noted above in Table 27, the Winter Olympics up to Oslo 1952 were planned in places with a strong tourist vocation for the exploitation of winter sports. The mountain sites chosen had accommodation facilities or new projects were planned in anticipation of the development of winter tourism in the mountain resorts¹¹. About the evolution, Oslo in 1952 is considered the first winter edition city to provide a permanent Olympic Village (Delorme, 2014).

Phase 2: Development of a public housing policy (1952-1964)

The Oslo project in 1952 was designed through a polycentric spatial organisation that included three Olympic Villages in the urban fabric of the Norwegian capital. Since 1952 the Winter Olympic Village will become a model of spatial transformation very similar to

¹¹ For example, the Olympic Village in Lake Placid was included in a New York State tourism promotion project.

what we have observed in the summer edition. The Olympic Villages were organised in three different areas of the city, which were included in a city transformation plan (Illa, Sogn and Ulleval). Each Olympic quarter was intended to be self-sufficient and to become new residential accommodation in the post-event phase. The Olympic Villages were organised in an area that included most of the primary and secondary services. The buildings were organised in 18 blocks between 2 and 8-storeys high (COJO, 1952). In the post-Olympic period, the structures were organised through mixed solutions. The growing interest in the promotion of winter sports will be the new instrument that cities will use for the inclusion of the Olympic event in urban transformations¹². Subsequently, the 1964 edition of Innsbruck proposed the construction of an Olympic Village in an area of the city that was included in a housing development plan owned by the central state. The Village was designed through the construction of four 10-storey blocks (COJO, 1964). The project was intended to become a large residential area in the post-event phase. Therefore, at this stage, we can observe an increase in public funding for the construction of new residential housing stimulated by the Olympic bid.

Oslo 1952



Figure 75 Spatial organisation in Oslo 1952 (Source: Own implementation)

Phase:3 Mixed Housing in a Regional Development Dimension (1968-1988)

With the increase in size and interest in winter sports, the cities will begin to promote a new spatial model in an Olympic territory that will expand to the whole region, during the organisation of Grenoble in 1968. The growing demand for infrastructures will allow Grenoble to bring to fruition a new regional transformation project, supported by the

¹² With a resident population of 447,200, the city was by far the largest centre to have hosted the Games to that date. The larger population created new opportunities for the type of facilities on offer, as viability and future use after the Games was more than assured (Essex, 2017).

central government, to increase tourism and commerce in the mountain areas¹³. The Grenoble project will propose accommodation solutions in the central fabric of the city, close to the main stadium, planned using a removable structure in the post-event phase. The structures and architectural style of the Olympic Village were proposed through a rationalist style that respected Le Corbusier's idea for the construction of new functional cities. Meanwhile, the Olympic residences were intended to be used through mixed management that could benefit the university, citizens and tourism. The Village was organised into 11 blocks between 4 and 5 storeys high. The creation of new motorways, roads, airports, and railway lines, will determine a new model for the organisation of the Olympic event.

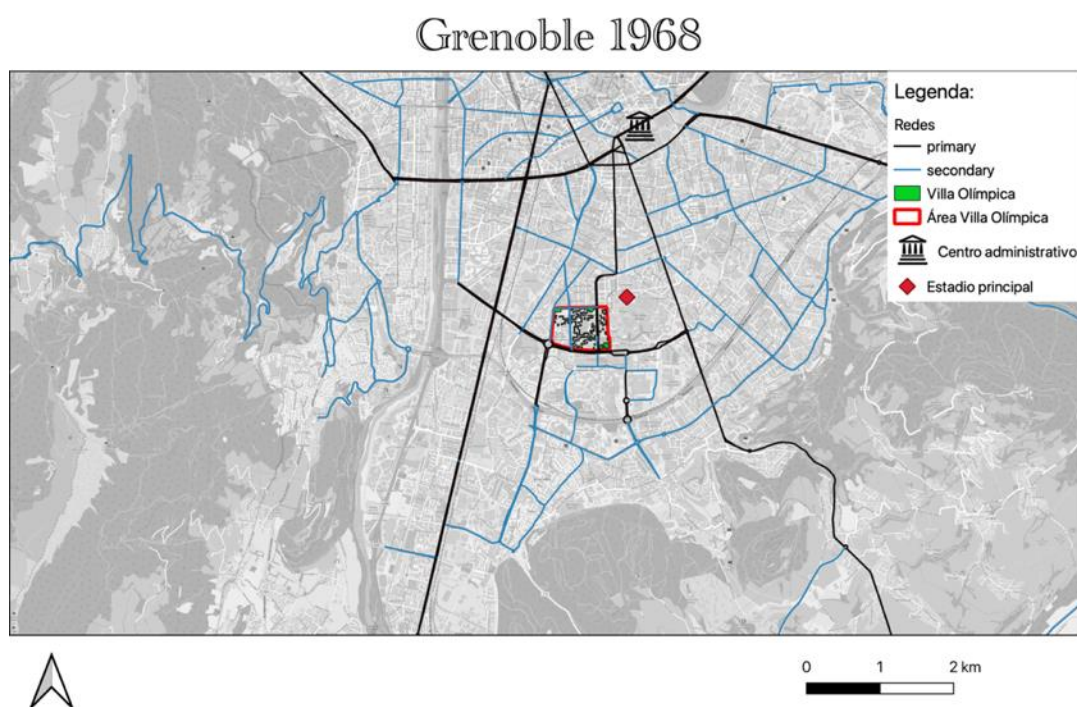


Figure 76 Spatial organisation in Grenoble 1968 (Source: Own implementation)

The Olympic Village was included in a priority urbanisation area, identified in the general plan, as an area of new interest for regional development. Therefore, in the next stage, the event will become a regional development tool that will catalyse infrastructural interventions as it happened a few years earlier in the summer edition. Like Grenoble, Sapporo 1972 implemented a project of redevelopment and redefinition of urban areas and regional infrastructures (Kagaya, 1991).

Sapporo will be the first city with more than 1 million people to host the Olympic event. The Olympic Village was included in a housing development plan, which through the provision of block structures could be transformed into residential accommodation in

¹³ The Grenoble project was financed by the central government and the French central bank in a framework of international trade development.

the post-Olympic phase. In the following stages, we will observe how housing emergencies are an element that will influence the layout and construction of residential projects, increasing their dimension in the fabric of the candid cities. Meanwhile, only a few hotels for participants in alpine sports will be built in the mountain villages. The Sapporo Olympic Village will be the promoter of a new construction model that has never before been achieved in a winter edition. The complex was realised through the construction of 20 residential blocks between 5 and 11 storeys high (COJO, 1972). The city of Sapporo was the first city that did not have the sports facilities for the event, which until Grenoble had been essential for hosting Olympic competitions. Subsequently, the 1976 edition of Innsbruck proposed the construction of a new Olympic Village in an area adjacent to the area built for the 1964 edition (OCOG, 1976). Knowing that the accommodation was occupied by the community, the organising committee had to provide a new accommodation solution that implied the same philosophy of re-use for the post-Olympic period. Therefore, after the Olympic event, the area would be transformed into a new residential neighbourhood for the citizens, promoting an expansion of the neighbourhood built for the 1964 event.

Until the Calgary 1988 edition, the number of athletes was increasing and Olympic cities started to promote new solutions for Olympic accommodation projects. Calgary is recognised as the first city in the winter edition to propose university-type accommodation solutions (Olds, 1998). In addition, the organising committee focused the project on the realisation of new sports facilities for university students and the promotion of winter sports (COJO, 1988). The Calgary accommodation solution greatly stimulated future editions to offer a new model for the transformation of the Winter Olympic Games. Meanwhile, in the third stage, the dimension of the Olympic space will increase considerably. In addition, the increase in competitions and the number of athletes will involve new sports facilities and new solutions for multiple Olympic Villages.

Phase 4: Tourism Development Tool (1992-2002)

Albertville in 1992 is recognised as the first project that proposed multiple accommodation solutions in the different mountain locations and the main Olympic Village in an area that was included in the tourism development of the whole region. However, Albertville 1992 proposed a polycentric spatial model that included and strengthened the region's position as an international tourist centre (Terret, 2008). The large investment in the event allowed for the construction of new accommodation and hotels throughout the Olympic area, renewing the entire infrastructural system in the mountains for the repositioning of the localities in the infrastructural system. The provision of 8 hotel structures to meet the requirements of the Olympic event allowed for a new spatial dimension that had never been seen before. After Albertville, the IOC was concerned about the size of the event and the dispersion of the athletes in the different mountain locations. However, about the increase of athletes, it will be complicated for the

host cities to propose an Olympic Village. Since Albertville, the Olympic event will become a new tool for the reconstruction of new territories and repositioning the cities in a winter tourism market¹⁴.

Albertville 1992

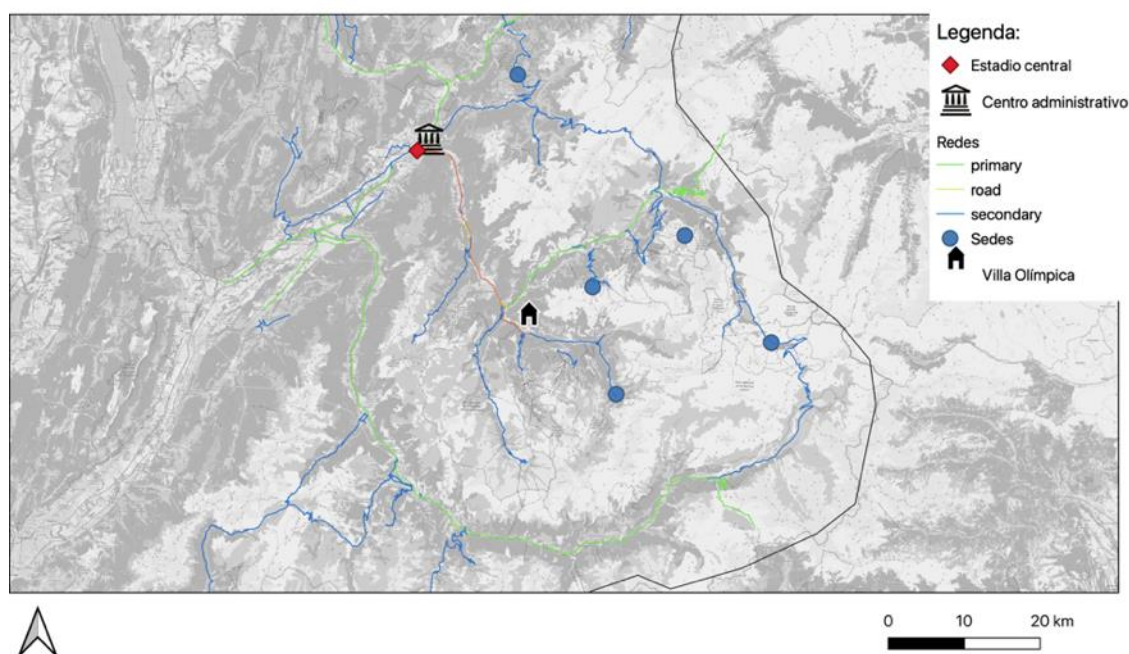


Figure 77 Spatial organisation in Albertville 1992 (Source: Own implementation)

Already at Lillehammer 1994, the organisers again introduced the topic of temporary accommodation structures for the athletes. In addition, the Organising Committee introduced the theme of sustainability and sustainable development through the provision of 185 removable wooden huts (COJO, 1994). The solution adopted by Lillehammer served as an inspiration for the entire Olympic movement and future cities. The Olympic Village in Lillehammer was dismantled in the post-event phase. Therefore, since Lillehammer, the theme of sustainability and environmental friendliness starts to become a key element for the winter edition. However, the large infrastructural transformations and the increasing scale of the event were compromising the environment and regional development of the candidate cities (Spilling, 1996). Lillehammer allowed the IOC to add sustainability as a third pillar of the Olympic movement. The next edition, Nagano 1998, proposed the construction of a new neighbourhood and new neighbouring sports facilities. This edition was included in the series of regional transformations that included the city in the new regional economy. The construction of the train line between Nagano and Tokyo will strongly change the economy of the city. The Nagano Olympic Village was planned on the outskirts of the city to be converted into private residences during the post-Olympic period. The Village was realised through the construction of 23 housing blocks between 2

¹⁴ The number of overnight stays increased from 100 000 in 1989 to 700 000 in 1995. Thus, in 1996, the financial situation of Brides was in line with expectations. The budget of the municipality increased from 15 million francs in 1992 to 25 million francs in 1996 (Sordet, 1996).

and 4 storeys high (COJO, 1998). Subsequently, Salt Lake in 2002, like the Calgary 1988 edition, proposed university-type accommodation solutions. In addition, the organisers developed new measures for environmental protection including new sustainable development processes for the event (OCOG, 2002). The Salt Lake project achieved the carbon reduction target for pollution abatement and the event was recognised as one of the most sustainable of all time.

Phase 5: Multiple Olympic Villages in a Regionalisation Context (2006-2022)

Subsequently, in the fifth phase, the Turin 2006 edition changed again the Olympic project and the spatial dimension of the event. The Turin edition will implement sustainable development practices through the application of a strategic assessment of environmental development throughout the Olympic process. The organisers put forward a new spatial model that included the metropolitan city as the venue for the ceremonies, the ice sports competitions and the main Olympic Villages and, on the other hand, proposed a spatial organisation in two tourist locations in the mountains: Bardonecchia and Sestriere. The layout of the three Olympic Villages and the spatial dimension of the Olympic event is intended to transform the territory permanently, encouraging the increase of winter tourism and the possibility of attracting new markets for the city. The Olympic Village was planned in a derelict area that was included in the development plan of the city of Turin and that in the post-Olympic period would become a mixed area: services, residences, shops and offices. However, the Turin Olympic Village never fully became a mixed area as it suffered from many structural problems, and in 2012 it was occupied by people waiting for political asylum. Meanwhile, the Olympic Villages in the mountain resort were intended to be converted into hotel accommodation and holiday flats. The realisation of the Olympic Village in Bardonecchia was included in a regional development plan through the financing of reconstruction and reconfiguration works of a 1930s building. Meanwhile, the Sestriere Olympic Village was built by a private company, which undertook the construction of the resort with the commitment to offer it free of charge to the organising committee during the Olympic event. Turin's transformations were emblematic of the regeneration and transformation of the new post-industrial metropolis processes. This strategy aimed to extend the benefits of the Olympic investment beyond the city, namely to the whole region, thanks to the possibility of improving skiing facilities and structures and extending the tourist season (Dansero, 2003). Therefore, the dimension of the winter event in the fourth phase will be transformed into a metropolitan event that will be inspirational for the reconstruction of the regional infrastructure.

Turin 2006

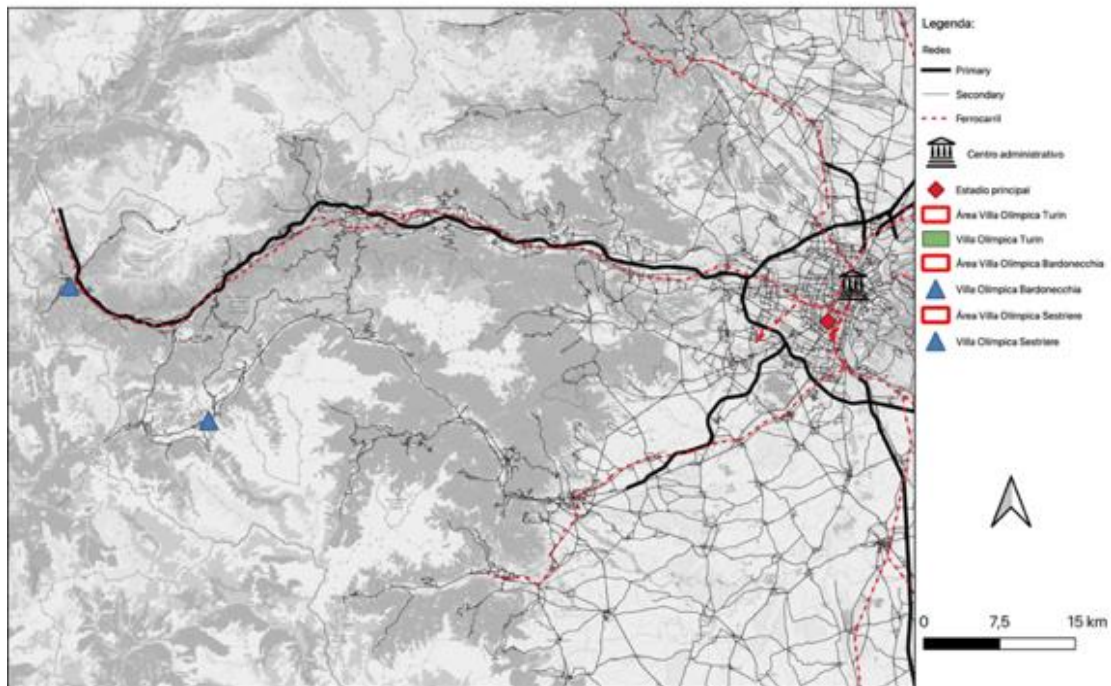


Figure 78 Spatial organisation in Turin 2006 (Source: Own implementation)

Vancouver 2010 advanced a new mixed funding model by introducing a new post-Olympic planning model that will be a tool for the promotion of long-term Olympic investments (VanWynsberghe, 2012). The City of Vancouver and the Organising Committee planned to build an Olympic Village in an area included in an urban redevelopment project. Thus, the realisation of the Olympic Village took place in a derelict area which, thanks to private participation, could be completed and offer new residential accommodation in the post-Olympic period. The new neighbourhood consisted of 37 buildings between 5 and 10-storeys high, in the post-Olympic period it has been reconfigured and transformed into a central space of the Vancouver metropolis (COJO, 2010). However, the Vancouver Olympic Village will manifest other problems related to Olympic housing speculation in the post-Olympic period (Scherer, 2011). The objective of developing mixed and market-rate housing was modified to provide only 10% of the planned 30%. In the post-Olympic period, rising rental prices led to an increase in evictions in the city (Essex, 2017). At the 2014 Games in Sochi, a spatial organisation was proposed that represented a key stage in the expansion of the new Olympic event in subtropical climate locations (Scott, 2015). The event was intended to develop a new territorial system through the construction of new tourist sites by planning multiple Olympic Villages connected with a railway system. Since Sochi the size of the event will continue to increase, becoming a strong stimulus for the transformation of the regional system. The event will undoubtedly cast new doubts on the respect and protection of the environment. The organisers proposed a solution based on three Olympic Villages.

A main Village near the ice venues and the ceremonial sites and two other Olympic Villages in the mountain sites. In total 99 new buildings of between 2 and 7 storeys were built (OCOG,2014). The Olympic Village in the city will be transformed into residences in the post-Olympic period, while the Olympic Villages in the mountains will be converted into hotels and resorts after the event, promoting tourism promotion of the site. However, the post-Olympic edition was widely criticised for the huge financial investment and the distances between the Olympic venues. Sochi continues to raise questions about post-Olympic development even today. PyeongChang and Beijing 2022 will be further editions that will use the Olympic Village as a tool for the promotion of sports tourism in mountain locations. PyeongChang provided a metropolitan *clustering* model with a sub-venue and two Olympic Villages that will be used as residential accommodation in the post-Olympic period, however, the residences in the mountain areas are still abandoned. On the other hand, Beijing 2022 will make the Chinese metropolis the first city in the world to host both summer and winter editions. This edition has been a key stage in the metropolitan and regional dimensions of the Winter Olympics. The spatial model is strongly inspired by the dimensions of Turin 2006 by the organization of three Olympic Villages in a regional territory. The main Olympic Village was built in an area bordering the summer Olympic Village and, in the post-Olympic period, will be offered as residences by public tender. Meanwhile, the Olympic Villages in the mountain villages were built to become tourist accommodations in the post-Olympic period.

Beijing 2022

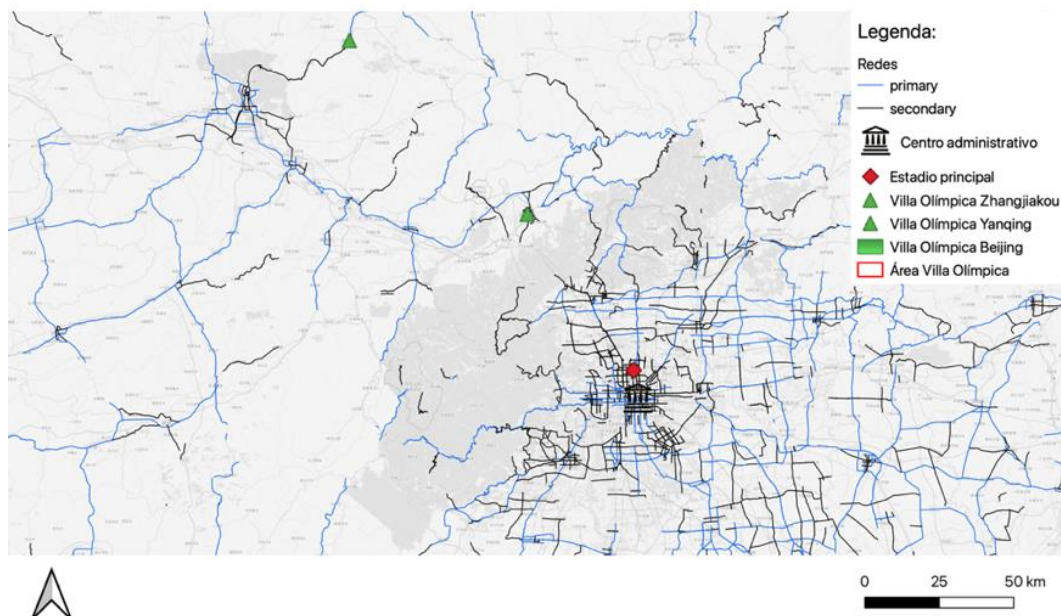


Figure 79 Spatial organisation in Beijing 2022 (Source: Own implementation)

Phase 6: Tool for infrastructural development of tourism sites. Multiple cities, multiple regions (2026-Future)

The distance between the metropolis and the Olympic venues will reach 115.63 km on average and will promote a new form of Olympic development as a precursor to the joint bid of Milan-Cortina in 2026 and the possible allocation of Barcelona-Pyrenees in 2030. Beijing will be the beginning of a new era for ephemeral bids, which will use the metropolis only as a promotional tool for the allocation of the event and the exploitation of tourism and service-related benefits. Therefore, the metropolitan Olympic Village has become a fundamental element in the planning of housing in the future metropolises of the world, inscribing itself in the new urban dynamics of consumer societies. In addition, the Milan-Cortina 2026 edition will see the inclusion of three different regions of the North-East area of Italy through the organisation of two main cities and 13 secondary venues. Such a dimension will lead to a new evolution of the winter event, becoming a new tool for the organisation of the economy of almost 1/5 of a whole country. Moreover, the development of new infrastructures will be a new challenge for the candidate cities. The following facts to be observed, the candidature of Barcelona and Pyrenees for the 2030 edition, allows us to identify the new extra-territorial dimension that the Winter Olympics will be able to reach.

Phase I	1924-1948	Mountain locations Temporary accommodation	Prospects for the creation of an Olympic Village Existing sports facilities Use of hotels and resorts
Phase II	1952-1964	Cities with more than 100,000 inhabitants Permanent accommodation	Construction of the Olympic Village Different areas for the celebration of the event Developing a public policy for Olympic accommodation Growing interest in winter sports
Phase III	1968-1988	Regional expansion Residential accommodation	Encouragement for the creation of new sports facilities Development of the infrastructural system for the transfer of athletes.

			<p>The foundations are laid for the development of residential accommodation in the post-Olympic phase.</p> <p>New transformation model</p>
Phase IV	1992-2002	<p>Increase in Olympic space</p> <p>Tourism development tool</p>	<p>Increase of competitions and athletes</p> <p>Construction of multiple Olympic Villages</p> <p>New housing solutions (universities, demountable)</p> <p>Olympic space organised in multiple locations</p> <p>Respect for the environment</p>
Phase V	2006-2022	<p>Olympic Village in the city and Olympic Villages at competition venues</p> <p>Stimulus for the transformation of the regional system</p> <p>Metropolis</p>	<p>Main Olympic Village in the metropolitan city</p> <p>Mixed economy for the construction of the residences in the mountain places</p> <p>The Olympic Village as a tool for the promotion of sports tourism in mountain areas</p> <p>Increased emphasis on environmental protection and the sustainable development</p> <p>Legacy begins to enter into post-Olympic planning</p>
Phase VI	2026 - Future	<p>Multiple Olympic cities</p> <p>Multiple regions</p>	<p>Regional development</p> <p>Tool for the reorganisation of the economy of the Olympic area</p> <p>Creation of new mixed accommodation solutions</p> <p>Development of new infrastructure for the transport of Olympic athletes</p>

Table 33 Stages of the Olympic Villages at the Winter Olympics (Source: Own implementation)

5.2.8. Spatial models of the Winter Olympic Villages

The following stages represent the evolution of the major urban and territorial transformations of the host cities. Historically, the Winter Olympic Villages have been integrated into a territorial development policy and have evolved as major elements in a reconfiguration of regional strategies. In general, we can state that the model of accommodation for athletes with competitions in mountain areas is still indispensable. However, the Olympic Village model in mountain areas continues to evolve through a conception of tourism development in Olympic sites. Meanwhile, the Candidate City housing model has asserted itself as a key element in the organisation of multiple Olympic Villages. The decentralised model is one of the most widely used models for the strategic development of the Olympic Village in the city. However, recent experiences allow us to observe how the consideration of the Olympic housing project in the central fabric of the cities has evolved. On the other hand, the peripheral *cluster* model is recognised as one of the most used models to provide different accommodations in a territorial dimension that was expanding. The analysis of the Olympic Villages within regional transformations can help to observe the evolution of the winter event dimension in the context of the regional expansion of the host cities. Winter Olympic cities have become global metropolises that can propose new infrastructures for an ephemeral connection of the mountain space and the metropolitan city. Today, cities should reconsider the new dimension achieved and rethink solutions in a dynamic and open space that can be modified in a participatory way. In the evaluation of the Olympic Village, no model or reference scheme can be identified, but a trend of regional expansion of the world's largest metropolises can be observed. However, climate, temperature and landscape constraints do not seem to be key criteria for hosting the winter event. Moreover, the Sochi 2014 event has shown that it is possible to organise a winter event in locations with a subtropical climate and no historical value in terms of sporting venues. The following illustration shows the different territorial models adopted by the host cities. Subsequently, we will see a classification of the Olympic Villages regarding their territorial dimension.

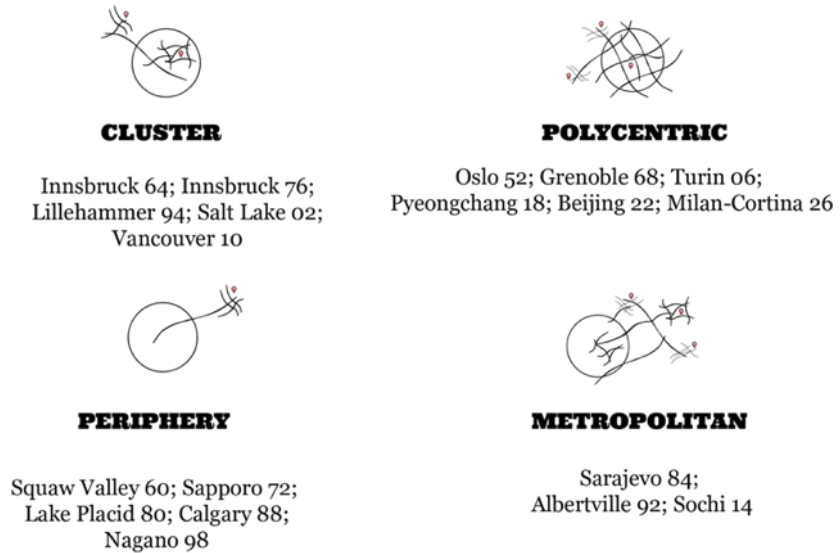


Figure 80 Spatial models of Olympic Village at the Winter Olympics (Source: Own implementation)

5.3. Considerations on the urban strategies of the Olympic Village

The evolution and conception of Olympic urban planning represented by the Olympic Village during the 20th century allow us to observe the evolution of different urban, regional and metropolitan strategies that have disproportionately increased the spatial dimension and characteristics of the first editions of the event. Since the Second World War, the Olympic Village has become a key element in the promotion of housing that will be permanently included in the host territory. However, the spatial dimensions of the two editions and the functions of the Olympic Village have continued and continue to evolve regarding the housing requirements of the host cities. Therefore, the Olympic Village is constituted as an element of its own that does not only function as a place of temporary accommodation, but will be permanently inscribed in the territory in the different urban strategies of each host city. As we have seen in the previous sections, the Olympic Villages of the last two editions have become private residences in the post-Olympic period. The construction of temporary housing or tourist accommodation does not seem to be the first choice of the organising committees. Undoubtedly, since the experiences of Barcelona (1992), Turin (2006) and London (2012), the Olympic Village is an urban element that must be included in the strategic planning of the different programmes for the reconstruction and redefinition of urban functions. Therefore, using cartographic

representations, a classification of the Olympic Villages according to their character and post-Olympic evolution in terms of uses is advanced.

Table 34 Examples of classification according to the character of each Olympic Village (Source: Own implementation)

<i>SUMMER OLYMPIC VILLAGES</i>		<i>WINTER OLYMPIC VILLAGES</i>	
<i>PERMANENT</i>	<i>TEMPORARY</i>	<i>PERMANENT</i>	<i>TEMPORARY</i>
1. <i>Berlin 1936</i>	1. Paris 1924	1. Oslo 1952	1. Lake placid 1980 (prison)
2. <i>Helsinki 1952</i>	2. Los Angeles 1932	2. Squaw valley 1960	2. Calgary 1988 (university)
3. <i>Melbourne 1956</i>	3. Tokyo 1964	3. Innsbruck 1964	3. Albertville 1992
4. <i>Rome 1960</i>	4. Los Angeles 1984 (university)	4. Grenoble 1968	4. Lillehammer 1994
5. <i>México 1968</i>	5. Atlanta 1996 (university)	5. Sapporo 1972	5. Salt Lake 2002 (university)
6. <i>Monaco 1972</i>		6. Innsbruck 1976	
7. <i>Montreal 1976</i>		7. Sarajevo 1984	
8. <i>Moscow 1980</i>		8. Nagano 1998	
9. <i>Seoul 1988</i>		9. Turin 2006	
10. <i>Barcelona 1992</i>		10. Vancouver 2010	
11. <i>Sydney 2000</i>		11. Sochi 2014	
12. <i>Athens 2004</i>		12. PyeongChang 2018	
13. <i>Bejing 2008</i>		13. Beijing 2022	
14. <i>London 2012</i>			
15. <i>Rio 2016</i>			
16. <i>Tokyo 2020</i>			

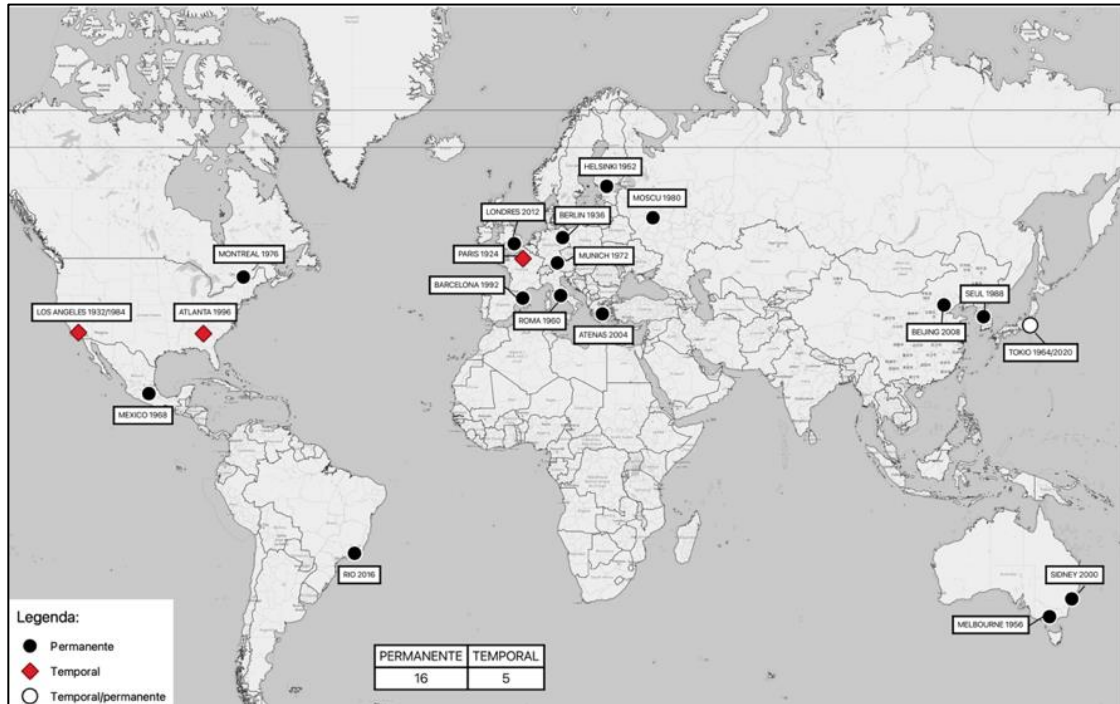


Figure 82 Classification of Summer Olympic Villages according to character (Source: Own implementation)

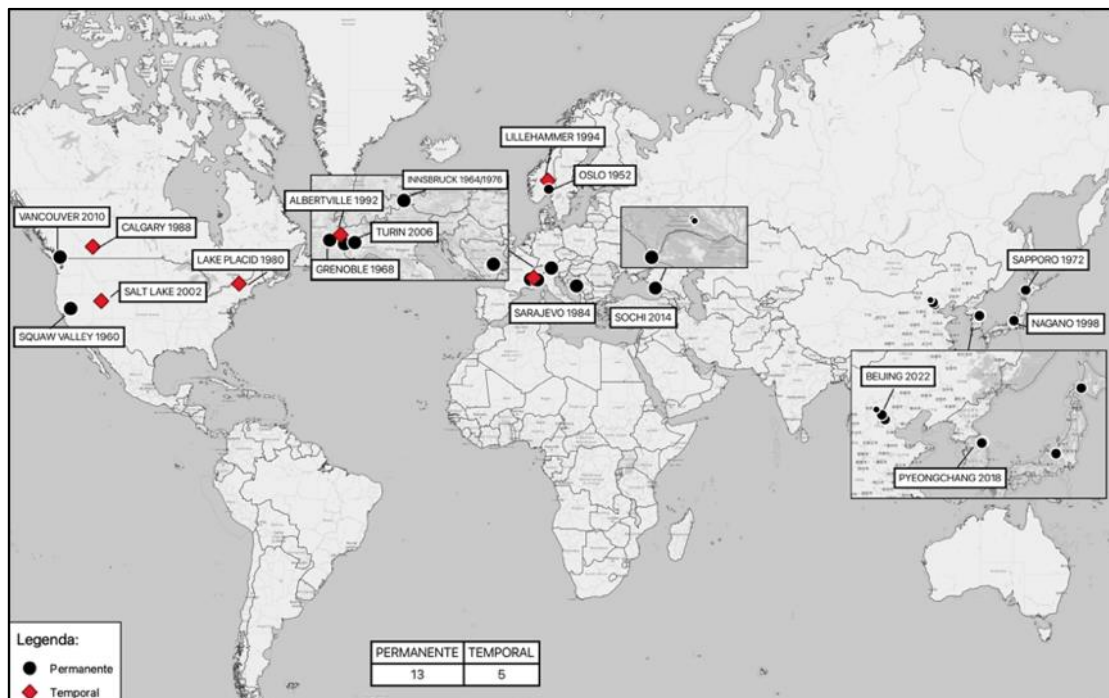


Figure 81 Classification of Winter Olympic Villages according to character (Source: Own implementation)

Table 35 Examples of classification according to the ex-post evolution of the games (Source: Own implementation)

<i>SUMMER OLYMPIC VILLAGES</i>		<i>WINTER OLYMPIC VILLAGES</i>	
<i>REUSE</i>	<i>ABANDONED</i>	<i>REUSE</i>	<i>ABANDONED</i>
1. Helsinki 1952	1. Berlin 1936	1. Oslo 1952	1. Sarajevo 1984
2. Melbourne 1956	2. Athens 2004	2. Squaw valley 1960	2. Torino 2006 (inner city)
3. Rome 1960	3. Rio 2016	3. Innsbruck 1964	
4. Mexico 1968		4. Grenoble 1968	
5. Monaco 1972		5. Sapporo 1972	
6. Montreal 1976		6. Innsbruck 1976	
7. Moscow 1980		7. Lake placid 1980 (prison)	
8. Los Angeles 1984		8. Calgary 1988 (University)	
9. Seoul 1988		9. Albertville 1992	
10. Barcelona 1992		10. Lillehammer 1994	
11. Atlanta 1996		11. Nagano 1998	
12. Sydney 2000		12. Salt Lake 2002 (University)	
13. Beijing 2008		13. Torino 2006	
14. London 2012		14. Vancouver 2010	
15. Tokyo 2020		15. Sochi 2014	



Figure 83 Olympic Village in Turin 2006(Source: Personal archive)

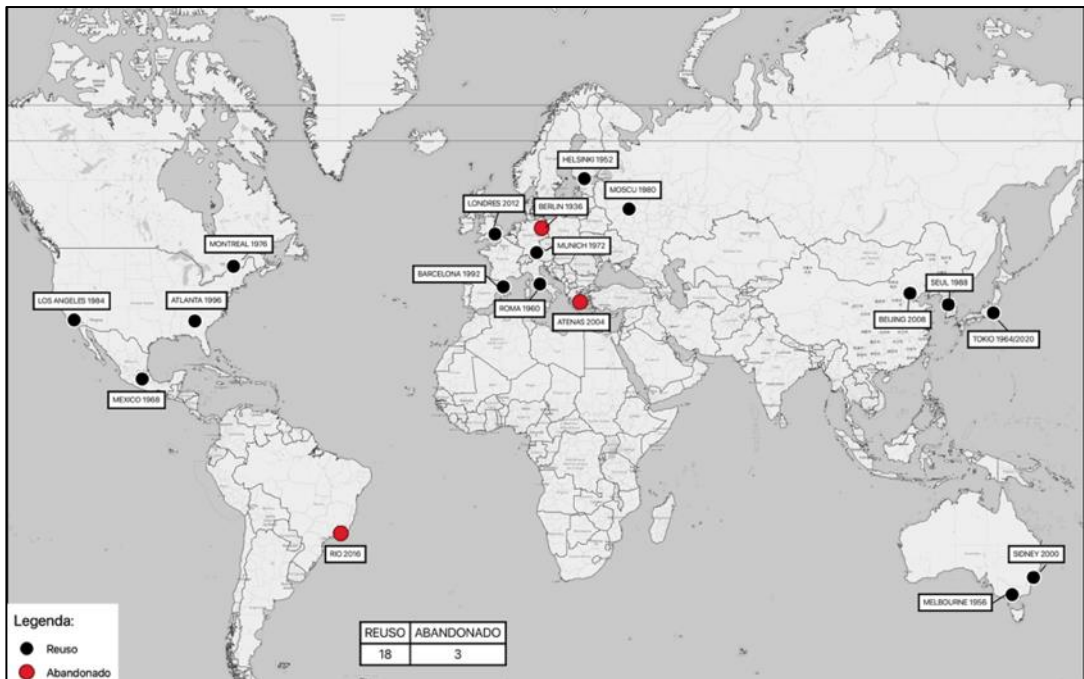
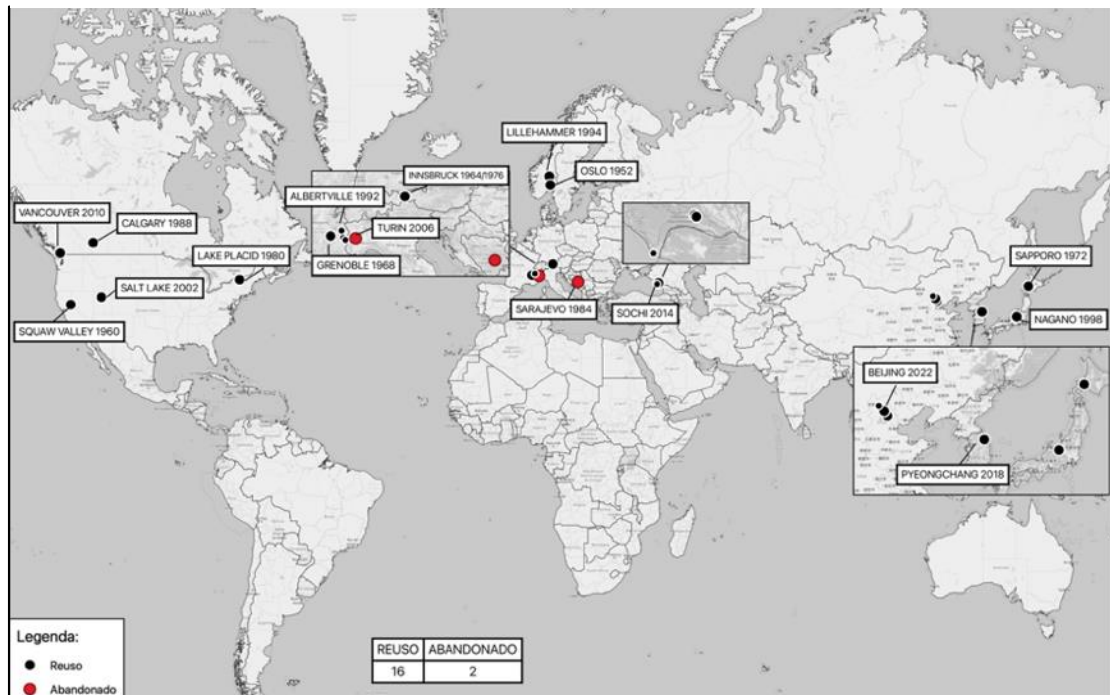


Figure 84 Ranking of Summer Olympic Villages according to post-Olympic evolution (Source: Own implementation)

Figure 85 Classification of Winter Olympic Villages according to post-Olympic evolution (Source: Own implementation)



5.4. The formal language of Olympic housing through the 20th and 21st centuries

In the following section, we will see a classification of the Olympic Villages built in the 20th century in consideration of their building typologies and their formal language.

Thus, the first dwellings were conceived through single-family solutions or wooden huts reminiscent of the suburban dwellings observed in the 19th century. The idea of the garden city or suburban neighbourhood about the organisation of the territory was introduced in the first decades of the 1900s to explore a new scientific methodology in the planning of our cities. In the second phase, the concept of multi-family dwellings built according to the rationalist theories of the CIAM was introduced. Subsequently, the approach of the Olympic project to the city centre implied the reconsideration of spaces and the reconversion of abandoned spaces. Munich in 1972 can be considered as a great example of the following typology of development. Meanwhile, the Olympic Villages of Mexico 1968, Moscow 1980 and Rio 2016 are characterised by the construction of large housing complexes based on the implementation of peripheral projects organised in high-rise housing blocks. Finally, the other two groups of Olympic Villages built at the end of the 20th century will be analysed. In comparison with the other groups, the Olympic Villages of Moscow 1980, Seoul 1988 and Barcelona 1992 were included in a plan for the renovation of the cities, while the Olympic Villages of Los Angeles 1984 will be an ephemeral project for the Olympic event.

Satellite City and Garden City

The Olympic Villages of Los Angeles 1932 and Berlin 1936 show the application of the idea of the garden city for the urban and territorial organisation of the peripheral space of the metropolis. In addition, the Berlin Olympic Village shows an element of modernity through the application of the principles of the *Bauhaus* school. On the other hand, Los Angeles exhibits a housing unit that respects the significant prefabrication concept of the first decades of the 20th century. The idea of the Berlin Olympic Village made it possible to reflect on the rationalisation of interior and exterior spaces through the conception of an efficient and effective dwelling.



Figure 86 Berlin Olympic Village 1936 (Source: COJO,1936)

Rationalism and functionalism

After the post-war experiences characterised by ephemeral and rapid realisation, the 1960s were a fundamental moment for the application of the functionalist ideas of Le Corbusier and CIAM. The separation of functions in the territory, the importance of housing, green spaces, commerce, health and sporting facilities will determine the evolution of the building typologies of the Olympic Villages of Rome, Mexico and Moscow. The Olympic Villages of the 1960s will be planned through the proposals of modern urbanism, characterised by new elements such as leisure and public space (Modrey, 2008). In the case of Rome in 1960, the Olympic Village introduces the functionalist elements of the greatest Italian architects, adding the *pilots* and defining the height and regularity of the façades. In addition, the rationalist theory allows the addition of other fundamental parameters such as the quality of the air, the condition of the light and the organisation of the interior space. The Olympic Village in Rome can be defined as

a small *Villa Radieuse* that introduced architectural and urbanistic elements from the fundamentals used for planning. The Olympic Villages of Mexico in 1968 represented new modernity and were strongly influenced by European proposals about the housing situation and the lack of space in central areas occupied by factories. Therefore, the Mexico project reflects the ambition to develop new self-sufficient neighbourhoods in new areas, through standardisation of construction. It should be noted that the proposals for Moscow in 1980 and Rio in 2016 reflect the modernist typology observed in México.



Figure 87 Rome 1960 Olympic Village (Source: COJO,1960)

Centrality and radicalism

The Olympic Village typologies of the 1970s show different applications within contemporary architecture. New visions of urban design and the reorganisation of the centralities of major European cities will introduce a new urban design, which includes leisure and service areas, sports facilities and housing in the organisation of residential units. The concept of the leisure city and the reconsideration of central spaces can be seen in the Olympic Villages of Munich and Montreal. Munich integrated into a huge urban park and Montreal into a *brutalist* mega-structure that included all functions in four large pyramidal buildings. The two Olympic Villages will therefore be integrated into the urban functions while maintaining their autonomous characteristics and can be reproduced elsewhere.

Postmodernity and the ephemeral place

As we have noted above, the Olympic Villages of the 1980s and 1990s form the basis for new interventions and different forms of expression. The Villas of Seoul, Barcelona and Moscow have many elements in common regarding urban renewal and strategic planning. The realisation of new Villas in an era of postmodernity allows local elements to merge with global elements to be massively incorporated into the city (Dickson, 2005).

Furthermore, in the postmodern era, the Olympic Village is configured as central urbanism and as a catalyst for other proposals. The architecture of the Village becomes a new proposal for the transformation of the place in consideration of time and new architectural forms and technologies. Undoubtedly, in this post-modern stage, the Olympic Villages will be strategically added to the central fabrics of the host metropolises. Only in Athens 2004 and Rio 2016 will we observe two formal expressions reminiscent of past experiences that do not seem to be the best option for urban regeneration and post-Olympic use.



Figure 88 London 2012 Olympic Village (Source: COJO,2012)

Finally, the Olympic Villages of Los Angeles 1984 and Atlanta 1996 represent a recycling solution for the infrastructure available for use by Olympic operations. As we have observed, Olympic Villages have evolved throughout history using different models and different construction typologies in different areas of the host cities. The structural changes in each city have allowed them to implement some practices to understand the leisure and recreational demands of the post-war population.

In conclusion, the different models observed can help to reflect on the development of our cities and the evolution of places of consumption by athletes and citizens. The garden city or a peripheral city do not seem to be solutions in line with the Olympic times and the ideas of post-modernity. The abandonment of Athens and Rio helps us to appreciate the importance of post-Olympic planning in order not to leave abandoned spaces, in bye times in which we live, as the right to housing is fundamental. The evolution of the event and the spectacular station of sport have provoked a rethinking of the main spaces and the construction of new places of consumption in the historic areas of the cities. The experiences of Los Angeles and Paris represent the alter ego of the city, a small ephemeral, demountable and temporary dimension that over the years has been transformed into an element with its own urban identity, capable of catalysing new buildings and new housing

proposals. In the future, therefore, we will see a new struggle between citizens and organisers for community consideration and participation in planning.

5.5. The permanent transformation of the Olympic Village

The Olympic Games have become prestigious promotional circuits (Wernick, 1991) that occupy a central place in the urban redevelopment and regeneration strategies of cities that aspire to "*strengthen the competitive position of their metropolitan economies in a context of rapidly changing local, national and global competitive conditions*" (Swyngedouw, 2002).

Since the 1992 Barcelona Olympics, cities have begun to transform themselves through new processes that have accelerated urban development, redefining new spaces and revaluing industrial or underdeveloped spaces. The construction of Barcelona's sprawling Olympic Village on the seafront has turned these temporary housing developments into lucrative elements of new communities through the use of welfare promotion and a new consumerist lifestyle. Barcelona's Olympic Village is recognised as the first housing project to be developed through mixed financing. However, these new housing projects showed a new negotiation strategy between public officials and real estate companies. The transfer of a public area, in this case, the entire Olympic area, into the hands of a private company for financial exploitation implies a revaluation of the democratic principles of transparency and community participation in urban planning (Lenskyj, 2012; Owen, 2002). In such a way, the revaluation of the areas will be a joint project between public administrations and private companies installed in the urban fabric. The organisation of housing has once again become the main element of the host city's infrastructural projects. Moreover, public-private participation is justified as a way of financing that will entail less risk for the candidate cities. However, the projects have been transformed into an element of real estate speculation around the newly developed areas that will be permanently inscribed into the urban fabric. Ideally, these transformation processes should be provided through shared planning between all entities, which will be affected by changes in the intended use of the areas. In addition, continuous and accurate information about changes in Olympic projects will facilitate discussions and reduce the risk of failure of the Olympic project. A widely shared project will be less risky for the organisers and the IOC. Moreover, there is no guarantee that informal public referendum processes will fulfil the political commitments that have been made during the Olympic designation process. However, there is a demand for a broader public dialogue on decisions related to housing developments through public resources. Allowing citizens to participate in a debate can ensure different interpretations of the public good.

5.6. Future Olympic Villages

After the London 2012 edition, the Olympic Village has been transformed into a new, more complex multifunctional space, as well as including housing, services and offices, the space is made up of commercial areas, sports parks and a cinema. The location of the Olympic Village except Rio de Janeiro has been included in central areas that were redefined for the exploration of new elements in the new service economy of cities. The inclusion of mixed housing and office space translates into a new development model for the Olympic Villages of the future. In addition, the inclusion of new sports facilities around the new neighbourhood will provide and promote a new healthy lifestyle in the Olympic neighbourhoods. Over time, we have observed how the Olympic Village was a place centred on sport, favouring the interaction of athletes in a new environment. However, over the editions, the Olympic Village has been transformed into an element of utilising new potential areas for the exploitation of new values in the community. The Sydney and Beijing Olympic Villages were promoters of a new relationship between housing and nature, sensitising future candidate cities with sustainable solutions. As such, it is difficult to highlight the challenges that will face the planners of the Athletes' Villages in the future. There is no ideal model that can be replicated in all cities. However, there are similar solutions that exist between Olympic editions. In Olympic history, candidate cities have been inspired by models from previous editions. Undoubtedly, the application of each model will be strongly related to the socio-economic and urban context of each city. The planning of a new Olympic district today implies an average size of 0.10 km² and a provision of 5,000 dwellings for three or four people each. In addition, the future Olympic Village will have to include different services, infrastructures and other elements that require the planning of a new neighbourhood. Therefore, modern Olympic Villages have been transformed into new neighbourhoods that can accommodate between 15,000 and 20,000 people, involving the provision of all the primary and secondary services for the configuration of a new social fabric. The construction of a hospital, a church and a school are just some of the new elements that should be included in the post-Olympic planning.



Figure 89 Paris 2024 Olympic Village Project (Source: COJO,2024)

So, what will happen to the Olympic Villages of the future - will they be just property speculation projects or will they be the promoters of a new housing strategy in the host cities?

The projects of Paris 2024, Milan-Cortina 2026, Los Angeles 2028, and Brisbane 2032, have provided a model of an Olympic Village in a central area that constitutes a mixed space for the hosting of the events. However, as we have noted above, the winter event involves the organisation of multiple Olympic Villages over a wider territory. Therefore, the construction of an Olympic Village in central areas will provoke a rethink in the construction of the new Olympic neighbourhoods, as they will be included in the existing infrastructural system, being permanently inscribed in the fabric of the city. Thus, the Olympic Village has been transformed into a sports neighbourhood that in the post-Olympic period will become an area possibly subject to real estate speculation due to the interest in sustainable areas and new housing in an environment of green spaces. The reduction of green space in our contemporary metropolis implies an increased interest by developers to plan the Olympic Village in areas that are more attractive for luxury housing.



Figure 90 Los Angeles Olympic Village Project 2028 (Source: COJO,2028)

5.7. Olympic regionalisation

As we have observed in the preceding sections, the different mono/polycentric forms of the Olympic territory are the result of a process of evolution of the Olympic space over time. The new spatial dimension of a functional urban region can be defined as a temporary area where members and participants exercise their functions through movement in the target territory. The Olympic venues in the Olympic space will be the places of temporary production and consumption in the function of the event itself. In this new spatial dimension, the transport system will be the main element of the spatial transformations of these places, allowing the redefinition of larger areas, which will be able to re-establish their functions in a regional territory (Kovac, 2002). Thus, the spatial dimension has reached a new dimension which implies a redefinition and reorganisation of the public transport system in the host cities.

The new dimension of the territory of the Olympic region offers more possibilities in the winter edition than in the summer one. The Winter Olympic Games offer new projects that can implement the regional strategies of each territory, offering many possibilities to the local communities included in the Olympic project. After Beijing in 2002, the spatial dimension of the winter edition reached its maximum spatial dimension through the creation of new infrastructures, permanently transforming the regional territory. The improvement of the transport system and the possibilities induced by the structural transformations in the Olympic territory make it possible to find new opportunities for the local development of the host territories. The new possibilities must indeed be founded on the collaboration and participation of the citizens to obtain a tangible advantage for the population (Acioly, 2020). Therefore, the Olympic territory can be a catalyst for important infrastructural transformations leading to new forms of regionalisation in which increasing importance for local communities is recognised.



Figure 91 Spatial organisation of the Milano-Cortina edition in 2026 (Source: COJO,2026)

6. Results of the research on the evolution of the Olympic Villages

Abstract

The following chapter will analyse the 21 summer and 18 winter Olympic Villages using the common parameters identified in the methodology. The longitudinal analysis of the Olympic Villages will help us in the observation of the different spatial patterns given in the different summer and winter editions. This chapter will also show the results of the quantitative interview with different Olympic experts about Olympic urbanism. Finally, the statistical analysis and the factor analysis of the quantitative interviews are presented to determine common parameters that emerged in the analysis.

6.1. Evolution of Olympic Village models developed over the course of Olympic history

The following section allows us to look at some comparative parameters to deepen the quantitative analysis of the Olympic Village and its development in the host cities. The graphical representations are accompanied by a brief description of the Olympic editions.

About the variables considered, the following list has been used to provide an optimal characterisation of each of the Olympic Villages:

- The population of the city.
- The capacity of the Olympic Village (n. of inhabitants).
- A number of buildings.
- Height of buildings.
- Typology of buildings.
- Urban density.
- Occupied area.
- Residential area.
- International area (public spaces).
- Distance from the main stadium.
- Distance from the administrative centre of the city.
- Ownership of the area before the Olympic Games.
- Post-Olympic use.
- Heritage value (financing).
- Current value.

Through the variables chosen, some considerations will be provided on the future evolution of Olympic Village spatial patterns in the host cities.

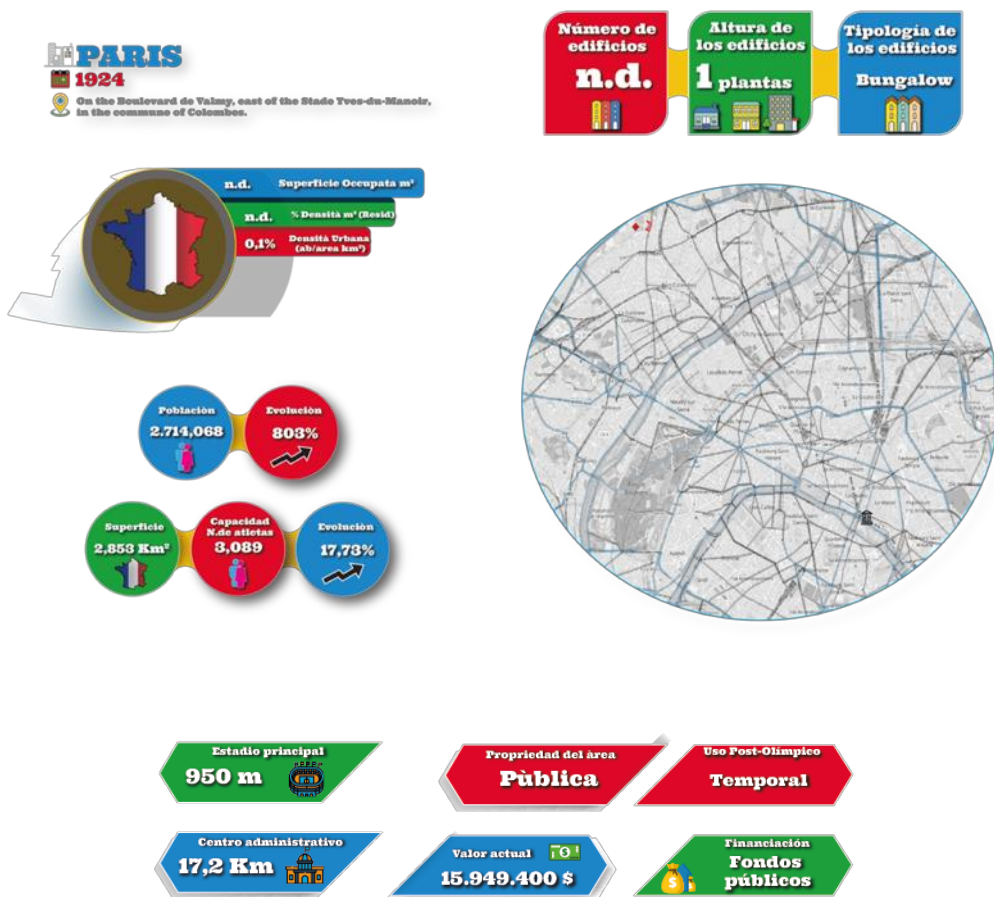
6.1.1. The evolution and validity of an urban model

Before going deeper into the individual Summer Olympic Villages, it is specified that the following analysis was carried out to specifically analyse the Olympic Villages through their spatial dimension and characteristics. Therefore, the Olympic Villages analysed will be the following:

1. Paris 1924	13. Seoul 1988
2 Los Angeles 1932	
3. Berlin 1936	
4. Helsinki 1952	14. Barcelona 1992
5. Melbourne 1956	15. Atlanta 1996
6. Rome 1960	16. Sydney 2000
7. Tokyo 1964	
8. Mexico 1968	17. Athens 2004
9. Munich 1972	18. Beijing 2008
10. Montreal 1976	19. London 2012
11. Moscow 1980	20. Rio 2016
12. Los Angeles 1984	21. Tokyo 2020

Paris 1924

The Paris Olympic Village is recognised as the first model of housing at the Olympic Games by proposing a temporary solution using wooden huts that were dismantled during the post-event period. The Olympic Village was planned close to the main stadium and included the first shared services, such as the post office, a telegraph and telephone service, a laundry, a newspaper kiosk and a hairdressing salon¹. The structure had running water and communal dining facilities for the participants.



¹ *Les jeux de la VIIIe Olympiade Paris 1924: rapport officiel*, Comité olympique français, Paris: Librairie de France, 1924, pp. 51, 60-61, 799-800.

Los Angeles 1932

The concept of the Los Angeles Olympic Village was strongly inspired by the materials and temporality of the wooden structures seen in the first Olympic Village, but with an entirely new spatial conception. The Olympic Village was planned on a peripheral site that was a catalyst for the process of expansion of the Los Angeles metropolis. The Village included a hospital, a fire station, a security service, a post office, a telephone network and an open-air amphitheatre for 2,000 people². During the post-Olympic period, the Village was dismantled. The Los Angeles edition was the inspiration for the creation of a new Olympic quarter in addition to the Olympic Plaza, the current site of the medal ceremony.



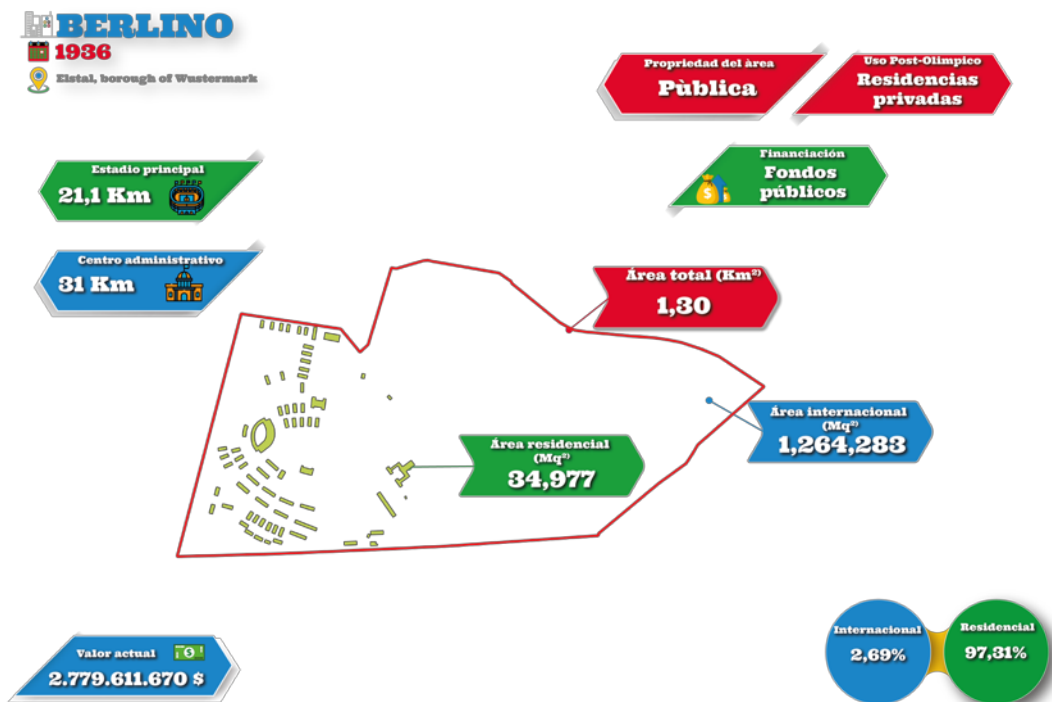
² *The Games of the Xth Olympiad Los Angeles 1932: Official Report*, Los Angeles: The Xth Olympiad Committee of the Games of Los Angeles, 1933, pp. 157, 187-190, 235-296.

Berlin 1936

The Berlin Olympic Village was built on the experience of Los Angeles in 1932, as it represented a great success for the American Organising Committee. The planning and construction of the Olympic Village had great political relevance for the promotion of the ideals of Nazi Germany and the exaltation of the philosophies of the German sports school. The concept of the Berlin Olympic Village can be seen through the utopian concepts of the socialists of the second half of the 19th century. A new sports quarter was created on an area of 55 hectares with all training facilities, a sports hall as well as religious services, a railway station, a post office, etc. The Olympic Village was intended as a satellite city of 5000 inhabitants to be re-used as military accommodation in the post-Olympic period. Today, however, the Olympic Village is abandoned and has been converted into an open-air museum. To house the athletes of the sailing and rowing events, two more temporary Olympic Villages were planned in Kiel and Granau³.



³ *The XIth Olympic Games Berlin, 1936: Official Report*, Berlin: W. Limpert, 1937, vol.1, pp. 47, 50, 56, 79, 166-248; Werner Gärtner, *The Olympic Village: guide to Olympic dwellings: plan, construction, administration, Village organization: homes for lady competitors, the Comradeship House, Reich Sport Field: for oarsmen, at Koepenick, the Schloss and other buildings: for yachtsmen, at Kiel*, Organizing Committee for the XIth Olympiad Berlin 1936, 1936, pp. 8- 25.



Helsinki 1952

The concept of the 1952 Helsinki Olympic Village was strongly linked to population growth and demands for new accommodation. Therefore, the planning of the Olympic Village was linked to the construction of a new residential neighbourhood. The Village was close to the Olympic stadium, sports facilities, hospital, cinema, bank and all services in general. In the post-Olympic period, the neighbourhood became a residential area for 5,000 people⁴. However, some hotels and military residences were used to house the women's teams and the teams of the former USSR. The Helsinki Olympic Village was an inspiration for the creation of a new residential neighbourhood in a central area of a medium-sized metropolis.

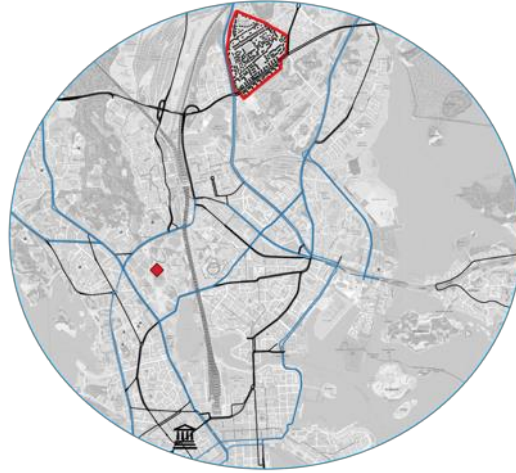
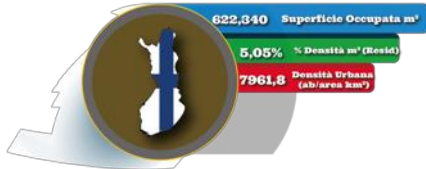
⁴ OCHG, "New Olympic Village under construction", *Official News-Service: XV Olympiad*, Helsinki: Organising Committee for the Helsinki Games 1952, n.6, December 1950, p. 3.; *The official report of the Organising Committee for the Games of the XV Olympiad*, Sulo Kolkka [ed.], Porvoo; Helsinki: W. Söderström, 1955, pp. 84-102.

HELSINKI
1952
 Häpylä, Helsinki

Número de edificios
130

Altura de los edificios
4-5 plantas

Tipología de los edificios
Residencial



HELSINKI
1952
 Häpylä, Helsinki

Propiedad del área
Pública

Uso Post-Olimpico
Residencias privadas



Financiación
Fondos públicos

Área total (Km²)
0,62
 Evolución del área -92,10%

Área residencial (Mq²)
98,107

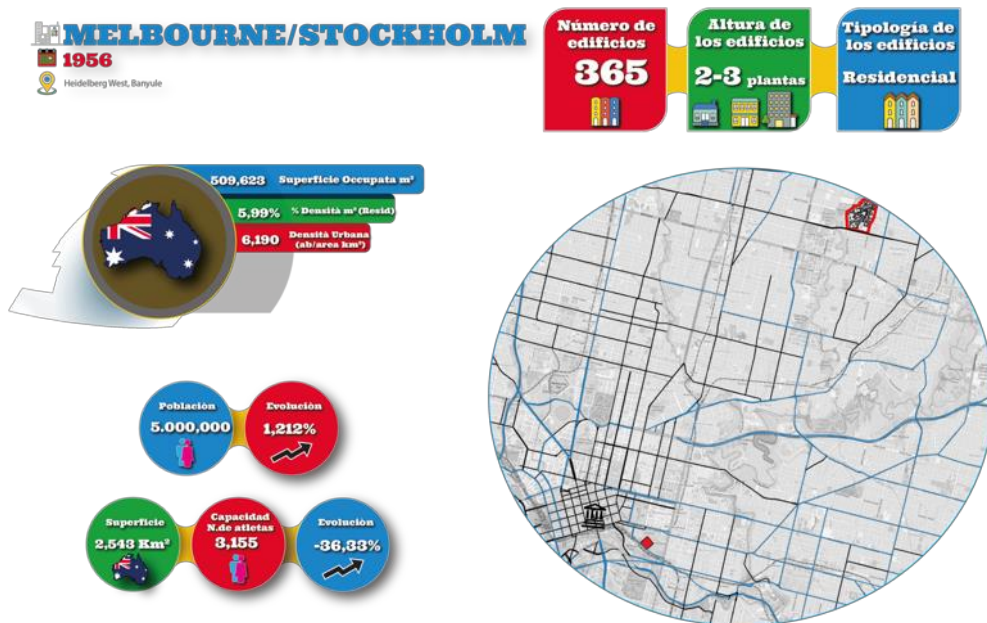
Valor actual
78.092.500 \$

Área internacional (Mq²)
524,233



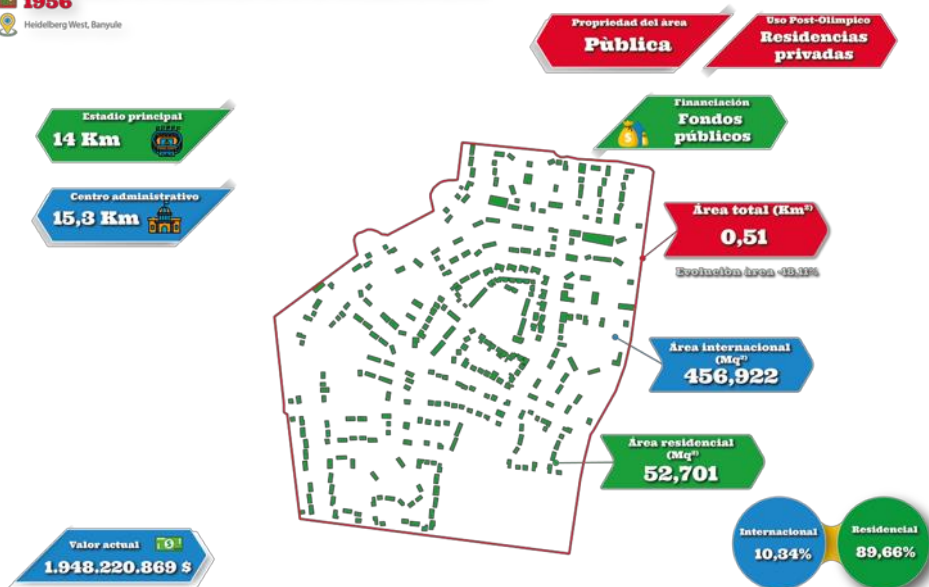
Melbourne 1956

The construction of the Melbourne Olympic Village follows the same philosophy observed in Helsinki. A new Olympic quarter with its master plan response to the accommodation needs of the citizens in the city of Heidelberg. Thanks to public funds, other temporary and permanent annexes could be built. The Village included different types of houses and buildings for the post-Olympic conversion. In addition, the general plan foresaw some services such as a medical centre, training areas, a canteen, a post office, restaurants, shops and other functional facilities to enhance the experience of the Olympic athletes. The Melbourne edition foresaw the use of another temporary Olympic Village in Ballarat for the sailing competitions and Stockholm for the horse competitions⁵. The Melbourne Olympic Village still exists and continues to function as residential accommodation. In addition, between 2005 and 2013 the suburb was included in an urban renewal programme supported by the Australian government.



⁵ The official report of the Organizing Committee for the Games of the XVI Olympiad Melbourne 1956, Melbourne: Organizing Committee for the Games of the XVI Olympiad, 1958, pp. 121-137.

MELBOURNE/STOCKHOLM
1956
 Heidelberg West, Banyule

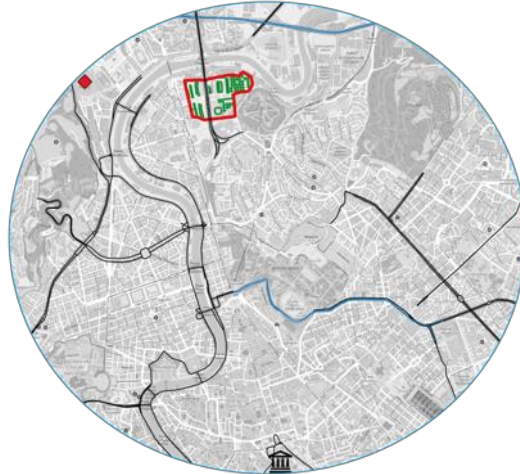
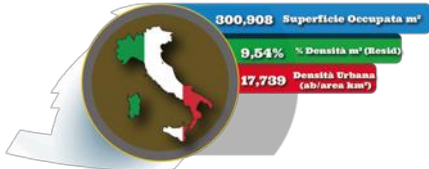


Rome 1960

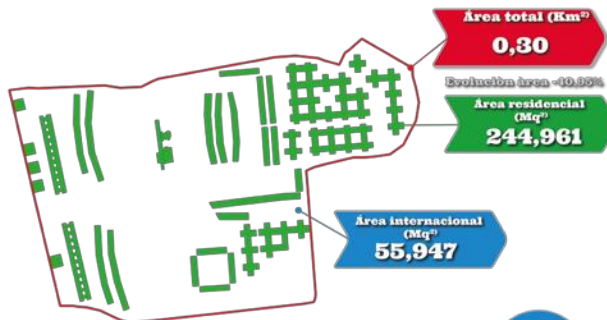
The construction of the 1960 Rome Olympic Village was included in the general plan for the expansion of the metropolitan city through a rationalist philosophy of Italian architecture. The Olympic quarter was intended to be converted into residential accommodation in the post-Olympic period and still exists today. The concept of the Olympic Village included some sports facilities, services, functional areas and proximity to the Foro Italico, the main venue of the Rome event⁶. The edition enjoyed two other temporary Olympic Villages, one in Naples for the sailing competitions and one in Castelgandolfo for the rowing competitions. The Rome Olympic Village was a catalyst for a new development process in a neighbourhood that had reached 10,000 inhabitants.

⁶ *The Games of the XVII Olympiad Rome, 1960: the official report of the Organising Committee*, Rome: Organising Committee for the Games of the XVII Olympiad, 1963, vol. 1, pp. 89-93, 164-167, 223-295.

ROMA
1960
Villaggio Olimpico, Roma



ROMA
1960
Villaggio Olimpico, Roma

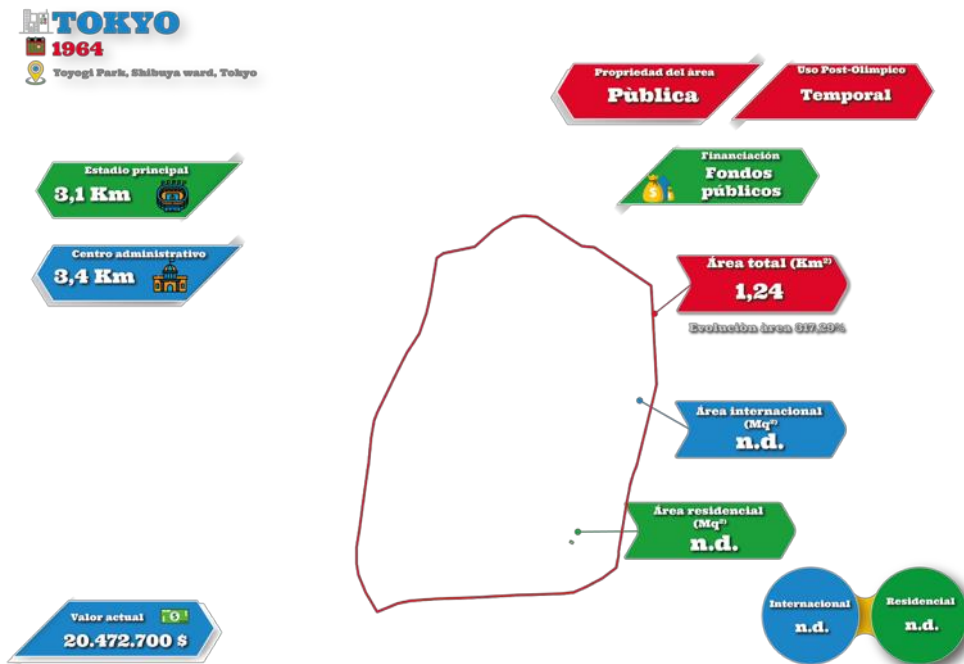


Tokyo 1964

The 1964 edition of Tokyo proposed a temporary accommodation solution in the form of wooden rooms that could be dismantled in the post-Olympic period and reclaimed the natural space where the US Army was stationed. The Tokyo Olympic Village was built as a temporary solution already seen in Los Angeles and involved fewer problems for post-Olympic conversion. The Olympic Village included all the services, offices, shops, two swimming pools and sports facilities that still exist today⁷. In the post-Olympic period, Yoyogi Park has become a famous place because of the cherry flourish. The issue comprised different temporary accommodation solutions in other locations that were connected by bus lines. The temporary structures were mainly existing hotels. Today, the heritage of the Tokyo Olympic Village can only be seen in a small memorial house in the middle of Yoyogi Park.



⁷ *The games of the XVIII Olympiad, Tokyo 1964: the official report of the Organising Committee*, Tokyo: The Organising Committee for the Games of the XVIII Olympiad, 1966, vol. 1, pp. 281-352.

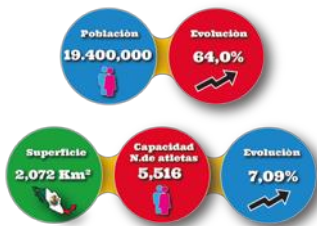


Mexico City 1968

The construction of the Mexico City Olympic Village was planned near the Olympic stadium in an area of 11 hectares with 27 blocks of buildings constituting a new neighbourhood of 10,000 inhabitants as in Rome. However, the block buildings did not respect the in-line development philosophy observed in Rome. The Village included medical clinics, a press centre, recreational and training facilities, a theatre, an international club and a public auditorium⁸ Participants in the sailing and football competitions were accommodated in hotels. The Olympic Village was intended to transform a new residential area which became one of the largest neighbourhoods in the southern part of the metropolis.

⁸ *Mexico 68*, Mexico: Organising Committee of the Games of the XIX Olympiad, 1969, vol. 2, pp. 246-65, vol. 4, pp. 627-30.

MEXICO
1968
 Colonia Villa Olímpica, Delegation de Tlalpan, Mexico City



MEXICO
1968
 Colonia Villa Olímpica, Delegation de Tlalpan, Mexico City

Propiedad del Área
Pública

Uso Post-Olimpico
Residencias públicas

Estadio principal
4,2 Km

Centro administrativo
21,5 Km

Financiación
Fondos públicos



Valor actual 79
217,043,071 \$

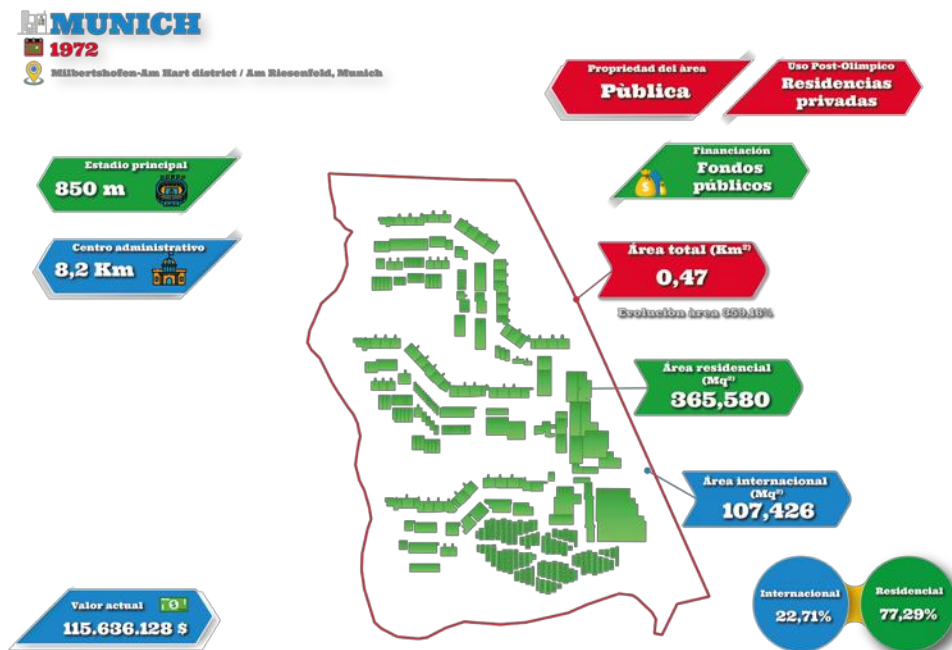


Munich 1972

The Munich Olympic Village was built near the Olympic Park in a green area that could accommodate more than 12,000 people. The buildings comprised different construction typologies and were divided into three different areas: one for men, one for women and a central area. In the central area of the Village were concentrated the main services, the leisure centre, shops, restaurants, banks, a medical centre, a laundry and some others. The Olympic quarter was surrounded by green areas and forests. In addition, the construction of the Olympic Village was included in the infrastructural works to provide new means of transport between the sports facilities and the city centre⁹. The Village in the post-Olympic period became a residential neighbourhood that still exists today. The temporary accommodation in Kiel for the sailing competitions was converted into university accommodation. The Munich Olympic Village served as an inspiration for the construction of a new sports district near the centre of the German metropolis.



⁹ *Die Spiele: the official report of the Organizing Committee for the Games of the XXth Olympiad Munich 1972*, Munich: Prosport, 1974, vol.1, pp. 124-141, 150, vol.2, pp. 98, 100- 111; Henning Bath [ed.], *Village olympique - Olympic Village - Olympisches Dorf*, Munich: Organising Committee for the Games of the XXth Olympiad Munich, n.d., pp. 7, 25.



Montreal 1976

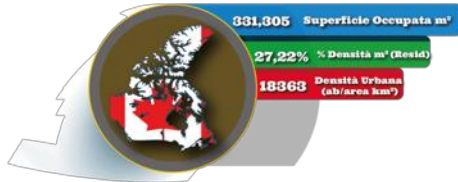
The Montreal Olympic Village project was strongly inspired by previous projects for the creation of a new sports district through pyramidal block structures inspired by Le Corbusier's rationalist philosophy. The Olympic Village benefited from some temporary structures it offers all the services to the Olympic athletes. The division of public and private activities was a key aspect in the realisation of the Olympic Village. The area included sports facilities, restaurants, leisure areas, medical services, a market, a religious centre, shops, press and conference rooms¹⁰. The Montreal Olympic Village was an inspiration for the construction of accommodation that would become residences in the post-Olympic period. Today, the Olympic Village continues to function as a residential neighbourhood. For the sailing and equestrian competitions, two temporary Olympic Villages were erected and converted into student accommodation in the post-Olympic period.

¹⁰ *Montreal 1976: Games of the XXI Olympiad Montreal 1976: official report*, Ottawa: OCOG 1976, 1978, vol. 1, pp. 258-279, vol. 2, pp.196-201, 222-225 ; *Guide to Olympic Village*, OCOG 1976, 1976. p. 8, p. 38, p. 82.

MONTREAL

1976

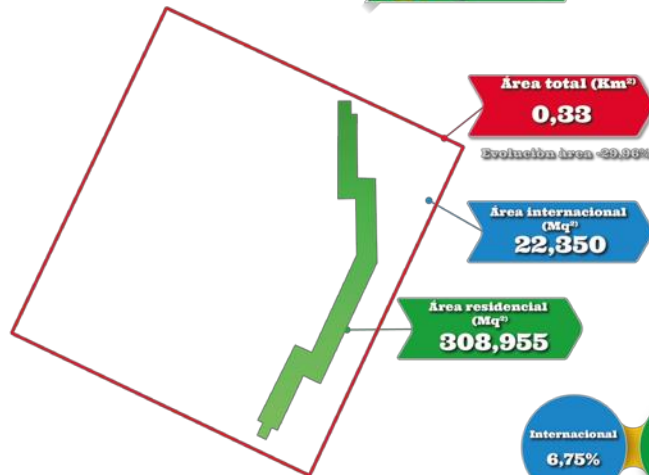
Rue Sherbrooke Est, Rosemont-La Petite-Patrie, Montreal



MONTREAL

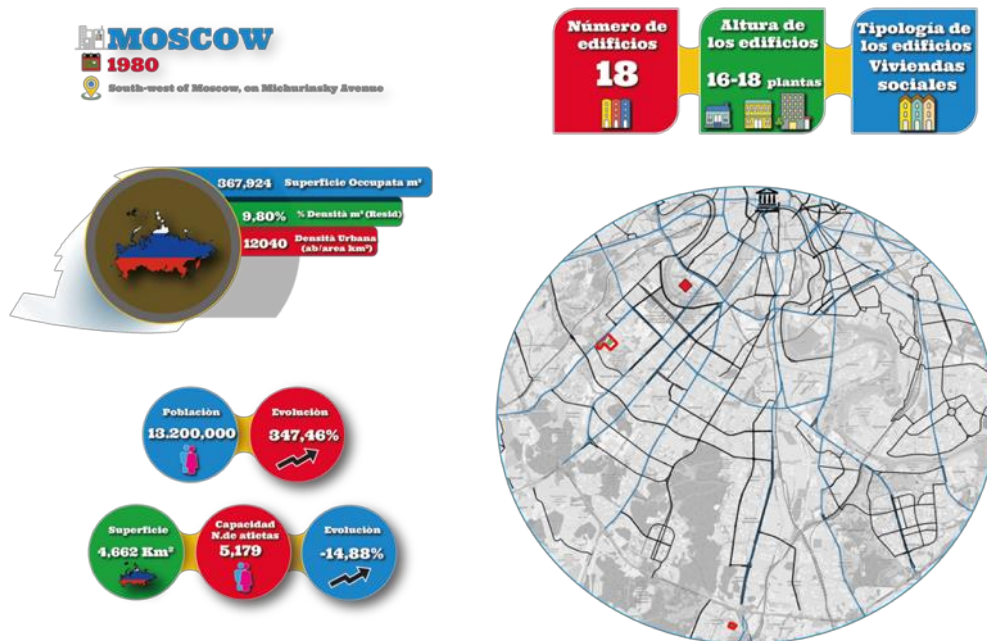
1976

Rue Sherbrooke Est, Rosemont-La Petite-Patrie, Montreal



Moscow 1980

The 1980 Moscow Olympic Games provided two Olympic Villages organised as satellite cities. The main Olympic Village was connected to the Olympic Stadium through a network of infrastructure that allowed movement between the Olympic Villages and the sports venues. The accommodation was built using blocks identical to Soviet buildings within a completely natural area with a large amount of vegetation and included the sports facilities, a polyclinic, a cultural centre and most of the training facilities¹¹. The Olympic Village space in the post-Olympic period became a new residential area that still exists today.

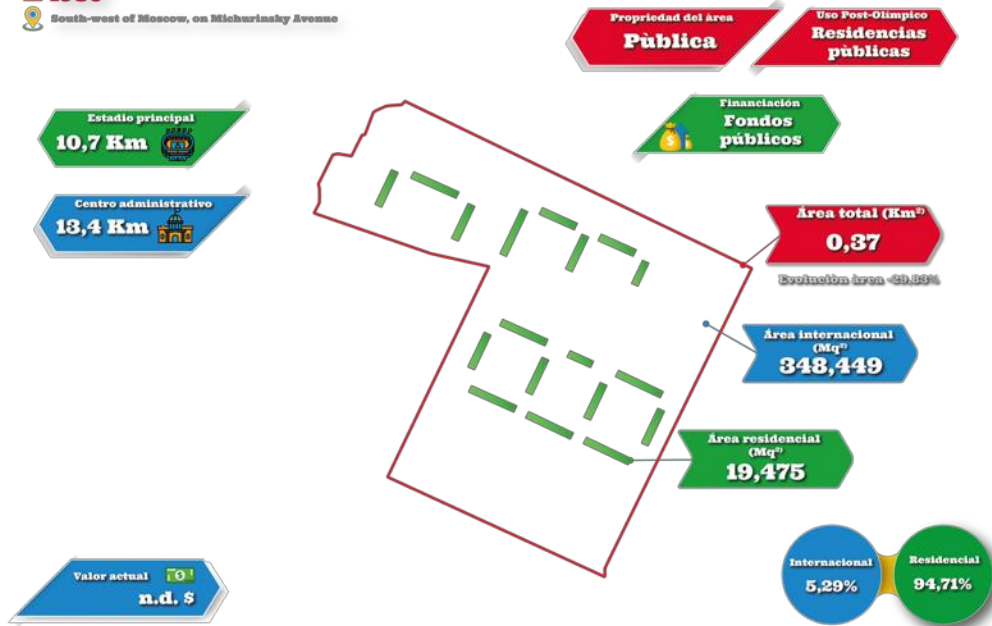


¹¹ *Official Report of the Organising Committee of the Games of the XXII Olympiad, Moscow 1980*, Moscow: OCOG-80, 1981, vol. 1, pp. 158, 190, 234, vol. 2, pp. 132-135, 307-332.

MOSCOW

1980

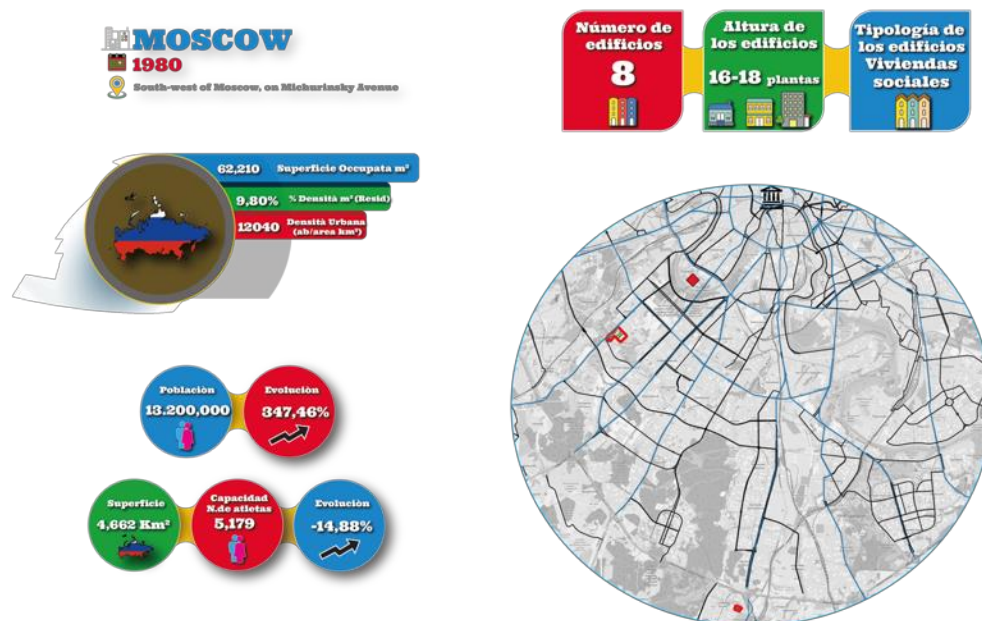
South-west of Moscow, on Michurinsky Avenue

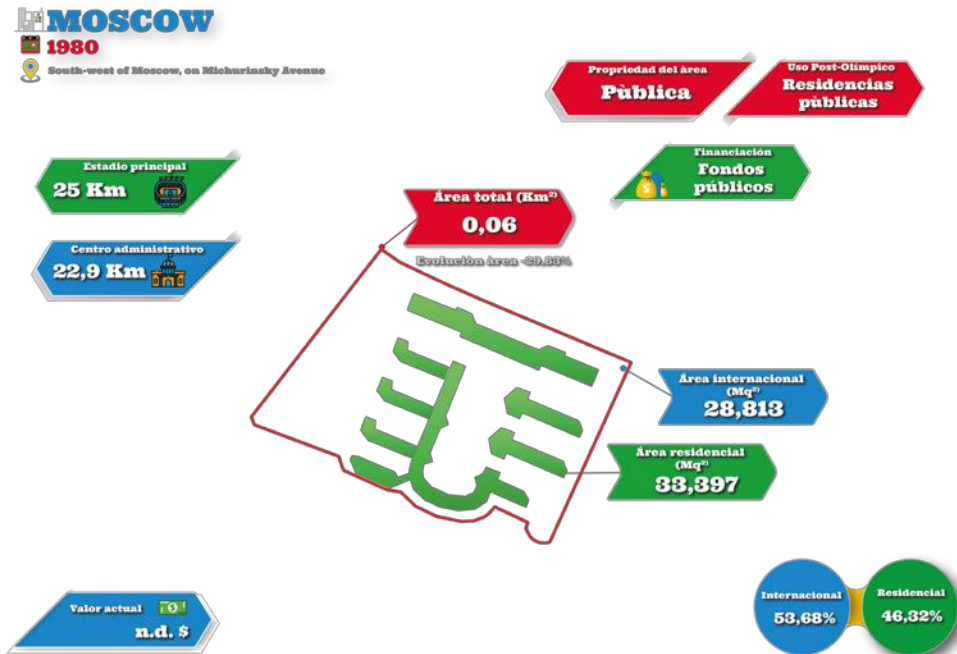


MOSCOW

1980

South-west of Moscow, on Michurinsky Avenue





Los Angeles 1984

The Los Angeles edition was the first edition to be financed mainly by private funds and through temporary or existing structures. The Los Angeles Organisers provided an accommodation structure through the use of the California residence halls and other temporary structures that were added for some of the services. In addition, the existing sports facilities at the university provided a large training park close to the accommodation. The university town included all the catering, leisure, medical, religious and other services¹². For the sailing competitions, the athletes used the accommodation at the University of Santa Barbara. In the post-Olympic period, the temporary facilities were dismantled and the accommodation was returned to the university students for the start of the academic year. The solution adopted by Los Angeles signed a change in the concept of Olympic accommodation in the host city.

¹² Athlete's Village Guide: Games of the XXIIIrd Olympiad Los Angeles 1984, Los Angeles: LAOOC, pp. 32-37; Official Report of the Games of the XXIIIrd Olympiad Los Angeles 1984, Los Angeles: LAOOC, 1985, vol. 1, pp. 161-185, 368-388.



Seoul 1988

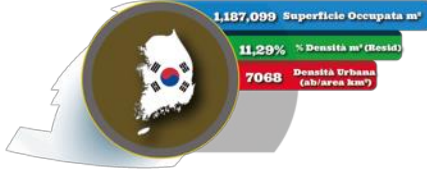
The Seoul Olympic Village was planned within a residential area that included sports facilities, toilets, restaurants, a gymnasium, a theatre, shops, entertainment venues, a religious centre and some more¹³. The Seoul Olympic Village was in a strategic planning programme for accommodation in the Korean capital and was intended to be reused as residences in the post-Olympic period. The Olympic Village area for the first time reached 15,000 inhabitants on 50 hectares. Seoul marked a major transformation in the expansion of services and accommodation for Olympic athletes.

¹³ Official Report: Games of the XXIVth Olympiad Seoul 1988, Seoul: SOOC, 1989, vol. 1, pp. 527-570; Guide du Village olympique, Seoul: SOOC, n.d, pp. 3 & 9.

SEOUL

1988

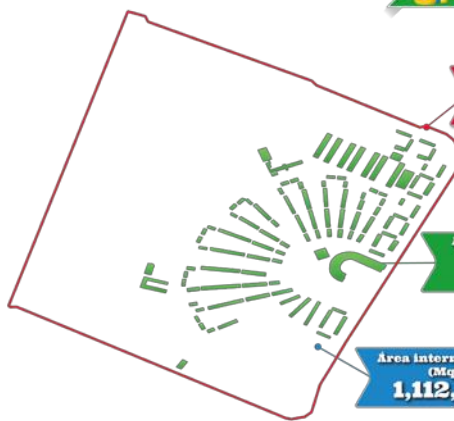
Oryun-dong quarter, in the Songpa-gu district, Seoul



SEOUL

1988

Oryun-dong quarter, in the Songpa-gu district, Seoul



Barcelona 1992

The construction of the Barcelona Olympic Village was strongly linked to urban transformation projects and the reuse of space. In addition, the recent opening of the city to the sea and the proximity of the Olympic Village to the marina allowed the accommodation structures to become a long-term exploitation model for the host cities. The new Olympic quarter was planned in a central area of the city to be converted into residential accommodation in the post-Olympic period. The Olympic Village area included all services, a shopping mall, sports facilities, games clubs, discotheques, post offices, banks and other services scattered throughout the Village area that could accommodate more than 15,000 athletes¹⁴. The organising committee aimed to turn a derelict industrial area into a waterfront neighbourhood for citizens who had never enjoyed the waterfront before. The Barcelona project will be inspirational for other future accommodation projects through public-private financing. Today, however, the Olympic quarter has been transformed into an exclusive place exploited by the gentrification of the city's metropolitan area.



¹⁴ Preliminary Guide to the Olympic Village, March 1990, Barcelona: COOB'92, 1990, pp. 5-9, 26-27; Official Report of the Games of the XXV Olympiad Barcelona 1992, Barcelona: COOB'92, 1992, vol. 3, pp. 183-201, vol. 4, pp. 329-345; "Olympic Village Apartments Handed Over to COOB'92", BCN'92 Newsletter, 24 February 1992, Barcelona: COOB'92, 1992, n.p.



Atlanta 1996

The Atlanta edition was inspired by the Los Angeles edition for the organisation of the temporary accommodation for the Olympic athletes. The campus of the University of Georgia was used temporarily by the 15,000 athletes participating in the summer edition with several facilities that were adjusted to the needs of the Olympic event. In addition, the organisers built some new flats for the students to benefit from in the post-Olympic period. Thus, the Olympic Village was a huge campus that included sports facilities, toilets, restaurants, medical centres and all the services needed by the Olympic athletes. In addition to the basic services, the Village offered a spa, a gymnasium, a test centre, a technology zone, a laser area and a World Wide Web pavilion¹⁵. Sailing, rowing, football and canoeing competitions were held in other cities and the organisers always used existing structures such as university campuses and hotels.

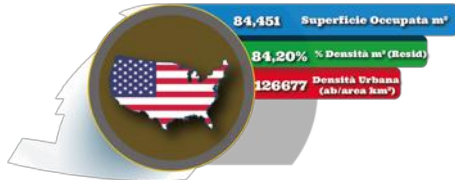
The campus was returned to the university and its students, and the ring fountain and Centennial Plaza remain today in the city of Atlanta.

¹⁵ *Atlanta Olympic Village Athletes Guide*, Atlanta: ACOG, 1996, pp. 17-20, 35-43; *The Official Report of the Centennial Olympic Games*, Atlanta: Peachtree Publishers for ACOG, 1997, vol.1, pp. 324-350.

ATLANTA

1996

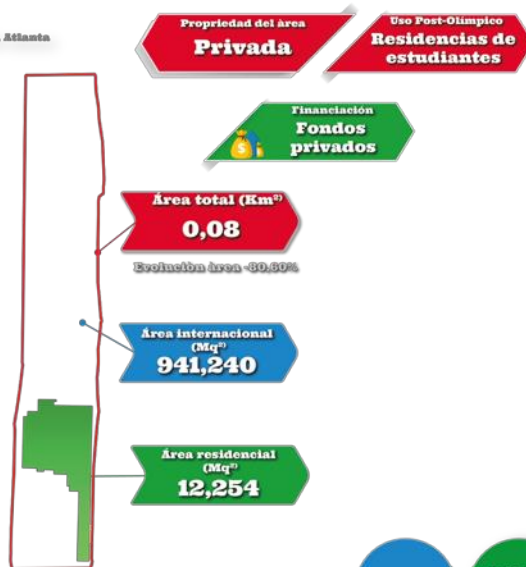
Campus of the Georgia Institute of Technology, North Avenue NW, Atlanta



ATLANTA

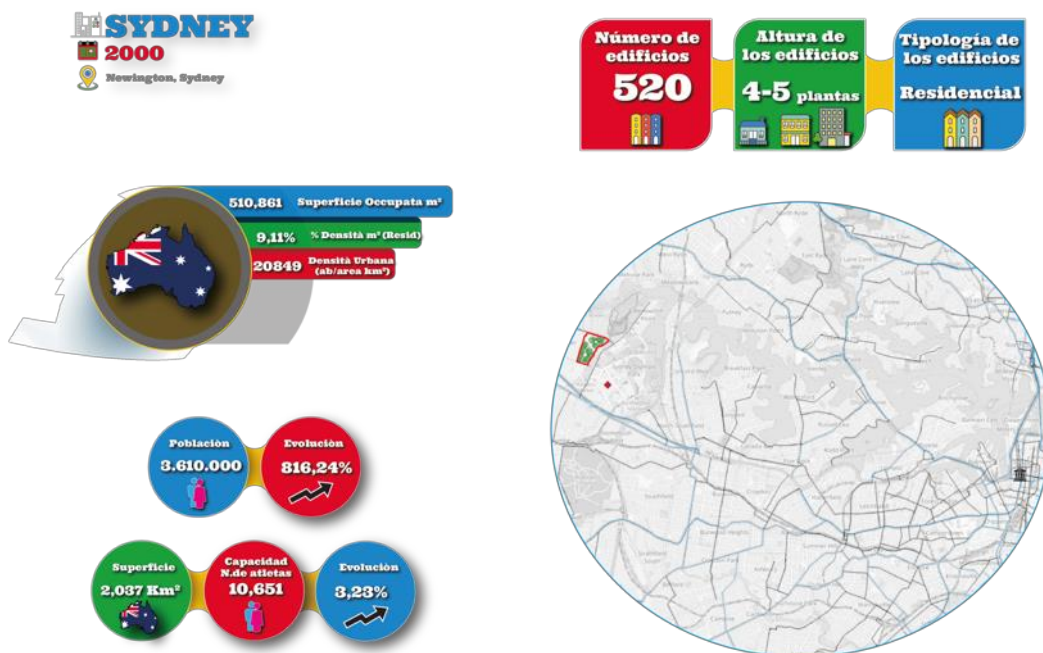
1996

Campus of the Georgia Institute of Technology, North Avenue NW, Atlanta

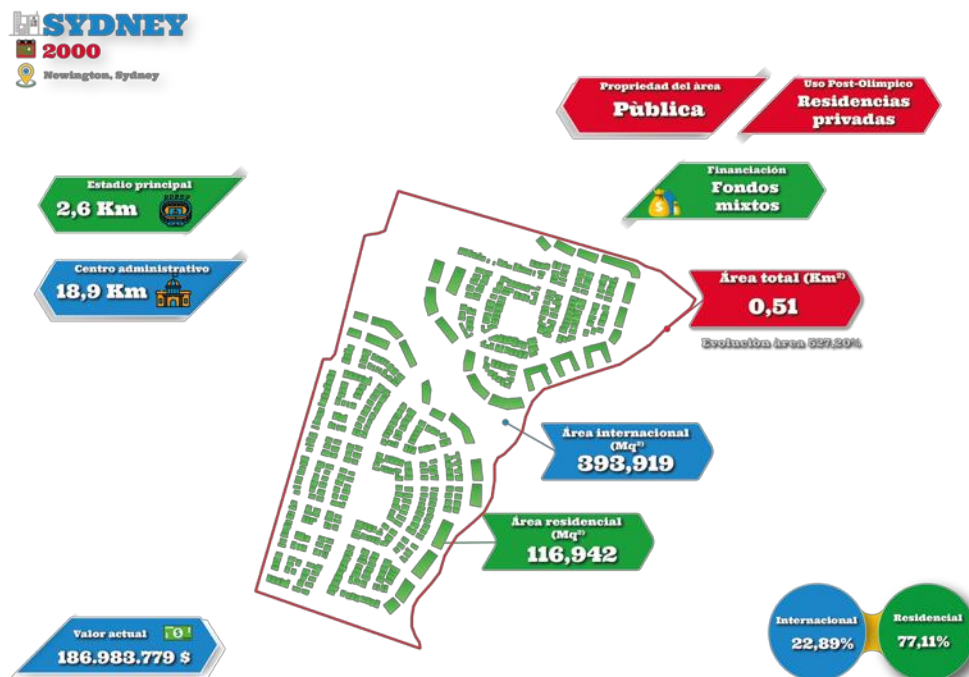


Sydney 2000

The Sydney Olympic Village project involved a huge area on the outskirts of the capital that was in a state of neglect and was placed in the middle of profound structural transformations. The Sydney Olympic Village was built through the respect of new environmental measures and the introduction of new technologies about renewable energies. The Olympic Village was on an area of 83 hectares and could accommodate more than 15,000 athletes¹⁶. Athletes could use transport services to move around the neighbourhood and between training facilities. In addition, the new neighbourhood included all services and a wide range of restaurants in each block. More than twenty-two residential centres were located in the Village, offering different basic services to the athletes. The new flats and houses were sold or rented to citizens and the neighbourhood was named Newington, constituting a new residential area in the Australian metropolis.



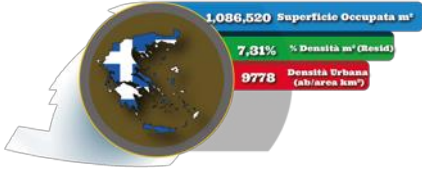
¹⁶ Official Report of the XXVII Olympiad: Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, 15 September - 1 October, Sydney: SOGOC, 2001, vol. 1, pp. 68-70, 323-331.



Athens 2004

The construction of the Athens Olympic area was already included in other spatial and residential transformation projects of the central government. The Olympic Village was planned in a peripheral area of the capital that could accommodate more than 18,000 people in a new Olympic quarter. The Greek social housing association was in charge of the construction of the new residential areas in the north of the Greek capital. The new urban centre enjoyed additional services such as sports facilities, hospital, gymnasium, amphitheatre, shops, discotheques, reception hall and green spaces¹⁷. The distance between the Olympic Village and the sports facilities led to an increase in transport systems between the sports facilities and the Olympic Village. The construction of the new neighbourhood was planned to accommodate families in need of permanent accommodation, but in the post-Olympic period the entire Village was occupied by immigrants and to this day has not yet achieved the objectives initially envisaged for the development of the new satellite area.

¹⁷ *Olympic Village Guide*, Athens: ATHOC, 2004. pp. 21-23, 37-47; *Official Report of the XXVIII Olympiad: Athens 2004*, Athens: ATHOC, 2005, vol. 1, p. 161, vol. 2, pp. 41-49.



Beijing 2008

The concept of the Beijing Olympic Village was that of developing a new neighbourhood that could be incorporated into the area of Olympic venues and become a residential area for middle-class citizens. The project was planned by respecting the new environmental measures and incorporating the Olympic Forest Park that was in the northern area of the Village. In the centre of the Olympic Village were located the services and common spaces for the socialisation of the athletes¹⁸. The northern area of the Village housed the sports, cultural and training facilities. Meanwhile, the southern area of the Village could accommodate more than 18,000 athletes. Buildings and residences were converted into flats and sold to private individuals. The Beijing games pointed out for the first time the problem of exclusion and the expulsion of citizens from the Olympic area to the periphery. In the Olympic sub-venue's hotels were used as temporary accommodation for Olympic athletes.



¹⁸ *Official Report of the Beijing 2008 Olympic Games*, Beijing: BOCOG, 2010, vol. 2, pp. 211-225, vol. 3, pp. 227-241; "Projects", Beijing Tianhong Yuanfang Architectural Design CO., LTD website.



London 2012

The London Olympic Village project was part of a huge transformation of an industrial area in the eastern part of the metropolis. The Olympic Park and Olympic Village comprised an area of more than 10 hectares that could accommodate more than 18,000 athletes. The Olympic Village was built so that it could be converted into a mixed housing area, conceived with the utmost respect for the environment. However, the London project was the first example of applying principles that respected the concept of heritage and Olympic heritage. The proximity to the Olympic Park made it possible to reduce transport services between the training facilities and the Olympic Village. The area was planned to accommodate shopping centres, train stations, underground, cinemas, nightclubs, theatres, offices, consultancies, restaurants, bars, gymnasium and other services. The London Olympic Village reached unprecedented dimensions. Athletes in the sailing and equestrian competitions were accommodated in hotels. The project was planned through a public-private partnership that aimed to exploit the entire area (East Village) and develop it into a new neighbourhood, which would be very close to the administrative centre of the city. The London Olympic Village will be the first example of mixed accommodation and services built through the summer edition.

LONDRES
2012
 Stratford, in the borough of Newham

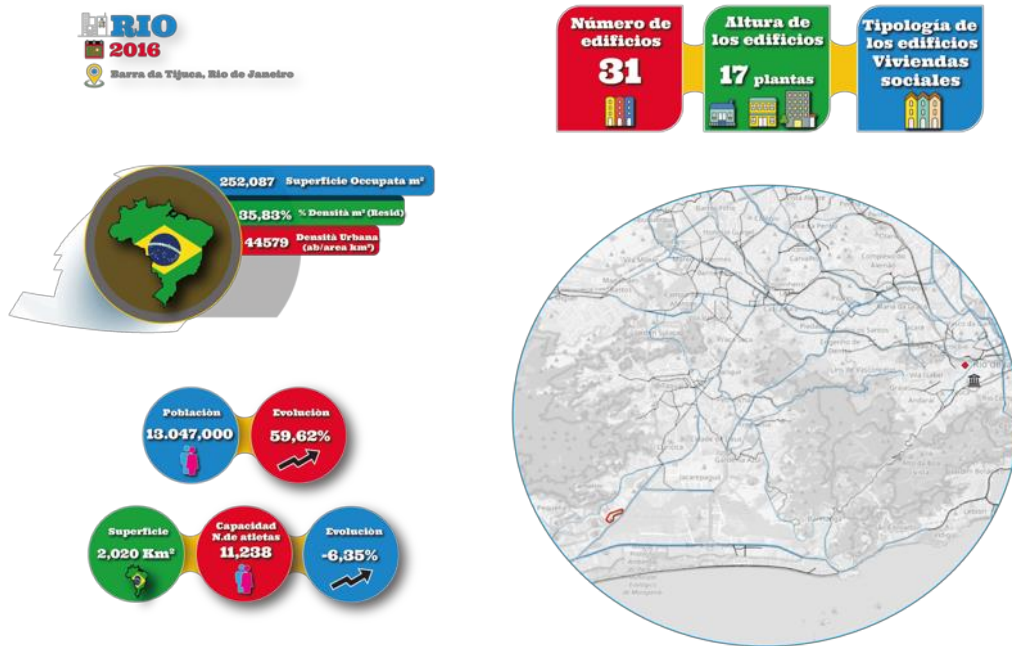


LONDRES
2012
 Stratford, in the borough of Newham



Rio de Janeiro 2016

The concept of the Rio de Janeiro Olympic Village was strongly marked by a philosophy of urban expansion and infrastructural transformations in the city of Rio de Janeiro. The Rio edition, like the previous editions, had planned the Village very close to the Olympic Park where most of the venues were located. Services, roads, restaurants, transport and green spaces were built in this area. The accommodation capacity of the Olympic Village was for more than 18,000 athletes and it was planned to be converted into a residence during the post-Olympic period. The Rio Olympic Village project was a very ambitious project that to this day has not found its function. The accommodation remains abandoned and the entire Olympic area is underutilised.



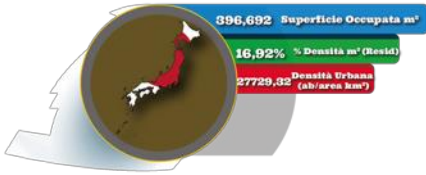


Tokyo 2020

The construction of the Tokyo Olympic Village was included in the Harumi waterfront district in the centre of the Japanese capital. The Olympic Village area comprises a 133,906 m² site that was sold to the consortium of developers for residential development before the Olympic event. The project includes the construction of 21 residential buildings between 14 and 18-storeys, commercial premises and public parks. The capacity of the Olympic Village during the event was 17,000 people accommodated between the 2nd and 14th floor of each residential block. The Metropolitan Government aimed to establish a new community where different people can interact and live comfortably in a residential area after the Olympic event. In addition, after the Olympic event, work started on the construction of two 50-storey residential skyscrapers. By 2024 the area will comprise 23 buildings with 5,650 flats¹⁹.

¹⁹ Tokyo Metropolitan Government, Towards 2020: building the legacy / coordination section, general coordination division, bureau of olympic and paralympic games tokyo 2020 preparation, tokyo metropolitan government, 2016, pp.10-11.

TOKYO
2020
 Harumi Waterfront district, Tokyo



TOKYO
2020
 Harumi Waterfront district, Tokyo



Considerations on the Summer Olympic Villages

As we have seen in the proposed comparative analyses, over the years the Olympic Villages have evolved through different spatial models to solve housing problems at different historical stages. However, the projects in Helsinki, Rome, Mexico, Montreal, Seoul, Barcelona, Sydney, Beijing, London and Rio have inspired and continue to inspire host cities to propose permanent residential projects that respond to the demands of each specific metropolitan context. Olympic Villages have had different forms and different visions about housing. However, in recent years the housing issue is not as critical as it was after the Second World War. In the last years, we have always observed different solutions, which included services and different levels of population that could converge and become a new neighbourhood, encouraged by sports and cultural events. We will conclude by looking at the minimum and maximum values of each element analysed to make a ranking of the Olympic Villages over time.

Main stadium

<i>Min</i>		<i>Max</i>	
Munich 1952	850 m.	Rio 2016	28,6 km.

Administrative centre

<i>Min</i>		<i>Max</i>	
Barcelona 1992	3 km.	Rio 2016	28,2 km.

Number of buildings

<i>Min</i>		<i>Max</i>	
Atlanta 1996	2	Sydney 2000	870

Urban density (ab/area kmq)

<i>Min</i>		<i>Max</i>	
Berlin 1936	3.050,20 kmq	Atlanta 1996	126.677,39 kmq

% Density mq2 (residential)

<i>Min</i>		<i>Max</i>	
Helsinki 1952	5,50%	Atlanta 1996	84,20%

Occupied area(mq2)

<i>Min</i>		Max	
Atlanta 1996	81.451 mq2	Berlin 1936	1.299,260 mq2
<i>Total Area (kmq)</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Max	
Atlanta 1996	0,08 kmq	Berlin 1936	1,30 kmq
<i>International area</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Max	
Barcelona 1992	56,20%	Berlin 1936	97,31%
<i>Residential area</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Max	
Berlin 1936	2,69%	Barcelona 1992	43,80%
<i>Current value</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Max	
Los Angeles 1932	\$8.217.404,43	Berlin 1936	\$2.779.611.670,00

6.1.2. From a metropolitan perspective towards a regional strategy

Before going deeper into the individual Winter Olympic Villages, it is necessary to say that the following analysis was carried out to specifically analyse the Olympic Villages through their spatial dimension and characteristics. The following is a list of these:

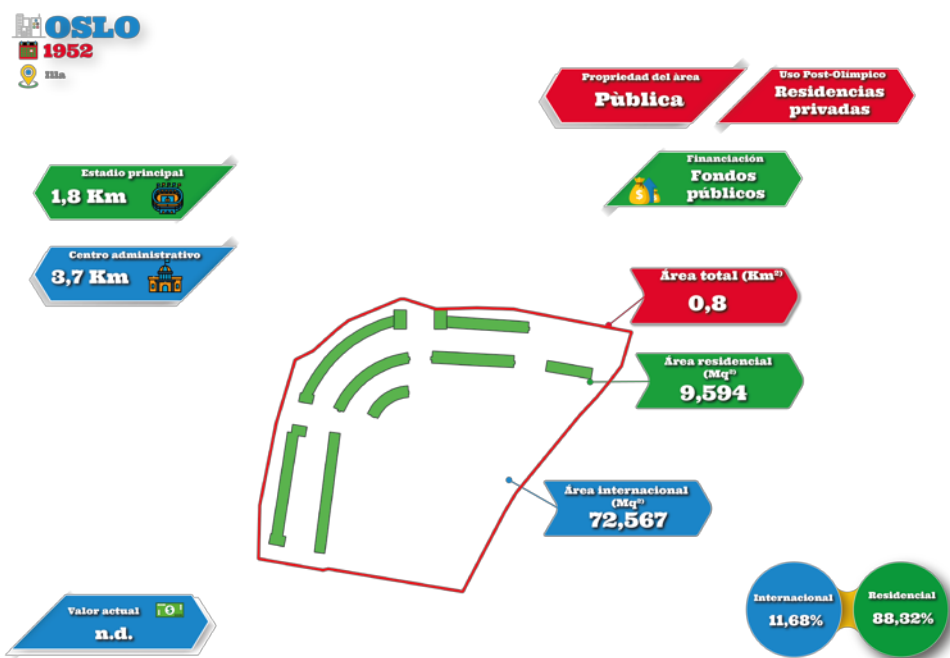
1. Oslo 1952	10. Albertville 1992
2. Squaw valley 1960	11. Lillehammer 1994
3. Innsbruck 1964	12. Nagano 1998
4. Grenoble 1968	13. Salt Lake 2002
5. Sapporo 1972	14. Torino 2006
6. Innsbruck 1976	15. Vancouver 2010
7. Lake Placid 1980	16. Sochi 2014
8. Sarajevo 1984	17. PyeongChang 2018
9. Calgary 1988	18. Beijing 2022

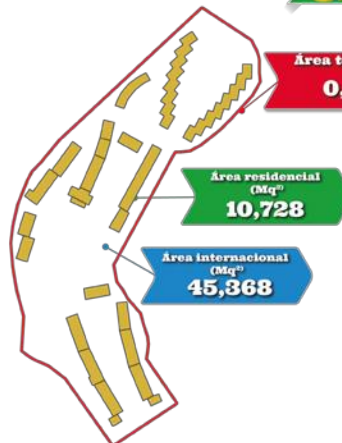
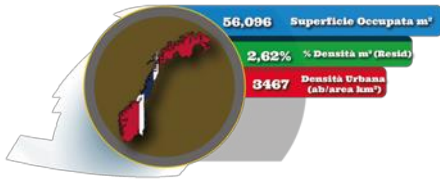
Oslo 1952

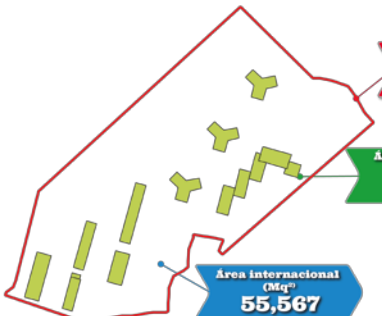
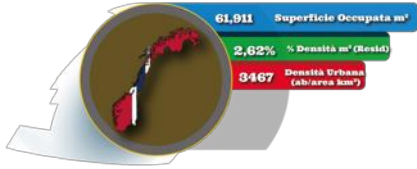
The Olympic Villages in Oslo are considered to be the first permanent constructions for the accommodation of athletes in the winter edition. The organisation of the athletes' accommodation was foreseen through a large accommodation programme, promoted by the central government in three (3) new areas: Sogn, Ulleval and Lla. The three areas became three self-sufficient Olympic quarters with the provision of all necessary services. Each neighbourhood enjoyed postal services, kiosks, shops, banks, sports facilities and so on²⁰. The Olympic Villages were planned to become accommodation structures to meet different challenges.

²⁰ *VI Olympic Winter Games Oslo 1952*, Oslo: Organisasjonskomiteen, [ca 1953], pp. 23-25, 36, 41, 71, 80-88, n.p.

Sogn became a student neighbourhood, Ullevål a quarter for hospital staff, and Illa a quarter for senior citizens. The Oslo project is seen as the first major permanent housing project that will inspire future Olympic Village planning projects in the winter edition.

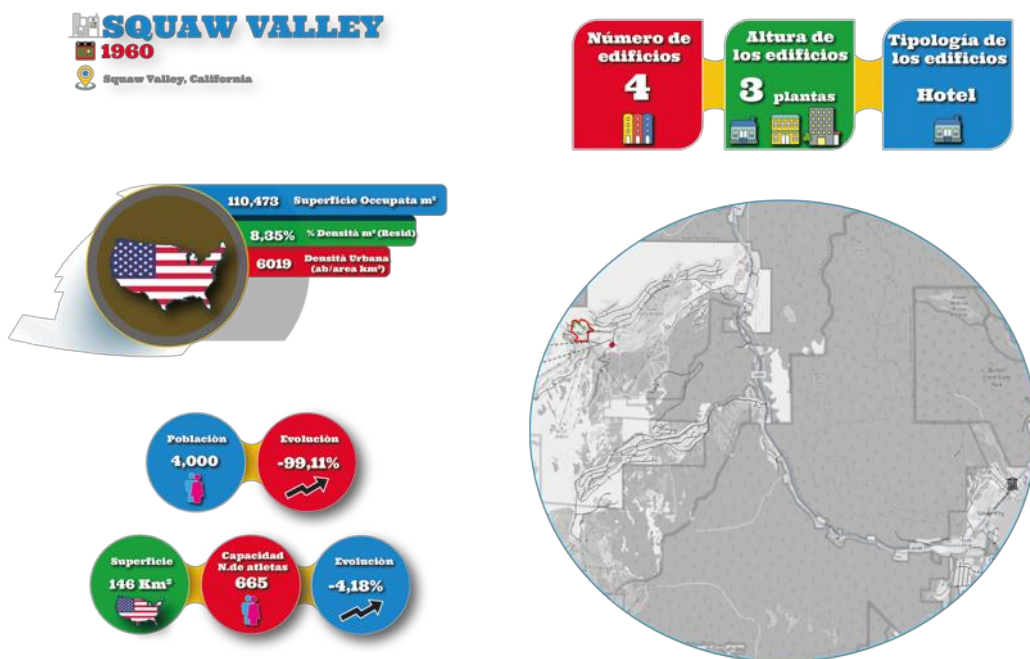




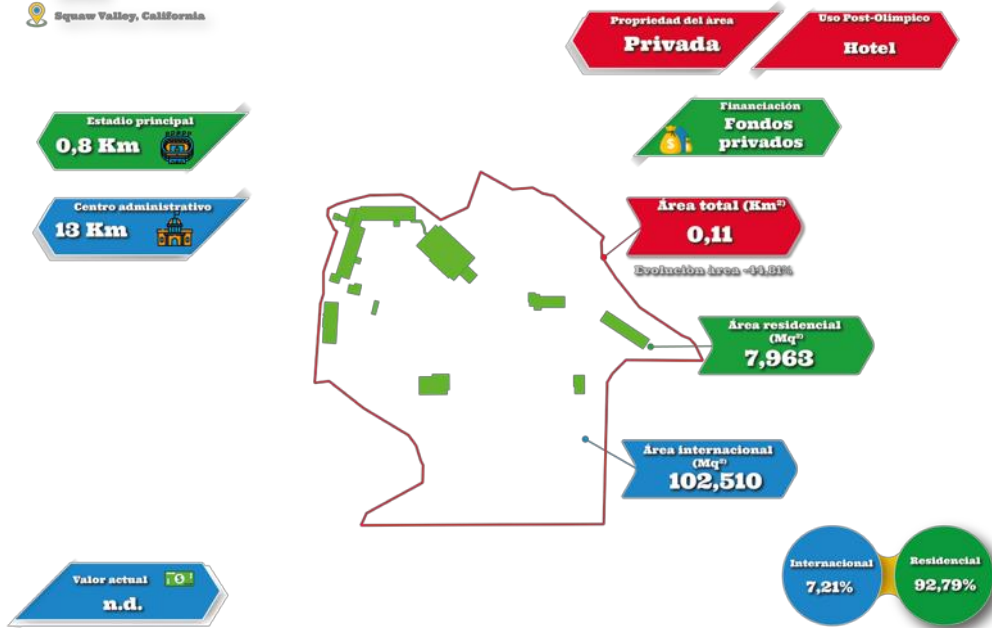


Squaw Valley 1960

The 1960 Squaw Valley edition was conceived as a large Olympic Park close to the tracks and sports facilities. The Olympic Village was established in a newly constructed area with the addition of other buildings for athlete services. In the Olympic Valley were built multi-purpose spaces, training centres, auditorium, leisure spaces, medical centre, storage for sports equipment and more²¹. The Olympic Village was initially planned to be used as a hotel for winter tourism. However, in the early 1990s, it was remodelled and transformed into a conference centre and training centre for the US Olympic team.



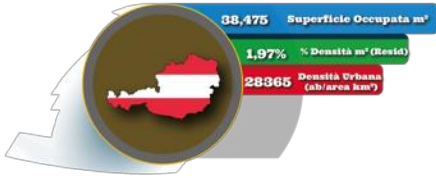
²¹ VIII Olympic Winter Games Squaw Valley, California, 1960: final report, California Olympic Commission [publ.] and Organising Committee [ed.], [ca. 1960], pp. 29, 33-38, 121, n.p.



Innsbruck 1964

The planning of the Innsbruck Olympic Village was included in an overall transformation of an area of the city. The new quarter would accommodate more than 10,000 people in the post-Olympic period, however, the Olympic Village was reserved for 2,000 athletes and coaches. Of the four buildings used as the Olympic Village, three were for the men and one for the women. The other buildings during the Olympic Games were transformed into service structures for the participants. Restaurants, shops, leisure areas, storage, workshops, gymnasium and saunas. In the post-Olympic period, the buildings used as temporary accommodation were returned to the population and continue to be used as residences to this day. The Olympic quarter of Innsbruck will be the promoter of new accommodation in the 1976 edition.

INNSBRUCK
1964
Non-Areal

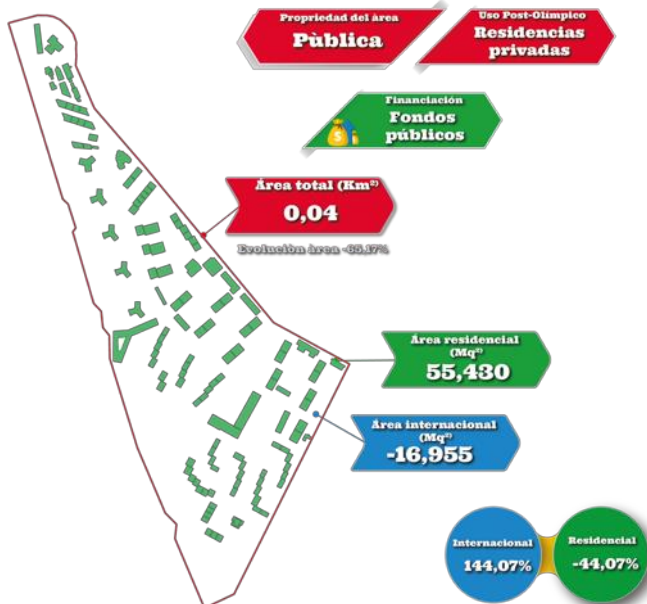


INNSBRUCK
1964
Non-Areal

Estadio principal
5,8 Km

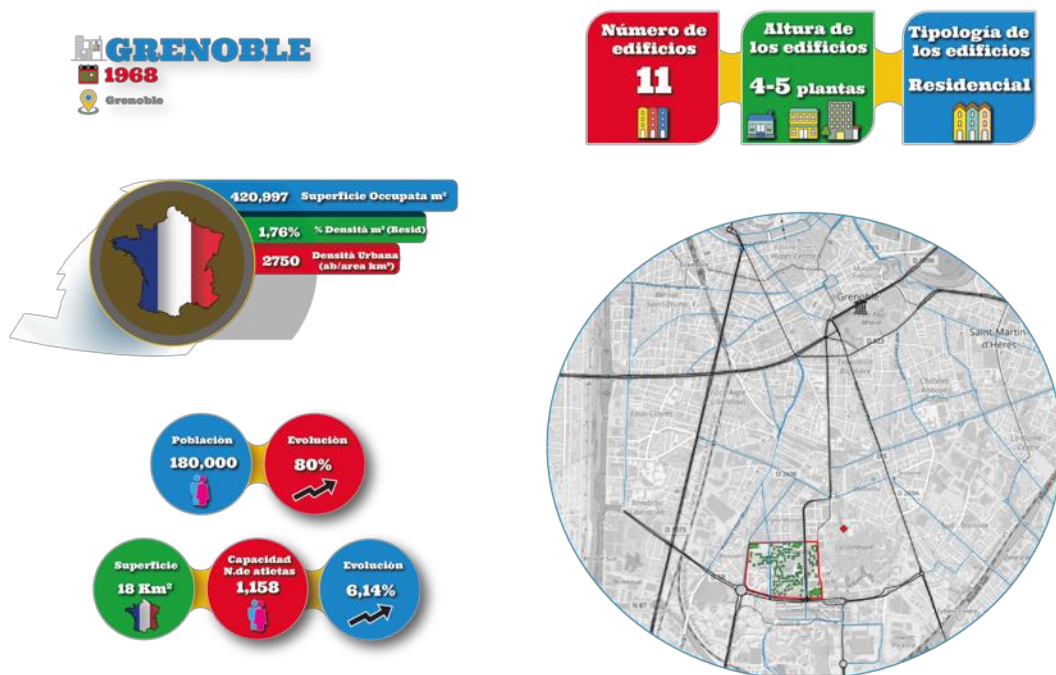
Centro administrativo
5 Km

Valor actual
99.402.890 \$

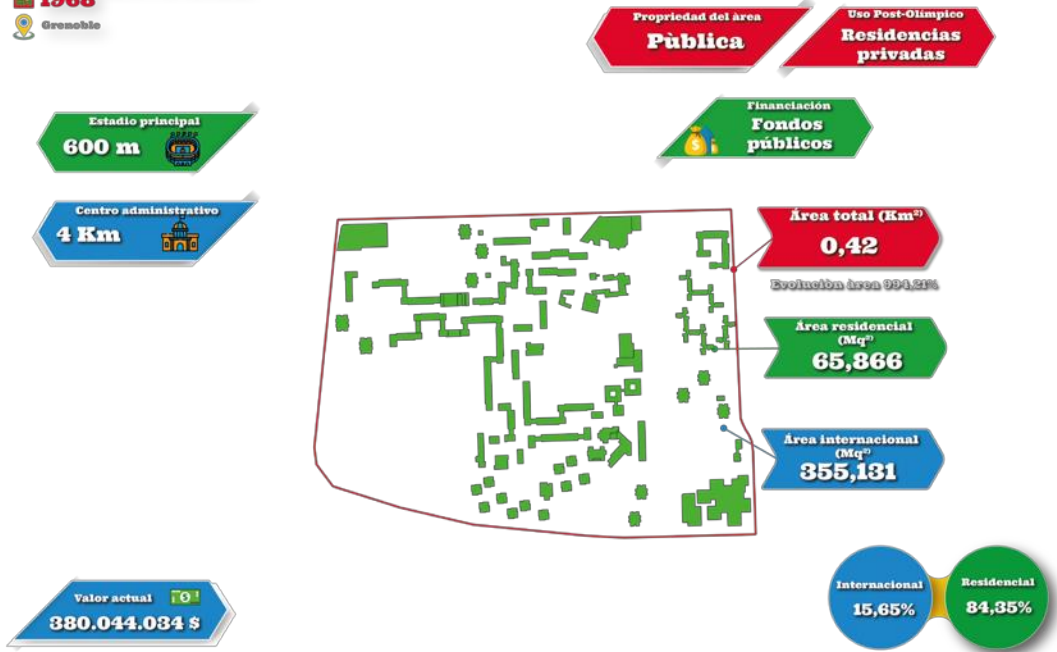


Grenoble 1968

The Grenoble edition was planned for the reconstruction and redefinition of new regional strategies that would include new accommodation structures for citizens and the university. The Olympic Village project was a construction that could accommodate more than 2,000 people and was a catalyst for urban transformation processes in the surrounding districts. The Olympic Village was part of a wider development plan for the entire southern area of the city. The complex was divided into two parts, one dedicated to the Olympic Villages and one for the organising committee and services²². The streets and squares allowed for the construction of a new neighbourhood that would give a new image to the city in the post-Olympic period. As originally planned, the Olympic Village area became a residential area that is still called the Olympic Village today.



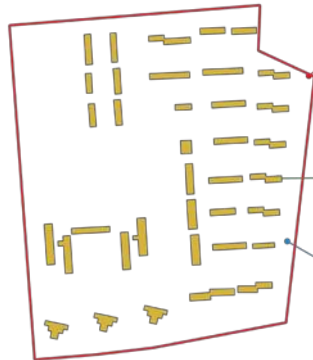
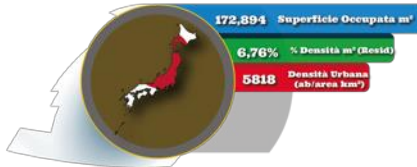
²² *Rapport officiel*, Grenoble: Organising Committee for the X Olympic Winter Games Grenoble 1968, 1969, pp. 63-65, 69-70, 74, 112-113, 252.



Sapporo 1972

For the first Winter Olympic Games in Asia, only one Olympic Village was planned, included in the various spatial transformations of the city of Sapporo. The sports facilities were close to the accommodation and athletes could move between the Olympic Village and the venues by walking for²³. The new neighbourhood was built in a peripheral area of the city to be converted into residences in the post-Olympic period. The Olympic Village was conceived through different blocks comprising all services. The international space had a central dining hall, shops, a workshop, sauna, gymnasium, auditorium, theatre, leisure space and more. In the post-Olympic period, as originally planned, the neighbourhood became a residential area.

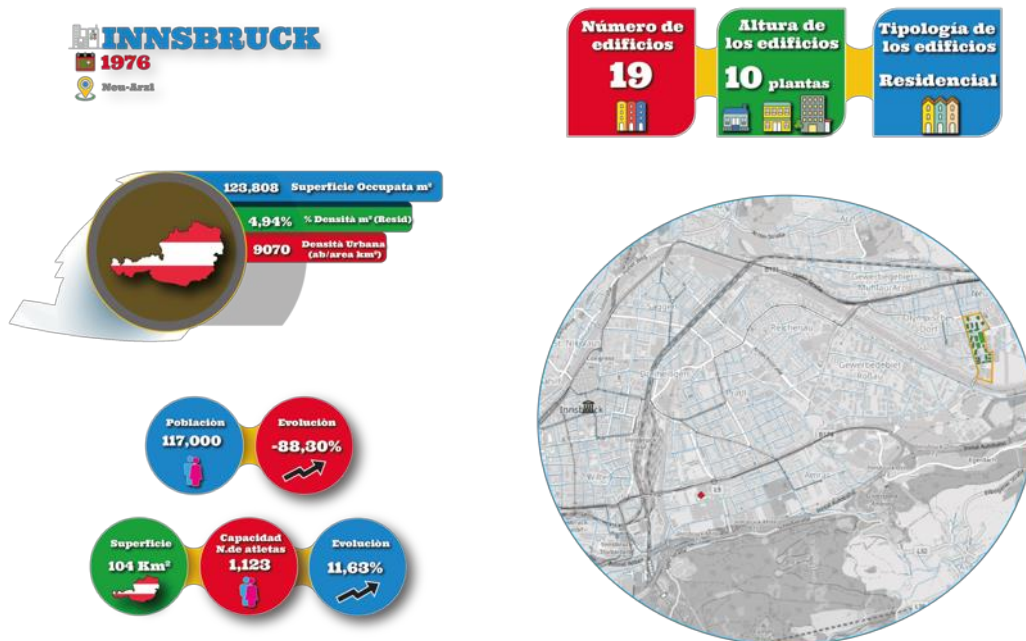
²³ *The XI Olympic Winter Games Sapporo 1972 - Official Report*, Sapporo: Organising Committee for the XI Olympic Winter Games, 1973, pp. 238, 244, 349-361, 384.



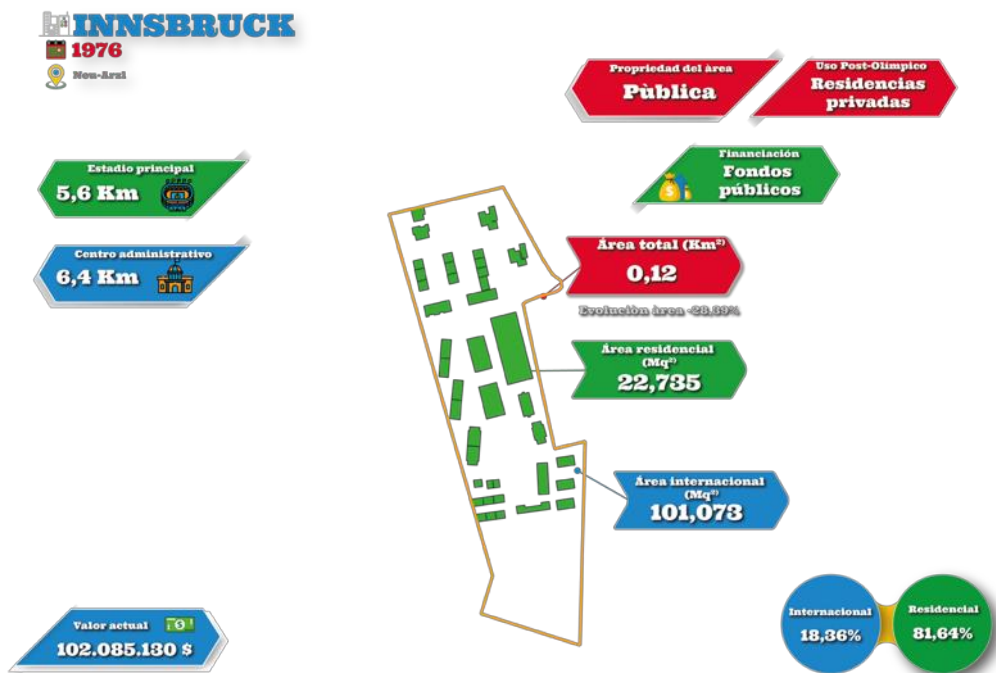
Innsbruck 1976

The Innsbruck Olympic Village was developed in the southern part of the district that was planned for the first Olympic Games in 1964. The Olympic Village was conceived to expand the neighbourhood through the construction of 35 new buildings. The residential area comprised sports training facilities, indoor swimming and pool, reception, restaurants, shops, gymnasium, school and other services plus²⁴. The new neighbourhood was realised through the construction of a master plan comprising a new hospital, a shopping centre and infrastructure. The entire area could accommodate more than 4,000 people in the post-Olympic period. The facilities and buildings of the 1964 Games were enlarged and restructured to meet the new requirements.

According to the organisation, the facilities built for the connection and integration of the Olympic Games, the Village, the school, the swimming pool and the bridge, contributed significantly to the infrastructural development of the city. In the post-Olympic period, the entire neighbourhood was transformed into a new residential area.



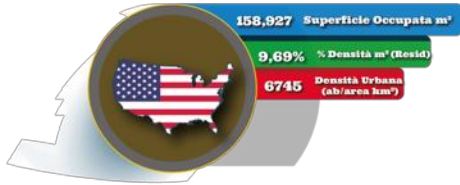
²⁴ *Final report*, Innsbruck: Comité d'organisation des XIIes Games olympiques d'hiver 1976. à Innsbruck, 1976, pp. 182, 192-194, 274-278, 317, 333, 340, 396, n.p.



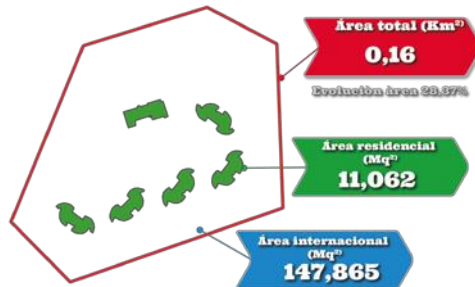
Lake placid 1980

The first plan for the Lake Placid Olympic Village proposed the construction of different buildings in the central area of the village. After the election as Olympic city, the organisers decided to use a former Ray Brook Sanatorium between the villages of Lake Placid and Saranac Lake. The US Department of Justice assisted in the construction of the Olympic Village, which in the post-Olympic period would be transformed into a prison. The Olympic Village included different buildings and services such as a chapel, post office, library, theatre, cafeterias, shops, restaurant, polyclinic and another rest area. However, the Olympic Village could only accommodate 2,000 people and therefore other temporary accommodation was built to meet the organisation's expectations. The sports facilities were connected through a private shuttle service. The Olympic Village at Lake Placid is the only example of Olympic accommodation that was converted into a prison.

LAKE PLACID
1980
 Ray Brook



LAKE PLACID
1980
 Ray Brook

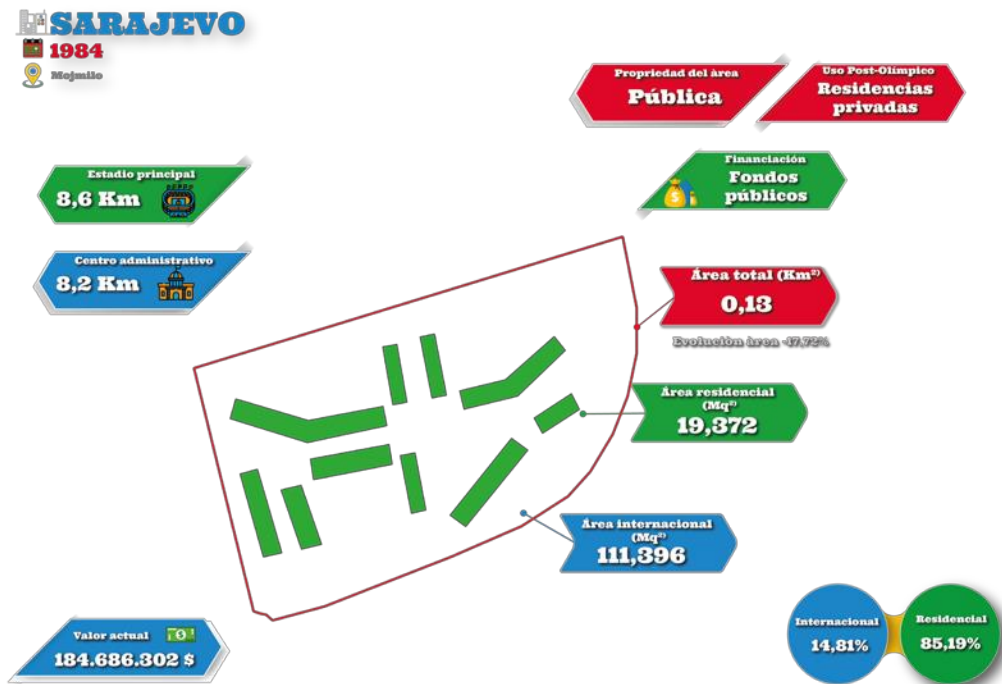


Sarajevo 1984

The Sarajevo Olympic Village would originally have had to be built near Nedzarici University to be reused as student accommodation in the post-Olympic period. However, the residences were insufficient to house all the Olympic athletes. So, instead of expanding the university accommodation, the committee provided a new Olympic Village in Mojimilo. The new area had a hospital, shops, restaurants, chapels, recreation centre, discotheques, concert area, theatres, cinema and more²⁵. The training and competition facilities were very close to the Olympic Village and different transport systems were used to transport the athletes. A hotel was built in Igman for the temporary accommodation of the Olympic athletes in the cross-country, biathlon and Nordic competitions. The new Olympic Village was planned to become a new residential area after the Olympic Games. However, the war with Bosnia-Herzegovina destroyed a large part of the Olympic Village. In 1992 the city of Barcelona provided aid for the reconstruction of the Olympic Village which was completed in 1999.



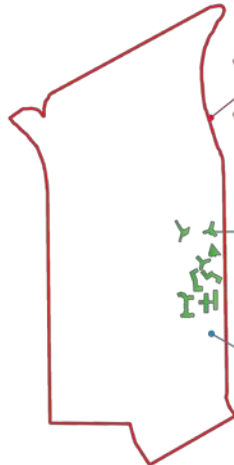
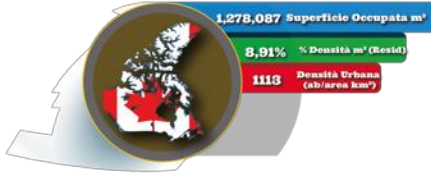
²⁵ *Final Report, Sarajevo: Organising Committee of the XIVth Winter Olympic Games 1984 at Sarajevo, 1984*, pp. 94, 108, 125, 139.



Calgary 1988

The Calgary project is recognised as the first Olympic Village project to be exploited through student accommodation. The Organising Committee and the University of Calgary agreed to the use of the university campus temporarily. The University Village was expanded through new public funding for the improvement and expansion of the University of Calgary. The residences were included in a multi-functional area comprising all athletic facilities. In addition, the university's sports facilities provided new halls and sporting venues for athlete training. The Village offered administrative, recreational and sanitary services and for the first time, a media area was included²⁶. In the village of Canmore, temporary accommodation was provided at the golf club. In the post-Olympic period, the University of Calgary acquired the Olympic facilities to offer new services to its students. The Calgary model is recognised as the first university model for the winter editions.

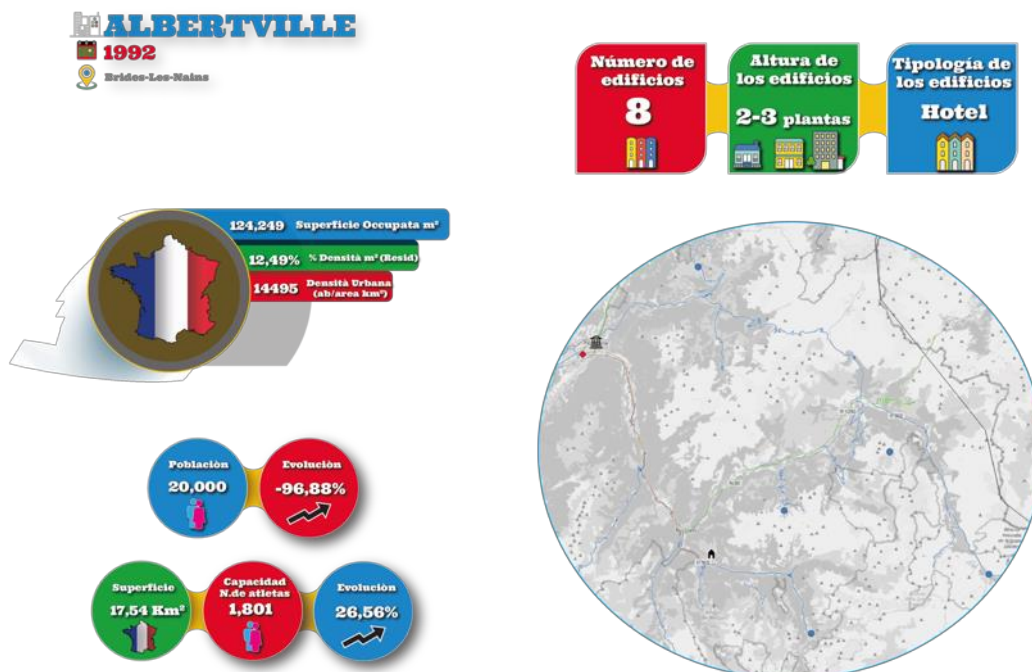
²⁶ *Olympic Villages: Information and Questionnaire*. Organising Committee for the XV Olympic Winter Games, April 1987, pp. 13-16, 21; *Rapport officiel des XVes Jeux Olympiques d'hiver : Calgary 1988*, Organising Committee for the XV Olympic Winter Games; Calgary Development Association, 1988, vol. 1, pp. 174-181 & vol. 2, pp. 383-394.



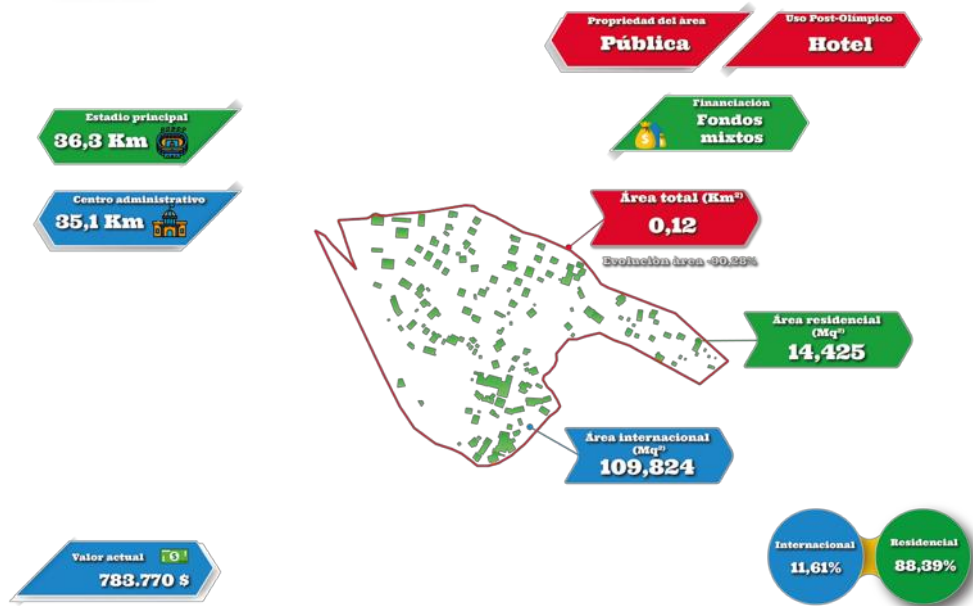
Albertville 1992

The Albertville edition of the Olympic Games was planned through a regional structure comprising more than 7 mountain tourism locations in the Savoie region.

The main village was located in Brides-Les-Bains, about 20 km from the town of Albertville. The organisation of the accommodation consisted of some existing hotels and other buildings that will be used as resorts in the post-Olympic period. The Olympic Village included a residential area and an international area where different services were offered: polyclinic, event area, recreation area, post office, multi-purpose centre, restaurants, shops, administrative areas, medical area and sports facilities²⁷. In the post-event phase, the hotels reverted to private owners and the accommodation units in the other locations were converted into tourist accommodation. The Albertville edition was strongly inspired by the first winter editions which were planned in small mountain villages through hotel structures.



²⁷ *Rapport Officiel des XVIes Jeux Olympiques d'hiver d'Albertville et de la Savoie*, Organizing Committee of the XVI Olympic Winter Games of Albertville and Savoie, 1992, pp. 406- 417.



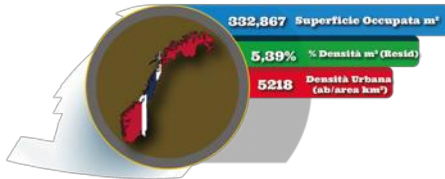
Lillehammer 1994

The planning of the Olympic event in Lillehammer was strongly concerned with respecting environmental measures and sustainable development for the future of the winter edition of the Olympic Games. Therefore, the construction of the Olympic Village was geared towards the use of materials that could be reused in the post-Olympic period. All buildings were constructed in timber, prefabricated components and traditional construction techniques. Of all the houses built, only 185 have been converted into permanent accommodation for the citizens. As the city did not need new houses, the organising committee decided to transform a huge area of 23 hectares into a temporary Olympic Village. Olympic athletes had access to discotheques, a games room, sports facilities, a library, a bookshop, bars, restaurants, shops, cafés and a medical centre²⁸. The international part of the Village was retained permanently to offer the new services to the citizens and the permanent structures were sold to private individuals for the post-Olympic period. In addition, the temporary structures were dismantled and given to Sweden to provide homes for families in difficulty.

The Olympic Village in Lillehammer will be inspiring for the respect for the environment and the use of temporary accommodation structures that have only been seen in the first editions of the Summer Olympic Games.

²⁸ *Guide des Villages olympiques*, Lillehammer Olympic Organizing Committee, 1994, pp. 39- 40; *Rapport officiel des XVIIes Jeux Olympiques d'hiver Lillehammer 1994*, Lillehammer Olympic Organizing Committee, 1995, vol. 2, pp. 108-116 & vol. 3, pp. 76-79.

LILLEHAMMER
1994
Skarsoella

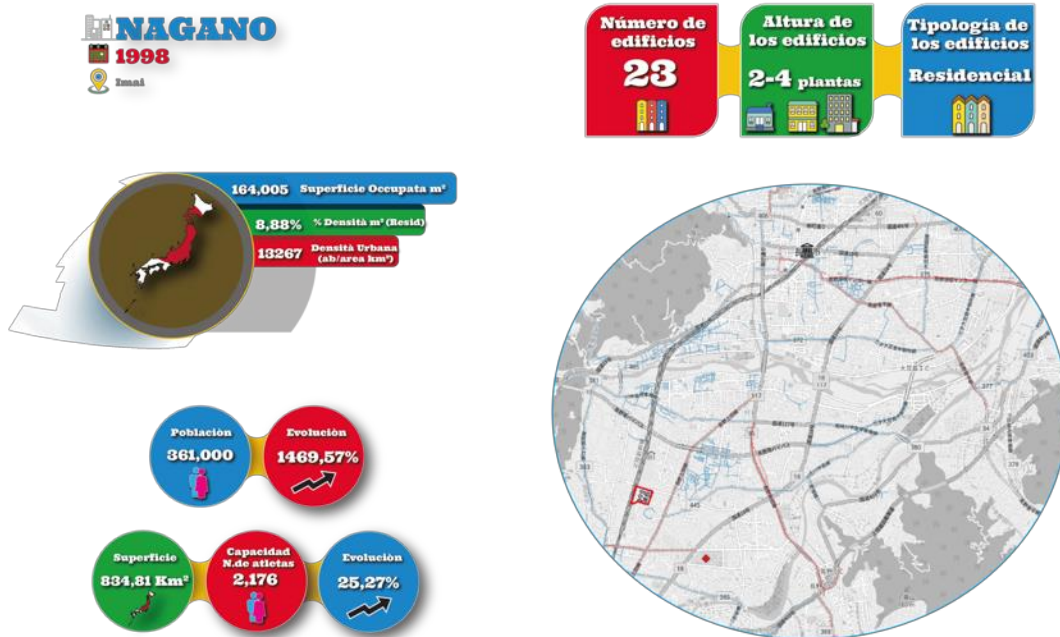


LILLEHAMMER
1994
Skarsoella



Nagano 1998

The Nagano Olympic Village was envisaged through strategic planning of the entire Olympic area. The Olympic Village complex was built to become a residential neighbourhood in a peripheral area of the city that during the Olympic period could be used for the functions of the event. Therefore, during the event different temporary structures were built and furniture rented to save organisational costs. The temporary facilities would include banks, post office, meeting area, internet room, a polyclinic, shops, cinemas, theatre, discotheque, restaurants, bars and more²⁹ The organising committee tried to reduce the waste from the Olympic Villages by turning it into fertiliser for the land. Nagano continued to apply and evolve practices to protect the environment and reduce the impact of the event. The entire area during the post-Olympic period became a residential neighbourhood managed by the Nagano municipality.



²⁹ *Les XVIIIes Jeux Olympiques d'hiver: rapport officiel Nagano 1998*, Organizing Committee for the XVIII Olympic Winter Games Nagano 1998, 1999, vol. 2, pp. 238-251.



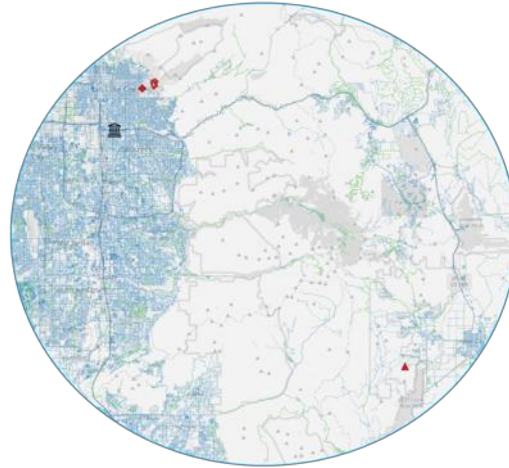
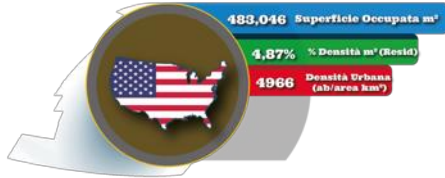
Salt Lake 2002

The Salt Lake Olympic Village was intended to be used for student housing for the University of Utah and the redevelopment of a former military area: Fort Douglas. The Olympic Village could accommodate over 3,5000 people and the international areas included common areas, reception, restaurants, shops, sports facilities, auditorium, theatre and more³⁰.

Meanwhile, other facilities were planned only for the duration of the event and converted in the post-Olympic period. The revaluation of the military allowed the University of Utah to provide new student accommodation and new sports facilities.

³⁰ Salt Lake 2002: Rapport officiel des XIXes Jeux Olympiques d'hiver, Salt Lake Organizing Committee for the Olympic Winter Games of 2002, 2002, pp. 140-144.

SALT LAKE CITY
2002
 Salt Lake City



SALT LAKE CITY
2002
 Salt Lake City



Turin 2006

The 2006 edition of the Turin Olympics is recognised as the first edition to include three different Olympic Villages in a territorial space that had never been contemplated before. The construction of an Olympic Village in the city and two other Olympic Villages in the mountain communities will be the catalyst for transformations in the dimensions and organisation of the Winter Olympic event. The project envisaged the construction and re-use of existing structures that could be converted into accommodation for individuals, students and tourists. The Olympic Village in the metropolitan city of Turin was in a historic area that was converted into accommodation to become a new residential neighbourhood in the post-Olympic period. The construction of the Olympic Village was environmentally friendly through the use of reused materials, solar panels and independent heating³¹. The Turin Village was close to most of the sports facilities that were implemented in the city and the neighbourhood had all services and means of transport available³². Meanwhile, the other two Olympic Villages, in Sestriere and Bardonecchia, were planned to be converted into hotel accommodation in the post-Olympic period. The Sestriere Villa was an extension of an existing structure and was sold to private individuals³³. Meanwhile, the Olympic Village in Bardonecchia³⁴ was an abandoned hotel complex from the 1930s that was converted and completely renovated. In the post-event period, the aim was to convert the Turin Olympic Village into a mixed accommodation site, which to this day remains derelict. Meanwhile, the Olympic Villages of Sestriere and Bardonecchia, planned to be hotels, have enabled the towns to provide new hotel accommodation for winter tourism. The Turin edition was the promoter of a new type of development and exploitation of the Winter Olympics.

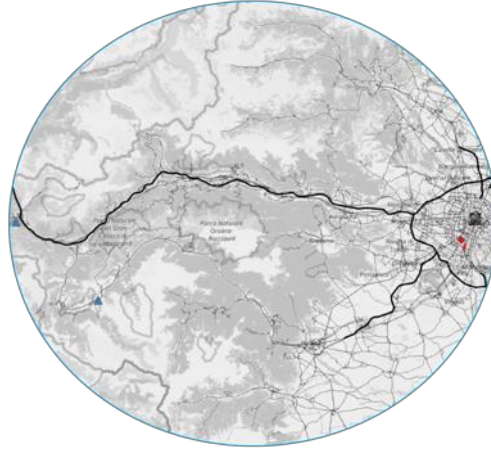
³¹ *XX Olympic Winter Games: Final Report*, Organising Committee for the XX Olympic Games Winter Games, 2007, vol. 1, pp. 105-110.

³² "Village olympique de Torino", sites de compétition - Torino, website of Turin 2006.

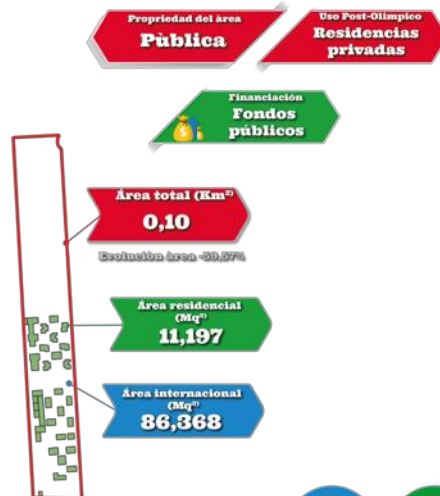
³³ "Le Village olympique de Sestrières", sites de compétition - Sestrière, website of Turin 2006.

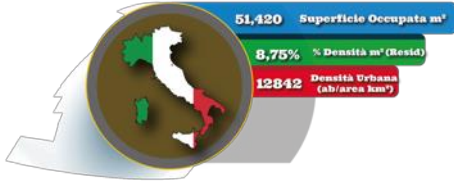
³⁴ "Le Village olympique de Bardonecchia", sites de compétition - Bardonecchia, website of Turin 2006.

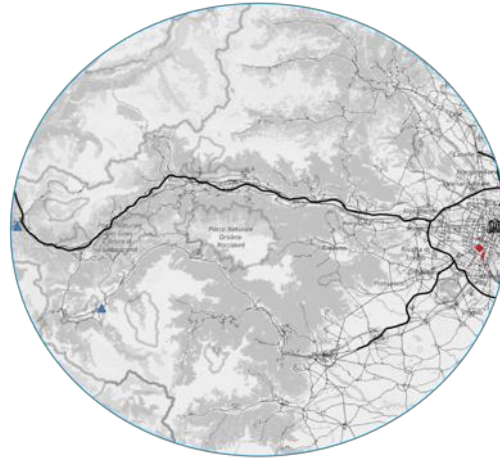
TORINO
2006
Torino



TORINO
2006
Torino







Evolución área -0,07%



Vancouver 2010

The planning of the Vancouver Olympic Village was included in a major revaluation project of a disused area: *False Creek*. The *False Creek* area became a huge area of mixed housing developed by private and public funds. The construction of the Village allowed for the implementation of various environmental sustainability initiatives, such as waste collection, new flora and fauna, green roofs, waste treatment, stormwater and wastewater collection, and other projects to implement sustainable practices in the city of Vancouver³⁵. The Olympic Village had a compact design and enjoyed all the services needed to reach the city centre, the competition areas and the Olympic celebration squares. All Olympic athletes were housed in a large Olympic Village that could accommodate more than 3,000 athletes. The area became a communal area and the housing was sold to private individuals. However, some 250 houses were used as social housing. The new area offered a personalised training centre, a shopping centre, restaurants, services and transport.



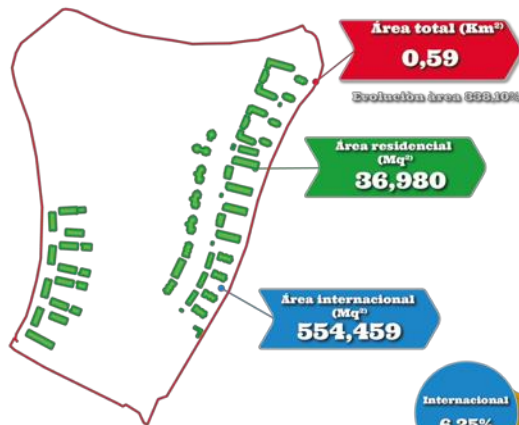
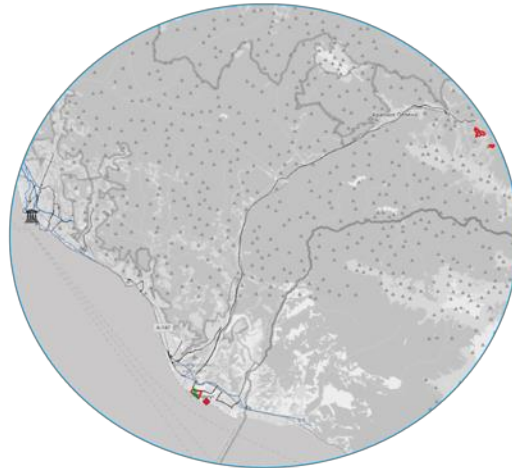
³⁵ "Quelle journée", *Le Village: Vancouver 2010*, Vancouver Organising Committee for the 2010 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games, 21 February 2010.

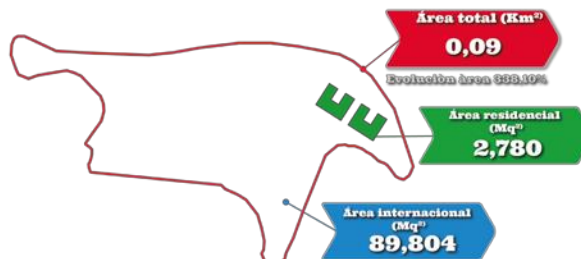
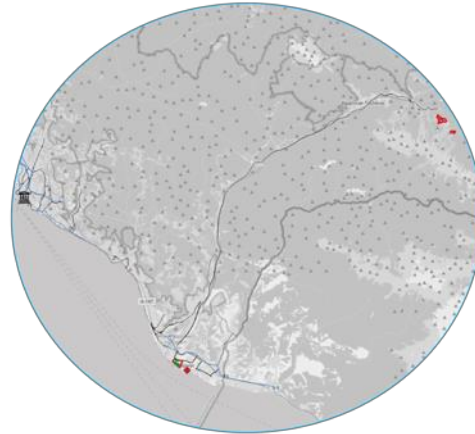
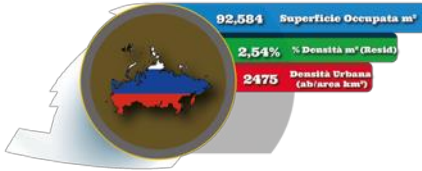


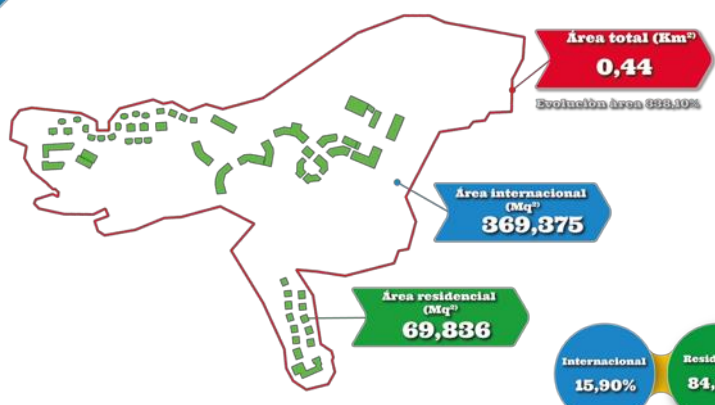
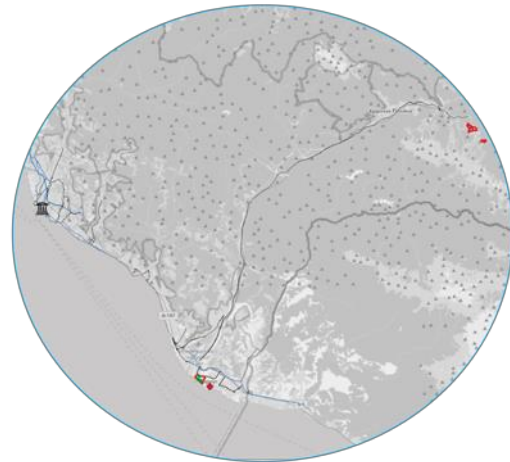
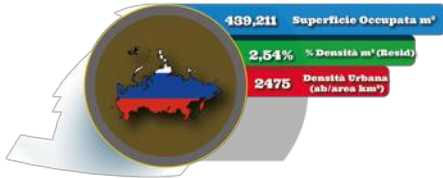
Sochi 2014

The organisation of the Sochi Olympics was embedded in a very complex spatial planning where the three Olympic Villages were the three main centres of this spatial model. Each Olympic Village had its own identity and its outmost post-Olympic function. The Sochi Village was in a new area close to the venues and sports halls. In addition, the Village was included in an area with all kinds of services. In the village of Rosa Khutor and in the town of Sloboda the other Olympic Villages were arranged, they had their own identities and the same level of service as the Sochi Olympic Village³⁶. The accommodation in the mountain villages in the post-Olympic period was converted into hotels and flats. Meanwhile, the Sochi Olympic Village was reused as a residence. The Sochi edition is considered inspirational for host cities that want to propose a mountain tourism project in a location with a subtropical climate.

³⁶ *Rapport Officiel: Sochi 2014 Games Olympiques d'hiver*, Sochi Organising Committee for the 2014 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games, 2015, vol. 3, pp. 36-38.

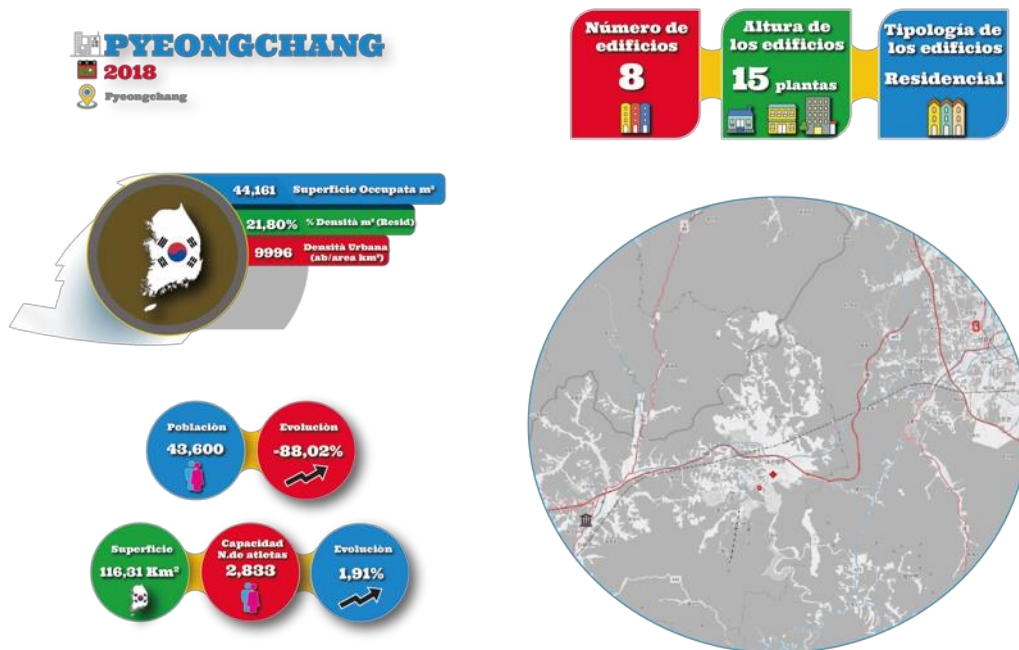






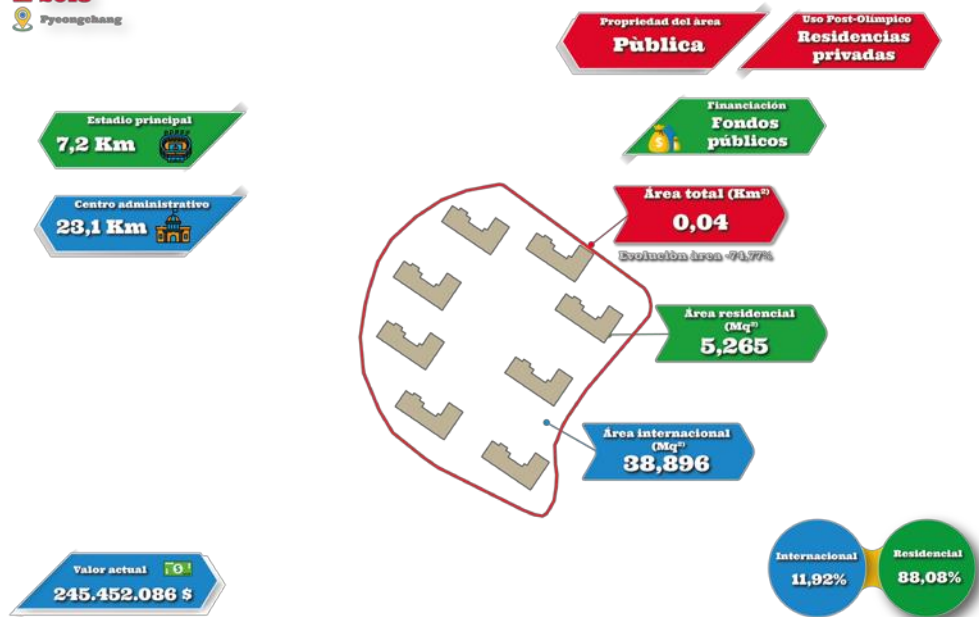
PyeongChang 2018

The construction of the two PyeongChang Olympic Villages was included in a housing development plan for the two cities hosting the Olympic competitions: PyeongChang and Gangneung. The structures were intended to increase the hotel offer and exploit winter tourism in the two cities. The organisers opted for new sustainable measures to respect the environment. The residential area was equipped with all the essential facilities and services for the athletes. A gymnasium, restaurants, polyclinic, leisure area, banks, tourist office, shops, bars and more³⁷. In the post-Olympic period, the accommodation was converted into private flats and subsequently sold to private individuals. However, there was no interest in the tourist exploitation project, which is why they were converted into accommodation.

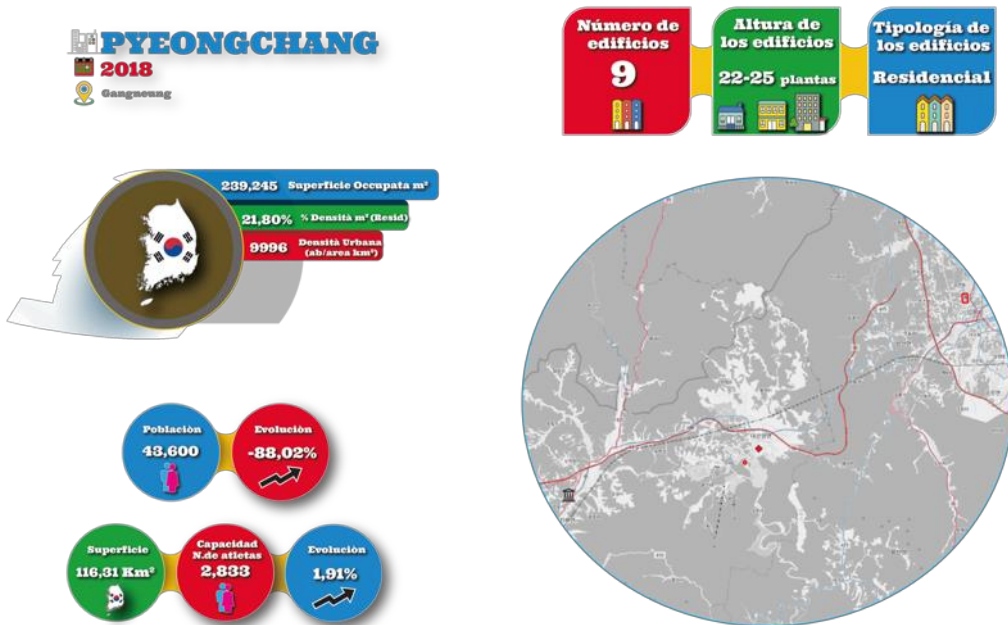


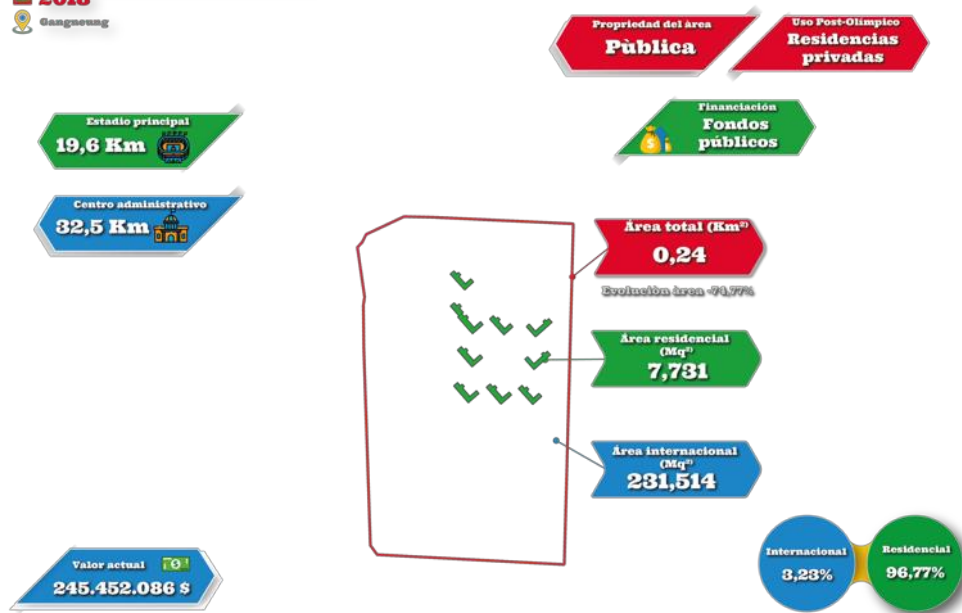
³⁷ *Olympic Village Guide: PyeongChang 2018*, The PyeongChang Organising Committee for the 2018 Olympic & Paralympic Winter Games, 2018, pp. 6, 9-21, 26-27.

PYEONGCHANG
2018
 Pyeongchang



PYEONGCHANG
2018
 Gangneung





Beijing 2022

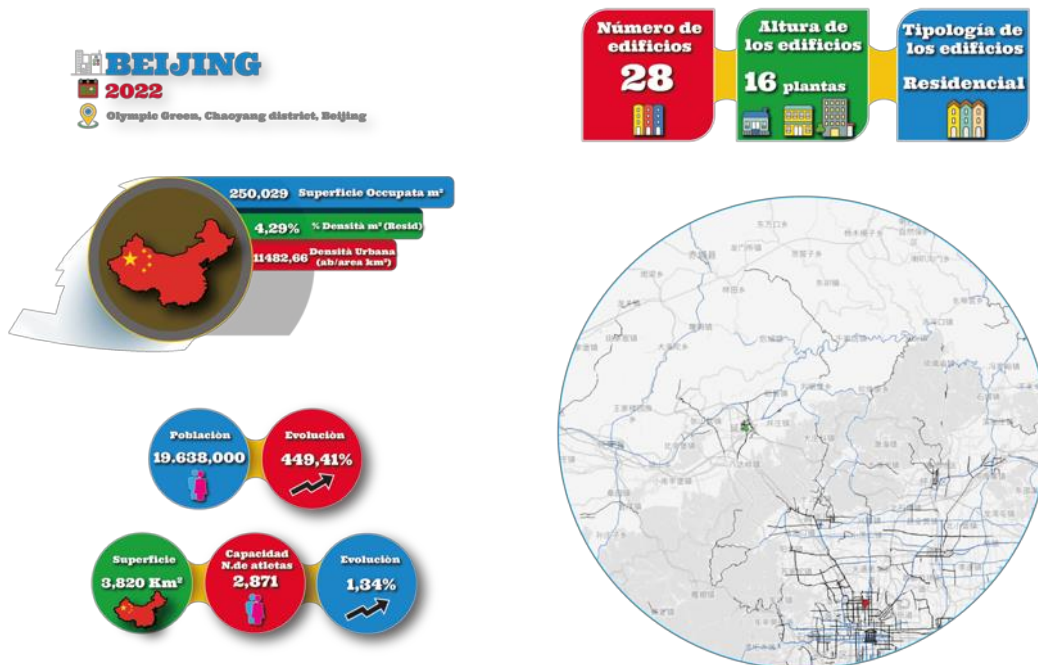
The 2022 Beijing Olympics comprised three different Olympic areas in a territorial space that has reached a distance of 160 km between the main Olympic Village in the city and the Olympic Village in Yanqing. The Olympics would be held in three main hubs: Beijing, Yanqing and Zhangjiakou³⁸. The construction of a central Olympic Village in the metropolis of Beijing was included in the area where the 2008 Summer Olympics were held. Meanwhile, in the two mountainous locations of Yanqing and Zhangjiakou, the other two Olympic Villages were planned. The Olympic Village in the city has 20 residential buildings and can accommodate 2,338 athletes during the Games. The Village was located in the centre of the metropolitan city, close to the National Olympic Sports Centre. During the post-Olympic phase, the project foresees that the residences will be rented from citizens and managed entirely by the central government. Meanwhile, the Olympic Villages in the mountain localities of Chaoyang and Yangqing districts have some 3,500 beds, while the Zhangjiakou locality will be able to accommodate some 2,800 athletes and Olympic team officials.

The Yangqing Olympic Village will predominantly host athletes competing in sports such as skating and alpine skiing. Meanwhile, the Zhangjiakou Village will host skiers, snowboarders and ski jumpers. The Yangqing Olympic Village is located at the foot of Haituo Mountain, a place surrounded by mountains and forests. The Village area is located in a village in the centre of historical ruins in a setting of diverse geological landscape and ecological environment. The Village consists of 6 groups of residences

³⁸ Beijing Organising Committee for the 2022 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games, THE LEGACY PLAN OF THE OLYMPIC AND PARALYMPIC WINTER GAMES BEIJING 2022, Beijing, 2019

which in the post-Olympic period will be transformed into hotels for the tourism development of Yangqing County.

Meanwhile, Zhangjiakou Olympic Village is located in the snow city of Taizicheng and occupies a total area of 197,600 m². The Olympic Village space consists of a residential area and an international area including restaurants, clinic, gymnasium, religious centre, leisure and training centre, residents' centre, delegation leader room, service centre and common spaces. The residential area consists of 31 houses divided into ten groups, which in the post-Olympic period will form a new mountain resort for the exploitation of winter tourism in the town of Taizicheng. The Beijing Games will be recognised as the most ambitious project ever in a regional Olympic area, which has never been seen before.





Considerations on the Winter Olympic Villages

As we have been able to observe from the proposed comparative analyses, over the years the Olympic Villages have evolved through different spatial models about the requirements of each specific location. However, the initial projects foresaw the use of hotels and resorts in places with a strong vocation for winter sports. From Oslo in 1952, their Olympic Village began to evolve through urban planning models that determined new accommodation constructions for the different cities. However, the Grenoble edition will mean the evolution of a regional model that will be confirmed only with the Turin edition and the planning of three permanent Olympic Villages on a very large territory. However, in Calgary, in Salt Lake, we have observed a temporary accommodation solution that was converted into student accommodation. The Olympic Villages continue to inspire the different operating models of the new host cities. Over time, we have observed different forms, typologies and structures that have become a heritage of the candidate cities or localities. However, the evolution of the number of athletes and Olympic competitions has increased the difficulty of organising the event through a territorial model supported by infrastructures. As we have noted above, since Turin 2006, the spatial dimension of the event has maintained a regional relevance through the main structure to be set up in the candidate metropolitan city. The Sochi, PyeongChang and Beijing editions confirm the trend of an expansion of the Olympic dimension on a regional territory. We will conclude by looking at the minimum and maximum values of each element analysed to make a ranking of the Olympic Villages over time.

Main stadium

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Grenoble 1968	600 m.	Grenoble 1968	101,17 km.

Administrative centre

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Vancouver 2010	1,5 km.	Vancouver 2010	115,63 km.

Number of buildings

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Squaw valley 1960 Innsbruck 1964	4	Squaw valley 1960 Innsbruck 1964	185

Urban density (ab/area kmq)

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Calgary 1988	1.113,40 kmq	Calgary 1988	28.356,08 kmq

% Density mq2 (resid)

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Grenoble 1968	1,76%	Grenoble 1968	21,80%

Occupied area(mq2)

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Innsbruck 1964	38.475 mq2	Innsbruck 1964	1.278.087 mq2

Total Area (kmq)

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Innsbruck 1964	0,03 kmq	Innsbruck 1964	1,27 kmq

Residential area

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Innsbruck 1964	- 44,07%	Innsbruck 1964	98,75%
<i>International area</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Min	
Calgary 1988	1,25%	Calgary 1988	144,07%
<i>Current value</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Min	
Albertville 1992	\$783.770,00	Albertville 1992	\$6.660.596.000,00

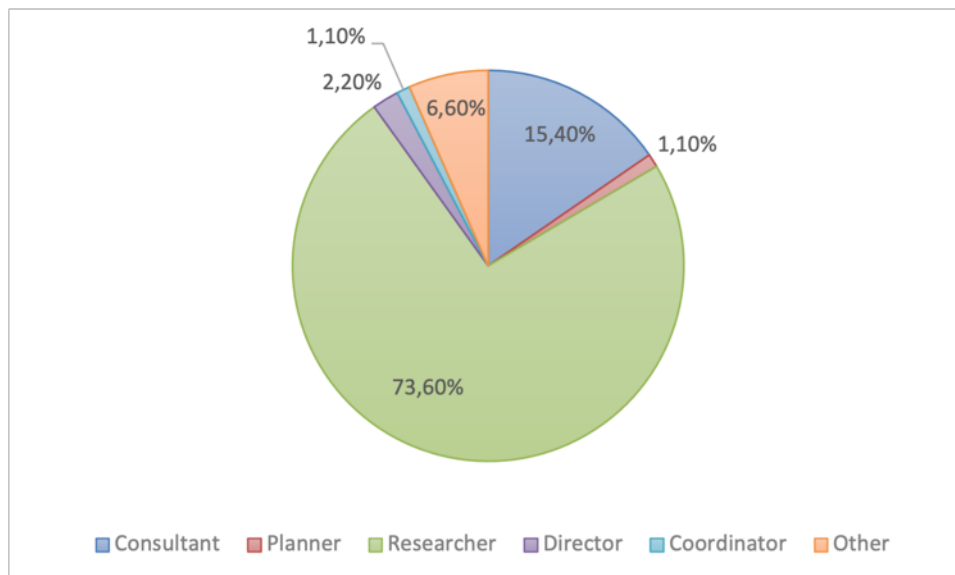
6.2. Considerations on Olympic urbanism and the Olympic Village. Expert's opinion

Block 1 - Profile of the sample

The results obtained from the questionnaire provided online for the collection of the quantitative research data are shown below. The questionnaire was answered by 85 people (see chapter II - Methodology). It should be noted that some questions allow for multiple responses to obtain a greater wealth of information. In addition, the spreadsheet containing the results obtained can be consulted in the annexes. The results will be explained through the frequency of the answers and by observing the correlations between the answers using SPSS software. Likewise, the quantitative analysis will be supported by an analytical phase that will allow us to observe whether or not there are correlations between the answers to the research hypotheses. It should be noted that the quantitative interview was conducted in English and the questions were translated for the uniformity of the analysis. The original interview can be consulted in the annexes.

Profile

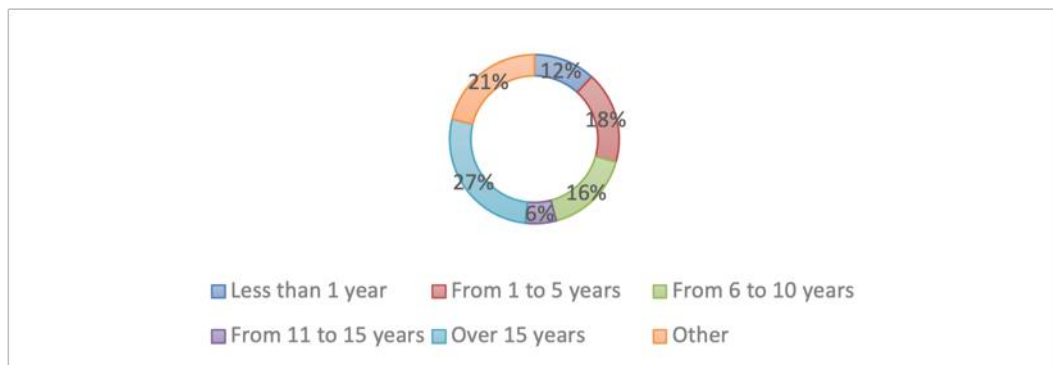
1. What role do you play in your relationship with the International Olympic Committee? (Multiple choice)



As can be seen in the graph, the interviewees have different relationships with the International Olympic Committee. The most frequent relationship between the interviewees in the sample and the IOC is that of the researcher with 73.60%.

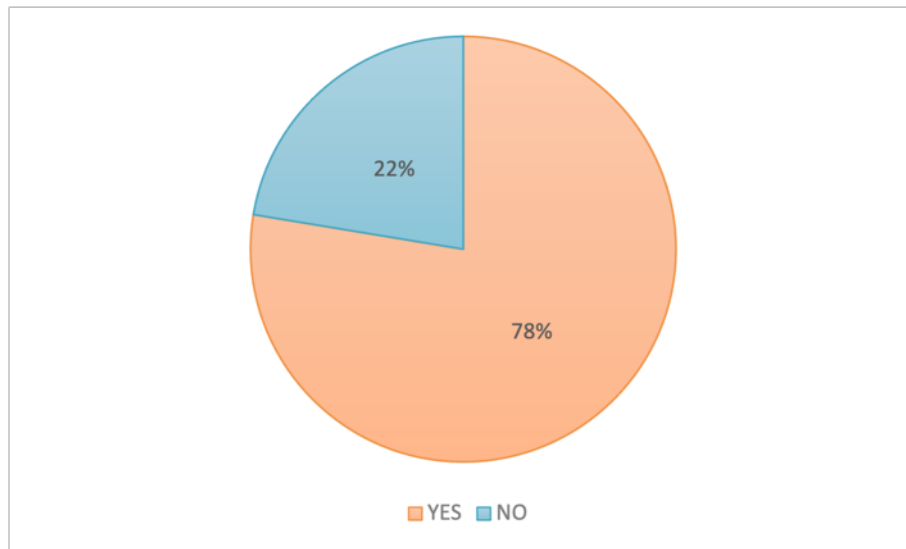
Meanwhile, the second most common relationship is that of project or task coordinator specifically for the Olympic Games. Finally, the third most common response by percentage was "other relationships". On the other hand, a proportion of respondents stated that they had no direct relationship with the International Olympic Committee and would therefore be considered independent.

2. How long have you been working with the International Olympic Committee?



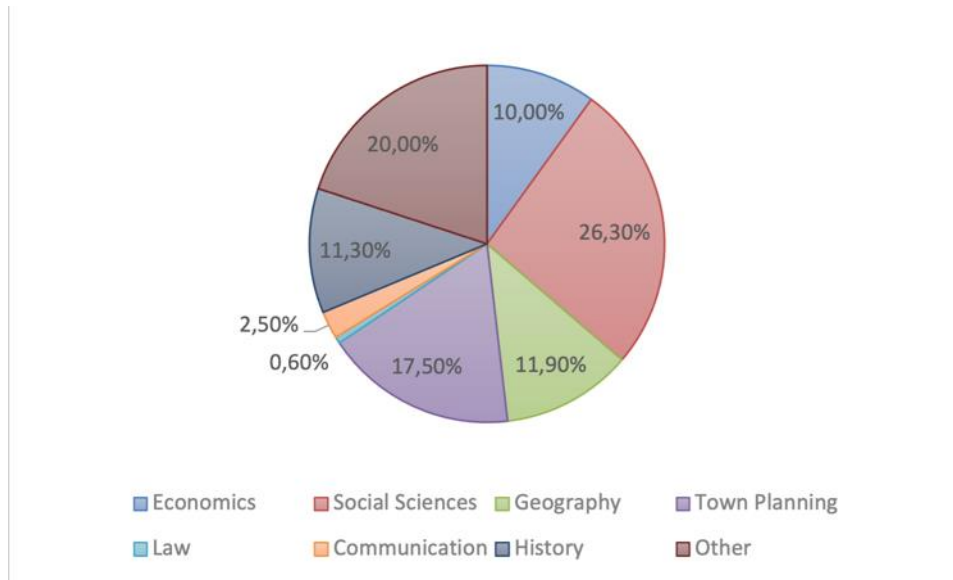
The graph of the following question allows us to observe how the sample is quite heterogeneous and helps us to understand how the majority of the interviewees have had and continue to have relations with the International Olympic Committee for more than fifteen (15) years (27%). The time of collaboration of the interviewees should be interpreted through the above questions about their role and their collaboration over time. These data allow us to observe how the second most frequent response of the sample refers to a relationship from one (1) to five (5) years (18%). The following data allow us to observe the phenomenon under study through a fairly heterogeneous sample. In conclusion, it can be observed that 49% of the interviewees have had a relationship with the International Olympic Committee for more than six (6) years.

3. Have you personally contributed to the academic development of the Olympic Games?



The results obtained indicate that 78% of the respondents have directly contributed to the academic development of the Olympic Games and mega-events. In contrast, 22% of respondents have not contributed directly to the academic development of the Olympic phenomenon. It is worth noting that there are other ways to contribute to the academic development of the Olympic Games. For example, some interviewees have contributed to the communication and dissemination of good practices about the subject of study. In addition, some interviewees have studied the Olympic phenomenon through the implications that these events have had on the spatial transformations of cities or social transformations. Part of the sample, in their research career, have dealt with the Olympic Games through a multidisciplinary vision that was not exclusive to the Olympic event.

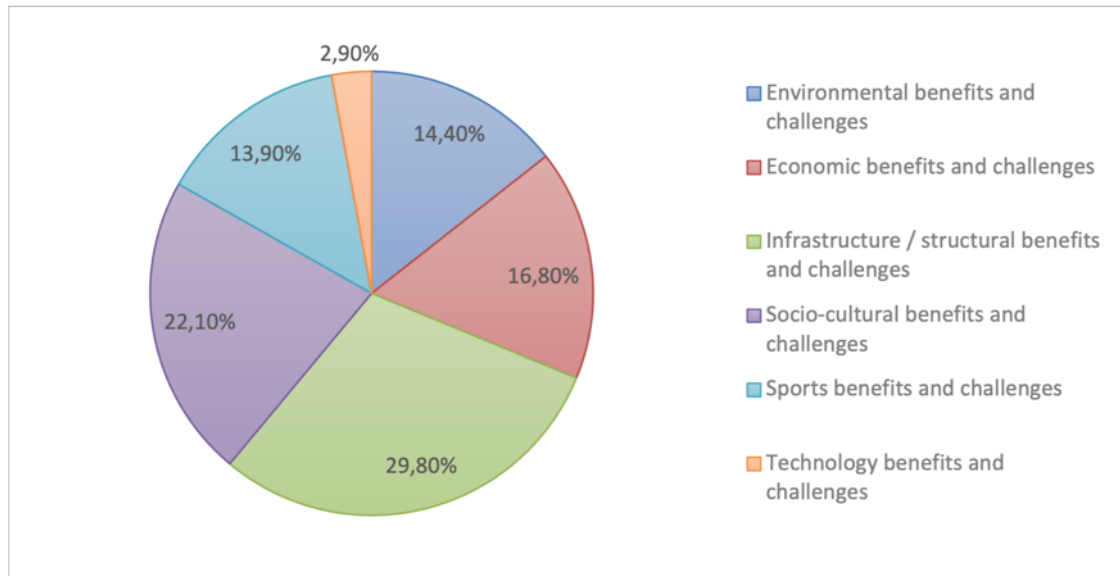
4. In case of positive affirmation of the previous question, could you specify in which of the following thematic areas you have worked or contributed knowledge (multiple choice)?



Multiple answers were given to the question about the areas of work of each interviewee to be able to observe the different areas of work of each interviewee in the survey. As can be seen, the interviewees have worked on and researched different topics in the case study and, therefore, the sample allows us to clarify that the area of social science is the one with the highest percentage of contributions to the phenomenon (26.30%). The combination of different subject areas helps us to know how the Olympic theme was researched through academic contributions in the following areas: geography (11.90%), urban planning (17.50%), economics (10%), and other disciplinary areas (20%) which have been identified in political science, tourism, territorial marketing, environmental sustainability and architecture. Similarly, we know that the area of communication and the area of law was not much researched by the respondents.

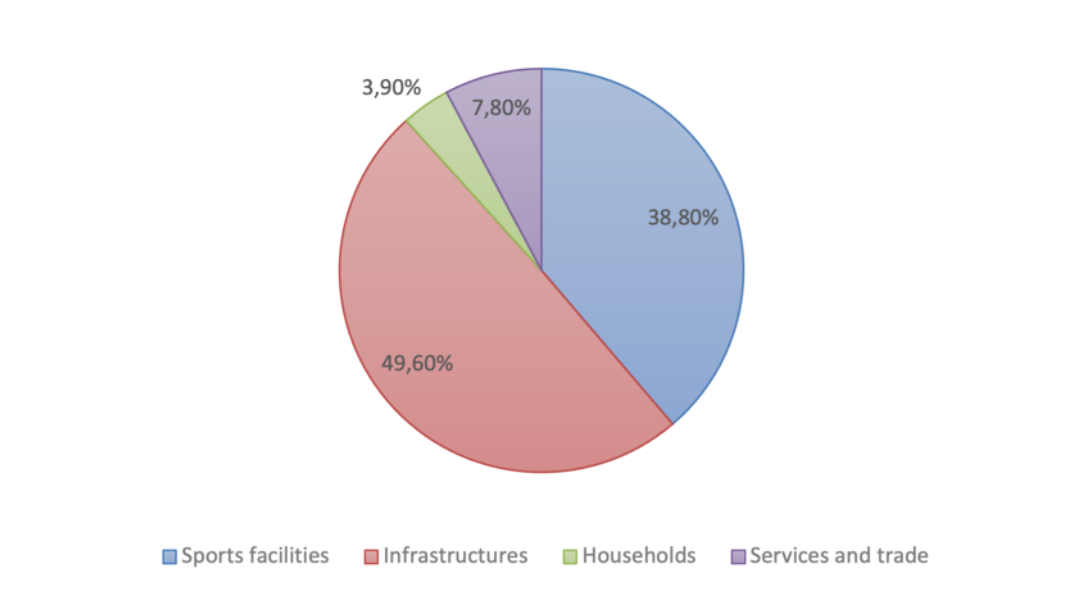
Olympic Games. Spatial transformations, impact and planning of the Olympic Village.

5. **The Olympic Games can be a promoter of benefits and challenges. In your opinion, which are the most important in the long term for citizens (multiple choice)?**



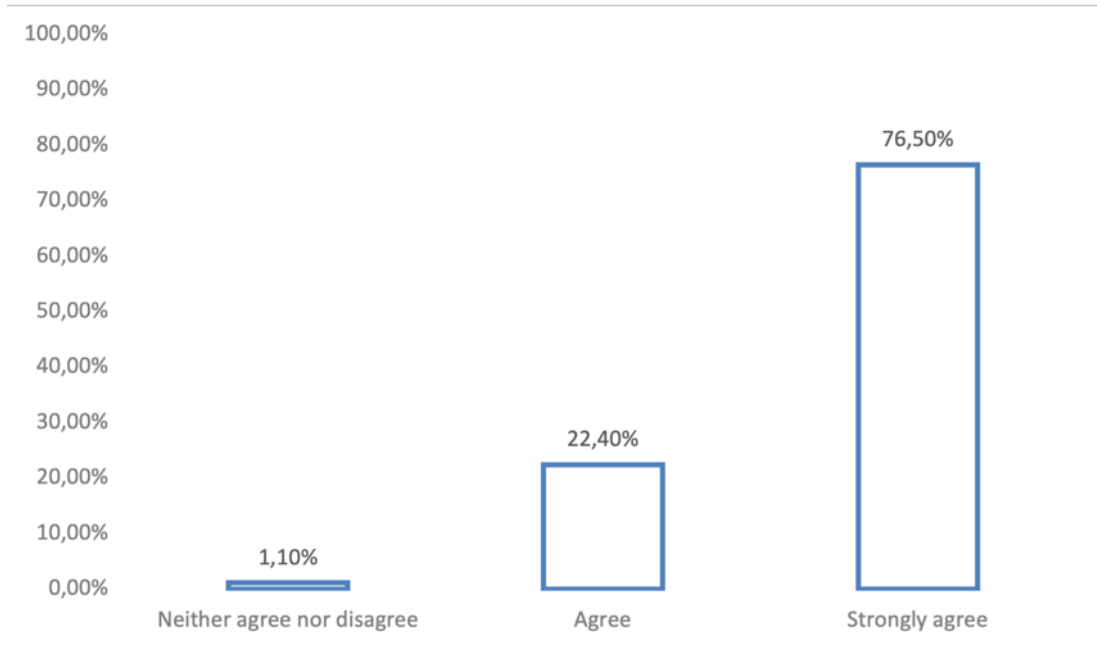
The following question, being quite broad, has considered different multiple answers to observe the phenomenon in its entirety, allowing respondents to answer comprehensively about the benefits and challenges induced by the Olympic event over time. According to the pie chart above, 29.80% of the respondents say that the most important benefits induced by the Olympic Games are focused on infrastructure and buildings. Thus, we can see how the physical changes, according to the opinion of the interviewees, turn out to be the most beneficial for the host city and its citizens. Returning to the graph and its results, it is evident how 22.10% of the respondent's state that socio-cultural benefits should be considered the most important after physical changes in Olympic cities. Similarly, sporting benefits and environmental benefits can produce important transformations that will benefit the citizens of the host cities in the post-Olympic period. Finally, 16.80% of respondents say that economic changes should be considered the most important benefits induced by the Olympic Games.

6. Over the years we have seen different planning models for the Olympic Games. In your opinion, in which of the following areas have the most important physical changes been observed (multiple choice)?



The percentages obtained after the previous question were extracted through multiple responses to allow respondents to offer their opinion about the different physical changes brought about by the Olympic Games. In addition, the following question should be analysed through the preceding questions to be able to observe in its entirety the physical changes that the Olympic event can promote. Almost half of the respondents (49.60%) state that the most important physical changes brought about by the Olympic Games are observed in the infrastructural system. Meanwhile, 38.80% state that the most important physical changes are related to the sports facilities. These two responses allow us to see how almost 90% of the answers indicate that the physical changes induced by the Olympic Games are related to the infrastructural transformations of the host cities. Finally, a small percentage of respondents (7.80%) indicate that services and transactions are the most important physical changes brought about by the Olympic Games. On the other hand, only 3.90% of respondents consider the home as an element of physical transformation induced by the Olympics in the host city.

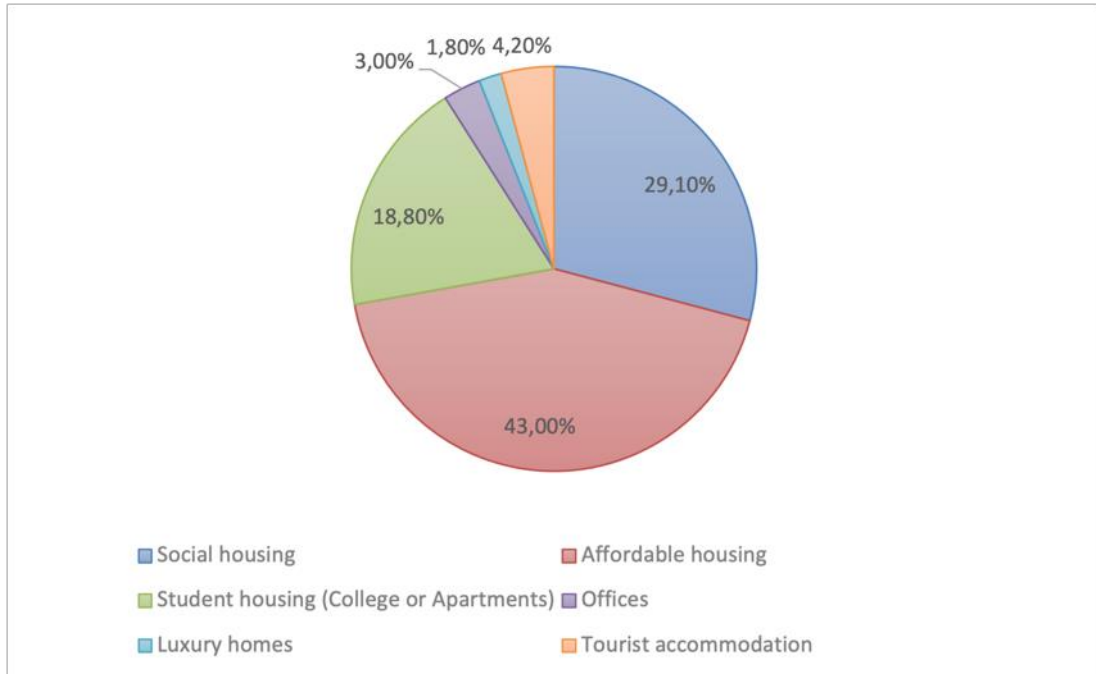
7. Should the construction of the Olympic Village be integrated into the city's own long-term housing strategy?



The responses to the above question are shown in a bar chart according to the Likert scale, thus 76.50% of the respondents agree with the idea of integrating the Olympic Village into the city's long-term housing strategy. The graphical representation confirms that 98.90% of respondents consider that the Olympic Village should be integrated into the housing strategies of each host city.

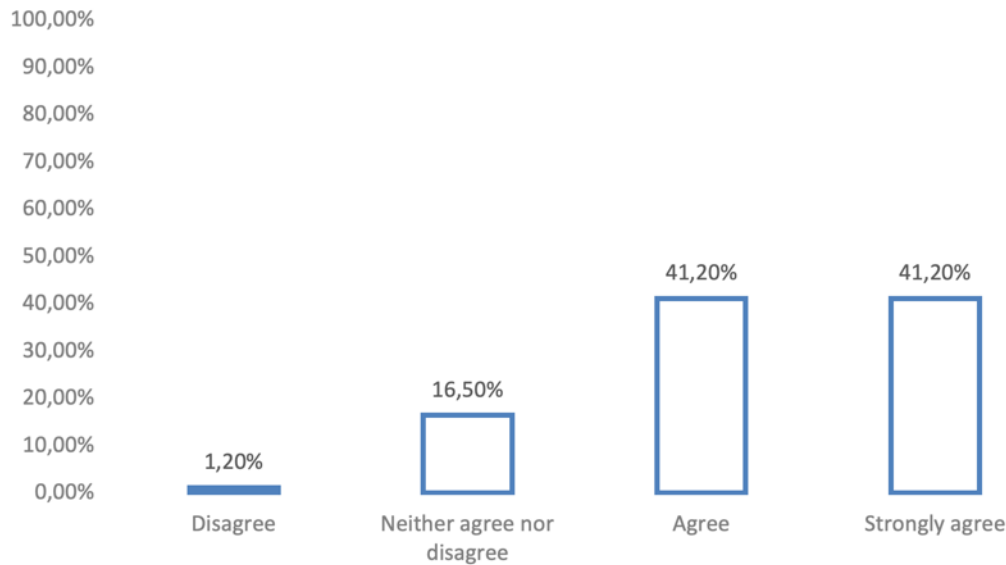
The integration of the Olympic Village into the long-term housing strategy can help to reduce the potential for abandonment and speculation in housing prices observed in Olympic cities in the post-Olympic period.

8. Which of the following solutions could be the best strategy to boost housing development in the long term in candidate cities (*multiple choice*)?



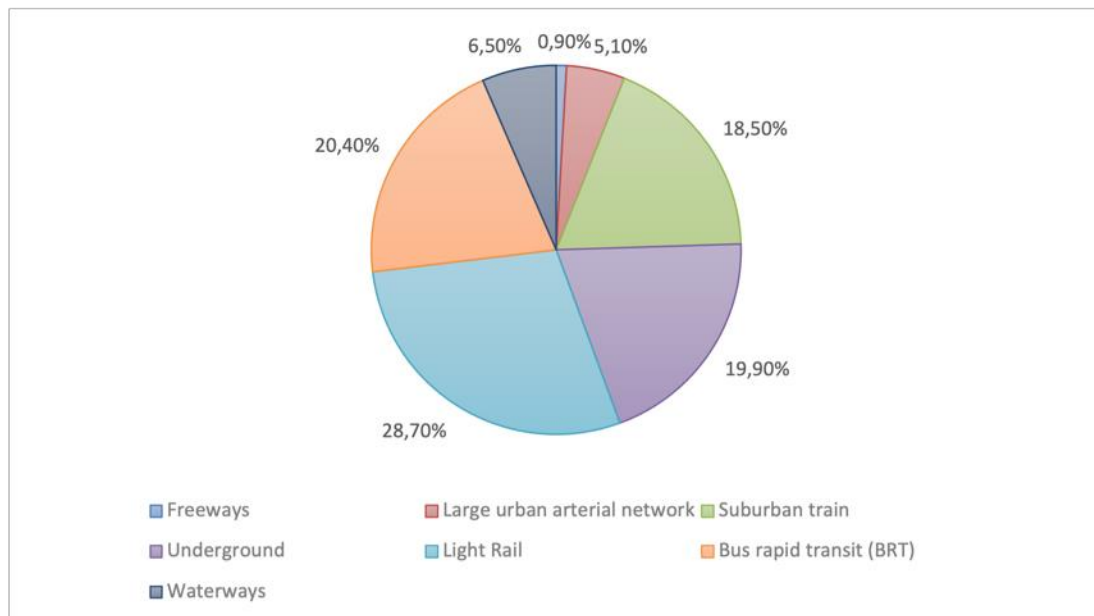
Respondents' answers regarding the best housing strategy in the Olympic cities, with 43% of the respondents, establish the adoption of affordable housing strategies. Meanwhile, the second strategy that can be promoted through the Olympic Village in the candidate cities refers to the planning of social housing (29.10%). The other strategy that proves to be quite representative, with 18.80% of the votes, advances a solution of student accommodation in halls of residence or flats. Finally, respondents mentioned other solutions and strategies such as offices (3%), tourist accommodation (4.20%) and luxury flats (1.80%), which are not very representative in the previous graph. The different housing solutions provided by the Olympic Villages allow us to see how the candidate cities must choose a strategy that can boost long-term housing development in the candidate cities. Providing affordable housing or social housing can foster integration and wealth distribution in the neighbourhood and the Olympic city over time. In addition, housing strategies that are not citizen-centred will prove to be the wrong choice for the development of a new form of housing over time.

9. Could the construction of the Olympic Village - establishing new relations with the different territorial areas - condition the future natural development of the public transport system in the candidate cities?



The answers to the previous question are shown in a bar chart according to a Likert scale, to allow respondents to express their views on the impact of the Olympic Villages on the public transport system of the host cities. 41.20% of the respondents fully agree with the conditioning of the Olympic Villages in about future development of the existing infrastructures in the urban fabric. In addition, 41.20% of respondents they agree, and only 16.50% of respondents neither agree nor disagree. The responses obtained allow us to theorise that the Olympic Villages can condition the organisation of public transport services in the candidate cities (82.40%). The location of the Olympic Village on the territory will inevitably entail a rethinking of the infrastructural system for the temporary and permanent connection of the new accommodation and facilities provided for the Olympic event.

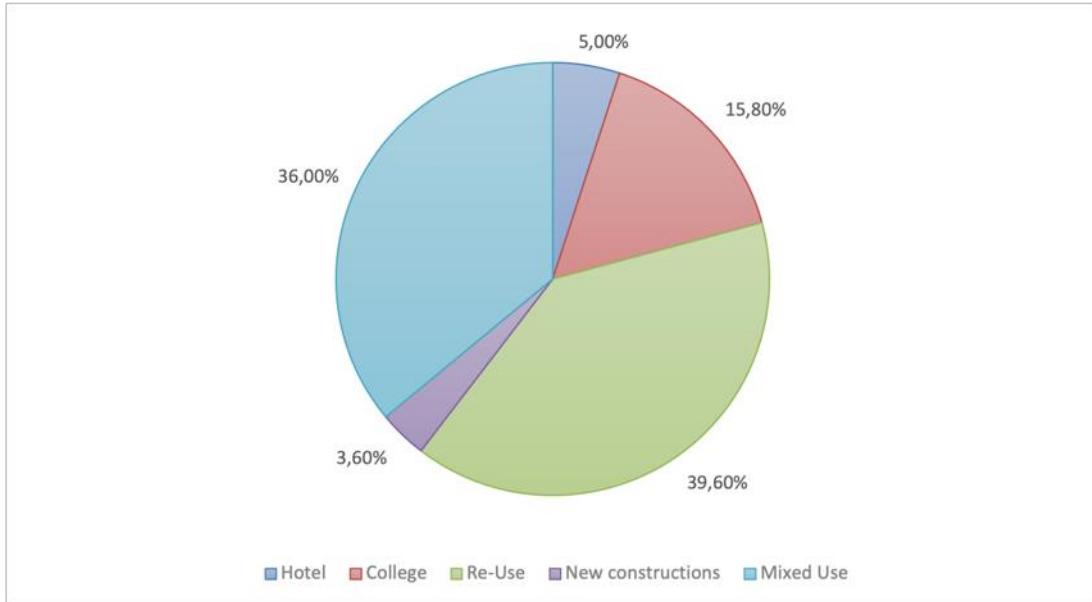
10. What could be the best integrated transport solutions to connect the Olympic Village with the sports venues and sub-venues? (Multiple choice)?



This question collects multiple answers for the identification of integrated transport solutions for connections and interconnections between Olympic Villages, sports venues and sub-venues. This question allows us to look at a different mix of transport within the same frame of reference. The light rail is the most valued integrated transport by 28.70% of the respondents. Equally important is the bus rapid transit system, which was mentioned by 20.40% of respondents. In addition, it is interesting to see how the metro system is an advanced transport solution for 19.90% of those interviewed. Finally, the graph reflects how 18.50% of the respondents stated that marine transport can be a suitable means of integrated transport solution between the Olympic Villages. On the other hand, 6.50% of the responses reflect those motorways are the best solution for the development of integrated transport and another 5.10% of them that the major urban arteries are the best solution for the development of integrated transport in the Olympic Village. If we combine these results with those obtained with the previous answer, we can see how an organisation of the transport system through new light rail lines and rapid bus services will inevitably change the connections and interconnections of the city. Furthermore, the organisation of roads and the public transport system will have a profound effect on the future of the Olympic Village in the territory.

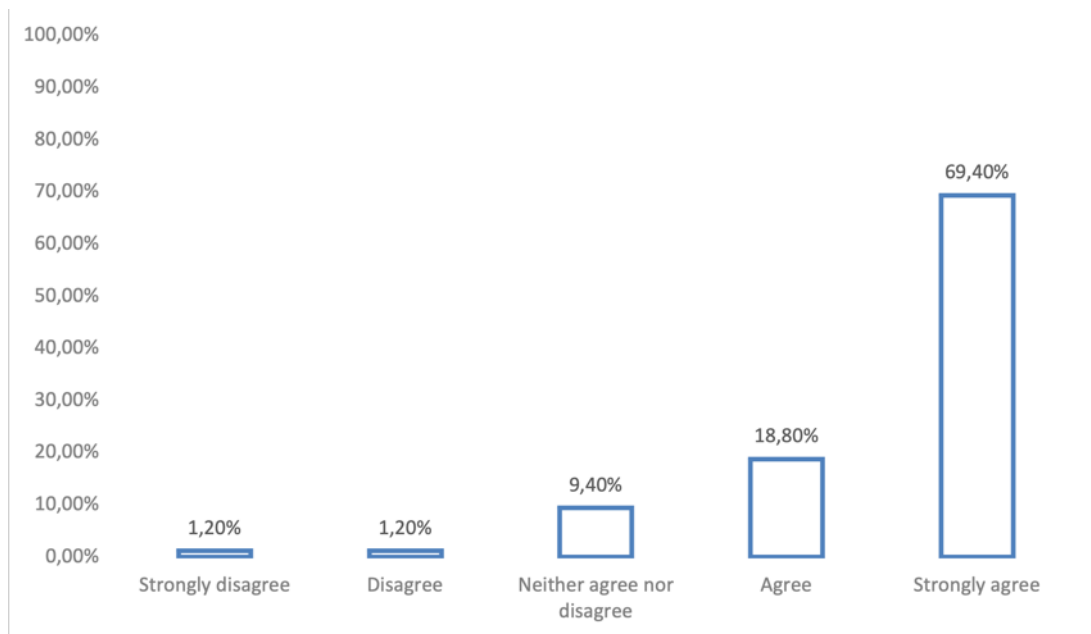
Olympic Village

11. Over time, different models of the use of Olympic Villages have been distinguished. In your opinion, which solution(s) could be reduce the environmental impact (*multiple answer*)?



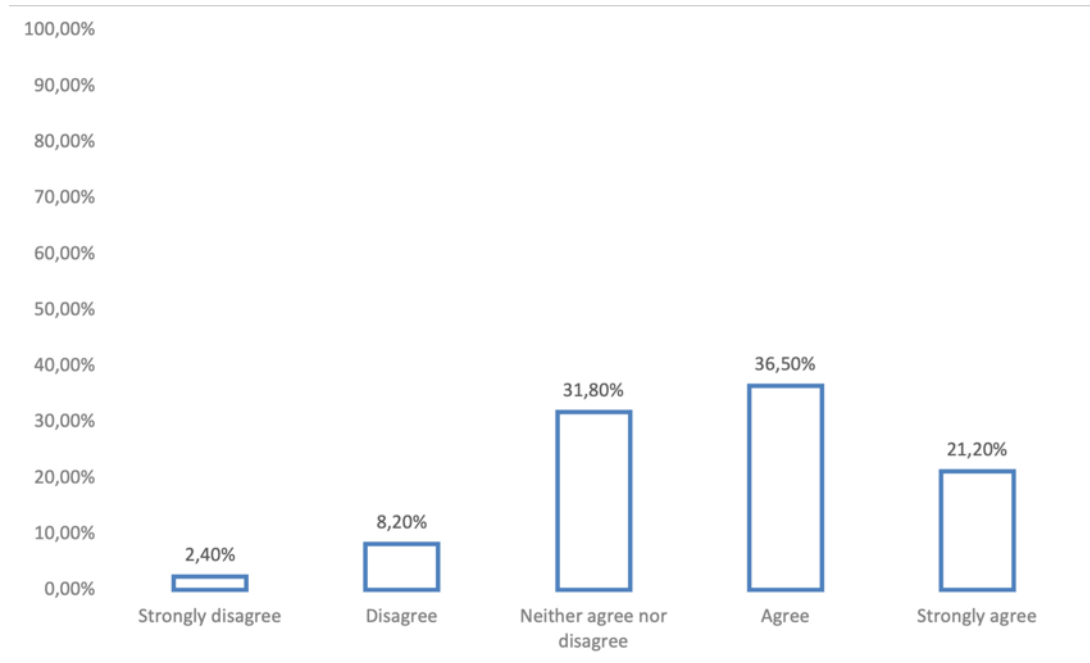
The answers to the previous question are shown in a pie chart with multiple answers, thus allowing us to observe how the reuse of the structures present in the territory is the model chosen by 39.60% of the interviewees. A similar percentage to the previous one is the adoption of a mixed Olympic Village accommodation model that involves different housing models and different accommodation models. On the other hand, 15.80% of the responses show that the university housing solution can be a solution to reduce the territorial impact of the Olympic Village. Meanwhile, a small part of the responses, 5%, chose the construction of hotels as the solution with the least impact on the territory. Finally, only 3.60% of the responses indicate that newly built accommodation is the solution that could reduce the territorial impact. The construction of new temporary housing for Olympic athletes should be provided in a way that can reduce the territorial impact. The planning of temporary accommodation solutions should also consider models of re-use of structures and mixed accommodation solutions that could encourage diversification of housing in the new Olympic Neighbourhood.

12. Does the Olympic Village need to be planned through a specific strategy?



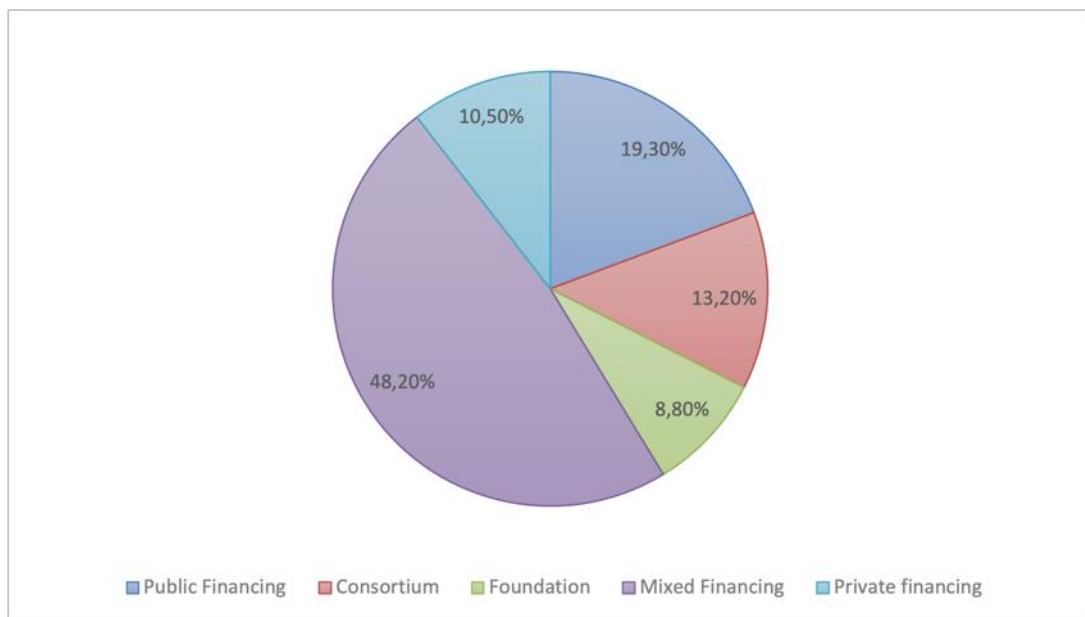
The answers to the above question are shown in a bar chart according to the Likert scale, thus respondents agree on the importance of providing a specific strategy for the realisation of the Olympic Village on the territory. The implementation of a clear strategy from the outset will reduce the risk of abandonment and property speculation associated with the Olympic event. Converting the responses obtained into dichotomous variables, there is a 97.60% coincidence in the relation to a specific strategy for the planning and execution of new housing in the territory. By adopting a specific strategy, cities will be able to respond effectively to the changes induced by new accommodations in the territory.

13. In your opinion, the Olympic Village can be defined as a special urban planning instrument capable of guaranteeing its own identity over time?



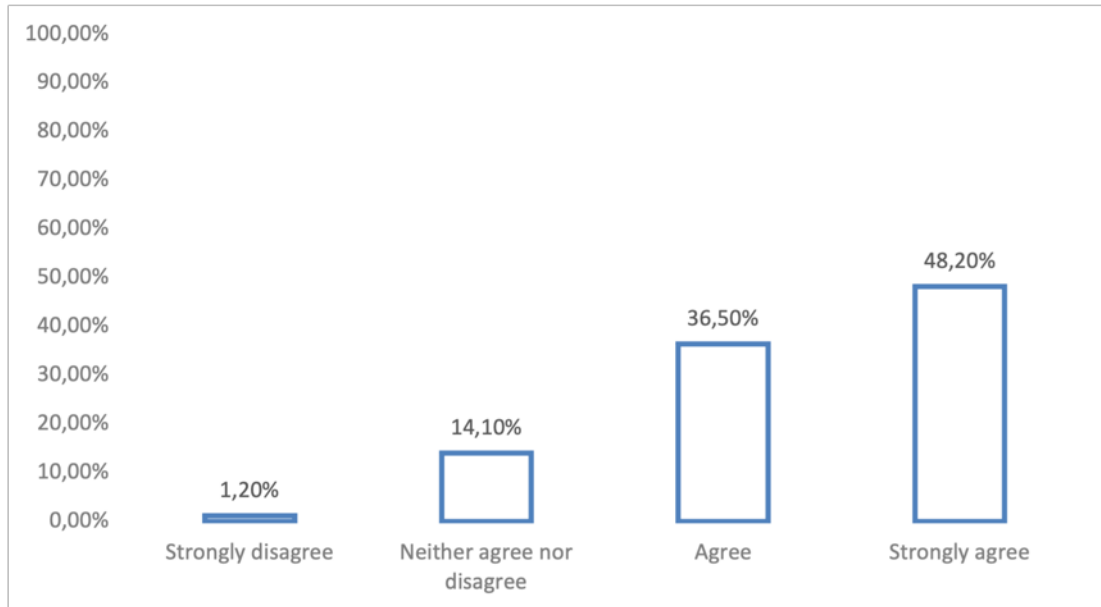
The answers to the previous question are shown in a bar chart according to the Likert scale to be able to observe the Olympic Village as a special urban planning tool for the creation of a territorial identity over time. 57.70% of the participants agree with the importance of the Olympic Village as an urban planning tool for the future of the candidate cities. Meanwhile, it is interesting to note that 31.80% of the respondents are undecided about the consideration of the Olympic Village as an urban planning tool. This question allows us to clarify and affirm that the Olympic Village is a special urban planning instrument, due to its temporary nature. Moreover, over time we have seen many examples of Olympic Villages that constitute an architectural identity of their own in cities. The adaptation of the Olympic Village to the urban fabric is essential to guarantee the identity of the Olympic Village in the host territory. On the other hand, 10.60% of the respondents do not agree with the definition of a special urban planning instrument to guarantee the long-term identity of the Olympic Village in the urban fabric. It should be taken into consideration that, in some cases, the Olympic Village was completely forgotten by the host cities, and in other cases, its special character was not recognised.

14. What could be the most efficient exploitation model for the management of the Olympic Village over time (multiple choice)?



The answers to the previous question are shown in a pie chart according to multiple answers, according to which 48.20% of the interviewees state that the most efficient operating model for the planning of the Olympic Village is the mixed economy model. The possibilities provided by a private subject allow for a more efficient exploitation model over time. The model of financing through public funds turned out to be the most suitable for 19.30% of the interviewees. This operating model, always in accordance with the previous answers, allows us to affirm that the implementation of a social housing model can only be provided through public funding. Private entities and companies will invest in public housing only if there is a potential profit. On the other hand, some interviewees have stated that consortium and foundation models can be effective models for the management of the Olympic Village over time. Finally, fully private financing was the answer given by 10.50% of the interviewees. This operating model about the evolution of the importance of housing does not prove to be an effective model for the management of the Olympic Village over time. Moreover, considering the experiences of Barcelona, Sydney, London, Vancouver, Turin, and Tokyo, we can identify mixed management models as the most efficient for the operation of the Olympic Village over time.

15. Do you think that the planning of the Olympic Village – to guarantee a long-term development in the city and the region - should be included in a territorial transformation project?

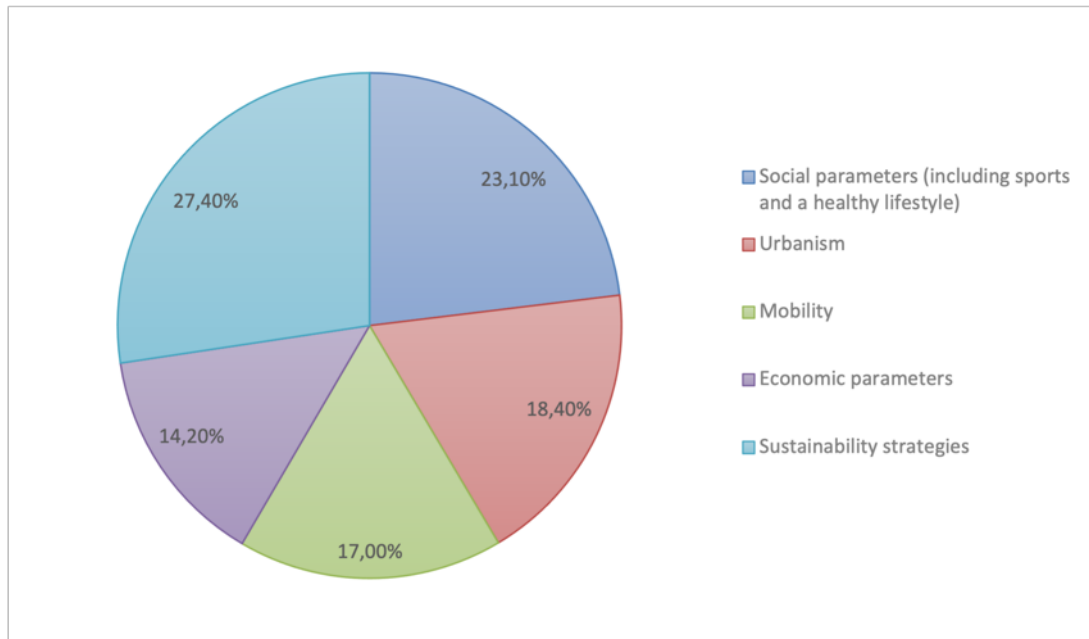


The answers to the above question are shown in a bar chart according to the Likert scale providing a picture of the Olympic Village as a catalyst for the long-term development of the candidate cities.

As can be seen in the graph, 84.70% of respondents state that the Olympic Village should be included in a territorial transformation project to ensure long-term benefits for the city. The inclusion of the Olympic Village in existing plans allows cities to avoid problems of inclusion and revaluation of abandoned or oversized spaces. In addition, the possibility of including new housing in a wider transformation strategy may favour the inclusion of the Olympic Village in regular rather than temporary urban planning.

Similarly, the inclusion of the Olympic Village in a global transformation project, as we have seen in Rome, Tokyo, Monaco, Moscow, Barcelona, Sydney, Turin or London and will facilitate spatial transformations in different areas of the cities, modifying the centralities of the urban fabric. Action through comprehensive transformation plans will ensure the long-term development of cities.

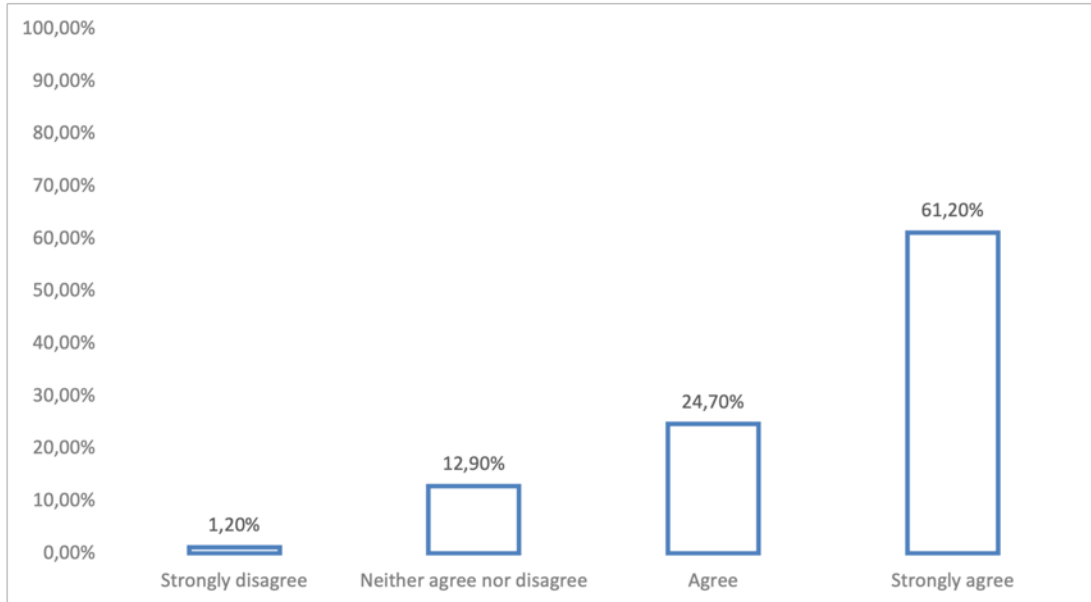
16. ¿ What could be the fundamnetal areas to ensure the long-term development of the Olympic Village (multiple choice)?



Respondents were able to give several answers to the above question to clarify which areas are of the greatest importance for the development of the Olympic Village in a long-term project.

The responses obtained reflect how the multidisciplinary areas relate to each other. It is interesting to note that 27.40% of the responses indicate that sustainable strategies are the fundamental area to guarantee the future development of the Olympic Villages. Sustainable strategies can be interpreted through the objectives of the 2030 agenda set by the International Olympic Committee to reduce the impact of the Olympic Games on the territory. Meanwhile, 23.10% of the responses indicate that social parameters are fundamental to guarantee the long-term development of the Olympic Village on the territory. Within the social parameters, we can also find sports practice and a healthy lifestyle. The answers to this question make it clear that the economic parameters (14.20%) are not as fundamental as the urban planning parameters (18.40%) or mobility (17%) to guarantee the long-term development of the Olympic Village. We can affirm that in the future, Olympic Villages will have to respect sustainability parameters to guarantee long-term development in the city and society. The respect for sustainable parameters at a holistic level will allow a reduction of the impact of the Olympic Village on the territory, guaranteeing a social and non-profit benefit for the city.

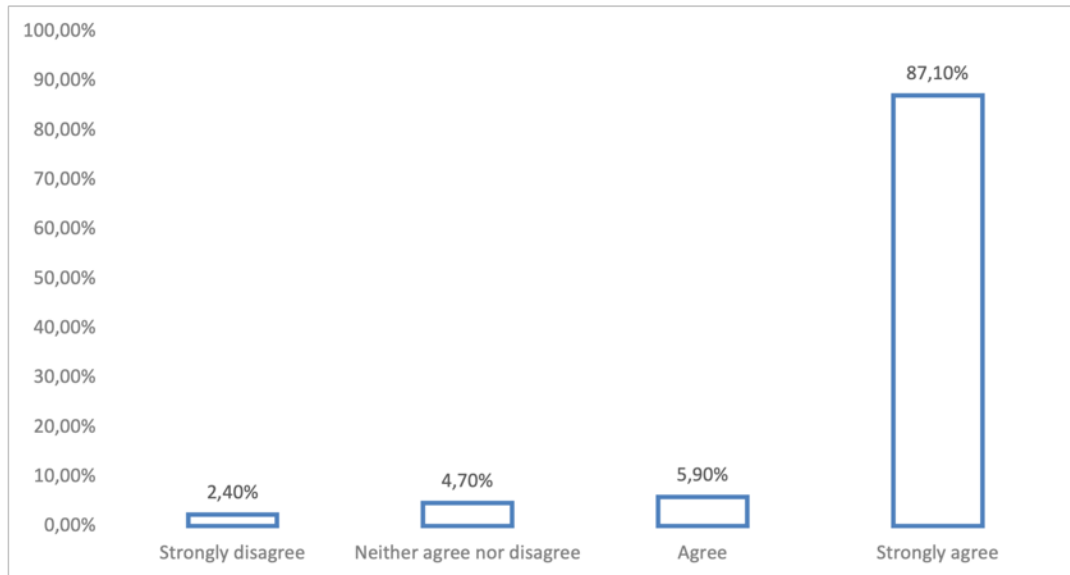
17. Should the construction of the Olympic Village have a specific use in the post-Olympic period?



The responses obtained indicate that 84.90% of the respondents agree on the importance of defining the future use of the Olympic Village in the post-Olympic period.

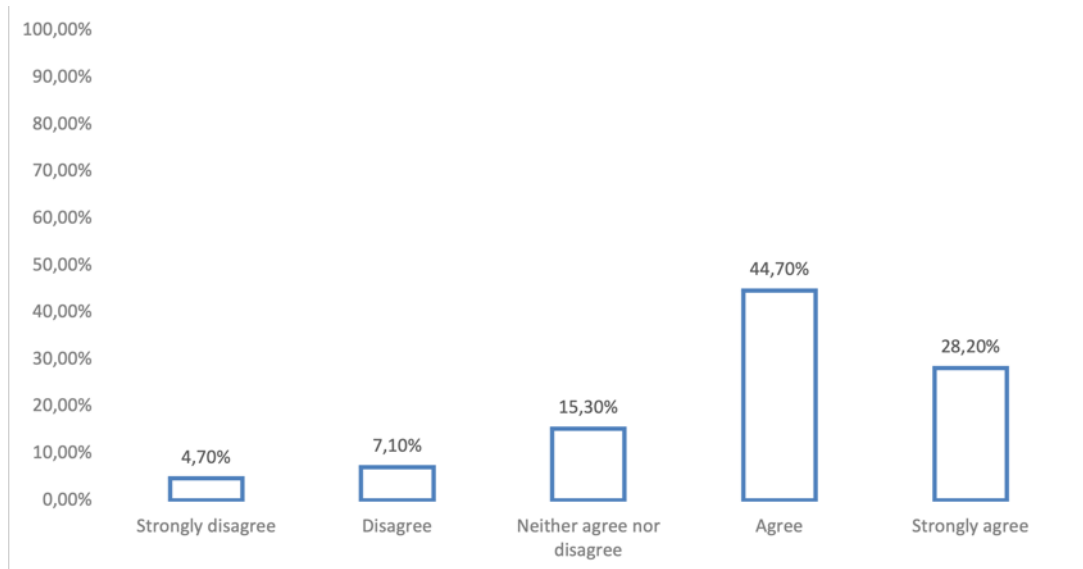
This data allows us to confirm the importance of determining a specific strategy for the development of the Olympic Village that can reduce the risk of abandonment of the Village over time. The definition of specific use in the post-Olympic period will allow cities to integrate the Olympic Village into new urban strategies. Throughout history, we have observed different post-Olympic solutions that have allowed candidate cities to drastically reduce the chances of abandonment. In addition, the definition of a clear, long-term post-Olympic strategy will reduce the potential for real estate speculation that has been observed in the post-Olympic period in host cities.

18. Should the Organising Committees, before planning the construction of a new Olympic Village, consider the real needs of the citizens?



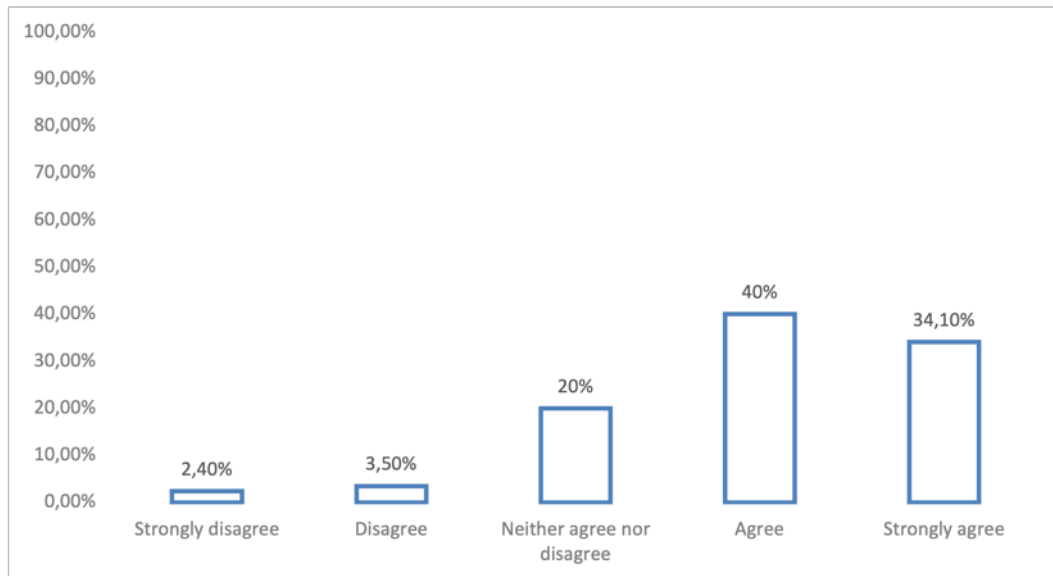
The answers to the previous question are reflected in a Likert chart, showing the real needs of the citizen regarding the Olympic Village. The answers obtained allow us to state with certainty that the construction of the Olympic Village before being planned must the real needs of the citizens (93%). If the planning of the Olympic Village takes into account the demands of the citizens, the reuse and reincorporation of the Olympic Village into the new social dynamics of the post-Olympic period will not be a problem. Moreover, the realisation of projects that reflect the real needs of citizens will reduce protests and confrontations between citizens and municipal leaders. The proximity of the institutions is another fundamental element in guaranteeing public acceptance of a transformation project that will have an impact on the city over time.

19. In your experience, can the construction of an Olympic Village in metropolitan areas contribute to promoting social change in the host city?



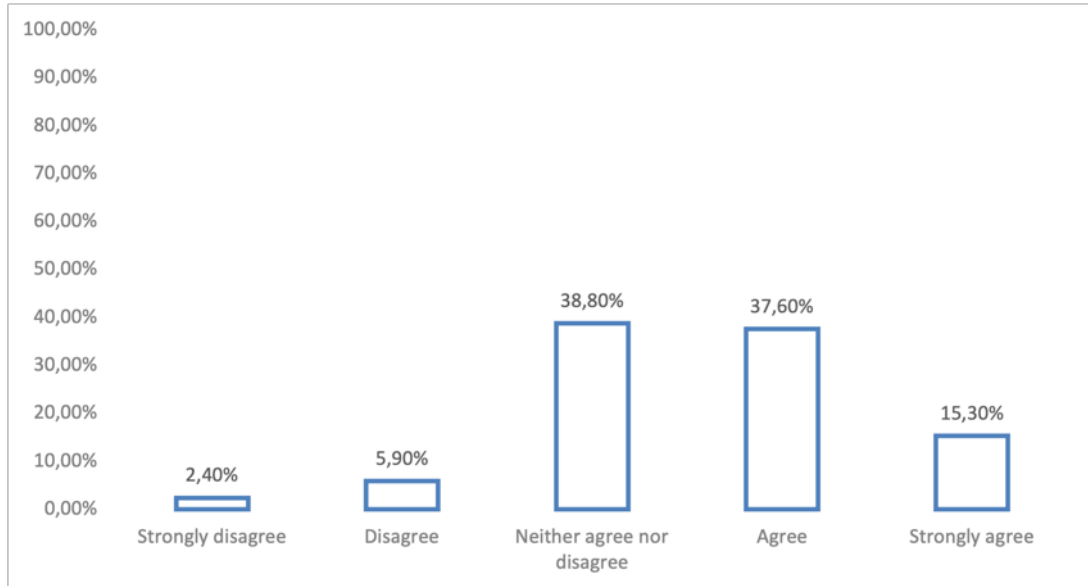
The responses obtained indicate how the Olympic Village promotes social changes in the host city (72.90%). The construction and planning of a new neighbourhood and new accommodation in the urban structure of the city can bring about social changes that will remain over time in the cities. Social changes can be observed through different outcomes that have been recorded in Olympic cities over the years. Some cities today have completely transformed their social fabric into metropolitan cities through the creation of new neighbourhoods that have changed the central cores and internal connections of Olympic cities.

20. In Barcelona, Atlanta, Nagano, Sydney, Athens, Beijing, London, it has been observed that the construction of an Olympic Village in the inner city involves a movement of citizens from the metropolitan area to the periphery. Could the construction of the Olympic Village in the inner city of the metropolitan area promote displacement?



The responses obtained indicate a certain concern about the construction of the Olympic Village in the heart of the cities. As can be seen in the graph, 74.10% of the responses confirm that the construction of the Olympic Village in the city will lead to the displacement of citizens from the metropolitan area to the periphery. In this sense, we can affirm that the Olympic Village can provoke displacement if the Olympic Village model does not respect the demands of the citizens. In this sense, we should interpret the answers about the organisation models of the Olympic Village in the central area of the candidate cities. It should also be taken into consideration that 20% of the responses neither agreed nor disagreed with the hypotheses of displacement of citizens due to the construction of the Olympic Village in the urban fabric of the host cities. Moreover, it is interesting to note how the construction of an Olympic Village not thought through with a long-term strategy based on the respect of citizens' priorities will cause displacement to the periphery for different reasons. One of the main reasons is related to the rising prices of the central areas of the city, leading to real estate speculation in the post-Olympic years. Meanwhile, the construction of an Olympic Village on abandoned or squatted land will certainly lead to the displacement of citizens, who will not be able to live in an irregular way. In this case, it will depend on the central administration's sensitivity to the issue of housing and the reduction of diversity among citizens.

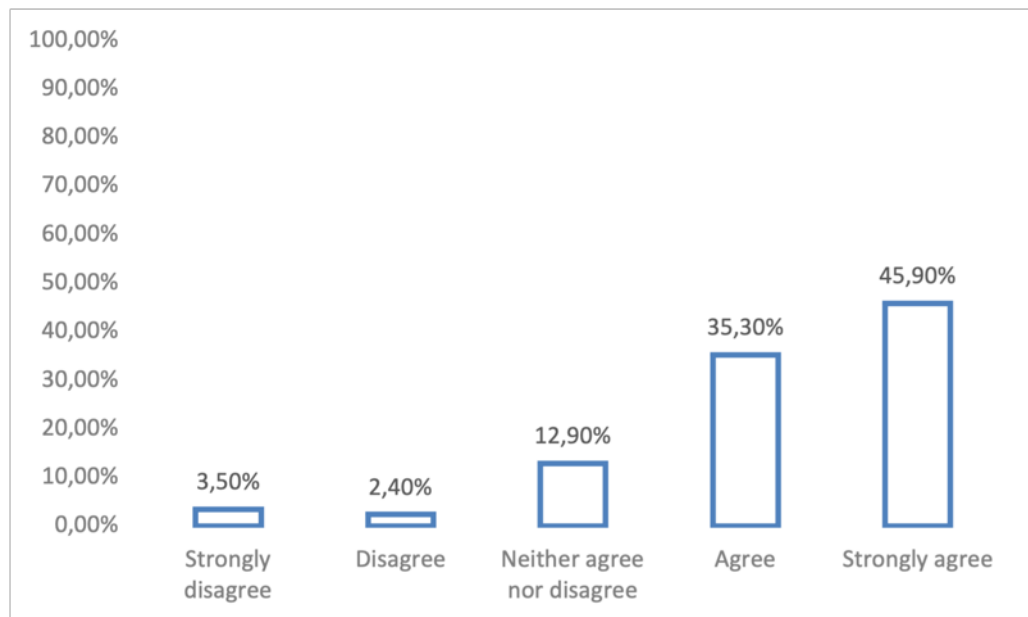
21. Can the construction of Olympic Winter Villages in mountain communities promote a process of territorial expansion by the host city?



The results obtained from this question should be analysed about the Winter Olympic Villages and their project considering the spatial dimension provided by the organising committee of each Olympic experience. Regarding the territorial expansion of the Olympic Mountain Villages, 38.80% of those interviewed were neither in favour nor against the promotion of territorial expansion processes by the host city. Thus, this percentage should be interpreted through the use of qualitative research, as it allows for an extensive and in-depth investigation of the Olympic Villages developed for the Turin Olympic Games, to cite an example. This model of development, being a relatively new model of spatial organisation, allows us to have a clear view of the influence of the Olympic Villages on mountain communities. On the other hand, 52.90% of the interviewees agree with the role of the Olympic Villages in mountain communities regarding the territorial expansion of the host city. To analyse this result, it is necessary to take into consideration the experience of Turin as a case study to understand in depth the different spatial dynamics observed in the post-Olympic period. The phenomenon of territorial expansion cannot be observed in the short term. It must necessarily be observed over a period that allows for the observation of the different territorial dynamics that may or may not manifest themselves in Winter Olympic cities over time.

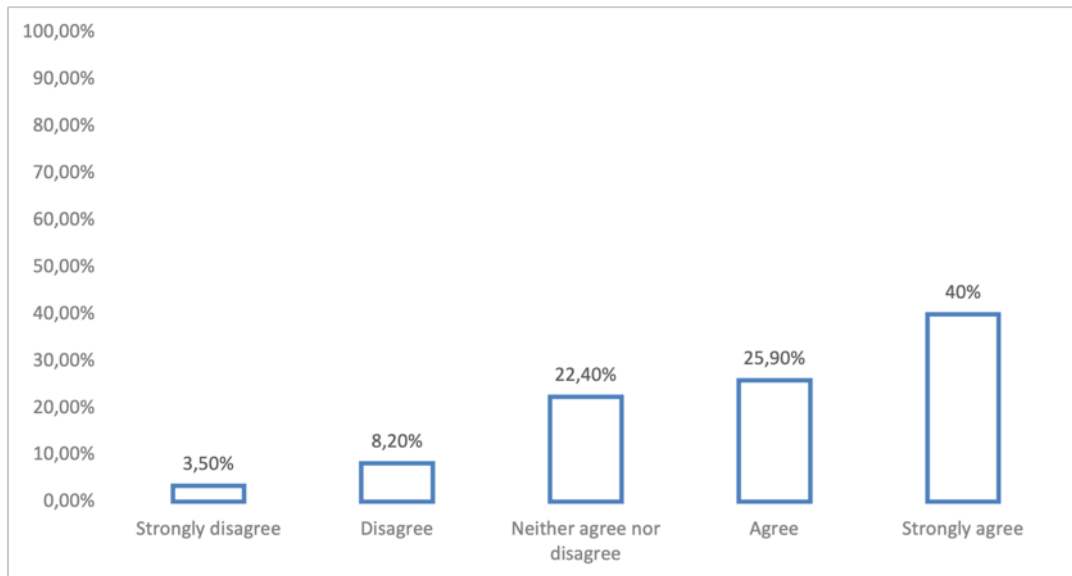
Specific questions

22. Should the construction of the Olympic Village be carried out through two complementary strategies: a financing model for the construction period and a management model for the post-Olympic period?



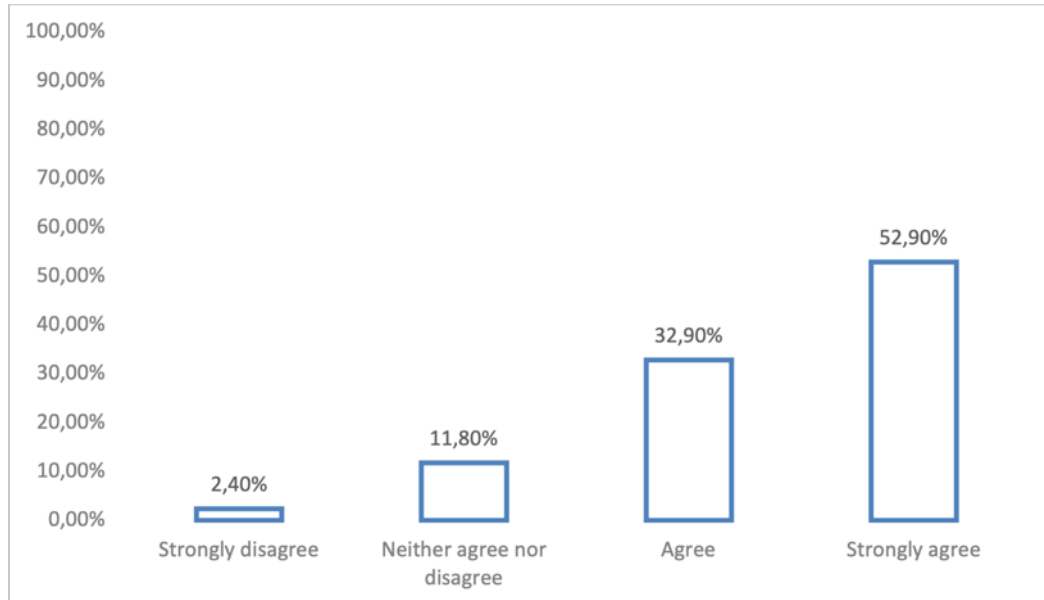
The answers to this question attempt to measure the financing and management strategy of the Olympic Village in the different phases of the Olympic project. During the Olympic period, the Village should be managed through a model of temporary accommodation for athletes. In the post-Olympic period, its management and financing model should be adapted to the dynamics of each city. The results of this question should be interpreted through the answers obtained in questions 14, 17 and 18, only after having clarified the importance of a specific management model in the post-Olympic phase will the interviewees' considerations be understood. Furthermore, post-Olympic management requires specific plans for the management and development of the specific organisational model chosen by each host state. As we can see in the graph, 81.20% of the answers obtained agree on the importance of planning two different models for the management and financing of the Olympic Village. A specific model for the Olympic event and a specific model for the post-Olympic phase. As we have seen in the previous questions, the Olympic Village needs to be included in the general plans of the cities, responding to the real demands of the citizens. On the other hand, 12.90% of the answers obtained indicate that respondents neither agree nor disagree with the implementation of two management and financing models for the Olympic Village in two different phases of the Olympic project.

23. In your opinion, reducing the territorial impact of the Olympic Games today is a priority for the International Olympic Committee?



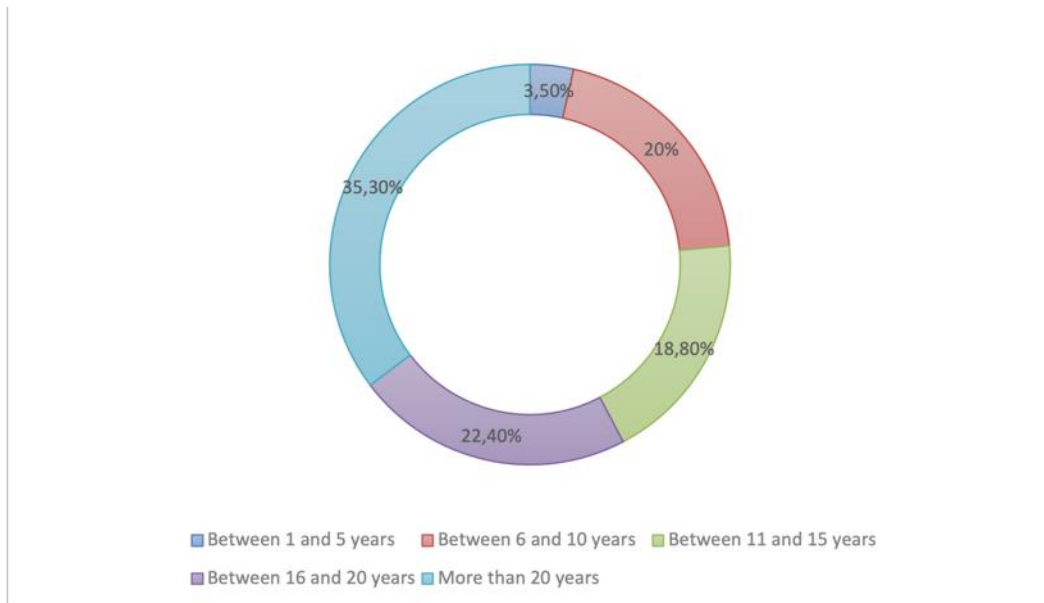
The results of this question allow us to reflect on the importance of reducing the territorial impact of the Olympic Games and the priorities of the International Olympic Committee regarding this sensitive issue. Over time, we have observed different territorial impacts of the Olympic Games on candidate cities. In addition, the International Olympic Committee, through new city selection criteria, has tried to reduce the impact of the Olympic event on cities. But as we can see from the responses obtained, 65.90% of the interviewees state that reducing the territorial impact of the Olympic Games is a priority for the International Olympic Committee. In addition, 22.40 per cent of respondents were indifferent to the issue. Finally, we can see that 11.70% of respondents state that reducing the territorial impact of the Olympic Games is not a priority for the International Olympic Committee.

24. In your experience, at the academic level, does the theme of Olympic urbanism need to be deepened through longitudinal and cross-sectional studies?



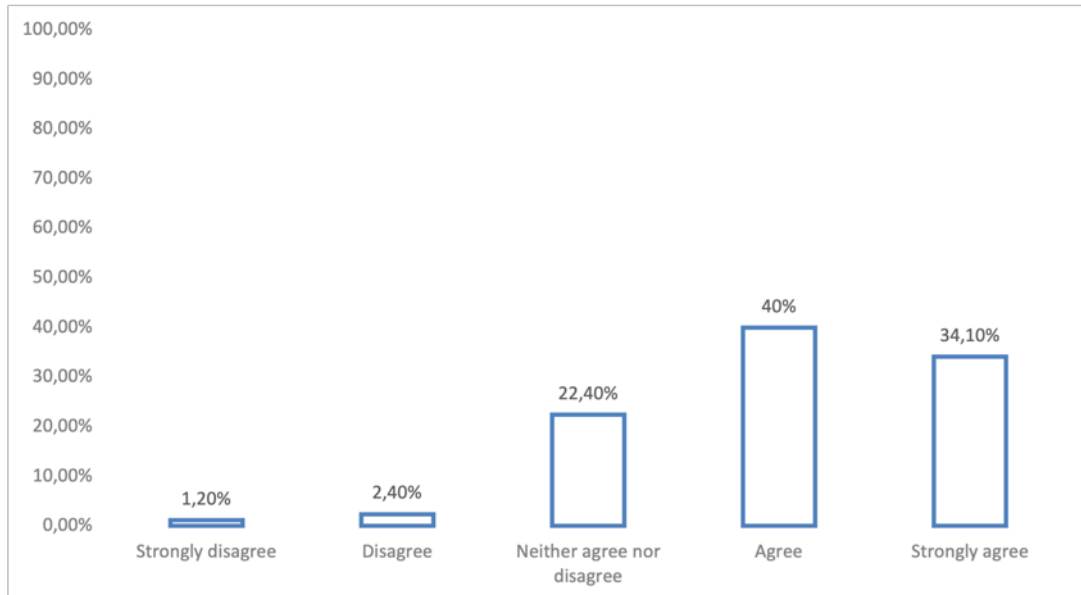
85.80% of respondents agree on the need to investigate the topic of Olympic urbanism through longitudinal and cross-sectional studies. This indicates that the topic of Olympic urbanism cannot be looked at only during the Olympic period and only with a single focus. The study of Olympic urbanism in host cities over time allows us to assess the project and its impact on society as a whole. Looking at the academic contributions to Olympic urbanism, there is a lack of longitudinal studies on Olympic cities. Most Olympic studies consider only the year of the Olympic event or the year following the event. Scientific articles and individual research can become intangible support tool for longitudinal and cross-sectional studies. The possibility of looking at Olympic urbanism in its entirety will allow us to clarify new theories and new elements that can be useful in the post-Olympic period. Considering Olympic urbanism only as a purely physical element related to physical transformations is reductive. Considering the effects of a spatial solution on local communities through a holistic analysis over time will ensure a deeper insight than the simple physical transformation induced by the Olympic event. On the other hand, only 2.40% of respondents disagreed with the importance of conducting longitudinal and cross-sectional studies that can help to understand the Olympic phenomenon over time.

25. What time frame should longitudinal studies consider?



This question aims to obtain an indicator that can reveal a concrete timeframe for longitudinal studies on the previous question. The results should be interpreted through question 24 to understand the importance of longitudinal studies on the subject of Olympic urbanism. As can be seen from the graphical representation, 35.50% of the answers obtained indicate that longitudinal studies on Olympic urban planning in host cities should consider a timeframe of more than 20 years. The responses indicate that more than half of the respondents agree on the importance of conducting longitudinal studies looking at the Olympic phenomenon from 16 to more than 20 years (22.40%). On the other hand, only 3.50% of the respondents stated that longitudinal studies should consider a time frame between 1 and 5 years. This question is intended to show that studies of Olympic urban planning require a relatively long observation period, as only through longitudinal studies, the urban phenomena caused by the Olympic Games will allow for a broad and specific observation of each city. Moreover, it confirms the importance of multidisciplinary and cross-sectional studies for the in-depth observation of the Olympic phenomenon related to urban transformations. The interpretation of these results should take into account that sometimes not all cities have the structures and resources to observe the Olympic phenomenon longitudinally. In conclusion, the importance of the International Olympic Committee in funding longitudinal studies and human resources that can support and collaborate with Olympic cities over time is evident. The possibility of having long-term relationships between the city and the International Olympic Committee will allow new synergies to be established between the different entities.

26. At the day, the 1996 Symposium on Olympic Villages held by the IOC in Lausanne is the only academic conference that has cross-analysed the evolution of Summer Olympic Villages over time. In your opinion, should a new symposium be provided to reflect on the Winter Olympic Villages and to observe the new strategies implemented by the candidate cities?



74.10% of the respondents stated that a second Olympic symposium should be held to debate and discuss the future of the Olympic Winter Villages, as they have now become a new element in the metropolitan strategies of the candidate cities. Moreover, the lack of inclusion of the Winter Olympic Villages in the 1995 symposium makes clear the importance of reflecting on new development and planning strategies for the Olympic Villages.

Looking at the responses through dichotomous variables, we can see that 96.5% of respondents agree on the importance of planning a new symposium for the future of the Olympic Villages. As we have seen from the above responses, Olympic cities are in a moment of radical change. At the Paris 2024 and Los Angeles 2028 Olympic Games, the Olympic Villages will be the only urban element that will impact over time on the territory of the cities. The creation and planning of temporary structures in the candidate cities allow us to reflect on the future of housing in Olympic cities. As we can see from the qualitative survey, the Winter Olympic Villages have become a new resource for metropolitan cities. The Milan-Cortina project for 2026 will provide one Olympic Village in the metropolitan city and two or three Olympic Villages in the mountain communities. The Winter Olympic Games provide a regional spatial dimension that will influence the connections and interconnections specific to each territory. Moreover, the Milan-Cortina bid encourages reflection on the new territorial dynamics that can be defined between two different areas. Finally, it should be noted that the 1996 symposium was the only time when researchers were able to reflect on the Summer Olympic Villages. As can be seen,

most of the interviewees stated that Olympic urban planning and the Olympic Villages need to be further developed over time. The implementation of new strategies and new territorial dynamics can help cities and researchers to provide new Olympic experiences for citizens.

27. Please provide your thoughts on the future development of the Olympic Village in the candidate cities.

With this last question, the aim is to observe the different contributions of the interviewees to the Olympic Village in the Candidate Cities. The interviewees have appreciated the possibility to express the final vision on the future of the Olympic Villages through an open question. Thanks to the contributions of the different interviewees, an analysis of the answers obtained are provided. As a first element, it should be noted that fifteen (15) interviewees have contacted me by e-mail to deepen their understanding of the subject of my study. The possibility of discussing and debating the subject of my research project has allowed me to reflect on the future of the Olympic Villages over time and to interact with different research profiles. The contributions of the interviewees allow us to affirm that there are some common reflections on the theme of urban development, management models, accommodation, sustainability and the implementation of the Olympic Village project. In addition, most of the interviewees stated that being a complex issue, it would need to be researched longitudinally to contribute effectively to the development of the Olympic urbanism theme.

Firstly, it is interesting to note that most of the interviewees have stated that the Olympic Village should be thought of long-term plans and adding the ordinary transformations of each Olympic city. In addition, some of the interviewees claim that when Olympic Villages are driven by the local community, the International Olympic Committee cannot interfere during the planning of the accommodation. This statement allows us to reflect on the urban development models of each city and each Olympic experience. These models over time have led to different outcomes in different communities. If it is true that the International Olympic Committee wants to reduce the territorial impact of the Games, it should provide new criteria for the acceptance of accommodation projects in Olympic cities. Furthermore, interviewees clearly state that the local community must be included in the accommodation project. The construction of new residences cannot fail to take into consideration the demands of the citizens. Some of the interviewee's state that the International Olympic Committee should reconsider the need to concentrate on the construction of the Olympic Village in a central and prime location. As we noted in question 20, the construction of the Olympic Village in the central fabric of the cities may lead to a displacement of citizens, who will be forced to move from the metropolitan city to the periphery. Over time, we have observed different cities in the post-Olympic period experiencing a rise in housing prices and property speculation caused by the Olympic event. The creation of a new neighbourhood in a central location will inevitably lead to some changes in the urban fabric, in the centrality of cities, becoming an added value for future citizens. The planning and identification of the location of the

Olympic Village must be subject to the strictest analysis of social and economic equity. Only by respecting the real demands and possibilities of the citizens will it be possible to build and propose a site that does not compromise the future of the candidate cities. Some of the interviewees stated that it is necessary to balance the investment in housing in order not to have athletes in one place. Through co-location, the environmental footprint and all the travel issues related to the mobility of Olympic athletes will be reduced. Thus, the planning of different Olympic Villages in the territory will ensure a reduction of infrastructural works and modifications of the mobility systems of the cities. The interviewees agree on the importance of defining a long-term plan that addresses the following issues: housing, integration, sustainability and citizens' well-being. The focus of the project should be on citizens and their demands. In addition, some interviewees suggested that the planning process should include an active and shared planning phase so that new ideas and new proposals become good practices for future cities and experiences. Promoting healthy lifestyles through shared planning can promote new ways of designing the cities of the future in the long term.

Moreover, it should be easier to reach a compromise with the IOC for the development of four, five, six or more Olympic Villages rather than just one. The development of Olympic Villages in the future should involve a hybrid approach including mixed accommodation areas through new sustainable practices for the future of the cities. In addition, the possibility of using mixed housing models was chosen by only a part of the interviewees, the majority of the interviewees have stated that in the future the Olympic Village should provide popular housing and affordable residences. The key problem of contemporary cities is related to the lack of social housing, environmental sustainability and affordability. For this reason, the Olympic Village has a unique and intangible potential for candidate cities. The Olympic urbanism that finds its ultimate expression in the Olympic Village has the power to offer physical visions of the future of housing and urbanism for our future cities. The assembly of temporary facilities for athletes or competitions allows us to explore new forms of construction and practices that could never be carried out in cities. The planning of a temporary area that progressively transforms into a public space will unequivocally improve the quality of life and the possibilities of neighbourhoods permanently. The interviewees agree on the importance of a multi-scale approach that can redefine the internal and external spaces of the Olympic Villages. The definition of furniture, mobility and the service system are only some of the elements provided by the interviewees. In conclusion, the interviewees affirm that the Olympic Village must be designed and planned to take into account the needs and challenges specific to each city and each country. There is room for consultation and public participation in planning. But the project must be planned through the sensitivities of each city and the experience of each country. As discussed by interviewees who studied or participated in the London 2012 and Sydney 2000 Games, we should reflect and consider the possible futures of Olympic Villages. In general, the concept of environmental sustainability, as it is used today, needs to be studied through multidisciplinary analyses that consider the phenomenon from a holistic view. However, the concept of

environmental impact needs to be taken into account within the new urban structural changes brought about by the Olympic Village. On the other hand, about the management and planning models of the Olympic Villages of the future, some interviewees stated that there is no ideal model and that their management depends on the structure and finances of each specific city. In addition, most interviewees state that the management model should be provided through mixed housing that may include social housing, decreasing the possibilities of displacement of citizens after the Olympic event. The planning of the Olympic Village should be strategically thought out to encompass the needs, desires and objectives of the local communities. As for the future of the Olympic Village, most interviewees say that it will continue to evolve as it does now because the idea of a community in an Olympic Village is fundamental to transmitting the values of Olympism. Meanwhile, about the Winter Olympic Village, some interviewees state has received relatively little attention over time. The issue of the Winter Olympic Village about climate change, environmental impact and changing strategies in mountain communities is seen as fundamental to developing sustainable solutions over time. According to the opinion of most of the interviewees, the issue is complex, and for this reason, Olympic urban planning needs longitudinal studies to observe the total evolution over time of these added structures in a territory that is very sensitive to the whole ecosystem. Over the years, we have always observed that a solution for the Olympic Village in the post-Olympic period was to be integrated into the tourist circuits of the mountain communities. Today, the Turin, Vancouver, Sochi, PyeongChang and Milan-Cortina projects allow us to observe other forms of mixed management that can favour urbanisation in areas that are sensitive to the future of our world. According to some interviewees, Olympic Villages should not be seen as a tool that can help solve chronic problems in cities. Building accommodation through public funding to be sold to private parties in the post-Olympic period will lead to the construction of lucrative projects that may develop different social problems. The construction of the Olympic Village through the use of private funding will inevitably reduce the post-Olympic legacy possibilities for the host society. The Olympic Village has to be part of a whole infrastructural system developed for the improvement of infra- and extra-territorial communications of the whole host region. Some interviewees reflect on the infrastructure and post-Olympic heritage strategy, which cannot only be aligned with the general plan but must also bring added value to the communities. Finally, about the management models of the Olympic Villages, some interviewees stated that the most sustainable examples over time are those solutions that have integrated a university housing strategy. The type and size of housing required for the Olympic Village are best suited to university residences in cities with large universities, developing a unique legacy for universities. Furthermore, these interviewees state that the experiences that have gone wrong over time did not meet the real demands of the residents and have been converted into luxury residences, tourist accommodation or have been abandoned outright. Meanwhile, about the financing model, most of the interviewees say that mixed management can help to reduce the share of public funding and maintenance costs in the post-Olympic period. But, in case private funding is sought for the construction of the Olympic Village, municipalities should provide contractual requirements for the specific

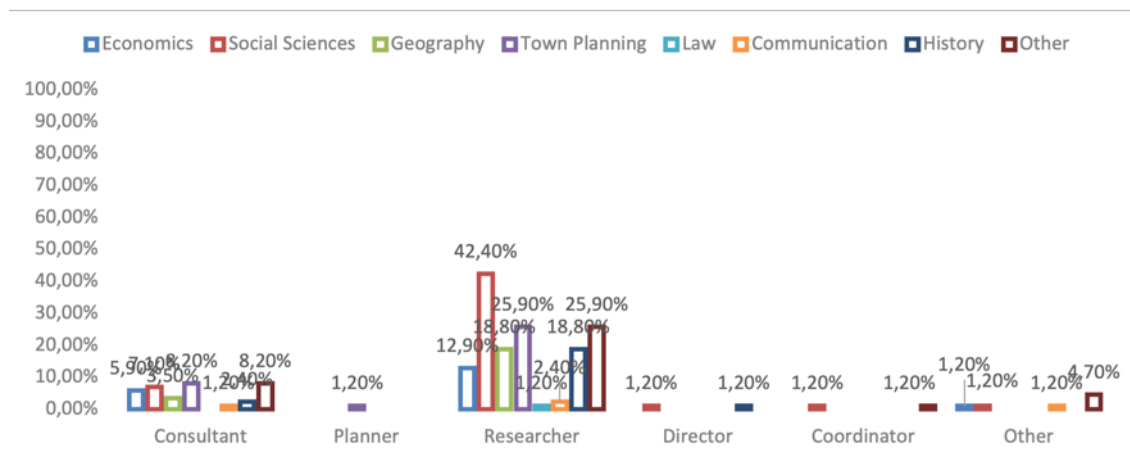
post-Olympic use, to ensure that public funding is applied to social housing and remains available to citizens.

Thus, mixed funding can help to constitute a hybrid legacy for citizens. A structural legacy and a social legacy. The former, according to some interviewees, should be provided through private funding. The latter should be promoted through public funding, in line with the strategic plans of each city and each specific social context. The objective should be profit maximisation (Gratton, 2008). The construction and planning of a new neighbourhood, nowadays, must pay attention to the fulfilment of different environmental aspects that will be a priority for the community. Waste management, energy efficiency, public transport and public spaces. The planning of the Olympic Village in the future cities has become a more complex challenge than in the past. In addition, planning a Winter Olympic event in a regional territory has introduced new challenges were not considered before and were never taken into account in other experiences. The consideration of the Winter and Summer Olympic Village as two distinct entities will be the first step to favour and stimulating longitudinal research on the specific topic. Finally, a reflection on the planning of future Olympic Villages is provided. The interviewees' statements allow us to elucidate that the Olympic Villages of the future should be planned through social housing strategies, infrastructural system integration, integrated planning and a mixed housing experience. Furthermore, the role of the community and citizens should be a central participatory role in the organisation and planning of new housing. Community participation and the sustenance of a long-term plan will define a new future for the Olympic Villages on the territory. On the other hand, the concept of sustainability is essential for the implementation of new housing. Proposing socially and economically sustainable projects that respect the environment should be the main factor in the evaluation of candidate cities. On the other hand, to promote sustainable development, the IOC should change its weighting process for candidate cities. The inclusion of other elements and criteria in the evaluation process, such as the percentage of social housing or the number of green spaces, could decrease the chances of impacting the host territory and society. In addition, the cities, as the main developers and funders of the Olympic Village, will be the only ones able to define an overall housing and long-term development strategy. The help and support of the International Olympic Committee are essential for the future of the Olympic Villages. It is as essential as the organisation of a new Olympic symposium to discuss and research Olympic urbanism and the Olympic Villages.

Block 2 - Contingency of responses

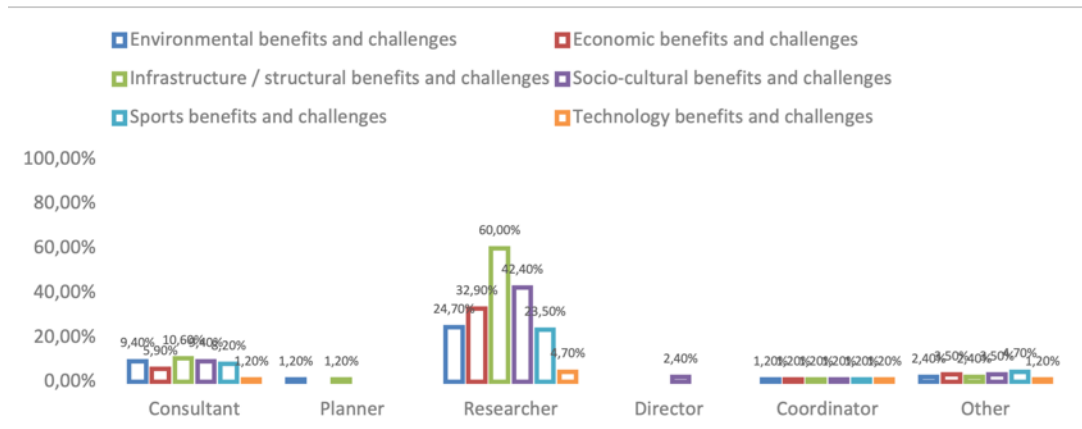
The results obtained from the questionnaire provided online for the collection of the quantitative research data are shown below. The questionnaire was answered by 85 people (see chapter II - Methodology). In this section, we will analyse the results of the contingency tables between the multiple responses to obtain a greater richness extracted from the contributions of each profile of the interviewees. In addition, the spreadsheet including the results obtained can be consulted in the annexes. The results will be explained through the contingency of the answers and by observing the correlations between the answers through the SPSS software.

Contingency between the role and the participants' academic field of study (Questions 1 and 4)



This graphical representation is intended to observe the contingencies between two multiple-choice questions that allow us to observe the different areas of study of the interviewees. In addition, the contingency table helps us to observe the areas of study about the specific role of each interviewee. Looking at the graph we can consider that most of the researchers have dealt with the topic in question through social studies (42.40%). Meanwhile, about advisors, most of the interviewees have dealt with topics related to urban and territorial planning (8.20%). Among the responses, it can be seen how the interviewees have worked in different areas of study. The heterogeneity of the answers shows us the phenomenon in a comprehensive way across different profiles and areas of study.

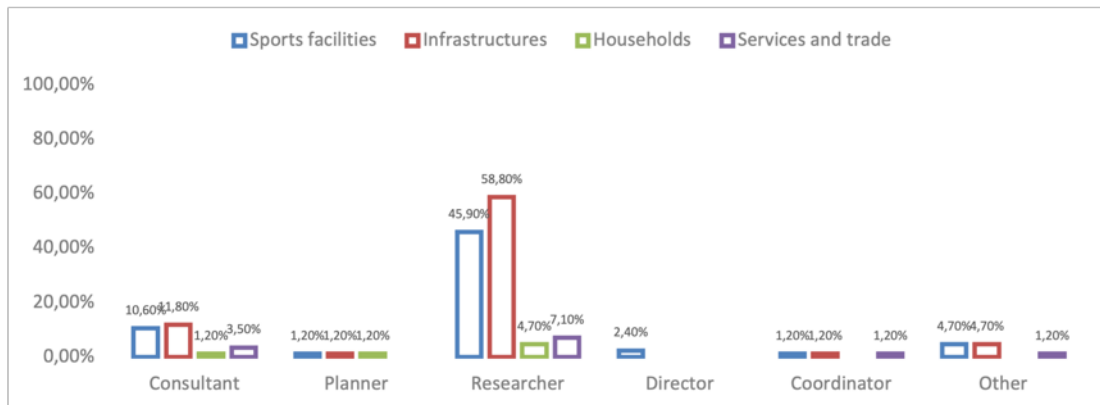
Contingency between role and benefits and social changes induced by the Olympic event (Questions 1 and 5)



The answers obtained in this contingency table allow us to observe the opinion of each group of interviewees about the benefits and changes induced by the Olympic event in the territory.

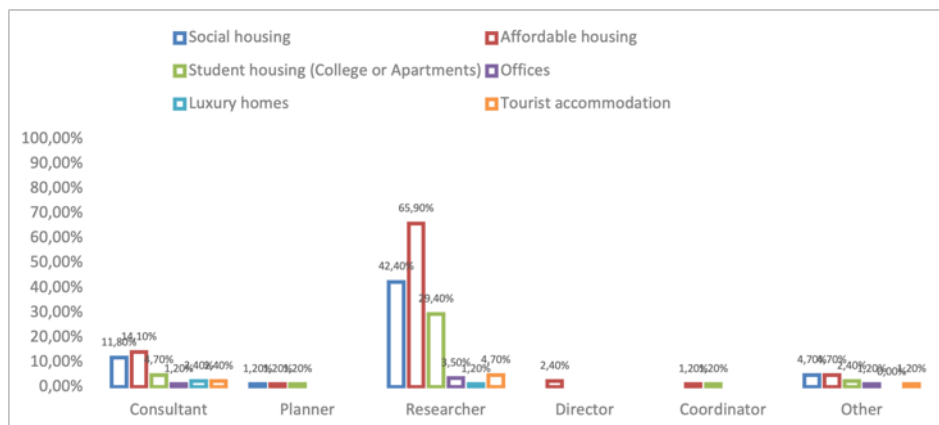
Looking at the graph, the majority of researchers indicated infrastructural and structural changes as the benefits that the Olympic Games can induce in the host city (60%). On the other hand, socio-cultural (42.4%), economic (32.9%), environmental (24.7%) and sporting (23.5%) benefits are the other benefits that the Olympic Games can catalyse in the host city. The responses obtained from the consultants allow us to recognise infrastructural benefits as the first factor triggered by the Olympic event (10.6%). However, advisors indicate environmental (9.4%), social (9.4%) and sporting (8.2%) benefits as other possible changes that the Olympic Games can induce in the host city.

Contingency between the role and the different planning model for the Olympic Games (Questions 1 and 6).



This graphical representation of the contingency table reveals the different planning models that the interviewees recognise as having the greatest impact on the physical transformations induced by the Olympic event. The answers obtained from the researchers allow us to recognise infrastructures (58.8%) and sports facilities (45.9%) as the elements that stimulate the most impacting transformations in Olympic cities. Physical transformations related to the infrastructural system or sports facilities influence the urban fabric and the social changes observed in post-Olympic cities. On the other hand, looking at the graph, we can state that the consultants and researchers highlight infrastructural alterations as the most impacting physical changes in the physical transformations of the candidate cities.

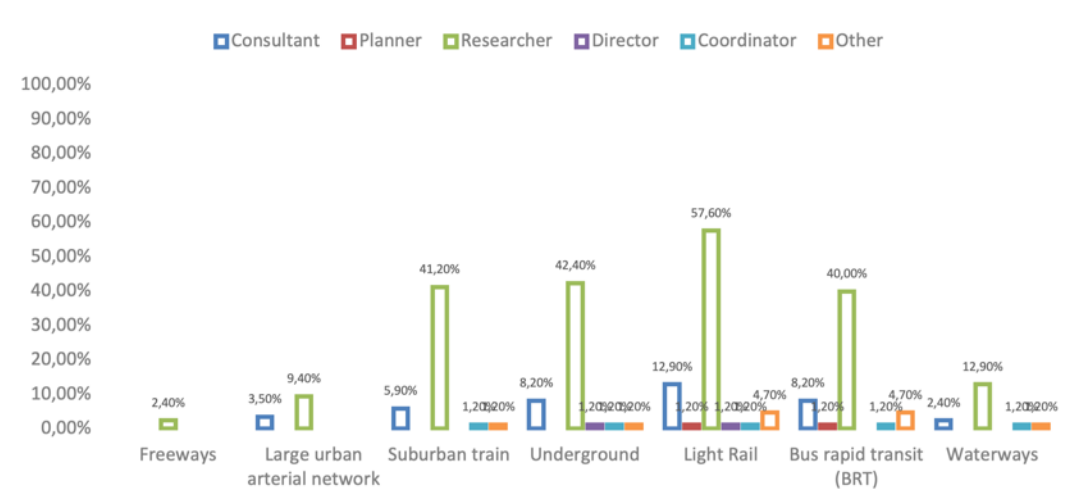
Contingency between the role and housing solution of the Olympic Village (Questions 1 & 8)



The answers obtained from the contingency table allow us to observe the different solutions that could be adopted for the different housing strategies of each Olympic city. The implementation of a different housing model in Olympic cities is strongly conditioned

by the strategies of each Olympic city. However, over time, the issue of housing has evolved to become a central theme in the development of the cities of the future. For this reason, the interviewees allow us to reflect on housing solutions that can accelerate the transformation of cities through different strategies. The researchers recognise affordable flats (65.9%), social housing (42.4%) and student accommodation (29.4%) as solutions that can be adopted for the management of the Olympic Village in the post-Olympic period. The creation of new affordable accommodation through the construction of the Olympic Village can reduce the phenomenon of displacement of citizens to peripheral areas. On the other hand, the consultants confirm the preferences of the researchers, recognising affordable flats (14.1%) and social housing (11.8%) as housing solutions that can accelerate housing strategies in host cities.

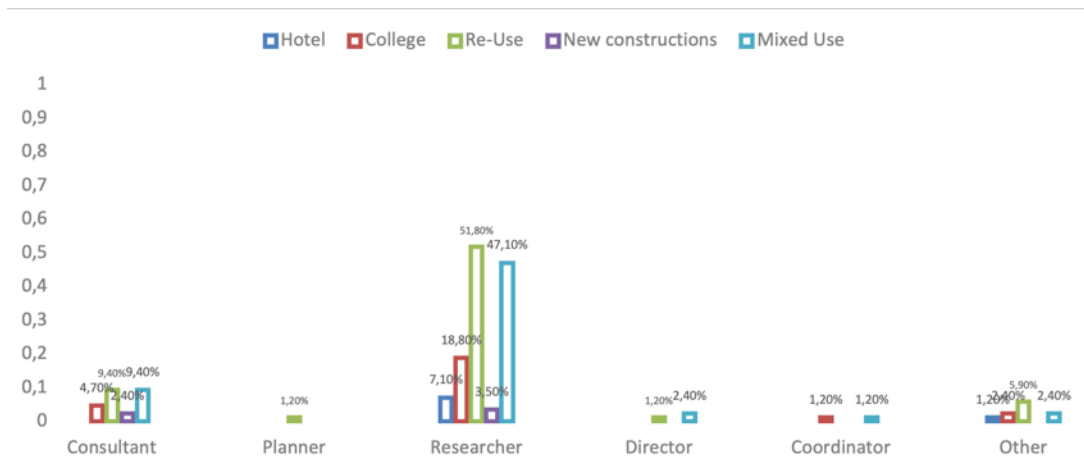
Contingency between the role and integrated transport solutions between the Olympic Village and the competition venues (Questions 1 and 10)



This graphical representation is intended to observe the contingencies between two multiple-choice questions that help us to interpret the different integrated transport solutions given by the interviewees. The integrated transport solutions refer to the means of transport connecting the Olympic Village and the sports facilities. Moreover, over time, the evolution of the Olympic Village model has allowed us to observe how different Olympic Villages in the territory induce important changes in the infrastructural system for the interconnection of Olympic venues and sub-venues. The answers obtained from the researchers and consultants allow us to graphically observe how light rail (70.5%) is the means of transport that can offer the best transport solution for Olympic cities. The integration of a new transport system into the urban fabric should be included in a strategic plan so as not to negatively influence the ordinary dynamics of the candidate cities. In addition, suburban rail (47.1%), metro (50.6%) and bus rapid transit (48.2%) are identified as the other integrated transport solutions put forward by researchers and consultants.

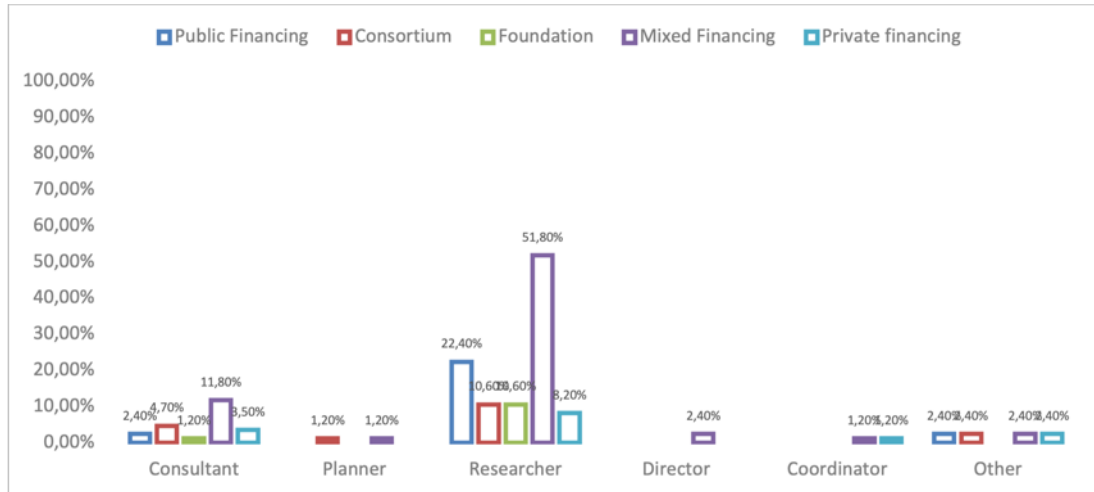
Finally, it is interesting to note that researchers identify river transport (12.9%) as an integrated transport solution in cities that are crossed by rivers or waterways.

Contingency between the role and the typology of solution for the reduction of the environmental impact of the Olympic Village (Questions 1 and 11)



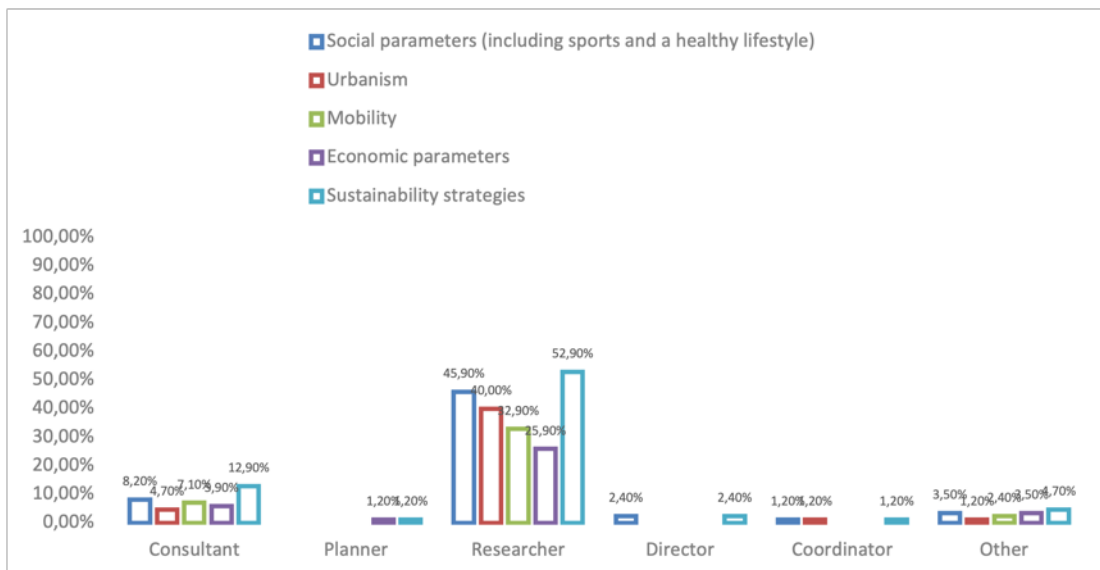
The answers obtained from the contingency table allow us to observe the different housing solutions that could be adopted to reduce the impact of the Olympic Village in each host city. Over time, by observing different models and solutions for the development of Olympic housing, models have been provided that need to be rethought today to reduce the environmental impact of the Olympic Games. The solution of reuse and re-evaluation of the available structures on the territory is the preferred option for the researchers (51.8%). Whereas, the constitution and planning of a mixed housing model (47.1%) is the second option chosen by the researchers. On the other hand, the consultants state that reuse (9.4%) and mixed housing (9.4%) are the two solutions that can reduce the environmental impact of the Olympic Villages in the city. Finally, it is interesting to see how a part of the respondents identify student accommodation (23.5%) as another possible solution to reduce environmental impact.

Contingency between the role and the funding model of the Olympic Village (Questions 1 and 14)



With this graphical representation, we intend to observe the contingencies between two questions with multiple answers that allow us to clarify the different financing models that can be used for the operation of the Olympic Village. Throughout the Olympic experiences, we have observed different financing solutions for the planning and management of Olympic Villages in the pre-and post-Olympic period. The answers were obtained to identify the most effective and efficient funding models for the future of the Olympic Village. The choice of a financing model is a fundamental element in assessing the evolution of the Olympic Village in the territory. The responses obtained show a preference for mixed funding among researchers (51.8%). The second option chosen by the researchers is public funding for the operation of the Olympic housing (22.4%). On the other hand, the advisors agree on the mixed financing model as the first option (11.8%), with the consortium as the second option for financing the Olympic Village (4.7%). Finally, some researchers and consultants identify private financing as a possible efficient and effective operating solution (11.7%).

Contingency between the role and key areas for the long-term development of the Olympic Village in the Host City (Questions 1 and 16)



The answers obtained from the contingency table allow us to observe the different key areas for the long-term development of the Olympic Village in the host city. As we can see in the graph, sustainability is considered the most important area for the long-term development of the Olympic Village in the host city (65.8%). The answers given by the researchers highlight social parameters (45.9%), urban planning (40%) and mobility (32.9%) as other key areas for the long-term development of the candidate cities. On the other hand, the consultants identify social parameters (8.2%), mobility (7.1%) and economic parameters (5.9%) as the key areas for the long-term development of the Olympic Village in the city. These different responses clarify how the elements of sustainability have become a key area for the long-term development of the Olympic Village. Furthermore, social, urban and infrastructural transformations can condition or catalyse the development of Olympic cities over time.

6.3. Dimension, organisation and management of the Olympic Villages

6.3.1. From temporary housing to the construction of a new neighbourhood

To carry out the quantitative analyses of the Summer Olympic Villages, a series of statistical data referring to the different Villages analysed have been considered. The variables considered will be analysed individually and then a comparative table will be proposed to observe the minimum and maximum values of each parameter. The GIS territorial planning software was used to establish the different parameters.

City population

Looking at the population parameter of the Olympic cities, we can state that the average population is 8,419,038 million citizens. Therefore, the world's largest capitals, metropolises and *global cities* are those that can host an edition of the Olympic event.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	<i>POPULATION</i>
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	2.906,472
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	1.238,048
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	4.242.501
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	381.000
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	5.000.000
<i>ROME 1960</i>	2.455.581
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	11.829.000
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	19.400.000
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	2.316.000
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	2.950.000
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	13.200.000
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	3.400.000

<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	10.100.000
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	1.643.000
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	394.000
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	3.610.000
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	772.072
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	19.612.368
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	8.174.000
<i>RIO 2016</i>	13.047.000
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	37.435.191
<i>MEDIA</i>	8.419.038
<i>MAX</i>	37.435.191
<i>MIN</i>	381.000

Capacity of the Olympic Village (number of inhabitants)

Over time, we have observed a continuous evolution in the number of participants, which by Tokyo 2020 had exceeded 11,000 athletes. The following table allows us to state that the Summer Olympic Village should host an average of 7,705 athletes. Since Tokyo 2020 the IOC has declared that in the future the number of athletes will not exceed the ceiling of 11,000 athletes introduced for Tokyo 2020.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	ATHLETES
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	3089
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	1332
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	3963
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	4955
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	3155

<i>ROME 1960</i>	5338
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	5151
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	5516
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	7134
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	6084
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	5179
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	6829
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	8391
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	9356
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	10318
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	10651
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	10625
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	10942
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	10567
<i>RIO 2016</i>	11238
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	11000
<i>MEDIA</i>	7705
<i>MAX</i>	11238
<i>MIN</i>	3155

Number of buildings

The observation of the parameter relating to the number of buildings constructed allows us to state that the average number of buildings is 167 units. However, the number of buildings depends mainly on the architectural philosophy and urban planning of each specific context.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Number of buildings
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	n/a
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	500
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	140
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	13
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	365
<i>ROME 1960</i>	33
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	14
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	29
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	534
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	4
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	34
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	n/a
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	86
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	18
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	2
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	870
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	366
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	42
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	74

<i>RIO 2016</i>	31
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	21
<i>MEDIA</i>	167,157895
<i>MAX</i>	870
<i>MIN</i>	2

Height of buildings

For the observation of the parameter related to the height of the buildings, the number of floors of the different buildings has been considered. The following comparison allows us to state that the Olympic Villas have an average height of 8.5 storeys.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Height of buildings
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	1 storey
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	1 storey
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	1 storey
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	4 and 5 storeys
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	2 and 3 storeys
<i>ROME 1960</i>	2-5 storeys
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	4 storeys
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	6-10 storeys
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	2-20 storeys
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	19 storeys
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	16 and 18 storeys
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	3 and 4 storeys
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	25 storeys
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	2 and 9 storeys

<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	15 storeys
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	4 and 5 storeys
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	4 storeys
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	3 and 9 storeys
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	9 and 12 storeys
<i>RIO 2016</i>	17 storeys
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	from 14 to 18 storeys
<i>MEDIA</i>	8,5
<i>MAX</i>	25
<i>MIN</i>	1

Typology of buildings

The consideration of the typology of the buildings was made thanks to the analysis of the official reports of each organising committee. Over time, the Olympic Village has been transformed from a purely residential complex to a complex that included other functions such as student accommodation, social housing and offices. Therefore, from the following parameter, we can deduce that the solution that opted for private residences has been the most used to date.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Typology of buildings
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	TEMPORARY
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	TEMPORARY
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>ROME 1960</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	RESIDENTIAL

<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	SOCIAL HOUSING
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	SOCIAL HOUSING
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	STUDENT ACCOMMODATION
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	SOCIAL HOUSING
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	STUDENT ACCOMMODATION
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	RESIDENTIAL, OFFICES, CO-HOUSING (MIXED)
<i>RIO 2016</i>	SOCIAL HOUSING
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	RESIDENTIAL

Urban density

For the consideration of the urban density parameter, the results obtained refer to the ratio between the number of athletes divided by the area in square kilometres of each Olympic Village. Therefore, over time, the Olympic Village has an average of 27,426 inhabitants per square kilometre.

OLYMPIC GAMES

Urban density (ab/area Km²)

<i>PARIS 1924</i>	n/a
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	n/a
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	3050,20
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	7961,89

<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	6190,85
<i>ROME 1960</i>	17739,64
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	4102,24
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	53545,08
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	15082,26
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	18363,74
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	12040,43
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	n/a
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	7068,49
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	22287,92
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	126677,39
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	20849,12
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	9778,93
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	36040,72
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	60768,30
<i>RIO 2016</i>	44579,85
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	27729,32
<i>MEDIA</i>	27436,47
<i>MAX</i>	126677,39
<i>MIN</i>	3050,20

Area occupied

For the observation of the occupied surface parameter, the square metres and square kilometres of all the areas occupied by the Olympic Villages were considered. Therefore, we state that the Olympic Village space has an average dimension of 540,957 sqm in an average area of 0.54 km².

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Occupied area(m2)	Total Area (km²)
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	n/a	n/a
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	n/a	n/a
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	1299260	1,30
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	622340	0,62
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	509623	0,51
<i>ROME 1960</i>	300908	0,30
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	1255655	1,26
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	103016	0,10
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	473006	0,47
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	331305	0,33
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	430134	0,43
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	n/a	n/a
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	1187099	1,19
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	419779	0,42
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	81451	0,08
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	510861	0,51
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	1086520	1,09
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	303601	0,30
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	173890	0,17

<i>RIO 2016</i>	252087	0,25
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	396692	0,40
<i>MEDIA</i>	540957,06	0,54
<i>MAX</i>	1299260,00	1,30
<i>MIN</i>	81451,00	0,08

Residential area

The analysis of the parameter relating to the size of the residential areas was obtained through the analysis of the areas occupied by the Olympic Village buildings. In addition, the dimension of the area in square metres was observed in comparison with the dimension of the international areas through a comparative percentage. The average size of the residential area of the Olympic Villages is 67,176 square metres reflecting 15.67% of the total occupation of the total space of the Olympic Village area.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Occupied area(m2)	Residential area (m2)	Residential area
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	n/a	n/a	n/a
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	n/a	n/a	n/a
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	1299260	34977	2,69%
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	622340	98107	15,76%
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	509623	52701	10,34%
<i>ROME 1960</i>	300908	55947	18,59%
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	1255655	n/a	n/a
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	103016	14592	14,16%
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	473006	107426	22,71%
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	331305	22350	6,75%
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	430134	52872	12,29%

<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	n/a	n/a	n/a
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	1187099	74323	6,26%
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	419779	183858	43,80%
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	81451	12254	15,04%
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	510861	116942	22,89%
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	1086520	145280	13,37%
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	303601	39179	12,90%
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	173890	34818	20,02%
<i>RIO 2016</i>	252087	31361	12,44%
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	396692	65020	16,39%
<i>MEDIA</i>	540957,06	67176,88	15,67%
<i>MAX</i>	1299260,00	183858	43,80%
<i>MIN</i>	81451,00	12254	2,69%

International area

The analysis of the parameter regarding the dimension of the international areas was obtained through the study of the public space in the Olympic Village areas. In addition, the dimension of the area in square metres was compared with the dimension of the residential areas through a comparative percentage. The average size of the international area of the Olympic Villages is 431,739 square metres reflecting 84.33% of the total space occupation of the entire Olympic Village area.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Occupied area(m2)	International area (m2)	International area (public spaces)
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	n/a	n/a	n/a
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	n/a	n/a	n/a
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	1299260	1264283	97,31%
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	622340	524233	84,24%

<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	509623	456922	89,66%
<i>ROME 1960</i>	300908	244961	81,41%
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	1255655	n/a	n/a
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	103016	88424	85,84%
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	473006	365580	77,29%
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	331305	308955	93,25%
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	430134	377262	87,71%
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	n/a	n/a	n/a
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	1187099	1112776	93,74%
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	419779	235921	56,20%
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	81451	69197	84,96%
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	510861	393919	77,11%
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	1086520	941240	86,63%
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	303601	264422	87,10%
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	173890	139072	79,98%
<i>RIO 2016</i>	252087	220726	87,56%
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	396692	331672	83,61%
<i>MEDIA</i>	540957,06	431739,12	84,33%
<i>MAX</i>	1299260,00	1264283,00	97,31%
<i>MIN</i>	81451,00	69197,00	56,20%

Distance from the main stadium

The measurement of the distance from the Olympic Village to the main stadium allows us to state that over time the Olympic Village has been built at an average distance of 7.36 km from the main stadium. Therefore, the Olympic Village has evolved through a different model since the first hypothesis was established in the 1924 Paris edition.

OLYMPIC GAMES	Distance from the main stadium
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	950 m
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	8.2 km
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	21.1 km
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	2.4 km
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	14.0 km
<i>ROME 1960</i>	3.1 km
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	3.1 km
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	4.2 km
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	850 m
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	1.1 km
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	17.85* km *(average)
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	1.7 km
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	6.5 km
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	7.1 km
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	7.8 km
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	2.6 km
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	15.6 km
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	900 m
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	2.5 km
<i>RIO 2016</i>	28.6 km
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	9.9 km

<i>MEDIA</i>	7.63 km
<i>MAX</i>	28.6 km
<i>MIN</i>	0.85 km

Distance from the administrative centre

For the analysis of the following parameter, the city hall was identified as the administrative centre of the cities studied. Therefore, over time, the Olympic Villages have been built at an average distance of 14.13 km from the administrative centre of the host cities.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Distance from the administrative centre of the city
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	17.2 km
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	17.5 km
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	31 km
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	6.9 km
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	15.3 km
<i>ROME 1960</i>	6.0 km
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	3.4 km
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	21.5 km
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	8.2 km
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	5.5 km
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	18.5 km (average)
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	8.2 km
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	18.5 km
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	3.0 km
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	5.6 km

<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	18.9 km
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	21.0 km
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	16.0 km
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	10.1 km
<i>RIO 2016</i>	28.2 km
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	16.3 km
MEDIA	14.13 km
MAX	31 km
MIN	3 km

Ownership of the area before the Olympic Games

The following parameter was analysed through the official reports of each organising committee and each document of the Olympic Committee about the Olympic Villages. The following table allows us to state that, over time, the area of the Olympic Village before the Games was publicly owned. Only in some specific cases, the area was privately owned.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Ownership of the area before the Olympic Games
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	PUBLIC
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	PUBLIC
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	PUBLIC
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	PUBLIC
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	PUBLIC
<i>ROME 1960</i>	PUBLIC
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	PUBLIC
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	PUBLIC
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	PUBLIC

<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	PUBLIC
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	PUBLIC
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	PRIVATE
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	PUBLIC
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	PRIVATE
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	PRIVATE
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	PUBLIC
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	PUBLIC
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	PUBLIC
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	PUBLIC
<i>RIO 2016</i>	PUBLIC
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	PUBLIC

Post-Olympic use

About the post-Olympic uses of each Summer Olympic Village, the different reports and documents related to each project were analysed. Therefore, the table allows us to state that the most frequent post-Olympic uses are: private residences, student accommodation, mixed areas and social residences.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Post-Olympic use
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	n/a
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	n/a
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>ROME 1960</i>	RESIDENTIAL

<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	SOCIAL HOUSING
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	SOCIAL HOUSING
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	UNIVERSITY
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	SOCIAL HOUSING
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	UNIVERSITY
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	RESIDENTIAL
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	MIXED AREAS
<i>RIO 2016</i>	SOCIAL HOUSING
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	RESIDENTIAL

Financing

Regarding the financing of each Summer Olympic Village, the different reports and documents related to each project were studied. Therefore, the table allows us to state that the financing of the Olympic Village was mainly public. However, over time, private and mixed financing has been provided.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Equity value (financing)
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS

<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>ROME 1960</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	PRIVATE FUNDS
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	MIXED
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	PRIVATE FUNDS
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	MIXED
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	MIXED
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	MIXED
<i>RIO 2016</i>	PUBLIC FUNDS
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	MIXED

Current value

In readout the current value of each summer Olympic Village, again the different reports and documents related to each project were analysed. The construction value of each Olympic Village was considered through the monetary inflation indexes of each country and converted to dollars for a more realistic consideration of the current construction value of each project. The table helps us to understand that the average cost of realisation of the Olympic Village is 621,987,376 million US dollars.

OLYMPIC GAMES	Current value
<i>PARIS 1924</i>	\$ 15.949.400,00
<i>LOS ANGELES 1932</i>	\$ 8.217.404,43
<i>BERLIN 1936</i>	\$ 2.779.611.670,00
<i>HELSINKI 1952</i>	\$ 78.092.500,00
<i>MELBOURNE 1956</i>	\$ 1.948.220.869,88
<i>ROME 1960</i>	\$ 124.621.000,00
<i>TOKYO 1964</i>	\$ 20.472.700,00
<i>MEXICO 1968</i>	\$ 217.043.071,63
<i>MUNICH 1972</i>	\$ 115.636.128,41
<i>MONTREAL 1976</i>	\$ 392.546.023,99
<i>MOSCOW 1980</i>	n/a
<i>LOS ANGELES 1984</i>	\$ 91.807.768,07
<i>SEOUL 1988</i>	\$ 19.008.269,82
<i>BARCELONA 1992</i>	\$ 710.512.414,87
<i>ATLANTA 1996</i>	\$ 184.126.851,71
<i>SYDNEY 2000</i>	\$ 186.983.779,86
<i>ATENE 2004</i>	\$ 433.215.951,94
<i>BEIJING 2008</i>	\$ 675.082.294,44
<i>LONDON 2012</i>	\$ 1.537.645.474,19
<i>RIO 2016</i>	\$ 1.032.375.304,88
<i>TOKYO 2020</i>	\$ 1.868.578.650,00
MEDIA	\$ 621.987.376,41
MAX	\$ 2.779.611.670,00

MIN	\$ 8.217.404,43
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Comparative summary of the minimum and maximum values of each parameter considered.

In conclusion, the following table summarises the minimum and maximum values of each summer Olympic Village built over time. The comparative table helps us to look specifically at all Olympic projects and allows us to state that the Barcelona 1992 Olympic Village was the most balanced project about the division between residential areas and public space. Meanwhile, the Rio de Janeiro 2016 games have reached the maximum distance between the Olympic Village, the stadium and the administrative centre of the city, introducing a new development model for candidate cities.

Main stadium

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Munich 1952	850 m.	Rio 2016	28,6 km.

Administrative centre

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Barcelona 1992	3 km.	Rio 2016	28,2 km.

Number of buildings

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Atlanta 1996	2	Sydney 2000	870

Urban density (ab/area km³)

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Berlin 1936	3.050,20 km ³	Atlanta 1996	126.677,39 km ³

% Density m² (residential)

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Helsinki 1952	5,50%	Atlanta 1996	84,20%

Area occupied (m²)

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Atlanta 1996	81.451 m ²	Berlin 1936	1.299,260 m ²
<i>Total Area (km²)</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Min	
Atlanta 1996	0,08 km ²	Berlin 1936	1,30 km ²
<i>International area</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Min	
Barcelona 1992	56,20%	Berlin 1936	97,31%
<i>Residential area</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Min	
Berlin 1936	2,69%	Barcelona 1992	43,80%
<i>Current value</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Min	
Los Angeles 1932	\$8.217.404,43	Berlin 1936	\$2.779.611.670,00

6.3.2. The new dimension of Olympic Villages in regional strategies

To carry out the quantitative analysis of the Winter Olympic Villages, a series of statistical data referring to them have been considered. The variables considered will be analysed individually and then a comparative table will be proposed to observe the minimum and maximum values of each parameter. The GIS territorial planning software was used to establish the different parameters.

City population

Looking at the population parameter of the Olympic cities, we can state that the average population is 1,392,686 million citizens. Therefore, since Turin 2006, the mountain villages have been replaced by the metropolises and those territories close to the mountains that can host this edition of the Olympic event.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	<i>POPULATION</i>
OSLO 1952	447.000
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	4.000
INNSBRUCK 1964	100.000
GRENOBLE 1968	180.000
SAPPORO 1972	1.000.000
INNSBUCK 1976	117.000
LAKE PLACID 1980	5.000
SARAJEVO 1984	448.000
CALGARY 1988	640.000
ALBERTVILLE 1992	20.000
LILLEHAMMER 1994	23.000
NAGANO 1998	361.000

SALT LAKE 2002	174.348
TURIN 2006	900.000
VANCOUVER 2010	603.400
SOCHI 2014	364.000
PYEONGCHANG 1918	43.600
BEIJING 2022	19.638.000
MEDIA	1.392.686
MAX	19.638.000
MIN	4.000

Capacity of the Olympic Village (number of inhabitants)

Over time, we have observed a continuous evolution in the number of participants, which by Beijing 2022 had reached 2,871 athletes. The following table allows us to state that the Winter Olympic Village hosts an average of 1,732 athletes.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	<i>ATHLETES</i>
OSLO 1952	694
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	665
INNSBRUCK 1964	1091
GRENOBLE 1968	1158
SAPPORO 1972	1006
INNSBUCK 1976	1123
LAKE PLACID 1980	1072
SARAJEVO 1984	1272

CALGARY 1988	1423
ALBERTVILLE 1992	1801
LILLEHAMMER 1994	1737
NAGANO 1998	2176
SALT LAKE 2002	2399
TURIN 2006	2508
VANCOUVER 2010	2566
SOCHI 2014	2780
PYEONGCHANG 1918	2833
BEIJING 2022	2871
MEDIA	1.732
MAX	2.871
MIN	665

Number of buildings

The observation of the parameter relating to the number of buildings constructed allows us to state that the average number of buildings is 31 units. However, the number of buildings depends mainly on the architectural philosophy and urban planning of each specific context.

<i>JJO</i>	Numbers of buildings
OSLO 1952	18
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	4
INNSBRUCK 1964	4
GRENOBLE 1968	11
SAPPORO 1972	20

INNSBUCK 1976	19
LAKE PLACID 1980	11
SARAJEVO 1984	11
CALGARY 1988	8
ALBERTVILLE 1992	8
LILLEHAMMER 1994	185
NAGANO 1998	23
SALT LAKE 2002	17
TURIN 2006	43
VANCOUVER 2010	37
SOCHI 2014	99
PYEONGCHANG 1918	17
BEIJING 2022	28
MEDIA	31,28
MAX	185
MIN	4

Height of buildings

For the analysis of the parameter relating to the height of the buildings, the floors of the different buildings analysed have been considered. The following comparison allows us to state that the buildings in the Olympic Villages have an average height of 6 storeys.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Height of buildings.
OSLO 1952	2 and 8 storeys
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	3 storeys
INNSBRUCK 1964	10 storeys
GRENOBLE 1968	4 and 5 storeys
SAPPORO 1972	5 and 11 storeys
INNSBUCK 1976	10 storeys
LAKE PLACID 1980	3 and 4 storeys
SARAJEVO 1984	7 and 8 storeys
CALGARY 1988	3 and 4 storeys
ALBERTVILLE 1992	1 and 2 storeys
LILLEHAMMER 1994	1 and 2 storeys
NAGANO 1998	2 and 4 storeys
SALT LAKE 2002	3 and 4 storeys
TURIN 2006	4 and 7 storeys
VANCOUVER 2010	5 and 10 storeys
SOCHI 2014	2 and 7 storeys
PYEONGCHANG 1918	15 and 25 plants
BEIJING 2022	4 and 9 storeys

MEDIA	6 storeys
MAX	25 storeys
MIN	1 storey

Typology of buildings

The consideration of the typology of the buildings was obtained through the analysis of the official reports of each organising committee. Over time, the Olympic Village has been transformed from a purely residential complex to a complex that included other functions such as: student accommodation, social housing, and offices. Therefore, from the following parameter, we can state that the solution of private residences was the most used until today.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Typology of buildings
OSLO 1952	RESIDENTIAL
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	HOTEL
INNSBRUCK 1964	RESIDENTIAL
GRENOBLE 1968	RESIDENTIAL AND HOTEL
SAPPORO 1972	RESIDENTIAL
INNSBUCK 1976	RESIDENTIAL
LAKE PLACID 1980	n/a
SARAJEVO 1984	RESIDENTIAL AND HOTEL
CALGARY 1988	UNIVERSITY
ALBERTVILLE 1992	HOTELS + RESIDENTIAL
LILLEHAMMER 1994	COTTAGE
NAGANO 1998	RESIDENTIAL
SALT LAKE 2002	UNIVERSITY
TURIN 2006	HOTEL + SOCIAL HOUSING

VANCOUVER 2010	SOCIAL HOUSING
SOCHI 2014	RESIDENTIAL + RESORT
PYEONGCHANG 1918	RESIDENTIAL + RESORT
BEIJING 2022	RESIDENTIAL + HOTEL

Urban density

For the consideration of the urban density parameter, the results obtained refer to the ratio between the number of athletes divided by the area in square kilometres of each Olympic Village. Therefore, over time, the Olympic Village has an average of 8767.81 inhabitants per square kilometre.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Urban density (ab/area kmq)
OSLO 1952	3467,09
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	6019,57
INNSBRUCK 1964	28356,08
GRENOBLE 1968	2750,61
SAPPORO 1972	5818,59
INNSBUCK 1976	9070,50
LAKE PLACID 1980	6745,24
SARAJEVO 1984	9727,15
CALGARY 1988	1113,38
ALBERTVILLE 1992	14495,09
LILLEHAMMER 1994	5218,30
NAGANO 1998	13267,89
SALT LAKE 2002	4966,40
TURIN 2006	12842,51

VANCOUVER 2010	10008,19
SOCHI 2014	2475,00
PYEONGCHANG 1918	9996,26
BEIJING 2022	11482,66
MEDIA	8767,81
MAX	28356,07537
MIN	1113,38274

Area occupied

For the analysis of the occupied surface parameter, the square metres and square kilometres of all the areas occupied by the Olympic Villages were considered. Therefore, we can state that the space of the Olympic Village has an average dimension of 324,839 sqm in an average area of 0.32 km².

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Area occupied (m ²)	Total Area (km ²)
OSLO 1952	200168	0,20
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	110473	0,11
INNSBRUCK 1964	38475	0,04
GRENOBLE 1968	420997	0,42
SAPPORO 1972	172894	0,17
INNSBUCK 1976	123808	0,12
LAKE PLACID 1980	158927	0,16
SARAJEVO 1984	130768	0,13
CALGARY 1988	1278087	1,28
ALBERTVILLE 1992	124249	0,12
LILLEHAMMER 1994	332867	0,33

NAGANO 1998	164005	0,16
SALT LAKE 2002	483046	0,48
TURIN 2006	195289	0,20
VANCOUVER 2010	256390	0,26
SOCHI 2014	1123234	1,12
PYEONGCHANG 1918	283406	0,28
BEIJING 2022	250029	0,25
MEDIA	324839,56	0,32
MAX	1278087	1,278087
MIN	38475	0,038475

Residential area

The analysis of the parameter relating to the size of the residential areas was obtained by studying the areas occupied by the buildings constructed in the Olympic Villages. In addition, the size of the area in square metres is compared with the size of the international areas using a comparative percentage. The average size of the residential area of the Olympic Villages is 36,570 square metres which reflect 20.20% of the total space occupation of the entire Olympic Village area.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Area occupied (m ²)	Residential area (m ²)	Residential area
OSLO 1952	200168	26536	13,26%
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	110473	7963	7,21%
INNSBRUCK 1964	38475	55430	144,07%
GRENOBLE 1968	420997	65866	15,65%
SAPPORO 1972	172894	14876	8,60%
INNSBUCK 1976	123808	22735	18,36%
LAKE PLACID 1980	158927	11062	6,96%

SARAJEVO 1984	130768	19372	14,81%
CALGARY 1988	1278087	15968	1,25%
ALBERTVILLE 1992	124249	14425	11,61%
LILLEHAMMER 1994	332867	32200	9,67%
NAGANO 1998	164005	24505	14,94%
SALT LAKE 2002	483046	49211	10,19%
TURIN 2006	195289	28676	14,68%
VANCOUVER 2010	256390	79973	31,19%
SOCHI 2014	1123234	109596	9,76%
PYEONGCHANG 1918	283406	12996	4,59%
BEIJING 2022	250029	66880	26,75%
MEDIA	324839,56	36570,56	20,20%
MAX	1278087	109596	144,07%
MIN	38475	7963	1,25%

International area

The analysis of the parameter related to the dimension of the international areas was obtained through the study of the public space in the Olympic Village areas. In addition, the dimension of the area in square metres was observed in comparison to the dimension of the residential areas through a comparative percentage. The average size of the international area of the Olympic Villages is 288,269 square metres reflecting 79.80% of the total space occupation of the entire Olympic Village area.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Area occupied (m ²)	International area (m ²)	International area (public spaces)
OSLO 1952	200168	173632	86,74%
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	110473	102510	92,79%
INNSBRUCK 1964	38475	-16955	-44,07%

GRENOBLE 1968	420997	355131	84,35%
SAPPORO 1972	172894	158018	91,40%
INNSBUCK 1976	123808	101073	81,64%
LAKE PLACID 1980	158927	147865	93,04%
SARAJEVO 1984	130768	111396	85,19%
CALGARY 1988	1278087	1262119	98,75%
ALBERTVILLE 1992	124249	109824	88,39%
LILLEHAMMER 1994	332867	300667	90,33%
NAGANO 1998	164005	139500	85,06%
SALT LAKE 2002	483046	433835	89,81%
TURIN 2006	195289	166613	85,32%
VANCOUVER 2010	256390	176417	68,81%
SOCHI 2014	1123234	1013638	90,24%
PYEONGCHANG 1918	283406	270410	95,41%
BEIJING 2022	250029	183149	73,25%
MEDIA	324839,56	288269	79,80%
MAX	1278087	1262119	98,75%
MIN	38475	-16955	-44,07%

Distance from the main stadium

The observation of the distance between the Olympic Village and the main stadium allows us to state that over time the Olympic Village has been built at an average distance of 16.74 km from the main stadium. Therefore, the Olympic Village from Turin 2006 to Vancouver 2010, has evolved a different spatial model, increasing the distances between the Village and the main stadium.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Distance from the main stadium
OSLO 1952	2.77 km (average)
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	0.8 km
INNSBRUCK 1964	5.8 km
GRENOBLE 1968	600 m
SAPPORO 1972	1.7 km
INNSBUCK 1976	5.6 km
LAKE PLACID 1980	10.1 km
SARAJEVO 1984	8.6 km
CALGARY 1988	1.3 km
ALBERTVILLE 1992	36.3 km
LILLEHAMMER 1994	4.3 km
NAGANO 1998	3.8 km
SALT LAKE 2002	1.6 km.
TURIN 2006	62.17 km (average)
VANCOUVER 2010	1.2 km
SOCHI 2014	40.13 km (average)
PYEONGCHANG 1918	13.4 km (average)
BEIJING 2022	101.17 km (average)
MEDIA	16.74 km
MAX	101.17 km
MIN	0.6 km

Distance from the administrative centre

For the analysis of the following parameter, the city hall was proposed as the administrative centre of the observed cities. Therefore, over time, the Olympic Villages have been built at an average distance of 22.31 km from the administrative centre of the host cities.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Distance from the administrative centre of the city
OSLO 1952	4.87 km (average)
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	13 km
INNSBRUCK 1964	5.0 km
GRENOBLE 1968	4.0 km
SAPPORO 1972	9.1 km
INNSBUCK 1976	6.4 km
LAKE PLACID 1980	10.4 km
SARAJEVO 1984	8.2 km
CALGARY 1988	8.6 km
ALBERTVILLE 1992	35.1 km
LILLEHAMMER 1994	3.4 km
NAGANO 1998	9.3 km
SALT LAKE 2002	9.6 km
TURIN 2006	65.43 km (average)
VANCOUVER 2010	1.5 km
SOCHI 2014	64.33 km (average)
PYEONGCHANG 1918	27.8 km (average)
BEIJING 2022	115.63 km (average)
MEDIA	22.31 km

MAX	115.63 km
MIN	1.5 km

Ownership of the area before the Olympic Games

The following parameter was analysed through the official reports of each organising committee and each document of the International Olympic Committee about the Olympic Villages. The following table allows us to state that over time the area of the Olympic Village before the Games was publicly owned. Only in some specific cases, the area was privately owned.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Ownership of the area before the Olympic Games
OSLO 1952	PUBLIC
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	PRIVATE
INNSBRUCK 1964	PUBLIC
GRENOBLE 1968	PUBLIC
SAPPORO 1972	PUBLIC
INNSBUCK 1976	PUBLIC
LAKE PLACID 1980	PUBLIC
SARAJEVO 1984	PUBLIC
CALGARY 1988	PRIVATE
ALBERTVILLE 1992	PUBLIC
LILLEHAMMER 1994	PUBLIC
NAGANO 1998	PUBLIC
SALT LAKE 2002	PRIVATE
TURIN 2006	PUBLIC
VANCOUVER 2010	PUBLIC
SOCHI 2014	PUBLIC

PYEONGCHANG 1918	PUBLIC
BEIJING 2022	MIXED

Post-Olympic use

About the post-Olympic uses of each Summer Olympic Village, the different reports and documents related to each project carried out were studied. Therefore, the table allows us to state that the most frequent post-Olympic uses are: private residences, hotels, student accommodation, apartments and mountain huts.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Post-Olympic use
OSLO 1952	RESIDENTIAL
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	HOTEL
INNSBRUCK 1964	RESIDENTIAL
GRENOBLE 1968	RESIDENTIAL
SAPPORO 1972	RESIDENTIAL
INNSBUCK 1976	RESIDENTIAL
LAKE PLACID 1980	JAIL
SARAJEVO 1984	RESIDENTIAL
CALGARY 1988	UNIVERSITY
ALBERTVILLE 1992	HOTEL
LILLEHAMMER 1994	COTTAGE
NAGANO 1998	RESIDENTIAL
SALT LAKE 2002	UNIVERSITY
TURIN 2006	RESIDENTIAL/HOTEL
VANCOUVER 2010	RESIDENTIAL
SOCHI 2014	RESIDENTIAL

PYEONGCHANG 1918	RESIDENTIAL
BEIJING 2022	APART/HOTELS

Financing

The equity about the financing of each Summer Olympic Village and the different reports and documents related to each project were analysed. Therefore, the table allows us to state that the financing of the Olympic Village was mainly through public funding. However, over time, the following types of financing have been observed: private and mixed financing.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Equity value (financing)
OSLO 1952	PUBLIC FUNDING
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	PUBLIC FUNDING
INNSBRUCK 1964	PUBLIC FUNDING
GRENOBLE 1968	PUBLIC FUNDING
SAPPORO 1972	PUBLIC FUNDING
INNSBUCK 1976	PUBLIC FUNDING
LAKE PLACID 1980	PUBLIC FUNDING
SARAJEVO 1984	PUBLIC FUNDING
CALGARY 1988	PRIVATE FINANCING
ALBERTVILLE 1992	PUBLIC FUNDING
LILLEHAMMER 1994	PUBLIC FUNDING
NAGANO 1998	PUBLIC FUNDING
SALT LAKE 2002	PRIVATE FINANCING
TURIN 2006	PUBLIC FUNDING
VANCOUVER 2010	MIXED FINANCING
SOCHI 2014	MIXED FINANCING

PYEONGCHANG 1918	PUBLIC FUNDING
BEIJING 2022	PRIVATE FINANCING

Current value

About the current value of each Summer Olympic Village, the data was extracted from the different reports and documents related to each project carried out. The construction value of each Olympic Village was considered through the monetary inflation indexes of each country and converted into US dollars for a more accurate consideration of the current construction value of each project. The table shows that the average cost of building the Olympic Village is 782,974,250.03 million dollars.

<i>OLYMPIC GAMES</i>	Current value.
OSLO 1952	n/a
SQUAW VALLEY 1960	n/a
INNSBRUCK 1964	\$ 99.402.890,00
GRENOBLE 1968	\$ 380.044.034,04
SAPPORO 1972	\$ 192.809.776,67
INNSBUCK 1976	\$ 102.085.130,76
LAKE PLACID 1980	\$ 72.264.762,50
SARAJEVO 1984	\$ 184.686.302,25
CALGARY 1988	\$ 29.947.760,99
ALBERTVILLE 1992	\$ 783.770,00
LILLEHAMMER 1994	\$ 108.129.636,05
NAGANO 1998	\$ 145.588.687,83
SALT LAKE 2002	n/a
TURIN 2006	\$ 436.497.230,42
VANCOUVER 2010	\$ 1.096.905.512,84

SOCHI 2014	\$ 1.989.420.169,50
PYEONGCHANG 1918	\$ 245.452.086,58
BEIJING 2022	\$ 6.660.596.000,00
MEDIA	\$ 782.974.250,03
MAX	\$ 6.660.596.000,00
MIN	\$ 783.770,00

Comparative summary of the minimum and maximum values of each parameter under consideration

In conclusion, the following table summarises the minimum and maximum values of each Winter Olympic Village built over time. The comparative table helps us to look specifically at all Olympic projects and allows us to state that the 1964 Innsbruck Olympic Village was the offence and off of the division between residential areas and public space. Meanwhile, the Beijing 2022 games have reached the maximum distance between the Olympic Village, the stadium and the administrative centre of the city, introducing a new development model for the candidate cities.

Main stadium

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Grenoble 1968	600 m.	Beijing 2022	101,17 km.

Administrative centre

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Vancouver 2010	1,5 km.	Beijing 2022	115,63 km.

Number of buildings

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Squaw valley 1960 Innsbruck 1964	4	Lillehammer 1994	185

Urban density (ab/area km²)

<i>Min</i>		Min	
Calgary 1988	1.113,40 km ²	Innsbruck 1964	28.356,08 km ²
<i>% Density m² (resid)</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Min	
Grenoble 1968	1,76%	PyeongChang 2018	21,80%
<i>Area occupied (m²)</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Min	
Innsbruck 1964	38.475 m ²	Calgary 1988	1.278.087 m ²
<i>Total Area (km²)</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Min	
Innsbruck 1964	0,03 km ²	Calgary 1988	1,27 km ²
<i>International area</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Min	
Innsbruck 1964	-44,07%	Calgary 1988	98,75%
<i>Residential area</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Min	
Calgary 1988	1,25%	Innsbruck 1964	144,07%
<i>Current value</i>			
<i>Min</i>		Min	
Albertville 1992	\$783.770,00	Beijing 2022	\$6.660.596.000,00

6.3.3. Host territorial organisation and society as key elements of the post-Olympic legacy

Block 3 - Statistical Analysis - Bivariate Correlations

The results obtained from the questionnaire provided online for the collection of data for the quantitative research are shown below. The questionnaire was filled in by 85 people (see block II - Methodology). In this section, the results of the statistical analysis conducted using SPSS software will be analysed. The analysis was conducted using nominal and ordinal questions. The survey questions were designed to be answered with the Likert scale which allows us to observe the Pearson correlation of the calculated variables. In addition, a spreadsheet with the results obtained can be found in the annexes.

Bivariate Correlation

The following correlations of the responses were measured through Pearson's correlation coefficient which allows us to measure the linear dependence between two quantitative random variables. This Pearson index helps us to recognise and measure the degree of relationship between two quantitative and continuous variables. The correlation coefficient can be interpreted through values that can range from +1 to -1. A value of 0 indicates that there is no association between the two variables. A value greater than 0 indicates that there is a positive association. Positive association indicates that, as the value of one variable increases, the other variable also increases. A value less than 0 indicates a negative association.

- Correlation less than zero: Negative correlation, variables are inversely related.
- Correlation greater than zero: Perfect positive correlation. The variables are directly correlated
- A correlation equal to zero: No covariance can be determined.

Legend

In the following graphs, the values of the statistical analysis of the correlation between the variables of the quantitative interview can be observed. The observation of the Pearson correlation will be done through the values that are valid and statistically significant. The confidence and reliability index of the model will be indicated by two values: (*) will indicate a confidence index of 95%, and (**) will indicate a confidence index of 99%. These two indices shall indicate the only values that are statistically significant and reliable.

2. How long have you been working with the International Olympic Committee?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation		0,027	,078	0,212	0,049	,223*	0,105	0,146	,003	0,175	,021	,02	0,147	0,027	,306**	,027	,244*

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

From this question, we want to observe the statistical correlations between the variables included in the quantitative interview. We can observe a correlation of -22.3% between the collaboration time (question 2) and the consideration of the Olympic Villages as an element of long-term development (question 13). This data allows us to affirm that the greater the decrease in collaboration time, the greater the decrease in interest in the Olympic Village as an element of long-term development for the cities. With the second correlation between the collaboration time variable and longitudinal studies, we observed a correlation between the variables of 30.6%. This figure confirms that as collaboration time decreases, the interest in longitudinal studies of Olympic urbanism decreases (question 24). Finally, we can observe the correlation of -24.4% between the variable of collaboration time and the need to organise a new Olympic symposium. The next factor helps us to observe how the time of collaboration with the International Olympic Committee influences the respondents' need to participate in and organise a new Olympic symposium. In conclusion, the variable related to the time of collaboration of the interviewees has a negative influence on the consideration of the Olympic Village as an element of long-term development, on the importance of studies of Olympic urbanism, and on the possibility of debating and discussing the phenomenon of the Olympic Village. In addition, this data allows us to provide a hypothesis related to the time of collaboration of the interviewees. With the increase in time and knowledge of Olympic urbanism, researchers, advisors, organisers and collaborators of the International Olympic Committee become more aware and more interested in the subject of my study.

3. Have you personally contributed to the academic development of the Olympic Games?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	0,027		0,019	,065	0,045	,275*	,007	0,017	0,049	0,083	0,06	,033	0,154	,12	0,147	,011	0,183

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

This question allows us to observe how the academic contribution of the respondents hurts the consideration of the Olympic Village as a special urban planning instrument for the long-term development of the candidate cities (question 13). We can observe a correlation of -27.5% between the academic contribution and the consideration of the Olympic Village as a special instrument. The variables were analysed to confirm that Olympic Games research has an impact on the consideration of the Olympic Village as a special instrument that can guarantee the long-term development of the candidate cities. Thus, as interest in the Olympic Games decreases awareness of the Olympic Village as a catalytic instrument decreases.

7. Should the construction of the Olympic Village be integrated into the city's own long-term housing strategy?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	,078	0,019		295**	,203	,075	271*	,172	,131	,043	,082	,032	,175	,001	,094	,162	,139

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

From this question, we want to observe the correlation between the integration of the Olympic Village in the long-term housing strategies of the cities and the variables that are reliable and statistically significant. We can observe a correlation of 29.5% between the integration variable (question 7) and the future conditioning of the Olympic Village on the city's public transport system (question 9). As can be seen in the graph, the construction of the Olympic Village as part of a housing strategy will inevitably lead to new relationships with the territory which may in the future condition the public transport system of the candidate cities. The integration of the Olympic Village will therefore condition the future of the cities in terms of housing and infrastructure.

Next, we can observe a correlation of 27.1% between the variable of the integration of the Olympic Village and its inclusion in a territorial transformation project (question 15). As can be seen, the increased integration of the Olympic Village within the housing strategy increases its importance of inclusion in a global strategy for the transformation of cities. This data allows us to observe how the inclusion of the Olympic Village in a global territorial strategy is fundamental to guaranteeing long-term development in Olympic cities. A global transformation project that includes housing as a strategic line of action will guarantee long-term development for the candidate cities.

9. Could the construction of the Olympic Village, by establishing new relations with the different territorial areas, condition the future natural development of the public transport system in the candidate cities?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	0,212	,065	295**		284**	326**	393**	241*	263*	366**	,131	,139	231*	,094	226*	,069	344**

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

From this question we can see how the variable related to the construction of the Olympic Village can establish correlations between other variables: question 7, question 12, question 13, question 15, question 17, question 18, question 19, question 22, question 24, question 26. We will only reflect on the variables with a 99% reliability index, the other variables can be found in the annexe of the quantitative methodology. From the first correlation (question 7), the correlation of 29.5% observed in the previous question is

reflected. The second correlation observed is 28.4% between the conditioning of the Olympic Village on the public transport system and its planning through a specific strategy (question 12). It can be affirmed that as territorial relations increase, the importance of planning the Olympic Village through a specific strategy increase. The third correlation observed is 32.6% between the conditioning of the Olympic Village and its identity over time (question 13). The consideration of the Olympic Village as a special urban planning instrument in the long term will condition the future of the public transport system of the candidate cities. A correlation of 39.3% is observed between the conditioning of the Olympic Village and its inclusion in a territorial transformation project (question 15). The inclusion of the Olympic Village in a territorial transformation project will influence the organisation of the city's public transport system. Subsequently, a correlation of 36.6% is observed between the conditioning of the Olympic Village on the public transport system and its influence on the promotion of social changes in cities (question 19). The conditioning of the Olympic Village on the transport system will inevitably contribute to the promotion of social changes in the metropolitan areas of the candidate cities. Finally, a correlation of 34.4% is observed between the conditioning of the Olympic Village on the transport system and the requirement to provide a new symposium to reflect on the future of the Olympic Villages (question 26). The importance of providing a new symposium to reflect on the new strategies carried out by the candidate cities rises in line with the conditioning of the Olympic Village in the city. In conclusion, it can be stated that the creation of new territorial strategies through the construction of the Olympic Village could condition the public transport system, the territorial strategies, their urban definition, and their influence on the host society and its knowledge.

12. Does the Olympic Village need to be planned through a specific strategy?

	2.	8.	7.	9.	12.	18.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	0,049	0,045	,203	284**		310**	493**	571**	689**	,18	,201	219*	547**	,199	293**	0,015	307**

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

From this question, we can see how the variable related to the planning of a specific strategy establishes correlations between other variables: question 9, question 13, question 15, question 17, question 18, question 21, question 22, question 24, question 26. We will only reflect on the variables with a reliability index of 99%, the other variables can be found in the annexe of the quantitative methodology. A correlation of 28.4% between question 12 and question 9 was observed earlier. Subsequently, a correlation of 31.10% is observed between the strategic planning of the Olympic Village and its definition as a special instrument for the long-term development of the candidate cities (question 13). The definition of a specific Olympic Village strategy will guarantee its own identity over time in the candidate cities. Meanwhile, the second correlation of 49.5% is observed between the definition of a specific Olympic Village strategy and its inclusion in a territorial transformation project (question 15). The definition of a specific strategy will inevitably be

related to the importance of ensuring a long-term strategy for the host city. Subsequently, a correlation of 57.1% is observed between the definition of a specific strategy for the construction of the Olympic Village and the definition of its specific use in the post-Olympic period (question 17). The planning of the Olympic Village through a specific strategy is related to the definition of its post-Olympic use. These data allow us to affirm that the post-Olympic use should be included in a specific strategy planned in the pre-Olympic period to be exploited in the post-Olympic period. Subsequently, a correlation of 68.9% is observed between the variable relating to the specific strategy of the Olympic Village and the respect of the project for the real needs of the citizens (question 18). The definition of a specific strategy for the planning of the Olympic Village must consider the needs of citizens before being implemented in the city. A correlation of 54.7% is observed between the variable concerning the specific strategy for the Olympic Village and the definition of two specific strategies for the different Olympic construction and planning periods (question 22). The definition of a specific strategy for the development of the Olympic Village implies the definition of two different strategies for the period of the Olympic project. A strategy for the financing of the Olympic Village and a specific strategy for the management of the Village in the post-Olympic period. Subsequently, a correlation of 29.3% can be observed between the variable relating to the specific strategy and the importance of furthering the theme through longitudinal and transversal studies (question 24). The definition of a specific strategy for the planning of the Olympic Village in the territory implies an increase in the interest and importance of studying the issue of Olympic urbanism in depth through longitudinal and transversal studies. Finally, a correlation of 30.7% is shown between the variable relating to the definition of a specific strategy for the development of the Olympic Village and the need to provide a new Olympic symposium to discuss the evolution of the Olympic Village issue (question 26). The definition of a specific strategy for the planning of the Olympic Village implies greater importance in reflecting on the evolution of the Olympic Village through the organisation of a new Olympic symposium to discuss and debate one theme of Olympic urbanism. In conclusion, it can be seen how the variable defined by question 12 is correlated with other variables that involve and influence the future development of Olympic cities. The definition and planning of a specific strategy for the development of the Olympic Village will imply the involvement of other territorial relations and strategies.

13. In your opinion, can the Olympic Village be defined as a special urban planning instrument capable of guaranteeing its own identity over time?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	,223*	,275*	,075	326**	310**		270*	344**	,206	234*	,076	,077	222*	0,051	,138	,03	235*

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

From this question, we can observe how the variable related to the definition of the Olympic Village as a special urban planning instrument, establishes correlations between other variables: question 2, question 3, question 9, question 12, question 15, question 17, question 19, question 22, question 26. We will only reflect on the variables with a reliability index of 99%, the other variables can be observed in the annexe of the quantitative methodology. The correlation between questions 13 and questions 2, 3, 9 and 12 is shown above. Subsequently, a correlation of 34.4% can be observed between the definition of the Olympic Village as a special urban planning instrument and its post-Olympic use (question 17). The consideration and definition of the Olympic Village as a specific urban planning instrument implies the definition and planning of specific use in the post-Olympic period. This data allows us to affirm that the Olympic Village will be developed with a specific identity through its exceptional character, providing the specific use for the post-Olympic period. The definition of the specific use of the Olympic Village will allow cities to benefit from an intangible heritage over time.

15. Do you think that the planning of the Olympic Village - in order to guarantee a long-term development of the city and the region - should be included in a territorial transformation project?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	0,105	,007	271*	393**	493**	270*		484**	382**	376**	,14	312**	336**	,163	259*	0,144	440**

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

From this question, we can observe how the variable related to the planning of the Olympic Village in a strategy of territorial transformation, establishes correlations between other variables: question 7, question 9, question 12, question 13, question 17, question 18, question 19, question 21, question 22, question 24, question 26.

Only the variables with a reliability index of 99% will be reflected upon, the other variables can be found in the annexe of the quantitative methodology. The correlation between questions 15 and questions 2, and 3, and have been analysed previously. Continuing with the analysis, a correlation of 48.4% is observed between the inclusion of the Olympic Village in a territorial transformation strategy and its specific post-Olympic use (question 17). The inclusion of the Olympic Village in a long-term strategy must inevitably consider the definition of specific use of the Olympic Village in the post-Olympic period. Meanwhile, a correlation of 38.2% is observed between the inclusion of the Olympic Village in a territorial transformation project and the consideration of the real needs of citizens (question 18). Therefore, the inclusion of the Olympic Village in a territorial transformation strategy must inevitably consider citizens and their needs. Thus, we observe a 37.6% correlation between the inclusion of the Olympic Village and its

influence on promoting social change in the host city (question 19). The inclusion of the Olympic Village in a territorial transformation project will inevitably contribute to promoting new social changes in the host city. A correlation of 31.2% is observed between the inclusion of the Olympic Village and its contribution to territorial expansion processes in mountain communities (question 21). The inclusion of the Olympic Village in a territorial transformation project can be a promoter of a territorial expansion process in mountain communities. A correlation of 33.6% is established between the inclusion of the Olympic Village and its complementary strategies in the different Olympic periods (question 22). The inclusion of the Olympic Village in a territorial transformation project, to guarantee long-term development in Olympic cities, must necessarily be carried out through two complementary strategies: a financing model for the construction period and a post-Olympic management model. Finally, a correlation of 44.0% was observed between the inclusion of the Olympic Village and the importance of considering new territorial strategies through the organisation of a new Olympic symposium (question 26). The inclusion of the Olympic Village in a territorial transformation project implies a greater interest in studying them for the consideration of new future strategies for the host cities. In conclusion, the inclusion of the Olympic Village in a long-term territorial transformation strategy is directly related to other elements to be taken into account when planning the Olympic Village in the territory.

17. Should the construction of the Olympic Village have a specific use in the post-Olympic period?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	0,146	0,017	,172	241*	571**	344**	484**		632**	,163	294**	,213	391**	,073	,187	0,13	329**

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

Thanks to this question we can observe how the variable related to the definition of specific use of the Olympic Village in the post-Olympic period, establishes correlations between other variables: question 9, question 12, question 13, question 15, question 18, question 20, question 22, question 26. We will only reflect on the variables with a reliability index of 99%, the other variables can be found in the annexe of the quantitative methodology. The correlation between questions 17 and questions 9, 9,12,13 and 15 shown above. Subsequently, a correlation of 63.2% is observed between the specific use of the Olympic Village in the post-Olympic period when considering the real needs of the citizens (question 18). The definition of the post-Olympic use of the Village must inevitably consider the citizens to develop a project that is socially advantageous and accepted by the local population. A correlation of 29.4% is observed between the definition of specific use of the Olympic Village and its influence in promoting the displacement of the metropolitan areas of Olympic cities (question 20). The definition of the post-Olympic use may have a negative influence on citizens' commuting from the

metropolitan area to the periphery of the candidate cities. Mutually, a correlation of 39.1% is observed between the variable of the specific use of the Olympic Village in the post-Olympic period and the different complementary strategies to build the Village over time (question 22). The definition of the specific use of the Olympic Village must be based on defined and complementary strategies. The Olympic Village in its post-Olympic period will need a specific strategy based on a management model for the exploitation of the intangible values related to the Olympic Village. Finally, a correlation of 32.9% is observed between the variable of the specific use of the Olympic Village in the post-Olympic period and the requirement to provide a new Olympic symposium to reflect on the new strategies implemented by the cities (question 26). The possibility of reflecting on the different experiences of Olympic Villages over time will help the candidate cities to define new management models and new strategies for post-Olympic use.

18. Should the Organising Committees, before planning a new construction of the Olympic Village, consider the real needs of the citizens?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	18.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
<i>Pearson correlation</i>	,003	0,049	,131	263*	689**	,206	382**	632**		,19	398**	316**	569**	,07	349**	0,078	426**

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

From this question, we can observe how the variable related to the planning of the Olympic Village concerning the real needs of the citizens, establishes correlations between other variables: question 9, question 12, question 15, question 17, question 20, question 21, question 22, question 24, question 26. Only the variables with a reliability index of 99% will be reflected upon, the other variables can be observed in the annexe of the quantitative methodology. The correlation between questions 18 and questions 9, 12, 15 and 17 have been analysed previously. Subsequently, a correlation of 39.8% is observed between the variable related to the real needs of citizens and the promotion of a shift from the metropolitan area to the periphery (question 20). Respecting the needs of citizens when building the Olympic Village in the central fabric of the cities can reduce the phenomenon of displacement from the metropolitan area to the periphery. A correlation of 31.6% is observed between the variable related to the needs of citizens and the promotion of territorial expansion processes by the Olympic Village in mountain communities (question 21). The construction of the Olympic Village in mountain areas, by respecting the needs of citizens, can favour the process of metropolitan expansion by the host city. Subsequently, a correlation of 56.9% is observed between the relative variable referring to citizens' needs and the implementation of two complementary strategies for the specific Olympic period (question 22). The definition of two complementary strategies for each Olympic period should respect citizens' requirements. A correlation of 34.9% is observed between the variable related to the needs of citizens and the importance of deepening the theme of Olympic urbanism through longitudinal and transversal studies (question 24). The study

and research on the subject of Olympic urban planning at a longitudinal and transversal level can help to define the needs of citizens, thus improving the Olympic project over time. Finally, there is a 42.6% correlation between the variable relating to citizens' needs and the importance of providing a new Olympic symposium (question 26). The organisation and promotion of a new Olympic symposium will make it possible to observe the new strategies of the candidate cities, including the citizens and their demands for the Olympic project. In conclusion, the inclusion and consideration of citizens' needs in the Olympic project will entail different correlations which sometimes should not be considered entirely positive. It is possible to affirm that sometimes citizens' demands reflect new models and new possibilities which, at the urban planning level, are often not positive for the territory.

19. In your experience, can the construction of an Olympic Village in metropolitan areas contribute to promoting social change in the host city?

	2.	8.	7.	9.	12.	18.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	0,175	0,083	,043	366**	,18	234*	376**	,163	,19		,035	414**	376**	285**	458**	0,129	426**

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

This question allows us to observe how the variable related to the social changes induced by the Olympic Village in the metropolitan area, establishes correlations between other variables: question 9, question 13, question 15, question 21, question 22, question 23, question 24, question 26. We will only reflect on the variables with a reliability index of 99%, the other variables can be observed in the annexe of the quantitative methodology. The correlation between questions 19 and questions 9, 13, and 15 was observed earlier. Subsequently, a correlation of 41.4% is observed between the variable related to social changes and their influence on the promotion of a territorial expansion process in mountain communities (question 21). The construction of an Olympic Village in metropolitan areas can contribute to the promotion of social changes and territorial expansion processes in Winter Olympic cities. A correlation of 37.6% is observed between the variable related to social changes and the different complementary strategies for the financing and management of the Olympic Village (question 22). The definition of two complementary strategies for the operation of the Olympic Village influences the promotion of social changes in the host city. Subsequently, a correlation of 28.5% is observed between the variable related to social changes and the reduction of territorial impact by the International Olympic Committee (question 23). A correlation of 45.8% is observed between the variable related to social changes and the need to deepen the issue of Olympic urbanism through longitudinal and transversal studies (question 24). The research and study of Olympic urbanism on a longitudinal and transversal level can help to understand the social changes promoted by the construction of the Olympic Village in the central fabric of the cities. Finally, there is a 42.6% correlation between the variable related to

social changes and the need for a new Olympic symposium (question 26). The organisation of a new Olympic symposium will help cities to reduce the social changes induced by the construction of the Olympic Village in the central fabric of the cities. In conclusion, different correlations are observed that can help to better understand the phenomenon related to the social changes caused by placing the Olympic Village in the centre of the metropolitan network.

20. In Barcelona, Atlanta, Nagano, Sydney, Athens, Beijing, London, has it been observed that the construction of an Olympic Village in the central area leads to a displacement of citizens from the metropolitan area to the periphery? Can the construction of the Olympic Village in the central area of the metropolitan area be the cause of displacement?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	,021	0,06	,082	,131	,201	,076	,14	294**	398**	,035		415**	,139	0,155	,043	0,13	256*

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

From this question, we can observe how the variable related to the displacement of citizens through the construction of an Olympic Village in the city centre, establishes correlations between other variables: question 17, question 18, question 21, question 26. We will only reflect on the variables with a reliability index of 99%, the other variables can be observed in the annexe of the quantitative methodology. The correlation between questions 20 and questions 17 and 18 have already been analysed above. Thus, a correlation of 41.5% is observed between the variable related to the displacement of citizens and the promotion of the Olympic Village and its territorial expansion processes (question 21). The construction of the Winter Olympic Village in mountain communities can be a promoter of a territorial expansion process and a displacement of citizens from the metropolitan area to the periphery.

21. Can the construction of Olympic Winter Villages in mountain communities promote a process of territorial expansion by the host city?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	,02	,033	,032	,139	219*	,077	312**	,213	316**	414**	415**		297**	,019	323**	0,014	259*

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

Thanks to this question, we can see how the variable related to the promotion of a process of territorial expansion of the Olympic Village in mountain communities establishes correlations between other variables: question 12, question 15, question 18, question 19, question 20, question 22, question 24, question 26. We will only reflect on the variables with a 99% reliability index, the other variables can be seen in the annexe of the quantitative methodology. The correlation between questions 21 and questions 12,15,18,19 and 20 was analysed earlier. Subsequently, a correlation of 29.7% is observed between the variable related to territorial expansion in mountain communities and the implementation of two different and complementary strategies for the operation of the Olympic Village over time (question 22). The definition of a financing model and a specific management model for each period of the Winter Olympic Village may be the promoter of a territorial expansion process in the post-Olympic period. Finally, a correlation of 32.3% was observed between the variable relating to territorial expansion in mountain communities and the need to study the subject of Olympic urban planning in greater depth at the academic level (question 24). The study and observation of Olympic urban planning through longitudinal and transversal studies will help in the understanding of the territorial expansion processes observed in the mountain communities where Olympic Villages were built.

22. Should the construction of the Olympic Village be carried out through two complementary strategies: a financing model for the construction period and a management model for the post-Olympic period?

	2.	8.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	0,147	0,154	,175	231*	547**	222*	336**	391**	569**	376**	,139	297**		,111	387**	0,105	239*

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

With this question, we observe how the variable related to the different complementary strategies for the exploitation of the Olympic Village, establishes correlations between other variables: question 9, question 12, question 13, question 15, question 17, question 18, question 19, question 21, question 24, question 26.

Only the variables with a reliability index of 99% will be considered, the other variables can be found in the annexe of the quantitative methodology. The correlation between questions 22 and questions 9,12,13,15,17,18,19 and 21 has been noted above. Subsequently, a correlation of 38.7% is observed between the variable related to the different strategies and the requirement to study the subject of Olympic urbanism in depth through longitudinal and transversal studies (question 24). The study and academic research on the subject of the Olympic Games, through longitudinal and transversal studies, can help in the implementation and execution of complementary strategies for the planning, financing and management of the Olympic Village over time.

23. In your opinion, is reducing the territorial impact of the Olympic Games today a priority for the International Olympic Committee?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	0,027	,12	,001	,094	,199	0,051	,163	,073	,07	285**	0,155	,019	,111		,167	,044	,195

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

The correlation between question 23 and question 19 was noted above.

24. In your experience, at the academic level, does the issue of Olympic urbanism need to be further explored through longitudinal and cross-sectional studies?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	,306**	0,147	,094	226*	293**	,138	259*	,187	349**	458**	,043	323**	387**	,167		0,067	468**

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

From this question, we can see how the variable related to the need to deepen the theme of Olympic urbanism through longitudinal and transversal studies, establishes correlations between other variables: question 2, question 9, question 12, question 15, question 18, question 19, question 21, question 22, question 26. Only the variables with a reliability index of 99% will be reflected upon, the other variables can be found in the annexe of the quantitative methodology. The correlation between questions 24 and questions 2,3,9,12,15,18,19,21 and 22 was seen earlier. Subsequently, a correlation of 46.8% is observed between the variable relating to studies on the subject of Olympic urbanism and the need to provide a new symposium on Olympic Villages (question 26). The study and academic research on the topic of Olympic urbanism over time need to be deepened and observed from different perspectives. The organisation of a new Olympic symposium is essential to reflect on the Winter Olympic Villages, looking at the new strategies pursued by the candidate cities.

25. What time frame should longitudinal studies consider?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	,027	,011	,162	,069	0,015	,03	0,144	0,13	0,078	0,129	0,13	0,014	0,105	,044	0,067		0,076

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

This question allows us to clarify that there is no correlation between the time frame that longitudinal studies on the topic of Olympic urbanism should consider and the other questions.

26. Today, the 1996 Symposium on Olympic Villages held by the IOC in Lausanne is the only academic conference that analysed the evolution of the Summer Olympic Villages over time in a transversal way. In your opinion, should a new symposium be held to reflect on the Winter Olympic Villages and to observe the new strategies carried out by the candidate cities?

	2.	3.	7.	9.	12.	13.	15.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.
Pearson correlation	.244*	0,183	,139	344**	307**	235*	440**	329**	426**	426**	256*	259*	239*	,195	468**	0,076	

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

This last question allows us to observe how the variable related to the organisation of a new symposium establishes correlations between other variables: question 2, question 9, question 12, question 13, question 15, question 17, question 18, question 19, question 20, question 21, question 22, question 24. Only the variables with a reliability index of 99% will be considered, the other variables can be found in the annexe of the quantitative methodology. The correlation between questions 26 and questions 2,9,12,13,15,17,18,19,20,21,22 and 24 has been observed throughout the study. In conclusion, it can be observed that question 26 has the highest number of correlations (12) among all the variables considered. This data allows us to affirm with certainty that the organisation of a new Olympic symposium is of fundamental importance for the discussion, observation and reflection of the academic community on the evolution of the spatial organisation models of the Olympic Winter Villages. Over the years, it has been possible to observe different models of spatial organisation that are in constant evolution and that can help us to understand globally the subject of Olympic urbanism. To date, the 1995 Olympic Symposium has proved to be the only institutional moment of academic debate and reflection among the entire scientific community. As we have been able to observe through the analysis of the correlations, the organisation of a new symposium almost thirty years after the 1995 symposium is of fundamental importance to discuss issues related to territorial impact, organisational models, heritage, legacy, infrastructures, participation, housing, social changes and territorial transformations.

Block 4 - Statistical Analysis - Factor Analysis

The results obtained from the questionnaire provided online for the collection of the quantitative research data are shown below. The questionnaire was answered by 85 people (see chapter II - Methodology). In this section, the results of the statistical analysis carried out using SPSS software will be analysed. The analysis was carried out using nominal and

ordinal questions. The questions evaluated were provided through a Likert scale that allows us to construct a factor analysis between the common elements of the various questions. The definition of this model allows us to establish the organisation of the Olympic Village as the dependent variable. After having established the dependent variable, two independent variables have been provided: territory and society. The model has been provided through a factor analysis supported by linear regression and a frequency histogram. In addition, a spreadsheet including the results obtained from the factorial analysis can be consulted in the annexes.

Factor Analysis (introduction)

Factor analysis is an analytical technique to reduce the sample of data, allowing to find groups of homogeneous variables from a set of variables. The groups (factors) are established through the variables that establish correlations between them and by defining groups of independent variables. The application of factor analysis to the answers of the questionnaire guarantees a characteristic grouping and makes it possible to find groups of variables with a common meaning, reducing the number of dimensions to reflect on the answers of the interviewees. Factor analysis allows us to reduce the dimensionality of the data, seeking the minimum number of dimensions necessary to explain the maximum amount of information contained in the sample data.

Factor Analysis (model)

The factor analysis model has been provided through the following variables: organisation, territory, and social.

The following variables have been considered for the definition of the dependent variable (organisation):

- Question 12
- Question 13
- Question 15
- Question 17
- Question 18

Reliability statistics

<i>Cronbach's alpha dd</i>	No. of elements
0,784	5

Cronbach's Alpha shows a reliability of 78.4% for the dependent variable. The value is therefore highly reliable.

Meanwhile, the following variables have been considered for the definition of the two independent variables:

- Territory:
 - Question 20
 - Question 21

Reliability statistics

<i>Cronbach's alpha dd</i>	No. of elements
0,586	2

Cronbach's Alpha gives us a reliability of 58.6% for the independent variable (territory).

- Social:
 - Question 9
 - Question 19
 - Question 24
 - Question 26

Reliability statistics

<i>Cronbach's alpha dd</i>	No. of elements
0,712	4

Finally, Cronbach's Alpha in relation to the dependent variable (social) shows a reliability of 71.2%. Therefore, the value is highly reliable.

The following matrix of the model shows all the variables considered and the values of the factors estimated for the factor analysis.

Matrix of models

	Factor	actor	actor
<i>Questions</i>	1		
<i>12. Does the Olympic Village need to be planned through a specific strategy?"</i>	0,783		
<i>17. Should the construction of the Olympic Village have a specific use in the post-Olympic period?"</i>	0,774		
<i>18. Should the Organizing Committees, before planning a new construction of the Olympic Village, consider the real needs of the citizens?"</i>	0,743		
<i>15. Do you think that the planning of the Olympic Village - to guarantee a long-term development in the city and in the region - should be included in a territorial transformation project?"</i>	0,448		
<i>13. In your opinion, the Olympic Village can be defined as a special urban instrument capable of guaranteeing its own identity over time?"</i>	0,361		
<i>19. In your experience, can the construction of an Olympic Village in metropolitan areas contribute to promoting social changes in the host city?"</i>		,873	
<i>24. In your experience, at an academic level, does the theme of Olympic urbanism need to be deepened through longitudinal and cross-sectional studies?"</i>		,527	
<i>26. At the day, the 1995 Olympic Village Symposium held by the CIO in Lausanne turns out to be the only academic conference that cross-sectional the evolution of the Summer Olympic Village over time. In your opinion, should a new symposium be provided..."</i>		,479	
<i>9. Would it be possible the construction of the Olympic Village - establishing new relationships with the different territorial areas - to condition the future environmental development of the public transport system of the candidate cities?"</i>		,383	

21. Can the construction of the Olympic Winter Villages in the mountain communities promote a process of territorial expansion by the host city?"	,427	,593
20. In Barcelona, Atlanta, Nagano, Sydney, Athens, Beijing, London, it has been observed that the construction of an Olympic Village in the inner city involves a movement of citizens from the metropolitan area to the periphery. Could the construction...		,553

Method of extraction: Principal axis factorisation

Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser normalisation

The convergence of the rotation takes 14 iterations

Linear regression model

Summary of the model

R	R-squared	Adapted squared	R-	Error std. of the estimate
,544a	0,296	0,278		0,51957

a Predictors: (constant), territorial, social

b Dependent variable: organisation

From the model summary it can be seen that the model is reliable and the r^2 is 29.6%.

ANOVA

Model		Sum of squares	gl	Root mean square	F	Sign.
1	Regression	9,29	2	4,645	17,206	,000b
	Residual	22,136	82	0,27		
	Total	31,426	84			

a Predictors: (constant), territorial, social

b Dependent variable: organisation

The ANOVA table allows us to observe that the reliability level of the model is 0. Therefore, the regression is reliable at 99.9%.

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	t	Sign.	Collinearity statistics	
		B	Standard error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2,046	0,396		5,162	0		
	social	0,408	0,091	0,44	4,488	0	0,895	1,118
	territorial	0,163	0,077	0,207	2,117	0,037	0,895	1,118

a Dependent variable: organisation

In the table of coefficients, we can see that the variables have a reliability level of less than 0.05 and therefore the model is viable and we can see that the independent variables have an impact on the dependent variable. The organisation has an impact on the territory and society.

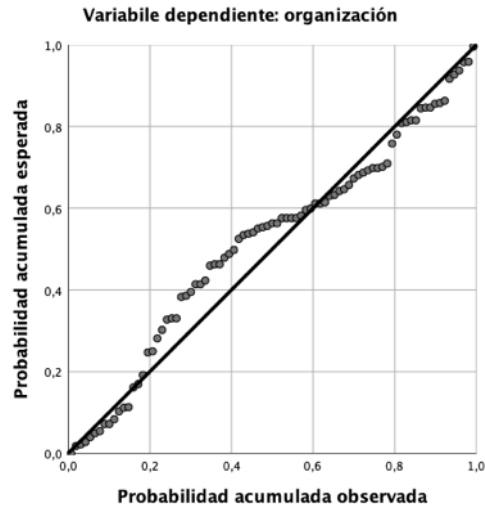
Collinearity diagnostics

Model	Dimension	Own value	Table of contents	Ratios of variation		
				(Constant)	social	territorial
1	1	2,963	1	0	0	0
	2	0,024	11,025	0,1	0,2	0,98
	3	0,012	15,499	0,9	0,8	0,02

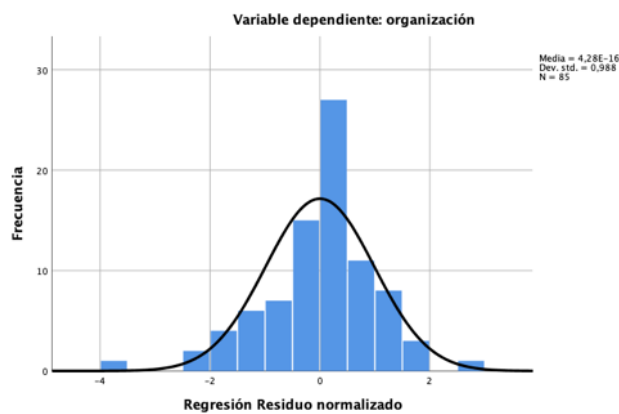
a Dependent variable: organisation

Finally, the collinearity table shows no relationships or correlations between variables that could compromise the reliability of the model.

The graphical representation through a histogram allows us to observe the distribution and frequency of the model, which has a value of 98.8% of the standard deviation.



Finally, a linear regression was proposed to observe the distribution of the variables. The regression allows us to observe a relatively linear distribution. In some sections, the distribution is perfectly linear, while in another section a partially linear distribution is observed. In conclusion, a small distortion of the model and a slight deviation between the observed values and the theoretical values can be observed.



Criticality of statistical analysis

The sample analysed, obtained from 85 interviews with Olympic teachers and researchers, is too small for a detailed statistical analysis.

The number of respondents is not adequate to provide a statistical analysis using the linear distribution. The magnitude cannot be observed and therefore it is advisable to perform analysis through an *ordered probit* model and increase the sample size.

Increasing the number of respondents will provide a more comprehensive and representative analysis of academic interest in the Olympic Games.

Furthermore, the sample was conducted to investigate the relationships between the Olympic Village, the territory and the host society. The hypotheses are confirmed only by factor analysis. In conclusion, three latent factors were recorded among the respondents' answers: the organisation of the Olympic Village, the territorial impact of the Olympic Mountain Villages and the social impact of the Olympic Village.

V. CASE STUDY TURIN 2006

7. TURIN 2006

Abstract

This section will first analyse the case study of Turin 2006 by observation of the spatial dimension based on the different territories included in the regional planning of the event. The Olympic territory of Turin 2006 will be analysed using the dimension of the Olympic space that has been constituted through the identification of different places in a regional planning context.

The chapter will continue with the contribution of De Rossi and Durbiano (2006), it will analyse the long process of the physical transformation of the city of Turin through the decisive moments. These constituted the basis for the proposal for reconstruction and redevelopment of the city.

In consideration of the change in the perception of the image of the city of Turin, the chapter will consider the contributions of Dansero (2014), Guala (2002), and Mela (2006). Finally, the chapter introduced the history and evolution of the three Olympic Villages built for the 2006 Olympic project. The second part of the chapter will look at the results obtained from the qualitative survey of the Olympic witnesses identified in the research methodology. The results will allow us to reflect on the consideration of the Olympic legacy in a sustainable territorial development context.

Finally, the results will help to establish some considerations on the Olympic legacy and the relationship of the post-Olympic phase with the Olympic accommodation provided for the 2006 event.

7.1. The Turin 2006 Olympic Games

The 2006 edition of the Turin Olympics was considered from the beginning as an intangible possibility for the reconstruction of the image of an industrial city.

The Turin Olympics, as described in the text of the *Piemonte Region*, have been a fundamental element as a catalyst for regional development and in particular for the city of Turin, which since the end of the 1980s has been implementing different strategies of renovation and functional reconversion¹.

Furthermore, as described in the 2000 strategic plan², the Turin edition represented an important launching pad for the increase of tourism, not only in the mountain areas but also in cultural, congress and conference, sports and typical products tourism. The measures were aimed at promoting local knowledge of the local system through Olympic internationalisation. In short, we can say that the city of Turin aimed to provide its universities to the world to build a new economic and technological system in the *Piemontese* city.

"These objectives will have to be supported by territorial marketing activities, which have been partially promoted in recent years but are now acquiring a decisive importance" (Regione Piemonte, 2006).

7.1.1. Turin 2006: the spatial dimension

Looking at the history and evolution of the Winter Olympics, we find different spatial models, which include different territorial development objectives for the organisation of the event and the definition of the competition venues.

In the case of Turin, we can identify a rather complex spatial structure, consisting of areas and networks:

- The Olympic region.
- Olympic venues (urban and mountain).
- Midlands.
- Connections in the Olympic region.

¹ Torino 2006, *Le olimpiadi del territorio piemontese*, Regione Piemonte, 2006.

² The text was drafted by a working group coordinated by Arnaldo Bagnasco, and consists of three sections: the first, more descriptive, which explains the construction process of the Plan, to whom it is addressed, with what contents and what perspectives; the second, more precise and specific, which contains the general lines, objectives and actions; and the third, finally, which contains the Pact linked to the Plan and signed by the main socio-economic agents of the Turin metropolitan area on 29 February 2000 in the Aula Magna of the Politecnico di Torino.

The spatial dimension of Turin 2006 allows us to observe a different territorial scenario, characterised by the fact that it is located around a large metropolis which is far away from the mountainous areas, the venues of the main competitions of the event. The affirmation of the new territorial development model and the industrial decline in metropolitan areas has determined a redefinition of the functions of urban spaces, the road system and the socio-economic system of the city. The needs and requirements in the global competition of metropolitan cities have forced the city of Turin to re-evaluate, reconfigure and reinvent itself for new post-industrial development. The organisation of the Olympic Games undoubtedly favoured the implementation of projects and works that were planned and contained in the 1995 master plan, which included the guidelines of the 2000 strategic plan. For example, in the Olympic valleys and the historic ski resorts, the Olympic Games favoured the remodelling of sports facilities, infrastructures, reception systems and services to increase tourism in the mountain areas and to develop more profitable tourism for the future of the *Piedmont* region. In this way, the Turin edition can be considered as an edition included in a regional development plan in a post-industrial context. Therefore, the interest in the organisation of the Olympic Games was supported by all the places involved in the Olympic area: the three Alpine valleys of Susa, Chisone, Pellice and the city of Turin. The spatial organisation of the event inevitably affected the intermediate areas and all those places that were situated between Turin and the competition venues. The city of Turin was the main catalyst thanks to its ease of access, and the presence of existing structures and services that could be used to promote cultural venues such as theatres, squares, museums and hotels in the metropolitan areas. It shows how the organisers considered the Olympic Games as an event that could facilitate the promotion of the city of Turin and the mountain areas at the international level, constituting a source of new economic income in the development strategies of the Piemonte region.

Analysing the responses to the interviews carried out by the OMERO research centre in 1999, 80% of those interviewed were in favour of the event and another 10% or so were quite in favour, which allows us to affirm that 90% of those interviewed considered the Turin Olympics to be a good element for the improvement of the territory.

In addition, respondents saw the Olympics as a way to improve sports facilities (76%), road networks and the city's global visibility (79%).

The following interviews were conducted annually from 1999 to 2007 to observe citizens' perception of the organisation of the Olympic event and its possibilities for territorial development³.

³ The survey on the attitudes of the population of the Alpine valleys was carried out by the Department of Social Sciences (University of Turin) on behalf of the Province of Turin, on the basis of a special agreement. The citizens chosen were inhabitants of a municipality belonging to one of the mountain communities in which at least one Olympic venue is located. Bassa Val di Susa was added to the mountain communities as it was strongly linked to the event (Segre, Scamuzzi, 2004).

7.1.2. The Turin 2006 legislative framework

The legislative framework and regulations governing the interventions planned for the Turin 2006 Winter Olympics are based on Law 285/00 and its subsequent amendments and additions (in particular L.48/03). The law created the Turin 2006 Agency for the Olympic Games.

The typology of works and authorisation procedures:

- Necessary works (Law n.285/2000): All facilities and infrastructures are essential for the organisation of Olympic competitions.
- Related works (law n.285/2000): All works necessary to optimise the organisation of the event.
- Works of the Regional Programme of Tourist and Sporting Infrastructures of Piedmont 2006 (law n.166/2002): all work not directly related to the Games, but which support the global development of the territory of Piedmont; these works are therefore located throughout the regional territory.

The necessary works are included in Annexes 1, 2 and 3 of Law 285/2000.

Meanwhile, related works were governed by Law 285/2000 which was adopted at the regional level by the D.G.R. of 5 November 2001 no. 42-4336 and its subsequent amendments and additions.

A total of more than 50 Piemontese municipalities and 3 mountain communities were involved in the construction of collectors and aqueducts in the provinces of Turin, Cuneo, Alessandria and Novara.

Law 166/2000 earmarked investments in several Piemontese municipalities by the Regional Programme for Tourist and Sports Infrastructures - Piedmont 2006, drawn up by mutual agreement between the Region, the Provinces and the municipalities concerned.

Within the framework of the Agreement-Programme, in some cases it has been possible, by the provisions of Article 34 of Law 267/2000, to draw up variants of the municipal urban planning instruments, for those interventions that required such modifications.

The final adoption of the EU SEA Directive 2001/42/Ce⁴.

With the D.G.R. n.61-1774 of 18.12.2000, the Piedmont Region identified the Procedures and contents for the environmental impact assessment of the interventions referred to in Law n.285/2000, defining the process of approval of the SEA (VAS).

⁴ European Community, Directive 2001/42 on the assessment of the effects of certain plans and programmes on the environment, 2001.

Concerning the regional legislation in force, in particular annexe F (art.20) of the L.R. 40/98, the minimum content of the environmental compatibility study of the Olympic Action Plan was defined, to allow the verification of environmental sustainability.

The environmental compatibility study, presented by TOROC in 2001 and prepared by the Polytechnic University of Turin, outlined the different scenarios of the Olympic Programme aimed at achieving the strategic objectives for the hosting of the Games, highlighting the interventions to be carried out, the related problems, the emerging criticalities, the impacts expected during the construction phase and in the subsequent phases, the necessary mitigation and compensation work, prefiguring in several cases the measures necessary to minimise the extent of the impacts.

7.1.3. Planning and urban management of the Olympic event

As regards the specific competencies of the Directorate, most of the advanced projects were subject to the landscape limitation regulated first by Legislative Decree 490/99 and then by Legislative Decree 42/2004, obliging the public entities to adapt part of the urban planning instruments of the municipalities concerned. Regarding the competencies related to the management of environmental assets, for the works under Law 285/2000, with DGR n.82 - 5618 of 19.03.2002, the Regional Commission for Cultural and Environmental Assets was assigned the role of supporting the Directorate in the evaluation of the projects related to the interventions for the Winter Olympic Games of Turin 2006.

D.G.R. no. 41-7279, dated 7.10.2002, defined the relationship between the urban planning instruments adopted by the municipal administration as a variation of the regulatory plans in force, providing for the possibility of drawing up, if necessary, an urban planning variation of the adopted instruments, which is also subject to publication and observation procedures. The publication deadline was set by law at eight days, followed by ten days for the formulation of possible observations. In most cases, the urban interventions involved a modification of the municipal urban planning instruments and, in some cases, also higher planning (Pragelato Landscape Plan, Area Plan of the Municipalities of Meana di Susa and Usseaux); in the case of road infrastructures, each project involved the modification of several municipal urban planning instruments.

Thus, in the period between 2002 and 2005, more than 300 meetings and conferences were organised per year, more than 300 preliminary and final projects were examined, and about 200 projects were authorised, to which must be added the numerous variations in progress (Bondonio, 2007). In terms of urban planning, more than 150 urban variations of existing or adopted territorial and urban planning instruments were examined (Regione Piemonte, 2006).

7.1.4. The Olympic works

The Turin Olympic Games have been a decisive factor for the city in the urban redevelopment foreseen by the planning instruments in force and included in the provisions of the PRGC of 95. The masterplan of Turin had already foreseen the redevelopment of the disused industrial areas, in line with the re-use of the huge structures in the Lingotto area, which represented the starting point for the recovery of large areas of the southern territory of the metropolitan city.

In the process of transforming the urban areas of Turin established in the 1995 Plan, it introduced, as another fundamental and decisive element, the covering of the railway line by lowering the railway line and the creation of the *Spina Centrale*, a new element of union of the urban fabric which until then had been separated by the railway. The railway line of the *passante*, which crosses the city from north to south, is the element of articulation between the historic centre of Turin and the adjacent urban areas, becoming a tree-lined avenue connected to the Spina Centrale, formed by the areas freed by the decentralisation of the existing industrial structures and destined by the Turin master plan for different activities, according to different lots of intervention and relocation in the city.

Regarding Olympic interventions, preference has been given to areas located within the spine in the redevelopment areas already foreseen by the Master Plan. The Olympic Villages are an example of how the transformation process catalysed by the Olympic event fits into the existing urban planning instruments and, above all, has been designed from a post-Olympic perspective.

The Media Villas "*Spina 2*" and the former *Italgas* area of Turin, designed to host the media during the Olympic event, have a subsequent destination as university residences. Moreover, in coherence with the P.R.G.C. of Turin: The Villa *Spina 2*, is inserted in an area assigned to university education configured for the realisation of the splitting of the Politecnico and the new library. The project is the definitive culmination of the urban design envisaged by the *Spina 2* Programme Agreement. For the ex-*Italgas* area of *Lungo Dora Siena*, the Olympic intervention maintains coherence with what was foreseen by the planning system (university destination). The area constitutes the beginning of the processes of transformation and reuse of an urban area located along the *Corso Regina Margherita* Road axis, adjacent to the historic centre of Turin. The other Olympic Villages of Turin, in the *Spina 3* area (Village media area *Vitali* and Village media area *Michelin*), in the area of the former *MOI Mercati Generali*, in the area of Italia 61 (Village *ITC-ILO*) and in the area of *Piazza d'Armi* (Village ex-military hospital *A.Riberi*) have involved the realisation of new buildings, which are expected to become residential and tertiary destinations for the post-Olympic period. The renovation of the *Riberi* hospital is part of a wider redevelopment of the parade ground area.

In the framework of the construction of the new Olympic Village buildings in the area of the former *Mercati Generali* in the south of Turin, special attention was paid to the

renovation of the historic market buildings, which form the core of the new area. The renovation project included the construction of multifunctional spaces and services for the Olympic Village during the event and for future residents in the post-Olympic phase.

Meanwhile, the Olympic Villas in Sestriere and Bardonecchia were planned to serve as tourist accommodations in the post-Olympic period.

The Villa *Claretta Media Village*, in the municipality of *Grugliasco*, will also be used as a university residence in the post-Olympic phase, by the plans for the expansion of the university facilities. The following extension represents one of the strategic objectives of the municipal urban transformations, in a logic of decentralisation of the university system and the location of new teaching facilities in areas of the metropolitan area, characterised by a socio-economic fabric of a predominantly industrial nature.



Figure 92 Turin, Spina 3, Michelin Area (Source: Personal archive)

7.1.5. The Olympic valleys

The Olympic area formed by the *Pellice, Chisone and Susa* valleys has undergone considerable transformations related to the construction of the works necessary for the Olympic event, according to the Turin 2006 Olympic programme and based on the candidature dossier. The mountain context, which constitutes the second pole of the Olympic territorial system, is characterised by elements of environmental and landscape quality already recognised by the landscape protection regulations and by the Regional Territorial Plan itself, which identifies the qualifying elements of the mountain areas, specifying the actions and policies to be applied for their enhancement and protection.

The PTR itself recognises the Susa Valley as a territorial area worthy of a specific study.

The interventions envisaged by the Olympic Programme were aimed at achieving objectives such as adapting accessibility and mobility in the territory affected by the Games, strengthening and qualifying the sporting, recreational and accommodation offers, improving the organisation of sport and tourism and making the interventions themselves compatible with the mountain environment. The Olympic project was planned respecting the morphological characteristics of the territories of the valleys and in relation to the objectives of sustainable local development also in terms of redevelopment and reuse of the existing building heritage. The decision to build the ice palaces in *Pinerolo* and *Torre Pellice* is linked not only to the tradition of ice sports in the two cities located in the foothills of the Alps but also to the indications contained in the Olympic Programme to decentralise ice sports in areas of interconnection between the metropolitan area of Turin and the mountainous context of the Olympic valleys.

Pragelato, Sestriere, Cesana Torinese, Claviere, Bardonecchia, Sauze d'Ouloux, Oloux.

In the following Olympic municipalities, interventions related to the programmed snowmaking systems necessary for the Olympic event were carried out, with the construction of artificial reservoirs and related structures. Other municipalities in the Turin valleys (*Prali, Chiomonte, Avigliana*, etc.) were also included in the Olympic programme.

Therefore, the regionalisation of the Olympics has been one of the short-term results in terms of the central role that the Games assigned to an urban space located at a significant distance from the mountains, and the rediscovery of a historical relationship between Turin and the Alps (Bontempi, 2006). But it quickly dissolved in the following period.

Some Alpine actors have accused Turin of having spread the image of a purely urban event, obscuring the role played by the Alpine valleys and thus diminishing the possibility of gaining the benefit of creating a new positive image for these areas. The conflict between the valley and Turin can be understood from the perspective of the Turin-Lyon high-speed train. In particular, the problems related to the reuse of the two large facilities, such as the ski jumping ramp at the Stadio del Trampoline in Pragelato and the bobsleigh track in Cesana, are still unresolved (Dansero, 2015).

7.1.6. Turin's image in the post-Olympic period

The symbolic dimension of the city of Turin has not followed a trajectory parallel to the Olympic works, however, it is necessary to distinguish between the changes that have affected the city and the specific places that have hosted the Olympic competitions. The image of the city of Turin in the post-Olympic period changed profoundly, data related to the number of tourists show a significant growth and surveys conducted by the OMERO group a few years after the Olympic event have revealed that the city of Turin is nowadays considered as a city of culture, art, food and good quality of life (Dansero, 2015).

In such a way, the Olympics can be seen as a catalyst within a broader process of socio-structural changes that contributed to different outcomes synergistically. However, only a few Olympic sites lead to the memory of the event on the territory. One of the most relevant Olympic symbols, the *medal square*, was located in a central area through a temporary installation inside one of the most important historical places in the city of Turin, *Piazza Castello*. This temporary symbolism was only one part of a wider strategy of branding the place, a strategy that was to recreate a cosmopolitan, creative and vibrant image of the city, which would modify its reputation as a city linked to a strong industrial crisis related to its dependence on Fiat (Vanolo, 2008).

Thus, the 2006 Olympic Games should be seen as the culmination of a long process, which was added to the transformation phases of the cities and which was not continued in the interventions of the post-Olympic period.

7.1.7. The long process of physical and imaginary transformation of the city of Turin

"The study of local representation as a description of local description is (...) at the same time a study of areas as they are today, as they were in the past and as they could be in the future" (Dematteis 1989, p.44).

The transformation of the city of Turin and the definition of the practices used in the construction of the new physical and imaginary city must be analysed through some decisive moments for the orientation and completion of the process of physical and imaginary transformation.

- *PRG 1959 Rigotti* (Turin enlargement in 1950 and 1960).
- The public transport network in 1982.
- *Linee di programmazione 1985*.
- *Tre assi centrali del piano del 1996* (between strategic areas and disused industrial areas).
- *Green crown*.
- *Torino città d'acque*.
- *La città delle Città (Secondo Piano Strategico)* (A mix of multicentric, radio-centric rail and road structures, innovative transformation areas and historical and environmental merits).

In the proposal of the Preliminary Draft of the Turin Urban Plan of 1980, the objectives for the post-industrialisation of the city of Turin were included: "Diffusion of centrality; breaking the monopoly of the central areas; improvement of the urban environment; provision of low-cost housing, initially in the centre; acquisition of large areas, in the city and on the hills, for the common enjoyment of woods and parks, for the regeneration of the environment" (Radicioni 1988, p.71).

"The slogan of rebalancing and decentralisation effectively acquired a key role in the imagination of the general public" (De Rossi, 2006).

- Preliminary draft urban plan, 1980.
- Closed industrial zones in Turin, 1989 (Dansero 1993).
- The strategic zones identified in the City Council's programme, 1985-1990.

The operation carried out by Gregotti e Cagnardi had the great merit of summarising in physical images, such as that of the "*Spina Centrale*", very complicated intentions and forms of transformation: the recovery of industrial areas within Turin; the formation of new places and focal points; the interaction between urban renewal and infrastructural operations. The 1995 plan can be defined as a plan of redevelopment, reconstruction, redefinition and reconversion of abandoned industrial areas.

- Urban transformation zones (ZUT).
- Progetti per il PRG (Città di Torino, 1994).

Thus, the long road of building a new image of post-industrial Turin began with its central areas, squares and main streets.

For the first time in the twentieth century, it was the physical image of Turin's spaces that was given a strategic role in defining the priorities of the new administrative policies (De Rossi, 2006).

Projects

- Redefinition of Piazza Castello, 1999.
- Pedestrian and restricted traffic zones (2000).
- PRIU Improvement and conversion programmes for Spina 1, 3 and 4.
- Integrated PRIN programme for Spina 2.
- ZUTS Urban Transformation Zones (1999 with the allocation of the Olympic event).
- Spina 2 (Politecnico, OGR, Residenza Borsellino).
- The Regional Territorial Plan (PTR) approved in 1997.
- The territorial coordination plan of the CTP was approved in 1999.
- Progetto Speciale Periferie (Artesio, 1997).

Subsequent projects

- Corona Verde (FUNDED BY SPD 2000-2006).
- Turin city of water.
- Hundred Places Project.
- Territorial plan of the Pinerolo area.
- The Val di Susa territorial pact.
- The Leader Plus programme "Escartons and Valli Valdesi". Identity and sustainability for an Olympic landscape.

- The Interreg III "Alte Valli" programme.
- The Turin 2006 integrated zonal plan (to take advantage of the development opportunities linked to the Olympic event and elaborating an integrated plan for the financing of SPD 2 and the phasing out (2000-2006) of the Piedmont region (Dansero, Maroni, Ricciardi, 2003).

Thus, we can see how socio-economic development issues were strongly implicated in the physical aspects of the habitat, urban environment, infrastructure and green areas.

In 2000, Turin was the first Italian city to have its strategic plan (De Rossi, 2006). The strategic plan consisted of six strategic intervention lines, twenty objectives and eighty-four measures for the implementation of the plan.

The implementation of the strategic plan, the creation of the *Torino Internazionale* association and the metropolitan urban centre and the appointment of a city architect are signs of the growing awareness of the current metamorphosis (De Rossi, 2006).

However, the Olympics allowed the city of Turin to carry out millions of euros worth of public works, including more than a thousand operations on roads and streets in and around Turin.

"The dark side of the event is represented by the 100,000 jobs lost during the same period in the manufacturing sector due to the closure of so many factories" (De Rossi, 2006).

7.1.8. The Olympic Villages of Turin 2006

As noted above, the Turin 2006 Olympic event was organised through a new spatial model that included different areas for the definition of the competition venues.

As such, the Organising Committee proposed an accommodation solution through the provision of three Olympic Villas. The Villas of Torino, Bardonecchia and Sestriere. In the following sections, we will look at the history and evolution of the three accommodation complexes in the post-Olympic period.

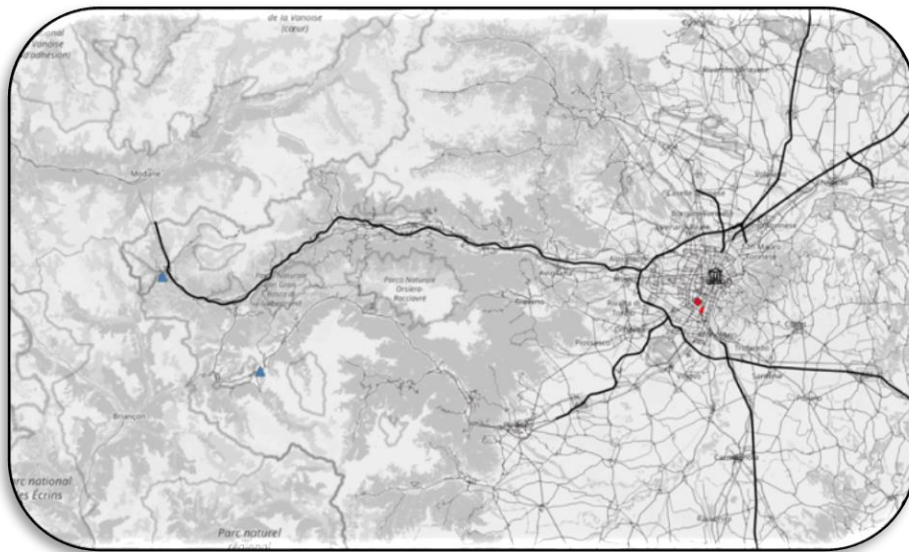


Figure 93 Location of the Olympic Villages in Turin 2006 (Source: Own implementation)

The Turin 2006 Olympic Village



Figure 94 Turin, Olympic Village, current state (Source: Personal archive)

The Turin Olympic Village is considered the main Village, located in the urban context of the metropolitan city. The location of the Villa was chosen for its proximity to the main sports facilities and for its integration in the Lingotto area, which at that time was defined in the 1995 masterplan as an area subject to post-industrial revaluation. The work was part of the metropolitan redesign, integrating into the urban fabric and bringing new values and identity into a historical context where the old General Markets, designed by Umberto Cuzzi in the 1930s. From the outset, therefore, the Olympic Village was conceived as a mixed residential complex in a strategic area for the connection of the southern area of the city. The Turin Olympic Village in the 1998 bid dossier

was defined as a pilot project, destined to become an example of sustainable architecture. Furthermore, the complex was one of the first cases in Europe of SEA (Strategic Environmental Assessment) application. After the public tender in 2002, the group of builders represented by the architect Camerana (architect of the *Agnelli* family), proposed a solution by designing a new urban envelope along the railway line.

The Olympic Village area consists of the recovery of the former wholesale fruit and vegetable markets (MOI) destined to house services and with a not well-defined hypothesis of reconversion. However, in the post-Olympic period, the city council did not propose any solution for the reuse of the service area.

The MOI for its historical-architectural importance was considered the central element of the connection between the two areas separated by the railway line. The intervention strategies of the MOI were applied through a recovery that has maintained the skeleton of the exMOI, restoring the structures and obtaining new volumes (De Pieri, 2008).

The Olympic *walkway* connecting the Lingotto complex to the Olympic Village fits in with the MOI's centre of gravity. Meanwhile, the 657 residential units were distributed in 39 buildings conceived to become private residences in the post-Olympic period. The buildings feature commercial premises on the ground floors, common areas and services. In addition, after the Olympic event, ARPA⁵ will set up its offices in lot 4. Subsequently, the sports federations and the post-Olympic foundation will be installed in other blocks.



Figure 95 Turin, Olympic Village, current state
(Source: Personal archive)

However, the conversion to tertiary uses, which was not foreseen in the initial project, required new investments to adapt to the new function. The sockets, the ventilation system, the layout of the interiors and the sanitary facilities had to be dismantled to adapt the spaces to office use. In section 7.3, respondents complained that the retrofitting should have been planned before and not after. Moreover, in the post-Olympic period, the Village was occupied by refugees due to the uncertainty of the real estate market and the high cost of flats. Only part of the residences has been sold to private individuals and used as university halls of residence. Even though in 2015 the Judicial Authority ordered the seizure of the occupied buildings, today the buildings remain abandoned and their fate is uncertain.

The lack of specific functions and compatible uses for the spaces has led to the abandonment of the area, with numerous degradation phenomena related to inefficient execution and the use of cheap materials.

⁵ Agenzia Regionale per la Protezione Ambientale del Piemonte (Regional Agency for the Environmental Protection of Piedmont)

However, the planning of the post-Olympic use was not properly defined as the objective of using the area as a part of the urban transformation strategy for the southern area was confused with the performance strategy itself.

Another critical aspect is related to the lack of maintenance and an obvious deficiency in the execution of the works such as windows that cannot be opened, thermal heating not connected or load-bearing walls and stairs inside the dwellings. These are just some of the execution defects.

The Turin Olympic Village, in the context of the rapid urban transformations in connection with the Olympics, can therefore be considered the most important work from a symbolic point of view.

"A new piece of city that replaces another, in front of the Lingotto" (Bianchetti, 2005).

The Olympic Village of Bardonecchia

The accommodation complex in Bardonecchia was included in a project for the redevelopment and reuse of a 1930s colony. The complex was in an area with different buildings, including dormitories, toilets and common spaces. The rooms were conceived as divided dormitories that included washbasins in each room. Like many of the works built by fascism in Italy, the complex had its central tower that makes the colony visible from a distance. In addition, the colony has a refectory, a reading room and a recreation room. The "IX Maggio" mountain colony⁶ was modified several times to transform it into an Olympic Village and to meet the standards set by the IOC. The ground floor of the building was completely altered and the construction of another floor of rooms was proposed.

The double, triple and quadruple rooms are distributed on different levels and are equipped with every comfort. The Olympic Village complex includes large areas dedicated to sports and recreational activities, with a swimming pool with sauna, Turkish bath, whirlpool bath and gymnasium. The complex also includes two restaurants, a bar, large recreation rooms, a theatre, a discotheque and a lounge bar. An outdoor car park, a garage and a heated ski boot storage area complete the area. At the end of the Olympic event, the structure was assigned to the municipality of Bardonecchia to increase the number of accommodations available in a tourist resort. Therefore, the inclusion of the Olympic Village in a mountain village, proposed from the beginning as a tourist accommodation structure, has facilitated its post-Olympic use without developing a negative legacy for the territory.

⁶ The colonies were sponsored during Mussolini's fascist government, in Italy the colonies are considered as cultural heritage.

Today, the Olympic Village is still fully operational through a public agreement between the municipality and a private hotel cooperative. The Olympic spirit of the Village is still alive in the large spaces of the complex.



Figure 96 Bardonecchia, Olympic Village, present state (Source: Personal archive)

The Olympic Village of Sestriere

Sestriere is the highest mountain resort in Italy, situated at 2035 m.a.s.l. and one of the most emblematic places for mountain competitions. The town throughout its history has hosted many editions of the ski world cup, standing out as one of the most important places in Europe. The village of Sestriere has a recent history, its evolution is mainly due to the *Agnelli* family which, through the construction of two towers, has been the propellant of a touristic construction process that will change the landscape of the place. Other towers were conceived as a single endless chamber through a helical development. The long ramp is one of the particularities of the construction of the Towers, where their singularity and uniqueness to the world stand out. Subsequently, Sestriere became an important winter resort, attracting a high-level international clientele thanks to the modernity and style of its facilities. Sestriere can be considered a historic venue for modern skiing, from *Alberto Tomba's* double in 1987 to the first World Cup night slalom in 1994, the World Championships in 1997, the Alpine World Cup Finals and the 2006 Olympic Games. The resort is a successful fusion of modernity and tradition. The buildings are arranged along the contours of the terrain. The glass galleries and interiors allow the buildings to be connected without leaving the entire complex. The central body of the Olympic Village has a large service area and three floors of rooms and apartments.

The Olympic Village is a hybrid structure, consisting of different types of rooms and flats. The complex also has a gymnasium and a health centre. From the beginning, the structure was financed by a private company which, in the post-Olympic period, was added to the company. The collaboration and cooperation between the municipality of Sestriere and the company made it possible to provide a new accommodation complex, which, in the post-Olympic period, would be added to the availability of the mountain resort. In this way, the Sestriere Olympic Village can be considered a case study for the organisation and planning of a tourist complex in mountain resorts.



Figure 97 Sestriere, Olympic Village, current state (Source: Personal archive)

7.2. The legacy of the Turin 2006 Olympic Games through a sustainable development perspective. Reflection and opinion of Olympic witnesses

Block 1 - Profile of the sample

Main activity

All the interviewees in the sample participated or collaborated in the organisation, planning and management of the 2006 Turin Olympics. Professors from the University of Turin and the Politecnico di Torino who have collaborated in a transversal way with the Olympic project were also considered. The contributions of the professors and research centres allow us to observe how the themes of heritage, sustainability and patrimony were dealt with on a scientific level in the post-Olympic period of Turin 2006. The interviewees in the sample see the 2006 Turin Olympics as a key element in the socio-urban change of the city and its image, but also consider how other models of development and management in the post-Olympic period could have had a completely different outcome. Interviewing the professors involved in the OMERO, SITI and Rota research groups allows us to get a complete picture of what happened in the pre-and post-Olympic period

of the 2006 Turin Olympics. The subjects interviewed highlighted their thoughts through a common vision of the relationship between the event and its influence on the new image acquired by the city in the post-Olympic period. The interviewees have observed the change in the city's image through the different communication strategies manifested in the Olympic territory. Based on the responses obtained, it can be affirmed that the results and the sample are conceived as a fundamental historical moment for the future of the Olympic Games and the candidate cities. The Olympic Games are at a historic moment where cities must necessarily involve the elements of sustainability and heritage in the organisation of the Olympic Games. The inclusion of the following elements is based on the objectives of the United Nations 2030 Agenda for global sustainable development through the planning of activities that integrate the 17 points established by the ONU. Furthermore, this change of thinking reflects the willingness of the candidate cities the search for sustainable alternatives through participatory models for the development of new models of territorial management in the field of sport. The inclusion and implementation of sustainability elements in the Olympic Village project and in the management of the Olympic event itself, obliges the cities to develop a plan of interventions financed by private companies. The rebirth of a new economic model was observed in Los Angeles in 1984.

The economic model of cities through new relationships with the private sector will inevitably affect the planning and management of the Olympic project on the territory. A common thought of the interviewees underlined the importance of these new relationships with the private sector and with the local authorities to develop a joint project in consideration of the future of the city of Turin. In some experiences over time, the Olympic Villages have produced territorial changes affecting the citizens of the host cities in a permanent way. Changes in urban centres, changes in the transport system, and changes in an urban organisation are just some of the transformations that may affect the city in the post-Olympic period. Some common elements are advanced about the experiences of the Olympic Village activities in the candidate cities:

- Reduced-cost public housing can play a key role in reducing inequalities across the territory.
- The Olympic Village is a key element in the urban development of the candidate cities.
- The location of one or more Olympic Villages on the territory may lead to changes in the mobility and transport system.
- Private interests in the construction of the Olympic Villages may lead to an expansion of the scale of the residential project.
- In addition, the provision of new public housing in cities allows for greater integration of individuals at risk of marginalisation.
- The choice of central land can contribute to the expansion of the Olympic Village project to expand urbanised areas in city centres (Sydney, Vancouver, London).
- Redefining, rebuilding and revaluing city centres is the only viable option for new residential development.

In the sample of results, the elements of participation and post-Olympic management stand out for their importance in the different phases of the Olympic project. The different profiles of the interviews allow us to observe two different visions of the Olympic event. The first vision is that of the institutional or governmental entities that consider Turin 2006 as a revolutionary project for the reconstruction of the city. The second vision, represented by the researchers, considers that only a part of the Turin project can be seen as a positive result for the city. On the other hand, the interviewees agree that the Turin Olympics were a fundamental element of socio-economic change and the change in the image of a post-industrial city in the collective imagination.

Moreover, the interviewees agree on the need to promote the event at the national level for the preservation, use and constant reproduction of the Olympic brand to contribute to the development of a new production model based on the sport. A sporting model that can be established as a fundamental part of the national economy of each host state. The production of a model of local participation can contribute to strengthening the internal processes of each territory and exploiting the same model on a national scale. A participation model that should include all the territorial entities for the constitution of a mixed entity that can and should manage the sports structures and the Olympic buildings in the post-Olympic period. This new mixed identity, according to most of the interviewees, should be developed in the initial period of the Games to become a key element for the future of the cities. On the other hand, interviewees agree on the importance of instituting a specific agency at the national level that organises and manages sports events at the national and local levels. The interviewees affirm that the constitution of a new entity that is exclusively in charge of the promotion of events at the national level for all cities will allow to build and redefine the business model of local communities. The mega-event over time has produced and modified the territory in different ways regarding the morphology of the territory, politics, history and current society. Thus, over time we have been able to observe different results in different conditions of development. The evolution of the Olympic Village throughout the Olympic experiences allows us to distinguish the following elements that can affect or increase the territorial production due to the construction or re-evaluation of Olympic Villages:

- Masterplan of the city and the territory
- Masterplan of the Olympic project
- Documentation and reports on the different projects and processes
- Longitudinal interviews on citizens' experiences and requirements
- Tool for the control and preservation of the environment
- Infrastructure and tertiary services
- Strategic and residential development plans

The interviewees and the different public bodies they represent stand out from the research groups of their different activities implemented through programming limited to political advice. One of the common objectives observed in the vision of the public bodies

involved in the Turin 2006 Olympic Games is that of offering the world a new image of the post-industrial city of Turin. Moreover, as can be seen in the initial project and the Strategic Plan, the main objective of Turin was to stop being imagined as the former capital city of the Kingdom of Italy or as the Italian capital of industrialisation and Fordism. In the 2000 strategic plan, it can be seen how the city of Turin through the implementation of six strategic lines had key objectives for its reconstruction and rethinking as a post-industrial city. The city council and the region of Turin over time have always provided and implemented measures that could benefit the image of the city to the outside world. A concrete case of such measures concerns the production of new tourist guides about the different places and different territories that are in the Piemonte region. The emulation of the Barcelona model and the provision of new tourist guides was one of the measures that the city council and the region used to promote the new image of Turin to the world. From 2004 to 2005, the Region of Turin has promoted the publication of 23 new tourist guides in 10 different languages through international and national publishers for the promotion and knowledge of the Piedmontese territory. Moreover, 10 tourist guides were planned for the exclusive promotion of the territory of Turin. Before the Olympic Games, the city of Turin did not have any tourist guidebook of its own and was involved with other regions in the north-western area of Italy. Highlighting Turin as a touristic city and as a singular regional entity in the Northern Italian territory has allowed the city of Turin and the Piemonte region to be known over time. The interviewees agree on different aspects of the reconstruction of the image of the city and the benefits induced by the urban changes. It can be seen that there is a fundamental difference between the city of Turin and the Olympic territory. The interviewees from the public bodies consider the Olympic project to be an unquestionable success, while on the other hand, the researchers and those in charge of the Olympic territory underline a reflection on the importance of the Olympic event for the development of sports infrastructures for the Piedmontese territory. The common definition of the interviewees fits into the definition of "territorial marketing", placing it within the tourist economy of the territory about territorial events. Regarding territorial marketing and the perception of tourism in the Turin Olympics, Professor Chito Guala states his opinion: "The tourism economy is related to the perception of the city of Turin through its image and its identity. The image can be considered as an external image (national or international) as stated by Kotler, while the identity is a deeper process related to the citizens and the local population (DeMatteis)". Finally, it can be observed that all the interviewees agree on the importance of the special and temporary organisation that was provided for the organisation and management of the Olympic Games. The "*Cabina di Regia*", a public structure where all the public and private entities related to the Olympic event was represented, as affirmed by the interviewees, has guaranteed a fluidity of dialogue through the two main organising structures of the Torino 2006 Olympic Games. Professor Marta Bottero of the Polytechnic University of Turin and researcher of the SITI research group, affirms that the "*Cabina di Regia*" during the Olympics worked perfectly for the weekly meetings that allowed the event to be held without any criticism from the governance side. In addition, Bottero, about the Regia booth, says: "*The same efficiency in terms of governance has not yet been achieved over time in the post-Olympic period*". In

the post-Olympic period, many criticisms and delays have been observed in the constitution of the new entity responsible for the management of the Olympic structures.

Other activities

The interviewees consider the transfer of knowledge as a fundamental objective of knowledge sharing through scientific research. Also, the interviewees affirm the importance of the research project to contribute to the development of knowledge about the influence of Olympic urbanism on the territory of the 2006 Turin Olympics. The researchers and professors interviewed claim that part of their responsibilities is based on dissemination through seminars, workshops, publications and other dissemination activities related to urban planning, geography and social science. Thus, knowledge transfer is considered a common objective to pursue activities that can improve socio-economic welfare through the study of the territory and the legacy of the Olympic works on the urban fabric. These results have been achieved over time through different published contents, specific activities carried out through a collaborative and interdisciplinary approach. All the interviewees consider research to be a fundamental element in favouring the success of the Olympic project in the territory of the host cities. The support of the research groups of the universities in Turin and the involvement of local research groups has allowed for a participatory approach that over time should be considered a fundamental building block for the development of new theories. All interviewees consider research and dissemination of knowledge as a fundamental educational process to share knowledge with other people, groups of individuals and entities. Another element of the sample is related to the application of a multidisciplinary approach by the interviewees that allows us to observe the mega-event through different methodologies and analysis of the Turin Olympic event. So, researchers and professors share results, collaborate and participate, in a set of groups to obtain reliable results that contribute to improving the projects involving all local entities and groups of collectives. In particular, the OMERO research group has promoted and continues to encourage participation, collaboration and debate with other organisers and entities that promote the dissemination of territorial, social and economic phenomena related to the Olympic Games. Thanks to the involvement of other disciplines such as sociology, economics, architecture, geography and urban planning, they contribute to the multidisciplinary scientific development of the mega-events. Over the years, the OMERO group, the ROTA group and the SITI group have held more than 150 conferences, 50 seminars and workshops at universities.

In 2001 the OMERO research group, through the University of Turin and in collaboration with other international universities such as the Autonomous University of Barcelona, the University of Greenwich, the University of Plymouth and others, organised an international conference with leading professors and academic references on the theme of the Olympic Games. In addition, Guala was responsible for a research project with the City of Turin on the observation of public opinion and attitudes of the population about the Olympic Games. This study was carried out together with Scamuzzi from 2001 to 2007. In addition, Guala states that during the years of the Olympic Games in the city of Turin there

was an extremely positive climate of cooperation. In addition, Bontempi and the OMERO research group have developed a specific research project on the relationship between the city of Turin and the mountains.

Lines of research developed over time

The academic activity of the interviewees is consolidated by a track record of between 10 and 30 years of academic outreach activities and longitudinal and multidisciplinary collateral projects. In addition, the interviewees from public entities were chosen for their multi-year involvement with public administrations. Meanwhile, the interview subjects from the organising committee and the *Fondazione 20 Marzo 2006* were chosen for their position and experience with the interview hypotheses. The professors involved in the OMERO centre, since its foundation in 2001, have consistently contributed to academic publications related to the socio-urban factors connected with mega-events. Meanwhile, other interviewees such as Viano, a town planner at the City of Turin, and Mela, a sociologist at the University of Turin, have contributed to the drafting of the strategic plan for the city of Turin in 2000. This strategic plan was used as the theoretical basis for the overall Olympic programme for the organisation and operation of the Turin 2006 Olympic Games. In addition, Professor Davico, through the Rota Group, has been researching the multidisciplinary phenomena that manifest themselves in the city of Turin since 2001. Every year, the Rota Group publishes its research on Turin and the observation of the metropolitan city through a multidisciplinary framework. Thanks to these interviewees, who have dealt with the subject through different interdisciplinary collaborations in their line of research, it has been possible to develop a homogeneous group that contributes in a fundamental way to the hypotheses of my project on the phenomena of metropolization of the city of Turin through mega-events. Finally, thanks to Professor Bottero's contribution, it has been possible to add a fundamental piece to the observation of SITI's research results on issues related to heritage and Olympic sustainability. Professor Bottero, through the programme for monitoring sustainability and the Olympic heritage in the Olympic territory, has allowed me to reflect on some key objectives of my project.

Legal figure

The organisation and management of the Olympic Games need institutional coordination to carry out the financial guarantee due to the construction and organisation of the Olympic event. Furthermore, if we focus on the Olympic Villages, over time we have been able to observe different economic models for their construction, reconfiguration and reconstruction of public or private residences. In a general framework, the organisation of the Olympic Games and Olympic sites must be guaranteed by the institutional entities. Over time, we have observed how these structures have evolved through new dynamic models that include representatives of the city council of each city in the organising committee. The organising committee for the Olympic Games, in the case of Torino, was the TOROC. The Organising Committee is a body or a foundation that manages the organisation and management of the Olympic Games in all areas. The Organising Committee is the main body that interfaces with the International Olympic

Committee, the region, the city council and the central government. These bodies are bodies that are founded on a national organisational policy. Meanwhile, for the execution of the Olympic works in Turin, a national public body was founded, which is in charge of the operation of the Olympic works over time. The *Agenzia Torino 2006* was a public body responsible for the agreements and the control of the Olympic works implemented through public funding. Considering that the works must be executed on the territory, the central government, to ensure that the regulations and the constitution were respected, proposed the creation of a national body to monitor the operating costs of the Olympic works. Subsequently, to facilitate communication between the two organisations, a body called "*Cabina di Regia*" was developed as an intermediate structure between the central government and the organising committee. In the common framework of the interviews, the importance of this structure for the implementation of the Olympic Games was recognised. The "*Cabina di Regia*" was represented by all the local and national entities that were included in the organisation of the Olympic Games. The "*Cabina di Regia*", through the conferences of the services, made it possible to focus on the common objectives required by the Olympic event. At the Turin Olympics, a character of cooperation and collaboration between all the stakeholders involved in the Olympic event is highlighted. At the Turin Olympics, for the first time, a private legal entity was established by the principle of a not-for-profit foundation. All interviewees were included or consulted by the organising committee to facilitate and implement territorial cooperation strategies, ensuring the success of the Olympic process. Most of the interviewees affirm that the organisation of an Olympic event, being complex and short term, requires professional figures with a specific background that can hardly be found in a national territory without a central organisation of sport events. As stated by some of the interviewees, the Turin Olympics created a climate and atmosphere based on cooperation and collaboration between all stakeholders. This kind of prerogative observed in Turin should be necessary to enjoy public goods without the manifestation of the inconsistency of the legal framework. This type of organisation has not remained constant over time and, above all, could not be adapted to all host countries. For example, in the Olympic experiences in China and the United States, due to socio-cultural and economic diversities, the organisation of the Olympic Games is different. However, over time, the candidate cities and the organising committees have had to evolve about the economic system of each state and the different requirements of each country. About these aspects, the head of the environment and professor at the Polytechnic University of Turin, Saini, explains that "I remember in Beijing that certain problems that we had to face in a certain way in China were unthinkable to put some of the choices in place. Very rigid. For us, it is a model that is not proposed. According to me, it is a fact that varies in all parts of the world. Japan, they have a different way of thinking. Different territorial, social and cultural conditions have required a different cultural, territorial and social approach". In the case of Turin, as in the case of Barcelona or London, it has allowed researchers of mega-events to reflect on the change of form in the development strategy of the Olympic Games. In Turin, the general approach to Olympic Villages and residential structures was defined by the municipal strategic plan and through the objectives of the region. In the Turin Olympics,

the construction or redevelopment of the Olympic Villages was intended to be used for tourism or private residences in the post-Olympic period. By defining the intended use of the Olympic structures, it is possible to reduce the chances of the structures being abandoned and rendered unusable. The Turin Games, like the Barcelona Games, have allowed the city to reconfigure many areas that had been abandoned and unused since the post-industrial crisis that began at the end of the 1980s. As explained by the city councillor of Turin Viano, the main objective of the city council was to reconfigure and hand over to the city new areas that could benefit the community. Furthermore, Viano confirms that, in Turin, no areas were expropriated and the project was supported by a strategic environmental impact assessment (SIA) procedure that pre-empted the EU law on environmental assessment. The use of the EIA as a planning and organisational strategy for the Olympic works, according to the interviewees, has allowed the reduction of works with a high impact on the environment and the re-acquisition of new public areas by the citizens. In addition, Prof. Dansero, Mela, Bondonio, and Guala, explain that all the research groups that have collaborated with the Olympic Games wanted to institutionalise a global research centre to support the territory of Piemonte in the organisation and evolution of specific strategies for the future of sports events and management of sport areas. Still, Bondonio explains that it did not seem that the city council and the change of political orientation had considered this opportunity for the Olympic territory.

Partners

The case of Turin, with different organisations, had a permanent TOROC staff made up of 23 directors and various employees who have become involved over time. On the other hand, the research groups Rota, OMERO, SITI, and IRES, consisted of between 3 and 10 researchers. In some specific cases or some collateral studies, groups of between 2 and 3 people have been developed to study and observe specific phenomena in their research areas. The research groups were always composed of multidisciplinary groups that studied the specific phenomena with an interdisciplinary approach. All research groups were in constant communication with the organising committee for the analysis and supply of data and studies on tourism, geography, urban planning, social science, environment and economics. TOROC, being the organising committee, at a particular historical moment and considering the obligations of the IOC, has had to seek and contract external collaborators who were included to carry out specific tasks at different moments of the overall project. So, the project is maintained by a closed core that thanks to the di Regia booth have been able to be permeable to new proposals from the groups represented. The OMERO research group started in 1999 with an informal group at the University of Turin by professors Chito Guala, Luigi Bobbio, Egidio Dansero, Anna Segre, Alfredo Mela, Scamuzzi, Bondonio. This research group worked informally for two years until 2003 when the interdisciplinary and interdepartmental OMERO centre on the study of mega-events was constituted and is recognised as a top research centre of the International Olympic Committee. The opinion and the academic contributions of its collaborators are intangible elements in the consideration of the hypotheses of the study. On a general level in Turin, an organisational scheme was observed that was centralised by the central operational core and decentralised

over the territory. Through this management model, the organising committee, the agency and the *Cabina di Regia* were able to carry out the different projects and tasks required by the Olympic territory. The decentralised structure has made it possible to find the professional resources that the Olympic event needs in the different phases of the Olympic project.

Partnership and participation structures

The partners involved in the organisation of the Olympic event and included in the sample are usually impartial and linked to the observation of mega-events in all their phases and complexity. At the Turin Olympics, in some specific cases, external partners were included who carried out specialised tasks to ensure the smooth running of the Olympic event. The Torino Olympic Games Organising Committee (TOROC) has over time had to implement the staff to meet the requirements of the Olympic event. During the development phase of the Torino Olympic event, research groups were involved and collaborated with the TOROC in the development of the objectives of all stakeholders. These research groups have collaborated fully autonomously in the Olympic project. In addition, as mentioned by Guala, Mela, Davico, and Bottero, the City of Turin and the Piemonte region had contracted the research groups to develop specific projects on the Olympic territory. These research groups were fundamental for the development and academic knowledge about the Olympic Games. The interviewees unanimously expressed that their motivations for getting involved in the Olympic project were related to the logic of collaboration and common support for the realisation of the event. All the interviewees consider the 2006 Olympic period as one of the best periods in the urban history of the city of Turin. Moreover, they all recognise and consider fundamental the support of the central state and the city council in guaranteeing the economic support that made it possible to hold the Olympic event. On the other hand, they all recognise how the Olympic event was not supported by the government and by all the national sponsors. The interviewees expressed that the Turin Olympic event did not have the necessary support to be able to communicate to the nation that a unique event was being organised. As observed in different studies, the collaboration of the Olympic event should be understood as simply the support that the different stakeholders can provide. Financial support is only one of the elements within the organisation of the Olympic Games. Therefore, collaboration cannot be understood as an individual fact, but as a collective fact that through the social contributions of the communities can develop fundamental relationships for the post-Olympic period. Through a climate of collaboration and participation, new challenges for the future of the city and the Olympic territory can be developed. Other motivations that can contribute to the involvement of new stakeholders are the desire to develop structures, infrastructures and tools that are useful to achieve the shared objectives of all stakeholders. Involving private companies in the realisation of Olympic structures and infrastructures can favour the development of a new philosophy of development in the city and the territory. While the forms of collaboration between organisations can be understood as: report writing, content transfer, loans, etc... Participation in the Turin Olympic Games has been carried out through different tools:

- Research→ The general and specific research carried out by the research groups OMERO, ROTA, IRES, and SITI were conceived according to the experiences of the researchers about the Olympic event and through all the different phenomena that can manifest themselves. The research was fundamental in making difficult decisions for the future of the Olympic territory. Moreover, the interviewees expressed that this model of participation had been able to become an intangible heritage of the city. For example, the 2000 Strategic Plan of the city of Turin was the plan that allowed the city to face the priorities of the post-industrial reconstruction of the city and the territory. Equally important is the environmental assessment plan, which for the first time in the world was applied to an Olympic event, becoming fundamental for the future of the host cities.
- Activities on the territory→ The dissemination of the activities on the territory of Piedmont has allowed the organisation of national and international conferences on the Olympic theme that have contributed in an intangible way to the development of new organisational philosophies. The participation of citizens through volunteer programmes and specific activities carried out by the Olympic cultural programme through schools have ensured the knowledge and promotion of the Games on the territory of Piedmont. Moreover, the Turin Games, through a specific programme for the Paralympic event, contributed to filling all the stadiums during the competitions. From these participations, other contents, articles, reports and reports have been produced, contributing to the discussion of the intangible legacy of the Turin Olympic Games.
- Other forms→ For the first time in history, Turin developed specific areas for non-registered journalists at the Olympic Games. By providing specific areas for these journalists, Turin ensured the media victory of the Olympic event all over the world. Moreover, for the first time in history, Turin proposed the medal square in Piazza Castello and not in the Olympic Village as has always been the case over the years. The medal square in the historic centre of the city of Turin contributed to the development of a new image of the city of Turin in the world.

In the case of Turin, through the "*Cabina di Regia*", a collaboration model was proposed that allowed the involvement of all stakeholders in the production process. In this way, an organisational model was proposed that was linked through common projects and the interests of the city and the territory. Participation and dialogue were two fundamental elements that have allowed Turin to be remembered in history as one of the best Winter Olympic events. In the candidature phase and the presentation of the dossier, participation is restricted to certain stages or phases where the project is finished and therefore there is no possibility of external participation. Therefore, the planning and initial ideation phases are restricted to the members of the organising committee of the Olympic Games. Castellani, Mayor of Turin before the Turin Olympics and President of the Organising Committee during the Olympics, confirms that after the Olympic nomination, the project has had to change to the new requirements of the city and the territory. From the moment the event became official, seven years began in which the organising committee is open to receiving new proposals or indications to develop a project that can satisfy all the

interested parties over time. Finally, Castellani recognises how the *Cabina di Regia* booth was a fundamental body in reducing the criticalities between the technical staff and the institutional staff of the organisation. Castellani recognises the importance of the research groups for the Olympic territory and the support of specific actions on the territory.

Funding model

The business model of the Turin Olympics is based on the national contributions that have guaranteed the realisation of the Olympic event. This business model is the model mainly observed at the Winter Olympics. In addition, the contribution of the International Committee through the TV rights and the TOP Olympic programme sponsors should be highlighted. The interviewees in the sample acknowledged the difficulty of finding private national sponsors who wanted to be part of the Turin Olympic project. The director responsible for the environment and the environmental assessment programme, Saini, explained that through the socially sustainable sponsorship programme it was even more difficult to find sponsors sensitive to the issue. This philosophy of intervention, as stated by some of the interviewees, led to many criticisms from the official sponsor Coca-Cola who wanted to be the promoter of all Olympic soft drinks. TOROC developed a sustainable event that wanted to promote local products in all their territorial dimension through the Olympic event. All interviewees confirm that the Olympic event is a franchise where many tasks are often complicated by the difference in vision between the international committee and the Olympic territory. Thus, the Winter Olympic Games depended and still depend on public funding to carry out the projects and the organisation of the event. Although there is a strong interest in the Olympic Games, it has to be considered that the winter event needs specific sponsors and therefore the audience is different. The interviewees state that common growth targets should be considered through specific plans in each development area. However, the funding of the Winter Olympic Games concerns the International Olympic Committee for the development of the event. The commercial character of the event makes people distrustful and they do not participate or get involved in the proposed activities. Davico and Castellani explain how two years before the Olympic event, the organising committee did not have the financial means to continue with the Olympic works and the central government had to provide another financing to finish the necessary works. The Olympic Village in Turin was one of the last projects to be advanced for the Olympic event.

Castellani and Viano claim that the city of Turin raised its share of the funding for the Games to guarantee the development of the Olympic event. The municipality went into debt for the lack of central funding and the inclusion of a project that had guaranteed 800,000 euros of infrastructural works. The interviewees recognise how the central government proposed funding linked to the inclusion of public works that had been blocked since the end of the 1980s. As stated by most of the interviewees, it is necessary to underline the lack of respect for the initial agreements and preliminary negotiations on the part of the Italian Olympic Committee. The Italian Olympic Committee was called in during the planning of a ski jumping scheme and the use of the bobsleigh track as a

national centre for preparation and training. These two projects during the post-Olympic period were abandoned by CONI and to this day remain two abandoned facilities of international standard. The sample shows a homologation of the tendency to dissociate itself from the National Olympic Committee for the future of the Bob and ski jumping facilities. These two facilities were the only ones that have had no future and are still abandoned to this day. In addition, the occupation of the Olympic Village in Turin is recognised as a failure of the city council to take advantage of these accommodations, which were intended for social groups at risk of marginalisation.

Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA)

The Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) was one of the aspects that the interviewees in the sample recognised as the most satisfying aspect of the Olympic governance. EIA is a procedure for assessing the effects of plans and programmes on the environment introduced by Directive 2001/42/EEC of the European Parliament and the European Council. The programming and planning instruments, which are part of the environmental assessment process related to spatial planning, constitute the reference framework for the actions of the Olympic programme for the Turin 2006 Olympic Games. The interviewees recognise the importance of this tool in ensuring that the environmental policies of the Olympic Programme are respected. Saini states how this instrument was of fundamental importance to be able to analyse and programme works that protected land use and the respect of the territorial organisation. The application of this environmental assessment process made it possible to observe all the positive and negative effects that the Olympic Programme could have had on the territory of Piedmont. The interviewees affirm that this instrument was used for the first time in the world of sporting events and that today it is compulsory for the organisation of an event. Moreover, the interviewees agree on the importance of this process that allowed Italy to be a promoter of future practices of all the countries of the European Community. In this sense, we can affirm that the Turin Olympics were both revolutionary in terms of sustainability and territorial governance. The EIA was provided through various reports (ex-ante, in Itinere, export) through a procedure for the evaluation of plans and programmes on the environment. The EIA had several objectives to highlight all the positive and negative effects of the Olympic Programme. Effects that could be generated on the physical, socio-economic and cultural environment of the territories.

Therefore, the objectives were:

1. Minimising or avoiding negative effects
2. Reinforcing and extending positive effects

These objectives were pursued by some activities that started in 2000 through territorial control for the ex-ante evaluation. Subsequently, in 2001, the Organising Committee (TOROC) commissioned the Polytechnic University of Turin to carry out the strategic environmental assessment strategy of the Olympic programme (Ex ante).

Subsequently, from 2002 to 2006, the Politecnico di Torino and the SITI group provided the environmental assessment in Itinere. Meanwhile, from 2006 until 2007 the EIA was provided for the evaluation of the effects of the post-Olympic programme on the territory of Turin. The EIA of the Turin 2006 Olympic programme is the first experiment at the national level of applying an EIA (environmental assessment) process to a works programme. Moreover, the interviewees state that the Turin 2006 Olympic programme is the first experiment at the national level of applying an EIA procedure to a large works programme. The sample shows a homologation of the trend in the recognition of EIA as an intangible element in the programming of the 2006 Turin Olympics. In addition, the interviewees reflect on the lack of a specific programme for Strategic Environmental Assessment in the post-Olympic period.

Cabina di Regia

The *Cabina di Regia* was a body constituted through the law n.48 of 2003. Moreover, the Piedmont Region through the BUR n.32 of 2003 established the *Cabina di Regia* officially with the task of governing and managing the programming process aimed at elaborating and approving the 2006 Piedmont regional programme and putting it into practice. This *Cabina di Regia* was created through a specific provision of the regional council, defining its composition and its specificity in detail about its operational functioning. This body was constituted through the competencies and responsibilities of the entities involved in the organisation of the Olympic event. This body was an innovation that had a steering and control function for the organisations and the coordination of activities related to the preparation and execution of the Torino Olympic Games. The interviewees agree on the importance of this body for the execution and coordination of the Olympic works. The sample shows that the interviewees agree on the role of communication and the dissemination of the Olympic Games. The *Cabina di Regia* committee was essentially responsible for supervising, linking and coordinating the general actions for the realisation of the Olympic event. The *Cabina di Regia* represented in particular the forum where problems and conflicts arising during the organisation of the Games were solved. The interviewees agree that the TOROC was in charge of organising the sports competitions and the opening and closing ceremonies of the Olympic Games about the Olympic protocol. In addition, the Organising Committee was responsible for the management of the Olympic Villages, the Media Villages, the main press centre and the International Broadcast Centre. As the interviewee's stated, the *Cabina di Regia* booth was able to rely on another entity where all the stakeholders of the event were represented for the definition of a shared vision for the satisfaction of the Olympic event. Some interviewees affirm that the *Cabina di Regia* can be defined as the entity that managed the criticisms and problems that arose between the two entities in charge of the realisation of the event and the Olympic works. Moreover, some interviewees, such as Bottero, about the *Cabina di Regia* booth, state that it has not yet been promoted over time in the post-Olympic period. The interviewees agree on the lack of post-Olympic programming and a single, long-term vision for the post-Olympic period. In the case of Turin, through this new entity, a collaborative model was provided that for the first time allowed for the

involvement of all stakeholders in the production process. In this way, an organisational model that was included in the territory through common projects and territorial integration was established. As Castellani states, participation and dialogue were two key elements for the tourist positioning of the city of Turin. Finally, Castellani recognises the *Cabina di Regia* cabin as a fundamental body for the reduction of criticalities between technical and institutional staff and the *Cabina di Regia* organisation. As the interviewees affirm, the *Cabina di Regia* booth can be defined as the entity that managed the criticalities and problems that arose between the two entities in charge of the realisation of the event and the works.

The Olympic Legacy

The interviewees recognise how the Olympic event has allowed the city of Turin and the territory of Piedmont to obtain new sports structures and new communication routes that have solved historical problems of viability. The exhibition points out how the Olympic event contributed in a fundamental way to the change of the image of the city of Turin in the post-Olympic period. Urban change, pedestrianisation, metropolization, tourism and citizen participation are considered to be the major elements that constitute the Olympic legacy of the Turin Olympics. In addition, the majority of interviewees stated that the lack of a post-Olympic management plan for the development of the Olympic legacy has compromised the management of the Olympic heritage in the long term. The interviewees, about Turin's post-Olympic operational management, agree on the absence of a specific organisation developed during the Olympic event. The qualitative and quantitative sample allows us to observe how the creation of a specific company for the management of the post-Olympic heritage is essential to respond to the different needs that may develop in the cities. Moreover, the creation of this management entity should be planned during the organisation and planning period of the Olympic event. By creating a structure during the Olympic event, the organising committee will be able to benefit from the creation of new dynamics and synergies between all the stakeholders of the Olympic project. Most of the interviewees affirmed that the creation of clear objectives and key resources are two elements that prove to be essential for the optimal management of the structures in the post-Olympic period. As will be noted in the section specific to the Olympic legacy, interviewees state that in 2006 a private structure was developed through public partners for the post-Olympic management of all structures. Furthermore, the foundation, as stated by some of the presidents interviewed, 2012 transferred its assets to a joint venture owned 90% by Live Nation. The company Parcoolimpico s.r.l. was founded to be able to carry out all maintenance interventions through a dynamic structure. According to the opinion of the interviewees who were involved in the *Fondazione 20 Marzo 2006*, the creation of this structure has made it possible to save money and maintenance costs for the city of Turin. Over time, the city of Turin, through its sporting heritage, has developed as a city of international sporting and cultural events that have continued the process of Olympic heritage started since the end of the Olympics. To date, Turin has been able to develop a new image that allows it to compete on an international level for major cultural and sporting events. Moreover, the metro and the airport have

contributed to the development of two long-needed means of transport, completing and contributing to the metropolitan transformation of the city. Meanwhile, in the territory, viability has favoured the development of the whole of Piedmont and the metropolitan area of the city of Turin. On the other hand, some of the interviewees affirm that the infrastructural interventions mentioned above can only be observed in the city of Turin and not in the whole Olympic territory. Naturally, the construction of the airport is a factor that has been able to benefit all mountain areas, promoting international tourism in the city of Turin. On the other hand, some interviewees affirm that the lack of foresight in the post-Olympic management structure should be considered critical for the planning of new uses and new methodologies for the exploitation of sports facilities. The Turin Olympic Games to date, as stated by all the interviewees, have left out of the post-Olympic legacy two sports facilities: bobsleigh and ski jumping trampolines.

As we will see below, the two Olympic facilities are still abandoned and shortly will be dismantled and destroyed. As stated by most of the interviewees, the abandonment was only the consequence of the lack of foresight of defined and specific uses in the post-Olympic phase. It will be interesting to observe the relationships that the interviewees have had and continue to have with the post-Olympic Foundation. Finally, it is essential to observe how, to this day, the infrastructural interventions and the Olympic Villages in the mountain communities turn out to constitute the tangible post-Olympic heritage for the Olympic areas. As stated by some of the interviewees, the thinking and strategic lines for post-Olympic management were not as developed as they are today. This lack of general guidelines and concrete objectives has certainly led to a loss of the intangible legacy of the Turin Olympics, diminishing the intangible possibilities linked to the Olympic event.

Reconstruction of the image of the city of Turin

The interviewees in the sample affirm that the city of Turin, through the Olympic Games, has been able to internationalise and enter a new market of international tourism events. It is interesting to note that most of the interviewees agree on the fundamental aspect of the change in the image of the city of Turin. The change in the image and perception of the city at the national and international level, according to the interviewees, has induced some socio-economic changes, fostering deeper social changes in the Turin's citizenship. The interviewees agree on the importance of the 2000 strategic plan for the foundation of new strategic lines and new objectives for the future of the post-industrial city of Turin. As we have observed above, the city of Turin used the Olympic event for the reconstruction and reconfiguration of the urban and socio-economic fabric for a new start in the post-industrial city. Thus, the Turin Olympic event was the main instrument for the construction of a new image of the city of Turin to the world. The provision of new cultural spaces, international exhibitions, film promotion and new activities added to the touristic agenda of the region, have contributed to and supported the change of the perception of the image of Turin to the world and the whole country. Moreover, as can be seen in the 2000 strategic plan, the city of Turin added the 2006 Olympic Games in a framework of global transformation for the future of the post-industrial city. The

promotion and dissemination of sporting activities in the city were supported through new strategic lines added to the general strategic plan. Turin, the former capital of the Kingdom of Savoy and the Kingdom of Italy, had been obscured by the image of an industrial city built at the end of the 19th century. Until the industrial crisis that took place at the end of the 1980s, the city of Turin had no other choice but to rebuild its image and put itself on the world map of events.

As stated by the interviewees in the sample, the Turin Olympics were an exceptional event in a framework of ordinary reconstruction. The reconstruction of the city's image was a fundamental element to promote the city of Turin to the world, which in the past has always lived with lux and shadows about the industry. Turin's Olympic experience made it possible to communicate a new image on a national and international level of a city that was no longer linked to the automobile and industry. Moreover, as stated by Guala, the image of Turin as an industrial city no longer exists.

Process innovation

About the innovation processes observed and established during the organisation of the Turin Olympics, most of the interviewees affirmed that the Olympic event was considered one of the most innovative. The management of environmental sustainability, the protocols and tools for the assessment of the strategic sustainability of works and processes, the implementation of free carbon practices and a new organisational structure have allowed the city of Turin to implement and act upon new innovative processes that have never been observed in a Winter Olympic event before. For example, Daneo states that "*We were so far ahead that even the IOC did not understand our actions*". Saini, director of the environment, agrees: "*When I was talking to the IOC manager, he often did not know what to answer about our vision, as the issue of environmental assessment was not as developed as it is today*". These two comments express how the city of Turin and the Organising Committee of the Olympic Games had planned a new scenario for the territory and the future of the mega-sporting events. Furthermore, as stated by most of the interviewees, the city of Turin was the first city to implement a sustainable sponsorship strategy through environmentally, socially and economically sustainable companies. This implementation of the processes is seen as an innovative element in the organisation and choice of stakeholders of the Olympic event. The implementation of sustainable practices for the economy, environment and society in the production and realisation of a mega-event is considered one of the major innovations brought by the Torino Olympic Games. These results reflect the added value of the practices adopted for the realisation of the event and its promotion.

Block 2

Profile of interviewees

1. What role did you play in the planning of the 2006 Winter Olympics in Turin?

- a. Consultant
- b. Planner
- c. Responsible
- d. Researcher
- e. President
- f. Coordinator
- g. Supervisor
- h. Other...

In general, the participants in the qualitative research have collaborated in different areas for the planning and management of the 2006 Turin Olympics. All the interviewees have collaborated directly or indirectly with the Torino Olympic Organising Committee (TOROC). Specifically, eight (8) of the fourteen (14) interviewees collaborated directly with TOROC, while the other six (6) interviewees collaborated indirectly with the Organising Committee. The interviewees who have collaborated directly with TOROC are Francesco Avato, who was mayor of the Olympic common of Bardonecchia from 2011 to 2006 and was on the board of TOROC. Maria Caire was responsible for the Olympic education programme and was in charge of relations with the territory under Roberto Daneo. Valentino Castellani was Mayor of Turin until 2001 when he was appointed President of the Organising Committee (TOROC). Roberto Daneo was director of the TOROC department in charge of relations with the authorities and the territory. Giuseppe Gattino was initially responsible for the editorial coordination of the Olympic bid dossier. After the Olympic nomination, he was responsible for press relations and online communication of the Olympic event. Valter Marin was Mayor of the Olympic Municipality of Pragelato from 1999 to 2009. After the Olympic nomination of Turin as a future Olympic city, Marin was involved in the *Agenzia Torino 2006* as director of the mountain communities. Furthermore, after the Olympic Games, Marin was involved in the board of directors of the *Fondazione 20 Marzo 2006* until 2013 when he was appointed president of the foundation. Roberto Saini was director of the environment from 2001 to 2006. Finally, Piero Gros, Olympic ski champion in 1976, was involved in TOROC only in 2003 as the person in charge of the Olympic volunteer programmes and the communication of Olympic values. In addition, after 2006 he was on the board of the *Fondazione 20 Marzo 2006* for two years. Meanwhile, the interviewees who have

indirectly collaborated with TOROC have had relations with the Organising Committee for the study of the Olympic phenomenon and research support in the different tasks involved in the organisation of an event of this size. In particular, three (3) interviewees are researchers from the research group of the University of Turin (OMERO). Piervincenzo Bondonio was a Professor of Economics at the University of Turin and a researcher of the OMERO group since 2003. Alessandro Guala was a Professor of Sociology at the University of Turin and coordinator of the OMERO research group since its foundation. The OMERO research group started working from 1999 to 2007 through various studies, publications, activities and international conferences. Furthermore, Guala participated in the steering committee of the collateral activities organised by Politecnico di Torino during the Olympic event. Alfredo Mela, sociologist at the Politecnico di Torino, was founder of the OMERO research group. Marta Bottero was a researcher of in-depth work with the SITI Research Institute on the territorial effects of the Olympic programme of Turin 2006. In addition, Bottero was in charge of the control of territorial activities during the different phases of the research and consideration of the Olympic heritage. Luca Davico is a sociologist at the Polytechnic University of Turin and a researcher at the Rota Research Institute. Lastly, the architect Mario Viano was an advisor for the urban heritage of the city of Turin and was extensively involved in the works planned for the city of Turin. He was in charge from the candidature phases until the Olympic event as the person responsible for the use of the Olympic sites and the Olympic works to be accepted by the city council. Through the intangible contributions of the interviewees, the sample of participants allows us to observe the study phenomenon through different experiences and different personal observations. The table in the annexes shows the different profiles of the participants who took part in the sample.

2. Have you collaborated directly with TOROC? If yes, for how long did you collaborate? Did you continue to collaborate with the *Fondazione 20 marzo 2006* (now TOP) after the event?

Participants state that they have collaborated directly and indirectly with the Organising Committee. The interviewees who collaborated directly with TOROC stated that they were involved in the organisation of the Olympic Games from 2001 to 2006. Meanwhile, Mario Viano, Vittorio Castellani, and Giuseppe Gattino were involved in the elaboration of the Olympic dossier, a process preceding the Olympic nomination. Mario Viano was a councillor of the city of Turin, Vittorio Castellani was mayor of the city and Gattino was the editorial coordinator of the communication and promotion of the city of Turin as the host city of the 2006 Olympic Games in Turin. Regarding the aspect of the relationship between the interviewees and TOROC, the subjects who have had a direct relationship with the Organising Committee were involved as employees in the Olympic structures. Meanwhile, the subjects that have had indirect relations with TOROC have supported studies and research for the realisation and planning of the Olympic Games. Among the interviewees who collaborated indirectly with the Organising Committee, Luca Davico as representative of the Rota research centre, Piervincenzo Bondonio, Alfredo

Mela and Alessandro Guala as representatives of the OMERO research groups of the University of Turin and Marta Bottero as head of the research project on behalf of the SITI Research Institute stand out. Meanwhile, regarding the collaboration with the *Fondazione 20 Marzo 2006*, the interviewees were not so optimistic about the succession of the two management structures. The main motivations are linked to the choice of the participating subjects and the post-Olympic activities provided by the Foundation. Among all interviewees, only Francesco Avato, Mayor of Bardonecchia, Valter Marin, Mayor of Pragelato and Piero Gros, Olympic champion, were directly involved in the *Fondazione 20 Marzo 2006* in the post-Olympic period. Furthermore, Piero Gros was only involved for a few years on the board of directors of the foundation. Meanwhile, Maria Caire did a project as a consultant between 2008 and 2009 about the promotion of winter sports in schools. The other interviewed subjects of the sample did not have any temporary relations with the post-Olympic Foundation. Finally, about the Foundation 20 March 2006, the entity responsible for the post-Olympic heritage, the comment of Professor Maria Caire, responsible for the Olympic education project, stands out.

"Was the foundation clear about its objectives? Are there clear objectives in the management of the post-Olympic legacy? If the objectives were not clear, the project was doomed. If the answer is yes, the objectives were clear and then neither the resources nor the structure was set up in a way that was consistent with the objectives being pursued".

Maria Caire (Olympic Education Project Manager)

The most critical positions of the interviewees in the sample are related to the post-Olympic legacy that could have become a great potential for the city of Turin and the territory of Piemonte. According to most of the interviewees, the post-Olympic project was not fully exploited. Mainly because the management logic of a post-Olympic activity is completely different from Olympic management. The interviewees confirm that post-Olympic management should be provided for during the planning of the event and need a specific plan through the redeployment of human resources that have been used during the Olympic event. The intangible possibility to train and involve new profiles in the territory proves to be fundamental to being able to manage the Olympic structures in the post-Olympic period. Post-Olympic planning should be based on professionalism, objectives, tools and human resources. On the other hand, some of the interviewees emphasised the lack of transparency in the post-Olympic heritage management project. Little transparency in the areas of planning and coordination of the post-Olympic project. As stated by most of the interviewees, the project of the post-Olympic foundation was not initially promoted until 16 June 2006, when, using regional law n.21, the Foundation 20 March 2006 was established, an entity set up under the patronage of the founding partners themselves: Regione Piemonte, Provincia di Torino, Comune di Torino and the National Olympic Committee (CONI), to manage and control the movable and immovable heritage of the 2006 Turin Olympics. The purpose of this entity can be seen in its statute where its main objective is to favour the economic development of Piemonte in the post-Olympic period with particular attention to tourist, sporting, cultural and social activities. However, the

interviewees are aware that the logic of this foundation was different from the logic instituted by the organising committee for the planning and management of the Olympic Games. Moreover, the interviewees state that it was only in 2000 that the International Olympic Committee started to take an interest in the post-Olympic phases related to the heritage of the Olympic Games.

3. Did you personally contribute to the academic debates on the Turin 2006 Winter Games? If yes, in which area?

In general, participants report that they were involved in different activities that contributed to the debate on the 2006 Turin Olympics. Over time, interviewees agree that different activities have been provided in different thematic areas. For example, Piervincezo Bondonio stated that over time research and communication activities were one of the most important activities for the OMERO group. Bondonio, Mela and Guala, researchers of the OMERO group, state that from 1999 to 2007 many international conferences were produced to contribute to the scientific debate on the topic of mega-events. In addition, Guala together with Scamuzzi was commissioned by the City of Turin to carry out a multidisciplinary study on the public opinion on the Olympic Games. From 2001 to 2007 this research was supported by interviews with more than 5000 citizens. In addition, Guala was commissioned by TOROC to study the relationship between the city of Turin and the Alps. This study was provided by Bontempi who at that time wanted to investigate the image of Turin and the relationship between the city and the mountains. At the end of 2007, the OMERO group organised and participated in more than 100 international conferences. The OMERO group was recognised as an Olympic study centre by the International Olympic Committee. In the meantime, Mela contributed significantly to territorial studies and related topics in sociology and territorial studies.

"Great follow-up work by OMERO. It managed to create an international network with the other Olympic cities".

Valentino Castellani (President TOROC)

The interviewees of the OMERO group are optimistic about the change in the image of the city of Turin and the tourist perception of the city in the years following the Olympic event. The interviewees of the OMERO group agree on the importance of the Turin Olympics for the transformation of the symbolic image of the territory to the world. According to the OMERO group, the Turin Olympics were a unique experience in communicating a new image of the city about its global perception as an industrial city.

"As Scamuzzi's research shows, at the national and international level, the image of Turin used to be linked to the automobile, but this image no longer exists. The population perceives Turin as a city of culture and leisure. And the image of Fiat and the Agnelli family has disappeared".

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

The interviewees from the OMERO research group were in direct contact with Daneo for the development of studies and territorial analysis related to the Olympic event. The interviewees agree on the importance of Daneo's role in the monitoring of the Olympic process and the exchange of information between the organising committee and the university. Meanwhile, Davico, a researcher at the Rota Institute, participated in and contributed to the development of all the Rota Institute's annual reports on the city of Turin. In addition, it is noted that the Rota Institute did specific research on the planning and development of the Olympic event over time. The Rota Institute's contributions prove to be fundamental to the debate and knowledge of the Turin 2006 Olympic event. Davico says that, through social, economic and territorial studies, the Rota Institute has been able to provide multidisciplinary studies in collaboration with the IRES Institute, the SITI group and with the OMERO group. In addition, last year, the Rota Institute was commissioned to make a presentation on the balance of the 2006 Turin Games to provide a new bid for the city of Turin for the 2026 Games.

Meanwhile, the SITI group, through Bottero, has been able to study and monitor the impact of the Olympic Games on the available heritage about their territorial impact. The SITI group's work was fundamental for the environmental assessment and the evaluation of the Olympic investments. The strategic evaluation of the impact of the Games was also concerned with studying the structures and infrastructures provided by the Olympic event. This study was published in 3 volumes about the different phases of the Olympic project (Exante; itinere; ex-post). Studies were published in 2001, 2004 and 2007. Saini, responsible for the environment, was in charge of issues concerning the planning and management of the territory in terms of environmental impacts. Today Professor Saini continues his activities in spatial planning and management at the University of Turin. The interviewees confirm that the atmosphere of multidisciplinary discussion and observation that was created for the 2006 Turin Olympics was something special that will never be repeated. All researchers were able to collaborate as a single team on different topics.

"A difficult moment to repeat".

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

Meanwhile, the interviewees who represented the institutions at the time, such as Avato, Marin, Castellani and Viano, collaborated and participated in various communication and dissemination activities for the Olympic project. For example, during the preliminary phase, Viano did not participate much in the discussion tables because the project was not confirmed by the Olympic nomination. However, after the Olympic nomination, as a councillor of the city of Turin, he was in charge of all the reports on the works and the variations in the masterplan of the city of Turin. His participation and his contribution were fundamental to be able to develop an Olympic Games without any expropriation of land by the city council.

"Urban management is more important than the development of master plans.

Mario Viano (Councillor for Urban Planning Assets of the City of Turin)

Given that Turin at that time was coming out of an era of deindustrialisation, the creation of sports facilities and the relationship with the territory was the fundamental point for the location and execution of the Olympic works. Viano and Castellani confirm the importance of the Turin Olympics for the realisation of important works in the city. Avato and Marin, as representatives of two municipalities of the mountain communities, took part in activities related to the territory of the mountain communities in order to spread the knowledge of the Olympic project. In addition, the debates were sometimes focused on the discussion of the Olympic works and their links with the civic fabric. The contributions of the institutional participants proved to be fundamental in order to reduce the chances of failure. These contributions in different thematic areas have allowed the Olympic project to develop through the intangible contributions of different stakeholders. In conclusion, the interviewees affirm that the Olympic period was a unique moment of discussion and observation through collaborations and interactions between different subjects.

"Turin has also doubled its visitors and tourists in 10 years. Turin is as similar to Barcelona as it was in '92. Only a few cities have achieved this."

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

4. Do you currently live in Turin? If yes, in which district?

Continuing with the first block of the sample, related to the profile of the interviewees, it can be stated that half of the interviewees live in the city of Turin and the other half in other cities or in other territories of Piemonte. Viano and Mela live in the metropolitan city of Turin, Daneo in the city of Asti, Marin in the municipality of Sestriere, Avato in the municipality of Bardonecchia, Guala in the city of Genoa, Caire in the city of Imperia, Gros in the municipality of Saux d'Oulx. It is specified that all the interviewees in the sample have always had relations with the city of Turin, being travellers or temporary residents in the city.

5. Which Olympic areas provided for Turin 2006 do you know in detail?

The different experiences and knowledge of the participants in relation to the different areas of the Olympic project allow us to affirm that the sample is heterogeneous and therefore allows us to observe the Turin 2006 Olympic phenomenon in all its magnitude. The Turin Olympic project was a territorial project where three Olympic Villages were developed for the first time. The observation of the different territorial phenomena requires contributions from different interviewees who can provide different intangible information for the analysis of the Olympic event. In general, the participants of the qualitative research sample are familiar with the Olympic territory and its evolution over time. Regarding the level of analysis and territorial research, the researchers of the research groups are familiar with all the Olympic areas and in some cases, such as Guala, they have

focused on the Lingotto area and the Olympic facilities. Furthermore, it is stated that the interviewees have expressed their knowledge of the Olympic facilities in the city of Turin. Viano states that he has an in-depth knowledge of all the works carried out in the city of Turin and all the urban areas. On the other hand, the interviewees Caire, Daneo and Mela, state that they know the project in its entirety, but if they had to choose a specific area it would be difficult.

Meanwhile, Avato, Marin and Gros, being residents of the Olympic municipalities of the mountain communities, have an in-depth knowledge of the specific works for the development of the facilities related to mountain sports. Finally, Marin, being the president of the mountain communities, has been able to develop his knowledge for the whole *Via Lattea* complex over time.

"The whole area of the Milky Way. The heart of the Turin 2006 Winter Olympics".

Valter Marin (Mayor of Pragelato - Managing Director of Agenzia Torino)

Block 3

Turin 2006

6. What are the most evident changes in the city and in the territory induced by the Olympic Games?

In general, the participants of the qualitative research affirm that the most evident and permanent changes were undoubtedly the physical changes for the city and for the territory. Moreover, it is interesting to note how the interviewees are optimistic about the change in the image and the socio-economic fabric of the city of Turin after the Olympic event. However, there are also interviewees who question some works and some activities in the mountain areas that did not safeguard the environment as a whole. A part of the interviewees affirmed that in mountain areas any kind of interventions will inevitably develop a negative impact on the environment. The next consideration advanced by the interviewees focuses mainly on two Olympic facilities that are nowadays abandoned and without a project of re-evaluation or re-use of the Olympic structures. The bobsleigh track and the ski jumping track can be considered as the *white elephants* of the 2006 Turin Games. In such a large area of the Piemonte ski resort, seeing these facilities so large and unused over time has raised many doubts about their use, advancing some problems in the mountain areas. The lack of sensitivity in relation to the two abandoned works is an element that affected and still affects the citizens of all mountain areas. According to most of those interviewed, the physical change of the Olympic territory and of the city of Turin has led to a change in the dimension of the city and its spaces. The construction and layout of new roads and infrastructures over time has permanently changed the communication system of the whole region. The physical changes in the city of Turin are quite evident,

while in the mountain areas the physical changes have permanently affected the environment.

Meanwhile, in relation to the city of Turin, different physical changes of different sizes took place. Many works in the city were operations of reuse and re-evaluation of abandoned or disused space. These works have allowed the city of Turin to reorganise the urban fabric of the city by providing new sports facilities, guaranteeing the city to host international sporting events to this day. Moreover, the infrastructural and feasibility works have supported this change for the whole Olympic territory. In the Turin Olympic project, almost half of the Olympic budget was linked to infrastructure and road works. Through the contributions of the interviewees and the intervention plans, a marked transformation of the city through the Olympic event is evident. The city of Turin in 2006 underwent a complete transformation catalysed by the Olympic event. The transformation functioned as a territorial catalyst for the follow-up of other works for the future of the post-industrial city of Turin. The physical changes produced and observed over time in the city of Turin have brought about changes in the perception of the city to its citizens. However, developing into changes of the physical image of the city. The interviewees affirm that the metro and the airport can be considered as one of the major changes that took place in the city of Turin for its new post-industrial future and its tourist opening to the world. Moreover, the provision of large infrastructural works has supported over time the change of the city of Turin and its regional territory. On the other hand, the Olympic Village of Turin can be considered as the centrepiece of the transformation of an entire area through a structural and infrastructural re-evaluation.

"In my opinion, Turin is no longer a one-company city, and there has been a cultural and value change in the population, which recognises a city of culture and tourism.

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

As stated by some interviewees, the city of Turin before the Olympics was in a phase of strong delocalisation, reducing productive activities in the city and leaving many urban voids that were of great concern for the future growth of the city. In addition, urban voids over time had become catalysts for illegal activities and accidents. In this frame of reference, the city of Turin before the Olympic Games started to focus on the reuse and re-evaluation of urban voids left by industries. The city through the 2000 Strategic Plan proposed by the Torino International entity has been able to benefit from a plan that will constitute the solid basis for the implementation and alignment of the strategies of the Olympic project for the renaissance of the city of Turin.

As confirmed by some of the interviewees in the sample, the Olympic event was only an intangible opportunity to launch a new image of the city to the world and, at the same time, to make resources available for one-off investments. The Turin Olympics was a unique opportunity for the implementation of all the interventions on the urban fabric that have redefined the image of a new post-industrial city. From a physical point of view,

important operations were undoubtedly carried out, especially in relation to the reconversion of areas that had lost their typical function, such as the general markets (they were no longer compatible with the city).

"The conversion of industrial zones is anything but easy".

Mario Viano (Councillor for Urban Planning Assets of the City of Turin)

Urban voids are a social and marginality problem. They become catalysts for all marginalities. From this introduction, the positions of the interviewees about physical, governmental and intervention philosophy changes are presented.

- Physical Changes

Interviewees agree that the vast majority of the costs were spent on general infrastructure (mobility, ecological works, basins, sewers). In other cases, the Games were an opportunity to complete pending works. Such as the metro. The line was opened for the inauguration of the Olympic Games. Another specific infrastructure project was the completion of the Turin-Pinerolo motorway. On the other hand, the other works in the city were linked to the masterplan and the overall transformation of the city of Turin. One of the aspects most advanced by the interviewees, in relation to the realisation of the Turin Games, was the location of the event in a context of global decision-making. This global approach allowed Turin to change its physiognomy a few years later, becoming a post-industrial city. The post-industrial conversion of Turin can be seen as a transformation of the entire Piemontese territory that has allowed it to become an important heritage for the institution of the metropolitan city in 2014. The new connections, the re-establishment of the railway lines, the infrastructural works on the Piemontese territory and the connections between the Olympic valleys were a series of interventions that improved the accessibility between the municipalities and the valleys. As far as sports facilities are concerned, the common opinion of the interviewees is that Turin in the city made interventions of re-evaluation and reconstruction of strategic areas for the new development of the city. Moreover, the sports facilities were conceived in a spatial dimension to be able to host international events after the Olympic event, taking advantage of a tangible heritage related to structural works. The interviewees agree on the great opportunity that the Olympic Games represented for the whole territory. Moreover, according to the majority of the interviewees, the Olympic works in the city of Turin were managed in an optimal way: between the sports facilities and the infrastructural works, the city of Turin also improved the viability of the city. The pedestrianisation of the historic centre and the provision of covered car parks, according to the interviewees, helped the city of Turin to provide a new image to the world. In addition, as stated by some interviewees, the reconversion and reuse of Olympic buildings as reflex student campuses helped the Universities of Turin to become more attractive to students. Interventions at the physical level in the city of Turin and in the Olympic space were important. The city of Turin in some respects can be compared to the city of Barcelona in terms of size and the extent of the physical transformations carried out by the Olympic project. The interviewees admit that at that

time the issue of Olympic heritage and Olympic heritage was not as developed as it is today and therefore some interventions were not thought through in an optimal and efficient way. For example, the Olympic Village in Turin, the bobsleigh track and the trampolines. Olympic Village built on the area of the former general markets, converted for the Olympics into a new residential area in the southern area of Turin. Most interviewees state that the Olympic Village represented the centre of the transformation of the southern area of the city. It is indisputable that the Turin Olympics should be considered as an urban Winter Olympics. The following context can be seen as a negative aspect of the dualism between the city and the mountains. In the years following the Olympic event, the mountain municipalities accused Turin of having manipulated them solely for the organisation of the Olympic event. The intermediate and final deadlines of the Olympic project allowed the city of Turin to change its organisation, adapting the project to the new requirements of the event. In the planning documents of the city of Turin, it can be seen how the realisation of the Olympic Games accelerated the completion of the works.

"Connections in the valleys are hardly taken into account. The Variante di Porte has made accessibility to the Val Chisone mountains and the municipalities between them much easier.

Roberto Daneo (Director of Institutional Relations with the Territory)

On the other hand, in the intermediate area of the Olympic area, from the more circumscribed metropolitan area of Turin to the mountainous area, there were intangible benefits in relation to the territorial transformations of the communication routes. For example, in relation to the Turin-Pinerolo ring road, the interviewees agreed that this infrastructure project had been blocked for 40 years. The Olympic project has allowed Pinerolo to become a municipality closer to Turin.

As affirmed by the interviewees, the transformations of the motorways and roads, are the kind of transformations that the Piemontese territory basically needed. The Olympic Games were only the opportunity and the fuel needed to carry out these infrastructural transformations. In addition, Marin states that another major transformation project in the intermediate area took place through the water purification systems. Through major funding, a construction project was undertaken that could contain a single, large sewage treatment plant for the entire Olympic Valley. As stated by Marin and Saini, before the Olympic Games, the wastewater treatment systems were divided into eight (8) areas, whereas in a couple of years the only wastewater treatment plant in the whole Olympic Valley will be the one in Pinerolo.

"In a not very big area of the ski resort, seeing a bobsleigh track, a concrete snake, or seeing 5 trampolines, 2 of them big and 3 training trampolines, was certainly not optimal".

Francesco Avato (Mayor of Bardonecchia - Member of the Steering Committee)

Finally, with regard to the mountain areas, the interviewees stated that several interventions were carried out on car parks, water treatment plants, sewage systems, aqueducts, lighting and urban leasing. As stated by the interviewees, the interventions in the mountain area were provided for the exploitation of tourism and the improvement of the quality of the urban fabric of the Olympic municipalities. For example, in Val di Susa and Val Chisone, the physical transformation induced by the Olympic Games is mainly associated with the renovation and modernisation of sports facilities for the exploitation of winter sports. Gros says that the controlled snow systems have enabled all mountain areas to benefit from a tool that today proves to be fundamental for the exploitation of winter tourism over time. Moreover, Marin affirms that the infrastructural interventions for the exploitation of winter tourism, until today, have guaranteed in all the ski areas of the *Via Lattea* an added value for the achievement of a world-class level of infrastructures and accommodation. The common opinion of the interviewees from the mountain area is based on the importance of the Olympic Games for the improvement of mountain areas in need of structural and infrastructural investments. Piemonte, thanks to the Olympic event and the Olympic funding, has obtained the possibility to improve mountain areas through a considerable expenditure that has allowed to start tourist transformations of the whole Olympic area. According to Marin, Sestriere is the locality that benefited the most from the Olympic investments. An interesting fact is related to the change in the international tourist flow. Before the Olympics, the *Via Lattea* had an 80% Italian clientele and a 20% foreign clientele. After the Olympics, Sestriere became a place with a 70% foreign custom and a 30% Italian clientele. This figure is quite significant in order to understand the magnitude of the transformation and internationalisation of tourism in all the Olympic Mountain areas. The interventions and renovations of the winter facilities can be considered as a tangible legacy which to this day has left a territorial inheritance in terms of the provision of excellent infrastructures. Moreover, other fundamental aspects of the Olympic project in the mountain communities are due to the predisposition of two Olympic Villages in two mountain localities: Sestriere and Bardonecchia. As stated by Marin and Avato, the Olympic Villages of Sestriere and Bardonecchia have made it possible to increase the capacity and quality of hotel accommodation. The Olympic Village of Bardonecchia was a true reconversion and re-evaluation of a derelict complex that today can accommodate up to 1000 people. Its accommodation capacity increased Bardonecchia's accommodation capacity by 25%. Meanwhile, the Olympic Village in Sestriere was a project to expand and redevelop a family hotel that was handed over to private owners in the post-Olympic period. According to the majority of interviewees, the accommodation capacity of mountain areas today proves to be a fundamental element for hosting international ski events. Meanwhile, the most critical stance expressed by the interviewees was in relation to the abandoned mountain sites. Bobsleigh and trampolines. The common reflection of the interviewees is based on the lack of foresight and planning in relation to the reuse of the post-Olympic facilities. Saini, director of the environment, affirms that the trampolines in terms of integration with the environment can be considered quite positive. The initial project for the trampolines envisaged moving 170,000 cubic metres of earth, but in the end only 10,000 cubic metres of earth were moved. So, in terms of environmental impact, some

interventions were made in the project that modified the initial project. The final project of the trampolines used the morphology of the territory for the construction of the 5 trampolines except for the highest one which needed a support structure. According to Saini, this operation can be considered positive from a landscape and environmental design point of view. The problem lies in the reuse of these facilities. The initial idea was to build the two Olympic trampolines of 140 and 90 metres, adding three trampolines of 15, 30 and 60 metres for the development of a school and a federal centre managed by the Italian Olympic Committee (CONI) and the Winter Sports Federation (FISI). The design of the federal school was a project together with the National Olympic Committee that in the post-Olympic period did not materialise and led to the abandonment of the sports facilities. Some interviewees agree on the responsibility of the National Olympic Committee for not having fulfilled the promises made in the period of the development of the Olympic Games. Today these two sports facilities remain abandoned and continue to be a problem for the environment and the community.

"While it is true that in terms of design, they tried to respect the environment as much as possible, now you have something that clashes with the environment. But it's a post-Olympic problem."

Roberto Saini (Environment Director - TOROC)

Meanwhile, in relation to the second abandoned facility, the bobsleigh track, the framework of discussion and analysis is a little more complex. The bobsleigh track was built at Pragelato because the initial forecast, near Bardonecchia (Volar), after geognostic testing, determined that the terrain was classified as a landslide. After this determination, the runway was temporarily relocated and a first hypothesis of placement near Sauze d'Oulx was provided. This second relocation fell after a presence of asbestos was found in the soil. Saini states that the entire territory of the Susa valleys is called green stones, having a typical geological conformation and responding to these characteristics. Therefore, there was a third identification that was made in early 2002 when the construction schedule was very advanced and there was a risk of not having the bobsleigh track on time. At this time, as stated by Castellani, the organising committee provided the option of using the existing Albertville track used for the 1992 Winter Olympics. As stated by some of the interviewees, this option was discarded by the National Olympic Committee and the Central Government. The Central Government expressed the importance of having a bobsleigh track in Italy, as at that time there was no bobsleigh track and therefore the bobsleigh track was of fundamental importance for Italian pride. So, the organising committee provided a third site identification and the project started to develop in the town of Cesana. Then, in Cesana a terrain was chosen that was not facing north, but south-east. This orientation changed the order of the competitions as the track had a lighting problem. In fact, the competitions were held at night. Another criticism of the project by the interviewees is related to the impact of the facilities in relation to the landscape. Some of the interviewees stated that the Cesana area was unsuitable for the development of a facility with such an impact on the territory. In addition, other technical

problems with the structure were related to the coils that are fed with ammonia. As Saini states, the bobsleigh track was supported from 49 tonnes of ammonia tanks under the national limit of 50 tonnes. Looking at the sample of interviewees, it is stated that these two works, bobsleigh and trampolines, were the most criticised and the most complex in the post-Olympic management. Therefore, according to the interviewees, the responsibility for the neglect of sports facilities lies with the sports bodies, starting with the IOC and ending with the IOC.

"In practice, there was no formal commitment to continuous and structural use with dedicated resources for facilities, so they remain a problem.

Giuseppe Gattino (Head of Press Department - TOROC)

In addition, these two facilities are considered, from an environmental point of view, to be the Olympic works that have created and continue to create the most criticism of all other Olympic works. The interviewees agree on the importance of organising international events that can cover over time the sport exploitation of all areas, decreasing the chances of transforming an available asset into an obsolete asset. Today, the bobsleigh track and the trampolines continue their dramatic fate of neglect and disinterest on the part of the National Olympic Committee. Moreover, these two sports facilities are the ones that have created the most criticism from an environmental point of view.

"They expropriated 5,000 metres of land from my grandparents, my great-grandparents. We were farmers. What hurts me is to see the land abandoned.

Piero Gros (Mayor of the Olympic Volunteers)

- Governance changes

Meanwhile, the interviewees in the sample, in relation to the changes induced by the Olympic governance, agree on the importance of the management structures for the Olympic event. Several interviewees felt that the management structure of the Games was something that would be difficult to replicate in the future. Having and pursuing a common philosophy of intervention in the organisation of Mega-events is very complex. Considering the different political currents between the city and the region, the Olympic event in Turin made it possible to establish a common objective that went beyond political ideals. The well-being and development of Piedmont. As stated by the interviewees, this common objective allowed a fluidity in communications and territorial interventions. The governance structure was managed on the one hand by the Organising Committee (TOROC), the body entrusted by the IOC with the exploitation of the Olympic event, and on the other hand by the Turin 2006 Agency, the institutional body in charge of the Olympic works and the compensation works. Moreover, the governance of Turin 2006 was completed through the institution of another body, the "*Cabina di Regia*", which included all the stakeholders of the Olympic event. This body, through service conferences and dialogue tables, allowed the constitution of an almost perfect organisational structure. The

interviewees agree on the importance of this entity during the organisation of the Games and affirm that in the post-Olympic period the governance observed in the preceding period was lacking. Bondonio argues that this governance model observed during the Olympics was something special that worked because there were two key elements. The temporality of the interventions and the existence of practices that respected international standards for the pre-disposition of the works. On the other hand, Avato and Marin, who were on the board of the 20 March 2006 Foundation since its initial foundation, state that governance through the Foundation had some positive aspects that were never considered in the post-Olympic evaluation. After the Olympic Games, the Foundation took over the organisation and management of all Olympic facilities on the territory. The foundation, created by its founding partners (City Council, Region, Province and CONI) had the objective of becoming an institution that could function as a link between all the institutions. As stated by some of the interviewees, today the foundation turns out to be financially positive. In addition, the foundation, through the constitution of a private company and an international agreement, found a private subject who became responsible for all the management and maintenance charges of these structures. Several of the interviewees consider that the foundation as a management model was a promoter of a new management system for the Olympic Games that was reproduced in other Games. Meanwhile, in relation to the sustainable processes of the Turin Olympic event, one of the most successful aspects of Olympic governance was the performance of the strategic environmental assessment (SEA). SEA was used for the first time during the Turin Olympics. In this sense, the Turin Olympic Games were revolutionary in the governance of the sustainability of the processes and the sustainability of the interventions. The interviewees agree on the importance of the VAS, which guaranteed an exceptional result in relation to the new models of sustainable governance for the territory. Daneo states that sometimes the International Olympic Committee did not understand the sustainability and governance processes advanced by the Organising Committee either. Still, the strategic environmental assessment process was not part of the Olympic legacy and was not successful in the post-Olympic period. According to some interviewees, the underlying issue relates to the value of the human resources used in the organisation of the Olympic Games. In the post-Olympic period, through some international events and the Winter Universiade in 2007, governance was one of the intangible resources for the Piedmontese territory. The Olympic event, being supported by part of the volunteers and human resources developed during the Olympic Games, needs the creation of a collaborative structure that can pursue its objectives in the post-Olympic period. In this case, as Caire states, changes in territorial governance were perceived. Not so much during the Games but as a direct legacy of the Olympics. Caire, who is in charge of responsibility roles in different international sporting events, affirms that until 2010 the territory enjoyed a legacy of Olympic governance. In her opinion, the organisation of the 2007 Winter Universiade was a unique moment that allowed the Olympic momentum of the previous years to be revived. In addition, organising an international winter event immediately, on the one hand, made it possible to use all the facilities, structures and infrastructures developed for the Olympic Games. On the other hand, it was also a relocation of Olympic human

resources. In conclusion, the organisation of the Universiade 2007 turned out to be one of the best editions using Olympic standards. In their opinion, the organisation of this event was an important event for Turin and for the whole metropolitan area.

"Having had such important functions, I had the perception of governance as a legacy in the following years. Because a territorial government had been created.

Maria Caire (Olympic Education Project Manager)

- Changes in the intervention philosophy

From the interviewees' answers regarding the changes in the intervention philosophy, three key elements can be highlighted: the Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA), the re-evaluation of empty urban spaces, a shared strategy to develop a new image of the city on an international level. The Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) was an environmental development tool that was used during the pre-disposition of the Olympic works on the territory of Turin. The application of this environmental assessment process made it possible to observe all the positive and negative effects that the Olympic Programme could have on the territory. The Olympic territory was defined through its physical, socio-economic and cultural information, taking into account all the territories involved in the Olympic Programme. The strategic environmental assessment was provided through various reports (ex ante, in itinere, ex post) and procedures for the evaluation of plans and programmes on the environment. The interviewees agree on the importance of this assessment process that allowed Italy to advance future practices for the countries of the European Community. Moreover, the interviewees affirmed that the Turin 2006 Olympic programme was the first national experiment in the application of a VAS procedure on a large programme of works. On the other hand, several interviewees point out how the recovery of urban voids and the reconversion of areas was another process that changed the urban intervention philosophy of the city of Turin. The heritage of the industrial fabric of the city of Turin had become very problematic and dangerous for the safety of citizens. These abandoned areas very quickly became catalysts for the occupation of places and the manifestation of phenomena of social divergence. The City of Turin through the reconversion and re-evaluation of the industrial areas was able to enjoy new processes of re-use of the areas that have strengthened the relationships of all territorial stakeholders. The city of Turin was very concerned that the Olympic Games could definitely change the urban fabric of the city. Moreover, some interviewees claim that Turin was one of the few cities where no land expropriation took place.

"The philosophy of the intervention was to accelerate the plans that had already been drawn up before the Games. In the planning documents of the city of Turin you can see how the realisation of the Olympics only accelerated the completion of the works".

Alfredo Mela (Researcher of the OMERO Group)

Finally, some interviewees focus their reflection on the change of the image of the city of Turin at national and international level. This change in people's perception was induced by the many programmes and activities that were developed for the promotion of the city of Turin and the Olympic areas. Some interviewees state that the project of internationalisation of the city was a long process that allowed the city of Turin to enter the international travel circuits. This achievement was obtained thanks to a collaborative structure that was able to boost new cultural, cinematographic and sporting activities in the socio-economic fabric of the city. Mela says that through the tourism department of the Piemonte region, he researched the visibility of the city of Turin, the typologies of tourism and the study of tourist segmentation (tourist profile) for the near future. These new intervention philosophies, promoted through the Olympic event, have allowed the city of Turin to position itself internationally as a historical, cultural and sporting city.

"In 2004 and 2005, 23 new tourist guides were published in 10 foreign languages dedicated exclusively to Turin. Whereas before, Turin had no ad hoc tourist guides. But it was included in the tourist guides of Northern Italy".

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

7. How would you define

a) Sustainability at the Turin 2006 Olympic Games?

The interviewees agree on the importance of considering sustainability as a holistic concept. From this consideration, three different types of sustainability can be defined: environmental sustainability, social sustainability and economic sustainability. Furthermore, some interviewees state that at that time the design and planning of structures could not benefit from the new contributions on the concept of sustainability. Others argue that the definition of sustainability continues to evolve over time and that the Turin Olympics were an opportunity to reflect on the environmental, social and economic sustainability of the Olympic project.

"Nothing that is human is sustainable over time".

Piervincenzo Bondonio (Researcher of the OMERO group)

The interviewees agree on the importance of environmental sustainability in the planning and construction of the Olympic works. Some say that sustainability can be seen as the leading element in the organisation of the Turin Olympics. The Turin Olympic event triggered and activated a series of programmes on the control of CO₂ emissions at territorial level to obtain an improvement in air quality. The reduction of travel between Olympic venues and the implementation of specific CO₂ reduction programmes allowed Turin to be recognised as the first "Carbon Free" Olympic Games. In addition, the City of

Turin, through a green supplier procurement programme, fostered new dynamics that for the first time were observed at a global event. The sustainable supplier procurement protocol reflected the project philosophy of the Olympic event in its entirety. On the other hand, some interviewees claim that this kind of attention to sustainability processes manifested itself only during the Olympic event. Meanwhile, in relation to economic sustainability, all interviewees state that the management and planning of the Olympic Games and its works did not have any economic problems. They all affirm that the economic management can be considered as an example for future events in Italy. Finally, with regard to social sustainability, most of the interviewees state that the Turin Olympic Games can be considered as a model of social sustainability. The choice of the Olympic venues, the cultural events, the citizen participation, the revolution of spaces and the reuse of abandoned areas were all activities that have strengthened the identity of the Turin's citizens. While nowadays sustainability may be a mature concept, at that time it was not so easy to manage and observe sustainable measures on a holistic level.

"Those were the years when people were beginning to think in terms of sustainability".

Marta Bottero (Researcher at the SITI Institute)

7.1 How would you define

b) The legacy of Olympic sustainability in the Olympic territory of Turin 2006?

The structural interventions made through the Strategic Environmental Assessment (VAS), according to the interviewees, turn out to be the most important heritage in terms of Olympic sustainability. From the point of view of the material heritage, the interviewees affirm that the predisposition and re-evaluation of the sporting venues has allowed the city of Turin to have world-class sporting structures. These structures continue to be a fundamental part of the organisation of international events in the city of Turin. Moreover, their capacity to be an element of attraction has allowed the area south of Turin, the Lingotto, to be completely transformed into a district with a vocation for events. Moreover, as many researchers have affirmed, the transfer of the management of the facilities into the hands of an international events partner has guaranteed the city of Turin to become a musical pole recognised all over the world. At the same time, the re-evaluation of the spaces and a new pedestrianisation of the city has brought a sustainable development to the city of Turin until today. Thus, the legacy of Olympic sustainability can be defined as a positive legacy for the city of Turin. At the same time, the infrastructural works provided for the Olympic Games have improved the entire traffic flow and mobility of the valleys. Through these works it has been possible to develop a model of territorial sustainability that has made it possible to reduce the burden of mobility on the mountain villages. Some interviewees affirm that many of the works have allowed the development of a more sustainable territory.

"In the pre-Olympic period I worked in Pinerolo and it was an agony to drive there".

Maria Caire (Olympic Education Project Manager)

The interviewees agree on the identification of three elements that represent the legacy of Olympic sustainability in the Olympic territory: sports facilities, road infrastructures and the re-evaluation of spaces.

"The legacy of sustainability is an interesting concept".

Maria Caire (Olympic Education Project Manager)

On the other hand, interviewees claim that the winter facilities on the mountain did not have a great sustainable legacy, especially in consideration of the two abandoned facilities: bobsleigh and trampolines. In addition, interviewees who live on or know the mountain in depth state that the feasibility and the automated system for snow production can be considered as the main elements of the Olympic sustainability legacy on the mountain. So, the problem of the unsustainability of the two abandoned facilities is centred on a total absence of a national sports policy. The interviewees claim that through a national policy based on partnership, technological facilities for the preparation of Olympic athletes and for the winter sports school could have been used.

"The protocol and these measures have contributed to creating a sustainable culture".

Valentino Castellani (President TOROC)

8. In your opinion, what are the most representative examples of Olympic sustainability in the city of Turin?

On this point, the interviewees are in line with the previous answers, identifying the sports facilities, the viability and the reconversion of public spaces as the most representative examples of Olympic sustainability in the city of Turin. The structural and infrastructural interventions being a very important part of the project and implemented through the VAS have constituted an intangible heritage for the city and its citizens. The interviewees agree that the city of Turin today, through works such as the metro and the airport, has allowed the city of Turin to become a modern and technological metropolis. Moreover, the sports facilities built in the city of Turin have become tangible resources for the city and the metropolitan territory.

"The city was partly endowed with new structures that have an identity".

Pietro Bondonio (Researcher of the OMERO group)

With regard to the viability of the city of Turin, the interviewees agree that the metro is the most representative example. An infrastructural work that the city had been waiting for many years and that could only be completed thanks to the 2006 Olympic Games. In

addition, urban redevelopment and regeneration projects in the city of Turin have transformed its appearance. The pedestrianisation of the city centre, the re-evaluation of parks and green spaces, the provision of covered car parks have generated new habits for the use of public spaces. The interviewees agree that the urban regeneration of Turin was a very positive aspect for the city and for the environment. The choice not to build new buildings and to value the city's spaces was a great success. In relation to urban regeneration, the contribution of Viano, who at the time was the Councillor for Urban Heritage of the city of Turin, is fundamental. His knowledge of the specific subject and his experience of the city of Turin allows him to state that, in his opinion, the most representative example of urban redevelopment is the entire area of the Olympic Village of Turin. In the area where the MOI (Mercato Ortofrutticolo all'Ingrosso) used to be, a very important work was done for the re-evaluation of the whole complex, which had a great vocation to be a public area. Moreover, Viano affirms that the area had many limitations related to the architectural links because of the great artistic and cultural value of the MOI. Therefore, the reconversion of the building should be converted to uses compatible with its functions. Moreover, the Olympic Village through the "Passerella Olimpica" is connected to the Lingotto. This major urban redevelopment project was realised through a transparent international competition. On the other hand, Viano affirms that the Olympic Village, although it still has a problem of re-use, is a place where good work could be done. It is a place where one could work well to reconvert the whole southern area of the city and connect it definitively with the city of Turin. The Lingotto area being converted into a pole of events (congress, sports, cultural, commercial) the Olympic Village could be revalued and become a good example of reuse.

"The Lingotto will become an integrated centre in the south of the city, which can rise up and make a significant contribution to the city."

Mario Viano (Councillor for Urban Planning Assets of the City of Turin)

Meanwhile, in relation to mountain areas, interviewees living in the mountains state that sports facilities have ensured that all mountain areas have been able to benefit from high level ski resorts. In addition, the improvement of roads, railway lines and services has supported the conversion of all mountain areas and valleys. All the interviewees agreed on the importance of the roads, especially the Torino-Pinero tangential road, which was not only dangerous at weekends, but also always trafficked. These works have reduced the concentration of CO₂ in a specific area, improving the quality of the villages that used to be in the middle of the state road. Therefore, modifications to the portfolio system have been able to improve the viability of a larger and more complex area. Finally, some interviewees state that the same principles of re-evaluation and redevelopment were not adopted in the mountain areas. The only exception is the Olympic Village in Bardonecchia, a large complex of rationalist architecture from the 1930s which was completely converted into a hotel for families.

"For the mountain, the hotel is a bit like the industry for the city".

9. The organisation of the Olympic Games induces important transformations in the candidate city. In your opinion, in which of the following areas did the most important changes take place during the Turin 2006 Olympic Games?

Most of the people interviewed affirmed that the Turin Olympics have induced important and profound transformations in the urban and social spheres. These two areas, according to the interviewees, were the most transformed over time and can be considered today as the tangible and intangible heritage of the Olympic event. As we have seen from the above responses, the urban changes in the city of Turin and in the Olympic territory turn out to be the catalyst for the change in the perception of the city. Through the re-evaluation and re-qualification of areas and structures, the positioning of the city at international level, the opening of the city as an event city, the territory of the city of Turin has undergone a very deep socio-economic change. On the other hand, the change from industrial city to post-industrial city was a long process that is still going on today. On the other hand, as stated by some of the interviewees, pride and citizen participation is something that has contributed to the change in the image of the city of Turin. These intangible changes were confirmed by some interviewees in relation to citizen participation in any activity proposed in the territory during or after the Olympic event. Some interviewees affirm that the success of the Olympic Volunteers programme has favoured and reinforced the values among the people who today continue to volunteer in the events of the city of Turin. Moreover, in terms of Olympic volunteers, Turin received more applications than expected and was the first Winter Olympic city to exceed 20,000 volunteers. The association of Olympic volunteers continues to help and support the territory to this day. The responses of the interviewees mainly highlight these two areas and some of the interviewees were able to tell some different aspects that were boosted by the Turin Olympic Games.

○ Urban

The interviewees agree that urban change was by no means the first tangible reference that can be observed to this day. As we have observed in the preceding questions, recovery, re-evaluation, pedestrianisation, were key elements in the reconstruction of the urban fabric of the city of Turin. Some interviewees pointed out that the Turin Olympic Games were part of a more complex project that was launched in 1995 through the new masterplan for the city of Turin. In addition, through the 2000 Strategic Plan advanced by Turin International, the city was able to achieve specific guidelines for the transformation of the post-industrial city. Physical transformations in the city have also influenced the perception of the city in the years following the Olympic event. The re-evaluation of industrial areas promoted a process of reconversion of the city of Turin that was initiated in the late 1980s. Some interviewees agree that, from an urban point of view, the transformations were extraordinary. Interesting is the contribution of Viano who, through his knowledge of the city of Turin, affirms that the work of requalification and reconversion was a success because the city had many industrial areas in the metropolitan

fabric. Many abandoned areas were in a complex condition, especially in relation to the costs of industrial waste disposal, which were charged to the municipality.

"That is why we have worked hard to redevelop or relaunch land that otherwise could not be redeveloped".

Mario Viano (Councillor for Urban Planning Assets of the City of Turin)

These radical changes to the fabric of the city have changed the image and functioning of the entire city of Turin. In addition, the predisposition of the Olympic Village, the Media Village and other abandoned industrial structures have ensured accommodation for students and citizens in the post-Olympic period. Thus, urban works have become a catalyst for social processes that are still evolving today. The fact that the city of Turin today is no longer an industrial city, according to the interviewees, can be considered a great success for the city and its citizens. The satisfaction that a city is recognised in the world for its historical, cultural and landscape value is something that should be considered an intangible success for the city and the citizens of Turin. On the other hand, interviewees agree that the abandonment of the Turin Olympic Village remains an area that is today in the midst of another process of re-evaluation and transformation.

"Being in Italy you have to compete with very important cities. Rome, Venice, Florence, Verona, Naples, Turin have to fight to create their own visibility.

Roberto Daneo (Director of Institutional Relations with the Territory)

- Environmental

Meanwhile, in relation to environmental transformations, the interviewees agree that not enough has been done at the environmental level. The only positive contribution to the environmental transformations is related to the impact of the reservoirs for the programming of the snow machines in the mountains. Before the Olympics there were supposed to be 23 reservoirs, but only nine were built in the end.

- Social

On the other hand, the interviewees agree that social transformations related to participation and the valorisation of artistic, cultural and architectural heritage have brought about major social transformations. This transformation, according to some interviewees, is still present in some contexts. For example, citizen participation in events and the participation of volunteers is something that still exists today and continues to grow. The *VOLO2006* association is still a reality that offers support in the organisation of events. The participation and collaboration of citizens has brought about a marked social transformation.

"We no longer have to explain that we are that village near Milan".

Luca Davico (Researcher at the Rota Institute)

For the city of Turin, the Olympic Games were a great intangible legacy for the city that today has become a tangible legacy. Tourism. As all researchers affirm, the city of Turin has become a tourist city open to the world. International events and the participation of citizens has led to an emotional evolution in the pride of the citizens themselves. The possibility of hosting an Olympic event has led to a transformation of the social fabric of the city.

"There has been a transformation of perception".

Giuseppe Gattino (Head of Press Department - TOROC)

Despite the processes of social transformations over time, several interviewees assume that in order to be continuous and positive over time, social transformations need to be supported by other social policies. The Olympic Games are quickly forgotten in people's memories. Moreover, as stated above by some interviewees, human capital should be reused in a common direction of the city. Mela argues that social actions should be followed by other policies that were completely absent during the Olympics. Or rather, they were implemented to a lesser extent than they could have been. The transfer of knowledge and resources over the territory could have been another positive element in the transformation of sports professionalism throughout the region.

- Economic

Meanwhile, according to some interviewees, the Olympic Games have transformed the city's economy, reconverting its industrial vocation. This economic transformation was not confirmed by many interviewees, but it is true that, from an economic point of view, the city of Turin has acquired a great opportunity for the transformation of its economy. Before the Olympics, it was thought that the city could become a place for business, new managerial classes, which never manifested itself. Moreover, these interviewees state that tourism had been able to converted a fundamental part of the Piemontese economy, but was not interrupted by the real estate crisis of 2008. This historical fact was recognised by most of the interviewees as a critical event that destroyed the great work done for the organisation of the Olympics.

- Technological

Finally, some interviewees also mention technological transformations in two specific areas: in the mountain facilities and in traffic control. Interviewees state that the technology used in the mountain facilities has ensured that the *Via Lattea* resort has established itself as a modern, world-class resort. As stated above by interviewees living in the mountain communities, the resort continues to host international and world-class competitions. In the second place, some interviewees mentioned the importance of the traffic control system that ensured a reduction of mobility and a decrease of CO2 residues in the air. On the other hand, other interviewees state that the development of fibre optics in mountain communities was another missed opportunity for mountain communities. The

development of temporary structures for communications for the Olympic event was a major missed opportunity for all mountain residents.

"During the event they had brought fibre to the mountain, which has now disappeared. It was a missed opportunity, wasn't it? In the mountains it's a problem now, it's a missed opportunity".

Maria Caire (Olympic Education Project Manager)

10. What problems have arisen during the planning stages of the Olympic Games?

The responses obtained point out first of all that the preparation process for the Turin Olympics, like any event of this size, entailed some organisational problems that modified the initial project. The interviewees state that it was a complex process where most of the problems manifested themselves at the organisational level. Moreover, some of the interviewees admit that most of the problems manifested themselves in the years after the Olympic Games. As seen in the previous answers, the management and governance during the planning of the event was coordinated through different structures that allowed a fluidity in the communication of the Olympic project. Some interviewees stated that the organisation of the Olympic Games one year before the event reached a very critical level, which led to some changes in the internal structures of the Organising Committee. The common opinion regarding the changes in the organisational structure is due to the diversities in the implementation of the Olympic project and an increased interest in the Games at the central level. Meanwhile, other interviewees state that during the planning of the event, lacking the support from the central government, the national communication was not used as well as it was for the international communication of the Olympic event. The event not being supported by the central system as a whole has led to the lack of a common idea. In spite of these contributions, specific problems that arose or did not arise during the planning of the 2006 Olympic Games in Turin are analysed.

"The idea I have is that everyone has underestimated the potential of the Winter Olympics".

Maria Caire (Olympic Education Project Manager)

○ Organisational

The planning of a major event always involves the management of large variables. Some interviewees associate the organisational problem with the delays in the Olympic works. In addition, during the organisation of the Olympic Games, the Organising Committee also faced a cash flow problem due to a 100-million-euro overdraft. Interviewees with experience in international events state that during the organisation of events of this size there is always a critical moment.

"A big event has a deadline it has to meet.

Roberto Daneo (Director of Institutional Relations with the Territory)

Meanwhile, other interviewees state that during the organisation of the Games there were also problems of organisation and coordination of local bodies. In the three years before the Olympics, the organising committee had problems with national sponsors, which were solved by the lawyer Agnelli. Some interviewees claim that thanks to his contacts and networks he convinced national companies such as Telecom to invest in and support the Olympic event.

"The road to the organisation of the Games was very tiring".

Giuseppe Gattino (Head of Press Department - TOROC)

The interviewees affirmed that the first months of organisation were very complex, especially in terms of getting the Olympic machine up and running. Guala, through the monitoring of public opinion, observed that citizens had a positive attitude towards the Olympic Games and the Olympic works. Furthermore, he states that the same cannot be said in relation to the post-Olympic period. This comment was shared by some interviewees who agreed on the lack of organisation in the post-Olympic period. The structure and machinery developed for the Olympics did not have the same organisation in the post-Olympic period. After the Olympic event, a planning process had to be carried out regarding the uses of the main facilities. Furthermore, the abandonment and disuse of the Turin Olympic Village by some interviewees is an example of how the post-Olympic organisation was totally different from what was manifested during the Olympic Games.

"Turin's acceleration from an industrial to a fully post-industrial city has slowed down over time".

Alfredo Mela (Researcher of the OMERO Group)

Therefore, the main criticisms expressed by the interviewees refer to the organisation of the post-Olympic period which, according to some, was neither thought through nor planned. Finally, some of the interviewees agree that the lack of planning at the organisational level has led to a diminished legacy in the post-Olympic phase.

- Land use and its expropriation

In relation to the problems of land use and land expropriation, most of the interviewees affirmed that the Olympic Games in the city of Turin did not involve any kind of forced expropriation. As the Olympic project foresaw the transformation of areas and the re-evaluation of industrial vacancies, the reconversion of the areas was done through the respect of all existing regulations without compromising excessive land consumption. As stated by Viano, in most cases expropriation procedures were not used and the final operation was always intended for the reconstruction of the urban fabric of the post-industrial city of Turin. Viano states that classic urban planning negotiation procedures were always used. The extent to which these negotiations have yielded positive and

negative results is part of the debate. A part of the interviewees affirms that in general and in consideration of the citizens' judgement, the operations carried out can be considered quite satisfactory. In Turin, contractual urban planning has become a matter of course. The municipality, as some interviewees who have been able to observe the whole transformation process state, was not in a position to propose expropriations of new areas that could have been transformed into other land consumption. Moreover, Viano recalls that, through the collaboration of financial institutions, the city council has been able to take advantage of private financing which, in the post-Olympic period, has guaranteed social housing and student residences. Today, this real estate, promoted through negotiated procedures, is a positive legacy of the works carried out in the city of Turin.

"We have not initiated expropriation procedures. It has always been a question of operations managed in terms of urban planning. The classic contractual urbanism that has become normality".

Mario Viano (Councillor for Urban Planning Assets of the City of Turin)

On the other hand, some interviewees claim that the same cannot be said for mountain communities. The sensitive mountain ecosystem was compromised through the construction of the bobsleigh and ski jumping facilities, which are now abandoned. Meanwhile, the interviewees agree that the same cannot be said for the Olympic Villages of Bardonecchia and Sestriere. As stated above, the interviewees living in the mountain communities agree that these two works of re-evaluation and reconversion remain today two fundamental pieces of the Olympic heritage.

- Communication

"Turin won the Olympics without any interest from the state or the national media. We were in Seoul with a film crew of two people.

Valentino Castellani (President TOROC)

Finally, in relation to the communication problems, a part of the interviewees affirmed that the main problems were related to the lack of national support for the development of a global communication. In the Turin Olympic event, as confirmed by some interviewees, there were not many national sponsors who always support sport events of this size. This lack of support turned out to be a deficit in the overall communication of the Olympic event. Most interviewees agree that the communication of Torino was more successful at the international level than at the national level.

"The event explodes at a certain moment. The event communicates itself".

Giuseppe Gattino (Head of Press Department - TOROC)

This lack of national support, as stated by some interviewees, was one of the major criticisms during the development phase of the Olympic event. The lack of initial support,

the lack of support from national sponsors, led to a delay in national support, which interviewees identified as a criticality. This criticality, as confirmed by some interviewees, led to a reduction of the possibilities induced through a global and continuous strategy over time.

Meanwhile, other interviewees claim that this lack of national support led to a reduction in ticket sales for the Olympic competitions. Without national support it was very difficult to communicate the event to the whole country. Finally, interviewees agree that communication at the international level, supported by the sponsors of the TOP programme, has ensured a large media coverage that supported the process of transforming the image of the city of Turin.

"TOROC has organised at least 100 public meetings between Turin and the different Alpine areas to share and communicate the projects".

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

11. How was governance organised during the organisation of the Turin 2006 Olympic Games?

In order to look specifically at each aspect of the governance of the Turin Olympics, some points have been advanced that can help us to understand in depth the key aspects of the governance of Turin. The interviewees were able to answer some or all of the questions regarding their knowledge and their different responsibilities in the Turin Olympics. By providing a sample of different profiles, it will be possible to observe the most important aspects to be taken into account for the success of the organisation of the Turin Olympics.

Specifically, in:

a) Leadership

The interviewees in relation to the leadership of governance during the organisation of the Olympic Games confirm what was stated above about the importance of a shared governance structured through several entities. Thus, all interviewees agree that in Turin 2006 there was a shared leadership between the two main entities. The Organising Committee (TOROC), responsible for the organisation of the Olympic event, and the Agency, a central state entity proposed for the realisation of the works. In addition, through the *Cabina di Regia*, the organisation was able to rely on another entity where all the stakeholders of the event were represented for a shared vision of the Olympic event. So, we can see how the leadership was shared between two different entities, and with two different budgets. The leadership of TOROC can be defined as a political and technical leadership at the same time. Meanwhile, the Agency was a technical entity that was built ad hoc for the Olympic event and in order to guarantee the timely execution of the Olympic works. The interviewees agree on the importance of the Agency for the realisation of the Olympic works. In addition, the fundamental role was played by the *Cabina di Regia* booth, which, through the service conferences, made it possible to reduce

bureaucracy. As the interviewees state, the *Cabina di Regia* booth can be defined as the entity that managed the criticalities and problems that arose between the two entities in charge of the realisation of the event and the works.

"The Cabina di Regia booth has made decision-making exceptionally fast and, above all, has ensured the possibility of making immediately enforceable decisions".

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

Finally, as Caire states, during the Olympic event, a new coordination structure, the MOC (Main Operation Centre), is being developed to manage the criticalities that may arise during the Olympic event.

More political or technical leadership? That's a very good question. I think there was a clash that I experienced as a director. A clash between the technicians of TOROC and the political vision of the entities".

Roberto Daneo (Director of Institutional Relations with the Territory)

In short, the division of responsibilities between TOROC and the Agency, the division of the budget, TOROC through private funding and the Agency through public funding, and the support of the *Cabina di Regia*, according to interviewees, have ensured a shared leadership prior to the Olympic event. Some interviewees state that a year before the Olympics, the organising committee was commissioned and some directors were replaced and the structure became more politicised than previously seen. So, being a dynamic event during a 7-year planning process, the leadership over time can change in relation to the demands. In Turin, as interviewees say, thanks to the presence of Castellani as president, the leadership was political and technical at the same time. Thus, as Guala states, decisions were made at a professional technical level in a political project born out of the reasoning of the end of industrialism and the discovery of a city with new expectations of life.

"Leadership I believe is to take into account the process of change in the city as a response to a political necessity.

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

b) Decision-making (State or organising committee)

Regarding the decision-making and the decision-making process of the Olympic governance in Turin, the interviewees agree that the power was in the hands of TOROC.

In the process of allocating the Olympic Games through the Organising Committee, which is the entity responsible for the Olympic event and for the respect of the Olympic contract signed with the International Olympic Committee. In this respect, other interviewees state that the event being the property of the International Olympic

Committee, the decision making of the event is in the hands of the Organising Committee and the International Olympic Committee.

"The decision-making process was in the hands of TOROC. It was of great importance. The decision-maker is also the City of Turin and the region. TOROC with Castellani is a guarantee that everything will work".

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

c) Public, private or mixed economy participation

In relation to financial participation, the interviewees state that, being two different entities, the budgets were different. The Organising Committee (TOROC) was financed through private contributions resulting from the sale of broadcasting rights, ticket sales and Olympic sponsors. While the Agency, responsible for the Olympic works, was financed entirely from public funds. Thus, the interviewees affirm that the participation was certainly mixed, with a large public participation in the realisation of the infrastructural works.

"In the European tradition, they are financed by the state. In the American and Canadian experience, private individuals provide the funding.

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

d) Regulation and laws

Meanwhile, with regard to specific laws and regulations, the interviewees agree on the importance of Law 285 of 2000, which was the law that founded the Agency for Olympic works. Thanks to this law, the national state ensured the constitution of a specific body for the management of public works and public funding for the organisation of the Olympic Games. As confirmed by all the interviewees, this structure was fundamental to carry out all the Olympic works and the ancillary works included in Law 285. The interviewees affirm that equally important was Law 48 of 2003, which founded the *Cabina di Regia*, a structure of collaboration between the two entities. In addition, only a few interviewees have also mentioned the importance of other temporary regulations. For example, some interviewees state that during the Olympic event there are some mandatory regulations that the Olympic territory has to comply with. These regulations were sometimes regional or local in relation to the venue of the Olympic competitions. The prohibition of placing external sponsors in the whole Olympic territory and the temporary freedom of mobility for athletes, are the two temporary regulations that have to be respected in order to guarantee the execution of the event.

e) Stakeholder participation

Despite the above responses, interviewees agreed on a multi-level participation. The Organising Committee was participated by global stakeholders received from the CIO through the TOP programme. Meanwhile, the event, as stated by the interviewees, was participated by mostly local stakeholders. So, the number of stakeholders was quite

limited. Moreover, as Saini states, one of the main difficulties was the implementation of a sustainability policy for the acceptance of any kind of collaboration. Saini points out how it was difficult to find stakeholders who were concerned with sustainability in the processes and materials used. For example, he states that Mizuno, a Japanese company that produces technical equipment, was a great example of a sustainable company as all its processes are managed through the reuse of unused materials. The Turin Olympics was supported only by sponsors that reflected their philosophy of action. Meanwhile, in relation to national sponsors, some interviewees claim that support was limited and therefore the only companies involved were San Paolo, Telecom and Fiat. To sum up, in relation to the contributions, it can be observed that the Olympic Games have had a participation of mostly local, limited national and global stakeholders because of the International Olympic Committee's own sponsors. Finally, some interviewees state that the links of the International Olympic Committee do not allow many spaces for the inclusion of sponsors that may be in competition with the TOP programme sponsors.

"Unfortunately, it was very local. The government could have done more."

Roberto Daneo (Director of Institutional Relations with the Territory)

f) Cooperation (new partnership structures)

In relation to the new entities and structures of collaboration, the interviewees affirm that there was a specific structure for the Olympic period. In the Olympic period, in 2003, the *Cabina di Regia* was set up, an entity between the Organising Committee and the Agency, the entity in charge and responsible for the Olympic works. According to the interviewees, this structure was of fundamental importance for internal and external communication. The *Cabina di Regia* was made up of all the representatives of the local authorities and the stakeholders of the Olympic event.

"The Cabina di Regia was a well-functioning steering committee for the regular fortnightly meetings, which managed to set up the governance perfectly without any major problems".

Marta Bottero (Researcher at SITI Institute)

g) Diversification and/or coordination of roles, tasks, etc.

Most interviewees state that the coordination of roles was fairly centralised in the Organising Committee (TOROC). But, as some interviewees pointed out, there was a central coordination through different departments that reflected and made decisions for the Olympic event. TOROC, through the territorial relations department, was able to involve all local authorities in the Olympic debate. Guala affirms that the system was centralised and had good relations with the territory and all the reference categories. According to Guala, this centralisation was not negative for the territory. Guala affirms that TOROC through more than 100 meetings with local entities generated a good

experience of communication and socialisation that sociologists once called the socialisation of communication. Furthermore, Guala affirms how everyone was free to make critical contributions to the Olympic project and there was full freedom of expression. The researchers agree that there was no limitation of any kind, but rather maximum freedom of expression. Meanwhile, in relation to the facilities in the mountain communities, some researchers claim that before the Olympics, during the "*venuization*" process, the central structures must be divided into other small structures that manage each Olympic facility autonomously. This process is a mandatory step of the event where the venues develop as a single entity managed through the managers of each venue.

"We have never had restrictions but maximum freedom of expression".

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

h) Supervision and control

Interviewees claim that the control was entirely internal to the organising committee. In addition, some interviewees state that the Organising Committee was controlled every month by the International Olympic Committee. So, the Olympic event involved several levels of internal control. Otherwise, the Agency monitored the progress of the works and the updating of the monthly schedules. The interviewees state that there were two different control systems. The Organising Committee had internal control over the organisational part, while the Agency had internal control and central state control over the execution part of the Olympic works.

Some interviewees stated that the Organising Committee for the VAS commissioned the Polytechnic University of Turin for the monitoring and reporting processes. Finally, two interviewees, Davico and Guala, underline the importance of the relationships between the groups and the research institutes that have analysed the Turin Olympics through various studies. Davico states that there was a great deal of research activity on the part of all the research groups and institutes. Therefore, the collaboration between the ROTA institute, the IRES institute, the OMERO group and the SITI institute turned out to be a great experience for all participants and for the dissemination of scientific knowledge through a mega-event.

"The relationship with the Politecnico di Torino, responsible for the VAS, before, during and after, was very important".

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

i) Post-Olympic (legacy) heritage management

In relation to this aspect, the interviewees state that the only entity responsible for the post-Olympic heritage was the Foundation 20 March 2006. It is a foundation under private law, but is wholly owned by its founding members (Province, Region, Municipality, Coni). Within the foundation there is a structure similar to that of a public body. Subsequently, the actual management of the assets and facilities over time was transferred to a joint

venture, co-owned by the Foundation, called Parco Olimpico, with a 10% stake owned by the Foundation and 90% owned by a private partner. With regard to the 20 March 2006 Foundation, some interviewees claim that this entity was provisioned too late. According to some authors, this lack of foresight had a negative influence on the use of the more complex facilities.

"If it had been built 2 or 3 years earlier, it would have been possible to work with the international federations to schedule the competitions. International events are awarded 3-4 years in advance".

Roberto Daneo (Director of Institutional Relations with the Territory)

In addition, Mela's contribution on the lack of an event documentation centre is interesting. According to Mela, a permanent research centre, supported by a public policy on sport events, was a missed opportunity for the intangible legacy of the Olympic Games. Therefore, the underlying question is how should the Olympic legacy be provided between the city and the national policy?

j) Level of Communication (global, national or local - synergistic)

The interviewees agree on the reflection that the levels of event communication are dynamic processes. The level of communication as stated by most of the interviewee's changes with the Olympic phases and with the time of the Olympic project. Furthermore, the interviewees state that the level of communication was for too long only local. So, we can summarise three levels of communication in three different phases. In the promotion phase the communication was only local. In the phase anticipating the Olympic event it was local and national. And, in the phase of the Olympic event it was global only. Finally, the interviewees confirm the above. National support was limited.

"Our event is more awaited in certain parts of France, Germany, Holland, Switzerland or Canada than in Abruzzo, Sicily or Puglia".

Giuseppe Gattino (Head of Press Department - TOROC)

k) Which of these factors could be the key to success?

Lastly, the interviewees were able to give their personal opinion on the factors that may condition the success of the Olympic event. It is interesting to see how the interviewees mainly put forward two factors that are synergistic between them. Governance supported by a shared leadership and cooperation between entities. In addition, some interviewees state that governance must also be shared with the International Olympic Committee in order for the event to be successful. Developing a dominant structure through the cooperation of all stakeholders can significantly influence the success of the Olympic event. At the same time, the involvement of stakeholders and local actors is a key fact for the success of the Olympic event and its acceptance at territorial level. This is why Turin, despite some initial governance problems, was later able to develop an effective and efficient governance involving all territorial stakeholders.

The interviewees recognise governance as the decisive aspect in the success of the Turin experience. Also, Viano's reflection on the opportunities induced by the Olympic Games for the city of Turin is interesting. Viano states that everyone involved in the project realised that this opportunity could not be missed in the framework of a transformation in a medium and long-term perspective. Ultimately, most of the interviewees say that leadership and teamwork are other factors that can influence the success of the Olympic event.

"There was no one taking the limelight. The fact that we also united across the political spectrum. It was a very good example. There wasn't one political party criticising while the other was acting. So, the transversality that united the team made a difference.

Valter Marin (Mayor of Pragelato - Managing Director of Agenzia Torino)

Block 4

Olympic Legacy

12. What was/are your relationship with the foundation 20 March 2006?

Most of the interviewees state that there was no relationship with the post-Olympic Foundation. Among all interviewees, only Avato, Marin and Gros have had or continue to have relations with the *Fondazione 20 Marzo 2006*. Francesco Avato is the current president of the Foundation. Valter Marin was president of the Foundation from 2013 to 2018. Piero Gros had a two-year relationship in the period after the Olympic Games. Through these answers we can see how most of the interviewees who were involved in the organisation of Turin 2006 were not involved in the organisation and management in the post-Olympic period. Lastly, Caire states that there was only one experience as an external consultant for a one-year project.

13. Is it possible to adopt a single design vision in all phases of the Olympic project?

In relation to these questions, the interviewees agree that an event of this size should adopt a dynamic and flexible structure in all phases of the project. The Olympic event should adapt to the events and evolve in relation to the different phases provided for in the Olympic project. In addition, some of the interviewees stated that it would be desirable to adopt a common vision of the project in the different Olympic phases. The interviewees agree that the most important aspect during the different planning phases is related to the timing of the works and the propaedeutic actions to go to the next planning phase. Thus, the Olympic project is a complex and continuously evolving process that should be adapted to the demands of the city and its citizens. Moreover, some interviewees state that it would be desirable to follow a common and shared project between all the local authorities in order to increase the acceptance of the Olympic project in the territory. On

the other hand, the interviewees agree that the post-Olympic phase is completely different from the Olympic phase.

Moreover, some interviewees state that the Olympic project is a unique model for each state and each city, which is difficult to repeat and reproduce in other cities. Thus, it is unthinkable to have an idea that remains unchanged over time. In view of the Turin Olympic Games, the transformation times of the city were long. Some interviewees have stated that the 1992 Barcelona project stimulated the city of Turin for the physical transformation of the territory and the development of a new international attractiveness of the city in terms of tourism.

"Between Turin and Barcelona there are some common aspects concerning the desire and the idea of using the Olympic Games as an instrument for the realisation of works".

Alfredo Mela (Researcher of the OMERO Group)

These statements allow us to highlight a relevant reflection on the phases of the Olympic project. The Olympic project, as stated by most of the interviewees, turns out to be a dynamic and long-term process. Thus, this planning process can sometimes be thought of through concrete examples of other Olympic cities. In consideration of the different territorial, social and cultural conditions, the Olympic project will have different results and implications on the territory over time. Finally, there is no guarantee that the model can work everywhere in the world.

14. Does the post-Olympic legacy require specific planning?

On this point, all interviewees agree on the importance of observing a specific planning for the post-Olympic period. Otherwise, some interviewees state that without the predisposition of a specific plan, there is a risk of missing opportunities, generating negative facilities for the Olympic territory. In addition, some interviewees state that Vancouver and London had developed a specific body during the planning of the Olympic event. This body supported the development of the tangible and intangible legacy of the Olympic event in the post-Olympic period.

"People don't often take the intangible into account. Certainly, the material is fundamental. But in my opinion, an event like the Olympic Games should enhance the intangible legacy.

Maria Caire (Olympic Education Project Manager)

In this sense, it can be argued that post-Olympic planning needs a specific plan and should be considered as a fundamental part of the organisation of the Olympic Games. Furthermore, Davico states that planning should be specific because the post-Olympic processes are different from the Olympic processes. Finally, Gattino states that the development of a specific commission on sport events could constitute a place able to

provide expertise and professionalism to the whole national territory. In general, two specific moments can be observed. A pre-Olympic phase which is the execution of works and tasks within a very complex timetable. A post-Olympic phase where there is no timetable, but there is the problem of making the most of the investments made. These investments, as stated by most of the interviewees, should make the greatest possible contribution to the city and its citizens. Only through continuous and integrated planning in the overall planning process could the city be supported in the intangible changes that can be observed in the post-Olympic Games phase.

15. Given that planning processes are very complex, do you think host cities should act by adopting long-term strategies?

In general, the interviewees agree on the importance of a strategy that is supported through strategic plans specific to the city and the territory targeted by the interventions. All the interviewees affirm that the Olympic city, through strategic plans, must create a long-term vision for the territory. The interviewees affirm that the Turin strategy was in place in the period preceding the Olympic Games and was only adapted for the Olympic event. Through the strategic plan, the city of Turin was able to develop an overall vision for the long-term planning of the new post-industrial city. Furthermore, some interviewees claim that the electoral cycle being a short process, the plan should be provided by the city and accepted among all stakeholders involved in the overall transformation project.

"Stakeholders must be political as well as economic".

Alfredo Mela (Researcher of the OMERO Group)

Interviewees agree on the importance of the Olympic Games as an intangible opportunity for the host city that if not supported by long-term plans can become a boomerang. Some of the interviewees claim that the Athens Olympics were a boomerang for the city and society. On the other hand, in recent years, the International Olympic Committee, as stated by Daneo, insists on the importance of identifying the event as an extraordinary element within the ordinary processes of the city.

Thus, the interviewees agree on the importance of the Turin International 2000 strategic plan in order to develop a long-term plan that is shared by all the social and economic partners of the territory. Furthermore, Viano affirms that considering the event as an independent fact can become a phenomenon that takes place and can develop into something very complex to manage in the post-Olympic period. The Olympic event, if conceived in a long-term strategy, can reduce and avoid the occurrence of drop-out phenomena. For example, Viano states that the Turin Expo in 1961, conceived as a separate and one-off operation, was a mistake. The interviewees agree on the importance of the overall functioning of the city beyond the Olympic event. Finally, as stated by Mela, the plan must be a visionary plan so that new stakeholders can be found through a shared long-term vision.

"The Turin City of the Alps project. Inspired by Barcelona, an industrial city in decline that has rediscovered its relationship with the sea".

Roberto Daneo (Director of Institutional Relations with the Territory)

16. In your opinion, should the International Olympic Committee be involved in the planning phase of the Olympic project?

Most of the interviewee's state that the International Olympic Committee is an entity that is actively involved in the planning process of the event. Through its sessions and its monthly monitoring reports, the International Olympic Committee is always informed about the state of progress of the process of realisation of the Olympic event. Furthermore, the interviewees agree that the ownership of the event is in the hands of the International Olympic Committee. Still, some interviewees claim that the International Olympic Committee is only interested in the purpose of the event and its global perception for the Olympic brand. For this reason, some of the interviewees have reflected on the importance of having a more comprehensive and longitudinal support from the International Olympic Committee. In addition, some interviewees asserted that the International Olympic Committee should not only consider the technical needs of the event but also offer broader support. As stated by some interviewees, the Olympic event is a temporary franchise for the host city. The International Olympic Committee has in recent years, through new guidelines, tried only to reduce the negative possibilities induced by the Olympic event. Thus, the interviewees agree on the importance of defining common goals through a long-term plan for the whole Olympic movement. Most of the interviewees affirm that the International Olympic Committee should have a broader role in the organisation of the event and not only a controlling role. On the other hand, other interviewees argue that a more participatory role for the IOC could be in contrast to the unique urban situations of each city. Some of the interviewees question the extent to which the International Olympic Committee could play this role in assisting the city. All interviewees agree on the importance of relationships between the political side of the city and the Olympic movement that could evolve over time. For this reason, the interviewees affirm that there should certainly be more dialogue than just a technical dialogue.

"Direct planning must take into account the context of reference, which has a specificity that cannot be attributed to the Committee".

Mario Viano (Councillor for Urban Planning Assets of the City of Turin)

Block 5

The impact of the Games on the territory

17. Do you think that the benefits of the Olympic projects and investments in the city of Turin and the Olympic valleys have been evenly distributed? If not, which categories of citizens/urban areas have benefited most? Which mountain areas?

According to the interviewees, different benefits were produced in different areas of the Olympic territory. Interviewees agree that the city of Turin benefited the most from the investments and opportunities induced by the Olympic event. Some interviewees state that the mountain was the area that suffered the most. While other interviewees claim that the Olympic Villages in the mountains were the two facilities that were most exploited as post-Olympic heritage. As stated by Avato and Marin, these two structures have allowed the cities of Sestriere and Bardonecchia to enhance their accommodation capacities, responding to the demands of tourist demand. Most of the interviewees stated that the Olympic project, through the accessory works of the Olympic project, was modified to include other areas in the spatial dimension of the Olympic project. The project advanced by Turin was the first Olympic project comprising a metropolitan city and 6 prominent venues in the mountain communities. The mountain communities were planned to function as a mountain *cluster* that could host the Olympic Villages and the main winter sports competitions. The spatial dimension of the Turin 2006 project, according to the interviewees, was mainly distributed evenly over the Olympic territory. As far as the infrastructural and structural works are concerned, the interviewees agree that the city of Turin benefited most from the mountains. As stated by some of the interviewees, the Turin project included between 700 and 800 million of infrastructural works in the territory.

Moreover, some interviewees claim that the Olympic mountains and valleys did not need excessive funding because there were already material and immaterial connections between the mountain territories. On the other hand, as some interviewees state, the intermediate valleys did not play any role before or after the Olympic event. Meanwhile, in relation to the distribution of the works in the city of Turin, some interviewees claim that there was an imbalance between the northern and southern areas of the city of Turin. According to Davico, the northern area of Turin has certainly been penalised. He notes how the transformation of the city of Turin and the change of the Olympic project has led to a progressive decentralisation of institutions in the western and southern areas of the city.

"The northern zone has been penalised by the change in the nomination dossier".

Luca Davico (Researcher at the Rota Institute)

As stated by some of the interviewees, some areas of the initial project were left out of the overall Turin project. In some areas only one-off events and episodes were realised which were not part of the overall project. On the other hand, the same cannot be said for the Olympic Villages of Sestriere and Bardonecchia. Thus, the Turin Olympic Games, being considered as a regional project, according to some authors led to an imbalance in the interventions.

"There was no common tourism strategy to incorporate the valleys into the city. There was a temporary synergy for the Olympic valleys".

Alfredo Mela (Researcher of the OMERO Group)

Considering the contributions of the interviewees, it can be affirmed that the Turin Olympic Games project, in general, ensured an equitable distribution of the Olympic works in the Olympic area. Moreover, the city of Turin, being the centre of the Olympic project and the image of the Olympic event to the world, was the area that benefited most from the repercussions and opportunities of the Olympic effect.

"Turin benefited the most from the impact and opportunities of the Olympic effect, the mountains suffered the most".

Marta Bottero (Researcher at the SITI Institute)

18. How did the Turin 2006 Olympic Games fit into the long planning process of the post-industrial city of Turin?

In relation to the transformation of the post-industrial city of Turin, as we have seen from the previous statements of the interviewees, the planning process was supported by plans of re-evaluation and reconversion specific to the city of Turin. Since the end of the 1980s, the city of Turin was planning its transformation from an industrial city to a post-industrial city. Therefore, the interviewees agreed that the transformation of the city was supported by the new master plan of 1995 and the strategic plan of 2000. The interviewees agree that the Turin Olympic Games were a major contribution to the activation of the transformation processes.

"The Olympic Games were catalysts for transformations already imagined.

Alfredo Mela (Researcher of the OMERO Group)

As stated by Guala, Torino International was born in the 1990s and started its 2000 strategic plan projects in 1994. In addition, the city was able to benefit from other specific projects for the development of Turin in the post-industrial period. The railway project dates back to 1995, the periphery project to 1997, the metro project was approved in 1996 and since 1997 the city of Turin started to promote tourism in the city. So, as Guala states, since 1997 the city, through tourist and cultural events, fairs and congresses, started to transform itself into a post-industrial city. The inclusion of the Turin Olympic Games in the strategic plan for the city can be defined as a great idea managed in synergy between all stakeholders. The Olympic project developed in synergy aimed to offer a new post-industrial future for the city of Turin in the 21st century.

"There are many things of a touristic and cultural nature that mark the end of the industrial city".

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

All interviewees agree on the importance of the Strategic Plan (2000-2011) for the development of a broader strategy that was able to include the Olympic Games within more complex and long-term processes for the city of Turin. On the other hand, the interviewees agree on the importance of the Turin Olympic Games for the implementation of these urban and socio-economic strategies. The Turin Olympic Games were a catalyst for processes that had been in the pipeline since the late 1980s. The Turin Olympic event became an important fuel for transformations and revaluations of urban spaces.

Other interviewees state that the Olympic Games were a fundamental contribution to the city, but that they were not decisive in the transformations advanced since the 1995 master plan. According to Viano, the turning point for the city of Turin was the observation of the 2000 strategic plan and the synergistic action of the master plan. Viano argues that without this reference framework at the general and planning level, it would probably not have been possible to manage it.

"Without a reference plan, the only invention would have been to invent a satellite city.

Mario Viano (Councillor for Urban Planning Assets of the City of Turin)

Finally, Viano states that if the city of Turin had not made a reference plan for the location and dislocation of resources in a precise and detailed manner, the Olympic works could not have taken place in a framework of global transformation of the city. Moreover, other interviewees state that the 2006 Turin Olympics also had the possibility to take place in a political framework that was quite cohesive. This intangible possibility allowed the development of a common territorial idea between the city council, the region and the province. As stated by some interviewees, the Olympic Games marked a change of mentality because they made it possible to do something different in a territory that needed new interventions. The Turin Olympic Games created important synergies between a series of events and transformations that have been effectively channelled not only at the political level but also at the technical level. Transformations that contributed to the urban transition of the city of Turin. In conclusion, we can see how the interviewees agree on the importance of the Turin Olympic Games within a more complex process of transformation of the city. It can be affirmed that the Games were the catalyst and the main tool thanks to which a reconversion of the post-industrial economy of Turin has taken place. Through the Olympic event, the city of Turin has changed its face to the world.

"The Turin Olympics have been a tool".

Maria Caire (Olympic Education Project Manager)

19. In your opinion, which of the Olympic Villages planned for Turin 2006 has benefited most from the Olympic investments?

Turin in 2006 for the organisation of the accommodation of the Olympic athletes, proposed three Olympic Villages in the Olympic territory. An Olympic Village in the city of Turin, an Olympic Village in Bardonecchia and one in Sestriere. Most of the interviewees clearly state that the Olympic Villages of Bardonecchia and Sestriere in relation to their post-Olympic use were the two Olympic Villages that benefited most from the Olympic investments. Moreover, some interviewees state that the Turin Olympic Village benefited from light and shadows that led to abandonment and an occupation that lasted until 2020. The common thought of the interviewees is that the integration of the Olympic Villages in the mountain villages was easier for the Turin Olympic Village. Still, the Turin Olympic Village was in the middle of the requalification of an area that had a historical and architectural value protected by the overintendence of cultural assets. On the other hand, some interviewees claim that the Turin Olympic Village was the one that benefited most from the economic contributions. The Turin Olympic Village was a new project, while the Olympic Villages of Bardonecchia and Sestriere were two re-evaluation and reconstruction projects. Also, some interviewees claim that the Turin Olympic Village should be valued in its entirety.

"The history of the Olympic Village in Turin was marked by the occupation and the subsequent slow resolution".

Alfredo Mela (Researcher of the OMERO Group)

Meanwhile, some interviewees, such as Guala and Viano, state that the city of Turin also had some media accommodation structures that were used as university residences in the post-Olympic period. Guala and Viano assert that the radical rehabilitation of structural residential structures that were used for the media and reconvertng them into assets available to students was a fundamental strategy for improving student accommodation. Turin's universities, being highly qualified and internationally recognised, have been able to enhance their capacity to attract new talent to this day by increasing their receptive capacity for students.

"In Turin, there have been small media and athlete structures that were more easily integrated into the urban structure".

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

Meanwhile, a common position can be perceived among the interviewees about the Olympic Villas of Sestriere and Bardonecchia. As stated by the interviewees, the Olympic

Villages of Sestriere and Bardonecchia were two works of re-evaluation and requalification of existing buildings. Moreover, this aspect also made it possible to define a common strategy with the municipalities for the tourist exploitation of the structures. As stated by the mayors of Bardonecchia and Sestriere, Avato and Marin, the Olympic Villages have contributed to promoting tourism in the mountain areas, increasing the available accommodation by 25%.

"Better reuse Sestriere and Bardonecchia without a doubt. They were a turning point".

Roberto Daneo (Director of Institutional Relations with the Territory)

Thus, the interviewees agree on the importance of requalifying and revaluing the existing buildings and using them for mountain tourism.

20. Was the Turin Olympic Village part of an existing master plan?

About this question half of the interviewees state that they cannot answer the specific demand because they are not aware of the availability of the area of the Olympic Village in Turin by the municipality at that historical moment. Meanwhile, the other half of the interviewee's state that the municipality of Turin made a change of use for the construction of the Olympic Village in the existing masterplan. Furthermore, Viano states that the Olympic Village of Turin was included in the existing master plan following the guidelines of the urban plan.

"If we had not been prepared, we would have done something external that would have turned into a ghost town".

Mario Viano (Councillor for Urban Planning Assets of the City of Turin)

In conclusion, Viano states that it was necessary to maintain the existing plan, otherwise the area could have become a problem for the urban fabric. Through these considerations, it can be concluded that the Turin Olympic Village was part of an existing master plan and was part of the re-evaluation programmes of the vacant areas and the city's social plan for socio-economic intervention.

"Abandoned area in the municipality's available heritage".

Valentino Castellani (President TOROC)

Moreover, some interviewees claim that the location of the Olympic Village in the southern area of the city was only conceived at a very early stage. Therefore, the area of the Olympic Village responded to requirements related to the location of sports and training facilities for athletes. The city of Turin has an existing master plan that was able to change the location of the Olympic Village to an area that was available to the municipality, without any expropriation of land.

"The whole area was at the full disposal of the municipality".

Alfredo Mela (Researcher of the OMERO Group)

21. Was the construction of the Turin Olympic Village integrated into the city's long-term housing strategy?

Most of the interviewees stated that they were not aware of the housing strategies of the city of Turin and therefore referred only to the current state of abandonment of the Olympic Village. While a part of the interviewees stated that initially, the Olympic Village had to be part of a social housing strategy, still in the post-Olympic period the project had economic and structural criticalities. Regarding the structural criticisms, most of the interviewees made negative comments about the construction materials, which already the year after the Olympic event required maintenance costs. So, as Bottero states, in the following years, the idea of converting the Olympic Village into public offices was also suggested. However, as Castellani states, there was a great political will to focus on the objective, but some administrative decisions were lacking to take advantage of the Turin Olympic Villages. About the will of the organising committee, Guala recalls that the Turin Olympic Village in the documentation and in the initial presentations was listed as an asset available for social housing. Moreover, Mela states that this co-housing solution was not so extraordinary if today the Olympic Village is still in a state of neglect.

"I should have it. With the best of intentions, the answer is YES. There was the political will to go for that goal".

Valentino Castellani (President TOROC)

Meanwhile, Mela states that the Turin Olympic Village was not initially included in a long-term housing strategy. Furthermore, Mela, who worked on the implementation of the 2000 strategic plan, states that the Olympic Village was initially intended to be included in the Turin housing strategy contained in the strategic lines of the 2000 strategic plan. However, Mela states that changes in housing policy philosophies did not allow for the development of a common housing strategy for the post-Olympic future of the city of Turin.

"However, the philosophy of housing policies has changed over time".

Alfredo Mela (OMERO Group Researcher)

22. Did the construction of the Olympic Village have a specific purpose in the post-Olympic period?

All interviewees stated that all the Olympic Villages provided had a specific purpose in the post-Olympic period. Tourist purposes for the Olympic Villages of Bardonecchia and Sestriere. Residential purposes for the Turin Olympic Village.

"All the Olympic Villages were built, in general, with a very clear post-Olympic destination.

Mario Viano (Councillor for Urban Planning Assets of the City of Turin)

In addition, some interviewees mentioned the media accommodation which became an added value in the post-Olympic period in terms of accommodation available for the universities in Turin. Defining the specific purpose of real estate in the post-Olympic period can reduce the risks of abandonment and unusability for candidate cities.

23. Were the Olympic Villages of Sestriere and Bardonecchia part of the projects to promote tourism in the Piedmont valleys?

According to most of the interviewees, the Olympic Villages in the mountain communities were not included in an explicit tourism promotion strategy. The Olympic Villages were indeed built in two tourist municipalities: Sestriere and Bardonecchia. The interviewees claim that the Olympic Villages were intended to enhance the tourist reception structures in the towns of Bardonecchia and Sestriere.

"Not really. They have been inserted in historically touristy places".

Alfredo Mela (OMERO Group Researcher)

Meanwhile, Guala affirm that the Olympic Villages in the mountain communities were included in the tourist promotion of the region. Documentation activities and publication of tourist guides have guaranteed the knowledge of all the Olympic areas. The interviewees state that the areas of Bardonecchia and Sestriere were included in the tourist promotion circuits and were considered fundamental for the exploitation of international tourism.

"In the region's tourism projects there were four types of tourists: langhe and roero (specialised in food and wine), Turin (cultural tourism), winter mountain (winter sport), summer mountain (summer sport).

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

24. Did the construction of the Olympic Villages in the mountain communities favour a process of territorial expansion by the city of Turin?

Most interviewees agree that the location of the Olympic Village in the mountain communities did not favour the territorial expansion of the city of Turin. In addition, the interviewees state that a rise in tourism in the mountain communities was observed. The interviewees agree that the mountain communities have maintained a certain degree of autonomy in the promotion of tourism and the management of accommodation. The interesting fact stated by the interviewees is related to the change of tourists in the mountain areas. Marin states that in the mountain communities, tourism has changed from Italian to foreigners. In addition, Marin states that Turin International Airport was a key

element in the improvement of its services and the exploitation of international tourism. Marin says that today 20% of Turin's tourism is linked to winter tourism. Furthermore, Viano says that the interventions in the mountain communities made it possible to adjust accommodation and alpine infrastructures that had their history. Through these investments of the Olympic resources, the mountain communities today continue to benefit from the 2006 interventions. On the other hand, some interviewees have stated how some areas near the city of Turin, such as Pinerolo, can nowadays be considered part of the Turin metropolitan area. Interviewees claim that the infrastructural works and the new train lines were two key elements in the unique connections that took place.

"It favoured an adjustment of the accommodation facilities and, in any case, of the infrastructure of the alpine resorts".

Mario Viano (Councillor for Urban Planning Assets of the City of Turin)

Mela reflects on the urban sprawl of the city of Turin in the 1980s, which was stigmatised by the decongestion of the industrial city.

"In the 1980s the city had 1.2 million citizens, today it has less than 900,000".

Alfredo Mela (OMERO Group Researcher)

Moreover, Mela argues that during the Olympic Games there was a fear that the Games could catalyse urban sprawl. The connection between Turin and Pinerolo, the motorway, the railway and the improvement of the road system, inevitably favoured the development of new mobility towards the Olympic valleys. Mela and other interviewees consider that the 2008 crisis has minimised the urban expansion of the city of Turin towards the Olympic valleys and that the urban sprawl of the city was much smaller than expected. Finally, Mela reflects on the institution of the metropolitan city of Turin. This body in Italy, as in other cities in Europe, has become a tool that over the years has lost more and more credibility in the planning of the whole area. Mela argues that small municipalities have lost planning power over time. Nowadays the central city has to counterbalance the loss in the territory.

"The terrain is very complex and being mayor and president of the metropolitan city certainly doesn't help the territory, but only responds to a fringe of voters".

Alfredo Mela (OMERO Group Researcher)

25. Finally, in your opinion, were the midlands excluded from the overall Turin 2006 project?

The answers obtained from the interviewees reflect on a global image of the Olympic territory, with particular attention to the reflection on the middle valleys that the OMERO group advanced during the organisation of the Olympic Games. As this is a very important

object of study for the future of the candidate cities, this last question enabled the interviewees to add their thoughts and reflections on the subject of the valleys in the middle, which function as a transit area between the city and the mountains.

Francesco Avato proposes to open a debate on the centralism of the territories. According to Avato, the problem of Turin's centralism is a result of the political movements of recent years. In fact, the centralism of the city of Turin in the territory has been recovered. According to Avato, the human factor of Chiamparino and Ghigo observed during the Olympic Games allowed for a direct and firm dialogue with the municipalities without any barriers. According to his experience as mayor of Bardonecchia, the valley administrators have never been able to have the last word on an operation imposed by the region.

"You can't say we were excluded, but there certainly wasn't prevalence".

Francesco Avato (Mayor of Bardonecchia - Member of the Steering Committee)

Pietro Bondonio states that this is a very profound claim that was the subject of study by fellow urban planners and sociologists at the University of Turin. Furthermore, Bondonio claims that the theory advanced by DeMatteis on the sustainable development of local communities had been able to relate to the land in between.

"The project changed radically after the victory".

Pietro Bondonio (Researcher of the OMERO group)

Marta Bottero says that she remembers this image that the OMERO group remembered of the midlands. In her opinion and experience, this image of the midlands remains a real image of the Olympic territory. Moreover, Bottero affirms that the infrastructural interventions of the Olympic Games, being separated into related works and accompanying works, have referred to the whole Olympic territory without considering the midlands, which still have this definition today.

"Surely there is still Middle Earth. That was the conclusion of our relationship as well".

Marta Bottero (Researcher at the SITI Institute)

Meanwhile, Maria Caire states that, during the Olympic event, the whole territory benefited from the flow of people. Yet, this flow of people should be considered an indirect phenomenon of the Olympic Games. Moreover, Caire reflects on the importance of the spatial dimension of the Olympic event for the city of Turin and the whole territory of Piedmont.

"I think it was an important moment and an important event for the area, without which Turin would not be where it is".

Maria Caire (Olympic Education Project Manager)

Caire underlines the lack of a post-Olympic vision during the planning and implementation phase which could have allowed for better use of the Olympic legacy. On the other hand, in his opinion, part of the Olympic legacy was used because it was enhanced at certain times and because its post-Olympic destination was clear. Otherwise, some works have certainly been forgotten and neglected.

"I am not talking about financial resources, but also about ideas".

Maria Caire (Olympic Education Project Manager)

Valentino Castellani, like other interviewees, says that this is a very interesting question. In his opinion, Pinerolo can be defined by the middle term. Castellani states that this middle part of the territory has been significantly privileged. On the other hand, the Val Di Susa, in his opinion, could have been more highly valued in the post-Olympic period if a virtuous system of connection between the city and the Olympic valleys had been created, as provided by the OMERO group.

"The midlands have remained absent from the Olympic process".

Valentino Castellani (President TOROC)

Roberto Daneo, says that the organisation has tried to integrate many of the valleys that have inevitably not come to light.

"From the point of view of image performance, they have not benefited much.

Roberto Daneo (Director of Institutional Relations with the Territory)

In the meantime, Daneo wants to reflect on the territorial operations that the Olympic project included. The infrastructural investments were made to improve territorial mobility and to solve some communication problems due to the morphology of the territory of the industrial city of Turin. Daneo affirms that the *Avilana* ring road solved many problems in the Lower Susa Valley, which was considered a conflict point for the organisation of the territory. Equally important was the *Variante di Porte*, which allowed several municipalities to recover their urban centres that were previously crossed by car traffic.

Furthermore, Daneo affirms that they also tried to promote local and typical products to enhance the whole territory. In conclusion, Daneo concluded that this interview was well constructed and contained many fundamental points to understand the Olympic event in Turin and its territorial heritage.

"Turin 2006 has changed the face of Turin".

Roberto Daneo (Director of Institutional Relations with the Territory)

Giuseppe Gattino, like other interviewees, states that the connection between Turin and Pinerolo was one of the most important works to make the city of Pinerolo better connected to the city of Turin. According to him, the idea was to build a compact territory that could be better connected and interconnected between the internal connection systems.

"Including other territories was complex, expensive and more difficult".

Giuseppe Gattino (Head of Press Department - TOROC)

On the other hand, Gros says that in his opinion and experience, the midlands were not excluded from the Olympic project. Furthermore, living in Sauze d'Oulx, he says that there has always been a connection between the upper and lower valleys. Moreover, he says that the citizens of the valleys work and interact with the city of Turin daily. Gros also states that, during the winter season, many residents of the lower valleys work in the upper valley.

"You have to look at it in a general context. We only look at our backyard."

Piero Gros (Mayor of the Olympic Volunteers)

Meanwhile, Alessandro Guala says that, if we have to be honest, the midlands were excluded from the Olympic project. He also says that perhaps nothing more could have been done.

"The only exception is the case of Pinerolo with its palasport for curling".

Alessandro Guala (Researcher of the OMERO group)

Valter Marin says that if there was an exclusion from the Olympic project, it was certainly not from the point of view of equipment and infrastructure. In addition, he says that the participation of the citizens of the valleys during the Olympic event was deeply felt. Marin, like other interviewees, says that the ring road has improved and benefited the whole territorial system and can be considered a smart choice on the part of the Olympic project.

"In my opinion, it was the intelligent choice of a greater territorial involvement that meant that it was not just one area that benefited, but a much wider territory".

Valter Marin (Mayor of Pragelato - Managing Director of Agenzia Torino)

Meanwhile, Alfredo Mela, like other interviewees, claims that the Olympic project has not paid much attention to these medium-sized areas. But, in his opinion, the fact that they were not included in the Olympic project led to the initial exclusion of these areas. Mela states that there was certainly integrated planning of the Olympic territory which, unfortunately, being a fragmented territory, led to different results. Moreover, Mela

reflects on the territorial elements of Piemonte, which were not only composed of the dual activities between the city and the mountains but also the intermediate areas.

"In the absence of external pressures, a global policy was adopted, oriented towards the globality of the project".

Alfredo Mela (Researcher of the OMERO Group)

Roberto Saini says that this thought is a curiosity that he has not been able to get out of his head. Saini reflects on the annexed works and investments that were made in territories in the north of Turin that were also not in the Olympic territory. In addition, Saini claims that some areas of the territory received funds from the Piedmont Region as an effect of territorial compensation.

"There may be a political reason. So, these trade-offs were determined by this kind of reasoning".

Roberto Saini (Environment Director - TOROC)

Meanwhile, Mario Viano agrees with most of the interviewees on the exclusion of the midlands. In his opinion, the intermediate valleys that did not host the Olympic Games in terms of works and facilities were largely left out of the Olympic project. Moreover, Viano states that in his opinion it is not so bad for the diversification of interventions in the mountains. Viano concludes that the mountain, being a sensitive territory, should only diversify the tourist offer, diminishing the possibilities of transforming itself into an amusement park.

"There is a wilderness in the mountains that must be preserved".

Mario Viano (Councillor for Urban Planning Assets of the City of Turin)

Through the contributions of all the interviewees, we have been able to observe how the territorial planning of the Olympic space of the Turin Olympic Games was quite complex. Turin in 2006 was the first Winter Olympic Games to attempt a process of territorial transformation within a regional framework. This project, as we have seen, during the planning period, could be modified about the problems or priority interventions for the whole territory under study. We can affirm that the infrastructural works, the railways, the roads and the bypasses have improved the connections and interconnections of the Piemontese territory. The works will bring about a new centrality of the city of Turin in the spatial dimension of the region. A centrality that the city of Turin had lost at the end of the 1980s with the industrial crisis. Moreover, as some interviewees affirm, the exclusion of the middle valleys in the post-Olympic period was a delicate issue that was advanced by the OMERO research group and was not supported by the post-Olympic structure. It should also be stated that the issue of Olympic legacy and the heritage of the Olympic Games was a topic that was not as developed as it is today. The International Olympic Committee in 2005 was advancing guidelines for the definition of these terms.

Therefore, the Turin Olympic project was developed in a global framework comprising a very broad and fragmented territory. As some interviewees state, the post-Olympic planning of the valleys had been able to help improve relations between all the areas that were not included in the Olympic project. The interviewees state that the Turin Olympic event was the only way to move forward with some infrastructural works that were planned many years before the Olympic event. In general terms, the sample considers that the event was positive for the territory and allowed a new development of the international tourism system. In general, it can be observed that the Turin project has created a new territorial planning model for the organisation of the Olympic Games that had never been seen before 2006 in Olympic cities. A metropolis located 200 metres above sea level and six mountain cities. The territorial dimension of the Turin Olympic Games represented the regional geography of the Olympic territory that had never been observed before the event.

7.3. Organising the legacy and post-Olympic governance at Turin 2006. The experience of Olympic witnesses

The analysis of the results obtained from the qualitative research is presented below. In addition, we will try to relate these results to the results obtained from the quantitative research. The following analysis will be carried out through five blocks: 1) Profile of the interviewees; 2) The 2006 Turin Olympic Games; 3) The Olympic legacy; 4) The impact of the Games on the territory; 5) The Olympic Villages.

Profile of interviewees

The people who took part in the survey are researchers, collaborators as well as mayors and teachers who have actively collaborated in the study, planning and execution of the 2006 Turin Olympics. Only some of the interviewees worked exclusively for the Turin Olympics. Most of the interviewees were involved in other research, teaching and monitoring activities during the Turin Olympics. It is therefore important to underline that the interviewees who collaborated as researchers were oriented towards the creation of a global project that could include the entire territory of the Olympic area. These data concerning the participation and collaboration of the interviewees in the study are fundamental for the understanding of the Olympic event and the experience of each of the participants. In addition, some of the interviewees were sponsors of the establishment of a research centre on Mega-events recognised by the International Olympic Committee. The OMERO group and those interviewees involved in it to this day have continued the study of mega sports events and the development of mega-event specific academia. It can be considered that this research group together with *SITI*, *IRES* and *ROTA* was an important part of the study of the Turin Olympic event. Moreover, these groups over time organised many initiatives, conferences and symposia for the observation and study of the Olympic phenomenon. The institutional interviewees, meanwhile, continue to participate in the sports and tourism policies of the Olympic areas in the mountains of Piedmont. Based on

these principles, it is stated that the city of Torino did not have any kind of experience with mega sporting events. This aspect is fundamental to understanding Turin's grand project for the reconstruction of its image as an industrial city. A political and technical governance around a new model of Olympic planning that for the first time included different stakeholders and different levels of involvement.

The heterogeneity of the sample allows us to observe the Turin Olympics in all their magnitude. All the interviewees are familiar with the territory of Piedmont and its development over time.

The 2006 Turin Olympics

Continuing with the analysis of the results of the qualitative research, this second thematic block is based on the aspects relating to and specific to the experience of each participant in the organisation, study and observation of the Turin Olympics. One could begin by observing how the sample affirms that the most evident and permanent changes were the physical changes in the city and the territory. Moreover, it is interesting to note how the interviewees are optimistic about the change in the image of the city of Turin as a result of the Olympic event. We can also highlight two interesting aspects highlighted by the interviewees: the physical changes and the social changes. These two aspects were the most important aspects observed by the interviewees in the period following the Turin Olympics. The physical changes induced by the Turin Olympics began with the end of the industrial era and only through the Olympic event where they realised. It is therefore fundamental to point out the Strategic Plan of the city of Turin of 2000 and the general master plan of 1995. These two plans turn out to be two fundamental elements for the organisation and execution of the Olympic works in the city of Turin. Firstly, the Strategic Plan of the city of Turin was the first document to mention the Olympic event as a strategy for the revaluation and reconstruction of a new post-industrial city. This document, through specific lines of intervention, has been able to guarantee the city of Turin an intangible development. The interviewees affirmed that this plan made it possible to have some general guidelines for the construction and the predisposition of the Olympic project. Secondly, the 1995 master plan is another fundamental element for the revaluation and reuse of empty spaces in the city of Turin. The 1995 Turin masterplan was a plan that began to take shape already in the 1970s and then accelerated. This plan was based on the radical changes in the industrial structure of the city. For the city of Turin, as for other cities in Italy and Europe, these radical transformations led to changes in railway lines, the closure of industrial plants and the relocation of production activities outside the city. The central location of industrial plants had long conditioned the urban reconstruction of many industrial cities, without allowing for a new post-industrial future. During the 1990s, through the new general Masterplan of 1995 by Gregotti and Cagnardi, a new city was developed in a context of radical economic change for the city of Turin and the Piemontese territory. These changes referred to the stereotypes of the time:

- The industrial decline of traditional sectors.

- The promotion of tertiary activities.
- The office drive.
- The reuse of abandoned areas.

From the first decades of the twentieth century, Turin became the capital of big industry through a high concentration of scientific and technological knowledge and large availability of capital induced by the strong role of the public administration. The industrial crisis of the FIAT automobile industry triggered important processes of social and urban transformation in the city of Turin. Since the second half of the 1990s, some 3 million square metres of industrial areas have been abandoned in the city of Turin. In addition, thousands of small businesses and commercial activities were closed down, causing social unrest that manifested itself through hundreds of suicides of people expelled from the production process. In this context, the city of Turin realised its master plan through an almost unanimous political and cultural convergence based on the following fundamental choices:

- The decision to create a new urban layout.
- The decision to seek investment in mobility infrastructure favours restricted zones.
- The decision to find a strategic alliance with the owners of Turin industries.

In this context, the choice of Valentino Castellani's administration was to accept the processes of de-industrialisation by trying to accelerate the tertiarization of the city. The general master plan of 1995 can be considered the main tool supporting the change of the socio-urban form of the city of Turin. The capacity of the plan was 1.5 million inhabitants. This is probably very overestimated if we take into consideration that today 900,000 thousand people live in Turin. In 1995, the new PRG of Turin was approved, which was characterised first of all by its attention to the issue of the structuring of the urban territory. Secondly, as a reference tool for the implementation of new urban policies. The structural vision of territorial organisation has as its founding elements the transformation of infrastructures, mobility and the proposal of a new urban design. The Plan's status as a reference is linked to the commitment of the city administration to manage the certainties of the approved plan, while at the same time questioning some of its parts. The Turin Master Plan, approved by the region in 1995, includes the following main lines:

- Elimination of industrial zones. Including the areas of the so-called *Spina Centrale*, covering 3 million square metres.
- The identification of the central corridor of the city consisting of the *Spina Centrale*. This *Spina Centrale* is crossed from north to south by the so-called "Boulevard", created to cover the metro line, as a privileged place for the settlement of 23,000 inhabitants and 32,000 workers in the service sector. It is concerning this location that the suitability and heights of the various skyscrapers, already identified by the Master Plan and subsequently enhanced by specific initiatives. Are being discussed today: the Intesa-San Paolo offices, the regional offices, and the Ligresti skyscraper.

In essence, the *Spina* areas are considered by the Plan as the place in which to concentrate functions and forms charged with symbolic importance to be exhibited (and exploited economically) not only locally, but nationally and internationally. This area of the *Spina Centrale*, in the Turin Olympic bid dossier, was identified as the proposed area for the development of the Turin Olympic Village. After the nomination of Turin as an Olympic city, the planning of the Village was shifted to the southern area of the city. This change in the initial project also allows us to observe how the planning and organisational conditions of the Olympic Games change after the Olympic nomination. Meanwhile, other fundamental elements of the plan are related to the indifference with which the plan treats the environmental conditions of the city, in particular, that of the older neighbourhoods near the *Spina* (Centro, Crocetta, San Paolo, Cenisia, Cit Turin, San Donato, Aurora-Rossini, Barriera di Milano). Very densely populated neighbourhoods (about 350,000 inhabitants), characterised by a high density of buildings and mainly tertiary activities (7.5 million square metres), absolutely lacking in specific spaces for social services. Observing the urban transformations of the city of Turin, it seems that the urban planning drawing board of the *Spina* areas has been completely separated from the rest of the urban context. The work to be covered with elements (in terms of quality and quantity) alien to the urban reality and summarised in the theme: "*To concretise rare functions in the central sector of the city*". Finally, the Plan included other lines of interventions related to the lack of attention to the cultural heritage that has characterised many of the city's industrial settlements throughout its history. So, in 1995 the Plan was approved and put into action. A key element of the plan is the rediscovery of an old theme that was already present in the debates of the 1950s: the effort to connect the north and south of the city by creating the main road axis. The so-called *Spina* is built by covering the railway and connecting a series of disused industrial areas called "*Spina: 1,2,3,4*".

The *Spina Centrale*, the most attractive of the transformations, is crossed by the grand boulevard, served by the rail *Passante* and the existing and planned stations. In addition, the *Spina* is served by the interchange with the metro line under construction and with the provision to include the most important public functions in these areas. Equally important to the General Plan is the Strategic Plan for Turin, which includes a specific line of action for the promotion of Turin as a cultural, tourist, commercial and sporting city.

The strategic line objectives of the 2000 Strategic Plan were as follows:

1. Valorisation and development of cultural heritage.
2. Coordination of cultural activities and planning of international events.
3. Develop the tourism industry.
4. Positioning of the destination Turin/Piedmont on the international tourism market.
5. Support the growth and innovation of the commercial network in the area.

6. Promote sport.

7. Use the Winter Olympics as an engine for development and international promotion.

As confirmed by most of the interviewees, the inclusion of the 2006 Olympic Games in the 2000 Strategic Plan of the city of Turin has ensured common lines for the transformation of the city of Turin at the urban and tourism levels. The interviewees affirm that the city of Turin, thanks to the Olympic nomination, has been able to benefit from and implement some challenges that have been waiting to be realised for 50 years. Furthermore, it is interesting to reflect on the change of image and perception of the city of Turin towards the outside world. As some authors state, the image changes have brought about a change in the socio-economic fabric of Turin. The interviewees agree on the importance of the existence of these plans, which were the main support for the management structure of the Olympic works. Several interviewees consider that the management structure of the Games was something that would be difficult to replicate. Having and pursuing a common intervention philosophy in the organisation of the Turin Olympic project is a very complex thing to do in observation of the Olympic past experiences. Moreover, the synergies between the different political currents between the city and the region made it possible to establish a common objective that went beyond political ideals. Observing a strategic line, having a common plan, and executing the plan in the directory, allowed for fluidity in communications and interventions on the territory. While, on the other hand, the social changes in the city of Turin can be observed through the guide lines of the Strategic Plan and in the legacy of the Olympic Games in the city of Turin. Reflecting with the interviewees and considering the 2000 Strategic Plan, the Olympic event should be seen as an opportunity for the creation of a new image of the city of Turin. At the same time, resources were made available for investments in certain parts that would have certainly benefited from these specific Olympic investments. According to the interviewees, the Turin Olympics were a great opportunity to implement and update mechanisms that the city needed since the end of the industrial era. In this sense, the Olympics allowed for all the interventions on the urban fabric that redefined the image of the post-industrial city of Turin. The constitution of cultural spaces, international exhibitions, film promotion, regional tourist agency support and international communication through the Olympic Games, as most of the authors state, contributed significantly to the reconstruction of the image of the city of Turin. Moreover, the interviewees state that the change in Turin's image took place at the national level, but above all at the international level. The interviewees who have participated in international sessions for the study or dissemination of the Olympic event affirm that in the early 2000s the city of Turin was not known at the international level. Turin, the historic capital of Italy and an industrial and technological city of world excellence. So, the city of Turin has been able to develop its own identity thanks to the organisation of the 2006 Olympic Games. This change of perception at a global level, as some authors claim, was a long process favoured by many transversal programmes and longitudinal research that were designed to promote the city and the territory at an international level. Thus, the city of Turin, thanks to

the Olympic Games, started a process of internationalisation that continues to this day and changes the way it relates to sporting and cultural events. Some of the interviewees affirm that this process of internationalisation of the city of Turin was long and guaranteed the city's entry into the international travel and event circuits. This new philosophy of intervention can be considered the main element for the international positioning of Turin as a historical, cultural and sporting city.

On the other hand, an analysis of the Strategic Plan of the city of Turin shows the main actions for the valorisation and development of the cultural heritage:

- Valorisation of the Egyptian heritage.
- To upgrade and enhance the central system of urban museums.
- Promotion of the city of Turin as a City of Cinema.
- Completing the recovery of the *Reggia di Venaria Reale*
- To create an international exhibition centre in Turin.
- Promote Turin's candidacy as European Capital of Culture.

The main actions in the development of the tourism industry were the following:

- Expand, develop and diversify the accommodation offer, with a special focus on the 2006 Winter Olympics, encouraging the creation of international hotels.
- To develop the trade fair centre by promoting events dedicated to the automobile, culture, training and gastronomy.
- Develop the congress centre through the creation of a *Convention Bureau with a unified policy for the promotion of congress activities.*

Moreover, the positioning of Turin and Piedmont as a destination in the national and international tourist market was pursued through these main actions:

- To create and reinforce the Turin/Piemonte product on the national and international tourist market, defining historical, cultural and sporting itineraries.
- Build itineraries and programmes aimed at specific tourists such as: youth, school, religious, business, cultural or sports tourism.
- Facilitate the creation of specific tourism packages.
- Create a committee to disseminate the food and gastronomic culture of the city and its territory at national and international level by opening a regional wine shop in Turin.

Finally, the change of image of the city of Turin was based on the promotion of sport and the channelling of the Winter Olympics into a global transformation of the perception of Turin's image.

In this respect, the main actions for the promotion of Turin as a sports city were the following:

- Promote sport as a means of improving quality of life and social cohesion.
- Increase and improve the usability of sports facilities.
- Promote the internationalisation of sport in Turin as a tourist and cultural attraction.
- To develop the tourism movement linked to sport.

Moreover, Turin's Strategic Plan, among its strategic lines, included and considered the Olympic Games as an engine for the development and international promotion of the city. As most of the interviewees stated, the Turin Olympics were included in a reconstruction and revaluation project that had already been launched at the end of the industrial era. This project was integrated into the Strategic Plan to be able to observe global lines that were related to other aspects and objectives for the post-industrial future of Turin. In the strategic plan, the use of the Olympic Games was based on the following specific actions:

- Location and construction of the Olympic Village in *Spina 3*, a factor of urban regeneration and new centrality of the athletes' complex.
- Build new sports facilities and adapt existing ones for the Winter Olympics, to be used in the future as sports and/or cultural centres.
- Locate the construction of the two Media Villas in areas of new centrality and redevelopment, defining their strategic use.

As expressed in the Strategic Plan, the image of Turin, before the Olympics, was still very much linked to the industrial tradition of the city. For this reason, the Olympic Games were of fundamental importance to enhance, strengthen and promote the historical and cultural potential of the city of Turin in the wider sense of tourist interest. The Strategic Plan expressed the need to bridge the gap between Turin and the remaining part of Piedmont through a mechanism of synergies that is differentiated on the basis of the relationship between the potential of these two territories. In relation to the positioning of the city of Turin in the tourism market, the project was very ambitious for the realisation of the objectives. This project, so ambitious in its objectives, was carried out through the involvement of all the actors of the city and the region working in the tourism sector. The inclusion of all the actors has allowed for a global vision and a recovery of the identity of the local food and wine tradition, thus bringing about a new development and boost to trade and entrepreneurship. The Strategic Plan notes that failure to implement an integrated project in the food production sector would lead to the gradual disappearance of the culture and typical products of the Piemontese food and wine tradition. At the same time, the promotion of sport aims to improve the opportunities for sports practice through the use of the spaces and facilities developed for the Olympic Games and for the promotion of Turin as a sports city. A city with an international vocation cannot forget the aspect of sport, which goes in the direction of improving urban quality both in terms of the services offered and in terms of sport as a factor of social integration. In this sense, the guarantee of access to facilities for the most disadvantaged sectors of society takes on great importance, which was reinforced by the administration's desire to organise and develop the Winter Olympics

and Paralympics. The city of Turin, before the Olympics, was in a process of clear regression in terms of the disappearance of sports facilities destined for the city, causing a rapid deterioration and reducing the possibilities of use by the citizens, which could even lead to a worsening of the quality of life.

The 2006 Winter Olympics was a general opportunity for all local sport. The link with a world-class international event allowed the city of Turin to host a series of sporting events culminating in the 2006 Winter Olympics. The points of contact between the international event and the local amateur sporting event must be parallel in order to have a broad resonance. The specific actions for the development of Turin as a city of sporting events thanks to the Olympic Games, aims to create a network of sporting events either in the form of venues or as trails, allowing all users to understand the value and richness of the territory. The sporting tradition of the city of Turin was the ideal breeding ground for the accomplishment of this important and complex task: sport, like other sectors, cannot live or be managed separately or apart from the economic, historical, social and landscape aspects of the territory itself.

About this specific point, the Strategic Plan defines three different levels for the development and promotion of Turin as a sports city:

- The sporting event is a once-in-a-season or one-off event.
- Sport as a spectacle, as a periodic event.
- Recreational sport, considered as a moment of relaxation and enjoyment of the natural and scenic aspects of the area.

In this sense, the promotion of Turin as a sports city was based on tourist facilities and services.

Another aspect to be taken into consideration is related to the urban quality of the reuse and upgrading interventions. New centralities, urban renewal, social integration as a strategy for the dissemination of cohesion and urban regeneration were the key points for the exploitation of the Turin model. The Winter Olympic Games represent an opportunity for the host city to move forward and take significant steps in improving the accommodation capacity of the local area. The Olympic Village, the Media Villas and the new student residences have allowed the city of Turin to activate new centralities in the *Spina* area and in the southern area of the city. Moreover, the new areas are effectively connected to the city centre thanks to the construction of the metropolitan railway service. All in all, both qualitative and quantitative research focus on the socio-urban changes brought about by the Olympic Games. Changes that should always be supported by strategic plans and the master plan, as they include the extraordinary realisation of the Olympic Games in the normality of urban changes. But at the same time, the organisation of the Olympic Games induces some social changes that form the immaterial part of the intangible elements of the Olympic Games. The results show how the city must provide and develop the Olympic project 10 to 15 years in advance in order not to provoke a boomerang effect for the city and the urban fabric. This intervention philosophy has

allowed the city of Turin to position itself internationally as a historical, cultural and sporting city. Also, the city of Turin through the reconversions and revaluations of the industrial zones has enjoyed new processes of reusing the areas, which have strengthened the relationships of all territorial stakeholders. The results show how the Turin Olympics were a strong means of promoting and channelling processes and practices that are still part of the Piemontese population today. The response and social participation are two of the most emblematic points for the perception of a new image of the city of Turin to the world. Moreover, the Turin Olympic Games are considered as the first Olympic event that included the strategic environmental assessment for the realisation of the Olympic works in the host city. As stated by most of the authors, sustainability in the Turin Olympics was only applied in some revaluation and reconversion works. The interviewees state that, in mountain areas, environmental and social sustainability did not take into account the diversity of interventions in the Alpine territory. Moreover, some interviewees state that, at that time, the concepts of sustainability at a holistic level were not as developed as they are today. This consideration allows us to affirm that the definition of sustainability has evolved over time and the Turin Olympics were an occasion to reflect on the sustainability of the Olympic project in the metropolitan areas of the cities. Respondents agree on the importance of SEA for the control and monitoring of structural interventions in terms of Olympic sustainability. The sample of the qualitative interview results allows to understand how the interviewees confirm what is expressed in the Strategic Plan for the development of a new city and a new image of Turin. The interviewees identify the sports facilities, the reconversion of public spaces and infrastructures as the most representative examples of the sustainability of the Turin Olympics. The transformations brought about by the Olympic Games in the urban and social sphere are still a driving force in the transformation processes of the city of Turin today. Lastly, the interviewees expressed their personal opinion on the factors that can condition the success of the Olympic event in relation to their direct experience in the city of Turin. Respondents agree on the importance of governance leadership for the design of a comprehensive project for the city. Furthermore, the institutionalisation of a dominant structure for the Olympic works, according to the interviewees, is another element that can condition the success of the project and the realisation of the Olympic facilities without overstretching the capacity. Viano states that the city of Turin was able to make human resources available, as it was well aware that this opportunity could not be missed within the framework of the medium and long-term transformation of the city of Turin. Thus, the majority of the interviewees affirm that leadership and teamwork are two fundamental elements that can positively or negatively influence the realisation of the event, determining its future success.

The Olympic Legacy

Following, the analysis focuses on the management of Olympic heritage, defined by the IOC through the term Olympic legacy. In 2010 the IOC defines the difference between Olympic impact and Olympic legacy. Impact is identified as the economic result on the city while legacy is identified as a long-term and positive element.

These two concepts are related and intertwined in different areas:

1. Cultural, social and political
2. Environmental
3. Economic
4. Urban
5. Sports

Thus, we can see how the areas of interventions are different and relate to each other for the development of an overall project. In this sense we can define impact as a defined element that can be direct, indirect, temporary or permanent and short or long term. Impact measured through the results of the cities. On the other hand, Olympic heritage is used to describe the positive elements and long-term post-Olympic effects on candidate cities. For this reason, the term legacy is used to define the tangible and intangible benefits of the Olympic Games. This emphasis on benefits over time has caused much confusion among Olympic organisers and researchers. Moreover, the Olympic heritage should also be considered as a negative legacy in case the facilities are abandoned or oversized. So, as stated by the IOC, it is essential to have a holistic long-term vision that can compare and monitor the positive and negative legacy of the Olympic project every year. Before analysing the results of the qualitative and quantitative analyses, it is essential to distinguish two forms of Olympic heritage: tangible legacy, intangible legacy (Preuss, 2000). The opinion of the interviewees confirms that Olympic legacy, introduced since 2000 and fully implemented only since the London 2012 Games, was a concept in the planning years of the Turin Olympics in the development phase. As we have noted, Olympic legacy can be divided into tangible and intangible legacy.

These are some examples of the tangible legacy related to mega-events:

- Sports and non-sports facilities (new construction, reuse, re-purposing)
- Infrastructures (transport, mobility, etc...)
- Urban fabric and beautification (improvement of the urban areas of the city and works of revaluation of spaces).
- Urban regeneration and rehabilitation.
- Telecommunications.
- Services.

Meanwhile, about intangible legacy, the elements are not so easy to identify and standardise for all cities, but can sometimes have more important direct and indirect effects than tangible factors:

- National or regional pride.
- Improved policies and practices.

- New and improved skills and knowledge of the works.
- Changes in attitude.
- Local governance.
- New application methodologies in construction, event management and negotiations.
- Worldwide recognition of the city/country.
- Olympic education.
- Rediscovery of national culture.
- Environmental awareness and sensitisation.

A short-term, temporary or transitory legacy may manifest itself before, during or after the games. It can quickly disappear after the event if efforts are not made to keep it alive through, for example, cultural programming, new environmental legislation, public awareness programming or new wider applications. Interviewees agree on the lack of post-Olympic management planning at the Turin Olympics for the development of a long-term Olympic legacy. In recent years, Olympic legacy and legacy planning have become increasingly important in the choice of host cities. Importance that has allowed many cities, such as London, Sydney, Tokyo, to develop an entity charged solely with the planning and management of the post-Olympic legacy. The intangible possibility of training and involving new profiles in the territory proves to be fundamental to be able to manage the Olympic structures in the post-Olympic period. The management of the Olympic legacy should be implemented through different tangible and intangible resources that can support the post-Olympic project as a whole. The professionalism of resources, the definition of objectives, management tools and human resources, are some of the key elements for the organisation of a working team for the post-Olympic transformation of the host cities. Other elements of support provided by the International Olympic Committee are related to knowledge management and the transfer of knowledge to future candidate cities.

The OGKM programme is structured through the following tools:

- Written information.
- Images and video.
- Experience.
- Human capital.

Performance indicators are a form of communication that the general public finds easy to understand and can also be an effective way to attract media attention.

On the other hand, the sport legacy in the candidate cities can be observed through infrastructures, new permanent venues, the improvement of existing facilities, the increase and rehabilitation of new sport venues and the promotion of sport equipment. On the other hand, the sport legacy for the population can be observed through citizen participation in sport events and sport practice. In relation to sporting legacy, organisers should ensure that the use and configuration of a facility takes into account the experience and form of each city, in consideration of its incorporation into a circuit of sporting facilities. In addition,

consultation with local residents and potential future users will provide insight into the demands and needs of each user in the post-Olympic period. Finally, reducing the size of a facility after the Olympic period by building a mix of structures is only part of the overall facilities.

Meanwhile, cultural, social and political aspects cover the practices by which society is governed and organised:

- Individual freedoms.
- Dialogue between different religions and ethnic groups.
- Integration of the disabled.
- Fight against exclusion.
- Security and political dialogue.
- Education.
- Rights.

The Olympics can also bring about a change in behaviour and attitude that can be brought about through the inspiration generated by the Olympic event.

- Volunteering.
- Cultural pride.
- Increased self-esteem.
- Awareness raising and empowerment.
- Community empowerment and civic awareness.
- Inclusion.
- Interest in and knowledge of the country's history and culture.
- Interest in and knowledge of art and gastronomy.

In this sense, new forms of governance and attitudes during the different phases of candidature and post-Olympic planning can be catalytic elements for the mobilisation of new attractive forces for the region and the city. This new force could allow for the development of a new form of governance and territorial cooperation. Moreover, the use of the Olympic brand can temporarily project an image of excellence and inspiration for many people in the world. This element is essential, especially in the run-up to the Olympic Games, in order to associate the image of the city with the mega-event. The association of the image can generate new values and new forms of inspiration for the contribution of new community social projects and other educational initiatives.

Meanwhile, the environmental legacies of the Olympics can be broadly broken down into the following categories:

- Improvement, implementation and preservation of the environment.
- Environmentally friendly design and construction of Olympic facilities.
- Promotion of new environmental management practices and standards.
- Demonstration of new techniques and environmentally friendly technology.

- New approaches to the procurement of sustainable processes and contractual sponsorship requirements.

The first two categories constitute tangible legacies that largely benefit local communities. The latter may also include tangible legacies adopted and applied further afield, although their specific impact is often more difficult to calculate.

Finally, the urban legacy of the Olympics can be divided into three main categories:

- Urban renewal.
- Construction of new urban areas.
- Improvement of infrastructural networks.

Urban renewal represents a unique opportunity for the renovation of candidate cities and the beautification of urban areas that will be part of the Olympic project. The objective of the International Olympic Committee is to encourage the creation of a more attractive place to live with a higher quality of life through better spatial conditions and by setting long-term goals. In this sense, the renovation and beautification of spaces is a fundamental factor in the construction of a touristic and accessible city for all (globally). Meanwhile, the construction of new urban areas, the evolution of transport lines and the expansion of the service sector are the main factors that explain the appearance of large areas of industrial wasteland, abandoned railway land in strategic areas for the new future of cities. The connection between these areas will be fundamental for the implementation of the infrastructure project and for the improvement of viability in the host city. The need for infrastructure to host the Olympic Games meets the opportunity to mobilise the necessary forces for the development of new neighbourhoods and new suburbs. On the other hand, the improvement of infrastructure networks can determine the success of the Olympic organisations and requires reliable, fast and safe transport. For example, Beijing invested 20 billion in the transport and road infrastructure sector alone in 2008. The interviewees, in relation to the post-Olympic management of the Turin Olympics, agree on the lack of a specific organisation that could have been developed during the period of the Olympic event. The qualitative and quantitative samples allow us to observe how this aspect turns out to be key in the planning of the post-Olympic legacy. Professors, researchers and Olympic consultants affirm that the Olympic legacy absolutely needs to be managed separately and in parallel to the Olympic event. The lack of planning for the Turin Olympics, according to those interviewed, has led to a lack of transparency in the management of the post-Olympic legacy. Furthermore, it is important to point out that in 2006 a public foundation was developed for the management of the Olympic facilities on the territory of Turin. The *Fondazione 20 Marzo 2006*, a private entity created after the Olympic event, sponsored by its public bodies: *Regione Piemonte, Provincia di Torino, Comune di Torino* and *CONI*, with the aim of managing the movable and immovable heritage of the 2006 Turin Olympic Games. Thus, since 2006, as the interviewees affirm, the Foundation was the only entity responsible for the post-Olympic heritage. The Foundation, being an organisation under private law and created by public entities, is managed as if it were a public entity. In addition, the Foundation has over the years

transferred the management of the Olympic assets and facilities to a joint venture company. The company *Parcoolimpico s.r.l.*, was founded in 2012 in order to carry out maintenance work by a joint venture with a private partner chosen through a public agreement. The company *Parco Olimpico* is 10% owned by the Foundation and 90% by a private partner (Get Live 2 - Controlled by Live Nation). This company is currently responsible for the management and maintenance of the Olympic facilities and the Olympic heritage as a whole. Interviewees claim that this solution has saved public money, valorising and exploiting the Olympic venues for events over a time span of 16 years. The Foundation was the first example of a physical legacy organisational structure related to the Olympic event. In the past, only public or private companies had been set up for the management and maintenance of all Olympic facilities. For example, in Barcelona, the structures were transferred to the public promotion entity, which to this day is in charge of the operation and maintenance of the Olympic structures. With regard to the *Fondazione 20 Marzo 2006*, some of the interviewees affirm that this entity was planned too late and without a specific plan for the development of sport in the Piedmont community. On the other hand, some authors claim that the lack of foresight was the factor that negatively influenced the use and exploitation of the Olympic facilities. The bobsleigh and ski jumping facilities are still abandoned today with an uncertain future. The interviewees affirm that these two Olympic facilities were and still are the problem and the most negative point of the 2006 Turin Olympics. On the other hand, their abandonment has led to a lack of interest on the part of the Italian Olympic Committee, which, according to the interviewees, did not fulfil its commitment. Meanwhile, with regard to the entity responsible for the structural legacy of the Turin Olympics, the 20 March 2006 Foundation, most of the interviewees had no involvement in the post-Olympic period. Among all the interviewees, only Francesco Avato, Valter Marin and Piero Gros have had or continue to have relations with the 20 March 2006 Foundation. Francesco Avato is the current incumbent president of the foundation, after Valter Marin was president from 2013 to 2018. Meanwhile, Piero Gros had a two-year relationship in the post-Olympic period (2006-2008). This sample identifies a lack of involvement of the subjects who participated directly or indirectly in the planning and study of the Olympic legacy.

As affirmed by the interviewees and the contributions of Guala, Dansero and Mela, the Turin Olympics have allowed the city to change its image for the whole world. This transformation can be identified as the ultimate intangible legacy of the Turin Olympics. The transformation of Turin's image, as affirmed by some respondents, is a process that continues to evolve to this day. Looking at the sporting calendar for 2021, the city of Turin will once again be on the international sporting events circuit. The possibility of hosting the ATP tennis final, the European Baseball Championships and a National League football match is just one more example of the indirect and subsequent benefits of the Turin 2006 Olympic Games. The Olympic legacy has allowed the city of Turin to boost and reactivate itself as a central city in the regional space, successively asserting itself as a metropolitan city. This development perspective has enabled the city of Turin to transfer new values and symbols to its citizens. The strengthening of group values and local

identity has allowed Turin to develop a voluntary organisation, which to this day is still the main sponsor of organised sporting events. This phenomenon of citizen participation, as stated by the interviewees, can be considered as the intangible heritage of the renaissance of Turin's post-industrial society. Moreover, according to the respondents, the Olympic legacy project should be a clear project involving all local entities in order to act and develop specific long-term actions. Equally important is the creation of a specific post-Olympic planning entity that can exploit the physical legacy of the Olympic Games. As stated by the authors, the City of Turin developed the post-Olympic management foundation only in 2006. This fact, according to most of the interviewees, has caused a loss of opportunities for the Piemonte territory. Therefore, it can be stated with certainty that the post-Olympic planning needs a specific long-term plan that includes citizens and local entities. According to the participants of this study, nowadays post-Olympic planning should be considered as a fundamental piece in the organisation of the citizens' heritage. Moreover, some interviewees state that planning should be specific to the post-Olympic phase as some processes are totally different and need other entities, resources and tools. Finally, respondents stated that the lack of a specific entity and commission for the development of sport events at national level led to a loss of specialised human resources. Thus, being two different processes in two different stages, the Olympic legacy should always be carried out with the maximum attention and participation of citizens, universities and local entities. Only through the integrated participation of all subjects sharing the territory, the host city will be able to benefit from the intangible legacy in the long term. Moreover, continuous and integrated planning will allow the territory to update the overall planning processes according to the demands of the citizens. The Olympic project, according to the interviewees, should be seen as a dynamic and long-term process. Only through a longitudinal observation, the Olympic event can be considered in the totality of its positive and negative effects. Thus, the interviewees state that the city of Turin identified the city of Barcelona as its urban model of post-industrial transformation to follow. Coordination between the mayors of the two cities and the participation of consultants, such as Enric Truño in the Turin Olympics, allowed for the implementation of measures that followed a model of transformation in another Olympic city. The orientation of the project through the experiences of the other cities is a process that has become more and more relevant nowadays. The lack of consideration of host cities in relation to past experience can be seen as a flaw in the Olympic design. The experiences of host cities should be considered and studied by the organising committees to reduce the chances of defeat observed in Montreal 76, Athens 04, Sochi 14 and Rio 16. The interviewees agree on the influence of the other cities on the host city project. The International Olympic Committee's exchange and knowledge transfer programmes, according to the interviewees, are a fundamental part of the host city's transformation process for the organisation of the Olympic event. While experiences differ in relation to different urban and territorial morphologies and structures, Olympic experiences continue to evolve and the Olympic territory continues to expand. This expansion of the territorial dimension of the Winter Olympics began with the Turin Olympics and will continue with the choice of Milan and Cortina for 2026. The organisation of the 2026 Winter Olympics follows a territorial

expansion project that will be implemented by other territories and another region of the host country. This aspect of expansion can be related to the Turin model which the Organising Committee has taken as an example into consideration in its organising tables. In addition, it is interesting how the Milan-Cortina project aims to develop an involvement of local communities in different phases of the Olympic project and at different levels of intervention. The interviewees agree on the importance of a long-term strategy underpinning different strategic plans for the future of the host cities and the territory. Barcelona, like Turin, had different strategic plans and renewed masterplans to support the major physical and social transformations observed in the different Olympic cities. Strategic plans allow cities to develop different scenarios that can and should be implemented in the cities over time. The programming of strategic lines and defined objectives makes it possible to observe a common development plan and strategy among all the stakeholders of the territory. So, in this sense, the Olympic Games were only a few elements within a larger and more complex strategy that could not have been generated if the cities had not been Olympic cities. These extraordinary Olympic projects, as argued by many authors, were embedded in an urban structure that fitted into more complex plans for deeper transformations in the post-industrial society of Barcelona and Turin. The interviewees agree on the importance of the Olympics as simply an intangible opportunity for the socio-urban transformations of the host cities. The identification of the Olympic project as extraordinary within an ordinary transformation of the urban fabric can be a key factor in the physical transformation of Olympic cities. Viano argues that the consideration of the Olympic event as a stand-alone event can become a phenomenon that becomes very complex to manage in the post-Olympic period. For example, Viano recalls how the 1961 Expo as a one-off event was a mistake that is still creating problems in separate areas of the city today. So, a shared, long-term vision supported by strategic plans will enable cities to reduce the chances of defeat, enjoying the Olympic legacy in all its fullness and breadth. It has been shown that the Olympic legacy is linked to the planning process, with the majority of interviewees stating that the IOC is an active participant in the planning process of the Olympic event. Sessions, conferences and exchange experiences of the organising committees are only some of the activities organised by the IOC for the transfer of knowledge of the Olympic event. The interviewees state that this involvement of the IOC is due to the ownership of the Olympic brand and its interests related to the functioning of the Olympic event. The International Committee's interest is directed solely at the purpose of the event and its perceived global media coverage. Interviewees agree on the lack of global and longitudinal support from the International Olympic Committee. Participation and involvement in a complex process such as the organisation and planning of a mega-event should be supported by the International Committee itself and by a global development programme. In addition, the International Olympic Committee will in the near future have to consider, support and support the bidding cities in all phases of the Olympic process. The Olympic process being a process divided into 4 phases: bid, pre-event, event, post-event; it needs organisation and support not only technical support from the International Committee. The interviewees agree on the importance of establishing common objectives between all the candidate cities and the International Olympic

Committee. Some of the interviewees affirm that, in the organisation of the event, the International Olympic Committee should have a larger role in the decisions of each host state. On the other hand, the involvement of the International Olympic Committee in the political decisions of the cities could contrast with the participatory roles of the cities and citizens in future decisions. So, there could be a contrast between the Olympic works and the ordinary works of the candidate cities. The interviewees agree on the importance of political relations and the relations of the Olympic movement. These relationships, planned and organised, can enhance the relationships and reputations of candidate cities over time. Through these statements, the interviewees affirm that the dialogue between the International Olympic Committee and the city should be more intense and wider and that it should not only consider technical indications related to competitions and the realisation of Olympic works. During the evaluation phase of the Olympic cities, the International Olympic Committee does not fully consider the typology of the city, the participation of the citizens, the territorial acceptance and the implementation of new strategies for the change of the city's image. With participatory planning in mind, citizens and local authorities should be part of the Olympic project in all its phases. In addition, the IOC should implement the bidding process, supporting the candidate cities throughout the entire bid cycle. So, the Olympic legacy has a dual purpose: one for the city and its citizens; one for the Olympic movement. This division of objectives in the future requires guidelines for the planning and implementation of detailed programmes that can help the citizens and the city in the choice of the Olympic project. The local authorities and the population cannot be excluded from the bidding process and from the planning of the Olympic Games. The success of the Olympic project allows an intangible image return to the whole Olympic movement. The image of the city will be projected on the international event circuits and will develop as a role model. Over the years, many Olympic cities have been chosen as role models for future candidate cities. Rome, Mexico, Munich, Los Angeles, Barcelona, Sydney, Turin, London, Tokyo, are just some of the projects that have been developed through a reference model or by creating a new spatial development model for the city. The success of these cities was not only manifested in relation to their Olympic plan, but also in the transformation of the city's image and in the economic and financial development of the territory. Successful and future successful editions are destined to be represented as an Olympic model, influencing future projects of new Olympic cities. Equally important are the negative experiences in terms of urban transformations. Editions such as Montreal, Athens, Sochi, Rio, promote and disseminate unsustainability, causing a lack of credibility for the whole Olympic Movement. Due to these negative experiences, the International Olympic Committee has had to modify the city allocation process so that the Olympic Games can always be a clean and dynamic product for sponsors and the media. The promotion of an Olympic city and urban role model can crystallise into supra-local transformations that sustain the intangible knowledge of the citizenry. The social transformations through the promotion of the city and its image can be transformed into a "*Know-How*" of the organising committee in the post-Olympic phase. The intangible value will support the city's future strategies in relation to the organisation and planning of major events. As we have observed, the Olympic legacy is very imprecise in terms of its

dynamism over time. The Olympic legacy, tangible or intangible, direct or indirect, over time modifies its space and its temporal performance. The change of scale of the post-Olympic project also allows the introduction of the terms impact or results. Some researchers prefer to define legacy as hardware (facilities and infrastructure) and software (culture, image and identity). This division of tangible and intangible resources does not allow us to reflect on the importance of defining the Olympic project in its entirety. In line with Raffestin and Turco's contributions, territorialization can be defined as the production of territory, a territory considered as a space produced by the action of all the actors who promote projects on the territory. This territorial space can be defined as a space where energy and human capital have been applied (Raffestin, 1981). Territorialization in the Olympic Games starts from the bidding phase, transforming itself during the organisation phases of the event until a process of de-territorialization begins in the post-Olympic period. In this last phase, works have often been dismantled or abandoned over time. Meanwhile, the last phase of reterritorialization is defined through the cities' legacy plan, which allows the heritage to be transformed into a tangible heritage for the city and its citizens. According to Turco, Olympic territorialization, observed as the production of a new spatial territory, fits into the ordinary transformation dynamics of cities through a T-R-D cycle can be observed as different acts of territorialization that would be defined through three categories: Denomination, Reification and Structuring (Turco, 1988). In Turin, the Olympic territorialization stands in contrast to the re-territorialization of the post-industrial era started since 1995 through the Gregotti-Cagnardi masterplan. Through the Olympic nomination, the city of Turin has been able to accelerate the processes of re-use of urban and industrial areas that were carrying out other social problems. Meanwhile, the territorialization in the mountain areas and in the Olympic territory can be considered as a great legacy for mobility, connections and exploitation of tourism in the whole Piemonte. The following tangible legacy of infrastructures and services, allowed the implementation of different territorial and strategic plans in a single target territory. The denomination of the Olympic territory is related to the control of the symbols of the territory: Olympic stadium, Olympic square, Olympic Village, Olympic track, etc. These symbols over time will inevitably change shape and specific weight in relation to their involvement and performance over the years. Throughout Olympic history, these symbols have sometimes been renamed in the post-Olympic period for the exploitation of the brand of the sponsor offering the most long-term contributions. In this sense, Olympic facilities and works in the post-Olympic period will change their value and significance in the city. The construction of defined Olympic strategies ensures the development of a city brand that will inevitably be promoted to the world. Meanwhile, the transformation of temporary sites during the Olympic event can be identified as the first phase of territorial production.

The Olympic designation starts with the bid dossier which will be seen and promoted worldwide prior to the allocation of the Olympic event. The International Olympic Committee, through the delivery of the bid dossier, obliges Olympic cities to communicate the name of the city in English and the year of the future bid. This aspect is one of the most important for the definition of the intangible legacy and the creation of the Olympic brand

as a host city. The name projects the Olympic territory and refers to an exact space and time, legitimising the symbolic ownership of the IOC and the image of the city to the world. In the specific case of Turin, the Olympic designation renewed the image of the post-industrial city that allowed the implementation of new territorial marketing strategies for sponsors, for tourists and for the companies that planned to get involved in the project. Thus, as stated by Dansero, symbolic control is transformed into practical centres of space. The territorial appropriation by the event can be clearly observed through the global and local sponsors who during the Olympic period cannot promote any products or services in the Olympic area. Furthermore, during the Olympic Games, candidate cities must apply temporary rules for the exploitation of Olympic sponsors. This temporary law should preserve the value and attraction of the Olympic brand around the world. The issue of legacy to this day has become a fundamental element and should be considered as the last phase of the Olympic cycle, as it relates to the Olympic territory and its territorialization.

The phase of deterritorialization can bring about these territorial transformations:

- Dismantling.
- Re-use.
- Abandonment.

Territorial transformations in the post-Olympic period, as we have observed above, are defined as a process of deterritorialization that in the case of the Turin Olympics did not fully consider the Olympic territory and the near future. The major risk for the IOC and the candidate cities is those of producing an excess of Olympic territorialization which in the post-Olympic period may turn into an abandoned structure. Excessive production and a project that is too dispersed can lead to a territorial deficit, squatting, the reuse of spaces and mountainous transformations. This last transformation is due to the importance for the future of the Olympic cities with regard to the winter edition. After Turin, the Winter Olympics have become much more complex territorial phenomena than we have seen until 2006. This excess of territorialization and territorialised events allows us to identify major implications in the local transformations that force cities to host new editions of the Olympic Games of international sporting events. Many candidate cities after the Olympic event were obliged to promote sport and host sporting events in the city. This aspect of intangible legacy has nowadays changed the attitude of many cities towards mega sporting events. The Olympic event, through its project, its structures, its image and its infrastructures, gives the Olympic city an increase in the stable capital of the city, which is mainly made up of containers and infrastructures. As most authors have argued, Turin was obliged and legitimised by the success of the Olympic Games and by the need to transform its industrial past, managing and planning in a positive way for the citizens. These transformations already during the bid period will be supported by many sponsors who will use the city to promote a clean and reliable image. In this sense, a new vision of the Olympic project stands out, which in the different phases in relation to its participants and sponsors changes continuously. This aspect of the Olympic project will in the future be one

of the most important aspects for the support of the citizens and for the choice of the winning project. Continuing with the reflection on the Olympic legacy, it is fundamental to note how most of the interviewees affirm that the Olympic legacy project is a project that cannot be defined only in the final period of the Olympic event. Moreover, it should be planned in advance and should include criteria and tools that can dynamically respond to the future demands of the city and its citizens. Some elements that can be included in the territorial marketing strategies of candidate cities are introduced. These elements and their implementation depend only on whether the elites and the local society recognise themselves in them. The Olympic city should be well recognised through a strong, visible and segmented brand. For example, Barcelona has distinguished itself as a cultural and sports city. The future of the Olympic city should include new forms of economic, administrative and cultural participations. The implementation of museums, exhibitions, public and private offices are all fundamental elements for the development of a new image of the city. The city must transform itself into a global city that enters into new business networks and world economic circuits (Guarrasi, 2002). Meanwhile, the local community should include some social capital that can favour its evolution throughout the post-Olympic evolution. These elements allow us to advance a new hypothesis on the development of a new modernity induced by sport and Mega-events.

The impact of games on the territory

At this point, the importance of the territorial impact on the ordinary dynamics of the Piedmont territory is underlined. The interviewees consider the Turin Olympics as an event that was a catalyst for other projects planned as early as the end of the 1980s and which were completed thanks to Olympic funding. The interviewees affirm the temporary and exceptional character of the Turin Olympic event was channelled into more complex projects and integrated into the new design of the city's metropolitan urban fabric. Moreover, the interviewees affirm that the analysis of the Turin Olympic event should consider the mountains and the city as two totally different projects. Most of the interviewees state that the city of Turin was the one that obtained most of the economic resources. Economic and structural resources that have been transformed into a tangible and intangible heritage for the city of Turin. On the contrary, the mountain, according to the interviewees, was disadvantaged and sometimes excluded in the overall project of the post-Olympic period. Still, the interviewees and the mayors of the two Olympic cities where the Olympic Villages of Bardonecchia and Sestriere were built, affirm that these two works are the ones that were most exploited in the post-Olympic period. Avato and Marin state that the Olympic Villas have allowed the two cities to increase their accommodation capacity in relation to the increase in tourist demand. This is a first consideration related to the spatial dimension of the Olympic territory of the Turin 2006 Olympic Games. The Winter Olympics can affect the territory through different scales of intervention. Over time, different models of production and territorial organisation of the Winter Olympics have been developed. Some models were developed in a concentrated space, while other models affected the territorial organisation system and were embedded in a wider and more complex spatial system. In general, while the organisation of the Summer Games is

strongly related to the host country and often to its capital, the Winter Olympic Games, on the contrary, usually affect only one region. The case of Turin can be considered as an emblematic case that introduced a new spatial organisation through three Olympic Villages and 6 municipalities directly involved in the organisation of the Olympic Games. The spatial organisation of Turin will be the model for the development of the 2026 Olympic event, which for the first time will take place in two regions and in two territories that are currently disconnected. As Essex and Chalkley observed in 2011, the Olympic Games have become an instrument of wider regional integration. The Games entailed the construction of a heterogeneous and, in many respects, new territory that did not coincide with the administrative subdivisions and the homogeneous zone in terms of socio-economic development. As the interviewees state, the Turin Olympic Games accelerated the projects of the 1995 master plan that foresaw the relocation of the railway line. Through the integration of a new avenue, the relations between the north and the south of the city will be reconsidered. The Turin project can be seen as a mixture of urban restructuring projects and sports facilities for events strategically placed throughout the city. In addition, Turin was the first city to provide a project that had a close relationship between the city and the two main Alpine valleys. The spatial organisation of the sports facilities was organised and located mainly in the southern section of the city and the railway line. The Lingotto and Piazza d'Armi neighbourhoods were two key places in the spatial organisation of sports facilities in the Olympic area. On the other hand, as the interviewees agree, the mountain communities and municipalities included in the Olympic project saw the mega-event as an intangible opportunity to boost their competitiveness in winter tourism, competing with other international realities. The creation of a new image for the city and the infrastructure works were two key elements in the metropolitan expansion of the city of Turin. The Olympic territorialization, as stated by Dansero, was conceived to be built on the long-term economic and location-specific resources of these areas, concentrating investments in winter sports through the renovation and extension of infrastructures and attractions that can interest tourists. The regionalisation of the Olympics was one of the short-term results in relation to the main dossier and the fundamental role of mountain communities in the organisation of sports competitions. The Turin Olympics assigned to the mountains an urban space located at a significant distance that made it possible to rediscover the historical relationship between Turin and the Alps (Bontempi, 2006). But, as stated by some of the interviewees, this regionalisation and these temporal connections dissolved and disappeared in the post-Olympic period. Some Olympic representatives and interviewees have claimed that Turin spread an image of a purely urban event, obscuring the role played by the Alpine valleys. This lack of synergy between the two images, according to the interviewees, was one of the critical elements that diminished the chances for the mountain communities to benefit from the creation of a new positive image over time. Furthermore, the interviewees state that the abandoned bobsleigh and ski jumping facilities left an open wound in the mountain and in the citizenship. The conflict between the mountain areas and the city of Turin is still being discussed today over the railway line between Turin and Lion. Meanwhile, with regard to the infrastructural works in the Olympic territory, the interviewees confirm that between 700 and 800 million have been

invested in the territory. Moreover, some of those interviewed stated that the Olympic mountains and valleys did not need excessive funding because there were material and immaterial connections between the mountain territories. On the other hand, as stated by the OMERO Group researchers and confirmed by most of the interviewees, the intermediate areas during the Olympic Games only played a role in the transaction of flows and in supporting the temporary infrastructural network. A role of intermediate areas which disappeared in the post-Olympic period and was excluded from other global projects for the entire regional area. This phenomenon of exclusion, according to some interviewees, was also expressed in the city of Turin, manifesting itself through an imbalance between the northern and southern areas of the city of Turin.

According to Davico, this imbalance manifested itself during the planning of the Olympics and during the change of the project. He states how the transformation of the city of Turin and the change of the Olympic project led to a progressive decentralisation of the institutions in the western and southern areas of the city. These shifting balances are occurring and continue to occur today. Finally, considering the contributions of the interviewees, it can be deduced that the Turin Olympics were generally distributed fairly evenly, with Turin as the central city and the mountainous areas as the venue for competitions and accommodation for the Olympic athletes. As confirmed by the interviewees, the planning of a central city project allowed Turin to benefit from the rebranding and new opportunities brought about by the Olympic effects. In relation to the physical transformations of the post-industrial city of Turin, as stated by the interviewees and as can be seen in chapter four, the planning process was already contemplated in the revaluation and reconversion plans of the city of Turin itself. The adaptation of extraordinary measures and variants was certainly not an easy task, but it allowed the general lines and the programmatic objectives of the 1999 Strategic Plan to be observed. As we can see on page (57), the objectives of the Strategic Plan considered the importance of the integration of the metropolitan area into an international socio-economic system. In addition, the revaluation and reconversion works were carried out with the objective of improving urban quality. Meanwhile, the improvement of transport and road infrastructures is decisive for the future of the city. However, it is also crucial to establish systematic co-operative relationships with other complementary cities and regions in order to compete in global markets. In the Strategic Plan, it can be seen that it was the objective of the city and the region to support and include stakeholders in the implementation of urban actions. Thanks to the participation of all the entities, it was possible to proceed by a parallel plan that respected the mandatory deadlines of the International Olympic Committee. So, according to all the interviewees and as seen in the strategic plan, the Games of the XX Winter Olympics were an opportunity for the realisation of sustainable infrastructures for the post-2006 period.

The 2000 Strategic Plan identifies three objectives:

1. Develop international cooperation networks.

2. Facilitate access to Turin.

3. Improve internal mobility.

According to the interviewees, the Turin Olympic Games were used as an engine of development and promotion of the new post-industrial image of the city at the international level. The allocation of the Winter Olympics turned out to be an intangible opportunity for the promotion of the city at the international level, but also to be able to carry out some works and plans that would be difficult to achieve through the ordinary territorial organisation system. In this framework, Turin increased its sports facilities, boosting the creation of new centralities in the metropolitan city that today are still amid new transformations. Thus, the Strategic Plan, in its objectives as a whole, responded to two basic needs of the city of Turin:

- Integrated development of those elements that can act and serve as major attractions for the national and international public.
- The consequent need to expand the tourism industry, both in terms of infrastructure and quality of life.

In addition, the implementation of the tourism industry needs to be supported by marketing and personal training programmes. Equally important is the development of commerce, as it is considered a very important element for the post-Olympic future and the new post-industrial city of Turin at the level of functioning, strategies and centralities. Finally, the above-mentioned actions must be strictly connected to a multi-annual plan of events and promotional communication of the city. The synergy between the initiatives of the territorial projects and the integrated communication actions in the different cultural and sporting areas allows a series of opportunities to launch tourism. In parallel, the decent living conditions of the inhabitants were considered one of the main objectives of the Municipality of Turin and Piedmont to implement a global project in the city. The happiness and health of the citizens are also a condition for success on an international level. Open-mindedness and the willingness of citizens to support a temporary influx of people in the city are two of the most important factors during the Olympic event phase. Furthermore, in the phase preceding the organisation of the Olympic Games, citizens and local authorities should always be included in the organisation and planning of the Olympic event. The aim of the Turin project was therefore to develop a city that plays a recognisable role on the international scene, which cannot be separated from the need to address the issue of urban quality by improving the quality of life of its inhabitants. The term quality of urban spaces takes on a broad meaning that encompasses three main aspects of the city of Turin:

A. The quality of urban spaces, architectural artefacts, natural spaces.

B. The social fabric of the city, security, social cohesion, ensuring that areas of marginalisation and exclusion and marginalisation are minimised.

C. Quality of the city's natural environment and ecosystem, air and water quality

So, in relation to the transformations of the post-industrial city of Turin, as stated by the interviewees, the planning process of the city of Turin was supported by a theoretical framework through general and specific plans that related to each other. The plans for revaluation and reconversion of derelict areas, as stated by Viano, have guaranteed new green spaces and new public space compensations for the city of Turin and for the quality of life of the citizens. Therefore, the interviewees agree that the transformation of the city was integrated in the new urban plan and in the Strategic Plan, activating new processes of global transformation. As Guala states, the city of Turin since 1997 and thanks to different tourist, cultural events, fairs and congresses started its ideal transformation into a post-industrial city. This consideration allows us to advance that the post-industrial transformation of cities is often supported by events that can guarantee a promotion and acceleration that could never be obtained in an ordinary way. The inclusion of the Olympic event in the 2000 Strategic Plan for the city of Turin can be recognised as a great idea managed through new synergies between the participating entities. It is interesting to see how all interviewees agree on the importance of the Strategic Plan for the development and impact of a wider strategy, which included the Olympic Games in more complex and long-term processes. Equally important, according to the interviewees, is the implementation of a common and comprehensive strategy for the urban and socio-economic fabric. Undoubtedly, the Turin Olympics were an intangible catalyst for the processes that were intended to develop a new image of the city. Meanwhile, some interviewees claim that the Olympics were an important contribution to the city, but certainly not a decisive element in the organisation of the new post-industrial city of Turin. According to Mario Viano, the observation of the Strategic Plan and the support of the master plan were the intangible elements for the observation of an overall development plan. Furthermore, Viano affirms that, without this project reference framework, it would probably not have been possible to manage an event of this size and magnitude. Finally, Viano confirms that without a reference plan indicating abandoned and vacant areas, it would not have been feasible to invest resources in a precise and detailed way. By not taking into account the overall transformation framework, the result would have been different. The interviewees state that the Turin Olympics were developed in a political framework that was quite cohesive. This fact allowed the development of a common territorial idea between the city council, the region, the province and the Italian Olympic Committee. As affirmed by the interviewees and as observed in the quantitative analyses, the Olympic Games marked a change in the mentality of the city and its citizens, making it possible to do something different about the territory. The changes in the city of Turin were observed at both the political and technical level for the transformation and transition to the post-industrial city. Concluding and agreeing with the interviewees, the Turin Olympics were a process of transformation that had a huge impact on the evolution of the post-industrial city of Turin. The Olympic Games, as affirmed by the interviewees, were the main catalyst and the fundamental piece for the stimulation of the changes identified by the Master Plan and the Strategic Plan. This stimulus produced a reconversion of Turin's post-industrial economy

and society. According to all the participants of the study and some of the researchers of the Turin Olympics, the city of Turin was able to change its face to the world thanks to the Olympic event.

The Olympic Villages

In the following, the aspects that have influenced the planning and organisation of the Village in the Olympic territory will be analysed. The main focus is on the new spatial dimension of Turin and on the different interventions and the different objectives of the Olympic Villages in the Turin event. As we have observed above, the territory of the Turin project was quite large and integrated in the different mountain communities, where an Olympic territorialization took place for the accommodation of the Olympic athletes. So, on the micro-local scale, we must consider the Olympic venues as spaces planned and consummated as territorial structures for the exploitation of the Olympic event. The Olympic Villages are and will be a fundamental part of the life, socialisation and integration of the Olympic athletes during the event. The choice of three Olympic Villas, two in the mountain communities of Bardonecchia and Sestriere, and one in the city of Turin, were conceived within the framework of urban and architectural planning at a local level, with a global outlook for the post-Olympic period. The choice of accommodation for the Olympic athletes was organised through three Villas in the Olympic area. An Olympic Village in the city of Turin, through the revaluation of an abandoned space, another in the city of Bardonecchia through the revaluation of an old colony from the thirties and the revaluation and construction of the third one in Sestriere.

Regarding the direct benefits of the Olympic Villages, the interviewees agree and clearly state that the Olympic Villages of Bardonecchia and Sestriere in relation to their post-Olympic use were the two accommodation structures that benefited most from the Olympic investments. The common thinking of the interviewees reflects on the automatic integration of the Olympic Villages into the accommodation system of the mountain municipalities. The Turin Olympic Village was located in a huge re-zoned area that preserved a historical and architectural value protected by the over-registration of cultural assets. The Turin Olympic Village is located in the southern area of the city and hosted the 2,500 athletes during the 2006 Olympics. The total surface area of the Olympic Village was over 100,000 square metres, with the structure of the old market place at the centre, which only functioned during the Olympic Games as an operations area and a space for the transfer of the Olympic athletes. Initially, the Turin Olympic Village project envisaged mixed housing with a large proportion of social housing. In addition, the Olympic Village was intended to include offices, students and local associations. This ambitious project, according to the interviewees, did not have a clear objective from the beginning, especially in relation to the materials that were used for the construction of the buildings. On the other hand, some of the interviewees stated that the Turin Olympic Village was the one that benefited the most from the economic investments in the Olympic area. The Turin Olympic Village was a brand new project, while the Olympic Villages of Bardonecchia and Sestriere were both revaluation and reconstruction projects. On the other hand, some

interviewees have stated that the city of Turin proposed some temporary accommodation structures for the media which have nowadays been transformed into residences for university students. According to Guala and Viano, the rehabilitation of residential structures used during the event into student villages was a fundamental strategy to improve the capacity of university accommodation. In this sense, the University of Turin expanded its capacity to receive students, enhancing the recruitment of new talent. Meanwhile, in relation to the Olympic Villages of Bardonecchia and Sestriere, a common position is perceived among the interviewees. The revaluation and reconversion works carried out in the Olympic Villages of Bardonecchia and Sestriere allowed the definition of a common strategy with the municipalities for the exploitation and increase of the tourist offer in the mountain areas. The mayors of the two Olympic cities, Avato and Marin, state that the Olympic Villages of Bardonecchia and Sestriere have contributed at a tangible level and favoured at an intangible level the areas of the mountain communities, increasing by 25% the availability of tourist accommodation in the *Via Lattea* area. Thus, the interviewees agree on the importance of requalifying, reusing and refurbishing existing buildings for the provision and creation of accommodation that will have to be used in the post-Olympic period.

Finally, if we take into account the location of the Olympic Village of Turin, the Strategic Plan expects that it should initially be located in the northern area of the city, at the level of *Spina 3*. The initial location of the Olympic Village was to be a factor of urban regeneration and new centrality for the northern area of the city. Through this comment, we can introduce an interesting aspect of mega sporting events, their dynamism in relation to changes in the planning of areas and projects. Dynamism that, if not fully thought out and planned, can lead to a phenomenon of abandonment of residences, as happened in the most representative cases, Turin and Rio de Janeiro. In relation to the Turin Olympic Village, the interviewees affirm that the Village was included in an existing plan and the land was part of the municipality. According to Viano, it was absolutely necessary to maintain the existing plan by integrating the Olympic Village into the urban fabric. So, we can state that the Turin Olympic Village was part of an existing masterplan that was part of the strategic lines for the revaluation and reuse of abandoned spaces. Furthermore, the location of the sports facilities in the southern area of the city led to the relocation of the Olympic Village from the northern area to the southern area of the city. The International Olympic Committee obliges candidate cities to build an Olympic Village that can include most of the competition and training facilities within a 15-minute travel time. This technicality led to a change of the Olympic project and the relocation of the Olympic Village to the southern area of the city. Meanwhile, in the northern area of the Spina, the media accommodation was developed and has now become an available asset that increases the accommodation capacity of the city of Turin. These two solutions were enhanced thanks to the collaboration between public and private elements that guaranteed the use of the facilities during the Olympic period and their reuse in the post-Olympic period. Meanwhile, regarding the integration of the Turin Olympic Village into the long-term housing strategies of the city, most of the interviewees were not aware of the housing

strategy and could not give a homogeneous answer to the observation on the state of abandonment of the Olympic Village. On the other hand, interviewees stated that the Turin Olympic Village was initially intended to be part of the city's social housing strategy. However, in the post-Olympic period it did not enjoy any continuation and ended up in neglect leading to forced squatting. Still, in relation to the Olympic Village, the Mayor of Turin and President of the Organising Committee, Vittorio Castellani, states that there was a strong political will for the reuse of the Village in the post-Olympic period. However, there was a lack of administrative decisions and a lack of a global vision for the social accommodation that would be available to the city. So, we can affirm that the Turin project had clear objectives and uses for the Olympic Villages in the post-Olympic period.

The use and exploitation of the Olympic Villages in the mountain communities was aimed at increasing the supply of tourist accommodation, while the Turin Olympic Village was aimed at promoting and reinforcing social housing and mixed housing spaces. On the other hand, the Olympic Villages in the mountain communities, according to the interviewees, were not part of the territorial tourism strategy. This position was only acquired during the post-Olympic period as they were intended for tourist accommodation on the *Via Lattea*. In this way we can reflect on the integration of the Olympic Villages in the mountain communities and how the lack of planning for the integration of the winter Olympic Villages, only in some specific cases can become a defeat, manifesting the phenomenon of structural neglect. In mountain communities, the Turin Olympic Villages have been inserted within a tourist project and within a historically tourist site. These factors have allowed for a natural integration of the buildings. Moreover, the interviewees state that the areas of Bardonecchia and Sestriere were included in the international tourism circuits and are still two places for winter sports competitions at world level. Meanwhile, regarding the evolution of the territorial expansion processes by the Olympic Villages in the mountain communities, most of the interviewees agree on the lack of expansion that can be observed in the mountain communities. In addition, some interviewees stated how the Olympic Villages favoured the mountain communities in the exploitation of new accommodation. One of the interesting aspects related to the Olympic Villages of Bardonecchia and Sestriere was the transformation of mountain areas thanks to the installation of tourist accommodation. Valter Marin, the current mayor of Sestriere, states that the interventions in the mountain communities made it possible to increase and adjust the accommodation available in the territory, improving the quality of the areas. Thus, we can see that in Turin there was no expansion of the metropolitan framework of the city towards the mountains. Yet, the metropolitan expansion, as stated by some of the authors, developed between Pinerolo and Turin. The city of Pinerolo through the new Olympic infrastructures and infrastructural works can be considered today as an extension of the metropolitan area of the city of Turin. The interviewees affirm that the railway lines and the infrastructures were two key works for the connection and the production of new spatial dynamics between the different areas of the Olympic project. The Olympic Games can be the promoter of a territorial expansion that was not considered during the period of the Olympic project. The territorial expansion of the city of Turin was one of the most

critical aspects during the planning of the Olympic event. Interviewees state that there was a fear that the Olympics could catalyse urban sprawl during the post-Olympic period. The only metropolitan expansion that took place between Turin and Pinerolo was supported by new connections and the improvement of the road system, favouring a new development of mobility towards the Olympic valleys.

It is appropriate to discuss and observe the intermediate areas and their possible exclusion from the overall Olympic Games project. The definition of *terre di mezzo* was introduced by the OMERO research group, which identified those areas where ephemeral transformations of the temporary Olympic space took place. In recent years, this aspect has become a fundamental object of study for the spatial transformations and the study of the Olympic territory in the Winter Olympic Games. These spatial transformations, sometimes, not considering all areas, can be critical in the long term for the citizens and the Olympic territory. Moreover, as stated by Avato, territorial centralism is a problem that remains a fundamental part of the organisation of the region and territorial connections. The integration and interaction between different political personalities from different parties allows for a direct and firm dialogue with the municipalities. Thus, we can affirm that the lack of integration of the territories in the middle of the region has not allowed a new integration of these territories over time. Thus, the image of the *terre di mezzo* can be seen as a real image of the whole Olympic territory. The connections and the accompanying works have tried to diminish the lack of integration in a long-term spatial transformation that manifested itself in other parts of the Olympic territory. As stated by some of the interviewees, the midlands have benefited from the flow of people at an indirect level during the organisation of the Olympic event. Therefore, a reflection focuses on the lack of a post-Olympic vision during the planning and implementation phase of the Olympic plan, helping cities and territories to enjoy the Olympic benefits in a synergistic way. The lack of a post-Olympic vision, as exposed by the interviewees, has led to the creation of a disconnected territory, privileging cities such as Pinerolo and penalising the central valley's such as the lower Val di Susa. A fundamental element for observing the Olympic territory and the Olympic Villages is undoubtedly the Strategic Plan for the post-Olympic period. The territory could have been more highly valued in the post-Olympic period if a virtuous system of connection between the city and the Olympic valleys had been developed. Another aspect of fundamental importance is the relationship between the city and the mountains. Confirmed by most of the interviewees, the organisation of the Olympic project has tried to integrate as much as possible all the Olympic areas and valleys, but inevitably this integration has not manifested itself until today. The interviewees reflect on the importance of the infrastructural works in all Olympic areas, as they ensured a new model of spatial organisation of regional mobility. Furthermore, these new infrastructural works such as the *Avilana* bypass solved many problems in the lower Susa valley, which at that time was considered a point of conflict for territorial organisation.

Of equal importance is the ring road between Turin and Pinerolo, which according to the interviewees was the most important work for the transformation of the city of Pinerolo into a place better connected to the city of Turin. These statements allow us to reflect on the importance of a project that can improve the connections and interconnections between the systems already existing in the Olympic territory. Thus, the Turin Olympic project did not pay much attention to the *terre di mezzo* as they were not added to the integrated planning of the Olympic territory, crystallising in a fragmented territory through different results. This contribution is fundamental to observe how Turin's territorial planning model, realised through 3 Olympic Villages in the Olympic area, was a complex process that excluded the *terre di mezzo* from its planning. This lack of vision can be justified through the lack of a synergic programming between all the territories. The midlands, being used only during the Olympic event and not hosting it, may be excluded from the Olympic benefits in the post-Olympic period and be compromised by the new image resulting from the Olympic territory. The mountain territory, being a very sensitive ecosystem, should be protected and exploited on the basis of environmental and social criteria. As was said by some of the interviewees, sometimes nothing can be done but to observe the consequences of the Olympic programme in the post-Olympic period. This study is of fundamental importance in order to understand all the fundamental points for the understanding of the Turin Olympic event and its territorial legacy. This comment allows us to state with certainty that the territorial studies of mega-events should be implemented and deepened through a common framework in order to avoid phenomena of territorial exclusion over time. The territorial planning of the Olympic territory of the Winter Games is a rather complex phenomenon to study. Considering its size and magnitude, the Olympic project will always have the possibility of being modified, integrating new elements provided by new political, administrative and private entities involved in the organisation of the event. Moreover, it is true that Turin was the first city to implement such a complex territorial model. This fact allows us to consider the problems and criticalities of the Turin project so that they do not manifest themselves again in the near future. It is important to predispose and provide a project that includes all the Olympic territories in relation to their heritage and post-Olympic function. Having different planning phases, the Olympic Games are complex to manage and plan. Moreover, the new rules of the International Olympic Committee are trying to diminish the territorial effects of the Olympic Games, transforming the event into something ephemeral for the territory. The only certainty is that the Olympic Village will always be the central part of the Olympic works, as the issue of housing remains topical for the future development of cities. The new concepts of the Olympic event pose a major change in the organisation of the Olympic Games and the event itself. The application of new sustainable measures, the use of temporary structures and facilities will be the new way of organising Olympic competitions, which in the past were more problematic for the future development of cities. However, these new rules for the evaluation of cities will penalise large cities that can be transformed by the Olympic Games. Experiences such as Rome, Munich, Tokyo, Mexico, Mexico City, Barcelona, Sydney, Turin, London, Rio, may not happen again. The catalyst function of mega sporting events will probably disappear over the years, becoming an ephemeral event like

the football World Cups that are organised in different cities and sometimes in different countries. If we also consider that the media and its broadcasting power on the web, the Olympics can turn into a media event that will not have many fans present in the stands. Thus, the Olympic Committee must necessarily provide new rules and new strategic lines of development for the evolution of the Olympic Villages on the territory. The IOC, through documents, conferences and specific programmes for the candidate cities, will have to support the knowledge and the dissemination of the IOC in the world. These changes will imply a change of role in the planning of the Olympic event, which may compromise the future of the cities over time. The involvement of citizens and the promotion of a participatory culture in the planning and organisation of the Olympic Games can help in the communication between entities and in choosing the right areas. Citizens are the fundamental resources for the exploitation of the Olympic model in the city and for the development and exploitation of a new participatory culture induced by sport events. The Milan-Cortina 2026 Olympic Games will adopt a more complex spatial organisation than the one enjoyed by Turin during the whole Olympic planning and implementation process. The integration of two regions that are today disconnected will be one of the most interesting aspects of the integration project of the Olympic Villages and the mountain villages. Finally, I would like to state that the Turin Olympics were used as a territorial catalyst for the realisation of processes that were planned by the municipal authorities. Both the territorial dimension of Turin and that of Barcelona represent two new models of regional geography of the Olympic territory; both were pioneers in territorial planning and have become a world reference for it; but at the same time, they are a paradigm, as it is possible that cases like these will never happen again in the near future.

Considerations of the results

The quantitative analysis of the interviewees in the sample helps us to observe how the evolution of the Olympic Village over time has consolidated its urban strategy to the point of becoming an intangible heritage for the candidate cities. The consolidation of Olympic urban planning through the Olympic Village over time has gone from being an exceptional event for cities to becoming a constitutive and recognisable element to be considered as a special urban planning instrument. Thus, it has to guarantee its own identity over time. The Olympic Village, to date, has become a place that can redefine territorial strategies and become a territorial unknown in relation to new urban functions. The planning of the Olympic Village must be embedded in the territory through a specific strategy for the long-term development of cities. As we have seen from the survey, the inclusion of the Olympic Village in a territorial transformation project is the only option to favour the development of the Olympic Village over time. The inclusion of the Olympic Village in a global territorial transformation project reduces the risks of abandonment and favours the intangible possibilities associated with the Olympic Village. Furthermore, we can note that the planning of the Olympic Village in the post-Olympic period has a dynamic impact on the city and its citizens. The choice of the Olympic Village financing model and the implementation of a specific management model for the post-Olympic phase are two key elements in the planning and organisation of the Olympic Village in the territory.

The construction of an Olympic Village on the territory will inevitably involve new relationships between the transport system and the Village. Over time, we have been able to observe different Olympic Village solutions that have transformed the internal relations of cities, leading to a change of centralities in the territorial space. The new urban relations induced by the Olympic Village should be established through participatory planning that can respect the needs of the citizens. In relation to this specific issue, it is recommended to look at the analysis of bivariate correlations to understand the different relationships that can develop over time. In conclusion, it can be affirmed that the Olympic Villages have become a constituent element of Olympic urban planning, being the central pillar of the dissemination of Olympic values among athletes. They are also an urban planning tool that can acquire its own identity over time, becoming a catalyst for other elements that make up the socio-economic fabric of the host cities. On the other hand, the Winter Olympic Villages have become more complex elements in a new spatial dimension. The location of different Olympic Villages in the territory entails a new dimension of the Olympic event and its impact on the region. As we have been able to observe through the qualitative analysis of Turin 2006, the spatial dimension of the Olympic event has been transformed into a regional strategy that has favoured the processes of metropolization of the city of Turin. The different dynamics that are established in the post-Olympic territory, as we have observed above, can determine new social changes in the city and its citizenship. The Olympic Village has established itself as an urban piece with its own identity that has had to be inscribed in the programmes of transformation and revaluation of the urban fabric in the long term. Barcelona, Turin and London are just a few examples that confirm the evolution of the Olympic Village as the ultimate expression of Olympic urban planning and as a catalyst for other urban processes. Finally, the statistical analyses through factorial analyses allow us to affirm that the initial hypotheses are confirmed by the proposed model.

The organisation of a new Olympic symposium is therefore of fundamental importance to reflect on and discuss the evolution of the new spatial models that have taken place over time, almost three decades after the original one. The evolution of organisational models can help us to understand specifically the issue of Olympic urban planning and its post-Olympic heritage. The quantitative analysis allows us to affirm the importance of organising a new Olympic symposium to discuss new issues related to impact, heritage, legacy, infrastructure, housing, social changes and territorial transformations.

VI. TWO CENTURIES OF OLYMPIC URBANISM

BALANCE SHEET AND FUTURE EXPECTATIONS

Conclusions

Based on the analyses carried out from the theoretical framework, the research and the results obtained, we can advance the conclusions of the study, which will be detailed through the questions and hypotheses proposed for the elaboration of this work. The project highlights some preliminary concepts that are key to this research: the Olympic Games, Olympic urbanism and the Olympic Village, concepts that have been consolidated through an in-depth analysis of the bibliographical review and which form the basis of the theoretical framework. For this reason, the mega-event is considered as a major transformation process which, in relation to the specific contexts, can manifest itself in the territory in different ways. Therefore, as we have observed, territorial transformations through the organisation of a mega-event imply a physical and imaginary transformation of the host site. Among the most visible impacts over time, we highlight the importance of Olympic urbanism as a process of transformation that also encompasses the strategies of each host city. Based on Olympic urban planning as a unitary corpus related to the urban dimension of the sporting event, we highlight the Olympic Village as the element that continues to stand out over time as the centrepiece of urban development at the Olympic Games. On the other hand, Olympic urban planning is part of a past conception that manifests itself as a representation of the different urban realities and specificities of each historical and socio-cultural context. Therefore, the analysis of the Olympic Villages allows us to relate the different projects through the use of common parameters that help us in the observation of the evolution of Olympic accommodation throughout the 20th and 21st centuries. Finally, we understand the Olympic Village as a central element for the planning of the Olympic event and as a common good of the host city, which must be articulated and planned through the different relationships that this urban piece must establish with the existing urban fabric.

Answers to research questions

The initial research questions are shown below, in order to provide an overview of the different answers obtained from the different sections analysed in the theoretical framework. In addition, the analysis of the results from the quantitative and qualitative research allows the following conclusions to be drawn.

Question 1

Starting from the initial question posed by the following research, **in relation to the planning of host cities, can the Olympic Village be considered a catalytic instrument for urban expansion and/or transformation?** Firstly, it can be deduced that winter and summer Olympic Villages, over time, have assumed different forms that have evolved through different spatial models. Therefore, a first distinction between the different events is highlighted, successively, in relation to the evolution of the spatial dimensions in the winter edition, it can be stated that the Olympic Village model has reached a territorial dimension that implies the construction of multiple Olympic Villages in a territory that can reach up to 200 km. However, if we consider the Olympic Villages in mountainous locations, it is argued that the provision of new accommodation can be the catalyst for future tourist exploitation of the competition areas. In turn, the Village located in the metropolis can be considered as a catalyst element thanks to the transformations of its urban areas. Moreover, if we look at the editions of Barcelona 1992, Turin 2006, Vancouver 2010, London 2012, Tokyo 2020 and Beijing 2022, the Olympic Village built in the central fabric of the cities has favoured the emergence of a new area which, in the post-event phase, could favour an expansion of the urban limits. However, the summer Olympic Village, if we take as a model a neighbourhood of 20,000 people, will have a totally different impact than its winter counterpart, as the latter will have to host some 5,000 athletes and officials. Therefore, based on the different forms, accommodation organisation models, size and distances of the areas of interest in each context, the Olympic Village can provoke the transformation of an urban area that over time can become a key element for the expansion of urban limits.

Ultimately, the organisational model of the Olympic Village and its location put into practice different forms of urban transformation that can assume different representations in terms of urban element.

With the following question in mind, the need arises to explain a key aspect of the Olympic Village, namely that it fits into the urban structure of the host city and must be integrated into the long-term planning typical of host cities. Therefore, in relation to the different urban, social, political, historical and architectural contexts, the Village will be able to establish itself as a catalyst for the transformation of central areas of our cities. Meanwhile, in relation to the Winter Olympic Village, the accommodation structures built throughout history have always had a temporary character which, in the post-event phase, have become a heritage available for the exploitation of sports tourism in mountain areas. Therefore, the Olympic Villages cannot be considered as a catalyst for urban expansion or transformation in mountain areas.

Question 2

The second question posed by the research **Should we analyse the Olympic Games from a purely economic analysis or strictly related to the production of urban physical infrastructures or should we also include other aspects related to 'Olympic urbanism' such as, for example, the heritage legacy derived from the transformation of the city?** Taking into account the analyses carried out through the concepts of Mega-events and impacts, it can be affirmed that at the academic level studies have focused on a purely economic analysis or strictly concerned with urban physical infrastructures, leaving aside the importance of the heritage legacy through urban transformations. As we have observed in chapter 2, throughout Olympic history, the projects have been transformed into a tool for restructuring, redesigning and rethinking the host cities' own strategies since the Rome 1960 edition. Therefore, the Olympic event cannot be observed only through a purely economic analysis; moreover, the consideration of Olympic urban planning as a long-term legacy will favour the analysis of the possibilities of post-Olympic impacts and of the different forms it can assume in the target territory. For this reason, the heritage legacy assumes its importance in the Olympic transformations that should be considered in the preliminary and ex-post evaluation of the new urban piece.

Moreover, as we have observed in chapter 4, the heritage legacy represents a unique opportunity for the renewal of the candidate cities. For this reason, in consideration of the urban transformation process, urban heritage can be considered as a structuring element for the introduction of new practices in relation to the conservation and exploitation of the available heritage. However, through the results of the qualitative interview, after the celebration of the Olympic event in 2006, the city of Turin and its mountain sites were able to enjoy and take advantage of the heritage legacy, which to this day remains a fundamental piece of the available heritage. Therefore, the Olympic Games are considered as an artefact capable of relating to the territory and which over time can take on different forms in the territorial and relational systems that will develop around the new areas. Consequently, the consideration of Olympic urban planning through a purely economic analysis does not guarantee an observation of the intangible values of the heritage legacy over time. However, the Olympic Village should be considered as the heritage legacy that over time can be constituted as a heritage available for the implementation of new strategies in the host cities.

Question 3

Subsequently, and in relation to the third question, **what are the planning models of Olympic Villages used over time? Does the analysis of the planning and management of Olympic Villages allow us to detect common patterns in terms of the existence of a typology that allows us to classify the different experiences?** It can be answered that, throughout the 20th and 21st centuries, Olympic Villages have been planned through different territorial models that can be identified as: monocentric, satellite, polycentric, cluster, peripheral and metropolitan. The following models allow us to establish a difference between the models proposed for the summer and winter editions. In the

summer edition, the Olympic Villages have assumed different forms, highlighting the monocentric model as a common pattern that recognises the existence of an urban strategy that, since Barcelona 1992, has been marked as the new planning model for the Olympic Villages in the metropolises. Therefore, by identifying the following patterns, we can state that the different experiences of Olympic Villages in the summer edition have assumed a form that has been included in the central strategies of the host metropolises.

While, on the other hand, in the winter edition, the Olympic Villages have been planned in different ways that allow us to highlight the polycentric model as the common pattern that affirms the existence of a regional strategy since Turin 2006, a strategy that has been distinguished as the new model of planning multiple Olympic Villages in an Olympic space that continues to grow in size. Therefore, common patterns can be identified in the two editions, which allow us to classify the different experiences through the spatial dimension that each Olympic Village model has assumed during the planning of the Olympic event and in the post-event phase. Furthermore, in consideration of the theoretical framework and the qualitative research, the importance of the following patterns as an inspirational model for the planning of future events is highlighted. This leads us to consider that the spatial model of Olympic accommodation can establish different relationships which, in each local context, tend to produce territorialising acts through the creation of connections and interconnections that will transform existing networks. On the other hand, it must also be stated that the spatial organisation of the winter edition constitutes different relationships with different places in a larger area. For this reason, the planning of the winter edition will be more complex from a local development perspective. A regional spatial model can contribute to the creation of different gaps between the intermediate areas that might in the future become excluded territories.

Question 4

While for the next question, **what types of urban functions have Olympic Villages assumed throughout history considering their use in the post-Olympic period?**

In relation to urban functions, through the investigation of the Olympic Villages different urban strategies can be observed that throughout history have been related to the housing requirements of the host cities. Therefore, the construction of the Olympic Village has assumed different urban functions that can be analysed by observing its uses: temporary or permanent. However, by means of a classification according to the character of the Olympic Villages, a clear distinction is made between the two editions. In the summer edition, with the exception of the first editions and the editions held in the United States, the permanent accommodation model was the most used. Meanwhile, in the winter edition, temporary accommodation was only used in localities that had hotels or that had a tourism exploitation project for the areas interested in the Olympic event. Subsequently, analysing the evolution after the Olympic Games, the Olympic Villages can be analysed in terms of the reuse and abandonment of the accommodation. In the summer edition, over time, most of the Olympic Villages were reused as available accommodation for the host

community. Furthermore, in the summer edition only the Olympic Villages of Berlin 1936, Athens 2004 and Rio de Janeiro 2016 are in a state of abandonment and disuse by the local community. On the other hand, looking at the winter edition, Olympic accommodation was mainly proposed through the use or construction of hotels, resorts or tourist accommodation. Thus, in the winter edition in the mountain localities, the Olympic Villages were added or inserted in the tourist circuits, becoming in the post-event phase a heritage available for the exploitation of winter tourism, without compromising the territory through the abandonment of the structures. In addition, in the winter edition, with the exclusion of the destruction of Sarajevo, only the Turin 2006 Olympic Village in the city is recognised as the only accommodation structure abandoned in this edition. Therefore, in observation of the urban functions of the Olympic Villages in the post-event phase, it is stated that the accommodation in the mountain sites was always reused and added to the existing structures. Whereas in the summer edition and in consideration of the different sizes, there have been and can be abandonments which in the post-event phase can be catalysts for other problems such as squatting. The following classification leads us to consider the importance of post-Olympic planning in relation to the model, use and size that the accommodation complexes assume in a phase of uncertainty. Therefore, by allowing for the re-use of the Olympic Village, a specific or mixed function must be provided prior to the construction or provision of accommodation in a host territory.

Question 5

The following case leads us to ask the final question: **Should 'Olympic urbanism' in general, and the design of Olympic Villages in particular, be included in a long-term strategic city project embedded in conventional urban planning schemes?** In relation to this question, it is necessary to stress that the cultural, social, political and historical context of the host sites determines the long-term planning of the Olympic Village. However, considering the theoretical framework and the qualitative interviews on the case of Turin 2006, the importance of the 1995 master plan has been highlighted as fundamental for the revaluation and reconstruction of the urban fabric of the industrial city. Moreover, through the interviews, the importance of the master plan in reducing the possibilities of real estate speculation in areas that in the post-event phase could be transformed into engines of other meanings has been highlighted. Subsequently, the strategic plan of the city will establish new guidelines for the exploitation of the master plan. Thanks to them, the specific future development of each context will take place. In the case studied, it is necessary to emphasise that the Olympic Village, in order to be integrated into the urban fabric, must be included in a strategic project for the city in order to fit into any future urban redevelopment scheme. Therefore, the selection of the Olympic Village area must be considered in relation to the obligations of the general plan and the future objectives of the strategic plans of the metropolises themselves. However, the strategic plan increases the number of objectives, strategies, action plans and, in addition, allows for greater control of the overall strategic management in order to be prepared for changes in the environment. In the case studied, it is necessary to highlight participatory planning as a fundamental process for the planning of future Olympic Villages in order to guarantee integration into

the social, cultural and business fabric of the area. Therefore, the predisposition of a strategic plan will allow the identification of a common strategy for the city and the citizens.

Answers to research hypotheses

Through the above questions, we have been able to put forward three introductory hypotheses and a central hypothesis which considers the winter edition as the model which has reached a spatial dimension that will inevitably provoke a rethinking of regional strategies. We conclude with an analysis of the evolution of the Olympic Village as part of a city strategy and the consideration of the new elements of legacy and sustainability, which since the Turin 2006 edition have become key elements for the allocation of the Olympic edition. However, in the specific case of Turin 2006, interviewees point out that the Olympic Villages in the mountain sites have been constituted as a physical and available capital for the whole community, underlining the importance of the capacity of the Olympic Village in relation to the available accommodation. As a result, the size of Turin in 2006 had reached a regional spatial dimension that had never been observed before.

Introductory Hypothesis 1: The development and validity of 'Olympic urbanism'

Observing the different urbanistic experiences of the cities organising the Summer and Winter Olympic Games during the 20th and 21st centuries, the results obtained in the quantitative and qualitative research reveal the existence of a unitary corpus related to the urbanistic dimension of the sporting event. Therefore, the three physical elements built: the athletics stadium; the Olympic swimming pool equipment; and, above all, the "Olympic Village", must be considered as the main characteristic elements of Olympic urban planning. As can be seen from an analysis of the conventional urban development of the host cities, and from the 20th and 21st century urban development of the cities in the post-war phase, the use of the Olympic event as a catalyst for processes of reconstruction, extension and transformation of the Olympic cities can be observed. Moreover, in the different urban programmes of the host cities, the physical dimension, the architectural style and the territorial model of the Olympic Village constitute the central elements of Olympic urbanism. However, the development of Olympic urban planning in the winter and summer editions has evolved in a completely different way. An alternative form of urban planning has thus emerged, characterised by placing the Olympic Village at the centre of the urban transformations of the host cities. Furthermore, in consideration of the evolution of the event, the Olympic Village has established itself as a centre of practice for new accommodation in the host cities that will become available for the post-Olympic period.

Introductory Hypothesis 2: The evolution of the Olympic Village as an urban strategy for the city

From the results obtained in the research, the fulfilment of this hypothesis can be verified. Therefore, we can conclude that the evolution of Olympic urbanism during the 20th century in the summer edition clearly shows a consolidation of urban strategies in which the construction of the Olympic Village has become a physically located element in central areas of the candidate cities, becoming a constituent element of long-term urban transformation strategies. Meanwhile, the evolution of Olympic urbanism in the 21st century in the winter edition clearly shows a consolidation of a new spatial dimension of regional strategies, in which the Olympic Village has become a multiple element in different locations within the Olympic space. In this sense, the Olympic Villages in the cities are no longer a place of intensive temporary use which becomes a territorial unknown during the post-Olympic period. However, the Olympic Villages in mountain sites in the post-Olympic period, in observation of the Turin 2006 case study, enter into a tourism strategy for the consolidation of a new model of territorial promotion. On the contrary, the Olympic Villages in the centre of the host cities, are constituted as urban pieces which are part of the new programmes of long-term urban change and transformation, as is clearly shown in the recent cases and experiences, Barcelona 1992, Turin 2006, London 2012 or Tokyo 2020. Therefore, the implementation of the city's own strategic plan will favour the inclusion of the Olympic Village in a consolidated urban strategy in terms of re-evaluation and redefinition of areas that were included in the long-term strategies. On the other hand, in the winter edition, the Olympic Village through its inclusion in a territorial promotion strategy can be transformed into an element that produces a value and a plurality of results for the mountain sites. However, in editions such as Sochi 2014 or PyeongChang 2018, we have observed a spatial dimension that proposed the transformation of new territories for the exploitation of winter tourism. In both cases, the results obtained allow us to verify that a new tourism exploitation strategy, in new locations, can become a risk in terms of production of territory and lack of use of accommodation. The Winter Olympic Village may therefore constitute a strategy for increasing tourist accommodation only in places that already have a link with winter sports.

Introductory Hypothesis 3: The recent rethinking of the 'Olympic legacy'

Throughout the Olympic experience of the 20th century, the shaping element of Olympic urbanism has been the construction of physical infrastructures that have become increasingly complex with the presence of a new set of intangible elements, associated with the idea of the urban legacy of the Games (Olympic legacy'). Since the Games of Barcelona 1992, Sydney 2000, Turin 2006, Beijing 2008 and most clearly in the case of London 2012, Olympic urbanism has become a fundamental element in favouring new values of social and cultural identity, associated with the collective legacy of the event. Therefore, the transformation of the host cities, with the help of the new sustainability criteria applied in the construction of the Olympic Village and the new sports venues,

represents a new era for the urban legacy. The consideration of existing and temporary structures has introduced new elements of urban recycling that ensure the re-use of urban structures in the post-Olympic period and can promote further intangible transformation processes in the host cities. Furthermore, based on the new selection criteria for candidate cities, it is argued that legacy and sustainability have become key elements of the Olympic evaluation process. However, the future projects of Paris 2024, Los Angeles 2028, Brisbane 2032, allow us to state that the elements of sustainability and urban legacy were introduced from the beginning and considered as fundamental components for the allocation of the Olympic event. Therefore, the consideration of the Olympic legacy for the planning of the Olympic Village from an optional event constitutes a fundamental tool for the consideration of urban legacy in host cities.

In conclusion, this hypothesis can be verified by the results of the quantitative and qualitative interviews, as they allow us to affirm that the Olympic legacy must assume a specific planning for the post-event phase. In this sense, and still observing the results of the qualitative sample on the case of Turin, it can be established that the Olympic legacy has become the most important element to carry out a winning strategy in terms of the allocation of the event. Nevertheless, it can be concluded that all interviewees raise, suggest, and confirm the need for a post-Olympic strategy with a scope of at least 10 to 15 years after the Olympic event.

Central Hypothesis: The Winter Olympic Games and their evolution towards the development of metropolitan and regional strategies

By analysing the different urban planning experiences of the host cities of the Winter Olympic event during the 20th and 21st centuries, we can determine a new evolution of the spatial dimension and urban planning models. The winter edition has been developing through primordial models that are not essentially urbanistic, associated with the idea of a mountain resort and with a temporary use for the sporting event. Over time, since the Oslo 1952 edition, the Olympic event has begun to develop through more complex and more substantial models of urbanisation. Likewise, the Olympic Village will show the same evolution of the construction criteria observed in the summer edition. The final point of the urbanisation process will be the proposal of metropolitan and regional strategies in the Olympic experiences after Turin 2006. The spatial model observed in the Turin 2006 edition helps us to establish the validity of a central structure based on the metropolitan city and other competition venues distributed in the regional territory. Therefore, the new model of territorial expansion of the winter edition is configured in different locations, creating networks in a wider regional space that continues to grow. The mountain locations; fundamental for the sports competitions; and, the metropolitan city; will be the central elements of the new territorial promotion strategy of the host cities and constitute the new development model that will manifest itself as the maximum expression of the real extent of the phenomenon of metropolization of the host cities. The participants in the qualitative research confirm that the development of a regional strategy should consider the mountain areas and the city as two totally different projects.

Moreover, most of the interviewee's state that in Turin 2006, the mountains were sometimes even excluded from the overall project in the post-Olympic phase. It is thus emphasised that the Winter Olympics can affect the territory through different scales of intervention and yet some models can affect the territorial organisation in a permanent way. Moreover, as interviewees point out, regionalisation and temporal connections dissolved and disappeared in the post-Olympic period. However, the Milan-Cortina 2026 edition, involving the participation of three regions and two main cities, will again modify the Olympic space. The constitution of a central city, a cluster in the mountains and other competition venues distributed in a new spatial dimension will increase the size of the Olympic area to a maximum distance of 370 km between the city of Milan and Anterselva di Mezzo, the competition venue. Finally, we would like to stress the importance of strategic planning within a sustainable development perspective for future territories. The integration of strategic lines in a common development framework can reduce the possibilities of failure and uncertainty that have been observed in the post-event phase. It must be said that the Olympic Games are special events that must fit into the context of the ordinary planning of the host cities and territories. Therefore, the Olympic Village must be planned through a long-term strategy that can be transformed into a dynamic tool for the host territory. The results refer only to the qualitative and quantitative research samples, and therefore the hypotheses put forward are verifiable in this sample. For this reason, it is insisted that the Olympic Village has become a fundamental piece for the debate and research on the issue of housing in specific contexts. Looking at the future projects of Paris 2024, Milan-Cortina 2026, Los Angeles 2028 or Canberra 2032, we see how the Olympic Village has become the only urban element that will have to be planned through new housing construction. However, participatory planning and the collaboration of local authorities is a fundamental element for the implementation of lines and strategies in terms of sustainable development. In conclusion, it can be said that the sample offers new criteria for the evaluation of the Olympic Villages and new elements to be investigated. For this reason, and in consideration of the quantitative sample of experts, the importance of organising a new Olympic symposium to discuss, investigate and observe the different Olympic experiences that could not be observed at that time is insisted upon. However, the organisation of a new symposium on Olympic Villages could favour the consideration of new criteria for construction, evaluation and integration with the objectives for sustainable development of the United Nations. Finally, and in relation to the reports provided by the academics, the Olympic Village is identified in a strategic planning context by investigating the relationship between city and Olympic Village, a connexion previously neglected by the vast majority of previous studies, and is thus considered as a basis for future research projects. The thesis clearly opens the door to further research for the study and evaluation of Olympic Villages of the past or the future by means of common parameters. However, it underlines the importance of the longitudinal perspective introduced by the thesis which can also be applied to past events. In particular, the research on Olympic Villages and their relationship with urbanisation is considered an original contribution to the existing literature.

Future line of research

As stated in the introduction to this research, the work carried out is characterised by the originality of analysing and approaching the Olympic Villages from the perspective of an urban piece with an identity character within the host cities. It is for the following motivation that a sufficiently broad and solid theoretical framework has been organised, covering different areas related to Mega-events from a territorial strategy perspective. Therefore, the theoretical framework will be of great use for future research. This is the reason why the following work focuses on the Olympic Village, which is instituted as a central piece of the Olympic urbanism that in turn is represented by other elements such as the stadium, the Olympic swimming pool in the summer edition and, represented by the trampoline and the bobsleigh in the winter edition.

In this sense, and in relation to the results obtained, different possibilities arise for future lines of research in relation to the observation of Olympic urbanism and its Village.

The first possibility would be the organisation of a new Olympic congress taking into account that almost 30 years have passed since the last symposium on the Olympic Villages. As it has been seen, the following congress was the only moment of debate at the academic level in relation to the field of studies. In addition, in consideration of new practices and new elements of legacy and sustainability, it is essential to look more deeply into the Olympic Villages in consideration of the long-term urban legacy.

Thus, it is urgent to establish and address new criteria for the evaluation of Olympic Villages in terms of the different relationships that are established for accommodation in the candidate cities. In the same way, it is stimulating to deepen citizen participation in the Olympic debate in order to meet the real needs of the citizens.

In the same way, the integration of the minimum and maximum dimensions of the Olympic Villages given in the research is of fundamental importance to establish a new policy based on rational elements between city and territory.

However, the integration of dimensions and new criteria can only be provided by the IOC, through the publication of new rules and new obligations for the candidate cities.

On the other hand, the analysis and monitoring of the perception of the citizens staying in the Olympic Village can help us in the integration of elements that have not been

considered so far due to lack of research. Through a series of mixed interviews with the resident population in the Olympic Villages, other tools or mechanisms can be brought to light to explore the issue of accommodation in the post-event phase.

Thus, we can consider the analysis of the areas around the Olympic Village and the observation of the activities that take place there (commercial, offices and services...) starting from the pre-Olympic state and its post-Olympic evolution, as an economic catalyst that has not been considered to date. A catalyst that will allow us to observe and establish new criteria for the consideration of the Olympic Village.

Finally, I wish to be consistent with this work, both in terms of publications and in terms of disseminating the information generated from the opinions expressed by the experts who contributed to the quantitative and qualitative samples. The coherence must take into account the members who have contributed to the academic debate over time, so one of the first dissemination activities proposed is an exhibition on the Olympic Villages in collaboration with the Olympic Museum of Lausanne and the Olympic Museums around the world to raise awareness and knowledge of the evolution of Olympic urban planning throughout the 20th and 21st centuries.

ANNEXES

1. GENERAL ANNEXES

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1.2. CARTOGRAPHIC REPRESENTATIONS OF WINTER OLYMPIC VILLAGES

1.3. PARAMETERS USED FOR THE ANALYSIS OF THE OLYMPIC VILLAGES

1.4. EXAMPLES OF LEGACIES AT THE OLYMPIC GAMES

1.5. UPDATE ON IOC SUSTAINABILITY DEVELOPMENTS

1.6. CHORE. MEGA-EVENTS AND STAKEHOLDERS

2. ANNEXES RELATING TO THE INTERVIEW PROCESS

2.1 SUPPLY PROTOCOL QUANTITATIVE INTERVIEW

2.2 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

2.3 QUANTITATIVE INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS

2.4 QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW DELIVERY PROTOCOL

2.5. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

2.6 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH DATABASE*

2.7 TRANSCRIPTS OF INTERVIEWS FROM QUALITATIVE RESEARCH*

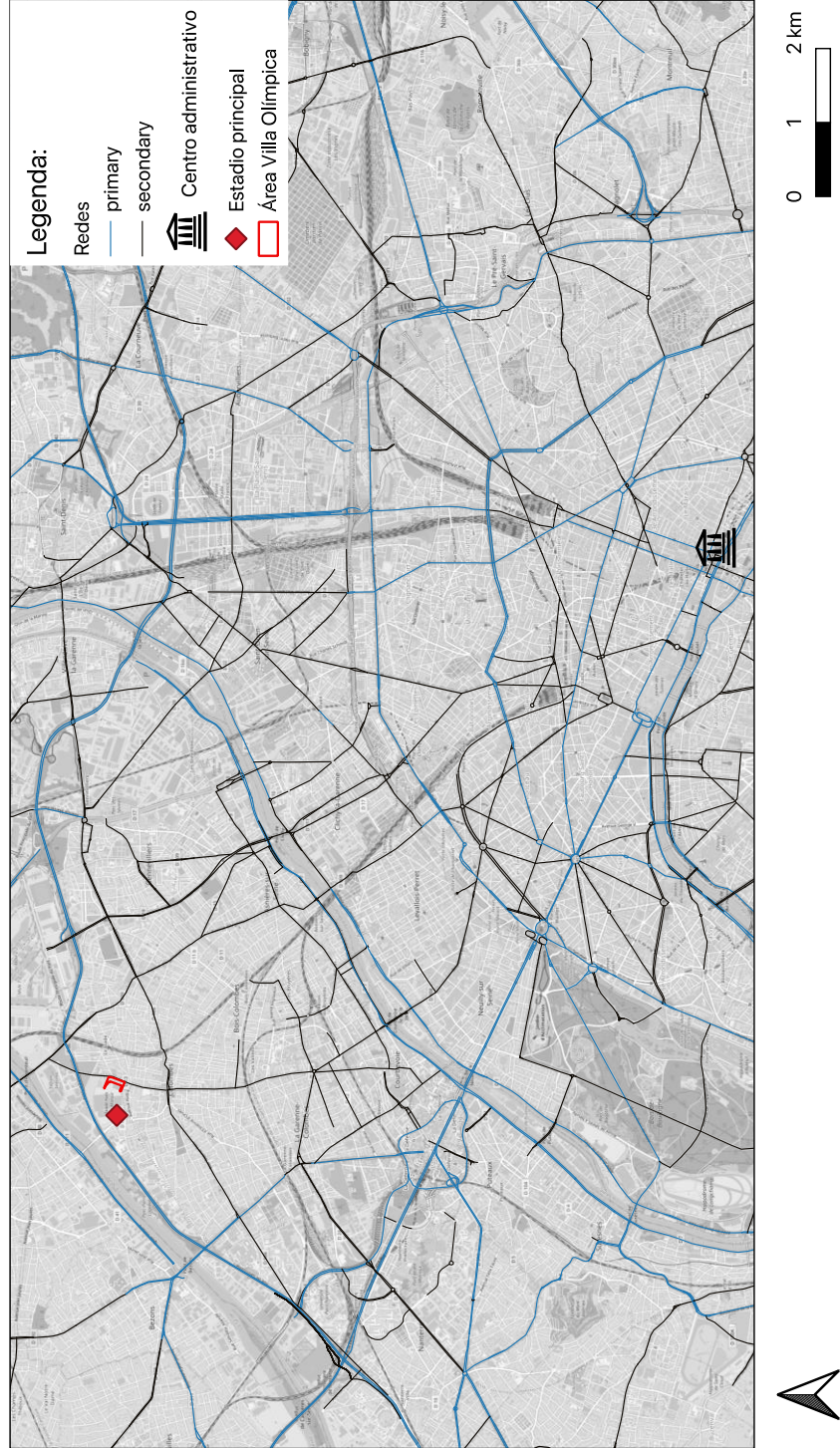
2.8 AUDIO INTERVIEWS FROM QUALITATIVE RESEARCH*

* The following appendices are only available in the academic publication system of the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona

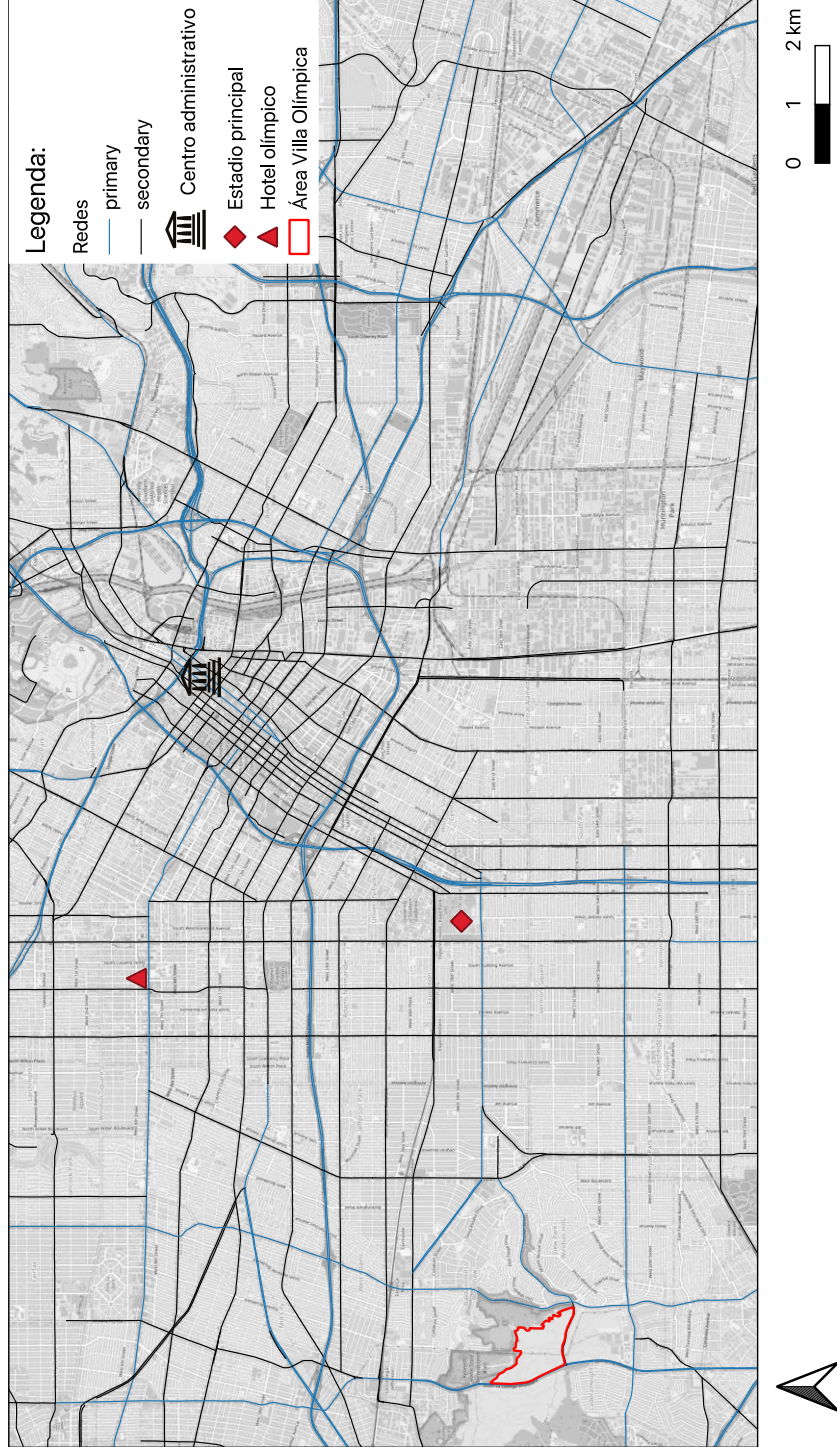
1. GENERAL ANNEXES

1.1. CARTOGRAPHIC REPRESENTATIONS OF THE SUMMER OLYMPIC VILLAGES

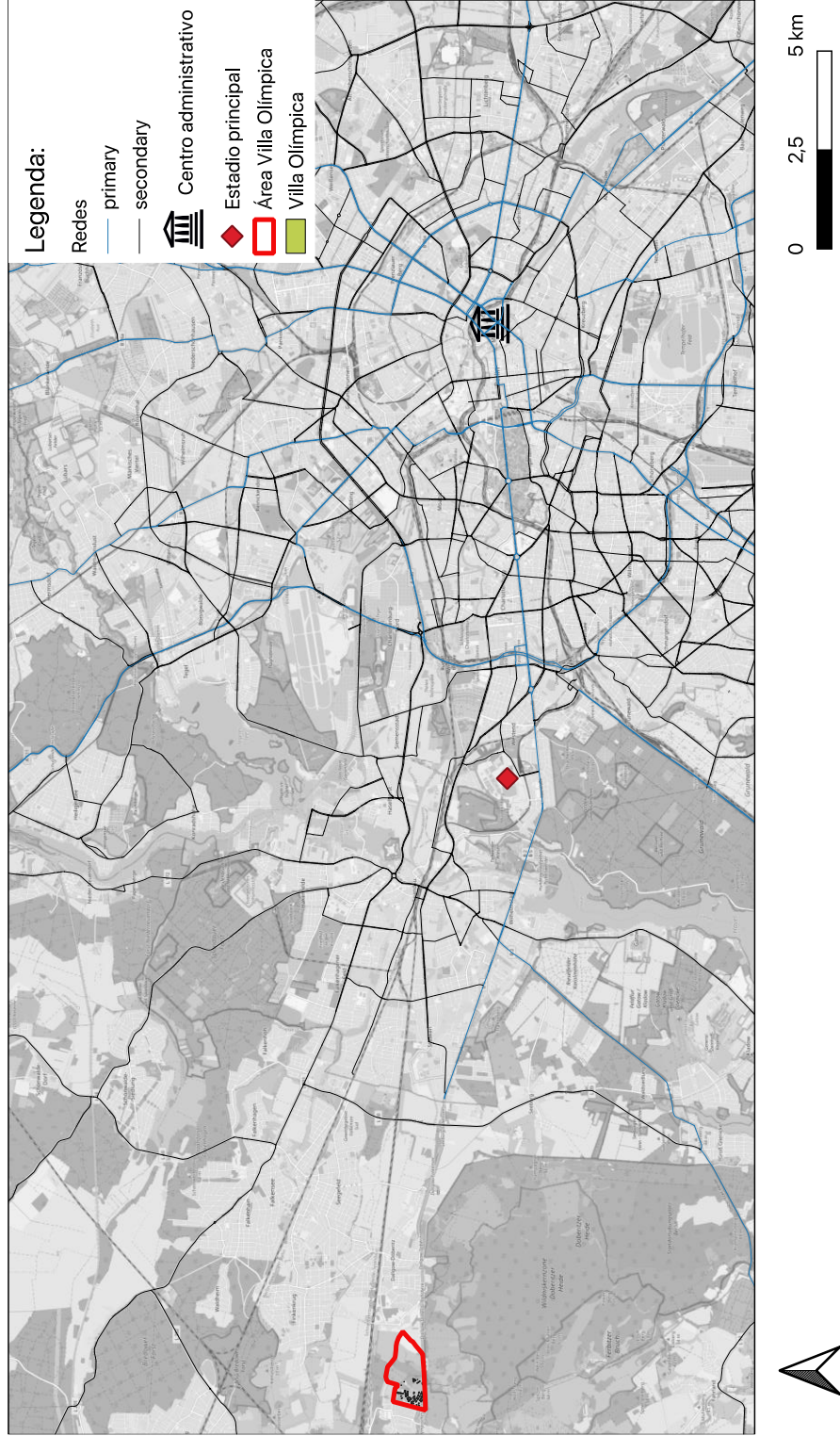
Paris 1924



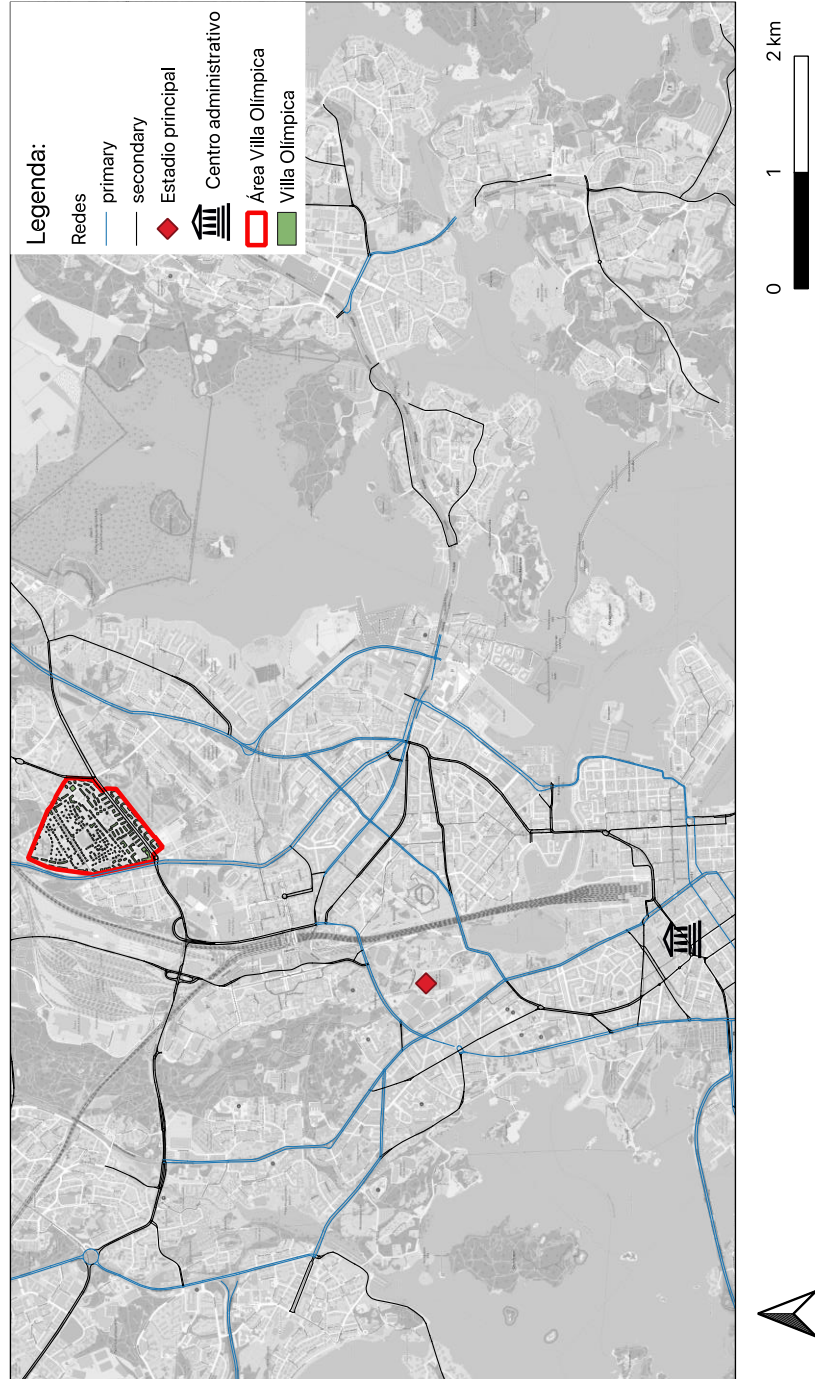
Los Angeles 1932



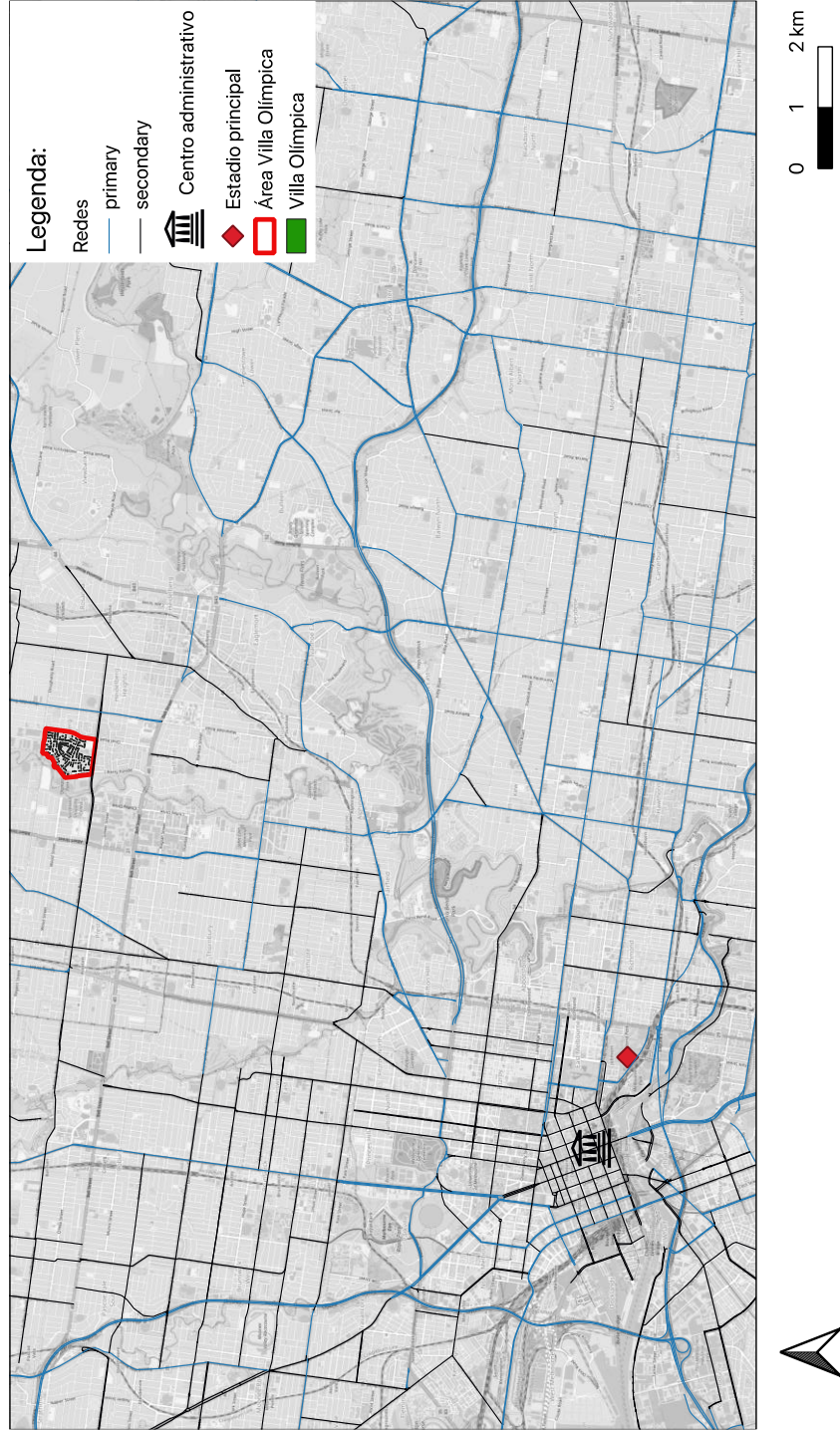
Berlín 1936



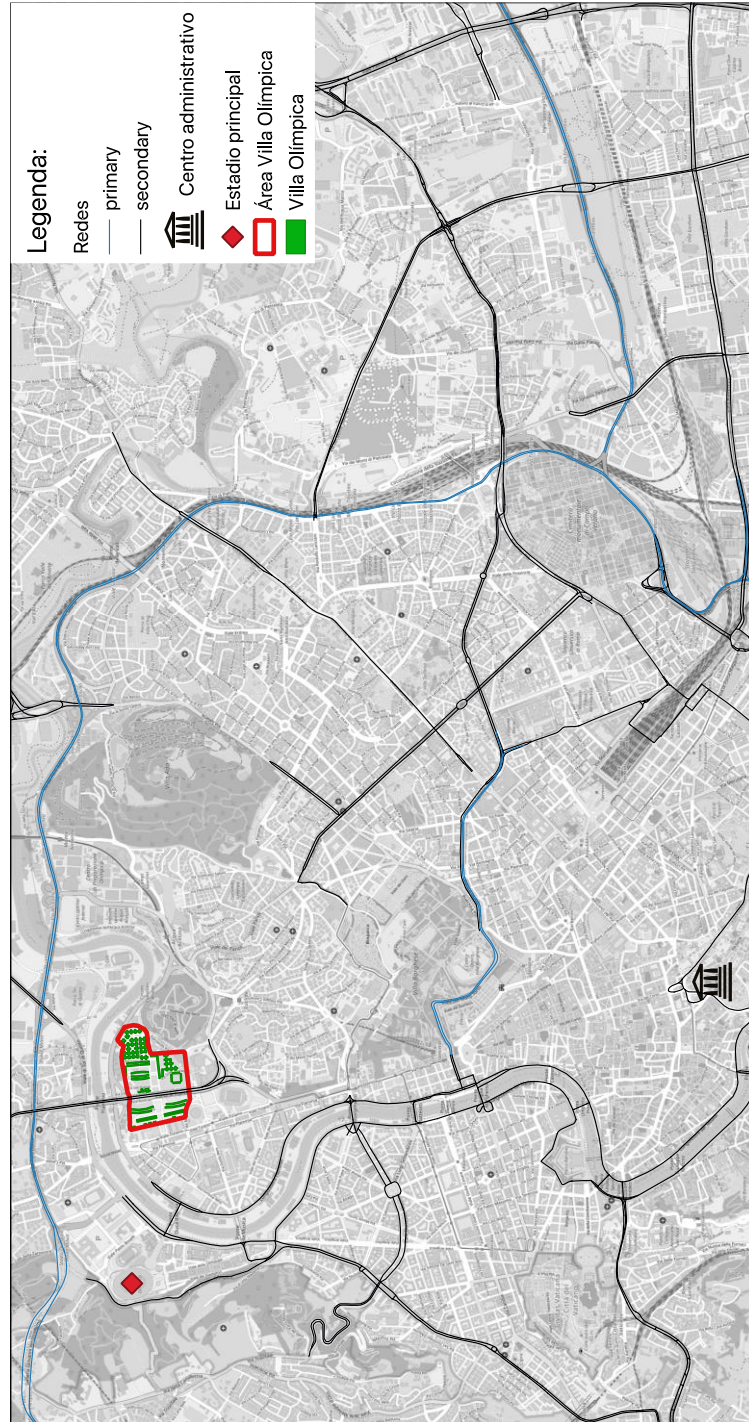
Helsinki 1952



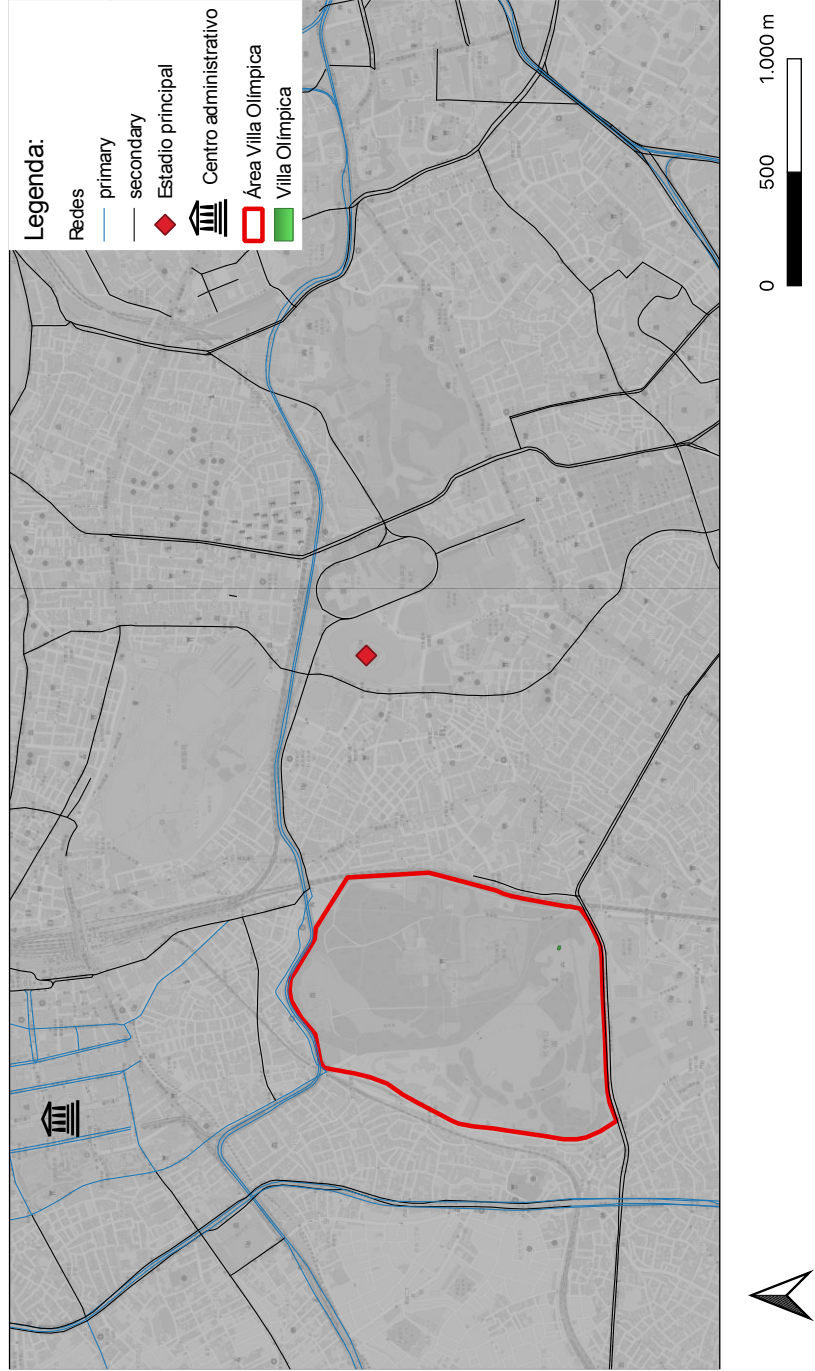
Melbourne 1956



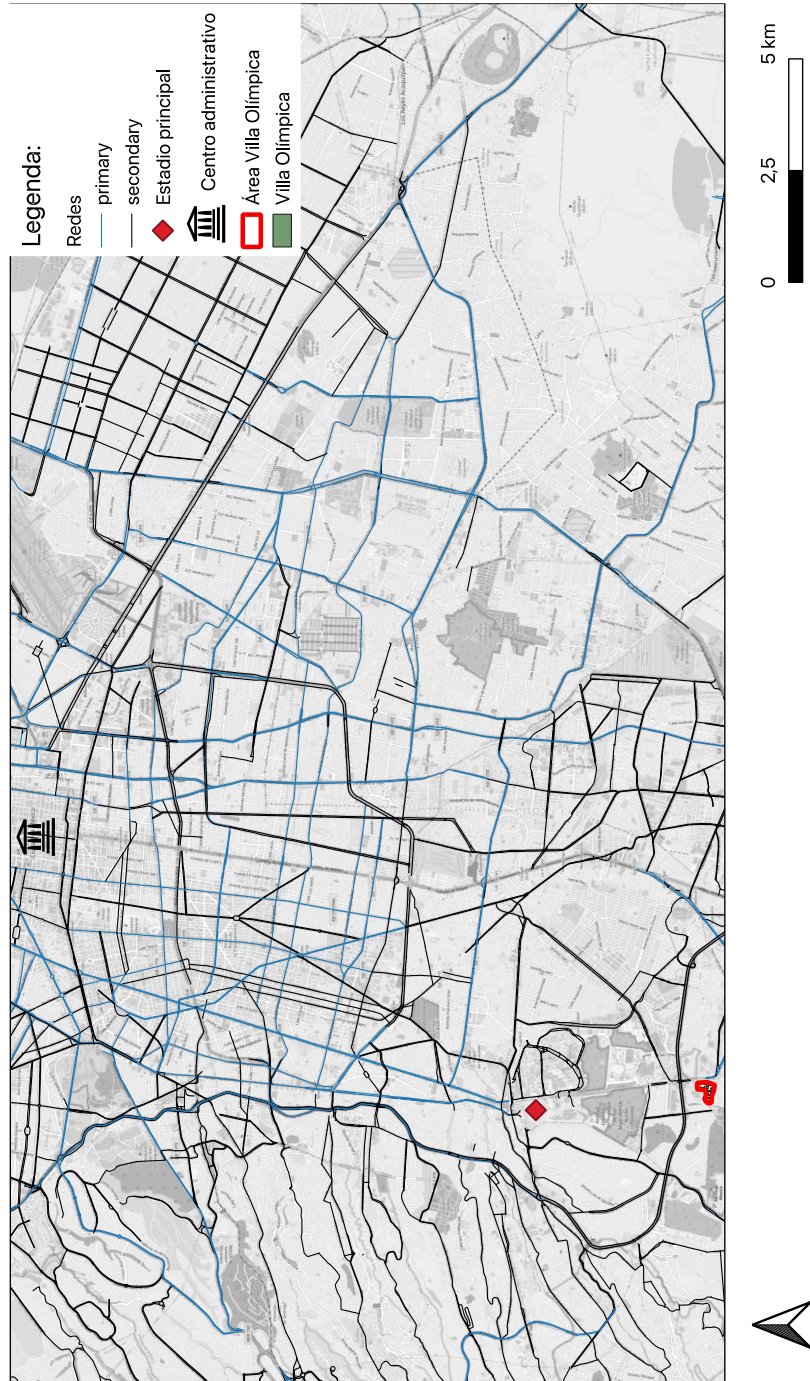
Roma 1960



Tokio 1964



Ciudad de México 1968



Munich 1972



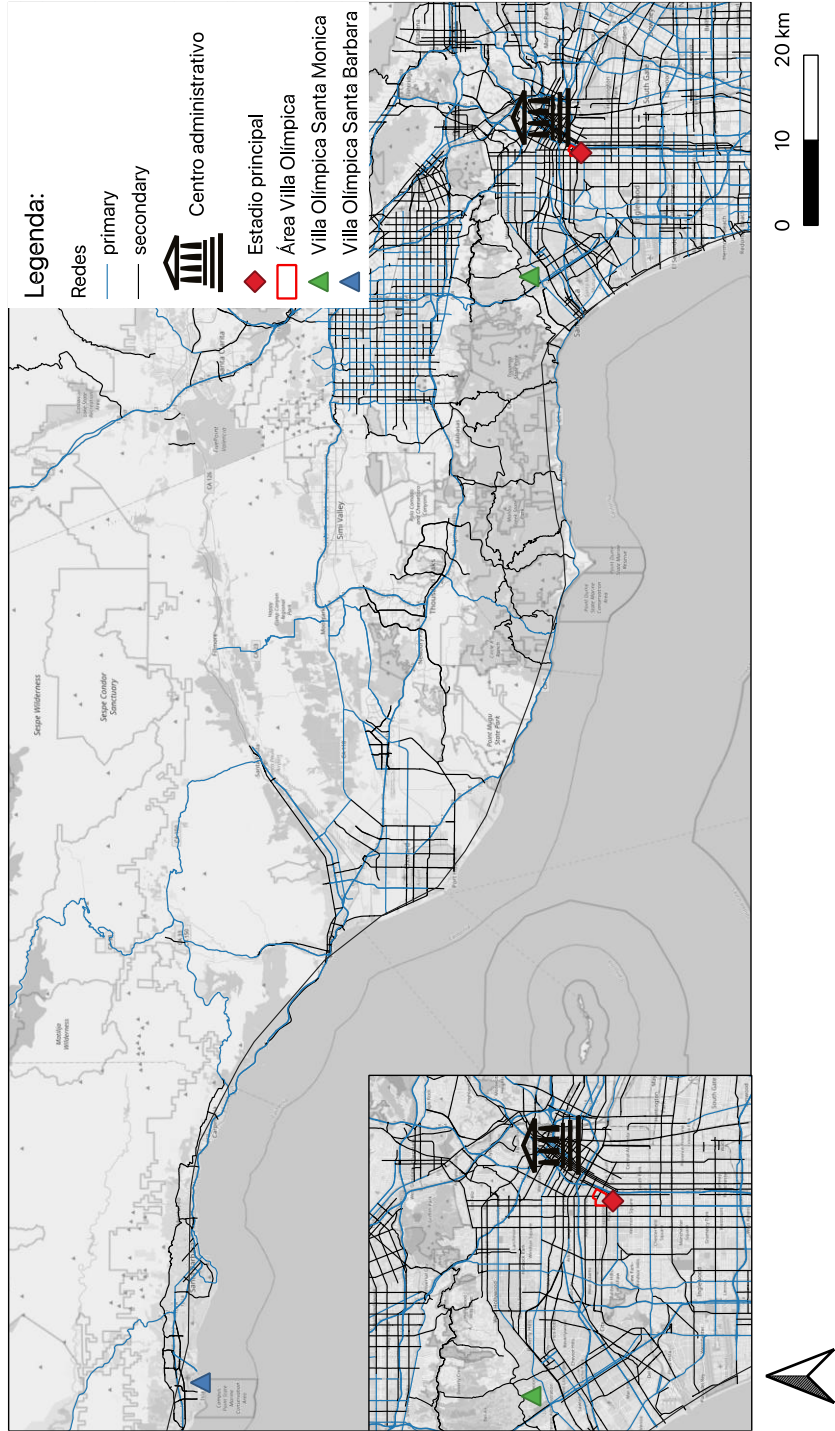
Montreal 1976



Moscú 1980



Los Angeles 1984



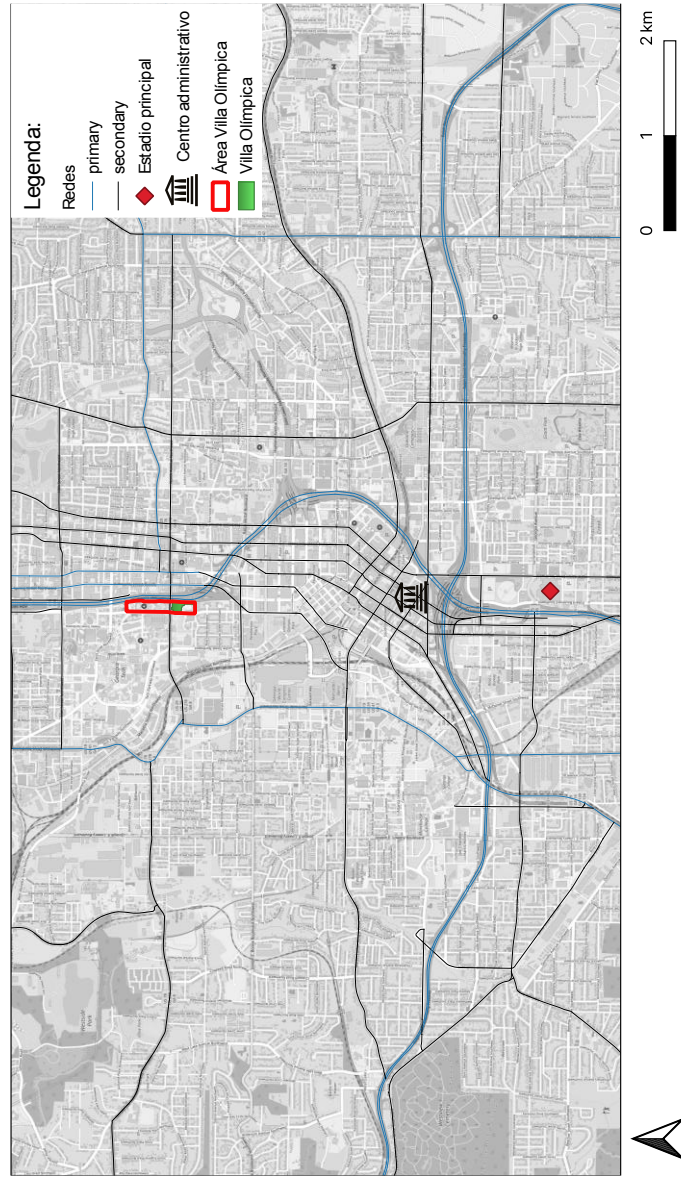
Seúl 1988



Barcelona 1992



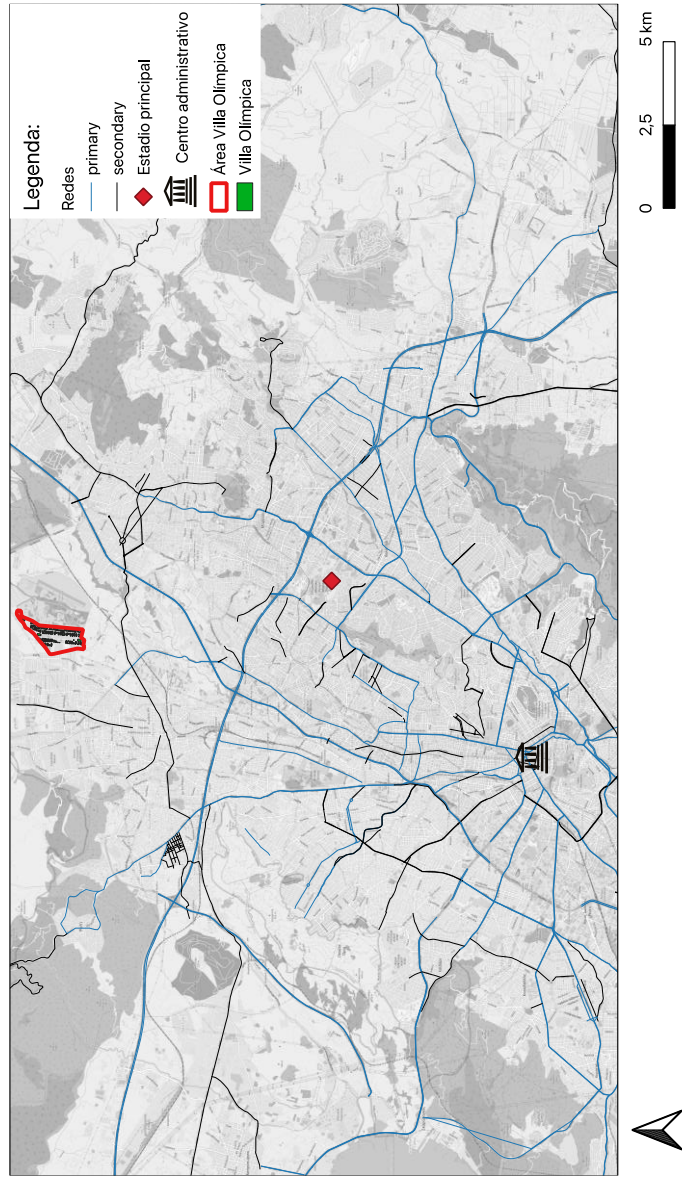
Atlanta 1996



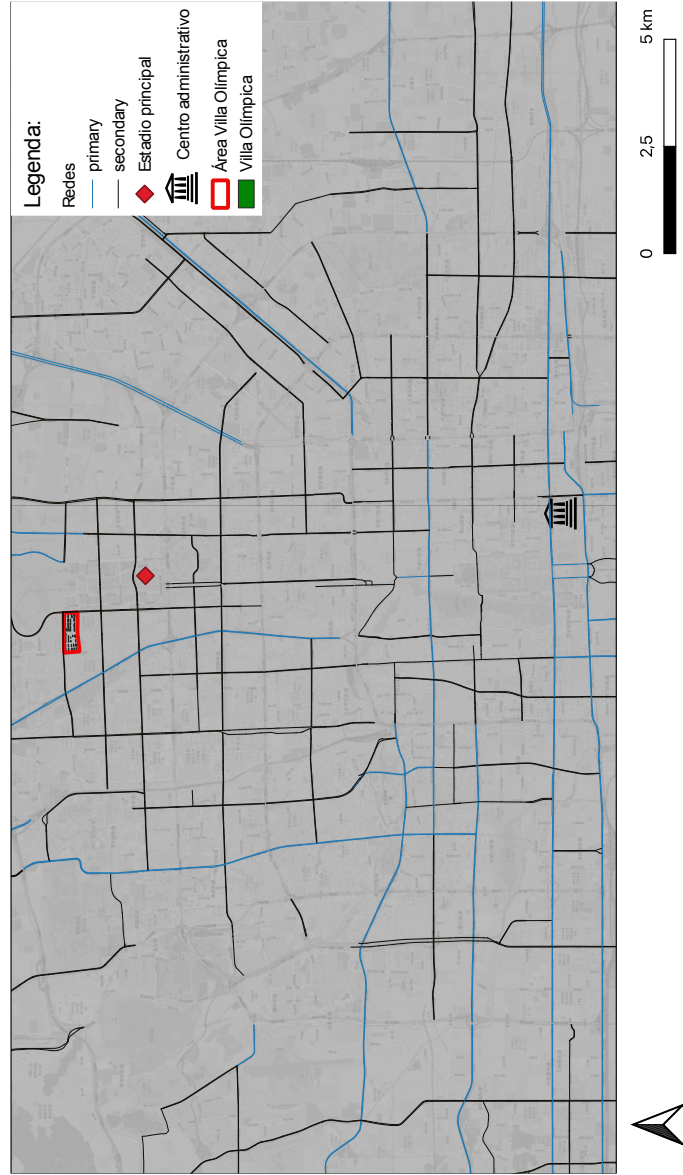
Sídney 2000



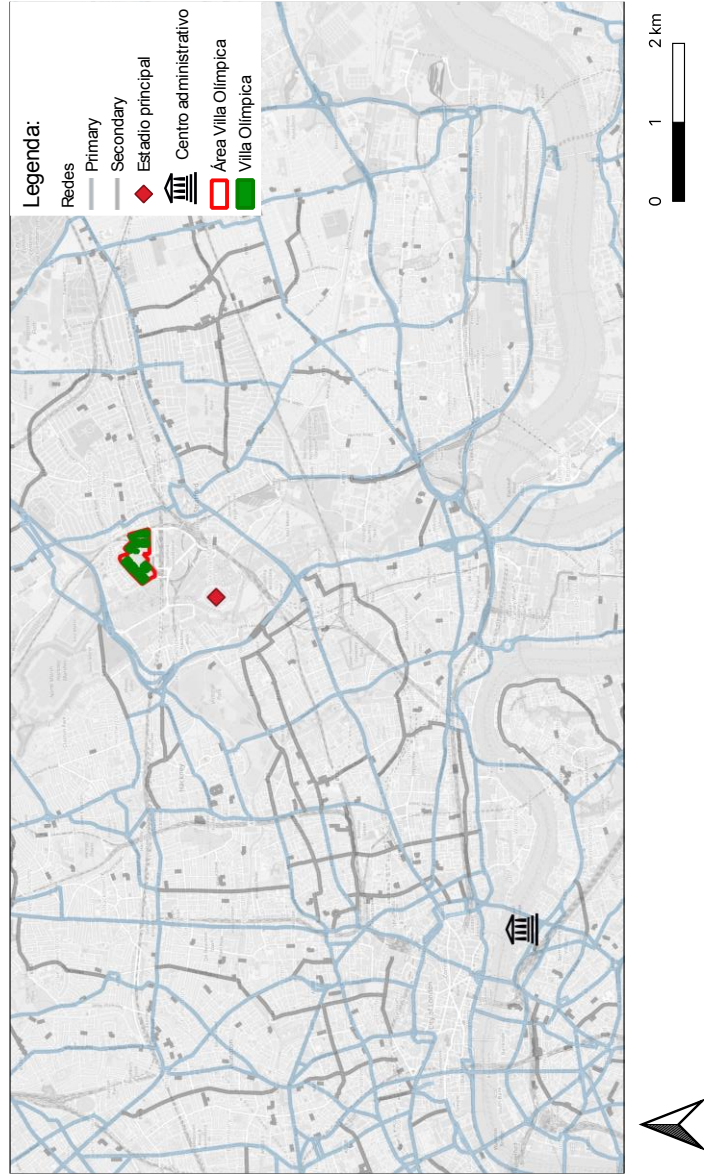
Atenas 2004



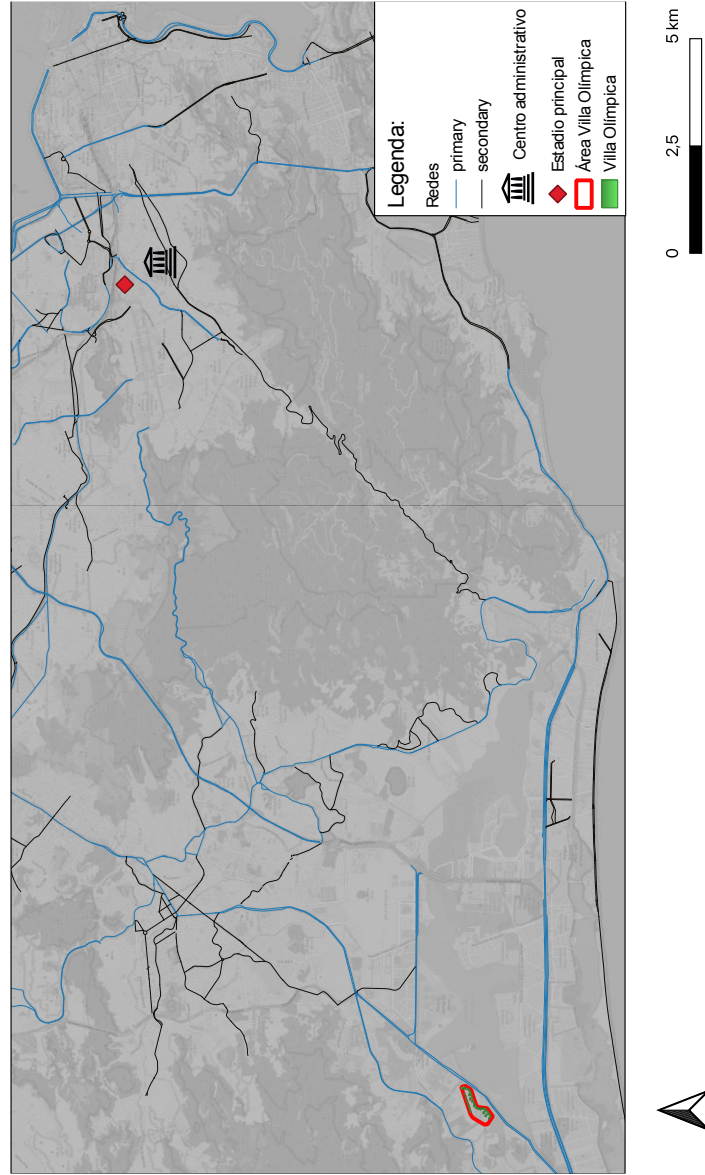
Beijing 2008



Londres 2012



Rio de Janeiro 2016

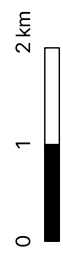
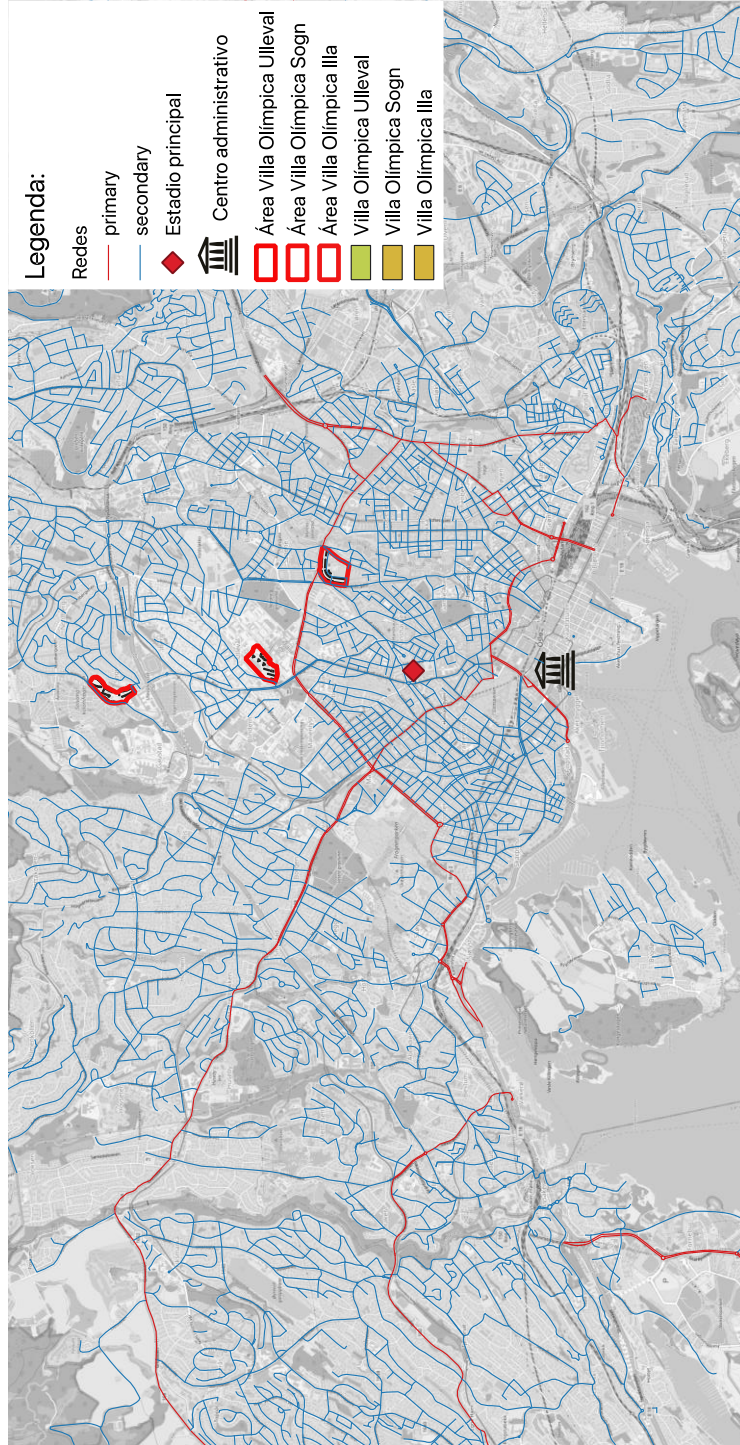


Tokio 2020

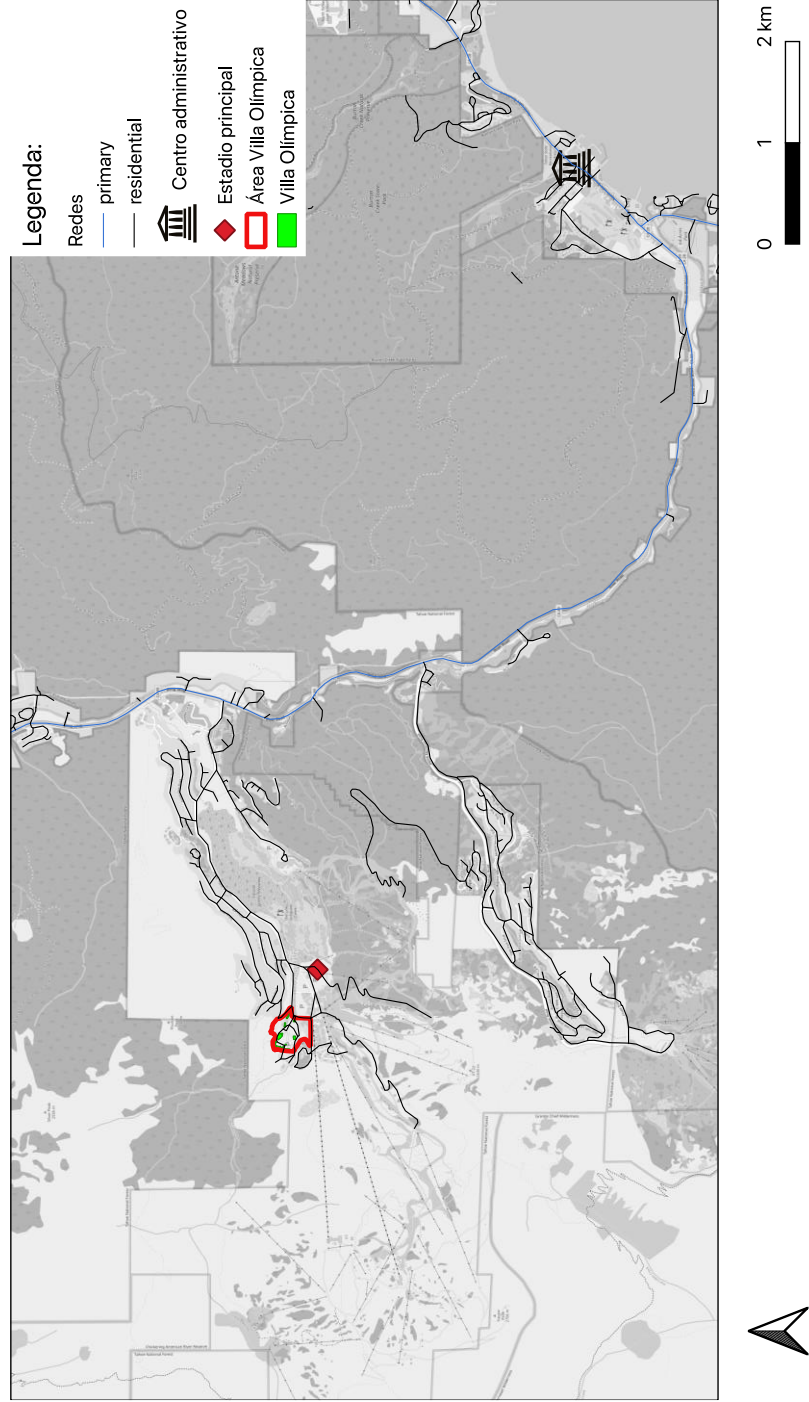


1.2 CARTOGRAPHIC REPRESENTATIONS OF THE OLYMPIC WINTER VILLAGES

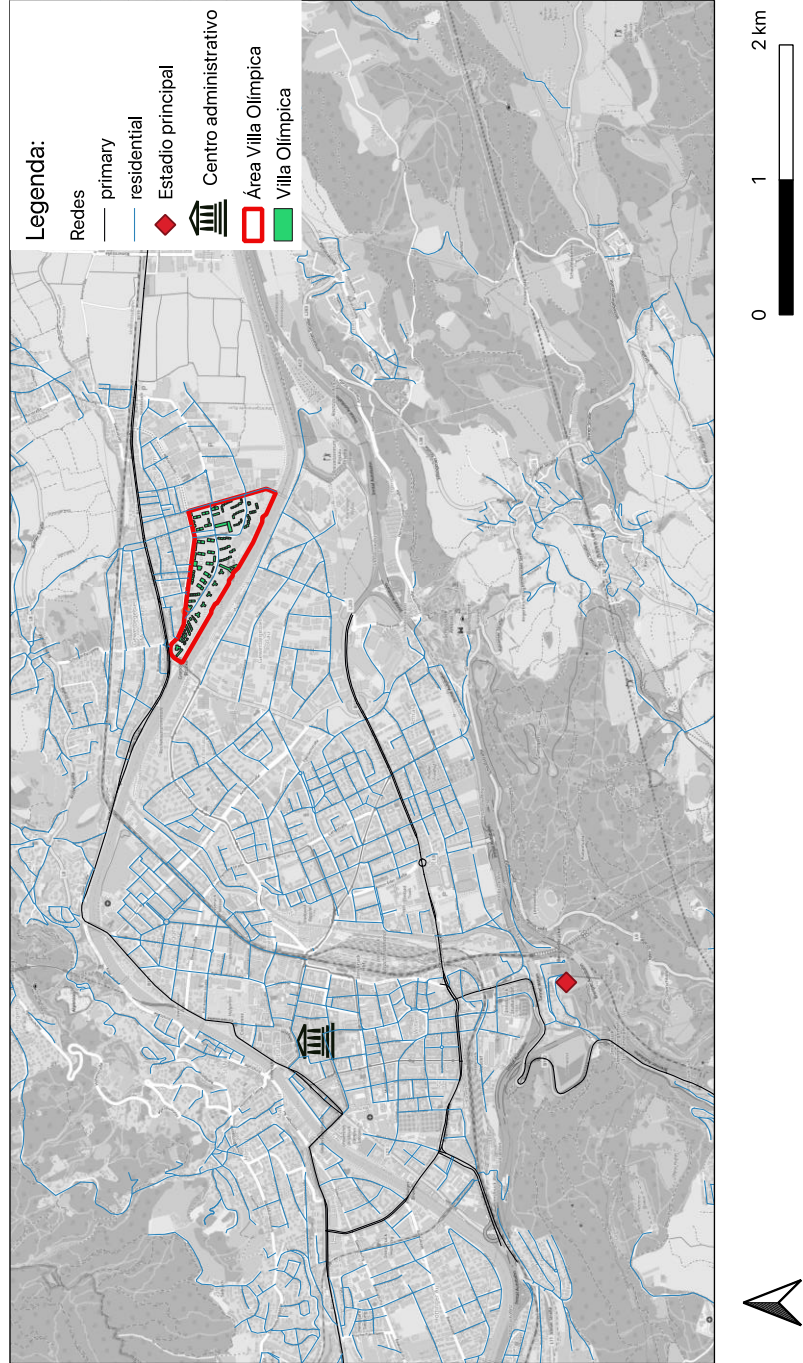
Oslo 1952



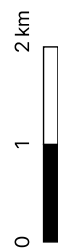
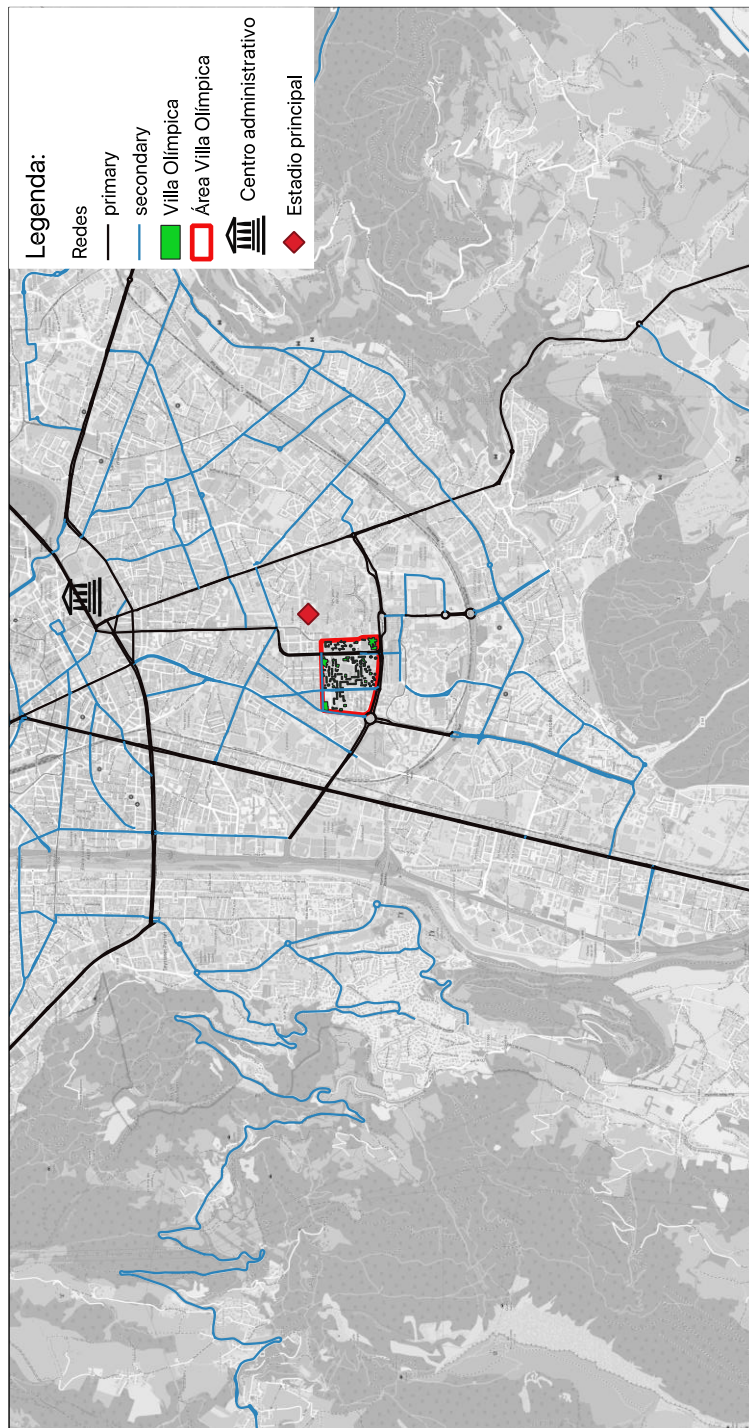
Squaw Valley 1960



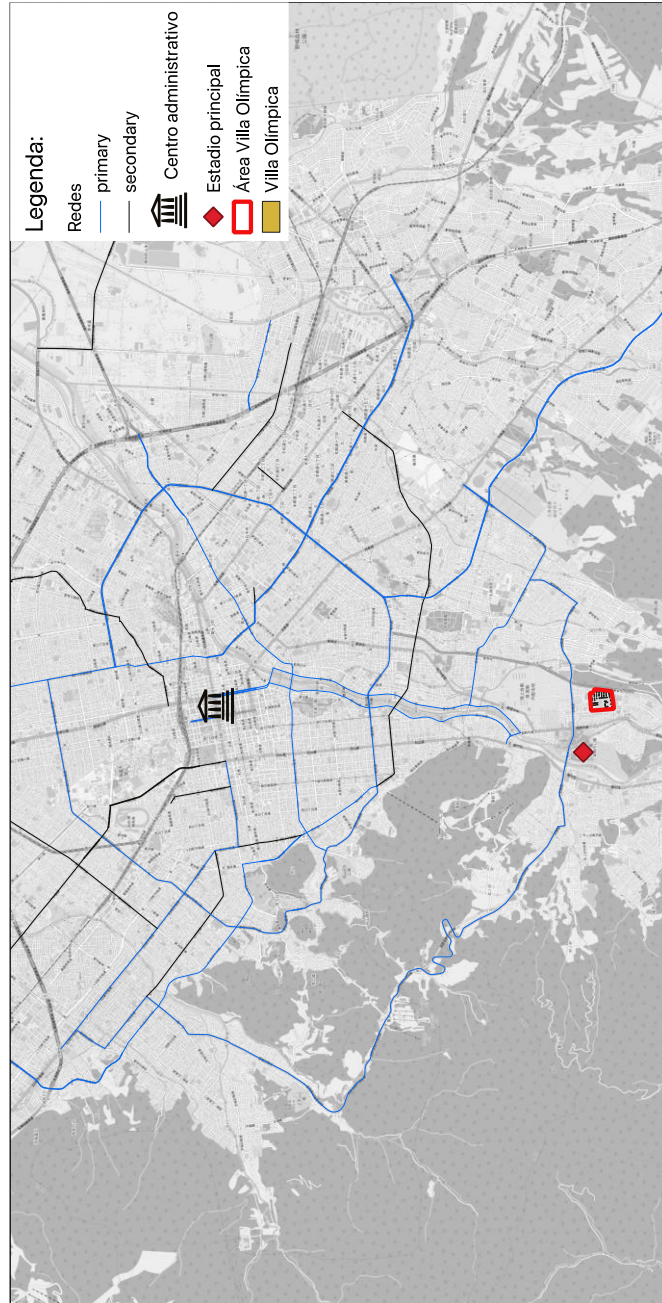
Innsbruck 1964



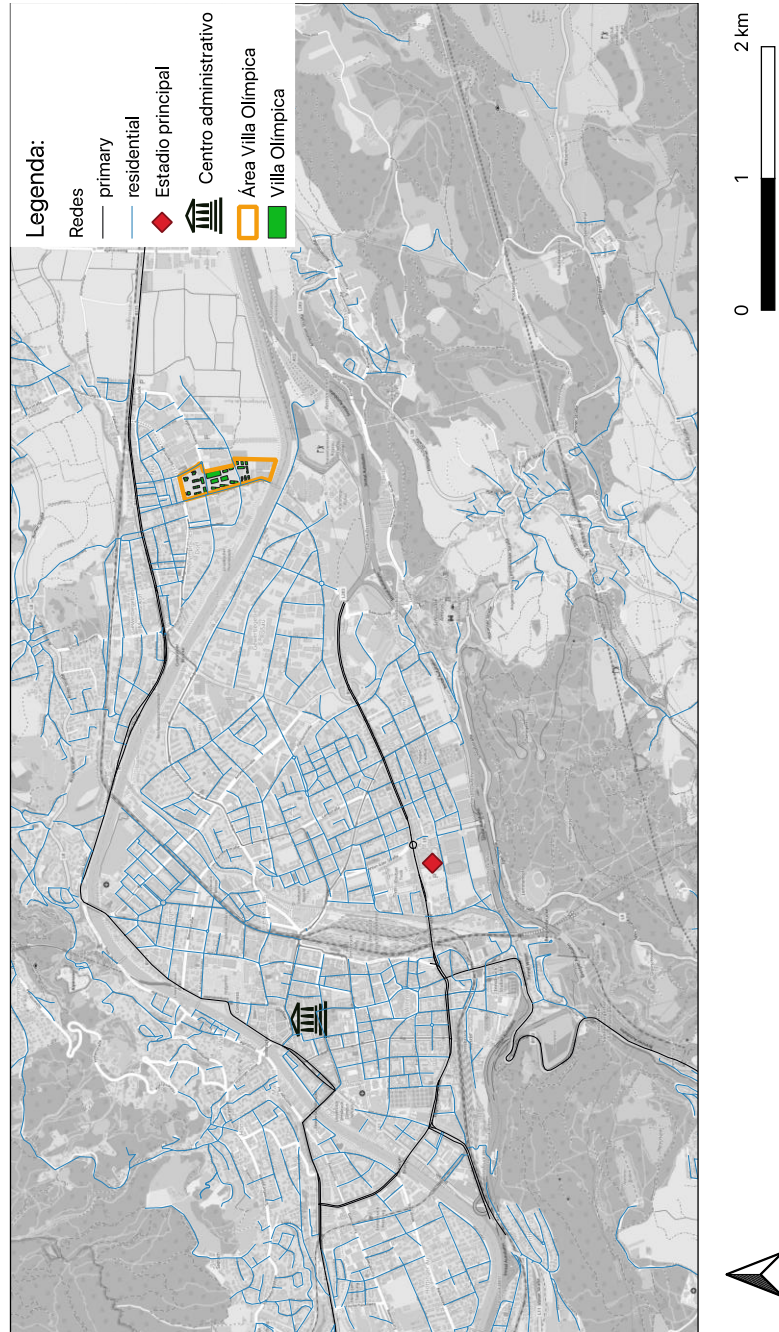
Grenoble 1968



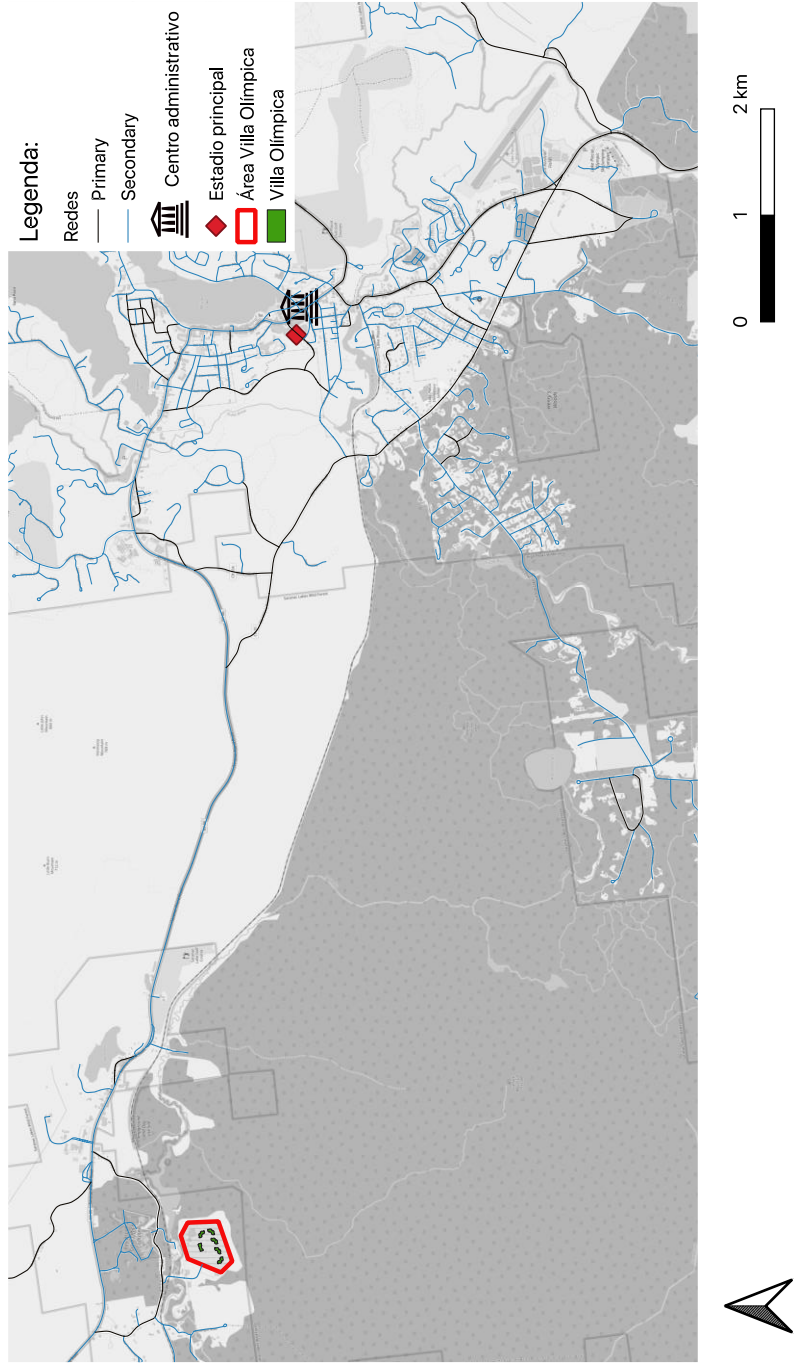
Sapporo 1972



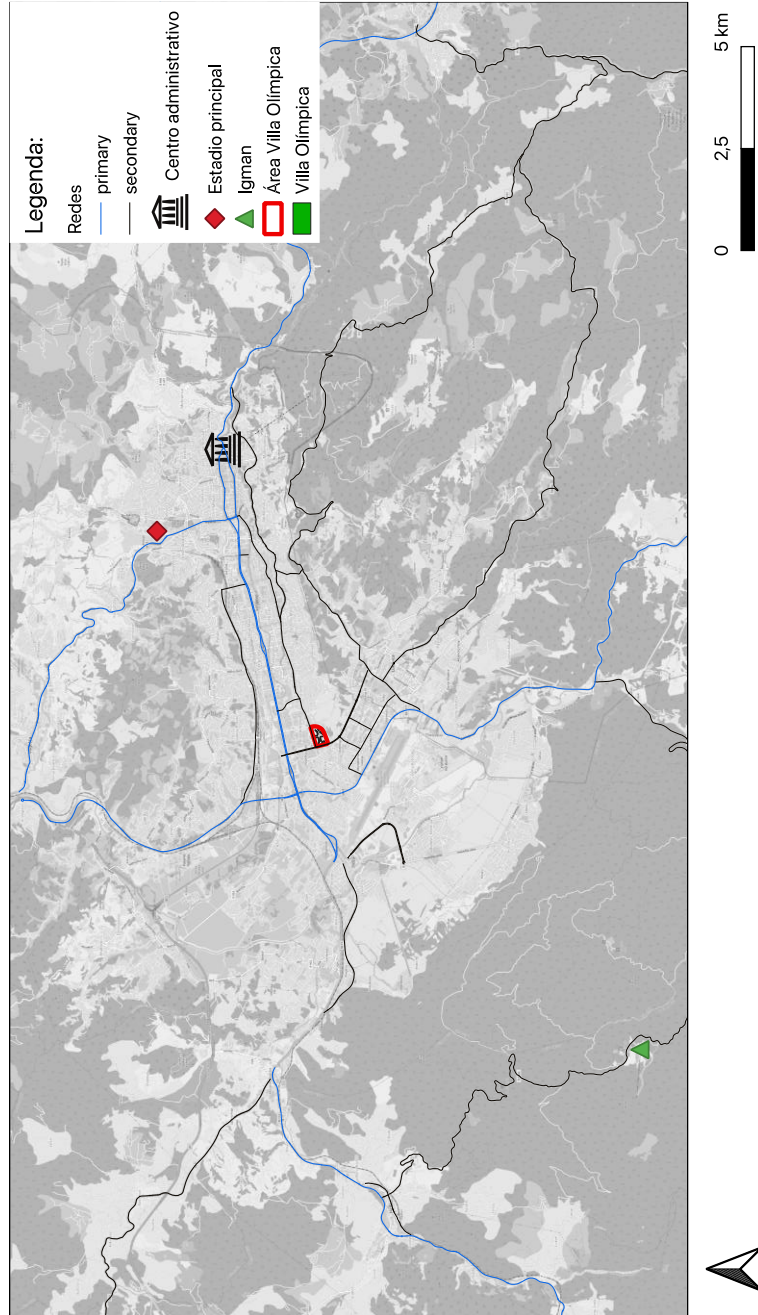
Innsbruck 1976



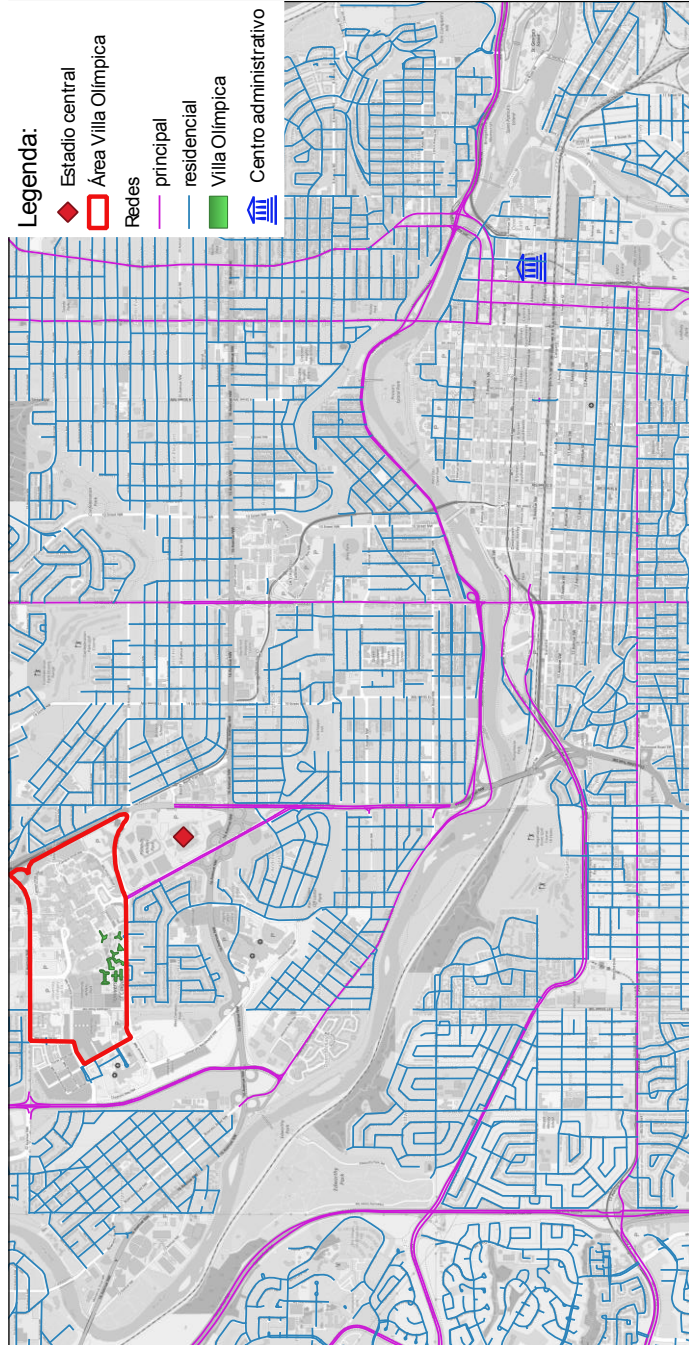
Lake Placid 1980



Sarajevo 1984

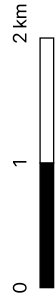


Calgary 1988

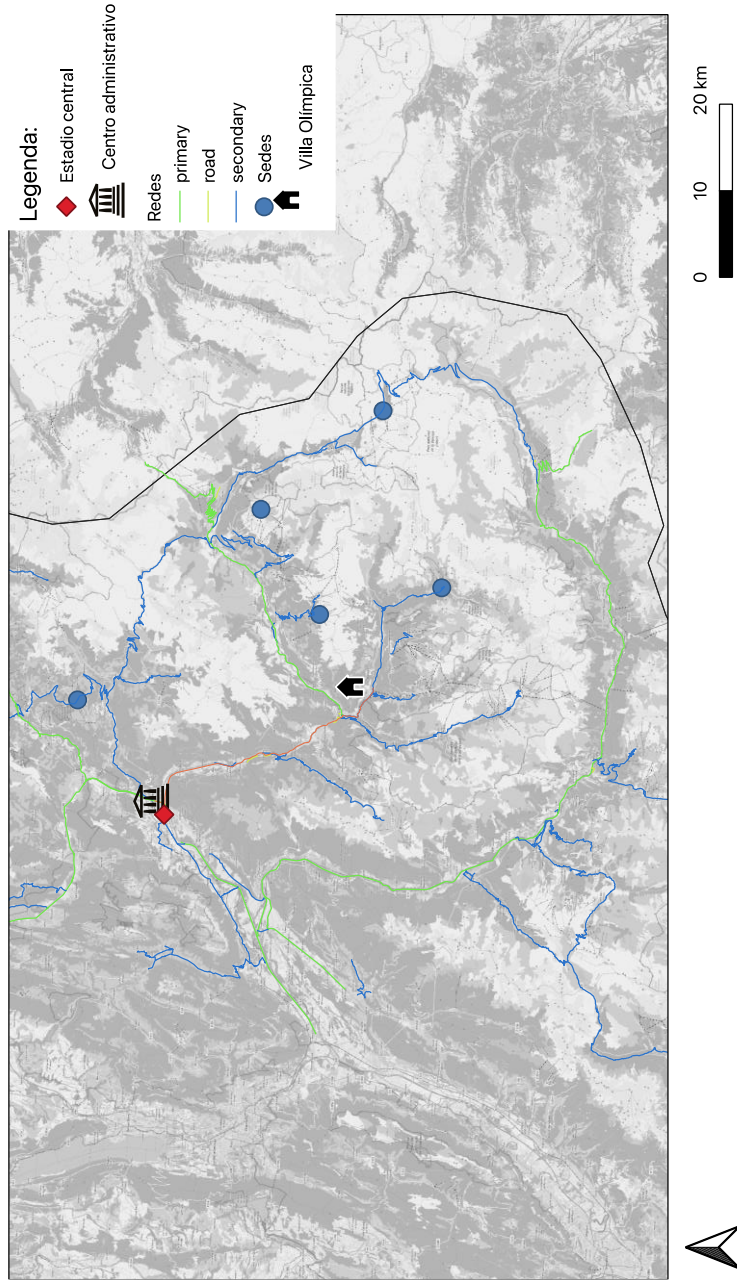


Legenda:

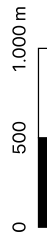
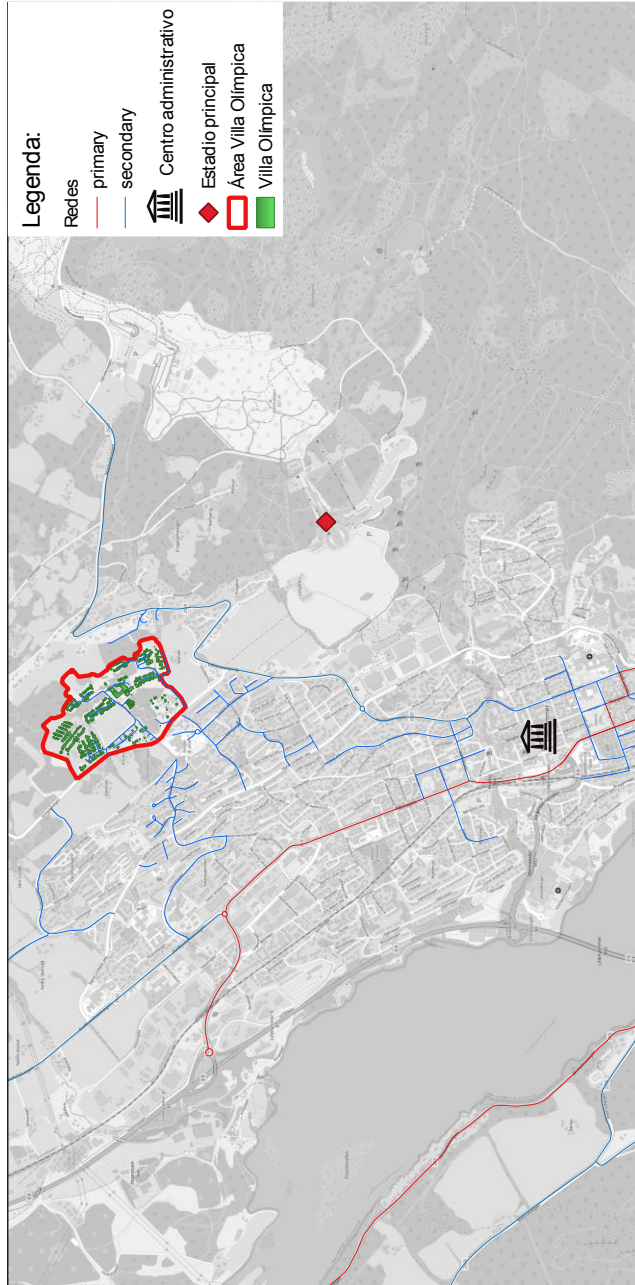
- Estadio central
- Área Villa Olímpica
- Redes
- principal residencial
- Villa Olímpica
- Centro administrativo



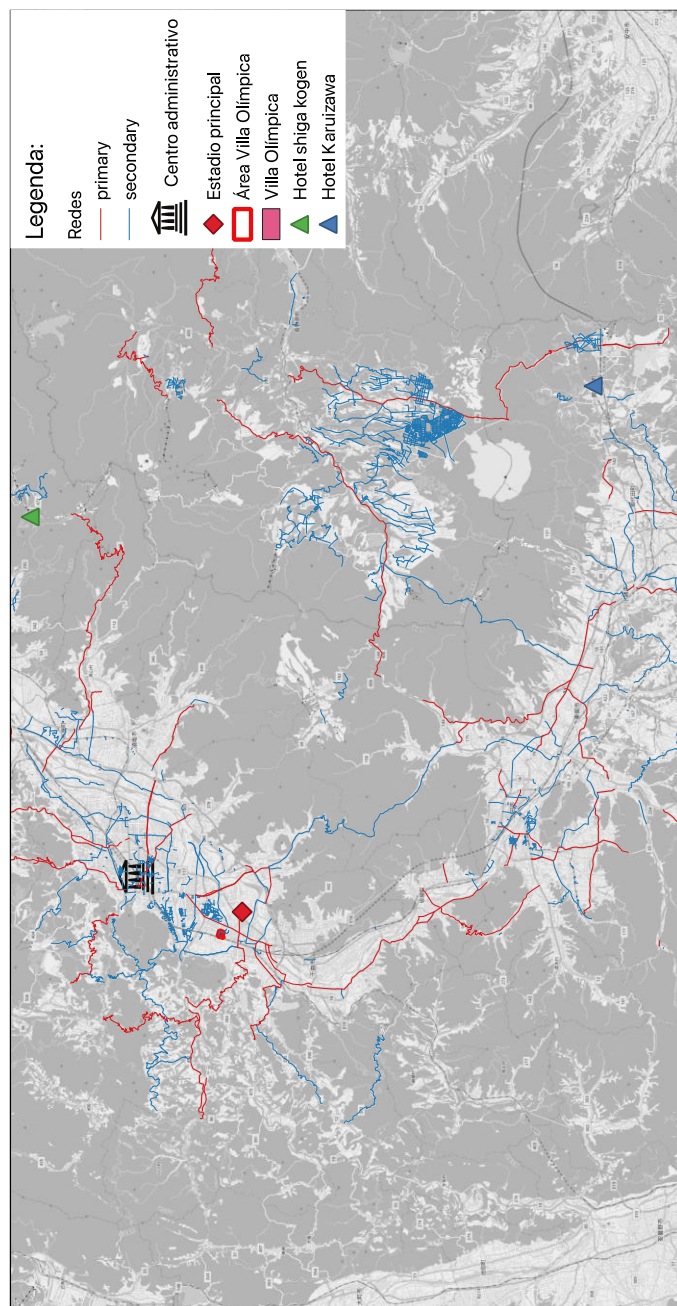
Albertville 1992



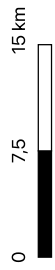
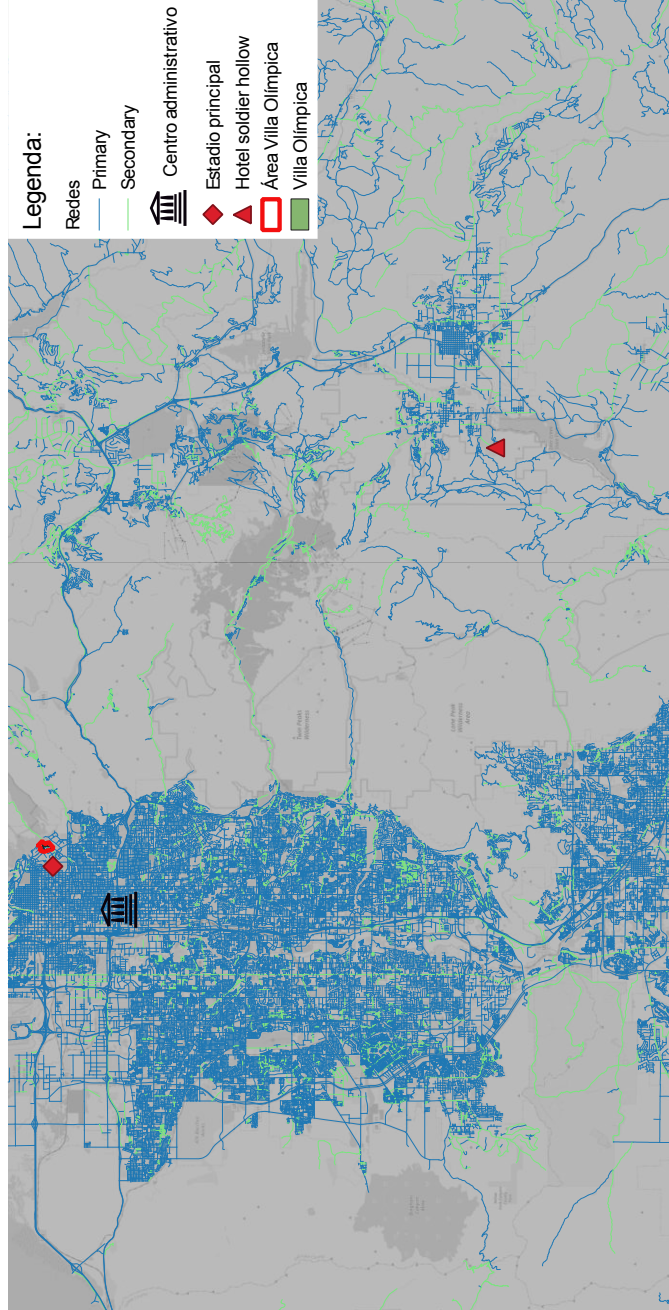
Lillehammer 1994



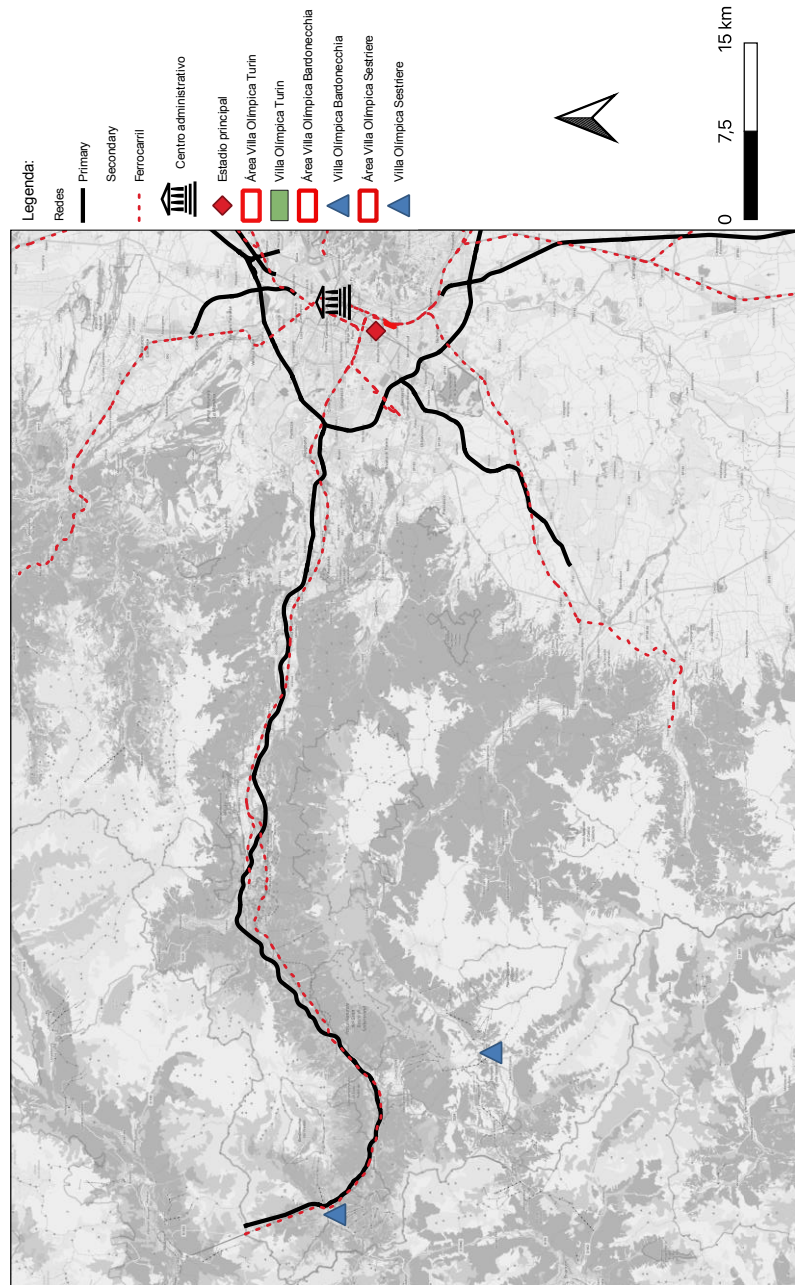
Nagano 1998



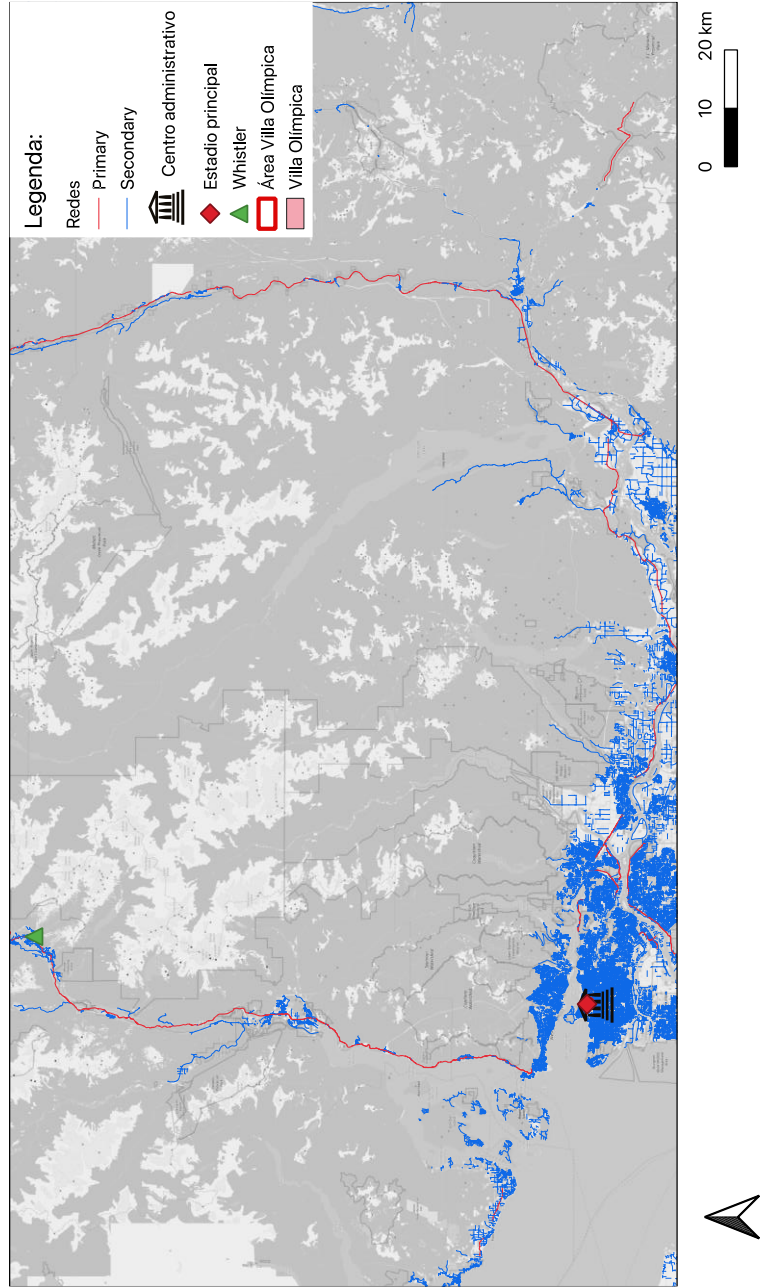
Salt Lake 2002



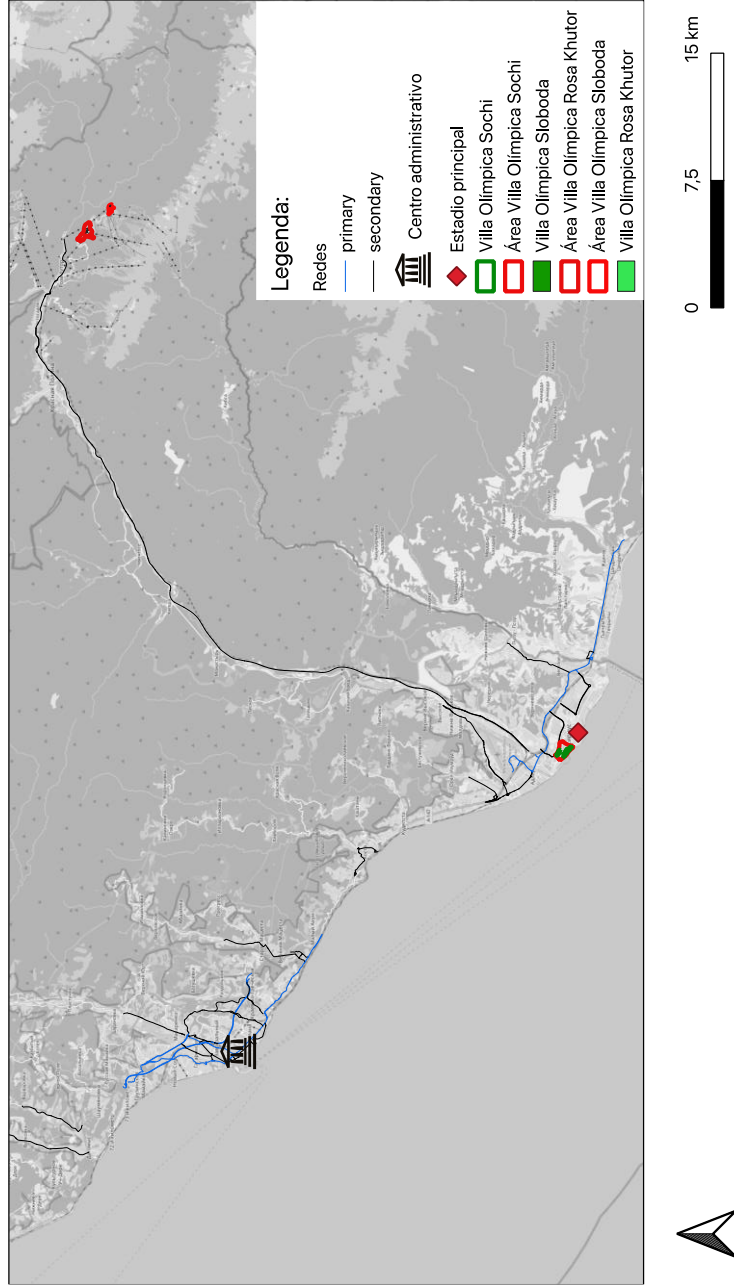
Turin 2006



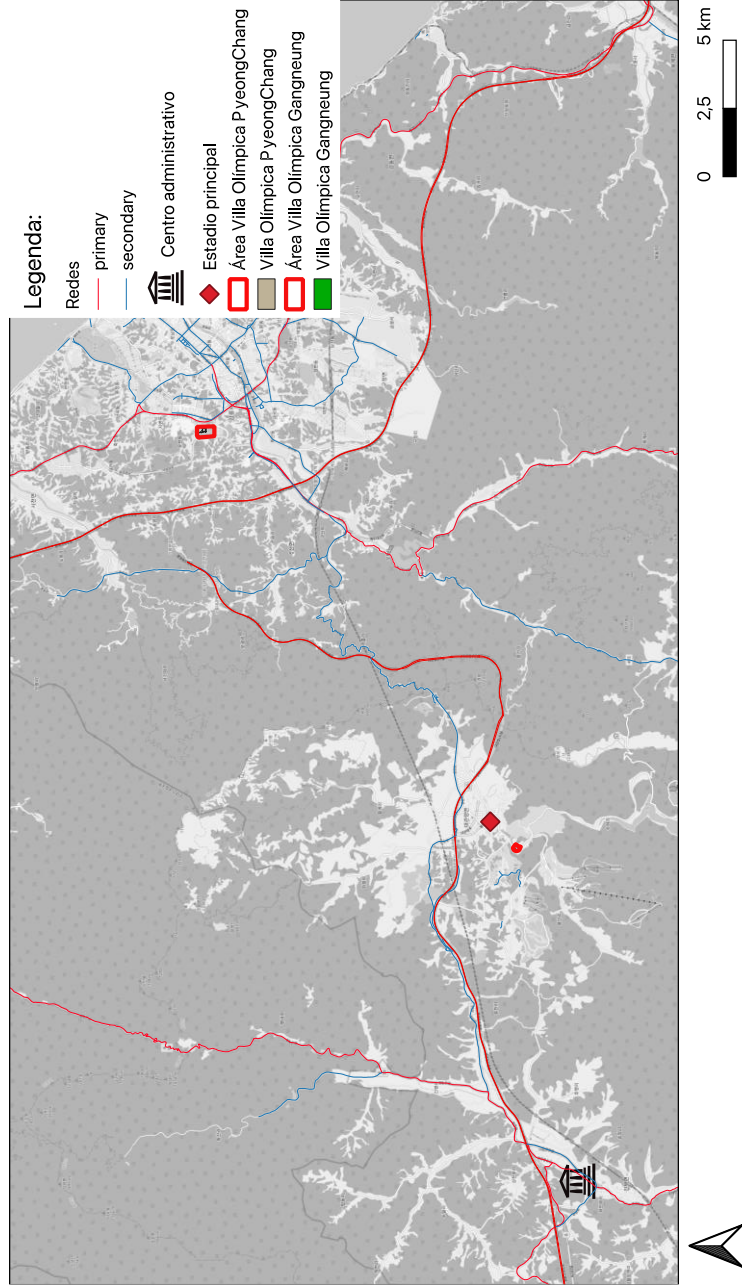
Vancouver 2010



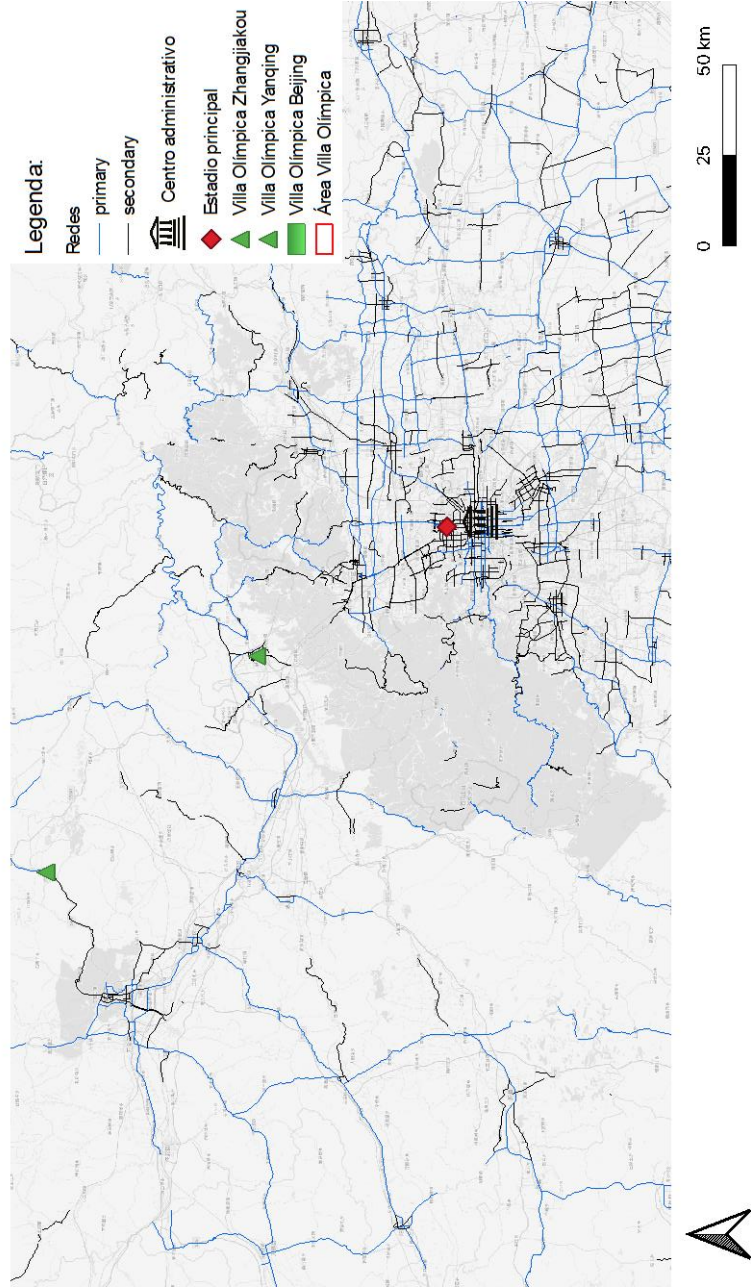
Sochi 2014



PyeongChang 2018



Beijing 2022



1.3 PARAMETERS USED FOR THE ANALYSIS OF THE OLYMPIC VILLAGES

The population of the city:

- Description of the data: The data refer to the number of citizens residing in the cities analysed.
- Data source: Data were provided through the World Bank and ONU databases.

The capacity of the Olympic Village (number of inhabitants):

- Description of the data: The data refers to the number of Olympic athletes and officials accommodated in the Olympic Village during the Olympic event.
- Data source: Data were provided through the Olympic Committee database.

Several buildings:

- Description of the data: The data refers to the number of permanently constructed buildings in the Olympic Village area of each project analysed.
- Data source: Data were provided through official reports and spatial analysis in GIS through the cartographic bases of each geographic institute of the host Country.

Height of buildings:

- Data description: The data refer to the number of floors built according to each accommodation project provided by the cities analysed.
- Data source: Data were provided through official reports and spatial analysis in GIS through the cartographic bases of each geographic institute of the host Country.

Typology of buildings:

- Description of the data: The data refers to the typology of use and function assumed by the Olympic accommodation.
- Data source: Data were provided through official reports and observation of executive projects.

Urban density:

- Description of data: The data refers to the density of the Olympic Village about its inhabitants during the Olympic period.
- Data source: The data was provided by correlating the numbers of athletes and the dimension of the Olympic Village area obtained through the use of GIS software.

Occupied area:

- Description of the data: The data refer to the occupation of the Olympic Village on the territory by occupancy in square metres and square kilometres. The area

occupied by the Olympic Village was observed for its intended use: residential or international.

- Data source: The data were provided using the cartographic bases of each geographical institute of the host country and the use of GIS software for the analysis of the area.

Residential area:

- Data description: Residential area refers to the area of built dwellings.
- Data source: The data were provided using the cartographic bases of each geographical institute of the host country and the use of GIS software for the analysis of the area.

International area:

- Description of the data: The international area refers to the area of public space contained within the Olympic Village area.
- Data source: The data were provided through the cartographic databases of each geographic institute of the host country and the use of GIS software for the analysis of the area.

Distance from the main stadium:

- Description of data: The data refers to the fastest route between the Olympic Stadium and the Olympic Village by use of public transport.
- Data source: The data were provided by using GIS software for route calculation about the infrastructure system of each host country.

Distance from the administrative centre:

- Description of the data: The data refers to the fastest route between the city hall and the Olympic Village by use of public transport.
- Data source: The data were provided by using GIS software for route calculation about the infrastructure system of each host country.

Ownership of the area before the Olympic Games:

- Description of data: The data refers to the holder of the area during the period preceding the allocation of the Olympic event.
- Data source: Data were provided through official reports and observation of executive projects.

Post-Olympic use:

- Description of data: The data refers to the use and destination of the Olympic Village as identified by the Organising Committee in the official reports.
- Data source: Data were provided through official reports and observation of executive projects.

The equity value of financing:

- Description of the data: The data refer to the subject of promoting the financing of the Olympic Village.
- Data source: Data were provided through official reports and observation of executive projects.

Current value:

- Description of data: The data has been provided to assess the cost of Olympic Villages over time, by taking into account the inflation rate of each Host Country.

Data source: The cost was provided by the following formula: $FV = PV (1+i)^n$ - (FV: Future Value; PV: Present Value; i: Interest rate (inflation); n: Number of years)

1.4 EXAMPLES OF LEGACIES AT THE OLYMPIC GAMES

LONDON 2012

- Grassroots: Sport Place people play invest GBP 20 million in grassroots and benefit 377 community sports projects.
- Urban Legacy: 300 million to transform the Queen Elizabeth Olympic Park, housing, schools, business centre, health centres and sports facilities. 2,800 flats with 11,000 homes, a third of which will be affordable.
- Transport: London to invest 6.5 billion in transport infrastructure. 10 railways and 30 new bridges and 60 projects to promote green travel. 10 million to improve pedestrian and cycle routes throughout London.
- Independent environmental commission assessing the environment of the projects. 98% of demolition waste was recycled and 62% of operational waste from playgrounds was reused, recycled or composted. 45 hectares with 10-year ecological management for biodiversity (300,000 for the Elizabeth Park alone). 1,000 trees were planted in East London. London was the inspiration for BS 8901, which led to ISO 26000, the first fully certified international sustainability management system standard.
- Community Education 2000 projects. The Get education programme runs for four years for 25,000 schools and 6.5 million young people (85% of people enrolled in the programme).
- Culture: 14 million participants in cultural activity. 25,000 artists representing all 204 NOCs and culminated in the 12-week London 2012 festival, which attracted 19.5 million people, 16.5 million of whom attended free events.
- Tourism: 4 million additional visitors in 2015. 2.7 billion euros of expected visitor spending in the three years following the Olympic Games. 1.4 billion increases in economic output.

BEIJING 2008

- Education: 400 million children in 400,000 schools were exposed to Olympic values. 550 Chinese schools will carry out a sports and educational cultural exchange.

- Volunteers: 1,100,000 million people apply to volunteer (100,000 at the Olympic Games and in the Village); 400,000 from municipal information. The volunteer movement continued after the games
- Public health: Long-term benefit for China. 100,000 Chinese chefs receive a food certificate and 200,000 additional food inspectors for disease control and prevention.
- Accessibility: During the Olympic and Paralympic Games, new wheelchair ramps were installed in streets, shopping centres and cultural attractions. The street crossing sign was adapted for visually impaired pedestrians, and new disabled parking was made available at the airport.
- Transport infrastructure: The airport increased by 24 million passengers. New railway to Tianjin. Three subways, a new ring road and an express road to the airport were built. Public transport increased by 4.5 million people.
- Venues: 23 venues for sports facilities, conference and public events centre, 6 located on the university campus for student use in the post-Olympic period and the international broadcasting centre and the main press centre will serve conventions and tourism.
- Environment: Some 140 billion yuan has been invested in improving air quality alone, 60,000 combustion boilers have been modernised to reduce emissions and public buses have been converted to gas buses.

SIDNEY 2000

- Tourism: In 2001, the Australian Tourism Commission declared that the Olympics remained the most important profitable event in the history of Australian tourism at the border. Brand Australia had accelerated in 10 years.
- Sydney Olympic Park, the residential Olympic venues and the shopping centre. The sports facilities are used by local and national sports organisations. The aquatic centre is open to the public and the park is also open to the public.
- Environment: Sydney's Green Games strategy has successfully reclaimed and restored some 160 hectares of badly degraded land and created one of Australia's

largest urban parks (425 hectares). Conservation centre, forest. The venues focus on: energy and water conservation, sustainable materials selection, pollution control and waste management and minimisation. Including the first large-scale urban water recycling system, which saves every year, and extensive use of renewable energy throughout the Sydney Olympic Park.

- Intercultural exchange: Reaching the world is one of four cultural programmes. Cultural and artistic performances by Indigenous Australians on five continents, increase people's understanding of their culture and history.

BARCELONA 1992

- Urban regeneration: Over 100 hectares of former industrial land was redeveloped to incorporate housing (Olympic Village) and public facilities. The seafront was redeveloped, and major ring roads and other transport infrastructure were also built for the Games.
- Venues: Several venues were located to maximise the urban regeneration of the city and also to ensure that there was a community use for them after the Games. *Barcelona Promoció* was created to manage four venues, which in 1994 alone held 346 events for 1,514,248 people and created over 450 new jobs. The Games venues were mainly existing facilities renovated and made available to the public in the post-Games period. The number of available sports venues increased by 126.4% between 1982 and 1992.
- Brand: The Barcelona Games showed the world a new and exciting city and helped Spain to improve its image around the world.
- Sport: The Barcelona Organising Committee invested 3,000 million pesetas in the purchase of sports equipment for the venues. The Games created the physical education institute and the high-performance centre. Physical activity increased from 36% in 1983 to 51% in 1995. Women's participation increased by 10% from 1989 to 1995.
- Education: More than 35,000 people attended training courses. Some 1,000 volunteers received scholarships for the language exchange programme and another 2,000 received a scholarship for language studies.

- Tourism: From 1990 to 1992, the hotel surface area in Barcelona grew by 38%. Twenty years later, Barcelona was the 12th most popular urban destination in the world and ranked 5th among European cities.

VANCOUVER 2010

- Transport: TransLink, Vancouver's rail agency, has launched an expansion plan that includes 48 new Skytrain cars, a new syllabus and 180 diesel-electric hybrid buses. The new Canada Line speeds travel between Vancouver airport and downtown Vancouver, while improvements to the Sea to Sky highway have made travel from Vancouver to Whistler safer and faster.
- Sport: Richmond's oval skating rink has been transformed into a community facility that includes an indoor rink, two ice rinks and a 2300 square foot firm centre. A mixed recreational language has been formed. An Aboriginal Youth Sport Legacy Fund has been established and, as of 2009, the fund has supported 13 post-secondary school students, 70 high-performance athletes, over 125 community groups, two provincial sports organisations and the First Nation snowboard team. More than 400,000 students across British Columbia participate in programmes that combine physical activity with health education.
- Sustainability: The Olympic Village will be a model sustainable urban neighbourhood for other cities. Sustainable transport will reduce emissions and encourage the use of mass transit, cycling and other community alternatives. A toolkit for sustainable sports events. Sustainable event management standard Z2010 in Canada. 40 new garden plots, eight of which are handicapped accessible. Community garden.
- Economy: The Games injected C\$600 million into Vancouver's economy, with economic growth of 0.8%. Creation of 2,500 full-time jobs. The investment of CAD 178 million in the construction of the Olympic Oval has generated CAD 2 billion in economic benefits and spill over benefits. 1900,000 CAD for the Aboriginal Youth Legacy Fund from Aboriginal merchandising. Downtown businesses benefited from 5.7 million CAD related to the games. PWC report between 2003 and 2008: 10,780 new jobs and 1,780 in the province. Gaming generated between C\$70.2 million and C\$91.9 million in federal tax revenues and up to C\$1.05 billion in real GDP.
- Training: The Vancouver 2010 fabrication workshop provides carpentry training and work experience for disadvantaged people. 6-month programme

- Housing: Whistler Olympic Village temporary housing was deployed to six communities in British Columbia to provide 156 permanent, affordable homes for seniors, homeless and low-income residents. As a result of downtown inclusion agreements between VANOC and its partners: The province and the city of Vancouver acquired more than 1,800 units of existing rental housing and renovated them to provide supportive housing; the Canadian government spent C\$387.9 million on homelessness and housing programmes between 2009 and 2014

- British, Australian and German visitors alone generated an additional C\$314 million in tourism revenue. The Canadian Tourism Commission (CTC) generated close to 1 billion Canadian dollars in equivalent advertising value in 2010. The global audience was exposed to a tourism message 12 billion times through Olympic coverage. Brand Future ranked Canada as the number one country brand in 2010, attributing to the positive effects of hosting the Games, and nothing to the CTC's Olympic Games tourism strategy and its strong tourism influence.

- Social accessibility improved drastically in Vancouver and the surrounding communities during the preparations. The Games encouraged volunteerism. More than 75,000 people volunteered to help with the Games. Schools across Canada taught classes related to Olympic values and other aspects of the Games.
- Cultural legacy artworks were installed in six cities. Vancouver launched a programme called "Hastings Street Renaissance", which updated storefront facades to breathe new life into downtown buildings.

TURIN 2006

- Venues: The Olympic Stadium was renovated for the Games and is now the home of AC Torino. The Olympic Park Company has managed the venues since 2006. In the two years following the events, the venues hosted 187 events and 577,500 spectators for corporate, leisure and sporting events, more than 55,000 people attended entertainment activities, 34,900 students participated in educational activities and 186 teams used the venues for 1100 training days.

- Events: Turin's Olympic venues hosted major international events: Bruce Springsteen, pearl jam, fencing world championships, European skydive, bob, winter Universiade, and 2000 student-athletes from all over the world. In 2010, Palavela hosted the world figure skating championships.

- Branding: The Games helped Turin shed its industrial image and become a new business and tourist destination in Europe, showcasing its rich history, culture and high-tech industry to the world.

- Accommodation: Some 800 flats in the Olympic Village were used to help alleviate the high demand for public housing.
- Infrastructure: Road and rail links, Turin airport, the telecommunications system, signalling and others will benefit greatly after the Games. The innovative equipment installed for the games has allowed the ski season to be extended several times.
- Sport: A programme created after the Games that allows Piedmont schoolchildren to discover and try winter sports and disciplines using the Olympic facilities.
- Volunteers: Several volunteers from the Noi2006 volunteer programme have gone on to serve as volunteers at other events in the region.
- Tourism: According to Turismo Torino, the increase of between 100,000 and 150,000 tourists in the city made it the fourth most visited Italian city after Rome, Florence and Venice.
- Environment: The Turin 2006 organising committee has carried out a great deal of work on the environmental aspects of its projects in the run-up to and during the games. HECTOR its carbon neutrality programme by leaping out of the sky. A programme for the preservation of the countryside and landscape

SALT LAKE 2002

- Economy: Some 35,000 jobs were created between 1996 and 2002. Workers employed because of the games earned \$1.5 billion, the Utah government received \$56 million in net income, while the local government earned \$20.4 million. The state of Utah was not left in debt by the Olympic Games. As of December 2008, the economic impact of hosting events since the games was approximately \$855 million.
- Sport: The Utah Sports Commission was created to develop both public entertainment and elite sport in the state. Since 2002, Utah has hosted more than 50 world cups and championships, as well as numerous sporting and non-sporting events. The games led to an increase in sports participation. Utahns were also encouraged to stay active through the "A healthier you 2002" programme, where more than 30 gold medals were established at the legacy site.

- **Volunteers:** The games created a large and well-trained volunteer force, which has been key to the success of any subsequent events in Utah (10,000 people)
- **Facilities:** The Utah Athletic Foundation was created to manage the oval and Olympic Park, allowing the local community to use the facilities as well as host major events. Both the park and the oval are USOC Olympic training venues. In total, 14 facilities continue to be used for events, elite training and recreational purposes.
- **Education:** The Salt Lake Olympics organising committee provided Olympic-related experiences for 600,000 Utah schoolchildren and those experiences continue today with 5-10,000 students visiting Olympic venues each year. Salt Lake runs one school, one country.
- **Environment:** Thanks to energy-efficient designs, water conservation efforts, aquatic habitat restoration projects, recycling of game waste, a worldwide tree planting programme and economical management of transit use, Salt Lake 2002 was certified climate neutral by the Climate Neutral Network.

NAGANO 1998

- **Transport:** The introduction of the Asama Shinkansen bullet train just four months before the Games reduced travel time between Nagano and Tokyo to just 79 minutes.
- **Education:** To encourage children's participation, these were the first Games to offer reduced-price tickets for children at the opening and closing ceremonies, as well as all competitions. The "one school, one country" programme involved a total of 76 schools.
- **Technology:** Japan was able to promote its technological expertise by equipping all of its Olympic vehicles with navigation systems and providing video-on-demand systems, allowing participants to watch the action of the events at any time.
- **Venues:** After the end of the Games, the Nagano Olympic Museum was established inside the M-Wave stadium, which was the venue for the speed skating events.

LILLEHAMMER 1994

- Environment: The Lillehammer Games were notable for their focus on environmental conservation, which laid the groundwork for the creation of the Green Olympics.

- The venues: Lillehammer AS Olympic Park was created to manage the legacy of five of the Olympic venues. The Olympic venues in Lillehammer are used to host an event in summer and winter. The venues are available for public use as well as for elite athletes. In 2016, Lillehammer will host the Youth Olympic Games.

- Brand: The Lillehammer Games were the most-watched Winter Olympic Games at the time and helped to make Norway and Lillehammer known to the rest of the world.
- Infrastructure The games enabled improvements to roads, the railway to Oslo, the local telecommunications system and the water and sewage system that would otherwise have taken 20 years.

- Economy: The Oppland area received some NOK 12 billion in public and private investments over four years. The games employed between 600 and 1900 people over four years.

- Education: The international broadcasting centre enabled Lillehammer University to increase enrolment from 600 to 3,000 students, thanks to the additional places it created. The local authority also developed an educational programme for pupils in local primary and secondary schools.

- Medicine: Joint projects with Lillehammer County Hospital provided the hospital with a polyclinic worth NOK 17 million.

1.5 UPDATE ON PROGRESS ON THE SUSTAINABILITY OF THE IOC

- Design and construction of the Olympic house according to nationally and internationally recognised sustainability standards;
- Increase the energy efficiency of our building;
- Integrate sustainability in the procurement of goods and services, including from TOP Partners and official licences;
- Achieve a measurable reduction of waste quantities;
- Reduce the impact of IOC travel (business travel of IOC staff, members and guests; vehicle fleet; staff communications; freight);
- Further increase staff diversity, in particular about gender and geographical diversity;
- As part of IOC@work2020, further, develop a wellness programme to promote healthy and active lifestyles in the IOC;
- Achieve carbon neutrality by reducing direct and indirect greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and offsetting emissions as a last resort;
- Including sustainability in corporate events;
- 10. Ensure that sustainability is addressed as a strategic issue with cities from the invitation/dialogue phase and throughout all phases of the application process;
- Reinforce sustainability commitments in the host city contract so that the bid and hosting of the Olympic Games can act as a catalyst for sustainable development in the host city and region;
- Strengthen support and oversight of the implementation by the Olympic Games Organising Committees (IOCs) of the bid commitments related to sustainability Host City Contract Requirements and IOC recommendations, including through the provision of common methodologies and independent third-party assessments where appropriate;
- Facilitate exchanges between Olympic Games stakeholders and establish strategic partnerships with relevant expert organisations to develop innovative sustainable solutions for the planning and delivery of the Olympic Games;
- Provide a mechanism to ensure the exchange of information and best practices among stakeholders of the Olympic Movement;
- Facilitate access to relevant expert organisations to develop innovative guidelines and solutions;
- Leverage Olympic Solidarity to help NOCs implement sustainability initiatives;
- Establish an ambassador programme including athletes to raise awareness of sustainability in sport;
- 18. Profiling the Olympic Movement's role in sustainability through the aggregation of information and collective reporting (IOC, 2019).
-

1.6 CHORE. MEGA-EVENTS AND STAKEHOLDERS

In this section, we look at some guidelines drawn up by the Human Rights Centre about the organisation of mega-events and the role of *stakeholders*.

The Centre for Human Rights (CHORE) guidelines oblige *stakeholders* to promote and protect the right to housing, so that everyone, including residents, can reap the benefits associated with hosting these mega-events⁷. CHORE's suggested guidelines are based on the principle of respect for international human rights standards. CHORE calls for the full implementation of strategies aimed at preventing any potential negative impact on the right to housing, maximising the potential positive legacies in terms of realising the right to adequate housing.

These guidelines are addressed to all mega-event stakeholders, among them are regulatory bodies, host cities, municipal authorities, organising committees, sponsors, partners and sponsors, shareholders, development corporations, architectural firms, construction companies, members of the construction industry, suppliers, participants, athletes, volunteers and spectators, sports associations and federations, exhibitors, consumers, community activists, NGOs, housing policy, service providers, urban planners, landlords and property owners, hoteliers, media, the international community and finally, the most important stakeholders, residents.

Where some responsibilities, such as the promotion and protection of housing rights, are not directed solely to one entity, other stakeholders have a role to play in ensuring that these responsibilities to citizens are fulfilled. Everyone has a role to play. These guidelines have been created to suggest the implementation of these policies in host cities. However, it is the responsibility of the organisational structure to identify and adopt the necessary implementation measures for successful mega-events.

Guidelines:

Respect, ensure compliance with and implement all international housing rights laws and standards. This means respecting and implementing all treaties, covenants, resolutions, guidelines and other international legal instruments that establish the right to adequate housing and all other related rights.

Carefully assess the design of the event, monitor and evaluate the potential for housing on the actual impact of mega-events, and develop and implement policies and initiatives to support it. Pre-event evaluation is best carried out by considering social impact (SIA), followed by monitoring (including community) and/or (government), evaluating post-event impact independently of monitoring. Monitoring and evaluation

⁷ CHORE, "Multi-stakeholder guidelines on mega-events and the protection and promotion of housing rights", 2007, pp.8-13.

should respect the principles of transparency and publication, and the analysis, monitoring and evaluation phase can serve as a platform for discussion among stakeholders.

Prevent mega-event-related expulsions and displacement. In the context of mega-events, all stakeholders should strive to eliminate and reduce expulsions and displacement. No individual or community group should be displaced for the sake of an event, whether sporting, cultural or political. The government should ensure these prohibitions by implementing social inclusion policies, reinforced by legislative changes. Displacement of residents should only be considered necessary in exceptional cases, for example where the safety, health and enjoyment of residents' human rights require their displacement, and where such displacement can contribute to improving the rights of these residents by providing them with adequate housing.

Prevent poverty, avoid the disorganisation of the population, reducing the number of homeless people. Guarantee social services to any citizen who finds themselves homeless, offering them a social integration plan and providing them with adequate housing that can guarantee them the rights recognised in international treaties. This requires a constant synergy between national and regional governments, which, in close contact with municipal authorities, must adopt prohibitions and regulations that suppress the number of homeless people and guarantee them an adequate lifestyle. Eliminate discrimination, using the power of sport to destroy prejudice.

Ensure that the mega-event contributes to a stable housing market by providing affordable housing. Government authorities, who can be considered primarily responsible for the creation of new housing, should ensure that the mega-event contributes to a stable housing market. They must put in place strategies that protect the stability of housing, which is an integral part of the project, by providing for its subsequent use by citizens at affordable prices (social housing). To prevent price escalation, national, regional and municipal authorities should review regulations and implement policies to keep the price level stable. In addition, economic and social support schemes can be introduced to facilitate the socio-economic integration of the most disadvantaged people. The private housing market should follow the guidelines provided by the state to provide affordable housing, to achieve a stable and durable housing market. The essential component of providing a stable market is the constant monitoring and implementation of policies to address problems that may arise, avoiding the "Olympic phenomenon" and thus property speculation. The definition of "affordable housing" must realistically include the actual financial capabilities of different groups of individuals. The basis for the creation of a

stable housing market is the provision of maximum security for the occupants of houses or land.

Take advantage of the opportunities induced by the mega-event to increase existing supply, housing availability, social policies and heritage. All stakeholders should ensure a long-term social dividend for all residents. New housing centres should be developed by analysing the needs of all members of the community, reflecting the diversity of needs of all groups, including marginalised minorities.

Strengthen legal and policy protection of the right to housing. Stakeholders should promote and/or facilitate legal and policy protection of the right to housing, in particular by ensuring the greatest possible security for each occupant. Protection also encompasses the right of appeal, the right to a fair trial and guarantees to protect minorities. Mega-events can be used as catalysts for more comprehensive processes through the enactment of laws and regulations that guarantee rights of possession and recognition of the collective rights of all individuals. Furthermore, in the case of property speculation, citizen-owners should receive compensation.

Accommodate housing rights violators by ensuring compensation for victims. The government should ensure the protection of victims' rights, including rights to adequate redress and compensation. Any person, whether a landlord or tenant, is entitled to adequate compensation for the loss of any property or asset, and adequate redress should be provided. There are many stakeholders and each has a key role to play in meeting this requirement.

Ensure transparency and active public participation in all aspects of the mega-event. Stakeholders in a position to facilitate participation should take appropriate measures to ensure dialogue and consultation with affected people. Stakeholders should strive to ensure transparency and active participation in the decision-making process, especially when decisions have an impact on others. Consultation should be addressed to all stakeholders, national and international, including everyone, without any social exclusion. Residents should receive relevant information and have the opportunity to propose alternatives for those aspects of the project that affect them and, in particular, their homes. Stakeholders should encourage the development of social movements that provide an important means for many individuals and the community to participate in public decision-making while being vigilant about transparency.

Ensure the housing needs of all sectors of society are met. All stakeholders should ensure that the benefits of hosting a mega-event are shared equitably and celebrate the diversity of the community. In all aspects of mega-event design, stakeholders should apply the principles of gender equality and non-discrimination, ensuring equality. All housing services policies and practices should be implemented by stakeholders in a way that does not discriminate in any way. An important part is the recognition of equal rights, including those of women, housing, real estate and land. Protection against violations and abuses must be directed to all minority and poor groups, avoiding their vulnerability and the extinction of indigenous communities. At the end of the mega-event, all members of local communities should have access to the services created for the mega-event (CHORE, 2007).

CHORE has been fighting for many years for the just recognition of the rights of all citizens, and has been conducting social studies for decades on the right to housing and the reduction of the phenomena of expulsion observed in host cities over time. These ten (10) points should be adopted by all organising committees in charge of submitting an Olympic bid for their city and thus for their country.

As we have noted above, the social aspect is essential for the success of these events and thus also for exploiting the long-term Olympic legacy in the host city. Without the participation of the citizens, the event will never have global relevance and therefore will not allow states to enter into international agreements that are favourable for the whole nation. The IOC should provide adequate guidelines by ensuring permanent control and supervision to limit the social problems widely described above. Public participation remains indispensable for the construction of infrastructures and services for the citizens, and post-Olympic planning is necessary to leave the facilities created to host the event to the citizens. These two points underline the importance of the concept of public service at the regulatory level. The Olympic legacy to be transferred to the citizens must be protected by appropriate legislation on the management of public facilities and thus public service.

The regulatory system in place in the winning state will be an essential factor in the intangible transformation of the city. In particular, the system for managing public services and, above all, the methods of allocating premises in the post-win phase. The methods of entrustment should always preserve the citizens and therefore seek to exploit the greatest possible contractual advantage to guarantee a continuous and necessary public service.

Regulatory changes should also be foreseen in the preliminary strategic plan so that there is time to make the necessary regulatory changes. The post-Olympic phase is very sensitive, especially in states that have invested mainly in facilities and infrastructure. As we have noted above, the design of a strategic plan is necessary to define the short and

long-term objectives, without neglecting the social aspect and therefore the creation of new areas that can guarantee essential services to citizens.

The State must necessarily support planning and also guarantee adequate regulatory support to enable the recognition of the public service and, therefore, of the methods of management and entrustment of the provision of these services.

Some states have well-developed regional regulatory independence, with regions adopting their regulations on the provision of public services for more than 30 years.

In Spain, specifically in Barcelona, Catalonia, during the planning of the 1992 Olympic Games, local, regional and national institutions completely reformed public services, defining functions and recipients. This state support allowed a regulatory evolution that guaranteed citizens the use of the facilities created to host the event. The division of labour guarantees the protection of the profession and the recognition of essential services for citizens living in poverty or extreme poverty. Thanks to the use of the facilities and, of course, the development of a strategic plan, Barcelona has been able to develop a unique system in which poverty and social exclusion can be overcome, thanks to citizen participation and sport accessible to all. Barcelona City Council has provided a lot of housing and facilities to reduce the level of poverty and help these people to integrate well into the micro-system, reducing the phenomena of social exclusion.

On the other hand, in the Olympic Games held in the USA, the conception of public service is completely different and, therefore, the results will be completely different. The foundation and social organisation of each state allow the results to be different and discordant. Therefore, in States where private participation is stronger, it may be advisable to foresee specific rules for people who are in a condition of poverty and at risk of marginalisation and social exclusion. It is possible that a national regulation would oblige regions to adapt, avoiding assessment errors and allowing for regional socio-economic development. The recognition of public service and the recognition of the right to public service are very important issues on which a central focus of the Olympic design has to be made. As many authors have pointed out, the planning phase is essential and, at the same time, regulatory support for the public service in democratic states becomes indispensable.

2. ANNEXES RELATING TO THE INTERVIEW PROCESS

2.1 SUPPLY PROTOCOL

QUANTITATIVE INTERVIEW

Supply protocol

The survey design was carried out according to the theoretical framework identified above and the research hypotheses. Thus, it has been possible to provide an Excel matrix and a Word document.

The survey will then be carried out digitally using the free form service (Google Doc.), which will allow all participants to give their opinion in complete anonymity.

The questionnaire will consist of an introductory part explaining the objectives of the study and its implementation protocol. In addition, it was provided in English to allow all participants to give their opinion.

For the sending of the questionnaire, a protocol of sending the questionnaire by e-mail with the link to the online questionnaire has been carried out.

Finally, it is specified that the questionnaire will be completely anonymous and a random sample of the results will also be taken to verify its effectiveness.

Prototype

Dear John,

I'm Valerio della Sala, P.h.D. candidate in Urban and Territorial Planning at the Autonomous University of Barcelona and also at the Polytechnic University of Turin.

Graduated in Sport Management in Italy and Spain, with research experiences at the IUSM, University of Bologna and at the Olympic Study Centre of Barcelona, I am specialised in multidisciplinary and comparative analysis and research on the Olympic Games.

Currently, I am a member and participant of the organizing committee of the SportComLab at the University of Bologna and a member committee of the Sports Research Institute at the Autonoma University of Barcelona.

I received your contact from the Barcelona Olympic Studies Center where I am writing my doctoral thesis on the analysis and evaluation of the territorial and urban impact of the Olympic Villas.

I contact you about the quantitative survey I need to carry out so that my study can have quantitative data to support my initial thesis. Your contribution would be essential to be able to strengthen my research hypotheses.

Your experience and background have an intangible value for my research and I would also be very pleased to share some of my reflections on the topic with you.

The quantitative survey was structured in twenty-seven (27) closed questions and one (1) open question to allow you to add your personal opinion about the topic. The survey will take place through Google Docs, at the end of the questionnaire you will automatically receive a copy of your answers by e-mail.

In addition, I inform you that the questionnaire will not require any of your data and the data analysis will be done in complete anonymity to ensure its truthfulness.

The questionnaire is structured in four (4) parts: 1. Profile; 2. Introduction; 3.

Link Survey: <https://forms.gle/oPmt5Kb1ejfsrs27>

I remain at your complete disposal for any clarification on the matter.

Furthermore, after completing the questionnaire, if you have time, I would like to have a personal opinion on the subject under study.

Thank you in advance for your availability,

Best regards,

Analysis protocol

After having collected all the interviewees, the data will be exported in Excel and the SPSS software will be used for coding the answers and defining the categories. Subsequently, the data and measurements of nominal, numerical and scalar data will be checked.

The preparation of the data for analysis will be constituted by a part of the following phases:

- Coding
- Cleaning
- Insert the base into a matrix

On the other hand, the variables under study will be provided and different analyses of simple and random frequencies will be provided.

Data analysis will be provided through the application of the following factors: Measurement; Hypothesis; Analytical interest.

The frequency distribution will be provided for the ordered variables and the categories identified in a matrix. Then the data of the cumulative and valid percentage, the measure, the model and the mean will be analysed. Finally, the standard deviation can also be used to observe the scores about the mean. To obtain the validity of the information, a random test will be carried out with a margin of 5% to guarantee the relevance of the information.

Subsequently, different sample distributions will be made with the integration of other control variables to ensure the validity of the responses. After having analysed the variables, specific analyses will be provided between the dependent and independent variables related to my objects of study. The analysis will observe the standard valuation measure which is representative of a significance level of 5% and therefore 95% certainty of the validity of the relationships.

Finally, once the data will be pre-analysed, full analyses and the final report will be provided. It is specified that the most valuable information will be prioritised and not all the analysed relationships.

Coding

Process of coding and preparing the data for analysis in IBM SPSS:

1. Answers
2. Development of the coding system or filling of the variable view in IBM SPSS.
3. Recording or capturing the values in the matrix or view of the data in IBM SPSS

4. Check the matrix for coding errors
5. Answers analysis (SPSS)

Each response will be coded through the following information for each variable:

- Name
- Type
- Width
- Decimals
- Tags
- Values
- Missing values
- Columns
- Alignment
- Measure
- Role

The closed questions were thought through Likert's thank you index (from 1 to 5) and other nominal questions that will be coded from 1 to 10.

The di Linkert scale consists of an outline that is made up of each respondent's answers and assigns one point for each reaction. The total score will be the result for each respondent. The statements will have a direction from favourable positive to unfavourable negative. After analysing all the scores, the mean and median will be provided to observe the results and add information to the research.

Meanwhile, the following coding shall be used for the closed response:

Yes=1; No=0; No answer=3

After having coded the closed responses, categories and groups are formed to redefine the data and delimit the limits of analysis.

Once all the categories of values are coded, the codebook describing the locations of the variables and the assigned categories can be provided in an Excel matrix. Meanwhile, the open-ended questions will be coded once we have all the participants' answers and the main trends among the answers. In this phase, we will try to close the open-ended responses through a pilot test, coding the categories. The procedure will allow us to find the main patterns that will constitute the categories. The classification of the answers will be chosen according to themes or according to a logical aspect.

Structure of the questionnaire

Home page

On the cover page of the questionnaire, some elements have been added to graphically enhance the questionnaire and to favour the respondents' answers. Elements such as the title of the study and the logos of the universities were added to the cover page.

Introduction

The introduction of the questionnaire was developed according to the guidelines related to survey design, taking into account the following elements.

- General-purpose
- Importance of participation
- Acknowledgement
- Approaching time
- Explanation of the survey structure
- Confidentiality clause for the handling of individual information.
- Instructions

Prototype

The following survey will be part of a comparative multidisciplinary doctoral study on the analysis and evaluation of the Olympic summer and winter Villages. The study aims to provide a new approach to Olympic urbanism. The research will be carried out at the Autonomous University of Barcelona (UAB), through the participation of the Barcelona Center for Olympic Studies (CEO-UAB), the Sports Research Institute (IRE) and, in co-tutelle with the Polytechnic University of Turin.

The people interviewed will be selected for their relationship to the main focus of the study and their experience over time on the Olympic topics.

The opinions of all the interviewees will be coded and analysed without communicating any individual data, guaranteeing the anonymity of the responses.

The questions in their entirety will not take more than twenty (20) minutes and the answers will be confidential and anonymous to guarantee the reliability of the information.

I ask you to answer the following questionnaire with sincerity since there are no correct or incorrect answers. I need your help to answer some fundamental questions to carry out the investigation.

The first part of the questionnaire is made up of specific questions about the profile of the interviewee only to guarantee a prior analysis of the profiles.

Final thanks

Thank you for your participation and its importance in the study.

Prototype

Appreciation for the contribution and participation.

Many thanks for your participation and your contribution to my doctoral research. Also, I want to thank you for your past or future contributions to the Academy of the Olympic Games.

2.2 QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

Quantitative Survey

Introduction

The following survey will be part of a comparative multidisciplinary doctoral study on the analysis and evaluation of the Olympic summer and winter Villages. The study aims to provide a new approach to Olympic urbanism. The research will be carried out at the Autonomous University of Barcelona (UAB), through the participation of the Barcelona Center for Olympic Studies (CEO-UAB), the Sports Research Institute (IRE) and, in co-tutelle with the Polytechnic University from Turin.

The people interviewed will be selected for their relationship to the main focus of the study and for their experience over time on the Olympic topics.

The opinions of all the interviewees will be coded and analysed without communicating any individual data, guaranteeing the anonymity of the responses.

The questions in their entirety will not take more than twenty (20) minutes and the answers will be confidential and anonymous to guarantee the reliability of the information.

I ask you to answer the following questionnaire with sincerity since there are no correct or incorrect answers.

I need your help to answer some fundamental questions to carry out the investigation.

The first part of the questionnaire is made up of specific questions about the profile of the interviewee only to guarantee a prior analysis of the profiles.

Profile (I)

1. Email
2. What role do you have in your relationship with the International Olympic Committee?
 - a. Consultant
 - b. Planner
 - c. Responsible
 - d. Researcher
 - e. President
 - f. Coordinator
 - g. Supervisor
 - h. Other...

3. How long have you collaborated with the International Olympic Committee?
 - a. Less than 1 year
 - b. From 1 to 5 years
 - c. From 6 to 10 years
 - d. From 11 to 15 years
 - e. Over 15 years
4. Have you personally contributed to the academic development of the Olympic Games?
 - a. YES
 - b. NO
5. In case of positive affirmation of the previous question, could you specify in which of the following thematic areas you have worked or contributed?
 - a. Economical
 - b. Social Sciences
 - c. Geography
 - d. Town planning
 - e. Law
 - f. Communication
 - g. History
 - h. Other...

Introduction (II)

6. The Olympic Games can be promoters of benefits and challenges. In your opinion, which are the most important in the long term for citizens?
 - a. Environmental benefits and challenges
 - b. Economic benefits and challenges
 - c. Infrastructure / structural benefits and challenges
 - d. Socio-cultural benefits and challenges
 - e. Sports benefits and challenges
 - f. Technology benefits and challenges
7. Over time we have been able to observe different planning models for the Olympic Games. In your opinion, in which of the following areas have the most important physical changes been observed?
 - a. Sports facilities
 - b. Infrastructures
 - c. Households
 - d. Services and trade
 - e. Offices

8. Should the construction of the Olympic Village be integrated into the city's own long-term housing strategy?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

9. Which of the following solutions could be the best strategy to boost housing development in the long term in candidate cities?

- a. Social housing
- b. Affordable housing
- c. Student housing (College or Apartments)
- d. Offices
- e. Luxury homes

10. Could the construction of the Olympic Village - establishing new relationships with the different territorial areas - to condition the future natural development of the public transport system of the candidate cities?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

11. What could be the best integrated transport solutions to connect the Olympic Village with the sports facilities and sub-venues?

- a. Freeways
- b. Large urban arterial network
- c. Suburban train
- d. Underground
- e. Light Rail
- f. Bus rapid transit (BRT)
- g. Waterways

Olympic Village (III)

12. Over time, different models of uses of the Olympic Villages have been distinguished. In your opinion, which solution (s) could reduce the environmental impact?
- Hotel
 - College
 - Re-Use
 - New constructions
 - Mixed Use

13. Does the Olympic Village need to be planned through a specific strategy?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

14. In your opinion, the Olympic Village can be defined as a special urban instrument capable of guaranteeing its own identity over time?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

15. What could be the most efficient exploitation model for the management of the Olympic Village over time?
- Public Financing
 - Consortium
 - Foundation
 - Mixed Financing
 - Private financing

16. Do you think that the planning of the Olympic Village - to guarantee a long-term development in the city and in the region - should be included in a territorial transformation project?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

17. What could be the fundamental areas to guarantee the long-term development of the Olympic Village?

- a. Social parameters (including sports and a healthy lifestyle)
- b. Urbanism
- c. Mobility
- d. Economic parameters
- e. Sustainability strategies

18. Should the construction of the Olympic Village have a specific use in the post-Olympic period?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

19. Should the Organizing Committees, before planning a new construction of the Olympic Village, consider the real needs of the citizens?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

20. In your experience, can the construction of an Olympic Village in metropolitan areas contribute to promoting social changes in the host city?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

21. In Barcelona, Atlanta, Nagano, Sydney, Athens, Beijing, London, it has been observed that the construction of an Olympic Village in the inner city involves a movement of citizens from the metropolitan area to the periphery. Could the construction of the Olympic Village in the inner city of the metropolitan area promote displacement?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

22. Can the construction of the Olympic Winter Villages in the mountain communities promote a process of territorial expansion by the host city?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

Specific Question (IV)

23. Should the construction of the Olympic Village be carried out through two complementary strategies: a financing model for the construction period and a management model for the period after?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

24. In your opinion, reducing the territorial impact of the Olympic Games today is a priority for the International Olympic Committee?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

25. In your experience, at an academic level, does the theme of Olympic urbanism need to be deepened through longitudinal and cross-sectional studies?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

26. What timeframe should longitudinal studies consider?

- a. Between 1 and 5 years
- b. Between 6 and 10 years
- c. Between 11 and 15 years
- d. Between 16 and 20 years
- e. More than 20 years

27. At the day, the 1996 Olympic Village Symposium held by the CIO in Lausanne turns out to be the only academic conference that cross-examines the evolution of the Summer Olympic Village over time. In your opinion, should a new symposium be provided to reflect on the Winter Olympic Villas and observe the new strategies carried out by the candidate cities?

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Neither agree nor disagree; (4) Disagree; (5) Strongly disagree

28. Please provide your thoughts on the future development of the Olympic Village in the candidate cities.

Appreciation for the contribution and participation.

Many thanks for your participation and your contribution to my doctoral research. Also, I want to thank you for your past or future contributions to the Academy of the Olympic Games.

2.3 QUANTITATIVE INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS

- Adrian Pitts, University of Sheffield
- Ai Aramaki, Centre for Olympic Research and Education - University of Tsukuba - Japan
- Alain Ferrand, University of Politiers
- Andrew Smith, University of Westminster
- Anne-Marie Broudehoux, Uqam
- Barney Robert K, Founding Director-International Centre for Olympic Studies-The University of Western Ontario Canada
- Bartosz Dendura, Cracow University of Technology
- Becca Leopkey, University of Georgia
- Benoît Séguin, University of Ottawa
- Brij Maharaj, University of Kwazulu-Natal
- Bruce Kidd, University of Toronto
- Caitlin Pentifallo, Consultant
- Charles Rutheiser, Living Cities
- Constantinos Cartalis University of Athens
- Cora Burnett, Olympic Studies Centre - University Of Johannesburg (Ujose) – South Africa
- Cottrell Robert, California State University
- David Gogishvili, University of Lausanne
- David McGillivray, Uws
- David Powell - Huddersfield Centre for Research in Education and Society (HudCRES)
- Davide Ponzini, Polimi
- Dean Baim, Seaver College
- Deo Prasad, Unsw Sydney
- Egidio Dansero, Unito
- Einar Braathen, Oslomet
- Eleni Theodoraki, Edinburgh Napier University
- Erik Swyngedouw, Manchester University
- Eva Noor, Msu
- Gabriel Silvestre, Sheffield University
- Gavin Poynter, University of East London
- Geoff Dickson, La Trobe
- Greg Andranovich, California State University
- Holger Preuss, Mainz University
- Ian Culpan, New Zealand Centre for Olympic Studies - University of Canterbury - New Zealand
- Ian Henry, Centre for Olympic Studies and Research - Loughborough University – United Kingdom
- James S Kennell, University of Greenwich
- Jamie Peck, British Columbia
- Jean-Loup Chappelet, Unil
- Joan Guàrdia, Ub
- John Black, Unsw Sydney
- John Gold, Oxford Brookes University
- John Horne, Waseda University
- John Lauermann, Medgar Ever College
- Jones Zachary Mark, Polimi

- Judith Grant Long, Mit
- Julie Stevens - Brock University
- Kay Schiller, Durham University
- Kris Olds, Center for Asian Studies
- Laura Galluzzo, Polimi
- Laurence Chalip, Gmu
- Matthew J. Burbank, University of Utah
- Maurice Roche, The University of Sheffield
- Mcguirk, Pauline M, University of Wollongong
- Meg Holden - Simon Fraser University
- Michael Bounds, Western Sydney University
- Michael R. Payne - Former director of the IOC
- Mihalik Brian J., Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Pamplin College of Business, Virginia Tech University
- Mike Duignam, University of Surrey
- Mike Raco, University College of London
- Milena Parent, University of Ottawa
- Molly Tolzmann, University of Chicago
- Monika Meyer, Iwu
- Nancy Rivenburgh, Washington Uni
- Nelson Todt, Universidad Pontificia, Coordinator Grupo De Investigation
- Paul Watt, Birckbeck University
- Peter Fussey, Essex University
- Peter Omondi-Ochieng, Louisiana University
- Peter Vlachos, University of Greenwich
- Philip Goad, University of Melbourne
- Philippe Furrer, IOC
- Ralph Ward, University of East London
- Rob VanWynsberghe, The University of British Columbia
- Robert Kaspar, Rio
- Roland Renson, Ku Leuven
- Rory Findall, Colonia Niversity
- Sanford Schram, Hunter College
- Sarah Snell, London 2012 Games
- Searle Glen H, University of Technology Sydney
- Simon Darcy, Uts (University of Tecnology of Sydney)
- Simon Shibli, Sport Industry Research Centre
- Stephan Essex, Plymouth
- Stephen Wassong, Olympic Studies Centre
- Tracy Taylor, Victoria University
- Vassil Girginov, Brunel
- Vida Bajc- Yale University
- Wolfgang Maennig, University of Hamburg - Uhh

2.4 SUPPLY PROTOCOL QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW

Supply protocol

Once the interviewees have been selected, specific interviews will be conducted on the case study of the Turin 2006 Olympic Villages.

The interview design was carried out according to the theoretical framework identified above and the research hypotheses. Thus, it has been possible to provide an Excel matrix and a Word document.

The questionnaire will consist of an introductory part explaining the objectives of the study and its implementation protocol. In addition, it was provided in Italian to allow all participants to give their opinion.

To organise the interview appointment, an email protocol has been put in place with a link to schedule a face-to-face or videoconference meeting due to the pandemic.

Finally, it is specified that the pooled analysis of the interviews will be completely anonymous and a random sample of the results will also be made to verify their effectiveness.

The following interview will be done through the use of the telephone or a video conferencing platform (e.g. Skype), supported by part of the recording of the interview to be coded and analysed successively.

The interviews will be conducted by telephone or videoconference, depending on the needs of each interviewee. The interviews will be recorded with a sound recorder so that they can later be transcribed and further analysed in the analysis and results in phases. The interview will be conducted in Italian and before starting the recording, the protocol will be explained to each participant, only after that, the live interview will be started.

The interviews will be carried out in a natural and neutral context so as not to alter the results in any way.

The content of the recordings will be my responsibility and will be used only for my doctoral study.

Respondents will be informed before the study is published.

It will also have a maximum duration of forty minutes and will be supported by part of the notes and intangible information provided by the participants.

The annotations included in the qualitative interview will be coded according to the following elements: Direct observations; Interpretative annotations; Thematic annotations; Personal annotations; Annotations of participants' reactivity.

Meanwhile, the field diary will be established with the following information: a description of the environment; maps; a list of objectives; specific aspects of the research.

After having recorded and transcribed all the interviews, an Excel table will be prepared, consisting of some of the independent variables of my object of study and which I would like to study in-depth for the analysis of the Olympic Villages.

Finally, with the conclusion of the qualitative interviews, it will be possible to analyse and extract the most relevant data on the case of Turin and the Olympic Villages.

At the end of all analyses, I will provide a specific report only of the most interesting data and results related to my study hypotheses.

The information collected will be fundamental for my project and will also be of great help for the explanation and transcription of the results obtained.

Prototype

Carissimo Professore ,

I am Valerio della Sala, a PhD student in Urban and Territorial Planning at the Università Autonoma di Barcellona and also at the Politecnico di Torino.

Graduated in Sport Management in Italy and Spain, with research experience at IUSM, University of Bologna and Centro Studi Olimpici di Barcellona, they are specialised in multidisciplinary and comparative analysis and research on Olympic Games.

I am currently a member and participant of the organising committee of the SportComLab of the University of Bologna and a member of the committee of the Sports Research Institute of the Autonomous University of Barcelona.

Ho ricevuto il tuo contatto personale dal Centro di Studi OMERO dove ho svolto un periodo di ricerca di sei (6) mesi per analizzare il caso specifico della Villa Olimpica di Torino 2006 e per contribuire alla mia tesi di dottorato sull'analisi e la valutazione dell'impatto territoriale e urbano delle Ville Olimpiche.

La contatto in merito all'indagine qualitativa che devo svolgere affinché il mio studio possa avere dati qualitativi a supporto delle mie ipotesi iniziali. Their contribution would be fundamental to be able to strengthen my research hypotheses.

Your experience and your background have an intangible value for my research and I would also be very happy to share with you some of my reflections on the argument.

The qualitative interview is structured into thirteen (13) semi-structured open questions and one (1) open question to allow you to add your personal opinion on the argument.

The following discussion will take place by using the telephone or a videoconferencing platform (e.g. Skype), supported by part of the recording of the interview to be coded and subsequently analysed. In addition, the interview will be analysed and synthesised according to the indicators identified in my research methodology.

The content of the registrations will be my responsibility and will be used only for my doctoral studies.

Furthermore, I inform you that the interview will not require any personal data and the analysis of the data will be carried out in complete anonymity to guarantee its accuracy.

Il questionario è strutturato in tre (3) parti: 1. Profilo; 2. Impatto; 3.

Calendar availability: (Calendly or Calendar)

Resto a sua completa disposizione per qualsiasi chiarimento in merito.

Inoltre, dopo aver compilato il questionario, se ha tempo mi piacerebbe avere un parere personale sull'argomento in esame.

Grazie in anticipo per la sua disponibilità,

I migliori saluti,

Analysis protocol

The qualitative approach of the interview does not allow to approach a phenomenological design designed to propose questions about the direct experiences of the phenomenon theorised in my study. The participants will be selected for their common and different experiences in the realisation of planning of the Olympic Village in Turin.

To link the qualitative analyses, I will have to produce a classification system and define themes and theories.

The conceptual maps of the analysis will be differentiated for historical, social and relational contexts.

The categories will be explained fully and in-depth, looking at the relationships between the categories second the elements of temporality, causality and ensemble.

A phenomenological design has been chosen to describe and understand the phenomena from the point of view of each participant from a global perspective. Furthermore, this type of design allows me to contextualise the experiences in terms of temporality, space and relational context.

The analysis will be carried out in the following order:

- Determine and define the phenomenon
- Collect data from the different participants
- Analysing personal behaviour
- Identifying the units and categories (themes and patterns)
- Describe generically the experience
- Develop a narrative that includes descriptions and structure.

After having collected all the interviewees, the data will be exported in Excel and then, through the Atlas.ti software, the coding of the answers and the definition of the categories will be done. The data collection and the definition of the categories will be

done through the Atlas.ti software that will allow me to code the data (primary and secondary documents).

The main analysis technique will use the following elements:

1. Frequency
2. Relationship to the study hypotheses
3. Analogies
4. Transitions
5. Differences
6. Pronoun or similar
7. Data not mentioned
8. Relationship to the theoretical framework

The categories will be processed in the following stages:

1. Ranking
2. Lists of terms and keywords
3. Related words
4. Meta coding

Finally, once the data will be pre-analysed, the full analysis and the final report will be provided. It is specified that the most valuable information will be prioritised and not all the analysed relationships.

Coding

Meanwhile, the open-ended questions will be coded once we have all the participants' answers and the main trends among the answers. In this phase, we will try to close the open-ended responses through a pilot test, by coding the categories. The procedure will allow us to find the main patterns that will constitute the categories. The classification of the answers will be chosen according to themes or according to a logical aspect.

After the data have been collected and classified, we proceed with the preparation of the units of analysis that reflect an appropriate meaning and a first-level coding will be done with the following choice of units and categories of codes. The unit will be constituted by networks of codes, codes and citations. Finally, supporting documents and other related information will be added.

Subsequently, a description of the relationships between the categories will be provided to define the second level of relationships. Finally, the relationships and interconnections between categories and themes will be described and the most relevant results for the object of study will be explained.

Each code will be related to a category (label) to make the analysis easier to perform and to distinguish the categories from each other.

For example:

Different types of space

- EPP→ Public space
- EP→ Private space
- EC→ Commercial space

Thanks to the support of the Atlas. Atlas.ti software, the management of the codes will be easier and grouping categories can be developed.

In turn, the categories that are most frequent, most distinctive and those that have not been mentioned or have been mentioned little will be pointed out.

The categories will be chosen according to the different functions:

- Causality
- Interactions
- Consequences
- Strategies
- Context
- You intervene

The categories will be the subjects of the basic information related to the process and the reference phenomenon of my objectives.

After coding has been carried out to generate the categories, the main category that is at the centre of the study approach and the research process is selected. The core category or key phenomenon will then be related to other categories that will underpin the model or design theory.

After selective coding, the hypotheses will be provided and a commentary will be provided for each element and a final report with a description of the process or phenomenon.

The core category will be chosen by the following criteria defined by Strauss and Corbin (1998):

- Centre of the phenomenon→ Theme that explains most and contributes most to the variation in the data
- All or most of the categories are linked to it
- Must appear frequently in the data
- Its saturation is faster
- Their relationship must be logical

In the following, the categories and groups of categories that are most relevant to the hypotheses of the study are constituted.

Once all categories of values are coded, the codebook can be provided describing the locations of the variables and the assigned categories in an Excel matrix.

Structure of the questionnaire

Home page

On the cover page of the questionnaire, some elements have been added to graphically enhance the questionnaire and to favour the respondents' answers. Elements such as the title of the study and the logos of the universities were added to the cover page.

Introduction

The introduction of the questionnaire was developed according to the guidelines related to survey design, taking into account the following elements.

- General-purpose
- Importance of participation
- Acknowledgement
- Approaching time
- Explanation of the survey structure
- Confidentiality clause for the handling of individual information.
- Instructions

Prototype

The following research will be part of a multidisciplinary and comparative doctoral study on the analysis and evaluation of summer and winter Olympic Villages. The study aims to provide a complete picture of the evolution and evolutionary models of Olympic urban planning.

The research will be carried out at the Università Autonoma di Barcelona (UAB), through the participation of the Centro di studi Olimpici dell'Università Autonoma di Barcelona, the Istituto di Ricerca dello Sport (IRE) and in collaboration with the Università Politecnico di Torino.

The following interview will be carried out by telephone and recorded to be able to analyse the results in a subsequent phase using the indicators identified in the methodology of the research project.

The questions in their interest will not require more than forty (40) minutes and the answers will be reserved and anonymous to guarantee the reliability of the information.

The first part of the questionnaire is made up of specific questions on the interviewee's profile just to guarantee a preventive analysis of the profiles.

The content of the registration will be my responsibility and will be used only for my doctoral studies.

The persons interviewed will receive prior communication of the final results.

His contribution turns out to be of fundamental importance to be able to assess a correlation with my study hypotheses.

Infine, Le chiedo di rispondere al seguente questionario con la massima sincerità possibile poiché non ci sono risposte corrette o errate.

Final thanks

Thank you for your participation and its importance in the study.

Prototype

Apprezzamento per il contributo e la partecipazione.

La ringrazio per la sua partecipazione ed il suo contributo alla mia ricerca di dottorato.

Inoltre, voglio ringraziarla per il suo contributo nella realizzazione o nello studio dell'evento olimpico di Torino 2006.

2.5 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Intervista Semi-Strutturata

Protocollo

La seguente indagine farà parte di uno studio di dottorato multidisciplinare e comparativo sull'analisi e la valutazione dei Villaggi Olimpici estivi ed invernali. Lo studio mira a fornire un quadro completo sull'evoluzione e sui modelli evolutivi della pianificazione urbana olimpica.

La ricerca sarà svolta presso l'Università Autonoma di Barcellona (UAB), attraverso la partecipazione del Centro di studi Olimpici dell'Università Autonoma di Barcelona, l'Istituto di Ricerca dello Sport (IRE) ed in collaborazione con l'Università e il Politecnico di Torino (e in particolare OMERO, Centro Interdipartimentale di Ricerca dell'Università di Torino su Urban & Event Studies).

La ricerca viene svolta nell'ambito del Dottorato di ricerca in Geografia e in co-tutela con il Dottorato in Urban and Regional Development del Politecnico e Università di Torino (DIST-Dipartimento Interateneo Scienze, Progetto e Politiche del Territorio).

La seguente video intervista sarà video-registrata per poter analizzare i risultati in una fase successiva attraverso gli indicatori identificati all'interno della metodologia del progetto di ricerca.

Le domande nella loro interezza non richiederanno più di quaranta (40) minuti e le risposte saranno riservate e anonime per garantire l'affidabilità delle informazioni.

La prima parte del questionario è costituita da domande specifiche sul profilo dell'intervistato solo per garantire un'analisi preventiva dei profili.

Il contenuto della registrazione sarà di mia responsabilità e verrà utilizzato solamente per i fini del mio studio di dottorato.

Le persone intervistate riceveranno una comunicazione previa dei risultati finali.

Il suo personale contributo risulta essere di fondamentale importanza affinché si possa valutare una correlazione con le mie ipotesi di studio.

Infine, Le chiedo di rispondere al seguente questionario con la massima sincerità possibile poiché non ci sono risposte corrette o errate.

Profilo

1. Che ruolo ha avuto nella progettazione dell'Olimpiadi invernali di Torino del 2006?
 - a. Consulente
 - b. Planner
 - c. Responsabile
 - d. Ricercatore
 - e. Presidente
 - f. Coordinatore
 - g. Supervisore
 - h. Altro...

2. Ha collaborato direttamente con il TOROC? Se sì, quanto tempo ha collaborato? Dopo il termine della manifestazione ha continuato a collaborare con la fondazione 20 marzo 2006 (attualmente TOP)?
3. Ha contribuito personalmente ai dibattiti accademici sui Giochi Invernali di Torino 2006? Se sì in che area tematica?
4. Attualmente vive a Torino? Se sì, in quale quartiere?
5. Quale delle aree olimpiche predisposte per Torino 2006 conosce approfonditamente?

Torino 2006

1. Quali sono stati i cambiamenti più evidenti nella città e nel territorio piemontese indotti dai Giochi Olimpici Torino 2006?
 - a) Cambiamenti fisici
 - b) Cambiamenti di governance
 - c) Cambiamenti nella filosofia di intervento (best practice)

2. Come definirebbe?
 - a) La sostenibilità nei Giochi Olimpici di Torino 2006?
 - b) L'eredità della sostenibilità olimpica nel territorio olimpico di Torino 2006?

3. Secondo lei, quali sono gli esempi più rappresentativi riguardanti la sostenibilità olimpica nella città di Torino?

4. L'organizzazione dei Giochi Olimpici induce importanti trasformazioni nella città candidata. Nei Giochi Olimpici di Torino del 2006 in quale delle seguenti aree sono a suo avviso avvenute le trasformazioni più importanti?
 - a) Urbano
 - b) Ambientale
 - c) Sociale
 - d) Economico
 - e) Tecnologico

5. Quali delle seguenti problematiche sono sorte durante la pianificazione dei Giochi Olimpici di Torino?
 - a) Organizzativo
 - b) Uso del suolo e suo esproprio
 - c) Comunicazione

6. Come fu organizzata la governance durante l'Organizzazione di Torino 2006?
 - e) Leadership (politica o tecnica)
 - f) Processo decisionale (Stato o comitato organizzatore) (Sindaco)
 - g) Partecipazione all'economia pubblica, privata o mista
 - h) Regolamento (leggi specifiche e temporanee / permanenti)
 - i) Partecipazione degli stakeholder (globale, nazionale e locale)
 - j) Cooperazione (nuove strutture di collaborazione) (es HOLSA-BCN92)
 - k) Diversificazione e / o coordinamento di ruoli, compiti, ecc. (centralizzazione o decentralizzazione)
 - l) Monitoraggio e reportistica, ecc. (comitato o società esterna)
 - m) Gestione del patrimonio post-olimpico (eredità) (una nuova società pubblica o una joint venture?)
 - n) Livello di comunicazione (globale, nazionale o locale - sinergico)
 - o) Quale di questi fattori potrebbe essere la chiave del successo?

7. In relazione al Comitato Olimpico Internazionale

- a) Qual era / è ancora il tuo rapporto con la fondazione 20 marzo 2006?
- b) È possibile adottare un'unica visione progettuale in tutte le fasi del progetto olimpico?
- c) L'eredità post-olimpica necessita di una pianificazione specifica?
- e) Poiché i processi di pianificazione sono molto complessi, pensa che le città ospitanti debbano agire attraverso l'adozione di strategie a lungo termine?
- f) Secondo lei, il Comitato Olimpico Internazionale dovrebbe essere coinvolto nella fase di pianificazione del progetto olimpico?

Domanda specifica dell'intervistato sull'impatto.

1. Pensa che i benefici dei progetti e degli investimenti olimpici nella città di Torino e nelle valli olimpiche siano stati distribuiti equamente? In caso negativo, quali categorie di cittadini / aree urbane ne hanno beneficiato maggiormente? Quali territori montani?
2. Come si sono inseriti i Giochi Olimpici di Torino del 2006 nel lungo processo di pianificazione della città post-industriale di Torino?

Domande specifiche sui Villaggi Olimpici.

1. Secondo lei, quale dei Villaggi Olimpici progettati per Torino 2006 ha beneficiato maggiormente degli investimenti olimpici?
2. Il Villaggio Olimpico di Torino era inserito all'interno di un masterplan esistente?
3. La costruzione del Villaggio Olimpico di Torino era integrata nella strategia abitativa a lungo termine della città?
4. La costruzione dei Villaggi Olimpici era dotata di una destinazione d'uso specifica nel periodo post-Olimpico?
5. I Villaggi Olimpici del Sestriere e di Bardonecchia erano inseriti all'interno di progetti relazionati con la promozione turistica delle valli piemontesi?
6. La costruzione dei Villaggi Olimpici nelle comunità montane ha favorito un processo di espansione territoriale da parte della città di Torino?
7. Infine, secondo lei, le valli di mezzo sono state escluse dal progetto globale di Torino 2006?

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